Evaluating leadership development and practices: an empirical study of the banking sector in Kuwait

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PhD

2010
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Keywords: Leadership development, Leadership practices, Cross-cultural management, Kuwait banking sector, and Mixed method research.

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Submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

School of Management
University of Bradford

2010
Abstract

In recent years the important of leadership in the organization has become an area of interest. Leadership has been noted to impact corporate culture, employee commitment and response and the overall performance of the organization. Given the fact that leadership is such an important part of organizational development and discourse, effective methods for developing effective leadership in the organization are needed. Without definitive methods for leadership development, organizations will not be able to optimize the outcomes of leadership in the organization. Thus, there is a clear impetus to delineate what works best in the context of leadership development.

This study used concurrent qualitative and quantitative research to understand better the effect of cross-cultural influences on the leadership development programmes and leadership practices development in a study population consisting of managers and supervisors in the Kuwaiti banking industry. Although Kuwaiti organisations employ many international employees and operate foreign subsidiaries, they have not created leadership development programmes to improve cross-cultural leadership skills for managers. As a result, Kuwaiti managers often rely on traditional transactional methods and an authoritarian style of leadership that may be less effective with employees from different nations and cultural backgrounds.

The qualitative phase of the research collected data from Kuwaiti bank managers through interviews while the quantitative phase of the research collected data with survey instrument. The quantitative phase of the study also tested the validity of a conceptual model and hypotheses using structural equation modelling and regression analysis. The research was guided by distributed leadership theory, which considers leadership as a series of interactions between leader and follower with the follower sometimes adopting an informal role as temporary leader. The theory also considers the context in which the leader operates as a critical factor for motivating leadership practice.

The testing and validation of the theoretical model in the study led to the acceptance of a new 'Effective Cross Cultural Leadership' (ECL) model. This model describes the relationship between the exogenous or independent variables of cultural differences, training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, cross cultural leadership development programmes and international leadership practices with the endogenous or dependent variables of leadership development programmes and leadership practices development. The testing of the hypotheses of the study showed a statistically significant relationship between the four independent variables and the two dependent variables with exception of the relationship between the independent variable of international leadership practices and the dependant variable of leadership programmes development. The quantitative findings also indicated that demographic variables do not have a moderating effect on the model.

The qualitative findings of the study determined that cultural differences between employees and managers influence the managers' leadership behaviours and their understanding of the type of leadership development programmes to improve their cross-cultural leadership skills. Managers with greater experience or knowledge of
foreign cultures adopt more flexible leadership practices when leading international teams. The qualitative findings also determined that front office managers are more willing to use participative leadership styles in leadership practices, while back office managers rely on authoritarian leadership styles focusing on tasks in their leadership practices, indicating that the context influences leadership styles and practice.

The findings of the study including the development and validation of the Effective Cross-Cultural Leadership (ECL) model contribute to the theoretical and practical knowledge of cross-cultural leadership in Kuwait that can be extended to other Middle Eastern nations. In addition, the study finding extends cross-cultural theory by indicating that international influences both internal and external to the organisation affect leadership styles despite national norms and preferences. These findings implied that Kuwaiti organisations experience significant pressure to adopt some international leadership practices and styles to accommodate the expectations and needs of the many international workers employed in Kuwait. The practical implication of these findings showed that Kuwaiti managers would benefit from leadership training emphasising that no standard or correct approach to leadership exists and that it can be acceptable for leaders to use participative styles when warranted by the situation.
Acknowledgment

First thanks must go to my supervisor and the director of studies Prof. Nelarine Cornelius who gave me the benefit of her expertise, generosity, and friendship through the process of completing this study in a right track. Without her guidance, encouragement, instruction it could not have been done.

My appreciation also goes to my other supervisory Dr.James Wallace for his professional support in analysing the data and demonstrating statistical insights. Thanks for being part of my supervisory and for your guidance and assistance.

I would like to extend my thanks to all managers and supervisors working in the Kuwaiti banks for their participation and taking part in completing this study.

The most appreciation goes to my family who have been always standing by me and gave me reassurance and mental inspiration when it got hard. Without their lifting me up, this study should ever have been completed.

Finally, a special thanks go to my uncle Mr. Yaqub Malallah who is deeply I value and appreciate his role and made this opportunity possible by his sponsoring me from the beginning. I am forever grateful.
Dedication

Although the value of my gratitude cannot compare with everything they have done for me, I dedicate this work

➢ To my dearest parents; you made me who I am.

➢ To my all 3 sisters, I am proud of you.

➢ To my uncle Mr. Yaqub Malallah; you made my dream come true.
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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

Over the past several decades, globalisation has significantly influenced public and private businesses in Kuwait. Because the indigenous population in Kuwait is comparatively small, international employees that are often called guest workers comprise 83% of the total workforce and in some industries such as healthcare international workers comprise over 90% of the workforce (Al-Mailam, 2004). These international workers often provide important technical skills not available among Kuwaitis (Alansari & Al-Shehab, 2006). Kuwaiti businesses are also expanding internationally, with firms operating branches in Europe, Asia and North America. Because of the nature of the international workforce in Kuwaiti organisations, Kuwaiti managers are faced with the need to exercise effective leadership over individuals from many different cultures.

Leadership is broadly defined as the ability to motivate or inspire others to make a change in behaviour that results in the follower taking actions to achieve the goals and objectives established by the leader (Lord & Brown, 2004). Leadership can be considered effective when the follower is motivated to achieve the leader's goals (Campbell & Swift, 2004). Various leadership theories exist concerning the way in which the leader effectively motivates followers. The trait theory of leadership suggested that leadership is an innate quality based on the traits of the individual and cannot be learned (Ehrhart & Klein, 2001). The transactional theories of leadership adopt the premise that leadership involves the use of rewards and consequences to influence and control the behaviours of the followers, with any individual capable of
learning the behaviours (Miner, 2002). The transformational leadership theory postulates that the leader uses methods to inspire the follower to become self-motivated to adopt the goals and objectives set by the leader (Feinberg, Ostroff, & Burke, 2005). Distributed leadership theory suggests that leadership involves formal and informal relationships between leaders and followers in which responsibility for achieving goals is shared among members of a group or organisation (Spillane, 2006). The various leadership theories are an attempt to explain the complex construct of leadership and the variables that allow leaders to influence subordinates to achieve a goal or objective. The theories provide a framework for understanding leadership in Kuwait and the way in which leadership can affect outcomes in organisations with a workforce from different cultures.

In the operating model adopted by Kuwaiti firms in both the public and private sectors, Kuwaitis usually hold positions as managers. Although skilled international employees can hold managerial positions, they remain subordinate to a more senior Kuwaiti manager. The Kuwaiti managers are expected to have the necessary skills to effectively lead personnel from many different nations and to motivate them to achieve the goals established by the organization. Because few Kuwaitis have received formal leadership training, the managers often rely on the traditional leadership methods found in Kuwaiti culture (Al-Ansari & Al-Shehab, 2006).

The traditional leadership practices in Kuwait are based on Arab and Bedouin customs that are embedded in Kuwaiti culture. Kuwaitis generally consider the behaviours and practises of the individuals in positions of leadership in political, social, or economic organizations as leadership models that should be emulated (Abdallah & Al-Homoud,
Any action by a person in a position of responsibility in a social or commercial organization is considered as a manifestation of leadership. The individual in the position of leadership is expected to provide some benefit for the individual by ensuring that the organization meets the objectives expected by its members, which creates a stewardship perspective of leadership based on Islamic principles (Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2005). As a result, the leader is viewed both as a caretaker and as a distributor of rewards for the members of the organization based on their contribution (al-Mailam, 2004). A traditional leader in Kuwaiti culture is also expected to be benevolently authoritarian and directive, and does not delegate or collaborate with subordinates. The traditional Kuwaiti understanding of leadership also adopts a trait and charisma perspective in which the qualities essential for leadership are inborn in the leader and cannot be learned or acquired.

Globalisation has introduced foreign or cross-cultural leadership influences into Kuwaiti organisations through the employment of guest workers and the expansion of Kuwaiti businesses outside the nation (Rao, et al., 2006). In theory, increased contact with foreigners inherently introduces new ideas into a society that influence existing paradigms and practices (Rosen, et al., 2000). In addition, increased international operations of a business creates the need to harmonise leadership styles and approaches (Luo & Shenkar, 2006) Foreign employees of Kuwaiti firms working in Kuwait or in a branch located in a foreign nation often have expectations about leadership methods and styles that differ from the traditional leadership methods used by Kuwaitis. The differences in expectations for leadership methods and styles exist even among employees from cultures that are similar to that of Kuwait such as other Arabic or Middle Eastern cultures (Kabasakal & Dastmalkian, 2001). At the same time, the
presence of such a large number of foreign employees exerts pressure on Kuwaiti organisations to adopt different approaches to leadership to motivate and retain employees (al-Enezi, 2003).

Research examining cross-cultural leadership has determined that significant differences exist in the methods and styles used for leadership among various nations and cultures (House & Javidian, 2004; Kabasakal & Dastmalchian, 2001; Schwartz, 2004). Individuals adopt the norms and paradigms concerning expected leadership methods and styles from the culture in which they are raised (Popper, 2004). These national and cultural norms create expectations among individuals for the way in which a leader should behave. The leaders and their followers have preferences for certain leadership methods and styles derived from their indigenous culture (Fu, et al., 2004). The leadership methods and styles of a leader of a cross-cultural group interact with the expectations of followers to produce the leadership outcome. If the individual in a position of leadership behaves in the expected manner, the follower will respond by pursuing the goals set by the leader. In situations where Kuwaiti managers are faced with the need to lead guest workers from many different nations and cultural backgrounds, the values, norms, and expectations of employees add an additional set of variables that can influence the ability of the manager to lead effectively.

The increased need for cross-cultural leadership skills in Kuwait challenges the existing paradigms of Kuwaiti managers concerning appropriate leadership methods and styles (Macpherson, Kachelhoffer, & El Nemr, 2007). The use of the traditional Kuwaiti approach to leadership that is transactional and authoritative may not be effective for motivating and inspiring employees from different cultures with expectations that
leaders will be more transactional and collaborative. It is theoretically possible, however, to increase knowledge and understanding about cross-cultural leadership methods and styles from formal leadership development programmes and from informal contacts with individuals from other cultures (Mazrui, 1999).

The research examining the content of cross-cultural leadership development programmes has identified a variety of approaches that theoretically increase the competencies and skills of leaders. In general, a leadership development programme can provide various frameworks for managers to understand the differences in cultural norms or values such as the Hofstede (1985) cultural dimension model or the Schwartz (2004) national values model. In general, leadership development programmes provide the three elements of cultural awareness, cultural knowledge and specialised skills to employ in a cross-cultural leadership situation (Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006). Leadership development programmes can also provide managers with experience and support when applying theoretical knowledge to practical situations (Salas, et al., 2004). Specific skills that the programmes can teach include improving communications efficiency and conflict management (Barczak, McDonough, & Athanassiou, 2006). Obtaining the skills necessary to lead employees from different cultures is critical for improving efficiency and maximising the value of human assets for the organisation.

The effectiveness of development programmes for providing managers with the skills necessary for leading international teams, however, often depends on the human resources training and development philosophy of the organisation (Sims, 2002). The organisation must recognise that the skills necessary for leadership differ from other managerial skills. The organisation must also recognise that cross-cultural leadership
requires different competencies than used when leading a domestic and culturally homogenous group of subordinates.

1.2 Research Problem

The specific problem investigated in this study was the lack of leadership development programmes for managers responsible for leading cross-cultural work groups in Kuwaiti firms. Despite the increased cross-cultural influences in Kuwaiti society from international workers and expansion of global operations, few organisations and educational institutions have responded by providing managers with leadership development programmes. Kuwaiti managers often rely on the traditional transactional and authoritative approach to leadership that may be ineffective with employees from other nations (Al-Ansari & Al-Shehab, 2006). As a result, many Kuwaiti managers responsible for leading international teams either domestically or in foreign subsidiaries often lack the specialised knowledge and skills necessary to motivate and inspire subordinates from different cultural backgrounds.

The problem of insufficient cross-cultural leadership programmes in Kuwait manifests itself in different ways. A specific difficulty related to leadership in Kuwait is poor retention of international workers in the nation (Al-Mailam, 2004). One of the factors contributing to high turnover among employees is the use of traditional transactional leadership methods with an authoritarian leadership style, which may contribute to lower job satisfaction among some employees (Alotaibi, 2008). Because the majority of the Kuwaiti workforce consists of guest workers from foreign nations, reducing the turnover rate among skilled employees is important for the growth of the Kuwaiti economy (Al-Enezi, 2003). Another outcome of insufficient cross-cultural leadership
skills is a decrease in productivity. Employees that are not effectively inspired by a work team leader may not have a high level of motivation to perform their tasks (Rosen et al., 2000).

The nature of the problem is also evident from the understanding of leadership development common in Kuwaiti organisations. Leadership is often considered to be synonymous with management (Aballah & al-Homoud, 2001). The manager's responsibility is to organise both physical and human resources to achieve the organisational objectives. When directing subordinates in any manner, a manager inherently exercises leadership because of the authority vested in the position. This perspective of the interrelationship of leadership and management is the outcome of a cultural attitude in which individuals can direct others based on the power and authority of a position in an organisational hierarchy. Because of this paradigm, leadership training and development is not considered a discipline or body of knowledge separate from other management tasks. As a result, training for managers in leadership is not widely available in university courses or in organisational management development programmes in Kuwait and the other nations in the Gulf region (Al-Ansari & Al-Shehab, 2006).

Previous research has not extensively investigated the methods and practices Kuwaiti managers use in cross-cultural leadership situations (Macpherson, Kachelhoffer, & El Nemr, 2007). Previous research has also failed to identify the nature of the cultural differences that exist between Kuwaiti managers and their employees from other nations (Al-Mailam, 2004). In addition, previous research has not examined the effect of cross-cultural influences from globalisation on leadership development programmes in
Kuwait or the extent that managers have incorporated foreign leadership paradigms into their practises (Shah, 2007). As a result, there is insufficient information available to guide Kuwaiti organisations when creating cross-cultural leadership development programmes for staff.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this mixed methods study using concurrent qualitative and quantitative research was to better understand the effect of cross-cultural influences on the leadership development programmes and leadership practices development by complementing both numerical data from the testing of a quantitative model and the detail of a qualitative investigation in a study population consisting of Kuwaiti managers in the banking industry.

The qualitative phase of the study explored the effect of cross-cultural influences on the leadership methods and styles by collecting and analysing interview data from managers in Kuwaiti banks to provide an understanding of cross-cultural leadership among individuals in positions of leadership within private sector organisations. The quantitative phase of the study used a survey instrument to collect data from managers in Kuwaiti banks to develop a model and test hypotheses concerning the relationships between the independent variables of cultural differences, training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, cross-cultural leadership development, and international leadership practices to the dependent variables of leadership development programmes and leadership practises development. The quantitative phase of the study also tested the modifying effect of demographic variables on the relationship between the independent and dependent variables of the study. The purpose of the quantitative phase of the study
was also to test a theoretical model examining the relationship among the variables and to test hypotheses related to the model.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of the study are based on the purpose of the study and derived from the review of related literature presented in Chapter 2. These objectives are:

1. To increase knowledge and understanding of cross-cultural leadership in private organisations in Kuwait.

2. To develop and test a theoretical model explaining the main factors influencing cross-cultural leadership development and practices in Kuwait among managers in private sector banking organisations in Kuwait. The model integrates the theories related to leadership and cross-cultural factors influencing leadership with factors identified in the literature review that are relevant to cross-cultural leadership programmes development and cross-cultural leadership practises development in private sector organisations in Kuwait. These factors are the independent and moderating variables of the study.

3. To explore the understanding of managers in Kuwait concerning the current challenges and approaches to cross-cultural leadership and the type of training that should be included in cross-cultural leadership development programmes.

4. To provide new insights about the perceptions and practise of cross-cultural leadership in Kuwait that influence leadership development programmes that may be capable of generalisation to other similar developing nations.
1.5 Research Questions

The research questions for the study were derived from the purpose of the study and the review of related literature presented in Chapter 2. The research questions address the gaps in the literature resulting from a lack of extensive research examining leadership and cross-cultural leadership practice in Kuwait.

The main research question of the study is:

What is the relationship between perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership and leadership development among banking sector firms in Kuwait?

The main research question gives rise to the following questions to provide the information necessary to answer the main research question.

1. How do cultural differences between managers and employees influence perceptions of the role of the international team leader among Kuwaiti managers and non-Kuwaiti employees in banking sector firms in Kuwait?

2. What methods do Kuwaiti banks in the private sector use to provide cross-cultural leadership development opportunities for managers?

3. What is the effect of cross-cultural leadership development programmes on the leadership behaviours of managers and the perceptions of leadership effectiveness of employees in banking sector firms in Kuwait?

4. How can international practices including distributed leadership be used among banking sector firms in Kuwait to augment the cross-cultural leadership development programmes available to Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti managers?
5. How do demographic variables of nation of origin of domestic employees and nation of assignment of expatriate Kuwaiti managers and supervisors influence the cross-cultural leadership development programmes offered to Kuwaiti managers of banking sector firms?

1.6 Contributions of the Study

The study makes a contribution to general knowledge concerning cross-cultural leadership development programmes by identifying the factors influencing the formation of these programmes that may be applicable in nations other than Kuwait. Because cross-cultural leadership is a requirement for all organisations engaged in international operations, the findings of the study provide additional information about factors influencing cross-cultural leadership. In addition, the findings of the study provide insights concerning the way in which foreign cultural influences can shape perceptions of leaders and cross-cultural leadership development programmes. The development and testing of the theoretical model used in the study also offers a framework for understanding the interrelationship among factors influencing cross-cultural leadership development programmes that may benefit future research examining the cultural influences on leadership development programmes.

The study also makes a practical contribution to managers responsible for operating firms with international employees in Kuwait and other developing nations in the Gulf region with similar cultural characteristics. Previous research has not closely examined the practical implications of increased internationalisation of the workforce and the need to create leadership development programmes in Kuwait and other nations in the Gulf region (Al-Mailam, 2004; Macpherson, Kachelhoffer, & El Nemr, 2007). Nonetheless,
all organisations in Kuwait and similar nations have an inherent interest in ensuring that managers have sufficient training and skills to effectively lead the international workforce to maximise productivity and to achieve organisational goals. The findings of this study provide information concerning the attitudes of managers towards leadership, international employees, and leadership development programmes. This type of information is significant for assisting managers to understand the cross-cultural leadership problems faced by managers and for developing strategies to improve leadership skills. The findings also provide information for managers concerning the way in which cross-cultural leadership programmes should be designed to increase the skills of Kuwaiti managers responsible for leading employees from different cultures.

1.7 Scope of the Study

This research study targeted only banking sector in Kuwait, the local Kuwaiti banks. The scope of the study is to investigate of cross-cultural leadership and leadership development programmes among bank managers and supervisors in Kuwait.

The study examined only the theories, and perceptions and practices of the subjects related to leadership and cross-cultural leadership, although information from other fields of research was incorporated when related to leadership. The study investigated leadership and cross-cultural leadership only in the nation of Kuwait. This delimitation on the scope of the study was necessary to ensure that the national values and cultures of the subject were similar (Schwartz, 2004). It also ensured that the subjects providing data about leadership and cross-cultural leadership development practises were relating the information to a single cultural environment influencing the organisational environment.
Delimiting the scope of the study to a single industry was also necessary to reduce the possibility that industry-specific confounding variables such as differences in the degree of international operations or extent of employment of international workers would influence the findings of the study. Restricting the scope of the study to subjects in a single industry was also necessary because of the time and budget constraints of the research.

1.8 The Structure of the Thesis

This section provides an overview of the thesis contents, which begins with this introductory Chapter 1. This study is structured and consists of the following chapters:

Chapter 2 contains a review of literature related to leadership and cross-cultural leadership as it applies to leadership development programmes in Kuwait. Chapter 2 contains a discussion of the dominant theories of leadership that explain leadership methods and styles. It also contains literature describing the theories explaining cultural differences and how these differences affect leadership. In addition, the Chapter presents the findings of previous research investigating leadership in cross-cultural or international teams, which includes the specific problems that leaders encounter with followers from different cultural backgrounds. A section in the Chapter contains literature with the findings of researchers that have investigated leadership in Kuwait and other similar Arabic cultures. It also presents the existing research concerning leadership development programmes in Kuwait. The Chapter concludes with a brief summary.
Chapter 3 of the dissertation contains the conceptual model underlying the study, which include the broad constructs investigated by the research. The Chapter contains sections discussing the gaps in the literature that the conceptual model addresses and establishes the relationship between the conceptual model and the literature. This is followed by sections providing a working definition of the dependent variables of leadership programme development and leadership practices development and of the independent variables of cultural differences, training and development programmes in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, cross-cultural leadership development programmes, and international leadership practices. Chapter 3 also discusses the moderating demographic variables and the application of distributed leadership theory to the model. This is followed by a section presenting the hypotheses of the study tested in the quantitative phase. The chapter concludes with a brief summary.

Chapter 4 describes the methodology and the concurrent mixed methods research design used in the study. The Chapter provides a rationale for selecting the scientific paradigm of pragmatism that underlies the study, and for the use of a research design using both qualitative and quantitative methods. The Chapter contains a section describing the data collection instruments used in the qualitative and quantitative phases of the research. This is followed by a discussion of the data collection methods and a description of the sample population. The Chapter also discusses the qualitative content analysis procedure for analysing the data from the interviews and the quantitative regression and correlation analysis used to analyse the data from the survey questionnaire. The Chapter presents the limitations of the methodology and concludes with a brief summary.
Chapter 5 presents the findings of the quantitative phase of the study. The Chapter contains a section analysing the demographic data of the respondents to the survey questionnaire. This next section presents the theoretical model of the study and the testing of the reliability and validity of the model. The Chapter then presents the outcome of the testing of the various hypotheses in the quantitative phase of the study. The Chapter concludes with a summary of the quantitative findings.

Chapter 6 presents the analysis of the data obtained from the interviews with bank managers in the qualitative phase of the study. The coding of the data identified five themes categories of leadership methods, leadership styles, leading international employees or teams, the issues associated with employees from different nations of origin, and leadership development. Each of these theme categories is a section in the Chapter. The Chapter concludes with a summary of the data.

Chapter 7 contains a discussion of the findings and conclusions. It contains a section presenting an overview of the study. This section is by a section discussing the quantitative findings and a section discussing the qualitative findings. It also includes a comparison of the quantitative and qualitative findings. Chapter 7 also discusses the contributions of the study, limitations of the study, and suggestions for further research. The Chapter concludes with a brief summary.

1.9 Summary of the Chapter

International workers comprise the majority of the workforce in Kuwait, creating a need for managers in Kuwaiti organisations to exercise cross-cultural leadership with their employees. Kuwaiti managers do not receive extensive leadership training and rely on
the leadership approach embedded in traditional Kuwaiti culture. In this traditional approach, a leader is presumed to have natural traits and abilities to motivate followers to achieve the goals set by the leader. The leader generally uses transactional methods involving rewards and consequences and adopts a style of benevolent authoritarianism in relationships with subordinates. Globalisation, however, has introduced new leadership paradigms into Kuwait through international workers and the global expansion of Kuwaiti businesses. Globalisation has also created a greater need for cross-cultural leadership development programmes in Kuwait.

The specific problem investigated in this study was the lack of sufficient cross-cultural leadership development programmes for managers in Kuwait. Insufficient cross-cultural leadership skills can lead to higher turnover rates among foreign employees and lower productivity because of reduced job satisfaction. The problem may be the result of a perception among Kuwaiti organisations that leadership is synonymous with management with a manager inherently exercising leadership because of the authority vested in the managerial position. Previous research has not extensively examined the methods and practises of Kuwaiti managers in cross-cultural leadership situations.

The purpose of this mixed methods study using concurrent qualitative and quantitative research was to better understand the effect of cross-cultural influences on the leadership development programmes and leadership practices development by complementing both numerical data from the testing of a quantitative model and the detail of a qualitative investigation in a study population consisting of Kuwaiti managers in the banking industry. The qualitative phase of the study collected data using interviews with bank managers while the quantitative phase of the study collected
data using a survey questionnaire disseminated to bank managers. The data was analysed to answer the research questions of the study. The main research question of the study was: What is the relationship between perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership and leadership development among banking sector firms in Kuwait?

The study contributes to the general knowledge concerning cross-cultural leadership and the factors influencing cross-cultural development programmes. It also makes a practical contribution to managers faced with the problem of leading international teams in Kuwait by identifying the issues associated with cross-cultural leadership and potential strategies to improve the effectiveness of leadership. The scope of the study is delimited to an investigation of leadership and cross-cultural leadership and leadership development programmes among bank managers in Kuwait.

The following chapter presents a review of literature of leadership and cross-cultural leadership as it relates to Kuwait. The Chapter discusses theoretical models of leadership and theories of cultural differences. It also presents research examining leadership in Kuwait.
Chapter 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

There is a large body of research and theoretical literature related to cross-cultural leadership and leadership development. This chapter reviewed the extent of literature to identify the influence of cross-cultural on leadership development. The literature review is organized in sections consisting of:

a) the relationship between cross-cultural influences and leadership development on Kuwaiti private sector;

b) cross-cultural influences in Gulf and Middle Eastern nations;

c) cross-cultural leadership in international environment; and

d) understanding national values.

2.2 The relationship Between Cross-Cultural Influences and Leadership Development on Kuwaiti private sector

Leadership and the development of leadership have become more important in recent years, as organisations have progressed towards knowledge and service based economy. As such, notions such as top down, autocratic leadership are arguably no longer relevant (Callahan et al, 2007). Indeed, this view is supported by Pearce (2007) who conducted a review of seven journal articles focusing on the future of leadership development. This review details several potential options for leadership development professionals to follow to improve their development skills, and help create a modern and motivated workforce able to respond to the demands of the global economy.
Walumbwa et al (2008) took a different approach to leadership development, via the creation and testing of a theoretical model of leadership via studies on five sample populations from China, Kenya, and the United States. These tests confirmed the existence of a modern, higher order form of leadership, which the authors termed the “authentic leadership construct”. This construct is made up of several aspects: “leader self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective and balanced processing” (Walumbwa et al, 2008) and the results of the study demonstrated a positive relationship between authentic leadership and superior performance. This implies that existing theories and models of leadership development may not be sufficient, and must be developed and refined regularly.

Another recent approach to leadership development is the concept of problem based learning, which can be used to help develop real life leadership skills. Yeo (2007) identified the key factors, strategies and outcomes which can be associated with such an approach to training, via a study of an engineering firm in Singapore. This study was based on reflective inquiries, which were used to obtain qualitative data from two problem based learning trainers, and 18 senior managers. The results of the study showed that the problem based learning method is based on the development of three important factors. These are: defining the problem; communicating openly and honestly; and ensuring efficient utilisation of resources. However, the study also showed that ongoing support, outside of formal training sessions, is also vital in leadership development (Yeo, 2007). Finally, Trehan (2007) examined the important of psychoanalytic processes in assisting leaders to grow and learn through personal reflection. This study revealed that psychodynamic processes are based on examining the cultural and political factors which can affect the development process, thus helping
trainers and leaders to understand the complexity of modern leadership development (Trehan, 2007).

There has been little research specifically examining the effects of cross-cultural factors on leadership development in the Kuwaiti private sector. The empirical investigations of leadership have focused on identifying the methods and styles of leadership commonly used by businesses in the Kuwaiti nation. Nonetheless, the findings of some of the research imply that cross-cultural influences have some effect on leadership practices because of the large number of foreign workers employed in the Kuwaiti private sector. This section will consist of:

a) Leadership Theories and Cross-Cultural Factors  
b) Leadership Problem in Kuwait  
c) Traditional Leadership and Business Practices in Kuwait  
d) Cross-Cultural Leadership Influences in Kuwait  
e) Evidence of Changes in Leadership in Kuwait  
f) Changing Leadership Demands in Kuwait

2.2.1 Leadership Theories and Cross-Cultural Factors

According to Al-Mailam (2004, p. 278), leadership can be broadly defined as “the abilities to direct or guide others toward a goal.” To explain the subjective nature of leadership, several theories of leadership have evolved with different implications for the influence of cross-cultural factors on leadership development.

The early attempts to explain leadership led to the development of trait theory, which is also known as the “great man” theory (Ehrhart & Klein, 2001). In this theoretical approach, leadership is a characteristic natural for some individuals because of certain aspects of their personality or temperament. The leadership traits or talent enables
certain individuals to be effective in leadership roles while individuals without the traits cannot rise to leadership positions.

Research investigating the trait theory, however, was “unable to reliably quantify the traits of successful leaders” (Ferch & Mitchell, 2001: 71). Effective leaders of a group in a situation that presumably possessed the innate qualities of a leader were often ineffective with a different group or situation. Because of the difficulties with validating the trait theory, it was generally abandoned by researchers as a viable model to explain leadership. In part, the trait theories reflected the cultural values of the nineteenth and early twentieth century’s when individuals in positions of authority were presumed to have natural talents justifying their position. More modern theoretical approaches focus on behavioural and relational factors as the basis for effective leadership.

The inability of trait theory to explain leadership led to the development of the transactional leadership theories. These theories are based on the premise that leadership is related to the behaviours of individual (Miner, 2002). In effect, the leader engages in different types of behaviours intended to influence followers. In the general model of transactional leadership, the leader selects the type of behaviour necessary to influence the follower, which consists of the leader communicating the goals and objectives to the follower and providing information about the rewards for success and the penalty for failure (Bass, 1998).

The transactional theories are based on an assumption that both the leader and the follower are rational and will engage in a bargaining exchange in a manner to maximize their benefits. The leader’s objective is to ensure the follower takes the action necessary
to achieve the goal established by the leader while the follower’s objective is to maximize benefits for complying with the leader’s directives. The affective responses of the follower to the personality of the leader are not a consideration in transactional leadership (Lord & Brown, 2004). According to Bass (2000)

“Transactional leaders cater to the self-interests of their constituencies by means of contingent reinforcement, positive in the case of constructive rewards, praise and promises for constituents' success in meeting commitments to the leader and/or the organization (p.22).”

The transactional leadership theories are sometimes called contingency theories because the leader motivates the follower by providing a contingent reward. Fiedler’s contingency model of leadership developed in the 1960s was one of the early transactional theories (Chemers, 1997). In the contingency model, the leader determines the appropriate behaviour based on the motivation of the followers to perform a task and the relationship between the leader and the followers. The task motivation can be influenced by factors such as the structure or nature of the task. The relationship between the leader and followers can be influenced by the power of the leader to provide rewards or penalties and the degree of acceptance of the leader by the followers (Chemers, 1997). The contingency model became the foundation for two branches of subsequent transactional theories consisting of the situational and behavioural approaches to leadership.

The situational transactional leadership theory suggests that effective leadership is based on a combination of knowledge and social skills that the individual uses in a specific set of circumstances to inspire and motivate followers. The specific combination of
knowledge and social skills depends on the situation, the type of task that has to be performed and the characteristics of the followers. Situational leadership theory suggests that the specific practices used to lead effectively depend on the situation, which accounts for the difficulties researchers have had in assessing leadership (Miner, 2002).

The knowledge or behaviour that works well for a leader in one situation is not likely to work as well in another situation. In the theory, the leader must have both technical knowledge about the task and the interpersonal skills necessary to communicate and motivate followers (Yeakey, 2002). Situational leadership is sometimes referred to as adaptive leadership because the leader is required to continually adapt behaviours to the circumstances and needs of the follower (Yeakey, 2002). Although the theory implies there is an optimal type of leadership behaviour or action to achieve the leader’s goal and objective based on the circumstances, the theory does not fully explain how to assess the situation and identify the best leadership behaviours for the circumstances.

There are many transactional theories focusing on the behavioural approach to leadership. The different theories have developed because of the difficulty with the ability of the fundamental behavioural premise of transactional theory to account for the full range of factors influencing leadership (Bass, 2000). The behavioural theories also focus exclusively on the behaviours of the leader and presume that the follower disregards factors such as the relationship with the leader.

The path-goal theory of leadership is related to expectancy theory of motivation, which suggests that individuals make cognitive choices among possible alternatives based on expectations of the outcome. The path goal-theory focuses on the behaviours of the
leaders and the perceptions of the followers. The leader creates an expectation by explaining the reward for the desired behaviour or the punitive action from the failure to engage in the desired behaviour. The leader also explains the path that will result in reaching the goal providing the reward. The theory presumes the leader can motivate the rational follower to strive toward the goal with the reward structure. The follower, however, must perceive the leader to be in a position of controlling rewards and penalties (Miner, 2002). The leadership participation theory is a variation of the path-goal transactional leadership theory also based on expectancy. In this theoretical model, effective leadership depends solely on the behaviours and methods used by the leader (Miner, 2002). The quality or nature of the leader’s relationship with the follower does not affect the ability of the leader to motivate followers. The leadership participation theory assumes all followers will behave in the desired manner if the leader uses the appropriate type of rewards or penalties. A leader uses a directive or a participative approach depending on the situation and the characteristics of the followers.

Another transactional theory of leadership is the leader-member exchange (LMX) model. The theory assumes that leadership involves a series of social exchanges between the leader and the follower, which creates a social relationship among the leader and the followers (Uhl-Biehn, 2003). Because of the individual personality characteristics of the leader and the nature of group dynamics, the leader will create an in-group of followers and an out-group of followers. The leader is more likely to have significant or quality exchanges with the members of the in-group, which increases their motivation to achieve the goals set by the leader. In contrast, the poor quality of the exchange between the leader and the followers of the out-group reduces their motivation to pursue the leader’s goals (Campbell & Swift, 2004). The LMX theory suggests there
is a difference in the quality of the leader-follower dyads regardless of the size of the group followers because the leader tends to rely more heavily on individuals who appear most receptive to the leader’s style and methods.

Cognitive resources theory is another transactional leadership theory, which is closely related to the contingency theory. This theory suggests the cognitive abilities of the leader influence the outcome of the leadership process when the leader attempts to use a directive style of leadership. If the leader has technical knowledge about the task, the directive approach assists followers in reaching the objective. If the leader does not have sufficient cognitive skill or knowledge about the task, a directive style of leadership is likely to interfere with the ability of the followers to reach the objective (Miner, 2002).

The development of many different variations of transactional leadership theory may be because of the basic premise underlying the transactional approach to leadership. Because behaviour of the leader is the only factor contributing to leadership examined in the theory, only a few variables are presumed to influence leadership. As a result, research attempting to validate transactional leadership theories often encounters a substantial amount of variance not accounted for in the theoretical models (Lord & Brown, 2004). The shortcomings in transactional leadership theory led to the development of transformational theory, which attempts to incorporate a set of variables associated with relationships into the leadership process.

Transformational leadership is a model in which the leader focuses on the interests of subordinates and uses various behaviours to create a match between the interests of the individual subordinate and the interests of the organization (Miner, 2002). According to
Feinberg, Ostroff, and Burke (2005:471), “transformational leadership is essentially leadership that motivates followers to transcend their self-interests for a collective purpose, vision and/or mission.” In transformational leadership, the leader establishes the vision for the future and explains to followers how the individual and the group benefits from a combined or collaborative effort to make the vision a reality. The leader encourages followers to adopt the vision of the future as their own, which theoretically increases the motivation of the follower to perform the tasks necessary to achieve the goal. The transformational leadership approach theoretically reduces the need for the leader to supervise and direct the activities of followers. It is called transformational because “transformational leaders motivate their followers to perform beyond normal expectations by transforming their thoughts and attitudes (Wofford, Whittington, & Goodwin, 2001). In theory, the leader implements transformational leadership methods by appealing to the higher order needs of followers such as the desire for advancement or the desire for achievement. At the same time, the transformational leader can use tangible rewards to motivate followers (Miner, 2002).

Bass (1985) originally formulated transformational leadership theory from field observations demonstrating the importance that the leader ensures that followers fully comprehend the benefits to the follower from reaching the objective. The research also indicated that leadership was more effective when the leader encouraged followers to form cohesive work groups to achieve the objective, with the interests of the individual merging with the interests of the group. The role of the leader is to establish a balance between the goals and objectives of the organization and the needs of the followers. The theory developed by Bass (1985) was extended to include some of the concepts of earlier researchers such as Burns concept of malevolent as well as benevolent
transformational leaders (Miner, 2002). In effect, the most effective form of transformational leadership produced the desire for leadership development among followers. In addition, transformational leadership can produce a symbiotic or synergistic relationship in which the follower responds to the leader by adopting leadership behaviours while the leader’s behaviours are reinforced by the follower’s response. Although the leader initially motivates the follower, the follower’s response is capable of motivating the leader.

The theoretical model of transformational leadership includes many of the leadership behaviours found in transactional leadership theory, which can be used to motivate and inspire followers. The difference between the transactional and transformational leadership theories is in the underlying premise about the fundamental social mechanism involved with leadership. Transactional leadership assumes only the behaviour of the leader influences the follower while transformational leadership assumes it is the relationship between the leader and the follower that is critical for effective leadership. At the same time, transformational leadership theory can accommodate the factor of charisma identified in trait theory because “leaders are endowed by their followers as having extraordinary capabilities, persistence, and determination” (Bass, 1998: 5). Gibson, Hannon, and Blackwell (1998), however, indicated that the effectiveness of a charismatic transformational leader may depend on the motivations of the leader. Leaders focusing on their self-interest rather than the interests of the followers may be less effective in meeting organizational objectives. From this perspective, transformational leadership theory is an attempt to develop a unified theory of leadership that includes the observations and assumptions of previous leadership theories.
The transformational model views effective leadership occurring in various dimensions that include some of the earlier behavioural models in transactional theory. In the transactional approach, effective leadership can be based on an exchange between a leader and a subordinate or it can be based on other factors connected to the relationship between the leader and follower such as empowerment or charisma (Barbuto & Burbback, 2006).

In transformational leadership theory, leaders can use the general transactional or exchange approach to motivate followers. The leader can also use the specific behaviours necessary for the circumstances believed to be effective under transactional theory. Followers perceive leaders with a strong ability to inspire and motivate followers are perceived as charismatic, although the charisma may not be an innate trait (Feinberg, Ostroff, & Burke, 2005). The transformational theory also accommodated the situational leadership approach because leaders can use transactional methods such as providing rewards and penalties at the same time they use transformational methods such as leadership development of followers. The specific approach a transformational leader uses depends on circumstances. In effect, the transformational leadership theory views charisma, cognitive knowledge and skills, and an individualized approach to motivation and inspiration as the essential factors for effective leadership (Barbuto & Burbback, 2006).

According to Wofford, Whittington and Gifford (2001:208), “transformational leaders may be more effective in some environments than they are in others.” Empirical research investigating transformational leadership found that leaders adapt their behaviours to the needs of individual subordinates rather than behaving in a similar
manner to all subordinates. As in situational leadership, the transformational leader adapts behaviour and techniques according to the needs of the individual follower. In addition, the specific organizational or social environment preconditions followers to be more or less responsive to transformational leadership methods. Transformational leadership is less effective in environments in which followers are discouraged from acting independently to achieve goals and objectives. In contrast, environments fostering a strong need for growth or professional development among followers and encouraging the desire to accept additional responsibility results in better outcomes for transformational leadership approaches. From this perspective, the effective leader must assess the environment as well as the needs of followers to determine the most effective leadership approach for the circumstances. At the same time, it supports the contention of Bass (1998) that transformational leadership theory includes transactional leadership methods, which should be used as necessary to motivate followers.

Relational leadership theory is a relatively recent addition to the field of leadership research. The theory is based on the premise that leadership is a process occurring in a social environment which defines the relationship between the leader and the follower and creates expectations among the followers for appropriate leadership behaviours (Uhl-Bien, 2003). The social environment establishes a set of explicit and implicit rules for the behaviour of leaders and followers. The social environment may be specific to an organization, and can be influenced by factors such as human resources policy and traditions. The social environment can also include larger cultural norms and values influencing leader and follower behaviours. Relational leadership theory suggests the role of the leader is to motivate or encourage followers to adopt the common vision of the members of the specific social environment and participate fully in the effort of the
group to achieve common goals and objectives (Ferch & Mitchell, 2001). The relational approach is also an attempt to create a unified theory of leadership accounting for all of the variables associated with leadership practices and the responses of followers. Relational leadership theory considers the leader and followers in a collective relationship, which contrasts to the assumption of a dyad relationship between leaders and individual followers found in other leadership theories (A New World, 2006). Relational leadership theory is also based on the premise that the leader cannot control followers, with effective leadership requiring the cooperation of followers. If the follower is willing to cooperate, the leader selects the most appropriate behaviour or technique to inspire and motivate the follower. Relational leadership theory is also derived from LMX transactional theory, but extends the original premise by presuming the follower has significant responsibility for the effectiveness of the leadership process (Campbell & Swift, 2004).

A large number of organizational, cultural and personality variables interact to influence the follower as well as the leader. The leader is responsible for providing the follower with benefits such as inspiration, guidance, and security about the position of the follower in the group. The leader also assumes responsibility for achieving the objectives set for the group. The follower has the responsibility of accepting the goals and objectives defined by the leader and to provide assistance to the group to achieve the objectives (A New World, 2004).

Based on the social signals from the group, the leader adjusts behaviours and methods to conform to the expectations of the group for effective leadership. A follower who does not accept the leader’s objectives or methods can be forced to conform if the leader
has enough organizational power, but the productivity of a coerced follower will be lower than the productivity of an inspired follower. An implication of relational leadership theory is the possibility of a distinction between leaders selected by followers and leaders appointed to a position of authority by the institution. The leaders selected by followers have an advantage in exercising leadership because of the greater likelihood the followers will be cooperative (Krosigk, 2007).

According to Hernez-Broome and Hughes (2004: 29), “future leaders will need to be conversant in doing business internationally and conceiving strategies on a global basis.” Because of globalization, leaders are increasingly required to interact with followers from different cultural background. At the same time, there are significant cultural differences in the expectations for behaviours among leaders and the responses of followers to the methods and styles used by leaders. At the present time, controversy remains among researchers about whether globalization and increased cross-cultural contact is resulting in convergence of paradigms and practices of leadership (Fu, et al. 2004).

Popper (2004) suggested that some of the theoretical issues related to the investigation cross-cultural leadership may be because of attribution bias. According to Popper (2004: 110), there is research evidence suggesting that “leadership prototypes stored in the mind may different cultures.” The leadership prototypes create a framework for interpreting the behaviours and influence of leaders. As a result observers from different cultures can have different understandings of the way a specific behaviour by a leader may or may not have influenced a follower.
There are various theoretical propositions suggest that culture or national character is the most influential factor governing the type of leadership styles used in a cultural environment. Culture influences the preference and use of specific leadership styles among both leaders and followers. Bass (2000), however, suggested leadership is a universal construct, with leadership methods and processes remaining the same regardless of national culture. Bass (2000) further contended that transformational leadership approaches are considered more effective than transactional methods in all cultures. The data from existing studies about the effect of culture on leadership, however, has produced conflicting findings (Judge, 2001).

Leadership categorization theory suggests that the perception of a follower of another individual as a leader depends on the closeness of the match between the expectations of the follower of leadership methods and the actual leadership methods used by the leader (Broadbeck et al., 2000). In this model, the cultural norms of the both the leader and the follower create expectations about the methods and style that a leader should use when influencing a follower. The follower compares the leader’s behaviours to a cognitive prototype to determine if the behaviours conform to the concept of leadership. If the leader and follower are from the same culture, there is a greater likelihood that the expectations will be similar. If the leader and follower are from different cultures, there is a greater likelihood the methods used by the leader will not conform to the expectations of the follower, reducing the leader’s influence.

Judge (2001) investigated the effect of culture on the personality, value and spiritual characteristics of organizational leaders. The research was essentially based on the trait theories of leadership. The objective was to determine if cultural factors produced
leaders with significantly different characteristics in a sample population consisting of Taiwanese and American CEOs. The findings showed significant differences between the two groups for the three characteristics assessed in the study. The author drew the conclusion that culture affects the type of behaviours expected from leaders, with individuals displaying the characteristics more likely to achieve formal positions of leadership in organizations.

According to Chen, Tjosvold, and Fang (2005: 266), however, researchers are increasing recognizing “the limitations of this approach; knowing how individuals are apt to differ in their values only provides general assistance in facilitating productive collaboration between culturally diverse individuals.” In effect, understanding the nature of the differences in leadership methods and expectations produced by culture does not provide assistance with developing cross-cultural leadership skills. Based on qualitative data from interviews with managers and employees in foreign-owned firms in China, Chen, Tjosvold and Fang (2005) developed a conflict management model to strengthen the relationship between leaders and followers from different cultures. Because of the differences between the approaches to leadership among cultures, some type of conflict is inevitable in situations where a leader and followers are from different cultures.

An investigation of the effect of culture on influence behaviours conducted by Fu et al. (2004) found that culture determines the types of behaviours a leader is likely to select when attempting to influence the behaviour of a follower. In addition, culture has an effect on the type of behaviours followers respond to in a leader. Fu et al. (2004) identified three behavioural strategies leaders use to influence subordinates as
persuasive, assertive and relationship-based behaviours. In the persuasive approach, the leader can use rational argument, inspirational appeal, or participative consultation to elicit the cooperation of the follower. In the assertive approach can use persistence through close supervision, pressure through the use of punitive measures, or upward appeal to obtain the assistance of a leader with greater authority to influence the follower.

The increased importance of multinational corporations in the global economy has led to the development of a convergence model in which the firms are agents for standardizing human resources practices and leadership methods. The multinational corporation is presumed to pass through three stages in its development. Firms initially entering the international market attempt to replicate the human resources and leadership practices of the home nation, with the standardization of internal processes an attempt to reduce the uncertainty associated with entering new markets (Briscoe & Schuler, 2004). Expatriate managers provide the majority of the operational supervision in other nations in a cross-cultural leadership situation. These managers often use the leadership practices and methods that were successful in their home country because human resources systems have not developed a comprehensive cross-cultural leadership training approach. If the firm is successful and expands in the international environment, the firm gradually recognizes the importance of diverse human resources as a source of competitive advantage.

The human resources system and the employees of the firm gradually increase their ability to manage and integrate different cultural perspectives. Over time, the values, norms and beliefs of the managers and employees from subsidiaries located in different
parts of the world influence the leadership practices in the organization and create a trend towards global convergence of human resources and leadership paradigms.

According to Stroh et al. (2005: 4), “all companies need to make developing globally capable employees a top priority.” The leadership development approach used by many multinational corporations, however, does not appear to focus on ensuring managers in positions of leadership have acquired the knowledge and skills necessary to manage individuals from different cultures.

The human resources approach to cross-cultural leadership development used in most firms appears to involve identifying the traits or skills necessary in a leader such the ability to understand people from different cultural, ethnic or religious backgrounds (Stroh, et al., 2005). The human resources approach used by many firms, however, does not clearly indicate the way in which expatriate managers can develop the necessary leadership knowledge and skills. The expatriate manager is selected based on the assumption the manager already possesses many of the requisite leadership skills such as knowledge of the host culture and conflict resolution methods.

Sims (2002) suggested that the requirements of multinational corporations to acquire human resources from many different nations and cultural backgrounds have led to the growth of standardized international human resources practices. The international human resources approach involves balancing the conflicting objectives of implementing the same general set of policies and practices throughout the organization while allowing sufficient flexibility to accommodate cultural differences. The human
resources system also establishes the general organizational culture influencing the approach to cross-cultural leadership issues.

Broadbeck et al. (2000) investigated the cultural differences in leadership among business organizations in Europe to assess the degree of convergence. Because European businesses have become more closely integrated over the past fifty years because of the formation of the European Union, leadership approaches and styles should theoretically exhibit a significant amount convergence. The process of convergence is fostered by practical necessity as the personnel in multinational organizations become culturally diverse.

The research used the GLOBE data collected about leadership and cultural perceptions of managers of organizations. The findings showed substantial similarities in some leadership attribution scales such as visionary, performance oriented, and inspirational. The findings suggested a trend towards convergence of the perceptions of the basic attributes contributing to leadership among European countries. At the same time, the findings indicated there were cultural variations in the specific way the attribution scales were interpreted. The conclusion of the authors suggests that the general trend is toward convergence in cross-cultural perceptions of leadership, but the process remains strongly influenced by differences in national cultures.

Leadership theory as well as prior research has determined that cultural differences exist in leadership styles and preferences (Judge, 2001). The degree of cross-cultural influence on leadership and leadership development approaches, however, remains uncertain (Al-Mailam, 2004; Judge, 2001). According to Abdulla and Al-Homoud
(2001: p. 503), “organizations are embedded in social/cultural environments and the latter exert their pervasive influence on the organizational actors.”

Hofstede (1980) developed a theoretical framework for the assessment of cross-cultural differences across four dimensions. The dimensions are identified as power distance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity and uncertainty avoidance. Each of these dimensions represents a continuum, with the specific cultural perspective found at some point within the continuum. In this theory, individuals from two cultures located at roughly equivalent positions in the continuum are likely to have similar values and beliefs, reducing the possibility of cultural misunderstanding. If the individuals from two cultures are located at widely different points within the continuum, they do not share similar beliefs and values, increasing the potential for conflict.

Rosen et al (2000) developed a cross-cultural leadership model based on research investigating the leadership methods and perspectives of senior managers in 18 nations. The model contains four types of cultural influences affecting business leadership. The global culture establishes general influences related to broad trends such as globalization and technology, which provide leaders with knowledge about different leadership approaches. The national culture establishes the traditional or historical influences on business leadership. These cultural factors can include religious precepts about leadership, the historic examples of political leadership methods, and the economic situation of the nation. The third type of influence comes from the business culture in the nation, which establishes the leadership expectations for managers and employees. In general, business leaders in a nation generally adopt similar styles of leadership and employees have similar expectations for the type of leadership style used
by managers. The fourth group of factors influencing business leadership is the specific leadership culture established in the organization. Because of the different personalities of the individual leaders in firms, each company has a unique culture. In this model, only the first group of factors related to global culture produces significant cross-cultural influences. As a result, cross-cultural influences in a business increase in proportion to the degree the business interacts with businesses outside the home nation.

### 2.2.2 Leadership Problem in Kuwait

A specific problem related to leadership in Kuwait is retention of personnel, particularly among foreign workers (Alotaibi, 2008). The leadership methods most often found in Kuwait are based on the traditional approaches derived from Kuwaiti culture (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001). As a result, managers in private organizations frequently use transactional leadership methods and directive or authoritarian leadership styles (Al-Mailam, 2004). Because of the rapid growth of the Kuwaiti economy in the past decade and the preference among Kuwaitis for public sector employment, foreign workers compose a large portion of the workforce in the private sector. According to Al-Enezi (2003), the composition of the workforce in Kuwait is approximately 17% Kuwaitis and 83% foreign employees. In some industries such as healthcare, the percentage of foreign workers can be as high as 90% (Al-Mailam, 2004). The private organizations remain under Kuwaiti control, with the Kuwaiti owners establishing the organizational culture based on the norms and values of the nation. The private firms, however, have high turnover rates among foreign personnel, with the leadership methods and style used by Kuwaitis one of the factors contributing to the turnover (Alotaibi, 2008).
The high turnover rates create an incentive for Kuwaiti managers to alter their leadership methods to conform more closely to the preferences of the foreign workforce. From this perspective, the large number of foreign workers employed by private firms may have created a cross-cultural influence prompting some change in traditional leadership approaches in the nation. At the same time, the global commercial activities of Kuwaiti firms have resulted in additional cross-cultural leadership influences (Rao et al, 2006). The literature does not clearly indicate whether cross-cultural influences have substantially affected leadership in the private sector. There is some evidence, however, suggesting that the presence of foreign workers in the nation and international commerce have prompted the use of more transformational leadership approaches (Alotaibi, 2008; Al-Mailam, 2004).

2.2.3 Traditional Leadership and Business Practices in Kuwait

Traditional cultural influences on leadership and business practices in Kuwait include Islamic values and Bedouin traditions (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001). In the model of cultural influences proposed by Rosen et al (2000), the Islamic and Bedouin traditions are part of the national culture influencing leadership behaviour in business. In the Islamic and Bedouin traditions, leadership is broadly defined as the behaviour of the individuals in positions of leadership in political, social, or economic organizations (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001). From this perspective, any action by an individual in a position of authority qualifies as leadership. The definition makes no judgment about the effectiveness of the action for motivating followers to achieve organizational goals. At the same time, the traditional philosophy of leadership indicated the leader is responsible for the welfare of the organization and its members. In traditional Bedouin tribal structure, the leader does not share or delegate responsibility with others, and does
not consult with subordinates prior to reaching a decision (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001). Because of these factors, authoritarianism and paternalism characterize the traditional approach to leadership in Kuwait. In addition, the traditional views of leadership adopted the trait perspective in which some individuals have innate abilities qualifying them to hold positions of leadership.

Kuwaiti organizations tend to be hierarchical and highly centralized with leadership power concentrated in the individuals in the highest positions in the hierarchy (Alansari & Al-Shehab, 2006). The cultural paradigms also foster the development of elite and non-elite groups, with the elite group receiving more benefits and enjoying greater responsibility in the organization than non-elite individuals. The leader of the organization places greater trust in individuals in the elite group to carry out directives that manage the activities of the non-elite members of the organization. Most modern Kuwaiti organizations have a hierarchical structure with indigenous Kuwaiti managers as the elite group in the organization while international workers are the non-elite group even if the worker has a nominal position as manager in the organization. Nepotism and favouritism are also characteristic of the relationship between the leader and followers in Kuwait, which narrows eligibility for membership in the elite group even among indigenous Kuwaitis (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001).

In this approach, authority or power is centralized in the elite managers of the organization who have full control over all decisions. The non-elite employees accept control by the senior managers who theoretically provide clear directives to employees. In effect, the leader is responsible for the welfare of the organization and its members because of has special charismatic skills others in the organization do not possess. The
hierarchical structure enables the leader to exercise greater control over the activities of employees. In the business culture evolving from these traditional norms, the members of the organization are expected to follow the directives of leader without the need for the leader to provide specific motivators.

Power can be defined in terms of influence for psychological change which involves the adoption of new behaviours, attitudes, goals and values and the ability of the individuals to overcome resistance on the others. (French & Raven, 1985). Power in a social context is the ability of an individual to produce change by influencing a social agent, which may be another individual, a social norm, or a group. The strength of the power of the individual is the maximum potential to influence psychological change in others or in a social system, and is derived from social circumstances. Power in social systems is the ability to produce deeper change in others so that they come to accept the desired behaviours, attitudes, goals, or values as their own (Don et al., 1978).

Power can affect the type of leadership methods in Kuwait for the international workforce by influencing workers from diverse cultures to adopt greater tolerance and acceptance for the cultural differences with co-workers and managers. Managers can exert power using the social structures in their organisations to influence their subordinates to adopt the change in behaviours, attitudes, goals, and values necessary to collaborate effectively and achieve the objectives of the organisation. Managers should also recognise the difference between the power inherent in their positions that results in external conformity among subordinates and the power of social influence that can produce enduring change among subordinates. The power of social influence involves
knowledge and skills that must be developed for the manager to become an effective social authority in the workplace.

During the rapid economic development in Kuwait over the past several decades, most public sector organizations have continued to use the traditional authoritarian leadership approach. The public sector employs the majority of indigenous Kuwaiti population, with the public agencies using hierarchical organizational structures (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001). Research investigating the perceptions of Kuwaitis also found a preference for the traditional method of transactional and authoritarian leadership (Al-Mailam, 2004), with the majority of Kuwaitis employed by the public rather than the private sector.

Abdalla and Al-Homoud’s (2001) analysis of data from leadership interviews with middle managers in Kuwait suggested many Kuwaitis view leadership from the perspective of the trait theory of leadership. The interviewees described effective leaders as visionary and charismatic, but remaining within the boundaries of law and accountability. The interviewees also believed effective leaders should possess knowledge and technical skills appropriate to the organization and act as role models for others. An unexpected finding of the study was the belief that effective leaders should adopt a consultative approach when making decisions affecting followers. At the same time, the interviewees noted that the consultative approach was rarely used by Kuwaiti organizational leaders.

The data reported by the Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness survey conducted in 2000 provided an indication of Kuwait’s position in Hofstede’s
(1980) framework (Kabasakal & Dastamalkian, 2001). The survey found Kuwaiti managers were close to the global median for uncertainty avoidance and power distance. This finding suggested that Kuwaiti managers are willing to take risks but are not reckless. The finding also indicated that there was a moderate amount of formality in the relationships between leaders and followers. The Kuwaitis, however, were significantly higher in the collectivism dimension and significantly lower in the masculinity femininity dimension than the global median. These findings suggested that Kuwaiti managers attempt to collectively distribute resources and have low gender egalitarian values. In addition to the four primary cultural dimensions examined in the survey, the data indicated Kuwaiti business culture has a comparatively low future orientation, emphasizing short-term planning (Kabasakal & Dasmalkian, 2001). These findings can function as a baseline for the culture orientation of managers in Kuwait towards leadership. Kuwaiti managers in private firms with employees from cultures with substantially different orientations may have to vary approaches to leadership to conform to the expectations of staff.

An investigation of conflict management styles used by leaders in Kuwait found the most common approaches were integration, avoidance and compromise (Al-Ajmi, 2007). The integrative and avoidance approach to conflict resolution is often used in cultures with a collectivist orientation because it promotes harmony for the collective distribution of resources (Kabasakal & Dasmalkian, 2001). Compromise was used only when there was relatively low power distance between the two individuals in a conflict, such as a dispute between two managers in the same position within the hierarchy of the organization. In these circumstances, compromise was also a method to promote harmony of the group without creating a conflict with an individual in a similar position.
in the organizational hierarchy. At the same time, there is some evidence suggesting that
Kuwaiti leaders rely on authoritarian methods of leadership when there is a substantial
difference between the leader and the follower in the organizational hierarchy (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001).

2.2.4 Cross-Cultural Leadership Influences in Kuwait

While there is no universal definition of culture, the term generally comprises the
language, religious beliefs, customs, material goods, and values shared by a specific
group of people (Bode, 2007, p. 7). Hofstede's (1985) definition of culture emphasis its
psychological components by considering it a programming of the mind shared by
individuals in specific group, which differs from other groups. This definition places
greater emphasis on the intangible attributes of culture such as norms, values, and
customs than on the tangible artefacts that can be associated with culture. Culture is also
defined as a social phenomenon because it is a construct created by social interaction
among individuals that is implicitly and explicitly communicated to members of a
specific social group.

Cross-culture can be broadly defined as interactions between individuals from different
cultural groups in which differences in norms, values, behaviours, and customs become
apparent to the interacting individuals (Tribe & Morissey, 2005, p. 238). Cross-cultural
interactions involve signifying behaviours in which each individual codifies and
transmits cultural information to other individuals although they may not be aware of
the process. This implicit communication occurs through actions and statements with
latent cultural meaning. As a result, individuals consciously and unconsciously compare
and evaluate the cultural indicators of individuals from different cultures. Cross-culture
can also be defined as the study of the differences in cultures. The degree of difference between cultures can influence the comparison and evaluation processes.

The literature indicates that cross-cultural influences on leadership development in Kuwait come from the two sources of expatriate managers working in Kuwait and the economic reliance of the nation on international commerce (Abdalla & Al-Hamoud, 2001; Rao, et al., 2006). The presence of a large number of foreign workers in private Kuwaiti firms has introduced different cultural perspectives about leadership and appropriate leadership methods (Al-Mailam, 2004). In addition, Kuwaiti firms are extensively involved in international commerce, and many multinational firms operate in the nation. As a result, global business relationships have introduced the leadership methods and business practices of the international community (Rao, et al., 2006).

Many private-sector firms in the nation employ a large number of foreign professionals (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001; Al-Enezi, 2003; Al-Mailam, 2004). Both public and private firms initially began employing foreign professionals to support the development of oil production and related industries. The high per-capital income generated by oil revenues has diversified the economy, with private sector firms engaged in a wide range of commercial activities. Because of the small size of the population of Kuwait, foreign professionals are necessary to provide technical skills not available in the indigenous workforce (Alansari & Al-Shehab, 2006).

The foreign workers, which are often termed guest workers, bring with them various perspectives and values relating to leadership preferences. If the leadership methods and styles experienced by foreign staff in Kuwait do not meet their expectations,
productivity can decrease and the foreign employees may not renew their contracts. Abdalla and Al-Hamoud (2001) also found the owners of Kuwaiti private firms often employ foreign managers when no indigenous manager is available. The foreign managers tend to use transformational methods and participatory leadership styles, which do not conform to the leadership expectations of Kuwaiti staff. These managers were selected because of their technical and functional abilities, with little consideration for the potential of conflict because of the leadership methods used by the managers.

Al-Enezi (2003) indicated the majority of the foreign workers in Kuwait are from Arab and Asian nations. The employees from Arab nations have similar cultural backgrounds to the Kuwaiti population. Nonetheless, Kabasakal and Dastmalkian (2001) reported significant variations among individuals from Middle Eastern nations in factors such as uncertainty avoidance. The employees from Asian nations have leadership expectations differing substantially from traditional Kuwaiti values in dimensions such as collective orientation. Although employees from Europe and the United States compose a comparatively small percentage of the workforce, these employees generally have low power distance expectations and place a greater value on gender equality. The composition of the foreign work force leads to the conclusion that the cross-cultural influences from foreign workers in Kuwait are varied. The cross-cultural influences for a specific firm may depend on the composition of its workforce and the extent of its international commercial activities.

Ali and Al-Kazemi (2005) conducted a study to identify the work values and orientations of managers employed in the private sector in Kuwait. The research gathered data using a survey questionnaire from 752 managers. The sample population
included both Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti managers. The findings showed there was a high correlation between the work values related to industriousness and organizational commitment. The findings, however, also showed significant demographic differences in the study population. Non-Kuwaiti managers and female managers had higher work values and greater organizational commitment than male Kuwaiti managers. The findings of the study provide additional evidence of cross-cultural influences with respect to work values and organizational commitment embedded in private firms in Kuwait from the international workforce.

The second source of cross-cultural leadership influences in Kuwait is the globalization of business activity, with a large number of foreign firms operating in Kuwait. Under Kuwaiti law, foreign firms operating in the nation must have an indigenous business partner, which includes the operations of branch offices of multinational firms (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001). Because of this legal requirement, Kuwaiti nationals are closely involved with the operations of foreign firms in the nation and have experience with the various types of leadership methods used by these firms.

Ali and Al-Kazemi (2007) conducted investigation of the difference in the centrality of the Islamic work ethic between Kuwaiti managers and non-Kuwaiti Islamic managers employed in private firms. The Islamic work ethic involves principles such as work should benefit the self and others and work provides an opportunity to become independent of others. The Islamic work ethic also implicitly adopts a stewardship perspective of leadership, with the leader responsible for the welfare of followers. The researchers anticipated finding no significant differences between the two groups of managers because of similarity in culture and religion. The findings, however, showed
the non-Kuwaiti managers had higher scores on variables intended to measure the Islamic work ethic. The researchers offered the explanation of increased prosperity in the nation eroding the traditional Islamic work ethic. The findings, however, also imply that non-Kuwaiti managers from other Islamic nations may have an influence on the national culture by reinforcing Islamic values already accepted by Kuwaiti managers and leaders.

In the model of cross-cultural influences proposed by Rosen et al. (2000), the commercial activities of Kuwaiti firms in the private sector are part of the global influences leading to firms adopting new practices. The firm must compete in a global marketplace, and therefore has an incentive to adopt practices used by competitors to improve efficiency and productivity. The commercial influences are largely confined to the business sector and may not have an extensive influence on other facets of Kuwaiti culture. In contrast, the presence of such a large number of foreign workers relative to the Kuwaiti population directly introduces foreign cultural norms and values into Kuwaiti society. Over the long run, foreign personnel residing in the nation can have a significant influence on the traditional values and business practices (Al-Mailam, 2004).

2.2.5 Evidence of Changes in Leadership in Kuwait

In the Kuwaiti context, insight can be gained from the work of Abdel-Halim and Al-Tuhaih (1989), who focused on the newly emerging joint sector in Kuwait, and the structure of management within this sector. Their major focus was on the structure of the board of directors, and how power was concentrated within the leadership structure of this board. As such, whilst it did not concentrate on leadership development, as such, the study does provide some insight into the style of leadership in Kuwait, and thus how
leadership development may fit into this overall framework. As similar insight can be obtained from the work of Al-Rafaei and Omran (1992) that analysed the major factors contributing to employee turnover in Kuwait. Whilst their study emphasised the ‘voluntary turnover’ tendencies of the workforce, they indicated that employee turnover levels were quite strongly influenced by the leadership styles present in both the source and target company, and thus leadership development can be argued to be a key factor in employee retention in Kuwait.

One of the most relevant pieces of work was carried out by Al-Mailam (2004), who analysed whether employees working for a leader possessing transformational characteristics believed their leader to be more effective than one with transactional characteristics. This assessment was carried out via a questionnaire of employees in four hospitals, both public and private sector, in Kuwait, with 266 respondents replying. The study revealed that transformational styles of leadership led to a greater level of belief amongst employees of the effectiveness of their leaders, thus implying that leadership styles are important in Kuwait. Also, “the employees in private hospitals were more likely to perceive their leaders as transformational than were employees in public hospitals” (Al-Mailam, 2004) thus indicating that private sector leadership styles in Kuwait are different from those in the public sector.

There is a lack of sufficient research directly examining changes to leadership styles and methods in Kuwait over the past several decades. Because of the lack of research data, the only indirect evidence suggesting a change in leadership methods and styles by managers in the private sector and a change in leadership preferences among Kuwaitis. The indirect evidence, however, is conflicting, suggesting that the managers in only
some private sector firms have changed their leadership approaches in response to cross-cultural influences.

Al-Mailam (2004) suggested that the preference among Kuwaiti healthcare professionals in the private sector for transformational and participative leadership was because of the prevalence of foreign workers in healthcare institutions. The public healthcare sector was not subject to the same degree of cross-cultural influence. As a result, the Kuwaitis in the public sector continued to have a preference for the more traditional transactional and authoritarian leadership approach.

Additional evidence supporting the premise that Kuwaiti leadership styles have changed comes from a comparison of the findings of a study conducted by Al-Refaei and Omran (1992) with the studies conducted by Al-Mailam (2004) and Alotaibi (2008). Both studies collected data about the effect of leadership on turnover intention among Kuwaiti employees. The Al-Refaei and Omran (1992) study occurred at a time when the traditional Kuwaiti leadership approach was exclusively used by organizations. In contrast, the study of Al-Mailam (2004) determined that managers of some private sector firms in healthcare had an adopted a transformational leadership approach. The study of Alotaibi (2008) also found that healthcare firms using a more responsive and participatory approach had higher staff retention rates.

Al-Refaei and Omran (1992) collected data from both private and public sector employees about the relationship between perceptions of leadership style and the turnover intention. The researchers collected the data approximately one year after the turmoil caused by the Iraqi occupation of Kuwait. The findings of the study indicated a
negative correlation between structured leadership and the turnover intention. Employees in organizations with managers using a directive approach to leadership were less likely to seek alternative employment opportunities. In contrast, employees in organizations with managers using participative and transformational leadership methods were more likely to form a turnover intention. Al-Refaei and Omran (1992) suggested the findings of their study with respect to the relationship between leadership and retention could be a manifestation of both traditional preferences and the desire among Kuwaitis for order and predictability in the workplace in the aftermath of the Gulf War. The findings of this study provide additional support for the argument of Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) concerning the authoritarian nature of the traditional leadership approach in Kuwait.

Alotaibi (2008) conducted exit interviews with nurses who were voluntarily terminating employment in both private and public hospitals in Kuwait to identify the factors leading to the resignation. The study population was relatively small, consisting of 60 nurses who had submitted resignations. All of the participants in the study were foreign staff. The findings of the study showed that the employees did not believe they had been misinformed about the position during the recruitment process. The terminating employees suggested the primary factor related to their decision to seek alternative employment was the failure of managers to remedy evident problems in the organizations. The interviewees, however, also indicated the use of authoritative leadership methods by managers was not endemic in their organizations and was sometimes an issue only with a specific manager. The interviewees also noted that some managers used a more participative leadership style, but were limited in their ability to solve problems because of the constraints imposed by more senior leadership. The
The conclusion arrived at in the study was the use of traditional authoritative leadership methods contributed to the high turnover rate in some organizations, which was similar to the conclusion arrived at by Al-Refæi and Omran (1992). The findings, however, also provided evidence that some managers had adopted some leadership methods and styles different from the traditional approaches.

Al-Enezi’s (2003) investigation of the uses of performance assessments by managers in Kuwait also provided some evidence suggesting cross-cultural factors may influence leadership practices. In this study, a survey questionnaire was used to collect data about the different managerial uses of performance assessments from firms in the private sector. The research used a stratified sampling procedure with indigenous Kuwaiti managers comprising 77.6% of the respondents. The primary implication of this study for the effect of cross-cultural factors on leadership comes from the finding of significant differences in the use of Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti managers of the performance evaluation. The findings of the study indicated the Kuwaiti managers viewed the performance assessment as a tool to reinforce the authority structure within the organization. The non-Kuwaiti managers, however, used the performance assessment as a communications tool, using a more consultative approach to the performance assessment process. The managers indicated, however, that Kuwaiti employees were comparatively indifferent to negative performance assessments because of the difficulties firms face with involuntary termination of employees. In contrast, the non-Kuwaiti employees evaluated the performance assessments from the perspective of fairness or accuracy, forming judgments about the manager and the organization. The findings of the study suggest that the presence of a large number of foreign managers in
private firms in Kuwait can indirectly introduce a consultative leadership approach to the organizational culture.

Indirect evidence suggesting cross-cultural factors are influencing leadership development in Kuwait comes from the increasing demand from both the private and public sectors for increased leadership and management training for professionals (Alansari & Al-Shehab, 2006; Ali & Magalhaes, 2008). Leadership development has not been a significant part of the management curricula at Kuwaiti universities. The private sector, however, has increasingly called for leadership training to assist Kuwaiti managers to more effectively manage the international workforce.

According to Alansari and Al-Shehab (2006), continuing education for managers has not been a high priority in Kuwait. Continuing education includes informal learning at conferences and seminars as well as formal learning in educational institutions. Alansari and Al-Shehab contended the reason for the low priority placed on continuing education for managers is resistance to the self-actuated learning process. Kuwaiti managers are culturally biased towards the traditional learning environment in which the teacher has full authority and directs the activities of the students. This learning model corresponds with the leadership expectations of managers. In the continuing education approach, the student takes greater responsibility for the learning process and has a more collaborative relationship with teachers. The emergence of a trend towards increased demand for continuing education for managers of private firms may be the outcome of cross-cultural influences that value continuing education as means to improve leadership skills and managerial effectiveness.
The findings of Ali and Magalhaes (2008) also suggest increasing demand for staff education among both private and public firms. This study focused on identifying the barriers for e-learning implementation for training and development among the largest firms in Kuwait. While the findings showed that technical barriers were important, senior management in organizations often did not support investment in training and development programs not fully under the control of the organization. Despite the resistance among managers of the organizations toward implementing e-learning systems for training and development, the foreign workers employed by the firms indicated they would use the system for continuing education.

2.2.6 Changing Leadership Demands in Kuwait

The research investigating business leadership in Kuwait generally indicated that the influx of foreign workers in the past two decades has created the need to alter some of the traditional methods and styles of leadership (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001; Al-Mailam, 2004). In addition, expansion of educational opportunities and the increased integration of Kuwait in global commerce have stimulated change in the nation’s business culture (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001). Private organizations in Kuwait rely on foreign labour to achieve and maintain competitive advantage in the global marketplace, which creates a situation differing from the firms in most other nations. The large foreign workforce places demands on organizations to adopt leadership practices more closely suited to the expectations of a culturally diverse workforce.

An investigation of leadership style preferences in Kuwait found that employees in hospitals viewed the transformational leadership style more effective than the transactional leadership style (Al-Mailam, 2004). The sample population was physicians
and nurses in both private and public hospitals, with data gathered using a questionnaire designed for the study. The data collection procedure produced 266 responses. The findings showed a preference for the transformational leadership method among the respondents regardless of whether the respondents were employed at a private or public hospital. The findings also indicated that the transformational leadership method was more commonly used in the private hospitals than in the public hospitals. The respondents from the private hospitals in which leaders used the transformational leadership also perceived a greater organizational efficiency.

The findings of Al-Mailam (2004) are related to cross-cultural influences on leadership in Kuwait because the majority of healthcare providers in the nation are foreign healthcare professionals. In the sampling obtained in the study, 90% of the respondents were from foreign nations. Al-Mailam (2004) drew the conclusion that the presence of such a large foreign workforce with a preference for transformational leadership had a significant influence on the leadership methods adopted by hospital directors and senior managers. The finding of the study showing more common use of transformational leadership methods in private hospitals may have been because of greater competitive pressures in the private sector. According to Al-Mailam (2004), the past authoritarian and transactional leadership practices in private healthcare produced difficulties recruiting and retaining foreign staff. As a result, the leadership practices in the private healthcare institutions are gradually changing to conform to the expectations of foreign staff.

Muhammad (2007) conducted an investigation of the factors influencing perception of organizational politics among Kuwaiti employees, including leadership behaviours of
managers. In the theory underlying this research, organizational structure, the job and task environment, and personal characteristics were presumed to influence perceptions of organizational politics. Organizational structure involves the degree of centralization of power in the organizational hierarchy, with highly centralized organizations increasing the perception of organizational politics because individual employees have lower control over their environment. The job and task environment variable was defined as the degree of role ambiguity in the organization, which is related to the leadership behaviours of the managers in decisions involving resource allocation. The personal characteristics include demographic variables such as tenure with the organization and position in the organizational hierarchy.

Muhammad (2007) sampled 206 Kuwaiti employees of firms headquartered in the nation in various industries. The researcher collected data using survey questionnaires. The findings showed that the job and task environment variables were the most significant predictor of the perception of organizational politics. Role ambiguity occurred when managers gave preference to individuals in their social network, creating uncertainty among employees who were not part of the network. To some degree, these findings support the report by Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) concerning the prevalence of favouritism in Kuwaiti organizations. The findings of Muhammad (2007) also suggest that cross-cultural influences may be altering the traditional leadership practices in Kuwaiti organizations. Because Kuwaiti employees are becoming increasing aware of leadership practices used in other countries from exposure to expatriates and from international commerce, they are becoming dissatisfied with traditional leadership practices emphasizing nepotism and favouritism (Muhammad, 2007).
2.3 Cross-Cultural Influences in Gulf and Middle Eastern Nations and its relationship to Leadership Development

In general, the evidence from research investigating leadership in the Gulf countries suggests leadership practices and paradigms are moving towards convergence with global perspectives. Substantial variations remain, however, in national cultural expectations for leadership (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001). Nonetheless, the influence of globalization and the increasing number of multinational firms headquartered in Gulf nations is having an influence on leadership concepts and practices.

The charismatic leader concept in Middle Eastern culture is related to the general perspective of the charismatic leader that has been incorporated into transformational leadership theory. The charismatic leader in Gulf nations develops an affective relationship with followers respecting and even loving the leader because of the charismatic qualities. This type of affective relationship conforms to general charismatic trait theory (Eatwell, 2006). The follower also has a strong desire to follow the directives of the leader, which moves the people towards a desired future state (Ehrhart & Klein, 2001). The construct of the charismatic leader in Gulf nations is also based on the assumption that the leader will behave in a responsible or benevolent manner. This caveat implies that some charismatic leaders may abuse their position to advance their own interests at the expense of the followers. This quality is negatively perceived in the cultures of the Gulf nations as it is in the cultures of Western nations (Sosik, 2000). This section of the literature will discuss the influence of cross-cultural in:

a) Gulf Nations,
b) Middle Eastern Nations,
c) Military and Police, and
d) Making Comparison with Leadership Development in Kuwait.
2.3.1 Cross-Cultural Influences in Gulf Nations

The rapid economic growth in the Gulf nations in the past two decades has led to the influx of foreign firms and international workers employed by both multinational and domestic firms. According to Alnajjar (1999), significant managerial conflicts have occurred in some of the Gulf nations such as the United Arab Emirates (UAE) because of differences in the perspectives of foreign and domestic workers. Macpherson, Kachelhoffer, and El Nemr (2007) indicated the conflicts were because the foreign managers influenced organizations and in some cases governmental institutions to adopt practices and perspectives not fully compatible with Islamic values and the traditional culture of the peoples in the Persian Gulf region. Although the Gulf nations have developed an open attitude towards foreign cultural influences and practices, the political and social leaders in these nations want to retain a distinct cultural identity.

Alnajjar (1999) further argued that the conflict with foreign workers living in the gulf state is not only because of cultural differences, but also because foreign nationals have different personal interests and in some cases attempt to advance the interests of the governments of their home nations. In the more recent information provided by Abdulla (2007), conflict between foreign workers and indigenous managers does not appear to be a major issue at the current time in the UAE. Ali and Azim (1996) suggested the Gulf nations have developed a more globalised business and cultural environment than many other Middle Eastern nations, which fosters greater adaptability and acceptance of foreign cultural influences. The UAE adopts the position that cross-cultural influences do not inherently pose a threat to traditional customs and beliefs (Macpherson, Kachelhoffer, & El Nemr, 2007). In contrast, neighbouring nations such as the
Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) attempt to limit or restrict foreign influences introduced by globalization (Al-Rajjhi, et al., 2006).

Abdulla (1997) conducted a survey of college students and public employees in the Gulf States to identify indigenous work values as a base line for comparison with work values of foreign workers employed by private firms in the region. The sampling was confined to college students and public sector employees because these individuals are indigenous, whereas a very high proportion of private sector employees are from foreign nations. The findings indicated the general orientation of the respondents was towards a collectivist perspective, with a desire to achieve consensus before acting on a decision. The findings also indicated the respondents were influenced by their perceptions of the business practices of Westernized nations from their observation and contact with foreign employees and managers in the private sector firms.

Alnajjar (1999) conducted a survey in the UAE to identify factors influencing organizational commitment in private sector firms. The survey examined UAE nationals in firms managed by both UAE nationals and foreign nationals. The findings indicated a higher level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment among UAE nationals when they were supervised by UAE managers, and a lower level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment when the employees were managed by foreign nationals. The findings also suggested UAE nationals with higher levels of education adapted to the management and leadership style of the foreign manager. The conclusion supported by the study is the cross-cultural conflicts from differences in management styles and perceptions between UAE nationals and foreign managers exist in the UAE and have a negative influence on employees’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The
findings of the study also support the conclusion that educational level moderates the cross-cultural conflicts, suggesting that there may be greater foreign influences on individuals with higher educational levels.

Ali and Azim (1996) examined the cross-cultural influences on managers in the UAE using the Survey of Management and Organizations in the Arab World. The instrument obtained information across four dimensions capable of assessing cultural differences when the home nation culture of the respondents is known. The findings indicated that foreign expatriate manages in the UAE perceived problems differently from indigenous UAE managers or expatriate managers from other Arab nations. The findings also indicated the foreign managers, who came primarily from the United Kingdom, the United States and India, adopted a very objective perspective of organizational issues.

The conclusions of Ali and Azim (1996) suggested the presence of a large number of foreign managers in the UAE over the long-term would produce some cultural synthesis. In this process indigenous UAE and Arab managers would adopt some of the objective practices and perceptions of the foreign managers while the foreign managers would adopt some of the more subjective practices common in UAE business culture.

Another type of cross-cultural influence in some of the nations in the Gulf is the increased number of tourists and the development of tourism destinations (Abdulla, 2007). The Gulf nations and particularly the UAE have been developing the tourism industry over the past decade as a means to diversify the economy away from dependence on oil. The presence of many European, Asian and North American tourists requires these nations develop amenities according to the expectations of the visitors. In
addition, it requires some accommodation for the behaviours and dietary habits of the visitors, which are often substantially different from the cultural norms in the Gulf nations. While most of the services for tourists are provided by foreign guest workers in the Gulf nations, the presence of the large number of tourists introduces varied cross-cultural influences difficult to control (Abdulla, 2007).

The problem of external cultural influences in education has caused particular concern for the creation of leadership development programs in the nation (Ali & Azim 1996; Macpherson, Kachelhoffer, & El Nemr, 2007). Dubai has created the Mohammed Bin Rashid Program for Leadership Development intended to provide training in the Emirate of Dubai for individuals in both the private and government sector. The fundamental approach of the program is to ensure the future leaders in the nation understand the principles of Islamic leadership and the way the principles can be applied in a globalised environment. The emergence of a formal leadership development program in the UAE is evidence of cross-cultural influences in the premise that leadership skills and abilities can be taught through an educational approach. In addition, the program is fundamentally similar to the leadership development approaches used in European and North American culture, although the content is tailored to Islamic and Arabic principles.

2.3.2 Cross-Cultural Influences in Middle Eastern Nations

The Islamic understanding of the concept of leadership establishes the general norms and values of the region subject to cross-cultural influences. From the Islamic perspective, there is a significant amount of overlap between the leader as manager organizing human resources to achieve a goal and leader as teacher instructing
subordinates as a role model (Shah, 2006). The leader is presumed to have a greater degree of knowledge than subordinates, which is evidenced by the higher social status of the leader. In the Islamic cultures of the Middle East, the leader has a responsibility to share the knowledge with subordinates.

One of the primary effects of globalization and cross-cultural influences on the Middle East has been to introduce market pressures, technologies and institutional reorganization creating greater emphasis on the managerial aspects of leadership, and reducing the importance of the instructional aspects of leadership (Mazrui, 1999; Shah, 2006). At the same time, the global influences are producing some homogenization of cultural the actual practices used by leaders in the region, although the practices continue to be used in the general Islamic framework in which a portion of the leader’s role involves teaching (Macpherson, Kachelhoffer, & El Nemr, 2007). According to Shah (2007: p. 378), “leadership perspectives are not fixed entities. These evolve and develop, although the nature and scope of change may vary from context to context.” As the business, social, and political relationships between Middle Eastern nations and other nations increase, the more likely the leadership paradigms will evolve to conform more closely to foreign paradigms. At the same time, there are substantial variations in the concept of leadership and how it should be exercised among the societies in the Middle East (Shah, 2007).

According to Mazrui (1999), the cross-cultural influences tending to create a more globalised culture are not absolute in their effect on Middle Eastern nations, with each nation absorbing the aspects of the global culture suitable for its own cultural norms and values. As a result, some Middle Eastern nations strongly resist most foreign cultural
influences because they are perceived as incompatible with existing norms and values. Other Middle Eastern nations adopt a more flexible approach, adopting aspects of the global culture perceived as compatible with fundamental cultural values and norms. Regardless of the cultural policy adopted by a Middle Eastern nation, the foreign cultural influences are ubiquitous and cannot help but produce some changes in the culture of the region.

Miller and Sharda (2000) examined the organizational structures in selected Middle Eastern nations to identify the effect of cross-cultural influences. Organizational structures indirectly reflect the perspectives of leadership such as a centralized hierarchical structure concentrating control in the organization’s leader or decentralized structure delegating leadership responsibilities to subordinates. The study examined the changes in organizational structures in Jordan and Iran in response to influences from the United States. Jordanian business depends heavily on foreign employees and managers because of insufficient indigenous personnel with the skills necessary in many industries. In contrast, Iranian business organizations rely primarily on indigenous personnel.

The findings of Miller and Sharda (2000) showed both nations have highly centralized organizational structures with leadership control exercised by a small number of senior managers. In addition, the findings indicated the advancement to senior leadership in organizations is restricted to individuals who are part of the kinship or social network of the organization’s leaders. The foreign employees in Jordan are limited to middle management and operational decision making under relatively close supervision of senior managers. An additional finding of the study was the ability of senior managers
in Jordan and Iran to maintain a high degree of control over large organizations. The findings suggest the more recent decentralized organizational structures found in the United States were not adopted in Jordan and Iran despite the presumed global influence of American business practices.

Den Hartog, et al. (1999) analyzed the findings of the GLOBE survey on cross-cultural leadership to identify similarities and differences in the perspectives of leadership across cultures. In the theoretical framework underlying the analysis, the culture of the observer determines the emphasis and value placed on various attributes associated with leadership. In cultures characterized by high power distance, for example, a more positive attitude towards the authoritarian exercise of power is likely to exist when compared to a low power distance culture. The analysis tested the proposition that some leadership qualities or attributes are valued in all cultures by examining the degree that charismatic and transformational leadership was associated with the ideal of an outstanding leader. The analysis found certain aspects associated with transformation leadership common in all cultures, including the cultures of the Middle East. These aspects included leaders who were encouraging and motivational. In addition, the analysis identified universal qualities associated with the charismatic leader such as the ability to be inspirational and visionary. The analysis identified dictatorial behaviours as a universal negative attribute associated with leadership. While few Middle Eastern nations provided data for the survey and the analysis, the findings nonetheless suggest a relatively high level of similarity in the perception the ideal leader is charismatic and makes limited use of transformational leadership methods. The ideal leader in the Middle East also avoids making autonomous decisions without some consultation with the members of the group affected by the decision.
Leadership development implies that many of the techniques or methods used by leaders can be learned. While the innate qualities of the charismatic leader provide an advantage, leadership can nonetheless be effectively exercised by individuals who have learned how to exercise leadership behaviours. According to Noer, Leupold and Valle (2007), there has been relatively little research examining leadership development and leadership behaviours in Middle Eastern nations.

The traditional cultural factors influencing leadership in the Middle East include a large power distance between leaders and subordinates, a collectivistic rather than an individualistic orientation, and a high level of uncertainty avoidance (Dastmalchian, Javidian, & Alam, 2001; Noer, Leupold, & Valle, 2007). Based on this cultural framework, Middle Eastern leaders prefer an authoritarian approach to leadership but consider the welfare of the group when making decisions. In addition, Middle Eastern leaders prefer to obtain a large amount of information about a problem and solutions prior to making a decision to reduce the risks associated with uncertainty. According to Noer, Leupold and Valle (2007: p 275), they demand “loyalty, obedience, and seek a social distance from those they manage, which may be partially attributed to authoritarian beliefs in Islamic social systems.” Despite the general similarities in leadership paradigms in the Middle East, there are significant national differences because of variations in historical development.

To identify some of the differences and similarities between Western and Iranian cultural factors related to leadership, Dastmalchian, Javidian and Alam (2001) analyzed data about leadership collected by the GLOBE project. The limited amount of previous research investigating leadership development in Iran found a strong emphasis on the
trait theory in which individuals are presumed to have innate qualities enabling them to be effective leaders. In addition, leaders who empowered their subordinates by using transformational leadership methods were held in higher esteem than leaders using an authoritarian approach. Iran can be viewed as having a similar set of cultural values to Kuwait, and is somewhat representative of Middle Eastern nations.

The findings of Dastmalchian, Javidian and Alam (2001) indicated a discrepancy between the perceptions of the actual practices of leaders and the idealized practices of leaders. Iranians perceived most managers engaged in uncertainty avoidance when making decisions, suggesting they had a low tolerance for risk. The ideal leader, however, was comfortable with a higher level of risk when making decisions. Similarly, Iranians perceived leaders as having a collectivist orientation, which is compatible with the general level of collectivistic behaviour expected in Iranian culture. In contrast, the respondents believed the ideal leader should behave more individualistically, making decisions without relying significantly on achieving consensus. Iranians also perceived their leaders did not have a future orientation, but that the ideal leader should have a future orientation. Another factor in which there was a large difference between the actual perceptions of leaders and the perception of the ideal leader was power distance. In Iran, the leaders are very distant from their subordinates and do not use participative leadership styles. The ideal leader, however, is perceived as having less power distance with subordinates and consulting with subordinates more frequently.

The findings have several implications for cross-cultural influences on leadership. The ideal leader does not conform to the traditional cultural paradigms in Iran, particularly in the areas of individualism and power distance (Dastmalchian, Javidian, & Alam,
2001). In traditional culture, the leader exercised authority without consulting with subordinates, but was nonetheless expected to behave benevolently for the good of the group. The differences between the traditional cultural values associated with leaders and the ideal attributes of leaders at variance with these values is evidence of the effect of cross-cultural influences on leadership perceptions. While Iran has fewer foreign nations living within its borders than the Gulf States, the findings of (Dastmalchian, Javidian, & Alam, 2001) suggests globalization has introduced new leadership paradigms from other cultures into Iranian society.

According to Al-Rajhi, et al. (2006: 26), “the replacement of impatriates with nationals is a key aspect of labour market policy in Middle Eastern economies.” In some nations such as the KSA, the policy is intended to reduce or limit cross-cultural influences on Saudi society. The policy also has secondary objectives such as reducing the unemployment rate by encouraging Saudi nationals to obtain positions in the private sector, which has traditionally been dominated by foreign guest workers. In many Middle Eastern nations, however, replacing the foreign workers with indigenous personnel has been difficult because of negative cultural attitudes towards manual labour and accepting positions perceived as lacking in status (Miller & Sharda, 2000). As a result of the continued need to employ foreign nationals in many Middle Eastern nations, this source of cross-cultural influence is likely to persist in the Middle East. Foreign workers from other Arab or Moslem nations, however, appear to have less cross-cultural influence than foreign workers from Asia, Europe or North America.

One of the difficulties with leadership development in many Middle Eastern nations is the cultural bias considering any position other than manager as less than honourable
(Al-Rajhi, et al., 2006). To some degree, the cultural bias creates a situation in which many individuals obtain the academic credentials necessary to qualify for managerial positions but do not have the practical experience with leadership before assuming a position of authority. The leadership styles used by foreign managers in executive and middle management positions sometimes conflicts with the leadership styles used by indigenous managers. In many firms in the KSA, for example, foreign managers use participative leadership methods, consulting with subordinates prior to making decisions. While the participative or consultative approach to management is part of the Islamic leadership tradition, it conflicts with some of the tribal or local authoritarian traditions (Al-Rajhi, et al., 2006).

2.3.3 Cross Cultural Influences and Leadership Development in the Military and Police

The military in the Middle East is strongly influenced by American and European leadership concepts because of the extensive training most military and police officers receive in foreign tactical, strategic, and leadership training programs (Kachichian & Nazimek, 1997). Most of the nations in the Middle East use equipment and operational methods originally developed by the Western nations. In addition, some nations such as Kuwait and Turkey have relatively strong military ties with the United States, some of which are legacies from the Cold War period. Because of the reliance on Western equipment, tactics and strategy, many officers receive additional training in foreign military schools, which introduces foreign leadership principles into the methods used by the military leaders in the Middle East. At the same time, the ability of military officers receiving training in the United States or the European Union to obtain promotions often depends on the relationship between the government of the Middle
Eastern nation and the foreign nation. In Egypt, according to Kachichian and Nazimek (1997: 127), “for political reasons, including the desire to limit U.S. influence in the armed forces…U.S.-trained officers see their promotions to high-ranking positions held back or begrudgingly allocated.”

Some nations such as Kuwait have historically strong ties with Western military forces and are more open to cross-cultural influences on the leadership. The Kuwaiti military is relatively small, although it is the largest force among the Gulf Nations. The army is comprised of approximately 50,000 soldiers and officers, while the navy and air force have approximately 2,500 sailors and officers (Cirafici, 2001) The National Police in Kuwait is a paramilitary police organization responsible for all police activities in the nation. Because of shortages of personnel with critical skills, the branches of the military often rely on foreign national contract workers for technical or administrative tasks. The foreign personnel are designated as non-combatants (Terrill, 2007). Kuwait operates a Military College for training officers for the branches of the military and the police. The Kuwait military differs from most other Middle Eastern nations because of its small size and its closer integration of the national police with the military.

During and after the First Gulf war, the Kuwaiti military experienced leadership problems because of the perception among many soldiers and officers that senior officers had been promoted based on political considerations rather than competency. By 1995, the royal family reorganized the Kuwaiti military, eliminating the system of political patronage used to select officers for promotion. To some degree, the reorganization of the military leadership was also a response to the influence and example provided by American military forces in Kuwait after the first Gulf War. Many
middle grade Kuwaiti officers were liaisons with American and British units in Kuwait and attended training schools in the United States and the United Kingdom (Cirafici, 2001).

The UAE also has a small military, with the majority of the enlisted personnel from other Arab nations and Pakistan. The officers, however, are from the UAE. Because the UAE does not have a military academy, the officers are graduates from the British military academy at Sandhurst, which introduces European leadership paradigms into the officer corps. In addition, the experiences of the officers during their training increase their willingness to apply European and American leadership methods during their career. Because of the close connections between the United Kingdom and the UAE military, promotional opportunities are not restricted to officers who train outside the country as they are in many other Middle Eastern nations (Kachichian & Nazimek, 1997).

The cross-cultural influences on police are not as strong as the on the military because police operations are largely domestic in nature and not significant factor in geopolitical strategies. There is some influence on police, however, from international organizations attempting to standardize procedures for curtailing international crime. These organizations generally do not affect leadership paradigms in the police force of various nations in the Middle East because they specifically focus on police techniques rather than police organizational structure.

In the UAE, the police adopt more advanced technologies from American and European police forces, and often have to train abroad for using the technology (Abdulla, 2007).
The cross-cultural influences on the structure, procedures and organization used by the police appears to be relatively strong, with the Dubai police using foreign police organizations as a basis for comparison. The approach taken to police theory and practice in the UAE is to incorporate foreign concepts into police practice with modifications appropriate for Islamic and Arab culture (Abdullah, 2007). In addition, the police force “strong relationships with most regional and international police organizations” (Abdullah, 2007: 89). To some degree, the external relationships of the UAE police help to establish the priorities for investigative police work. The police force in the UAE is particularly concerned with drug trafficking, and money laundering, which are global police concerns.

Over the past several decades, the police in the UAE have become increasingly focused on human resource development, which includes leadership development (Abdullah, 2007). The UAE has established a police academy to train personnel in police technology. The academy also sends some personnel to Mohammed Bin Rashid Program for Leadership Development to ensure they obtain leadership skills combining traditional as well as Western leadership methods.

In the Middle Eastern nations other than the Gulf nations, the cross-cultural influences on police are variable and depend on the general position of the nation towards the adoption of foreign practices and operational philosophies. Tang and Ibrahim (1999) conducted a comparative study of the leadership behaviours and their relationship to organizational citizenship behaviours among American, Saudi and Egyptian police. The findings indicated the Saudi and Egyptian police strongly related to modelling among of behaviours to their leadership. The findings also showed the Saudi and Egyptian police
focused on the value they provided to society as a whole by reducing crime and deviant behaviour. The findings also showed the concern of leaders for subordinates and their collective was a far more important factor for job satisfaction among the police in Egypt and the KSA than in the United States. The findings of the study imply the use of transaction leadership approaches may not be suitable for police leadership in the KSA and Egypt. Police expect their leaders to be concerned with the collective welfare of the members of the police force and with society as a whole.

The issue of the military and police in Iraq and Afghanistan represent a special situation involving cross-cultural influences in the Middle East. Because of the recent wars resulting in the collapse of the governments in these two nations and the occupation by military forces from the United States, the United Kingdom and other Western nations, the military and police forces are currently undergoing reconstruction. In this process, the foreign occupying powers are dominating the structure and policies adopted by the military and police organizations (Ladwig, 2007). As a result, the concept of leadership and the way it will be practiced is likely to strongly reflect Western leadership concepts. The lengthy occupation of these two nations is also increasing the amount of cross-cultural influences from Western sources in other areas such as governmental organization and business practices.

2.3.4 Comparison with Leadership Development in Kuwait

The general theoretical premise underlying cross-cultural influences is the existence of a distinction between culture-specific factors influencing behaviour and universal cross-cultural factors influencing behaviour (Den Hartog, 1999). The theory postulates the existence of certain universal human norms or values as factors influencing behaviour.
common to some degree to all cultures. The theory also postulates the existence of a secondary level of factors influencing behaviour common to regional cultural groups such as pan-Arabic values and norms. The national or local cultural influences exist within the universal and regional cultural framework, and are based on a more specific historic development of norms and values. The differences between the cultural perceptions of leadership in the region are because of the variations in historical development such as the Persian influences on Iranian culture (Miller & Sharda, 2000).

2.3.4.1 Differences between Kuwait and other Middle Eastern Nations

The foreign workforce in Kuwait may be different from the foreign workforce in the other Gulf nations because it is primarily composed on workers from other Arab nations (Al-Enezi, 2003). In the other nations in the Persian Gulf region, the majority of the foreign workforce is from Asian nations. As a result the leadership expectation of the workforce and the leadership behaviours of the non-Kuwaiti managers may have closer alignment than in other Middle Eastern nations. Nonetheless, differences in exist in the leadership behaviours of individuals form the Middle East, particularly in factors such as uncertainty avoidance (Kabasakal & Dastmalkian, 2001).

The high degree of integration of the guest workers into the workforce at all levels in the private sector and the large role they play in some segments of the public workforce such as the military also differs from most nations in the Middle East (Alansari & Al-Shehab, 2006). While foreign workers are found in most Middle Eastern nations, some nations such as the KSA attempt to segregate the foreign workers as much as possible to minimize their cultural influence (Al-Rajjhi, et al., 2006). In Jordan and Iran, few individuals from the foreign workforce are managers, reducing the cross-cultural
influences on factors such as organizational strategy and implementation of human resources policies (Miller & Sharda, 2000).

An emerging difference between Kuwait and the other nations in the Persian Gulf is in continuing education for managers (Alansari & Al-Shehab, 2006). The UAE has established a formal leadership development program to provide additional training in leadership to managers with some continuing education aspects. The existence of the program and its government sponsorship suggests it could have a significant effect on leadership development in the future (Macpherson, Kachelhoffer, & El Nemr, 2007). Kuwait, however, has not established a similar program, with most managers avoiding formal continuing education or formal training in leadership (Alansari & Al-Shehab, 2006).

Another difference between Kuwait and most other Middle Eastern nations is its very close relationship with the United States for its military and police (Terrill, 2007). Many of Kuwait’s military and police officers have received extensive training in the United States. In addition, the presence of a large number of American air and ground forces stationed at bases in Kuwait creates an ongoing cross-cultural influence for the military. Other nations in the Middle East such as the KSA and Egypt send officers to the United States for training in equipment and tactics (Cirafici, 2001). The training, however may be limited to technical matters, with the officers eager to avoid the appearance they that they have been influenced by American cultural norms and values. Most Middle Eastern nations do not host American bases. Among those with the bases such as the KSA, the foreign military personnel are segregated from the local population to reduce cross-cultural influences.
2.3.4.2 Similarities between Kuwait and other Middle Eastern Nations

In the theoretical cross-cultural framework proposed by Den Hartog, et al. (1999), Kuwait shares some universal cultural leadership perspectives such as the importance of a charismatic leader (al-Mailam, 2004). As a result, Kuwaiti culture is receptive to a cross-cultural leadership influences reinforcing the values represented by universal factors. Kuwait is also shares a regional Arabic Islamic culture, and is very receptive to cross-cultural leadership influences originating in other Arabic and Islamic cultures. The Kuwaiti perspective of leadership is substantially similar to other Arabic and Islamic perspectives of leadership, such as a high power distance expectation commonly found in Arabic culture. The similarities in the cultural perspectives with the culture of the nations in the Persian Gulf and Kuwait are even greater than with the general Arabic and Islamic cultures because of a parallel pattern of historic development (Alnajjar, 1999).

Exercising leadership in Kuwait is similar to other nations in the Middle East because many of the paradigms about leadership have developed from the same historical and cultural factors (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001). The charismatic or trait theory of leadership is the traditional leadership perspective in Kuwait, and is largely derived from historical tribal patterns of leadership (Abdalla & Al-Homoud’s, 2001). The charismatic theory of leadership is also common in most nations in the Middle East (Abdalla, & Al-Homoud, 2001; Den Hertog, et al., 1999). Because the charismatic theory of leadership is embedded in the culture of the region, there is similar resistance to adopting leadership development or training programs. The charismatic leadership approach implicitly suggests leadership skills cannot be easily taught.
The traditional approach to leadership in Kuwait is hierarchical and authoritarian (Al-Mailam, 2004). The same approach to leadership can be found in other Middle Eastern nations in which the individual in a position of authority in society or in an organization is expected to exercise authority without consultation with subordinates and to act benevolently for the good of the group (Al-Rajhi, et al., 2006; Dastmalchian, Javidian, & Alam, 2001). The leader, however, is also not expected to behave autocratically, and should provide some reward for subordinates when they follow the directives of the leader (Al-Mailam, 2004).

Kuwait also has closer similarities in leadership practices and development with other Gulf nations because of the reliance on guest workers and foreign managers for a large portion of the private sector workforce. Kuwait has experienced conflicts between the leadership styles adopted by foreign managers from non-Arab nations and the expectations of Kuwaiti workers (Al-Ajmi, 2007). In addition reliance on foreign managers in many private sector firms and as consultants for government agencies introduces a significant amount of foreign cultural influences into Kuwaiti society. The other nations in the Persian Gulf region experience similar difficulties with the foreign managers introducing cultural values and norms that may not be compatible with the traditional cultural values in the region (Macpherson, Kachelhoffer, & El Nemr, 2007). The problem with unanticipated effects from cross-cultural leadership influences, however, is not as significant in the Middle Eastern nations such as the KSA, which attempt to segregate foreign nationals from the indigenous population as much as possible.
Kuwaiti firms also generally use the hierarchical organizational structure centralizing authority and control in the organization’s leader (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001; Alansari & Al-Shehab, 2006). A similar type of hierarchical organizational structure is found in most other nations in the Middle East (Miller & Sharda, 2000). As a result of the structure, the organizational leader is able to exert direct control over activities by delegating oversight responsibility but not full decision-making authority to middle managers. The hierarchical organizational structure common in the Middle East is because most of the firms are small and mid-sized enterprises in which senior managers can maintain direct control (Miller & Sharda, 2000).

Another cultural similarity related to leadership in organizations is the distinction between elites who hold the delegated responsibility from the leader and the non-elites who have neither responsibility nor authority (Alansari & Al-Shehab, 2006). The elite employees have higher status in the organization and higher social status in general. As a result, the workforce in many Middle Eastern nations refuses to accept employment in positions perceived as non-elite, which partially accounts for the large number of foreign guest workers in some nations performing tasks involving manual labour (Alansari & Al-Shehab, 2006).

In the area of military and police leadership development, Kuwait has substantial similarities with the other smaller nations in the Gulf region. Kuwait has a small military, although it is larger than the military in the UAE or other Gulf nations. Although Kuwait has a military academy, it relies on the United States and the United Kingdom for advanced military and police training, which introduces Western leadership concepts into the military structure. The other Gulf nations also rely on the
United States and the United Kingdom for a substantial amount of military and police training. Kuwait and the other nations in the Persian Gulf region are similar in their reliance on foreign guest workers to support for military and police services (Abdullah, 2007; Cirafici, 2001). In both Kuwait and the UAE, many of the support personnel are foreign (Terrill, 2007). There is an absence of literature, however, investigating the loyalty of the foreign personnel in the military and the civilians providing support services.

Kuwait is also similar to most other Middle Eastern nations employing guest workers in the preference for workers from other Arab nations. While many of the guest workers in the Middle East are from Asia, Europe and the United States, a substantial number are from other Arab nations where unemployment is higher than in the host nation. Many foreign workers from non-Arab nations do not respond well to the more authoritarian approach and greater power distance found among Kuwaiti managers (Al-Ajmi, 2007). Conflicts between domestic managers and personnel from other non-Arab nations are also common in the other Gulf nations (Alnajjar, 1999). As a result, the employers prefer to use workers and managers from other Moslem or Arab nations because the cultural similarities reduce the possibility of conflict.
2.4 Cross-Cultural Leadership in the International Environment

There is a large body of research and theoretical literature related to cross-cultural and international leadership. The majority of the literature is qualitative, offering perspectives about leadership in the international environment based on theoretical analysis and reviews of prior investigations. The literature reporting the findings of empirical investigations remains primarily exploratory, and attempts to identify the variables affecting leadership in the international environment. This section of literature review is organised in sections consisting of:

a) Leadership in International Human Resources Development
b) International Leadership
c) International Leadership versus Local Leadership
d) Approaches to International Leadership Development
e) Leadership of Cross-Cultural and International Teams
f) Effect of Differences in National Cultures on Team Leadership
g) Skills for Leadership in an International Cross-Cultural Environment

2.4.1 Leadership in International Human Resources Development

The increased globalization of business activities has created the need to develop more effective approaches for leadership with a culturally diverse workforce (Combs, 2002). Managers are increasingly faced with the need to lead employees from different cultural, ethnic, linguistic, and national backgrounds (Chen, Tjosvold, & Fang, 2005). Cross-cultural leadership is related to cross-cultural competency, which is broadly defined as the ability of individuals to function effectively in other cultures (Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006). As a result, international leadership has two theoretical components. The first component involves the fundamental leadership abilities of the
individual, which includes the way the individual manifests a leadership style. The second component is the cross-cultural competency of the individual, which interacts with the leadership abilities and style. In theory, individuals can learn both leadership ability and cross-cultural competency (Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006).

The investigation of cross-cultural differences in leadership as well as other types of relationships presumes that some psychological processes are universal, with culture shaping and limiting the way the processes occur (Bond & Smith, 1996). The differences among cultural expressions of the psychological processes are the result of variation in values and beliefs. The values and beliefs are social constructs embedded in the expectations about behaviours implicitly and explicitly imparted to individual raised in a specific culture. The values function as a prioritization mechanism allowing individuals to determine what is important. The belief system is also implicitly and explicitly imparted to individuals raised in a culture, and involves the generally accepted epistemic approach to explain what is true and to determine the nature of the behaviours associated with leadership (Broadbeck, et al., 2000). Beliefs can include perceptions of self-efficacy, justice, and work behaviours. Research findings support the premise that leadership values and beliefs vary among cultures, but have not conclusively established the existence of universal cross-cultural leadership values and belief (Judge, 2001).

The role of leadership in international human resources development is to provide the knowledge and organizational structures necessary to minimize the effect of the conflict on the ability of the leader to inspire and motivate the group (Millman, Taylor, & Czaplewski, 2002). The traditional approach among organizations to cross-cultural
leadership has been to provide training in leadership and the cultural factors related to a specific cultural situation. The approach is intended to provide managers with the necessary skills to lead international groups composed of individuals from varied cultural backgrounds. The approach, however, may not address all of the factors necessary for cross-cultural leadership because it presumes the individual has the necessary cognitive and emotional competencies as well as the flexibility to adapt to new situations and experiences.

Reynolds (1997) suggested that a critical role for human resources development in large international firms is to ensure sufficient opportunities exist to attract managers from host countries and managers from third countries other than the host or parent nations. These managers can be a valuable knowledge asset for the organization and for expatriate managers that may not have sufficient information about the leadership practices in the host nation, which provides the knowledge necessary for leaders that may not be familiar with the specific culture of a host nation (Millman, Taylor, & Czaplewski, 2002).

Clark, Grant, and Heijltjes (1999) critically examined the research approaches used in investigations of international human resources development and leadership. The findings showed many methodological flaws in the existing research, which reduces the value of the findings of various studies. The existing research had only a limited scope in terms of the number of cultures examined, focusing primarily on the major industrialized nations of United States, the United Kingdom, Germany and Japan and only a few developing nations such as Malaysia or China. The methodology used in research was primarily cross-sectional, although a longitudinal approach could
potentially yield greater evidence about cross-cultural influences on international human resources development. Questionnaires and case studies were the most common approach to data collection and analysis, with both approaches subject to researcher bias. The findings also showed that 42% of the studies failed to offer any explanation for the findings. The studies offering explanations focused either on endogenous or exogenous factors, further suggesting research bias in the interpretation of the findings. Many of the variables treated as residual variables with no explanation about their influence on human resources practices.

Bond and Smith (1996) also noted difficulties with cross-cultural leadership studies because of the uncertainty that the findings are not influenced by methodological approaches and researcher bias in interpreting the results. They suggested that research investigating international leadership should involve separate enquiries examining the universal tasks leaders perform in all cultures and the specific tasks they perform in separate cultures. Research using this approach has determined that different specific behaviours are necessary for leadership effectiveness in various cultures, but the universal tasks or principles are constant. Bond and Smith (2007) further suggest that the discrepancies found in the methodologies and the findings of various studies examining cross-cultural leadership can be resolved by determining whether the enquiry was based on a general or a specific paradigm.

Chen, Tjosvold and Fang (2005) also noted several paradigms related to cross-cultural research. One approach to cross cultural research investigates specific interactions between the leaders and subordinates to determine the way in which individuals from different cultures employ values and norms in the situations. This approach, however,
presumes it is possible to identify all confounding variables to identify the cultural factors influencing perceptions and behaviours. Another approach involves identifying and analyzing critical incidents affecting the relationship between leaders and subordinates. This method of analysis, however, can be subject to researcher bias in the identification of the incident as critical and in the analysis of the events. Judge (2001) suggested that the differences in findings among cross-cultural leadership studies could be attributed to the research design. Investigations of macro or organizational variables found little variability in leadership across cultures while investigations of micro of personal variables such as specific behaviours found extensive variability in leadership across cultures.

An underlying assumption in international business is that leadership is responsible for both the positive and negative outcomes of teams (Meindel, 2004). This primary assumption supports the premise of appropriate and inappropriate leadership methods, styles and approaches that should be used with a team. According to Meindel (2004), however, there is lack of agreement about the definition of a team and how it is distinguished as a subunit of the organization as a whole. Both groups involve the organization of individuals to perform a task. In some multinational firms, the teams can consist of more employees than are commonly found in small business enterprises. Meindel (2004: 465) noted that: “The accumulated scientific evidence...is that teams do not conclusively improve performance beyond the performance of the individual.” From this perspective, the variable methodologies and findings of research investigation cross-cultural leadership of teams are the result of a flawed theoretical assumption. The leadership methods and approaches observed for groups are essentially applications of
the same leadership and influence approaches used when a leader attempts to influence a single follower.

### 2.4.2 International Leadership

International leadership can be viewed as an organizational control mechanism intended to create closer alignment among culturally, ethnically and geographically diverse work groups in a global firm (Gomez-Meija & Palich, 1997). In theory, international leadership development produces some degree of standardization in the leadership behaviours of managers throughout the organization (Broadbeck, Frese, Akerbloom, Audia, Bakasci, Bendova, et al., 2000). The approaches used by multinational firms to international leadership are variable.

Research investigating leadership styles in various cultures has determined that most cultural contexts prefer the transformational approach combined with leader-member exchange methods (Pillai, Scandura, & Williams, 1999). In the transformational approach to leadership, leaders achieve superior outcomes by motivating followers to achieve beyond expectations. The leader improves motivation by “activating higher order needs, fostering a climate of trust, and inducing them to transcend their self-interest for the organization's sake” (Pillai, Scandura, & Williams, 1999: 763). The leader-member exchange theory of leadership, the quality of the relationship between the leader and the subordinate influences the outcome. A high quality relationship is characterized by mutual trust and loyalty while a low quality relationship is characterized by the leader exercising a greater amount of transactional control over the subordinate. These findings suggest that a firm can identify certain universal characteristics necessary to support international leadership.
Research suggests that international leadership as a form of cross-cultural leadership has three interdependent dimensions of knowledge, awareness and skills interacting with the specific leadership styles of an individual (Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006). The knowledge dimension involves the amount of information the leader has about the culture of the follower, including preferences for leadership style and relationships with leaders. The awareness dimension is a personality attribute in which the leader is willing to develop an understanding of the cultural differences about leadership and the role of the leader. The skills dimension involves the specific methods the leader uses to influence subordinates, which are effective when they conform to the cultural expectations of the subordinates.

An alternative approach to conceptualizing international leadership segregates leadership activities into task performance and group maintenance (Bond & Smith 1996). The task performance behaviours associated with leadership may be more generalized and common across cultures. Some of these behaviours include the direction provided by the leader and communication ability to specify the nature of the tasks the subordinates must perform. The group maintenance behaviours, however, may vary significantly across cultures. Group maintenance involves the way the leader manages relationships with subordinates and can include factors such as expectations about the power distance of the leader and expectations of the degree of collectivism the leader supports in the group. Leaders demonstrating competencies in both the task performance and the group maintenance aspects of leadership more effectively motivate their subordinates to achieve goals and objectives.
2.4.3 International Leadership versus Local Leadership

The international and cross-cultural leadership research is characterized by two divergent theoretical strands involving the importance of culture as a factor leading to divergence or convergence (Rhodes, et al. 2005). One strand of investigation is based on a general theoretical premise that views globalization and the related increase in international business activity as a factor producing convergence in leadership methods and styles (Broadbeck, et al., 2000). The increased global trend towards regionalization and globalization is producing greater homogeneity in leadership behaviours and preferences. The second strand of research considers culture is a factor producing divergence in the approach to and preferences for leadership methods and styles (Rhodes, et al., 2005). The most pronounced effect of cultural differences is found primarily between the industrialized and developing nations because there has not been sufficient contact for an extended period of time to produce convergence. From this perspective, international leadership and local leadership methods can conflict with each other in situations contingent on the degree of differences between the cultures of the leader and the cultures of the subordinates. International leadership demands some level of standardization to achieve a global leadership norm in the firm while local leadership demands differentiation to more effectively conform to local expectations for leadership behaviours.

Levy, Beechler, Taylor and Boyaciglier (2007) suggested that the perspective or the mindset of the multinational organization has a strong influence on the relationship between international and local leadership. A multinational firm with an ethnocentric of home country orientation emphasizes using the methods of leadership used in the home country. As a result, local leaders are expected to conform to the paradigms of the home
country with little value placed on local leadership methods. A multinational firm with a polycentric or host country orientation accepts multiple leadership styles and approaches with the leaders in each nation where the firm conducts business using leadership styles appropriate for the culture. In this model, expatriate managers must learn the expected leadership approach used in the host country and local leadership methods are valued. A firm developing a geocentric or global perspective attempts to develop an integrated approach to leadership that transcends cultures, basing leadership on the universal characteristics of a leader valued in all cultures. At this stage, the firm places equal value on international and local leadership. This theory suggests that organizations create an internal expectation for leadership behaviours that may establish clear boundaries between international and local methods for leadership. Levy, et al. (2007) also argued that the perception that the geocentric paradigm is the desirable end state for organizations dominates the research investigating international leadership and its relationship with local leadership within an organization.

Gomez-Meija and Palich (1997) indicated the inherent difficulty facing multinational firms when balancing international and local leadership is the trade-off between cost and efficiency. Ethnocentric international leadership is theoretically more efficient for the firm’s internal processes because it reduces transaction costs. All managers are trained in a single leadership approach, with employees expected to respond to the leadership style regardless of cultural preferences. The ethnocentric approach, however, reduces production efficiency by discounting the knowledge of local managers about the appropriate methods to motivate individuals based on local cultural norms. The polycentric leadership model increases the efficiency of production by allowing local managers to use culturally appropriate leadership approaches. It has high transaction
costs because of the specialized training necessary for leaders placed in charge of multi-cultural or international teams.

Most individuals initially learn leadership skills and develop ability in the context of their indigenous culture. As a result, the reflexive approach to leadership is conditioned by the norms, values, and beliefs of the individual’s culture. Leaders with experience only in a single culture can be viewed as exercising local leadership. When the situation requires leading outside of the leader’s home nation, however, the leader must acquire a second set of skills to support their ability to lead international or cross-cultural groups (Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006). In effect, competency in international business leadership requires the individual leader to make behavioural adaptations based on acquired knowledge and skills to effectively lead individuals from other cultures, regardless of whether the interactions take place in the home nation or in a host nation.

There is conflicting evidence about the effectiveness of this approach, however, with variable treatment of subordinates potentially creating divisiveness in a team. When using the differentiated approach recommended by leader member exchange theory, the leader has to be cautious to avoid creating the perception of favouritism for an in-group in the team from variable leadership behaviours (Bond & Smith, 1996). Evidence from research also suggests that the effects of transformational leadership on followers are stronger when the leader has similar relationships with all followers without substantial differentiation (Feinberg, Ostroff, & Burke, 2005). In contrast, some research suggests that leader influence tactics should be adjusted to the specific cultural needs of the subordinates (Yukl, Fu, & McDonald, 2003). Both of these perspectives, however, are largely based on the polycentric view of international team leadership, with the firm
attempting to match leader and followers using commonalities based on local cultural needs (Levy, et al. 2007).

Several different types of situations can develop resulting in conflict between international leadership and local leadership in organizations. One of the objectives of international leadership is to harmonize and integrate the activities of diverse operations in different nations (Luo & Shenkar, 2006). As a result, the organizational trend with international leadership is toward standardization of leadership approaches and techniques to enable the organization to place managers in leadership positions anywhere in the organization. In contrast, the objective of local leadership in the organization is focused on motivating individuals with a homogeneous culture to perform a specific task. Because adopting a standardized international approach to leadership represents change for local leaders and their followers, there may be an inherent conflict between international and local leadership in multinational organizations.

An area of divergence between international and local leadership noted in some of the literature is the possibility that managers on international assignments will employ individuals only from their home countries for key positions in host country operations (Reynolds, 1997). This can occur when a senior manager from the parent company or a senior manager from a third country is appointed to a position in a host country, and has full discretion over human resources policy and practices. In this type of situation, the management of the subsidiary in the host country consists of individuals from another nation that may not have sufficient cultural knowledge or training to effectively lead personnel in the host country.
Jackson and Haines (2007) considered the possibility of a fundamental conceptual difference between international leadership and local leadership based on the perspective of the role of personnel in the organization. Most multinational firms are headquartered in the major Western industrialized nations and have adopted the fundamental paradigms of business and leadership evolving in those nations. A central paradigm for these firms is the concept of human beings as human assets, with their knowledge and capabilities functioning as a factor of production.

2.4.4 Approaches to International Leadership Development

Some of the research suggests that multinational organizations have a responsibility to provide sufficient training to managers to support the ability to lead in cross-cultural situations (Millman, Taylor, & Czaplewski, 2002). The recommended method for the organizations to fulfill this responsibility is to provide cross-cultural training to managers to provide knowledge about key cultural differences such as communications styles and attitudes towards working in teams. Some organizations also provide mentors to assist managers with developing cross-cultural leadership skills. The mentors are familiar with the culture in a host country and can provide managers with information about local values, norms and behaviours. While this approach is appropriate for expatriate managers leading individuals from a single host nation, it is impractical for use with multinational teams composed of individuals from many different cultures.

Another approach to developing cross-cultural leadership skills suggested by Yukl, Fu, and McDonald (2003) is to train managers using structured scenarios. The approach asks the manager to engage in a set of leadership behaviours based on the content of the scenario, with the selected behaviours critiqued from the perspective of a specific
culture. In theory, this approach can assist leaders with developing cross-cultural skills because the scenarios resemble actual cross-cultural situations with multiple factors influencing the decision-making process.

Salas, et al. (2004) suggested that the structured scenario approach is more effective than lecture or experiential training because it allows the individual to learn methods to deal with process difficulties such as communications failures or interpersonal conflicts arising in a cross-cultural leadership situation. Salas, et al. (2004) further indicated that the event-based training approach should be used for leadership development because it provides a means for leader trainees to apply knowledge and competencies in a controlled setting. This approach also performs an initial skills assessment of the leader trainee, with the scenarios based on the identified needs of the learner for exercising specific competencies. In addition, the scenario approach supports virtual training for individuals that may be in different geographic locations. Both the study of Yukl, Fu and McDonald (2003) and the study of Salas, et al. (2004) extensively discussed the content of the scenarios or the specific learning outcomes expected from using the approach. In addition, there was no empirical validation of the argument the method is superior to other forms of training.

Millman, Taylor, and Czaplewski (2002) suggested that multinational organizations can improve leadership skills by establishing organizational structures providing greater support for cross-cultural leadership. In this approach leadership training is only one component of a larger organizational learning program to support leadership development. The authors advocate a perspective in which cross-cultural leadership is a knowledge asset of the organization. As such, it should be part of the knowledge
management system in the firm that collects and disseminates information about leadership and the application of leadership principles in cross-cultural situations.

2.4.5 Leadership of Cross-Cultural and International Teams

According to Salas, et al. (2004: 295), “a universal definition of team leadership has yet to emerge.” A functional definition of team leadership suggests it involves both task and development roles. The task role involves ensuring the members of the team have sufficient competencies, resources, and motivation to perform the task. The development role involves ensuring the members of the team have sufficient empowerment and relationship skills to share knowledge and to work with others in a group to achieve the objective.

When the functional definition is applied to the cross-cultural team context, it implies that the leader is responsible for obtaining sufficient knowledge about the cultures of the team members to motivate and empower each individual. The leader member exchange theory defines team leadership in terms of relationships, with the leader required to develop and maintain relationships tailored to the needs of the individual members of the team (Pillai, Scandura, & Williams, 1999). When this definition of team leadership is applied to the cross-cultural team, it also suggested that the leaders must become sufficiently familiar with the culture of the team members to establish effective relationships. The functional definition of leadership is related to leadership categorization theory, which proposed that the critical element for leading teams composed of members from varied cultures and nations is for the leader to match behaviours with the expectations of the followers (Broadbeck, et al., 2000).
2.4.5.1 Cross-Cultural Teams

The general trend among multinational firms is to form cross-cultural teams based on the premise that diversity maximizes the value of the organization’s human resources (Salas, et al., 2004). The cross-cultural team poses a significant risk to the organization because of the increased difficulties with sufficiently integrating individuals from heterogeneous cultural backgrounds to accomplish the designated task. The majority of the literature examining cross-cultural teams focus on situations in which a leader is from one culture and the members of the team are from a single culture different from the culture of the leader (Millman, Taylor, & Czaplewski, 2002). This type of situation commonly occurs with the expatriate manager assigned to conduct operations in a single host country for an extended period of time. In many respects, this type of cross-cultural team requires the use of the most fundamental aspects of cross-cultural leadership. In practical situations, however, cross-cultural teams are composed of leaders and members from many different cultural backgrounds, which increase the complexity of the leadership problem (Salas, et al., 2004).

Language represents a significant barrier to effective leadership of cross-cultural teams (Levina & Vaast, 2008; Luo & Shenkar, 2006). The operating needs of large multinational organizations require the use of a standardized language to support integration and control. The organization expects employees to have a working knowledge of the organizational language regardless of their native language or nation of origin. Levina and Vaast (2008) found that language proficiency can become a significant barrier to the effectiveness of a cross-cultural team. Substantial differences in proficiency in the common language used by the team create frustration among the
members of the team with the higher level of proficiency. It also can lead to specific
difficulties with accurately conveying information during the communication process.

In theory, the language choice of the organization affects the way information is
acquired and circulated (Luo & Shenkar, 2006). It also affects the way in which the
organization conducts its human resources development including leadership training,
the preparation of managers for expatriate assignments, and diversity or cultural
training. The operational language of the organization can affect the approach to cross-
cultural team leadership because the language has embedded concepts and principles
related to leadership. In this theory, the leadership approach in a firm using Arabic as its
organizational language is more likely to reflect the underlying concepts of leadership in
Arab nations. As a result, some inherent conflict can occur when a manager leads a
cross-cultural team composed of individuals from non-Arabic cultures even if the
members of the team are conversant in Arabic. In effect, a working knowledge of the
organizational language does not necessary produce a change in the individual’s
preferences for leadership styles and behaviours.

2.4.5.2 International Teams

One approach to distinguishing the international team from the cross-cultural team is to
view the international team as composed of a leader from one culture and team
members from many disparate cultures (Luo & Shenkar, 2006). The literature, however,
does not provide a generally accepted distinction between the cross-cultural and the
international team. An international team composed of individuals from many different
cultures poses a greater challenge for leadership because of the increased difficulty for
the leader in obtaining sufficient knowledge about the different expectations, values and
norms of the individual team members. In addition, the international leadership
paradigm tends to result in a standardized approach to leadership, although the leader may have to make significant adaptations to motivate followers from many different cultural backgrounds.

Another approach to defining the international team is to consider it team spanning national boundaries with cultural differences as one element affecting the methods of leadership and the operations of the team (Levina & Vaast, 2008). Other factors that can influence the team include organizational, political, and functional differences creating boundaries between team members and barriers to collaboration. An additional intangible factor inhibiting the operations of international teams is the degree that local knowledge is embedded in practices and paradigms about the specific task that must be performed, which creates resistance to developing a common practice approach. The problem of leading the international team becomes more complex because cultural variables interact with other types of differences among the team members such as age, experience, and educational levels in ways not easy for leaders to predict or control.

International business is making increasing use of virtual teams supported by information technology capabilities. These types of teams pose special problems for leadership because of the lack opportunities to form personal relationships between the leader and subordinates (Millman, Taylor, & Czaplewski, 2002). The members of the virtual teams can be composed of individuals from many different cultures and nationalities engaged in a task under the supervision of a team leader. Because of the difficulties with relationship formation in virtual teams, leaders often adopt a more task-oriented and authoritarian approach to influence subordinates.
Barczak, McDonough, and Athanassiou (2006) investigated leadership among international teams engaged in new product development for multinational firms. A new product development team in a global firm is usually very heterogeneous and composed of individuals from different nations and cultural backgrounds with variable functional specialties working on a specific task that requires innovation and creativity. In addition, the team members and team leaders usually do not regularly engage in face-to-face contact, with most interactions occurring over the internet. The international team could be exclusively composed of individuals from within the firm or could include members from outside the firm such as a consultant or vendor. Although international team members from various nations often communicate using a lingua franca such as English, their competencies with the language are variable. While the researchers did not discuss the specific methodology used in the study, they noted it involved 300 teams in 230 nations. The findings indicated that international teams for new product development had such variable composition that leaders had to demonstrate flexibility based on the situation and the needs of the individual team members. The findings also identified four key challenges for leading international teams of: a) different native languages; b) different cultural backgrounds; c) team members living in different countries; and d) team members from different companies.

2.4.6 Effect of Differences in National Cultures on Team Leadership

Evidence from research suggests there are significant differences in the preferences for leadership based on national cultures (Pillai, Scandura & Williams, 1999; Salas, et al., 2004). In the United States and the United Kingdom, the charismatic leadership style associated with transformational leadership in combination with a leader member exchange approach is preferred by the national cultures. In contrast, Australian leaders
use both transformational and transactional leadership approaches. In Arab cultures, leaders are considered either prophetic or “caliphal” (Pillai, Scandura, & Williams, 1999). The prophetic leader exhibits the characteristics of a charismatic transformational leader by inspiring followers to adopt the leader’s vision as their own. In contrast, the “caliphal” leader uses authoritarian leadership styles, controlling subordinates by coercion or fear. The general preference is for prophetic leaders who adopt a paternalistic role of caring for followers and favouring individuals within the immediate follower group over outsiders. In India, the preference is for a transformational leader who establishes nurturing personal relationships with subordinates. The transactional type of approach based on a contract type of relationship between leader and follower is not an effective leadership style for individuals from this culture. The culture has an implicit expectation that the leader will adjust the relationship according to the needs of the subordinates (Pillai, Scandura, & Williams, 1999).

Both Broadbeck, et al. (2000) and Salas, et al. (2004) argued that implicit leadership theory accounts for the differences in leadership preferences among various cultures because it postulates the existence of leader archetypes in the cultural belief system. The authors cautioned, however, “that even if a leadership style is culturally endorsed, the actual manifestation of that style may be different across cultures” (Salas, et al. 2004: 298). The theory suggests that the leadership style interacts with cultural preferences to create a perception of the effectiveness of the leader. Broadbeck, et al., (2000) indicated that the cultural preference for a particular type of leader us the result of the functioning of cognition processes, which use a schema to categorize perceptions. The schema is formed during the individual’s early development, and is strongly influenced by cultural
factors. As a result, the individual observes certain behaviours and categorizes them as related to leadership if the behaviours conform to the schema. The theory implies that the leader has to have sufficient knowledge of the cultural archetypes of subordinates to adjust leadership behaviours and styles to conform to cultural expectations of the followers.

Leung, Bhagat, Buchan, Erez and Gibson (2005) also found evidence from a literature review indicating that culture has a strong influence on the development of the cognitive schema of leadership. Cultural norms influence the higher order elements of the schema such as perceptions of affect, values and self image. The authors, however, suggest that culture is continually involved in a process of dynamic change. As a result, the components of the schema can change over time based on experience and situation. As a result, the interaction of leadership behaviours and cultural variables are not static, and may change if an international team remains in existence for an extended period of time.

The importance of relationships with the leader and with the group of subordinates also varies among cultures (Barczak, McDonough & Athanassiou, 2006). The cultures of the Middle East, Latin America, and East Asia consider strong personal relationships with leaders and coworkers important, and are referred to as high-context cultures. These cultures establish group community through frequent communications leading to agreement and consensus about approaches to task performance. North American and European cultures place greater emphasis on the group task than on the relationships and are referred to as low-context cultures. These cultures place less emphasis on communications and have an implicit expectation that the individual members of a team will assume individual responsibility for task performance.
In a review of the research investigating cross-cultural leadership, Bond and Smith (1996) found that the indigenous culture of the leader affects the decision-making style. Leaders from individualistic cultures with a low power distance between leaders and subordinates tend to make decisions based on their personal experience, knowledge and training. In contrast leaders from collectivist cultures with a high power distance between leaders and subordinates tend to rely more heavily on external advice about the decision and attempt to achieve consensus prior to making the formal decision. Differences also exist in the self-efficacy of subordinates based on whether the culture is individualistic or collectivistic and whether the culture has a high power distance. Subordinates from collectivistic cultures with a high power distance are more likely to refer routine decisions to the group leader. The findings suggest that the leadership behaviours of individuals from individualistic and low power distance cultures would be unsuitable for cultures valuing collectivism and according high status to the leader. These findings are similar to the conclusions of Broadbeck, et al. (2000) indicating that the leader’s behaviours had to conform to the expectations of followers based on a prototypical model of a leader.

The differences among cultures in the perceived importance of negotiation can also influence the leadership effectiveness (Bond & Smith, 1996). A leader can behave in an authoritarian manner by using power or authority to obtain the cooperation of subordinates. The leader can also negotiate with followers to elicit voluntary cooperation. The particular approach to management of followers is culturally dependent.
The application of leader-member exchange theory suggests that leaders of large groups cannot develop effective or quality relationships with all members of the group. The individuals with whom the leader develops quality relationships are identified as the in-group because of their closeness to leader and the individuals with poor relationships are referred to as the out-group (Uhl-Bien, 2003). Significant variations exist among cultures with respect to the competition between members of the in-group and members of the out-group, which affects relationships between the two groups in a large team and the relationships among different teams operating under the same leader (Bond & Smith, 1996). Leaders and followers from individualistic cultures who are part of an in-group are more likely to negotiate with members of an out-group. In cultures characterized by collectivism, there is a greater amount of competition and less negotiation between members of the in-group and members of the out-group.

Research investigating the differences in the value placed on the leadership behaviours intended to influence subordinates has identified significant cultural differences (Chen, Tjosvold, & Fang, 2005; Yukl, Fu, & McDonald, 2003). In general, Asian cultures tend to perceive leadership behaviours based on relationship enhancement as more effective for influencing subordinates than Western cultures. As a result, the confrontational approach adopted by leaders to influence subordinates commonly found in Western organizations may not be suitable for situations involve Asian subordinates. There is also evidence indicating that the competitive and avoidance approaches to conflict management weaken relationships with subordinates even when the approaches are commonly used in a culture. Research also suggests there can be variations within regions presumed to share similar cultural attributes, such as significant differences in
the prototypical attributes associated with leaders and influence behaviours among European nations (Broadbeck, et al., 2000).

The majority of research examining influence tactics of leaders has focused on Western nations, and has determined leaders using proactive leadership behaviours such as exchange, rational persuasion and upward appeals (Yukl, Fu, & McDonald, 2003). The relative effectiveness of the different influence tactics in a culturally homogenous environment, however, has not been examined. In addition, the tactics followers use to resist the efforts of leaders to inspire and motivate them are not well understood. To remedy the deficiency, Yukl, Fu, and McDonald (2003) conducted comparative research involving Chinese, American and Swiss firms using a survey to collect data from managers. The findings indicated that American and Swiss managers considered rational persuasion, inspirational appeals, and use of a coalition as the most effective approaches for influencing subordinates. The Chinese managers, however, placed higher value on upward appeal in which higher authority is used to influence a subordinate, as well as an informal method of persuasion. In general, the American and Swiss managers preferred a direct confrontational approach when faced with subordinate resistance, while Chinese managers preferred using personal relationships and indirect appeals to the subordinates. The methodological approach to this research, however, had shortcomings from the use a scenario associated with the questionnaire. The data was based on the responses of the managers to a hypothetical situation, with no certainty the managers would behave in the manner they indicated in an actual situation.
Differences also exist among cultures in the perceptions of organizational justice, which can affect the leadership outcome. Organizational justice consists of procedural justice, which is the perception of fairness in the processes used by the leader, and distributive justice, which is the perception of fairness of the outcomes of the decisions. The perception of organizational justice contributes to the trust of the follower, which increases willingness to accept the leader’s decisions (Pillai, Scandura, & Williams, 1999). Perceptions of procedural justice is strongly related to attitudes towards the organization such as commitment among followers while distributive justice is strongly related to personal attitudes such as job satisfaction. Research also suggests there is a correlation between transformational leadership approaches and positive perceptions of procedural justice regardless of the culture of the leaders and followers.

2.4.7 Skills for Leadership in an International Cross-Cultural Environment

There is a general lack of agreement among theorists about the nature of the cross-cultural skills and competencies a leader must possess to effectively lead a multicultural group (Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006). There has been relatively little research to identify the specific knowledge, skills and attributes functioning as antecedents to cross-cultural competency. In addition, the majority of the research focuses on the leadership issues of workplace diversity in a regulated environment in which the objective is to prevent discrimination. Extensive research has not been conducted to investigate the leadership approaches related to cross-cultural and international leadership as a means of increasing the value of the knowledge assets of the organization to achieve a competitive advantage. As a result, identification of nature of the skills necessary to manage and lead in a cross-cultural or international environment
depends on the inferences from cultural studies, communication studies, and leadership studies examining phenomenon other than cross-cultural leadership.

Levy, et al. (2007) proposed that the fundamental skill for an international or cross-cultural leader was to develop a global mindset or perspective described as cosmopolitan. The characteristics of the cosmopolitan mindset include rejection of the nation-state model and cultural essentialism, and the creation of a balance between the global and the local. The perspective implicitly demands that leaders possess cognitive competencies allowing differentiation between cultural and organizational dynamic at both the international and local levels. The perspective supports the ability of the individual leader to place value on information and knowledge necessary to achieve the objective of balancing international and local needs when leading a cross-cultural team. The approach suggested by Levy, et al. (2007) is, however, a relatively vague concept that does not clearly distinguish between an attribute of the leader and a competency acquired through training.

Salas, et al. (2004) developed a functional role theory to describe the skills necessary for a cross-cultural leader, which considers the skills as process elements. The cross-cultural leader has the dual roles of creating sense from the dynamic team environment and providing sense to the members of the team to allow them to perform their tasks. The leader has to have sufficient skills to gather information from the internal and external environment of the team. The internal information can include data about the cultural background of the individual members of the team, and the task environment and its constraints. The leader employs cognitive skills to create meaning from the information relevant to the team and its task. The role of providing sense to the
members involves communicating the mental model the leader establishes in a form that is understandable to the individual members of the team. This can include the use of different relationship and communication styles depending on the needs of the individual team members. This functional role theory implicitly limits the size of teams because of the need for the leader to maintain customized relationships and communications with the individual members.

Rhodes, et al. (2005) found evidence in various leadership studies that high emotional intelligence is a critical competency for international and cross-cultural leadership. Emotional intelligence is a theory postulating the existence of a form of intelligence allowing people to more effectively identify emotions in themselves and others and to regulate emotions. This form of intelligence differs from cognitive intelligence that involves reasoning with factual information. It includes the ability to understand how behaviours can produce an emotional response in others. According to Hernez-Broome and Hughes (2004), research evidence exists supporting the proposition that “a leader's ability to resonate emotionally with others is a better predictor of effective executive leadership than is general intelligence.” Emotional intelligence theory also suggests that despite different native abilities, an individual can learn emotional intelligence skills and competencies in a manner similar to learning cognitive skills. Emotional intelligence has two central skills presumed to be universally necessary for leadership. Leaders must have the ability to recognize and regulate their emotions so that their behaviours are not driven by their emotions. In addition, leaders must be able to recognize emotions in others to regulate their behavioural responses (Rhodes, et al., 2005). In a cross-cultural leadership context, the leader focuses on acquiring sufficient
information about the cultural signals related to emotion such as affect to allow them to understand the emotional responses of others.

Johnson, Lenartowicz, and Apud (2006), however, argued that emotional intelligence is a culturally bound concept because of the difficulties with applying the skills across cultures. The various signals people use to intentionally and unintentionally communicate their emotional state can vary substantially across cultures. As a result, they described a separate set of skills referred to as cultural competence, which allow leaders to more effectively form relationships with subordinates in a cross-cultural context. Cultural competence, however, involves behaviours rather than skills such as seeking information beyond existing areas of knowledge and experience. It requires the use of metacognitive strategies to function in new social contexts, proactive information acquisition, and the ability to adapt behaviours. Like the competencies associated with emotional intelligence, these behaviours can be learned.

Firms have adopted two general approaches to developing skills necessary to manage and lead in a cross-cultural environment (Combs, 2002; Jackson & Haines, 2007). The first approach provides training to managers in the conventional leadership theories, stressing the cross-cultural nature of some fundamental principles such as the value placed on transformational leadership methods in most cultures. The second approach uses a diversity training paradigm, which assumes that providing information to individuals in a leadership role about the cultural differences among members of a work group will produce better understanding and more effective leadership (Combs, 2002). Neither of the approaches, however, has been effective in providing individuals with the full range of skills to effectively lead a cross-cultural or international work group.
Jackson and Haines (2007) further suggested that the training approach used by large multinational firms based in Western nations may be inherently flawed because it requires leaders to adopt a paradigm in which human assets are manageable resources, which may not be appropriate for leadership in all cultural contexts.

Diversity training is one approach to providing knowledge to leaders about the characteristics of subordinates to support relationship formation. Diversity training requires leaders to develop the skills to become aware of the cultural differences among their subordinates that may become a source of conflict or misunderstanding when leading a group (Combs, 2002). The leader should be self-efficacious with respect to diversity when leading a multi-cultural group. In practice, the leader should have sufficient awareness of cultural differences to monitor and regulate behaviours based on the cultural expectations of subordinates. These general leadership skills correspond with the competencies or skills necessary to manage in a global context identified by some research. The general skills include the ability to learn about foreign cultures, the ability to interact with individuals from other cultures as equals, and the ability to adapt to the cultural perspectives or needs of others (Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006). While these skills may be necessary for a manager to exercise cross-cultural leadership, they do not make a clear distinction between managing and leading.

Levina and Vaast (2008) suggested that the primary skill of the leader of a cross-cultural or international team is to use communications and negotiations to establish a common set of norms and values for the group. Each individual in a cross-cultural team brings different values and beliefs about the way resources should be allocated to achieve the objective and the role of the leader in the decision-making process. In addition, each
individual has different knowledge and competencies related to the group task. The initial role of the leader is to establish common ground for collaboration by establishing mutually agreed upon values, standards, and roles based on integrating cultural, organizational, and functional perspectives of the team members. Of particular importance in this process is determining the differences in the knowledge and local practice of the members of the group, which is related to culture but outside the boundaries of the factors usually considered by leaders as a cultural factor. The differences in knowledge and practice have to be harmonized for the group to develop a common perspective of how the task should be performed and to allocate resources to team members that can be the most efficient in performing tasks.

Chan, Tjosvold and Fang, (2005) suggested that leaders of cross-cultural teams should be aware of the three fundamental approaches to conflict, which consist of cooperation, competition, and avoidance. The dominant approach to conflict varies across cultures, but the three approaches are present to some degree in all cultures. According to Chan, Tjosvold and Fang (2005: 268), “research has document that it’s how conflicts are managed, not conflict itself, that contributes to effective collaboration and relationships.” The most effective method of handling conflict is cooperative because it allows the leaders and followers to confront situations and resolve difficult problems relating to tasks and group relationships. The cooperative approach may be more difficult for leaders to use with subordinates from a different culture because of insufficient knowledge of the values and beliefs of the subordinates.
2.5 Understanding National Values

The literature indicates that there is increased interest in examining the relationship between values and leadership. At the same time, much of the research investigating the role of national values in cross-cultural leadership does not adequately parse the construct of values from the construct of culture. The sections include discussions of national value theory and their application to cross-cultural leadership. Because of the large amount of literature related to values and cross-cultural leadership the literature review is divided into sections consisting of:

a) national values and cross-cultural investigations;

b) national values in Europe and Latin America; and

c) application of national values theory in GCC nations.

2.5.1 National Values and Cross-Cultural Leadership

According to Hattrup, Mueller and Joens (2007: 481), values “represent the basic building blocks of attitudes and behaviours, determining the choices that people make and the evaluations of their experiences.” An alternative definition of a value is “an enduring belief that guide actions across specific contexts” (Henderson & McEwen, 174). Values are precepts or norms reflecting the ideals of a cultural group about the behaviours of people that are desirable or undesirable. They function to translate the assumptions about reality among a cultural group into behavioural norms to guide behaviours intended to ensure the survival of the group (Erez & Gati, 2004).

2.5.1.1 Social Constructivism Theory and National Values

Social constructivism is the dominant theory attempting to explain the formation of national identities and the values associated with the identities (Moore, 2006). The
The fundamental assumption of social constructivism is that objects perceived by the senses do not have an objective or essential reality that all individuals agree on. The way people develop an understanding of the nature of an object is through social interaction (Howard, 2000). If an object has an essential reality, people cannot know the reality because of the social interactions that provide a framework for understanding the meaning of the object. The social meaning attached to the object becomes the reality that individuals understand about the object. In social constructivism theory, the assumption by individuals that they have complete understanding of the nature of an object is considered naïve realism because the understanding is a social construct and does not represent the true or objective nature of the object.

All individuals in a nation are social actors and must implicitly accept certain normative rules about the way their relationships and information exchange with others will take place. Accepting the rules about relationships and information exchange creates greater legitimacy for the information received by others. As a result, the social interaction fosters the development of an ontology or sense of being based on the social construct that others communicate to an individual. The individual develops a sense of self-identity from the social constructs. At the same time, the constructs are manifestations of a social reality and not an actual or objective reality (Howard, 2000).

In social constructivism theory, the concept of national identity and national values are social constructs created by the social interactions of the people in a nation (Moore, 2006). The social construct is the outcome of historical and cultural factors that influenced people in the past and led to the formation of the current social construct about national identity. The construct contains information about the way the majority
of people from a nation are expected to behave and the rules governing their relationships with others. The values and other cultural norms are transmitted through a social learning process to each succeeding generation, with the specific nature of the construct changing over time (Erez & Gati, 2004).

The social construct approach also contains a distinction between the individual identity as a resident of a nation and the identity of the individual as a member of a particular cultural group (Botz-Bornstein & Hengelbrok, 2006). The national identity is a quasi-political social construct suggesting that individuals living in the specific political boundaries of a nation will identify with the nation. At the same time, the individuals residing within the boundaries of a nation may have different cultural and social constructs, with the sub-groups within a nation often referred to as an ethnic. The ethnic exists prior to the nation and is composed of myths, values, and cultural interpretations, which are transmitted by social interaction. The values and norms of the individual are presumed to be in a hierarchical relationship, with all individuals in the political boundary of the nation sharing the same national values and norms although they may have different values and norms associated with their ethnic. When individuals from the same nation but different ethnics present to individuals from other nations, they are theoretically perceived as substantially similar although there may be some variation in the application of national values because of the influence of the ethnic. In effect, national values are not monolithic. Although individuals from the same nation may appear to share the same values, there are subgroups within the nation that place different priorities on values (Schwartz, 2004).
The national identity construct and the individual ethic constructs subsumed by the national identity theoretically implies that certain national values are universally shared by all individuals with the same national identity, but there may be particular variation in the understanding and application of the values by individuals (Hampden-Turner, 2002). The universal national values consist of a generalization about the rules, code of behaviour and expectations of individuals. The particular variations are manifested as exceptions to the universal rule occurring in specific situations.

2.5.1.2 Human Values Theory and National Values

According to Erez and Gati (2004), culture exists in three layers consisting of fundamental assumptions about reality and human nature, the values derived from the assumptions, and the behavioural patterns that construct the physical and social environment. The fundamental assumptions about reality and human nature are the invisible aspects of culture that individuals generally do not consider or reflect on. The behavioural patterns are the external manifestation of a culture that can be observed and measured. Values function as the intermediary between the invisible assumptions and the visible manifestations of the culture. Erez and Gati (2004) further argued that Schwartz’s (2004) human values theory is the dominant theory for studies examining individual values between nations while the Hofstede (1998) theory of cultural dimensions is the dominant theory for examining the values affecting organizational behaviour between nations.

At the current time, there is no mutually agreed upon set of dimensions for identifying national values and to support cross-national comparisons (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007). Human values theory defines values as “desirable, trans-situational goals, varying in
importance, that serve as guiding principles in people’s lives (Schwartz, 2006: 1). The values reflect the social understanding of the nature of reality and the way people should behave to deal with reality, which introduces elements of social constructivism theory into the concept of human values (Erez & Gati 2004). It is also necessary for people to communicate the goals that are important, with the communication process defining the relative emphasis that should be placed on human values. Sagiv and Schwartz (2007: 177) indicated that values are “shared, abstract ideas about what a social collectivity views as good, right and desirable.”

According to Schwartz (2006), the three universal aspects of human values are based on the common aspects of the human condition, which are the biological needs of the individual, the need for coordinated social action, and the survival and welfare needs of the group (Schwarz, 2006). The universal aspects lead to ten basic values recognized by all cultures that are related to the motivational goals. The basic values are: a) self-direction; b) stimulation; c) hedonism; d) achievement; e) power; f) security; g) conformity; h) tradition; i) benevolence; and j) universalism. These values are found in all social collectives and can therefore be considered universal human values.

Human values theory also postulates dynamic interaction among the values, with some values such as hedonism potentially conflicting with benevolence and forcing the individual to prioritize the values. As a result, the values can be grouped in opposing categories. Values such as stimulation and self-direction are in an openness to change category while values such as tradition, conformity and security are in a conservation or preservation category. Benevolence and universalism are in a self-transcendence category while achievement and power are in a self-enhancement category. While the
The theory of human values has been empirically verified by the instrument developed by Schwartz known as the Portrait Values Questionnaire (Davidov, Schmidt, & Schwartz, 2008). The findings from research using this instrument have determined a high degree of consistency in the value structures and priorities placed on values in various nations (Lenartowicz & Roth, 2001). The conclusion that can be drawn from the research findings is that the processes for structuring a value system in a culture or a nation is relatively universal although there may be significant differences in the priorities placed on values.

The findings from studies using the theory of human values has found no correlation between national wealth and the priority assigned to values supporting either individualism or collectivism in the nation (Voronov & Singer, 2002). In addition, the use of the questionnaire extended the theory to include seven culture-level value types consisting of: a) conservatism; b) intellectual autonomy; c) affective autonomy; d) hierarchy; e) mastery; f) egalitarian commitment; and g) harmony (Voronov & Singer, 2002). These value types are the outcome of the interaction among values based on the different priority placed on the values in the national culture. One of the advantages of the human values theory over other theories such as Hofstede’s (1998) cultural dimensions is that the human values theory approach is not culture bound (Bergeron and Schneider, 2005). The values and value types are applicable to all cultures and are not derived from Western perspectives.
Research conducted by Bergeron and Schneider (2005) found a high correlation between Schwartz’s (2004) assessment of the value priorities in a nation and aggressive behaviour. Nations with placing a relatively high priority on mastery and hierarchy had high levels of aggressive behaviour. In contrast, nations placing a relatively high priority on affective autonomy had low levels of aggressive behaviour. In addition, nations emphasizing conservatism and egalitarian commitment also had relatively low levels of aggression.

An alternative theoretical approach to value theory is the Hofstede (1998) framework that postulates the existence of four cultural dimensions related to general value orientations (Besabe & Valencia, 2007). The collectivism-individualism dimension examines the priority a culture places on values associated with autonomy and the degree of loyalty or duty to the group. The power distance dimension describes the priority a culture places values related to hierarchy and power. Low power distance cultures tend to place higher priority on values related to universalism and egalitarianism. The masculinity-femininity dimension examines the degree that men and women in a culture have different value priorities. The uncertainty avoidance dimension describes the priority the culture places on values such as tradition and conformity that are intended to protect the society from external threats. Low uncertainty avoidance cultures often place higher priority on values related to openness to change. Hofstede (1998) has also identified a fifth dimension of values based on the Chinese Value Survey, which is described as Confucian dynamism. This dimension involves the degree of difference of a society of future or present orientation of its value system.
The human values theory of Swartz (2004) is generally compatible with the cultural dimensions postulated in the Hofstede (1998) model, but differs on some fundamental points. The cultural dimensions are conceptualized as independent dimensions, with no cross-dimensional influences. In effect, the model presumes that four separate value hierarchies can exist depending on the type of value. In contrast, human value theory suggests that some interaction occurs among values creating an integrated value priority system (Schwartz, 2004). The cultural dimension model is also more suited for examining organizational values and leadership behaviour while the human value theory is more suited for examining national values and leadership behaviour (Hattrup, Mueller, & Joens, 2007). Despite the fundamental differences in the two approaches to values, research investigating value priorities using scales developed from both approaches has found a relatively high correlation between the scales (Besabe & Valencia, 2007).

National values should be distinguished from national culture. There is no generally agreed upon definition of culture. According to de Munck and Korotayev (2000: 341), a workable definition of culture is to consider it “a convenient term for designating the clusters of common concepts, emotions, and practices that arise when people interact regularly.” In this definition, values are a component of culture, but are not synonymous with culture. In addition, different cultures place the varying degrees of emphasis on values. Because values are components of culture, other cultural factors can have an influence on the prioritization of values and the relationship between values and actions (Hofstede, 1998; Szabo, et al. 2001). Another definition of culture is “what a group learns over a period of time as the group solves its problems of survival in an external environment and its problems of internal integration” (Erez & Gati, 2004: 585). From
the perspective of these definitions, the priority placed on values is important to the
survival of the group and the way it engages in internal integration to deal with the
specific problems of survival. The definition further implies that the value priority may
change over time in response to changes in the external environment such as pressures
from globalization.

Values in a culture function as ideals, with social groups influencing individuals to
adhere to the priorities for values established in the culture (Schwartz, 2004). Aspects of
a culture incompatible with the high priority values generate conflict and pressure from
social groups to bring conformity to the value hierarchy. At the same time, the dominant
culture in a nation tends to orient itself towards one of the four categories of values. For
example, a culture can place strong emphasis on autonomy, with the culture and nation
giving high priority to stimulation and self-direction associated with the openness to
change category. In contrast, a culture can place high priority on preservation of the
status quo, emphasizing tradition and conformity. Cross-cultural conflict occurs when
individuals from cultures at opposite extremes of each category come into contact with
each other (Schwartz, 2004).

Sagiv and Schwartz (2007) suggested that the value priority system of a social
collective such as a nation can influence the perception of the role of the individual and
the organization in society. In an embedded culture, the value priorities reinforce the
view that the individual is embedded in a group, with values such as self-direction given
low priority and values such as conformity given a high priority. In an autonomy
culture, the value priorities reinforce the perspective that the individual is separate from
the group, with self-direction prioritized over conformity. A similar dichotomy exists
between the perspectives of hierarchy to maintain control over individuals in society and egalitarianism that promotes a greater degree of autonomy in society.

A variation on human values theory suggests that values can be categorized into two broad dimensions (McCrae, et al. 2007). The first dimension is a continuum bounded at one end by traditional values and at the other end by secular-rationalistic values. A nation that is closer to the traditional boundary has values related to traditional religious precepts while a nation that is closer to the secular-rationalistic boundary has values related to patriotism. The second dimension involves a continuum bounded at one end by values related to survival and the other end by values related to self-expression. The survival values are related to physical security while the self-expression values are related to autonomy. The specific position of national values in the two continuums depends on factors such as historic responses to climatic conditions, and the dominant religion. Nations with harsh climactic conditions theoretically focus on survival values while nations with strong religious involvement among the population tend to focus on traditional values. Changes to the ability of the population to respond to harsh climatic conditions or the erosion of religious belief can lead to movement in the position of the national values over time.

Henderson and McEwen (2005) argued that national values and national identity are interrelated concepts. The national identity is a presumption that all individuals residing within the boundaries of a nation share the same fundamental values, beliefs and characteristics. At the same time, a nation is an artificial political construct that exerts administrative control over people that may have different cultural backgrounds, which occurs in a pluralistic nation. The political discourse associated with the national
identity establishes a standardized priority for values in the nation. The degree of acceptance of groups and individuals within the nation for the value priority depends on the degree of acceptance of the national identity. Because the national values depend on the political discourse, they can change in response to the struggle for power within the nation. In effect, a change of national regime can produce some change in the national values by altering the influences on the population to accept different value priorities.

2.5.1.3 National Values and Cross-Cultural Investigations

The universalism and particularism dichotomy found in the construction of national identities has theoretical applications to cross-cultural leadership (Hampden-Turner, 2002). While all leaders share the universal human values, the national culture influences the priority placed on values in the leadership process. The value priorities of the nation shape the concept of the collection of traits that are attributed to the ideal leader in the culture (Szabo, et al., 2001). In effect, the national values create a model for leadership value priorities, with both leaders and followers accepting the model as valid. Individuals from the nation expect the leader to display behavioural characteristics consistent with the value priorities. When an individual from another nation is in a position of leadership, there is a greater likelihood that the value priorities of the leader will differ from the value priorities of the followers. As a result, the behaviours of the leaders may be incongruent with the expectations of the followers based on their value priorities. At the same time, the values of the leader function as general influences on leadership behaviour that are remote from the actions that constitute the behaviour (Szabo, et al., 2001). Many factors such as motive, leadership needs, intentions, and available options can operate as moderating variables influencing the relationship between values and leadership behaviours.
The national values of leaders are significant in cross-cultural contexts because they influence the preference for solutions to problems (Simon & Lane, 2004). Leaders in a cross-cultural environment generally rely on the value priorities of their home nation. Because the value structure is learned early in life, it is embedded in the individual and tends to resist change from socialization in the organization or the profession. As a result, the leader has inherent difficulty altering their value structure to conform to the value priorities of followers from a different nation.

Lenartowiz and Roth (2001) are critical of the research investigating national values because of the implicit assumption that the national political unit is an adequate representation of the value systems of all the cultural groups included in the political unit. While the national political unit can influence values in the various cultural groups within the nation, substantial differences in value priorities can exist among different cultural groups (Henderson & McEwen, 2005). As a result, national values provide an indication of the likely value priorities that a cross-cultural leader will encounter in a specific national environment, but there remains a possibility the leader will encounter significant variation in value priorities. The influence of the organization over the values of employees through its selection process, however, can result in greater value homogeneity, reducing the complexity of assessing values in a cross-cultural leadership context (Gagnon, 2007).

Hattrup, Mueller and Joens (2007) identified the difficulties with the measurement of values in cross-cultural research base on the research design and type of instrumentation. Because values are a socially created and communicated construct,
individuals may place a high priority on certain values without conscious awareness of the prioritization process. Research designs using instruments attempting to directly measure the value may not capture information about values for which the subject does not have full awareness. In effect, the subject may claim that an action is motivated by a certain value perceived as socially desirable when in fact it is motivated by another value that may not be socially desirable in the subject’s culture. The approach creates a dichotomy between the desired values of the individual and the desirable values as described in a culture (Hofstede, 1998). The direct research design is the approach generally used with cross-cultural studies. Research designs using instruments attempting to indirectly measure values can overcome this deficiency by removing the element of social desirability from the data collection process. These instruments, however, may have deficiencies in the correlation between values and the indirect construct used to measure the values such as job satisfaction or organizational commitment.

Another type of issue associated with research investigating national values is the number of dimensions used in the theoretical constructs (Smith, 2006). Although Schwartz (2004) postulated ten values, they operate in four dimensions. Hofstede (1998) suggested that there are five dimensions related to values. Smith (2006), however, noted that cross-cultural research involving national values often focuses on one or two dimensions such as the collectivism-individualism dimension and ignores other dimensions proposed by theorists. In effect, the theories suggest a high degree of interdependence among the dimensions, but the research is often based on the premise that the dimensions operate independently. Smith (2006) further argued that the methods of aggregating data to identify national values may be flawed because it does
not consider the culture and sub-culture variations within the national political unit. As a result, the methods used to aggregate data can affect the comparability of the findings of different studies of national values.

Schwartz (2004) suggested that merely identifying the value priorities of a nation is not sufficient to obtain an understanding of the meaning or implication of the values. Although the value system in a nation is established in a hierarchy, there are interrelationships between the values that create additional meaning understood by individuals using the value system. As a result, a hierarchical cluster analysis can be used to determine the relationships among the variables (Szabo, et al., 2001). The values of two nations can be considered similar when the relationships and cross-influences of the clusters are similar. This theory implies that cross-cultural leaders should perform an analysis of the value relationships among followers to obtain a better understanding of the value structure.

Another type of difficulty with the assessment of cross-cultural values is the stereotypes of national values that can influence research design and interpretation of findings (McCrae, et al., 2007). Stereotypes increase the possibility that the research findings contain the ecological fallacy described by de Almeida, Machado and Firmino (2006). Research investigating national stereotypes found a strong correlation between climatic warmth and the perception of warmth or benevolence of the people. McCrae et al. (2007) suggest that the stereotypes have an influence on national values when the people of a nation internalize the judgments and perceptions of outsiders. As a result, it is difficult for researchers to separate the cross-cultural influence of stereotypes on national values.
In contrast to the criticisms of research identifying and comparing national values, Hofstede (1998) argued that the approach is scientifically viable if: a) appropriate criteria are used for comparison; b) the national data reflects cultural data for the political unit; and c) nations are functionally equivalent units. Research investigating values use a construct to model the intangible concept of values, which is not capable of direct observation and measurement. As a result, all values research must use some type of indirect measure of the construct. At the same time, values are a component of culture, which introduces the possibility of that moderating or confounding variables influence the value construct. National values are therefore a component of a national culture. The use of the nation as a unit for comparison of constructs existing only as mental representations is problematic, however, because of the possibility that the nation as a political unit encompasses many different cultures. While some nations such as the Netherlands or Norway have relatively homogeneous cultures, many nations such as the United Kingdom, Brazil, and Argentina include a variety of cultural groups in the political unit. Hofstede (1998) argued that the use of the nation for cross-cultural comparisons of values has not been validated. In addition, nations may not be functionally equivalent units for comparison because social institutions such as family, schools and work places may have different meaning in different nations.

A controversy exists in the literature about the degree of influence organizations have over the self-identities of employees. One theoretical strand adopts the premise that organizations can use discursive tools and reward processes to create greater alignment between the self-identities of employees and the objectives of the organization (Gagnon, 2007).
The alternative theoretical strand suggests that the ambivalence inherent in identity construction creates an influence on the managerial constructs of organizational identity. This theoretical approach suggests that the creation of an organizational identity is a dialectic process in which employees influence managers and managers influence employees to develop an organizational identity. Other research, however, suggests that organizations maintain their identities and values of their home nation by attracting and selecting individuals who share the same values (Hattrup, Mueller & Joens, 2007). The managers of multinational organizations often retain the values of their home nation despite working in culturally diverse environments, which can have an influence on employees of the firm (Simon & Lane, 2004). From this perspective, multinational organizations contribute to cross-border similarity in values by selecting individuals for employment that have value priorities that conform to the priorities of the organization.

Simon and Lane (2004) developed a cross-cultural model of international alliances in which certain factors such as professional culture have a convergence effect on the application of national values to organizations. Because certain professions have established systems creating priority for certain values such as autonomy, membership in the profession has an influence on the application of national values. In the context of cross-cultural leadership, members of the same profession may have greater similarity in values even if substantial differences exist in national values. Research conducted by Parkes, Bochner and Schneider (2001) found that national values had a significant influence on the fit between the organization and the individual. This research defined fit in terms of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and
tenure. The research also examined only the two national values of collectivism and individualism, with Asians presumed to have collectivist national values and European-derived cultures presumed to have individualistic national values. The theoretical assumptions of the research were based on the Hofstede (1998) model of cross-cultural dimensions. The findings indicated that greater fit occurred between firms and employees from collectivist nations. In addition, employees from individualistic nations had the weakest fit with firms from collectivist nations. The findings confirmed the premise that individuals tend to hold the values of their national culture regardless of the values adopted by an organization. In addition, the organization tends to reflect the national values of its home nation. One of the shortcomings of the research by Parkes, Bochner and Schneider (2001), however, was its failure to distinguish between national culture and national values. The researchers used the concept of cultural values synonymously with national values. At the same time, the researchers did not define the relationship between values and the constructs of collectivism and individualism.

Peretz and Rosenbaltt (2006) conducted research to determine the effect of national values on organizational training. The research was based on the premise that national values have a strong influence on organizational values, with the national values exerting a top-down influence on the organization. The national values functionally shape the managerial beliefs about human nature and the relationship between the organizational and individual needs. As a result, national values can influence aspects of the organization such as training and development. This research tested the proposition that the lower the power distance in a nation, the larger the percentage of employees undergoing training. Low power distance in a nation is related to a low priority placed on values related to authority and power and can indicate a higher priority on values
associated with egalitarianism. It also tested the proposition that the greater the collectiveist orientation, the greater the emphasis on the training needs of the organization over the training needs of the individual. The collectiveist orientation places a high priority on values of tradition, conformity and security. The findings of the study showed support for the two propositions. In addition, the findings indicated that the technology level of the organization functioned as a moderating effect, with more employees undergoing training in firms employing higher levels of technology.

Despite the evidence from research suggesting that the differences in national values influence leadership paradigms and behaviours, some research suggests that differences in national values are less important to leadership behaviours than differences in individual values (Bigoness & Blakely, 1996). For example, the general values of Japanese managers were very similar to the general values of American managers, although significant variation existed in the approaches to translating the values into leadership actions. The findings of the Project GLOBE research also suggest the possibility of significant divergence between individual values and the idealized national values (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002).

**2.5.2 National Values in Europe and South America**

Human values theory was tested in Europe using the European Social Survey, which was an instrument based on the Portrait Values Questionnaire developed by Schwartz (Davidoff, Schmidt, & Schwartz, 2008). The findings indicated that most European nations have similarities with a relatively high priority placed on the power and achievement category and the conformity and tradition category. There is variation among the nations, however, as to which of the two value categories have the highest
priority. The exceptions to the pattern were Hungary, Poland, and Israel, which was included in the European nations for the research. These nations gave the highest priority to universalism and benevolence. The findings of the study indicate that even among nations that have strong cultural similarities, there can be significant variation in the priorities placed on values.

Research investigating the degree of universalism in national values has determined that European countries with a Protestant religious heritage tend to be more universal in their adherence to national values than European countries with a Catholic religious heritage (Hampden-Taylor, 2002). The Protestant European nations had a greater degree of homogeneity in the application of national values to specific circumstances than the Catholic European nations. This finding also applied to countries with a culture-derived from Europe such as the nations of North and South America. In addition, nations with a Hindu, Confucian, Shinto or Buddhist religious heritage were far more particularist than European nations, demonstrating greater variation in the application of the national values to specific circumstances. Hampden-Taylor (2002) argued that nations with universalist values tend to treat all individuals equally, and presume that individuals from other nations share the same values as they tend to do in universalist nations. In contrast, nations with more particularist cultures tend to differentiate their treatment of individuals based on the perception of differences and do not presume that others share their values and norms.

De Munck and Korotayev (2001) suggest that values are mutable over time because of cross-cultural contacts that lead to modification of existing values. The example these researchers provide is the spread of the Christian religion in Europe, with value
priorities embedded in the religious precepts. When people in a culture adopt a religion it has an effect on their value priorities as well as their behaviours. If enough people adopt the religion in a nation, the national values can gradually change in response to the value priorities required by the religion. The religious values eventually create some degree of similarity among the values of nations that share the same religion, such as the similarity in values in European nations. Variation remains, however, because of the differences in interpretation of the religious precepts. From the perspective of these researchers, religion in a significant factor for creating and maintaining national values.

Erez and Gati (2004) also emphasized the possibility of values changing over time because of external influences on a culture. The researchers proposed a dynamic model of culture in which external influences alter the fundamental assumptions about reality, the values and the external behaviours based on the assumptions and values. In this model, reciprocal influences exist in a hierarchical relationship among the individual, the group, the organization, the nation and the global environment. The influences of elements higher in the hierarchical structure such as the global environment or the nation can exert a top-down influence. Conversely, elements lower in the hierarchical structure such as the individual or the group can exert a bottom-up influence. As a result, the values can change over time in response to top-down or bottom-up influences. From this perspective, globalization is a contextual factor influencing values by altering the environment of nations, organizations, groups and individuals. In Europe, the development of the European Union has also led to increased congruence for national values because of external pan-European influences. Other researchers such as Perez and Rosenbaltt (2006) have presumed that national values exert only a top-down influence on organizations and groups.
Szabo, et al. (2001) investigated the similarity in leadership behaviours and values among managers in Switzerland, Germany and Austria. The underlying assumption in the research was that the managers in these three nations would exhibit substantial similarities in behaviours and values because of a common language and culture. The findings, however, showed significant differences among the managers in the three nations in the behaviours associated with the ideal leader. Although the fundamental value priorities were similar, other cultural variables moderated the relationship between values and the actions intended to implement the values in a leadership context. The findings of the study tend to support the premise argued by Szabo, et al. (2001) that national values create a fundamental framework for the belief systems of leaders and followers that is remote from the actions used to implement the leadership concepts.

Voronov and Singer (2002) conducted a critical analysis of the research investigating the collectivism and individualism paradigm, and determined that the constructs may be significantly flawed. Research investigating value theory has determined that the nations with European or European-derived cultures are not universally individualistic. In France, leaders tend to score high on autonomy and egalitarianism and low on conservatism, suggesting they are individualistic. In the United States, however, leaders tend to score moderately on autonomy and conservatism despite the reputation of the nation as individualistic. These findings, however, conflict with findings of other research determining that American managers are very individualistic when compared to European or Asian managers (Bigoness & Blakely, 1996). In addition, some research has determined that British managers are more autonomous and less conservative than French managers (Bigoness & Blakely, 1996).
To test the premise that national values are less important than individual values for influencing leadership behaviour, Bigoness and Blakely (1996) surveyed international management trainees from European nations and the United States. The research used the Rokeach Value Survey instrument. The findings indicated that the values of the managers were very similar regardless of the country of origin. The values with the highest priority were broadmindedness and capability, which are somewhat analogous to Schwartz’s (2006) openness to change group of values. The respondents gave the second highest priority to values of independence and intellectual capacity, which are somewhat analogous to Schwartz’s (2006) self-enhancement group of values. The lowest priority was accorded to values of associated with the personal traits of cheerfulness, loving and forgiving. The researchers concluded that the similarity among the values of managers from different European nations was evidence of value convergence due to globalization. The research findings provide some support for the dynamic model of culture and value change proposed by Erez and Gati (2004). One of the difficulties with the research conducted by Bigoness and Blakely (1996) was the use of the Rokeach Value Survey, which does not clearly distinguish between values and traits. Many of the measures included in the instrument such as broadmindedness and intellectual capacity are essentially traits rather than values. While the managers believe these traits are important for leadership, the traits are only indirectly indicative of national values.

Bergeron and Schneider (2005) conducted research to assess the correlation between national values and aggressive behaviour in European nations and some Asian nations. The findings indicated that most European nations placed low priority on the values of
mastery and hierarchy, which are associated with aggressive behaviour. Sweden, Germany and the Netherlands had the lowest priority on these two values and the lowest incidence of aggressive behaviour. Some European nations such as Greece, France and Finland, however, placed a high priority on mastery and hierarchy and had a higher incidence of aggressive behaviour. These findings imply that significant differences exist in Europe in value priorities, contradicting the conclusion of Erez and Gati (2004) suggesting that European value priorities are trending towards convergence.

Gundelach (1994) examined the relationship between national values, modernization, and cultural homogeneity among European nations. The theory of modernization suggests that the industrialization of economies and the change to social institutions accompanying industrialization results in a change to the national value priorities. Because modernization produces social change, it gradually changes values over time (Erez & Gati, 2004). Modernization tends to produce higher priorities on values associated with openness to change and autonomy, and lower priorities on values related to conformity and tradition. Modernization also changes the relationships among individuals in societies and may result in a greater emphasis on values associated with universalism and egalitarianism. The research conducted by Gundelach (1994) presumed that European nations had an approximately similar level of modernization. The findings indicated that national values and particularly national pride was a function of cultural homogeneity among European nations. The people in nations with little cultural diversity tended to have similar values and greater identification with the nation. The findings also indicated that societal institutions play an important role in creating value congruence in a nation. These findings imply that the development of common institutions in the European Union will produce greater value convergence.
The research, however, had a significant shortcoming in its failure to clearly delineate the values under investigation and relied on relatively vague value constructs such as family values.

There has been relatively little investigation of national values in South America, possibly because of the assumption that the national values are derived from European value systems. Lenartowicz and Roth (2001) examined the value priorities of subcultures in Brazil and the influence of the values on business. A subculture can be defined as a group with similar class status, ethnic background, religious affiliation, or rural or urban residence that creates cultural distinctions from other groups. Individuals in the subcultures have a shared set of value priorities that may differ from the national value structure. The findings of the research indicated that differences existed in the priority placed on values related to achievement, self-direction and conformity among subcultures in Brazil. There was, however, little variation in the priority placed on other values. The findings of the research suggest that a national value structure coexists with a subculture value structure in Brazil. In effect, the national values create a general framework for value priorities with some variability based on subculture. These findings are similar to those of Gundelach (1994), which suggests that greater cultural homogeneity leads to less variation in the acceptance of the national value structure.

2.5.3 Application of National Values in the GCC Nations

Research investigating differences in the application of national values indicates that Kuwaiti managers are more likely to make business decisions consistent with their personal values and goals when compared to American managers (Bigoness & Blakely, 1996). This finding suggests that the Kuwaiti managers may have a lower level of
organizational commitment or organizational fit, with their personal goals given a higher priority than the organizational goals. The finding also suggests that Kuwaiti leaders may have a low priority for values related to collectivism and a high priority for values related to autonomy.

A study using the desirability of control scale identified some of the value priorities in Kuwait (Abdullatif & Hamadah, 2005). The test instrument was developed to assess the individual’s perception of the desirability of exercising control over the factors influencing the life of the individual. It measures factors such as autonomy, leadership, avoidance of dependence, decisiveness and attentiveness. The findings of the research indicated that Kuwaitis place a high priority on autonomy, which is related to intellectual and affective autonomy in human value theory (Schwartz, 2004; Voronov & Singer, 2002). The findings also indicated a relatively high priority for values associated with decisive leadership, with the respondents preferring to be in a leadership position. These values correspond to the power and achievement values in human value theory (Schwartz, 2006).

Abdallah and Al-Hamoud (2001) analyzed data from the Globe Survey to identify the traits valued in leaders among the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) nations. An implicit outcome of the study was to identify some of the priorities for national values in the region. The nations in the GCC region place a high priority on collectivist values including a low priority on autonomy and a higher priority on conservatism. At the same time, the findings indicated a relatively high priority on power values, which is commonly found in collectivist societies. The findings, however, contained a significant demographic difference in national value priorities based on age. Older individuals
placed a lower priority on tradition and conformity and a higher priority on openness to change. These values were reflected by a less favourable view among older individuals of leaders who used the traditional tribal approach to leadership involving the autocratic exercise of power. The research also determined that the application of national values in organizations does not distinguish between the concepts of management and leadership, which are considered to be identical tasks or functions.

Kuwait and Qatar were two GCC nations included in the Project GLOBE survey of global cultures, with national values as a component of culture (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002). The two nations were included in an Arabic cluster of five nations because of the presumed similarity in the cultures of Arabic nations, although Turkey was included in the cluster. Among the nations in the cluster, Kuwait and Qatar had the highest per capital income. The GLOBE survey used a dimensional framework that appeared to incorporate the models of Schwartz (2006) and Hofstede (1998) by proposing nine dimensions of cultural and value differences. Five of the dimensions were similar to those proposed by Hofstede (1998) while four of the dimensions were similar to those proposed by Schwartz (2006). The research methodology asked the respondents to provide information about their individual perspectives and the ideal perspective of factors related to the dimensions.

The findings for Kuwait and Qatar indicated that individuals placed high value on uncertainty avoidance and power distance, which corresponds to a high priority on values associated with hierarchy and authority (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002). The respondents from the two nations also scored very high in the dimension related to group and family collectivism, which suggests that the nations place a high priority on
values related to the tradition and security. In addition, the respondents also scored highly on the assertiveness dimension and the humane orientation dimension, which relate to the values of mastery and benevolence described by Schwartz (1998). In contrast, the respondents from the two nations scored low in gender egalitarianism, performance orientation and future orientation, suggesting that the values associated with openness to change and universalism have a comparatively low priority.

When the findings of the GLOBE survey are related to the human values theory of Schwartz (2004; 2006), it suggests that the national values in the GCC nations place a high priority on the dimensions associated with self-enhancement and conservation. Power and authority are values with high priorities, but the exercise of power and authority is offset by the high priority placed on the value of benevolence. The national values also place a high priority on conformity, tradition and security, with both the exercise of power and benevolence related to the approaches used to implement these cultural conservation values. The national values with the lowest priority were those associated with openness to change such as self-direction and stimulation, and those associated with universalism.

The findings of the GLOBE survey in Kuwait and Qatar also found a significant discrepancy between the actual perceived national values and the ideal national values (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002). The divergence was greatest in the dimensions of future orientation and power distance. The respondents believed that the ideal value priority should focus more on the future outcome of actions and have less emphasis on authority and mastery. There was also some divergence in the dimension of group and family collectivism, with the respondents believing that values related to tradition and
conformity should have less emphasis. These findings suggest that the national values of Kuwait and Qatar may be in transition supporting the premise of value change proposed by Erez and Gati (2004) and De Munck and Korotayev (2001). The discrepancy between actual value priorities and desirable value priorities may be because of increased external influences due to the large population of guest workers in the nation and increased commercial and social contact with other nations.

The findings of the of the GLOBE study regarding the national values in the GCC nations has several implications when it is related to the findings of other more generalized studies. Organizations in the GCC nations may place less emphasis on training for personnel because of the high priority given to values associated with authority and conservation of tradition (Perez & Rosenbaltt, 2006). The organizations from the GCC nations may also place a lower priority on diversity in leadership because of the high value placed on conformity.
CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

3.1 Introduction

Several theories and models which are valuable for the theoretical background for this research were discussed in the literature review chapter. Based on some aspects of these theories/models of cross-cultural leadership, a conceptual model of this research will be discussed in this chapter (See Figure 1).

Figure 1 The Conceptual Model

The conceptual model underlying the research considers the relationship between the independent variable of perception of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership practises and the dependent variable of leadership development. The model is based on the
assumption that the perception of the effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership is a factor influencing leadership development programmes and practises among Kuwaiti banks. The variables are represented by broad constructs that are composed of antecedent variables.

The dependent variable is composed of the two antecedent variables of:
1. leadership programmes development (LPROGD); and
2. leadership practises development (LPRACD).

The independent variable is composed of four antecedent variables of:
1. cultural differences (CD);
2. training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership (TD);
3. Cross-cultural leadership development programmes (CCLDP); and
4. international leadership practises (ILP).

The conceptual model was derived from the literature describing previous research investigating cross-cultural leadership and leadership development, and is intended to fill the gaps in the literature. The conceptual model supported the development of the research questions for the study and establishes the relationships among the variables to support the hypotheses used to test the existence of the relationships between the independent and dependent variables.

3.2 Gaps in the Literature

A significant gap in the literature exists in the identification of the cultural differences between Kuwaiti managers and employees from different nations that can affect the role
of the manager as international team leader. Previous research has determined that the workforce in Kuwait has a substantial number of international employees (Al-Mailam, 2004). It has also identified the cultural attributes of Kuwaitis using the Hofstede (1985) and GLOBE frameworks (House & Javidian, 2004). The research, however, has not specifically determined the cultural differences between Kuwaiti managers and the specific workforce in Kuwait. Because many of the international employees in Kuwait are from nations with Arab-derivative cultures, Kuwaiti managers may share many of the leadership paradigms and expectations as the workforce. There is also a general gap in the literature concerning the relationship between the theories of cross-cultural leadership and the application of the theories in specific organisational contexts such as the banking industry in a single nation.

Another gap in the literature is the lack of investigation of the current approaches to cross-cultural leadership development in Kuwait. Research examining leadership in Kuwait has focused primarily on identifying the attributes valued in a leader in Kuwait and the influence of traditional Bedouin customs (Abdalla & al-Hamoud, 2001) and Islamic principles (Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2007). The research has not systematically investigated the prevalence of cross-cultural leadership development programmes in Kuwait or the methods used in Kuwaiti firms to implement cross-cultural leadership development programmes. As a result, there is uncertainty concerning the effect of cross-cultural leadership paradigms on the specific leadership development programmes and practises used in Kuwaiti organisations.

Previous research has also failed to examine the effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership development programmes in Kuwait for improving cross-cultural leadership
skills. There are relatively few cross-cultural leadership development programmes in the nation, with the available programmes modelled on foreign leadership paradigms (Macpherson, Kachelhoffer, & El Nemr, 2007). Researchers have not conducted formal investigations of the effectiveness of the existing programs for teaching culturally appropriate cross-cultural leadership methods from the perspective of managers or supervisors responsible for leading cross-cultural teams.

Another gap in the literature is the lack of sufficient investigation of the approaches to incorporating international cross-cultural leadership development practices into Kuwaiti leadership development programmes. Globalisation has created pressures on Kuwaiti firms to adopt some cross-cultural leadership approaches, in theory, international leadership practices have some effect on Kuwaiti leadership development programmes because of the increased commercial contacts between Kuwaiti firms and foreign firms, with the practices adapted to local culture (Mazrui, 1999; Shah, 2007). Because of insufficient research, the degree that globalisation has introduced international leadership practices into Kuwaiti leadership development programmes remains uncertain.

An additional gap in the literature is insufficient investigation of the effect of demographic modifiers on the relationship between cross-cultural influences and leadership development in Kuwait. Cultural theory suggests that individuals from different nations vary in their value priorities and perspectives (Hofstede, 1985, Schwartz, 2004). While research has identified the position Kuwait in various national value scales, it has not examined the effect of nation of origin of the workforce on leadership development in the nation. The research has also failed to examine the effect
of other demographic factors such as age, education level, and tenure at the organisation on the relationship between cross-cultural influences and leadership development in Kuwait.

### 3.3 Relationship of the Model to the Literature

The conceptual model is based on the literature examining the factors influencing the independent variable of perception of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership and the possibility of a relationship with the dependent variable of leadership development. The literature examining cross-cultural leadership established the boundaries of the four antecedent variables that affect perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership. It also identified the components of the dependent variable of leadership development.

Based on previous research, cultural differences are presumed to influence the perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership. Cultural differences can theoretically identified by the use of the Hofstede (1985) cultural dimension and Schwartz (2004) human values theories. Prior research has established variation in the attributes and methods of leadership among different cultures, although some aspects of leadership such as transformation methods may be universal (Bass, 2000). The findings of previous research also indicate that cultural leadership paradigms may vary over time from cross-cultural influences.

Cultural differences have an effect on Kuwaiti leadership because of the influx of foreign workers and the need for Kuwaiti managers to lead individuals from different cultural backgrounds (Abdalla & al Hamoud, 2001). Prior research has established that cultural values vary substantially among cultures, even among cultures that are
presumed to have similar norms, behaviours and perspectives (Bass, 2000). Cultural differences create expectations for the behaviours of the ideal leader, with the effectiveness of the leadership dependent on congruity between actual and observed behaviours (Miner, 2002). Prior research has also established the position of Kuwait relative to other cultures in the various theoretical frameworks (Kabasakal & Dastamalkian, 2001). In the conceptual model, cultural differences are a significant component of the independent variable, which can theoretically influence perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership.

Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership methods is also a factor identified in the literature as an influence on perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership. Islamic and Bedouin traditions influence the concepts of the ideal leader in Kuwaiti culture and the behaviours that Kuwaitis believe will lead to the optimal leadership outcome (Rosen, et al., 2002). Traditional leadership methods in Kuwait rely on the trait theory of leadership and the authority inherent in hierarchical social and organisational structures, with the expectation that leaders will behave in a paternalistic yet benevolent manner (Abdalla & Al-Hamoud, 2001). There are few formal leadership development programmes in Kuwait and the other Gulf nations, with informal mentoring as the primary means of developing leadership skills in others (Al-Ansari & Al-Shehab, 2006). As a result, information about the expected methods of leadership is communicated in Kuwaiti organisations by example and through selection processes for individuals demonstrating the desired leadership qualities. In the conceptual model, the training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership theoretically influence leadership development by reinforcing local cultural values and
norms that can influence the content of leadership programmes and the type of leadership practices.

The literature also suggests that cross-cultural leadership programmes are a factor influencing the perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership, which is an antecedent variable for the perception of the effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership. Foreign educators in business and leadership development programmes introduce cross-cultural influences through their design of curricula and emphasis on the leadership methods used in other countries (Macpherson, Kachelhoffer, & El Nemr, 2007). No general consensus exists, however, concerning the content or methods of instruction that are most effective in cross-cultural leadership development programmes (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006). Some research suggests that instruction in theory and methods is sufficient for teaching cross-cultural leadership skills while other research suggests that supervised application in simulated or actual situations is the most appropriate instructional technique (Sims, 2002). The literature suggests that formal and informal cross-cultural leadership development programmes would have an effect on the acquisition of the skills necessary for leading individuals from varied cultural backgrounds.

The literature further indicates that international leadership practises influence perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership and the nature of leadership development programmes by introducing information into a culture about foreign leadership practises. International leadership practises influence the perceptions of Kuwaiti managers and leadership development from various sources, which is an implication of the literature based on findings of research examining Gulf region
nations other than Kuwait. The experiences of expatriate Kuwaiti managers abroad have an influence on their leadership behaviours and understanding of the value of leadership development after returning to Kuwait. Foreign managers working in Kuwait as well as international employees also introduce the leadership practises of other cultures into organisations (Alnajjar, 1999). Increased contact between Kuwaiti firms and firms from other nations through joint ventures also introduces foreign leadership practises into Kuwaiti culture (Rao, et al., 2006). The indirect introduction of international leadership practises into a society as a result of globalisation can theoretically influence the content of leadership programmes and the actual leadership practises used in the nation.

3.4 Definition of the Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in the conceptual model is leadership development, which is the process or procedures used by organisations to instruct other individuals in the use of leadership methods deemed appropriate by the organisation (Lawson, 2008). Leadership development is theoretically composed of both learning and application of the learning in specific leader-follower dyadic processes. It is based on the assumption that leadership methods, behaviours and skills can be taught and are not innate in the individual leader. The outcome of leadership development is to provide knowledge to individuals resulting in a change in the leadership abilities and increasing leadership effectiveness in various situations or circumstances (Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2001: 272). Leadership development provides information to individual concerning leadership theory and methods. It also consists of processes in which the knowledge of leadership principles is applied in practical situations, with the interaction between leader and follower viewed as a process subject to many variables.
Based on the dual aspects of leadership development of learning and process applications, the dependent variable of leadership development is composed of two antecedent variables of leadership programmes and leadership practises.

3.4.1 Leadership Programme Development (LPROGD)

The first antecedent variable is the leadership programmes that provide theoretical and practical information to individuals about leadership theory and methods deemed appropriate by the organisation. A leadership programme functions as a means to transmit information to managers and supervisors in organisations concerning the desired styles and methods of leadership.

3.4.2 Leadership Practices Development (LPRACD)

The second antecedent variable consists of leadership practises, which involve the processes that individuals use to translate theoretical knowledge about leadership theory and methods into practises intended to influence followers. Leadership practises involve the actual methods and behaviours adopted by individuals in a position of leadership in an organisation. In the conceptual model, a relationship is presumed to exist between the independent variable and both of the antecedent variables of leadership programmes and leadership practises, which together comprise leadership development in Kuwaiti banks.

3.5 Definition of the Independent Variable

The independent variable in the conceptual model is the perception of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership. The perception of effectiveness for the conceptual model is
the perspective of managers and supervisors of their ability to motivate or inspire followers from a different cultural background to achieve goals and objectives (Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006). In the conceptual model, the antecedent variables are presumed to contribute to the perception of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership. In addition, the perception of effectiveness is defined as the perceptions of managers and supervisors responsible for leadership in Kuwaiti banking organisations.

3.5.1 Cultural Differences (CD)

Cultural differences consist of the differences in values, norm, and behaviours that exist among individuals from different nations and from different cultural groups within the same nation. The conceptual model primarily relies on the cultural dimension theory of Hofstede (1985) that assesses cultural differences based on orientation toward power distance, individualism or collectivism, masculinity and femininity, and uncertainty avoidance. In the conceptual model cultural differences contribute to perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership because of the variations in the desirable and actual behaviours of leaders from different cultures (House & Javidian, 2004). The conceptual model further assumes that cultural differences have a relationship with leadership development by influencing the availability and content leadership programmes and the specific nature of leadership practises.

3.5.2 Training and Development in Traditional Kuwaiti Leadership (TD)

The antecedent variable of training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership methods is related to the formal and informal methods used in Kuwaiti society that instruct others in leadership (Noer, Leupold, & Valle, 2007). In the conceptual model, the variable of training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership methods is
presumed to have a relationship with the availability and content of leadership programmes and with leadership practises.

3.5.3 Cross-Cultural Leadership Development Programmes (CCLDP)

Cross-cultural leadership development programmes are differentiated from training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership by its emphasis on the influence from the leadership paradigms found in other cultures (House & Javidian, 2004). The purpose of cross-cultural leadership development programmes is to prepare managers and supervisors for leading individuals from varied cultural backgrounds. In the conceptual model, cross-cultural leadership development programmes are assumed to have a relationship with leadership development programmes in Kuwait and leadership practises, with the strength of the relationship dependant on the importance of foreign employees in the organisation's workforce. International leadership practises are the practises used by leaders outside of Kuwait, and particularly among multinational firms that routinely use international or cross-cultural teams to achieve specific goals and objectives.

3.5.4 International Leadership Practises (ILP)

The international leadership practises are presumed to have a relationship with leadership programmes and leadership practises in Kuwait from the increased commercial contact between Kuwaiti firms and international firms and from the presence of an international workforce in Kuwait. In effect, the leadership practises have an interrelationship with leadership programmes to produce leadership development.
3.6 Definition of the Conceptual Model Terms

3.6.1 Leadership Development

For the conceptual model, the term leadership development was defined as a 'strategic investment in a structured process that provides individuals with the opportunities, training, and experiences to become effective leaders in the organization' (Lawson, 2008: 10). In this definition, leadership development is an integrated approach to provide individuals with the knowledge necessary to perform leadership tasks. It is based on the assumption that leadership skills can be learned, but does not preclude the possibility that some individuals will have innate talents and abilities that support greater leadership effectiveness. The definition also indicates that the organisation creates a structured approach to leadership development and encourages employees in positions of leadership to participate in the process. The definition also suggests that leadership development consists of the two constructs of obtaining information or knowledge about leadership through a structured programme and the process of observation and use of leadership practises. As a result, the dependent variable of leadership development consists of the two antecedent variables of leadership programmes and leadership practises.

3.6.1.1 Leadership Programmes Development (LPROGD)

Leadership programme development is defined as a structured approach to providing information and skills necessary for individuals to improve their leadership abilities that is based on the needs of the organisation (Avolio, 2005: 6). The critical element in the definition is a structured or systematic approach used by an organisation to improve leadership knowledge or skills. The specific contents of the leadership development programme can be variable, and may depend on the needs of circumstances of the
organisation. As a result, the leadership development programme can consist of formal classroom training or online instruction. Such a programme could also include informal mentoring intended to provide individuals with knowledge about practical applications of leadership methods in the specific context of the organisation. Leadership development programmes can also include management seminars in which leadership is a topic of discussion. The conceptual model presumes that each of the four antecedent variables composing the independent variable of perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership has a direct effect on the organisation's leadership development programme. As a result, cross-cultural and indigenous cultural factors are presumed to influence the structure and content of the leadership development programme.

3.6.1.2 Leadership Practices Development (LPRACD)

The second antecedent variable in the dependent variable of leadership development is leadership practises, which is defined as the leadership style and methods used by individuals in positions of leadership (Bass, 2000). Leadership practises manifest themselves in the style of leadership, which can include authoritarian, paternalistic, and participative approaches. The style of leadership affects the relationships between the leader and the follower. The methods of leadership appear as the tactics used by leaders to motivate and inspire subordinates. These tactics can include coercion, rewards, and appeals that attempt to align the leader's goals and objectives with the personal goals of the followers. The methods can include a situational approach in which the leader uses different practises contingent on the characteristics of the follower. In the conceptual model, each of the four antecedent variables in the independent variable are presumed to have some effect on leadership practises.
The two antecedent variables of leadership programmes and leadership practises are related to the variable of leadership development because both occur prior in time to leadership development and contribute to leadership development. A leadership development programme provides knowledge to individuals about leadership presented in a structured manner. In addition, the leadership programmes may be designed to meet the specific requirements of an organisation for cultivating leadership skills. Leadership practises contribute to leadership development by providing examples of desired leadership behaviours, which informs individuals in an organisation about styles and methods of leadership the organisation deems appropriate.

3.6.2 Perception of Effectiveness of Cross-Cultural Leadership

The independent variable in the conceptual model is the perception of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership. The variable is derived from the three constructs of leadership, cross-cultural leadership, and leadership effectiveness. No general consensus exists regarding a formal definition of either culture or leadership. Leadership is generally defined as the ability to influence others to strive toward achieving a goal or objective established by the leader (Dickson, Den Hertog, & Mitchelson, 2003). The definition focuses on the outcome of the leadership process and can encompass the use of all styles and methods of leadership. In this definitional construct, the effectiveness of leadership is determined by the outcome of achieving the desired goals and objectives (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Leaders are effective when they are successful in obtaining the maximum amount of cooperation from followers for achieving the leader's goals. The definitional approach to effectiveness does not distinguish between leadership styles and methods, but rather examines the result of the leadership process. Cross-cultural leadership is defined as the application of leadership methods in a
specific situation that occurs when an individual from one culture attempts to use leadership techniques and methods to influence individuals from another culture (Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006). For the purposes of the conceptual model, the effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership is defined as the ability of a leader to motivate or inspire individuals from another culture to achieve the goals established by the leader. It is assumed that a manager or supervisor in a Kuwaiti bank is responsible for motivating and inspiring subordinates to achieve the goals and objectives established by the firm.

### 3.6.2.1 Cultural Differences (CD)

The independent antecedent variable of cultural differences is defined as the variation in values among individuals from different nations, with nations as one means to create broad boundaries among cultural groups (Schwartz, 2004). The values of individuals are derived from their fundamental assumptions about reality and human nature and the behavioural patterns produced by these assumptions (Erez & Gati, 2004). While values are an internal belief system shared by a group that is difficult to measure, the behavioural patterns based on the assumptions are the external manifestations of values that can be measured through observation and self-reporting.

In the conceptual model, the antecedent variable of cultural differences is composed of the sub-variables of value orientation, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, and masculinity/femininity as defined by Hofstede (1985). Value orientation is defined as the priority that individuals from a specific cultural group place on fundamental human values such as tradition, hedonism, or universalism using the human values construct postulated by Schwartz (2004). Power distance is a cultural
dimension defined as the degree of respect for the position or status of other individuals in a social or organizational hierarchy among individuals in a cultural group. Uncertainty avoidance is a cultural dimension defined as the amount of risk or uncertainty individuals from a culture are comfortable with when making a decision. Collectivism is a cultural dimension defined as the degree of affinity or cohesion expected from the individual to the group with a collective culture characterised by deference to group consensus in the decision-making process. The masculinity femininity dimension of cultural differences involves the deference to traditional gender roles in the culture, with masculine cultures valuing assertive and decisive behaviours. The degree of divergence in the sub-variables of value priorities and positioning in the cultural dimensions determines the magnitude of the cultural differences of the antecedent variable of cultural differences.

3.6.2.2 Training and Development in Traditional Kuwaiti Leadership (TD)
The antecedent variable of training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership methods in the conceptual model is defined as formal instructional methods and the informal social training methods used in Kuwaiti organisations to transmit knowledge about desirable or acceptable methods of leadership (Noer, Leupold, & Valle, 2007). The traditional approach to leadership development in Kuwaiti organisations is to use informal methods of instruction or training, with management and leadership considered as equivalent tasks (Abdallah & Al-Hamoud, 2001). Formal methods of leadership training and development that involve coursework, however, are increasingly available in Kuwaiti organisations. In addition, it is possible for managers to obtain training from sources outside of the organisation. The elements of traditional leadership methods are defined as factors that emphasise the trait theory of leadership, and an expectation that
paternalistic leadership methods relying on hierarchical organisational structures are appropriate (Noer, Leupold & Valle, 2007). As a result, the definition of training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership methods refers to both formal leadership coursework and informal instruction such as mentoring intended to instruct individuals in the leadership style and methods deemed appropriate in Kuwaiti culture.

### 3.6.2.3 Cross-Cultural Leadership Development Programmes (CCLDP)

The independent antecedent variable of cross-cultural leadership development programmes is defined as the perspectives of leadership among the international workforce in Kuwait and the expectations of employees for leadership behaviours among managers based on their national perspectives. The workforce in Kuwait includes employees from many different cultures, which contributes to the understanding of Kuwaiti managers about the leadership perspectives and expectations of the workforce. Cross-cultural leadership development functionally imparts information to manage about the values and norms of employees from other cultures (McPherson, Kachelhoffer, & El Nemr, 2007). In some cases, an organisation may offer a formal course or training in cross-cultural leadership methods for managers or supervisors. A cross-cultural leadership development programme includes information about the use of leadership styles and methods that may differ significantly from the traditional leadership styles and methods commonly found in Kuwaiti culture. The cross-cultural leadership development programme may also require managers to apply various types of leadership styles and methods in controlled or supervised situations.
International leadership practises are defined as the leadership practises in other nations introduced into Kuwait from the globalisation of operations of Kuwaiti firms and closer commercial contacts with foreign firms (Ali & Azim, 1996). These practises can involve the traditional leadership methods in other cultures used by firms and organizations that have close contact with Kuwaiti firms. International leadership practises can include the approaches used by other firms for leading cross-cultural teams as well as the practises of multinational firms that attempt to adopt flexible leadership practises adapted to the cultural needs of host nations. It may also include the leadership practises of managers employed by Kuwaiti firms that have previous experience with leadership practises in firms outside of Kuwait.

In the conceptual model, the four antecedent variables of the main independent variable of perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership are interrelated and are presumed to contribute to the variance in the independent variable. Cultural differences are assumed to affect the perceptions of whether the behaviours of leaders of cross-cultural teams or work groups conform to the ideal leader as defined in the culture of an individual. The training and development that leaders receive in traditional Kuwaiti leadership paradigms and methods influences the behaviours of leaders, which in turn influences the perceptions of the effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership. Cross-cultural leadership development programmes can influence the perceptions of cross-cultural leadership because they can result in the use of different leadership styles and methods. Cross-cultural leadership development programmes can also alter the expectations of leaders and followers in cross-cultural leadership situations, which can influence the perception of leadership effectiveness. Similarly, international leadership
practises can influence the behaviour of leaders and the expectations of followers and their perceptions of the effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership.

Each of the four antecedent variables of perception of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership theoretically accounts for some of variation in the two antecedent variables of leadership development. The model indicates that each of the four independent antecedent variables has a direct relationship with both leadership programmes and leadership practises. The four independent antecedent variables can influence the structure and content of leadership programmes. In addition, they can influence the need for leadership programmes and the willingness of individuals to participate in the programmes. The four independent antecedent variables can also influence the type of leadership practises used in organisations that are considered appropriate and necessary to include as part of leadership development. In the conceptual model, demographic factors are presumed to function as moderating variables. The demographic factors include gender, age, nationality, age, education level, location and duration of last qualification, and tenure in current employment position.

### 3.7 Moderator Variables

The moderating variable has an effect on the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The occurrence of a third variable modifies the original relationship between the independent and the dependent variables (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). By using multiple-group analysis in AMOS version 16.0, two or more groups can be estimated simultaneously and the moderating hypotheses can be tested (Arbuckle, 2005). The moderating hypothesis (e.g. position) will test the direct paths between the determinants variables and dependent variables and examine whether they
might differ in the amount of direction across groups (e.g. manager and supervisor). If the result shows a difference across groups, it indicates that the influence of the determinants variable toward dependent variables is moderated by position.

Six moderator variables will be examined to determine whether they will influence the determinants variable on the dependent variables. These variables are: position, gender, age, nationality, education levels, and banking experience.

Position was selected as a moderating variable because managers and supervisors have different duties and accountability levels in a banking institution that can influence their approaches towards cross-cultural leadership. In the context of Kuwaiti organisations, managers often adopt a wider perspective of the operations of a division or department within the organisation. Managers are more concerned with professional career development including leadership training. In contrast, supervisors often have a narrow focus on the specific task assigned to their work units and often use the same type of leadership methods as the manager responsible for overseeing their activities (Bass & Stogdill, 1990, p.854). The differences in roles of the manager and supervisor have the potential to create differences in leadership practises and attitudes toward leadership development.

The moderating variables included gender because previous research has shown that the gender composition of the leader-follower dyad has an effect on the behaviours of the leader and the responses of the follower (Chin & Lott, 2007, p. 117). Gender is particularly relevant in cross-cultural leadership because of the differences in gender roles assigned in various cultures. These perspectives of the appropriate roles for men
and women create differences in the expectations for the behaviours of male and female leaders among individuals from different cultures working in an international team. In practical situation, these expectations can influence the nature of the relationship between leaders and followers based on differences in gender. As a result, gender is a variable that can affect leadership behaviours and leadership development among managers.

Age was used as a moderating variable because of the generational differences in perspective between older and younger leaders in organisations (Goldsmith, 2003 p. 29). Younger individuals in positions of leadership in Kuwaiti organisations have come of age when the influences of globalisation were present and considered the norm. These individuals may be more accustomed to or accepting of cross-cultural influences in the workplace. In contrast, older individuals in positions of leadership may have more traditional national perspectives toward leadership adopted before the era of globalisation. The generational differences among individuals in Kuwaiti organisations have the potential to influence leadership practises and leadership development.

Nationality was selected as a moderating variable because of the significant differences in leadership practises and cultural values and norms exhibited by individuals from different nations (Hofstede, 1985; Schwartz, 2004). Because of the many different possibilities for a nationality category, the moderating variable was confined to a distinction between managers and supervisors from Middle East, south Asia, and Europe (House et al., 2004). This distinction was based on the assumption that Kuwaiti and Middle East managers are acculturated to the indigenous national values and norms concerning leadership behaviours while those from south Asia and Europe inherently
have different national values and norms concerning leadership. The differences in national values, norms and beliefs can affect the way in which individuals approach leadership practise and leadership development programmes.

The moderating variable of education level was selected because prior research suggests that education level may have an effect on the choice of transactional or transformational leadership methods and the choice of leadership style (Hulsing, 2008, p. 114). In theory, the higher the education level, the more likely that a leader will adopt transformational methods and participative leadership styles. Individuals with higher levels of education are also more likely to have taken leadership training and development courses, which increase their understanding of the practise of leadership. In addition, the nation where leaders obtain part or all of their education can influence perspectives toward leadership because the instructional content tends to reflect the nation's leadership paradigms. As a result, education levels have the potential to influence leadership practise and leadership in a cross-cultural leadership situation.

Work experience was selected as a moderating variable because individuals with greater work experience should theoretically have greater practical knowledge about the leadership practise and expectations within an organisation (Pillai & Stites-Doe, 2003, p. 215). Because individuals learn from their experiences, the amount of time an individual has been employed by an organisation can result in greater knowledge about the leadership practises that are effective in the organisational context and encouraged by the organisational culture. The work experience of the respondents has the potential to influence their leadership practises and view of leadership development programmes.
3.8 Distributed Leadership Theory

According to Spillane (2006), distributed leadership theory is based on the premise that leadership consists of the interactions among individuals in both formal and informal leadership roles in an organization. Ideally, the interactions move the organization towards its goals and objectives. The theory suggests that both individuals in formal leadership roles and informal leadership roles exert a mutually interactive influence on each other. In addition, distributed leadership theory does not separate actions from context, with the nature of the context of an activity determining the interactions associated with leadership. Distributed leadership theory has been primarily applied in school environments, although it has applications to other organizations that rely on knowledge management.

Distributed leadership theory suggests that all the members of an organization share some responsibility for leadership and many individuals can be responsible for leadership tasks. The organizational goals best achieved when all members of the organization interact in a synergistic manner. In the distributed leadership environment the interactions become more important than the formal roles traditionally associated with leadership positions. This approach theoretically allows the individuals to work more closely together as a group to develop expertise necessary to achieve organizational objectives. Distributed leadership theory also indicates that the leadership capacity of the organization is the function of the collective knowledge of its members, which can be leveraged through the leadership interactions. In this theory, the follower co-produces the leader through the interactions with the individual accepted by the follower as the leader in the specific situation (Spillan, 2006).
The practice aspect of distributed leadership involves the interaction among leaders, followers, and the specific situation. Leadership practice consists of the actions taken by leaders working either independently or collaborative. Because the role of the leader and follower is not fixed by an organizational hierarchy, a leader in one situation may become a follower in another situation. To a large degree, leadership practice involves determining how leadership is distributed over leaders, followers in their specific situations. The interaction between individuals in a specific situation gives rise to leadership practice when one individual accepts the role of follower and the other individual accepts the role of leader in the context of the situation (Harris, 2009).

Distributed leadership views leadership roles and situations as flexible and capable of modifications through interactions between leaders, followers, and situations. As a result, the distributed leadership model supports leadership development among staff by recognizing situations in which an individual can be a leader and by providing support through the interaction with followers. At the same time, distributed leadership assumes that the necessary leadership tasks will be accomplished by multiple leaders (Leithwood et al., 2009).

Distributed leader leadership practice may be particularly useful for cross-cultural leadership situations. In the traditional approach to cross-cultural leaders, the individuals in the role of leader attempts to learn as much about the cultural expectations of followers to adjust their leadership styles and methods to the expectations of the followers. With distributed leadership, the interaction between the individuals in a specific situation provides both the leader and the follower with information about cultural differences in the expected behaviours of the leader. At the
same time, distributed leadership suggests that the roles of leader and follower can reverse depending on the situation. From this perspective, distributed leadership can enhance cross-cultural understanding and cooperation.

Distributed leadership is related to cross-cultural leadership because it increases the leadership potential in an organisation composed of culturally diverse individuals. Distributed leadership represents the decentralisation of leadership skills and responsibility within the organisation (Storey, 2004). The practise of distributed leadership does not establish fixed roles for the leader and the follower with the respective roles changing according to the needs of the particular circumstances (Spillane, 2006). Distributed leadership also assumes that all member of an organisation will accept some leadership responsibility when dictated by circumstances. As a result, distributed can be considered both situational and transformational leadership, situational because the leadership roles depend on circumstances and transformational because all members of the organisation are expected to engage in some leadership behaviours. The distributed leadership practise model which has been developed by Spillane (2006), presented in figure 2, also establishes conditions in which a Kuwaiti leaders can learn about the expectations and reactions of followers when the follower temporarily adopts a leadership role.
The decentralisation of skills and responsibility as well as the transformative aspects of distributed leadership can theoretically increase the ability of organisations for cross-cultural leadership. The practise of distributed leadership allows employees from different cultures that are nominally subordinates to managers to accept positions of leadership when necessary in a specific situation. Distributed leadership also considers the situation based on its socio-cultural characteristics, which includes the cultural background of managers and employees as well as the organisational culture (Wright, 2008). The collaborative or cooperative interaction between the followers and the leaders not improves the ability of the organisation to accomplish tasks, but also results in an implicit exchange of information about the different cultural perspectives of the leaders and followers. The application of distributed leadership theory and practise outside of the educational community, however, has been limited.

Prior research has determined that significant cross-cultural differences exist in the expectations and reactions of followers to leadership behaviours (Riggio, Murphy, &
Pirozzolo, 2002). If leadership is viewed as an interactive process, the reactions of followers are as important to an effective leadership outcome as the behaviours of the leaders. In a cross-cultural leadership situation in which followers are from many different nations, the challenge for leaders is to identify the varied expectations and reactions of followers. Distributed leadership practise can theoretically reduce the complexity of this challenge by engaging the follower directly in the leadership process with shared responsibility for leadership. In effect, the leader and the follower establish a more collaborative or cooperative leadership relationship than occurs with the traditional model in which power and authority reside solely in the individual in the role of leader.

In the context of Kuwaiti organisations with many international employees, Kuwaiti managers are responsible for leading employees from different cultures. As Kuwaiti firms globalise, managers from other nations may be responsible for leading Kuwaiti employees. As a result, the socio-cultural environment of the organisation inherently involves cross-cultural leadership challenges. Distributed leadership provides an opportunity for the Kuwaiti managers to obtain knowledge about the cultural differences in leadership behaviours and expectations. As a result, the practise of distributed leadership can operate as an indirect and informal leadership development approach for Kuwaiti managers. When the foreign employee adopts a situational leadership role, the Kuwaiti manager nominally becomes the follower of the foreign employee for the purposes of accomplishing a specific task. Because the Kuwaiti manager is in a cooperative or collaborative relationship with the temporary leader, there is an opportunity to gain a greater understanding of the leadership styles of the foreign employee. In effect, the foreign employees as leaders are transmitting tacit
knowledge about their cultures and leadership perspectives that may not be available from any other source. When the Kuwaiti managers adopt the role of leader in other situations, the knowledge about the employees’ culture contributes to more effective cross-cultural leadership.

Based on the collaborative and cooperative interactions, distributed leadership can remedy some of the difficulties with the lack of formal leadership development programmes in the Gulf Region as noted by Abdullah and al-Homoud (2001) and Al-Ansari and Al-Shehab (2006). Distributed leadership can provide Kuwaiti managers informal opportunities to obtain experience and knowledge in cross cultural leadership practise. At the same time, the distributed leadership paradigm does not challenge the position of authority in the organisational hierarchy of the manager. It assumes that the formal leader retains authority, but shares leadership responsibility with subordinates. Using distributed leadership practise in Kuwaiti organisations can enhance the ability of managers to learn the differences in reactions and expectations from followers, which is an important aspect of leadership. Prior research investigating leadership has determined that the followers’ perceptions of leadership traits and behaviours is a factor the follower considers when assessing whether they will be influenced by the leader (Kenney, Blacovich, & Shaver, 1994). Individual followers have expectations and groups of followers from similar cultural backgrounds have organised sets of expectations for leadership behaviours. When a firm employs individuals from many different cultures, the manager of a multicultural team has a significant challenge for learning the expectations of followers and modifying behaviours to conform to those expectations. In this situation, distributed leadership practise can provide the leader with
information about expectations and reactions of employees when the employee assumes the role of leader.

Another potential benefit from using distributed leadership in Kuwaiti firms with employees from different cultures is the possibility that the collaborative approach to leadership conforms to the cultural paradigms of some employees (Wallace & Loughan, 2003). Some cultures have a preference for collaborative or cooperative leadership approaches with leaders and followers engaged in interactive leadership processes. From this perspective, distributed leadership can increase the contribution to the firm from employees from cultures valuing the collaborative approach to leadership.

A particular challenge for Kuwaiti managers when using distributed leadership may be the willingness to shift leadership responsibility to a foreign employee while the manager remains accountable for the outcome of the task. An organisation with an existing culture fostering a directive or authoritarian approach to leadership could have difficulty allowing managers to implement distributive leadership practise (Wright, 2008). In addition, the manager must have sufficient trust in the ability of the employee to relinquish the role as leader.

### 3.9 Research Hypotheses

Two categories of the research hypotheses will be tested in this study. The first category is the main hypotheses for the study which testing the significance of direct paths between the determinants (Independent variables) and the dependent variables. The second category is the moderating hypotheses for testing the influence of the controlling variables on the independent variables toward the dependent variables.
3.9.1 Main Research Hypotheses

The conceptual model and the research questions lead to the following hypotheses for the study:

H1: Cultural differences are positively related to leadership programme development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

H2: Cultural differences are positively related to leadership practices development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

H3: Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership is positively related to leadership programme development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

H4: Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership is positively related to leadership practices development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

H5: Cross-Cultural Leadership Development Programmes is positively related to leadership programme development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

H6: Cross-Cultural Leadership Development Programmes is positively related to leadership practices development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

H7: International Leadership Practises is positively related to leadership programme development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

H8: International Leadership Practises is positively related to leadership practices development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

These hypotheses are intended to test the proposition that a relationship exists between the perception of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership and leadership development among managers and supervisors in Kuwaiti banks. The association between the hypotheses, the antecedent variables of the independent variable and the antecedent variables of the dependent variable are shown in the graphical depiction of the
conceptual model. Each of the four antecedent variables of the independent variable has an associated hypothesis intended to support the testing of the existence of a relationship with each of the antecedent variables of the dependent variables. The hypotheses are designed to support quantitative measurement of the variables to allow inferential testing of the propositions contained in the conceptual model.

3.9.2 Moderating Hypotheses

(MH1a-MH7a): These hypotheses are to Test whether there is a control variable that influences the four independent variables on leadership programmes development (LPROGD).

MH1a: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) toward LPROGD is moderated by position.

MH2a: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) toward LPROGD is moderated by gender.

MH3a: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) toward LPROGD is moderated by age.

MH4a: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) toward LPROGD is moderated by nationality.

MH5a: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) toward LPROGD is moderated by education level.

MH6a: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) toward LPROGD is moderated by banking experience.
(MH1b-MH6b): These hypotheses are to Test whether there is a control variable that influences the four independent variables on leadership programmes development (LPROGD).

MH1b: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) toward LPRACD is moderated by position.
MH2b: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) toward LPRACD is moderated by gender.
MH3b: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) toward LPRACD is moderated by age.
MH4b: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) toward LPRACD is moderated by nationality.
MH5b: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) toward LPRACD is moderated by education level.
MH6b: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) toward LPRACD is moderated banking experience.

3.10 Summary

The literature review identified gaps in the literature concerning the influence of various cross-cultural factors on leadership development programmes in Kuwait. The conceptual model was developed to support an investigation in the areas identified as gaps in the literature. The conceptual model was based on cultural theories concerning the differences in approaches to literature based on variation in values and expectations for the behaviours of ideal leaders. It was also based on previous research examining leadership in Kuwait and the possible cross-cultural influences from the foreign
workforce in the nation and increased contacts with foreign firms as a result of globalisation.

In the conceptual model, the dependent variable of leadership development is composed of two antecedent variables of: a) leadership programmes; and b) leadership practises. The independent variable of perception of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership is composed of four antecedent variables of: a) cultural differences; b) training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership; c) Cross-cultural leadership development programmes; and d) international leadership practises. The conceptual model proposes the existence of a relationship between each of the four antecedent variables of the independent variable and each of the two antecedent variables of the dependent variable. The hypotheses of the study, which are derived from the research objectives of the study and the gaps in the literature, are intended to test the existence of a relationship between the variables using inferential statistical methods. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) will be used to test the proposed hypotheses in relation to the conceptual model of the study. An explanation of the data analysis techniques to achieve the objectives of the study will be presented in chapter 4. In addition, the analysis of the data and the discussion of the results will be presented in chapter 5 and chapter 6.
CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY & RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 Introduction

There are varieties of research techniques including explanatory, exploratory, descriptive, predictive, quantitative, qualitative, inductive, deductive, and basic research (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). According to Crotty (1998) researchers need to focus their attempts on two considerable issues. Firstly, the methodologies and the methods that should be use by the researchers in their research. Secondly, the choice and use of a particular methodology and methods has to be justified.

This chapter describes the design of a research methodology to gather data to answer the research questions established for the study. The chapter consists of sections discussing the research paradigm, the research design and justification for its selection, the sample population and selection strategy, the data collection methods, and the data analysis methods. The topics included in this section also describe the approach to establishing reliability and validity, the limitations of the study, and ethical issues associated with research involving human subjects.

The study used a concurrent mixed methods approach to test the relationship between cross-cultural influences and leadership development in the private sector banking industry in Kuwait. The qualitative phase of the study used a case study approach with primary data obtained from interviews with managers in Kuwaiti banks. The quantitative phase of the study used a survey questionnaire to collect primary data to test the hypothesis of the study concerning the relationship between leadership development and the effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership in Kuwait. The mixed
method research approach adopted the pragmatist worldview, which uses the most expedient research design to answer the research questions of the study.

4.2 Scientific Paradigms

The study adopted the scientific paradigm of pragmatism, which recommends establishing a research design based on the nature of the research questions. The ontological premise in mixed methods research is that reality can be described by the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods, with the researching making the determination of the nature of reality (Clark & Creswell, 2008, p. 283). As a result, the ontology considers the nature of reality as including subjective realism, objective realism, and inter-subjective realism. From this perspective, the research question establishes the framework for understanding knowledge, with answering the research question more important than the specific worldview or ontology used to guide the development and implementation of the research methodology.

In the epistemology of the mixed methods paradigm, knowledge can be constructed and organised from both quantitative and qualitative sources. Both approaches are considered epistemologically useful even if they appear to be contradictory. The contradictions are the outcome of different approaches to organising knowledge about the nature of reality, with pragmatism ultimately considering the approaches as complementary. The epistemological advantage of pragmatism is the avoidance of the forced choice between qualitative and quantitative research designs as the approach to gathering and organising knowledge about the topic under investigation (Creswell & Clark, 2007, p. 26).
The alternatives of using only a positivism and post-positivism, constructivism, and advocacy-participatory or critical theory scientific paradigms were not suitable for research investigating cross-cultural influences and leadership development because of their ontological and epistemological assumptions. The positivism and post-positivism paradigms are based on an objective realism ontology in which reality is decomposed into constituent parts that presumably reflect the object under investigation. The paradigm does not permit the research to incorporate information that was not considered in the theoretical model established prior to the commencement of the investigation. The constructivism approach adopts a socially relativistic ontology in which social actors construct knowledge that is non-normative and subjective. The paradigm does not permit the use of an epistemology for organising knowledge based on objective reality. The advocacy-participatory or critical theory paradigm adopts an ontological perspective in which marginalised groups have a different understanding of reality than majority or mainstream groups. The paradigm adopts an epistemology in which reality is bounded by values (Berry, 2002, p. 289. The paradigm is not suitable for the current investigation because the research questions do not consider the position of marginalised or underrepresented groups in society.

Each of these alternative research paradigms reduces the flexibility of the research process through the ontological and epistemological boundaries inherent in the paradigm. In contrast, the mixed methods approach allows the qualitative and quantitative phases to adopt elements of the alternative paradigms to more comprehensively address the research questions of the study (Teddlie & Tashakori, 2003, pp. 141-142). In the current study, the post-positivist paradigm guides the
quantitative phase of the research while the constructivism paradigm guides the qualitative phase of the research.

### 4.3 Deductive Vs Inductive Research

The deductive research methods generally adopt a positivist or post-positivist paradigm in which the researcher formulates a theory concerning the phenomenon under investigation, develops hypotheses concerning some measurable aspect of the phenomenon, and uses empirical data relevant to the hypotheses to test the theory (Lancaster, 2005, p. 25). The approach is considered deductive because the analysis of the data supporting or refuting the hypothesis allows the researcher to make a deduction concerning the validity of the hypothesis. The deductive process also allows the researcher to formulate a possible law derived from theory that explains past observations and predicts future observations. Studies based on deductive research methods proceed from the general, who is represented by theory, to the specific, which is represented by data.

Deductive research methods are used with research questions that establish clear boundaries for the investigation, with an outcome specified at the beginning of the investigation. The deductive approach can be used for experimental research designs in which the researcher can manipulate the variable of interest to determine its effect on a treatment population. It can also be used with a non-experimental research design in which the researcher can observe the effect of a variable of interest in a study population but cannot manipulate the variable to determine the effect of different treatments (Newman & Ridenour, 2008, p. 7). Regardless of the specific design used with deductive research, the concepts under investigation must be operationalised as
measurable variables. Bryman and Bell (2008) noted that in order to identify the concepts which comprise the hypothesis, the researcher should verify the data which needs to be collected. In addition, the deductive approach presumes that a temporal relationship exists between the independent variable and the dependent variable, which necessary to determine the existence of a cause and effect relationship. The approach uses a formal logical method for the analysis of data, which generally employs empirical and statistical data analysis methods.

On the other hand, the inductive research methods use an opposite approach to inductive methods by beginning with observations of the phenomenon under investigation with the data leading to the formulation of a theory to explain the observed events. As a result, studies based on inductive research methods proceed from the specific in the form of data to the general in the form of an explanatory or predictive theory. Inductive research methods are used with research questions that are open-ended with the subjects of the investigation establishing the boundaries for the research.

Inductive research methods often involve the research paradigms related to constructivism and advocacy-participation. The inductive research methods are inherently non-experimental because they involve observations of the phenomenon under investigation in natural settings that are theoretically not influenced by the researcher. The methods use a critical thinking approach to data analysis, with the analysis taking the form of a narrative and comparisons of patterns identified during the analysis. Because inductive research methods are characterised by the absence of a theory at the outset of the investigation, both empirical and subjective data collection and analysis can be used to achieve the objective of formulating a grounded theory.
based on data (Lancaster, 2005, p. 26). Inductive research methods are particularly useful when the phenomenon under investigation is subject to the interaction of many variables that cannot be easily measured and the antecedent variables cannot be readily identified.

4.4 Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methods

Quantitative research methods rely on empirical data, with the variables operationalised in a manner that allows measurement. The purpose of quantitative research is to test a hypothesis concerning the relationship among variables under investigation in the study. The approach also uses sampling methods such as random sampling intended to support the generalisation of the data from the specific study population to a larger population through deductive inference (Creswell, 2009).

The researcher establishes the boundaries of the investigation prior to commencing the study, with the data collected only on the variables that are within those boundaries. In the process of establishing boundaries, the researcher establishes the independent and dependent variables that the research tests to determine the existence of a relationship. The researcher also considers moderating variables that can influence the relationship. Confounding variables that are not accounted for in boundaries established in the research design, however, can influence relationships creating false positive and false negative findings. With quantitative methods, the researcher is presumed to stand apart from the subject under investigation. The researcher has the capacity to manipulate the variables to determine the effect of the manipulation on the subject. As a result, quantitative research is presumed to take place in a controlled environment, although not all quantitative research can be considered experimental because of differences in
design and participant selection methods. Because of the rigour of the methodology, the findings from quantitative research are presumed to be replicable by other researcher using the same methods to investigate the same phenomenon (Bryman & Bell, 2008).

Qualitative research methods rely primarily on verbal descriptions of the phenomenon under investigation, but the approach does not preclude the use of empirical measures when appropriate for answering the research question or providing context for the narrative data (Bryman & Bell, 2008, p. 425). The purpose of qualitative research is to describe the perceptions of subjects experiencing a phenomenon or to develop an emerging theory based on observed data. In qualitative research the subjects establish the boundaries of the investigation, with the perspective of the subjects controlling the direction taken by the research. Qualitative research takes place in the natural environment of the subjects, with the researcher not attempting to control or modify the environment for research purposes. In addition, the researcher interacts with the subjects in the data collection and analysis process, which introduces a greater degree of subjectivity into the research method when compared to quantitative methods. As a result, the understanding of the findings of the study depends on context, with the findings not replicable by subsequent researchers.

4.5 Research Design

The aim of the research design is to gathering the essential data for the research study and how these data can be analysed to test the hypotheses of the research. Two types of time horizon for conducting any study cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. This study conducted a cross-sectional study (one-shot) which the data are gathered just once over a period of months (Sekaran, 2003).
The research design for this study used a concurrent mixed methods approach. The quantitative phase of the research tested the existence of a relationship between cross-cultural influences and leadership development among leaders (managers and supervisors) in banks operating in the private sector in Kuwait. The qualitative phase of the research examined the experiences of bank leaders with cross-cultural leadership and leadership development.

The quantitative phase of the research used a non-experimental research design with no control group and use only of a post-test to collect data concerning the variables of interest (Creswell, 2009, p. 12). The independent variable for the quantitative phase of the research was perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership while the dependent variable was leadership development, with moderating variables consisting of demographic factors and culture of the workforce. For the quantitative phase of the research, a questionnaire instrument was developed to collect cross-sectional data about cross-cultural leadership and leadership development from bank leaders in Kuwait. The questionnaire instrument was validated with a pilot test prior to disseminating the questionnaire to the study population. Although participants in the study were randomly selected from the study population of all bank leaders in Kuwait, the research design remained non-experimental. The researcher could not control the variables and could administer only a post-test related to leadership development among the study population. Inferential statistical methods were used to analyse the data obtained in the survey.

The qualitative phase of the research used a case study design, which examined the understanding of cross-cultural leadership and the effect of leadership development
from the perspective of bank managers in Kuwait. The case consisted of cross-cultural management and leadership development in banks in Kuwait with primary data obtained through interviews with bank leaders. The purpose of the case study approach was to generate additional data concerning leadership development and cross-cultural leadership in the specific context of private sector banks in Kuwait that could not be obtained solely from the data gathered through quantitative research. The single case study research design examined a critical case that provided information about the topic under investigation in its natural environment and from the perspective of the leaders in banking firms with current or past experience in cross-cultural leadership (Flyvbjerg, 2006). The qualitative research design also used purposeful sampling for the selection of interviewees based on inclusion and exclusion criteria with iterative thematic analysis used to identify themes and patterns in the data.

4.6 Justification of the Research Methodology

The mixed method approach to research was selected because the independent use of either a quantitative research methodology or a qualitative research methodology would not be sufficient to fully answer the research questions of the study. A mixed methods research methodology is appropriate to improve the understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Teddle & Tashakori, 2009, p. 163). The mixed methods research methodology is also suitable when the objective of the methodology is to use the results of one method to elaborate on the results of the primary method used for the investigation (Swanson, 2005, p. 329). In the current study, the quantitative research methodology is the primary approach to collecting and analysing data, with the qualitative research methodology intended to elaborate and enhance the understanding and context of the quantitative findings.
The mixed methods approach to research increases the validity of the findings because of complementarities (Saunders et al, 2009). The quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis processes are autonomous and are not dependent on each other. The autonomy of the research quantitative and qualitative research methods in the mixed methods approach allows the collection and analysis of data through the use of different ontological and epistemological paradigms without direct creating conflict (Bryman & Bell, 2008, p. 644). The quantitative and qualitative phases of the study are functionally compartmentalised from each other until the final stage of the study when the findings obtained from each method were compared. Because of this approach, the comparison of the findings produced a more comprehensive understanding of the subject under investigation (Flick, 2006, p. 37).

A concurrent mixed method research design in which the quantitative and qualitative data are collected at the same time is referred to as a triangulated mixed methods approach because both types of data contribute to the interpretation of the findings (Swanson, 2005, p. 320). Creswell (2009) defined this approach as a concurrent triangulation strategy which the data from both quantitative and qualitative are collected at the same time and then the researcher compare the two data sources to determine whether if there is any differences or some similarities between the two results. In this research, the qualitative findings provided additional information to expand the understanding of cross-cultural leadership and leadership development produced by the quantitative findings (See Figure 3). The data and findings produced by the qualitative method were used to triangulate or confirm the findings obtained by the quantitative method (Bryman & Bell, 2008, p. 645).
The mixed method approach to research combines the strengths of the quantitative and qualitative research methodologies while overcoming some of the weaknesses arising when the research depends solely on a single methodological approach (Flick, 2006, p. 37).

As a result, the methodology itself is triangulated in its perspectives and worldviews, which occurs in addition to the use of specific triangulation protocols in the data collection procedures (Patton, 2001, p. 563). The strength of the quantitative phase of the study is the ability to use empirical measures to test hypotheses, with the findings capable of generalisation to a larger population. The quantitative approach is also useful for determining the relationships between the independent variable of perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership and the dependent variable of leadership development. Determining the relationship among variables is significant for formulating recommendations for firms to improve cross-cultural leadership and outcomes. The quantitative method, however, has an inherent weakness for the investigation of phenomenon influenced by many different variables, some of which
cannot be easily identified or measured. Quantitative research investigates only the variables related to theory that can be empirically operationalised for measurement purposes. As a result, confounding variables not accounted for in the research design can influence the findings. In addition, the interaction among variables is particularly difficult to determine in social and business research because of the multiple influences that social and organisational factors exert on individuals. The limitation in quantitative research is particularly significant in this study because many different variables can influence cross-cultural leadership and leadership development. Some of these variables are difficult to measure because of their psychometric properties. In addition, organizational factors and individual characteristics can function as confounding variables if they are not adequately incorporated into the research design.

The strengths of the qualitative research method overcome some of the weaknesses inherent in the quantitative research method. The qualitative method allows the subjects of the study to define the relevant topics in the investigation, with the subjects able to provide information based on their experience. As a result, the qualitative method can provide additional insight and understanding related to the research questions by examining cross cultural leadership and leadership development in a natural setting. The qualitative method, however, has weaknesses from the potential for researcher bias because of the close involvement of the researcher with the subjects. The findings are also relevant only to the specific context of the study, which was the banking industry in Kuwait. Because of these limitations, the qualitative methods were used only as a compliment to the primary findings of the study obtained by using quantitative methods.
4.7 Data Collection

Data for the research was collected simultaneously using the dissemination of a survey questionnaire to managers and supervisors and semi-interviews with managers in the Kuwaiti banking sector. The multiple sources of data provide the ability to triangulate the data, which is based on the assumption that the reality under investigation is too complex to be captured by any single research method (Snow & Anderson, 1991). As a result, the data collection procedure was combined interview methods commonly found in purely qualitative research with the use of a survey questionnaire common in quantitative research.

Both the survey questionnaire and the semi-structured interview were developed from a comprehensive literature review focuses on cross-cultural leadership and leadership development theories. All the questions were integrated and formulated from the existing literature in order to identify the relationship between cross-cultural influences and leadership development in the Kuwaiti banking sector and to achieve the research objectives. The concept and the constructs of the research were developed by the researcher to support the central research question and fulfil the gaps in the study (See Appendix C).

4.7.1 Quantitative Phase

The quantitative phase of the study used a self-administered survey questionnaire to collect data from leaders (managers and supervisors) in private sector banks in Kuwait. The survey questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first part obtained demographic information about the respondents including position in the bank, gender, age, nationality, education level, place of obtaining the last qualification, and tenure of
employment. The second part of the survey asked the respondents to rate their level of agreement with statements concerning cross-cultural leadership and leadership development using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree with the statement to strongly agree with the statement (See Table 2). The Likert scale is an approximation of an interval scale that is commonly used to assess psychometric attributes in social and business research (Lowenthal, 2001, p. 19).

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Table 1 Likert Scale

The second section of the survey questionnaire obtained data in various dimensions related to cross-cultural leadership and leadership development. A pilot test was conducted for the survey questionnaire with a sampling of 32 respondents prior to the dissemination of the instrument to the study population. The specific findings of the pilot test for reliability are discussed in section 4.10.

Sekaran (2003) recommended that the researcher should take in consideration the following issues for the designing of the questionnaire:

1) The type of the word of the question,
2) The categorising, scaling, and coded of the variables after the receiving of the questionnaire, and
3) The layout and the appearance of the questionnaire.

Because the aim of the questionnaire is to achieve the research objectives and to answer the research questions, the structured of the questions was carefully chosen and guided
from the theories related to cross-cultural leadership and leadership development (Zikmund, 2003).

The survey conducted in the quantitative phase of the research used a random sampling method to identify prospective respondents that were members of the study population. Each randomly selected individual received a solicitation to participate in the study in person from the researcher. The solicitation included a description of the purpose of the study and a survey questionnaire. It also provided assurances of confidentiality, which were intended to encourage candour in the responses. The solicitation also included an informed consent form, which will be discussed further in section 4.14 examining ethical issues. The respondents were asked to complete the survey questionnaire, with the completed questionnaires collected by the researcher. A total of 800 survey questionnaires were disseminated to bank managers and supervisors with 515 usable responses received from a total of 526 questionnaires returned, which was well above the number necessary to achieve the desired confidence level of 95% and interval of 5% (See section 4.8). A record was also made of the number of non-respondents, with amounted to 64.3% of the individuals solicited for participation in the survey completing survey questionnaires. This suggests that coverage error for the findings is relatively low and the sample of completed questionnaires is representative of the study population (Groves, Fowler, & Couper, 2009, p. 87). After receipt of the survey questionnaires, no notation was made on the survey form that could link the identity of the respondents to the individual surveys, which was intended to preserve the confidentiality of the respondents.
4.7.2 Qualitative Phase

The qualitative phase of the research used an interview protocol consisting of open-ended questions concerning cross-cultural leadership and leadership development in the banking industry in Kuwait. The questions were developed from the findings of previous researchers investigating cross-cultural leadership and leadership behaviours and practices in Kuwait and other Middle Eastern nations. In addition, the interview questions had a relationship to the central research questions posed by the study (Wengraf, 2001, p. 172). The interview protocol used a semi-structured format in which the interviewer was permitted to ask follow-up questions based on the interviewees' responses to obtain additional or supplementary information. Prior to conducting the interviews for the qualitative phase of the study, a pilot test was conducted for the interview questions with two interviewees to ensure the data obtained from the questions could be appropriately analysed. In addition, permission to conduct the research with banking personnel was obtained from the human resources departments of the banks in Kuwait.

The data collection procedure for the interviews was initiated with a solicitation letter sent to prospective interviewees identified through purposeful sampling methods. After accepting the solicitation, a mutually agreeable time and place was established for the interview, with consideration given to the privacy of the interview location for convenient to the interviewees. The researcher acted as interviewer, and followed the interview protocol of asking the same questions of each interviewee with follow-up questions based on the response of the interviewee. The interviews lasted approximately 30-45 minutes. The interview process followed the recommendations of Kvale and Brinkmann (2009, p. 128) for sequencing interactions. At the outset, the interviewer
read a preliminary briefing statement explaining the nature of the interview and the general topics that would be discussed. A pre-screening process used to identify individuals meeting the inclusion criteria for interviews in the qualitative stage of the study. The interviewees were given assurances of confidentiality, and not be identified by name on the recordings and transcripts of the interviews.

During the interview process, the interviewer adopted a non-judgmental attitude and attempted to communicate sincere interest in the statements of the interviewees. At the conclusion of the interview, the interviewer conducted a debriefing by asking if the interviewee had any additional information to add. In addition, the interviewer compiled field notes with information about observations of the interviewees. The interviews were recorded with the permission of the interviewees to facilitate transcription of the data for analysis. All references that could link the names of the interviewees to the information provided were deleted from recordings and transcripts to protect the confidentiality of the participants.

4.8 Population and Sample of the study

The population is the group of people or things of interest under investigation by the researcher (Sekaran, 2003). The targeting population of the study was the entire of middle and junior managers and supervisors within the hierarchy of the Kuwaiti banks, leaders, that in position of leading a group of individuals from different nations and cultures. Because of the mixed method approach, the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study used different sampling methods. The quantitative phase of the study used a random sampling of manager and supervisors in the Kuwaiti banking sector. Supervisors were included in this sample because they often have cross-cultural
leadership responsibilities. The qualitative phase of the study used purposeful sampling of leaders in the Kuwaiti banking sector.

A random sampling was used for dissemination of the survey questionnaire to the study population using the procedure recommended by Gliner and Morgan (2000, p. 149). A random sampling is appropriate when the study population is finite and the members of the population can be identified. Organizational directories from Kuwaiti banks in the private sector were used to identify the members of the study population, which provided an indication of the position of the manager or supervisor in the organization. Because the population size was small, N=800, this study used all subjects in the population as a target (Sekaran. 2003).

The size of the study population of bank managers and supervisors in Kuwait is approximately 800 individuals. The size of the sample population for the quantitative phase of the study was determined by the number of respondents required to achieve a confidence level of 95% and a confidence interval of 5. As recommended by Kothari (2008, p. 155), the central limit theory was used to estimate the sample size necessary to achieve the desired confidence level and interval based on the assumption of a normal distribution of the population. The central limit theorem suggests that the repeated sampling of a population will result in a mean representing the attributes under investigation for the total population. The formula for determining sample size was \[ n = \frac{(pqN)}{(SE^2 \times N + p+q)} \] in which \( p \) is the population with the attribute under investigation, \( q \) is \( 1-p \), \( N \) is the total population and \( SE \) is the standard error. For normal distributions \( p \) is set at .5, and for a confidence level of 95%, the standard error is set at \( .05/1.95 = .02564 \). Substituting these values, the desired size of the sample population

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was $n = (0.5 \times 0.5 \times 800) / (0.02564^2 \times 800 + 0.5 \times 0.5) = 258$. The confidence level indicates the responses will fall within the average range of $\pm 5$ for 95% of the answers.

The sample population for the qualitative phase of the study included all managers employed by private sector banks in Kuwait. Purposeful sampling was used to select participants for the study deemed to be appropriate or particularly informative based on the research questions (Gliner & Morgan, 2000, p. 154). Purposive sampling will be for the selection of the case of the banking industry based on the information-oriented, critical-case approach to selection as recommended by Flyvbjerg (2006). A critical case is one that is considered representative of other similarly situated cases. Purposive sampling attempts to select cases based on established criteria to increase the possibility that the case is representative of a larger population (Gliner & Morgan, 2000).

To reduce the possible influence of researcher bias in the selection of individuals when using purposeful sampling, the study used inclusion criteria (Silverman, 2010). By applying these criteria the sampling will be sensible and represent a wider population that relevant to the research questions (Mason, 1996). The inclusion criteria for the sample were:

1) Tenure of more than one year as a leader in a private sector Kuwaiti bank;
2) A current or past position in the organization requiring the supervision or leadership of international workers; and
3) Previous leadership development training either through formal education or through programmes offered by the banking institution.
The banking industry is likely to meet the criteria and selection for the case study. After establishing the banking industry as the subject of the case study, permission to conduct the study with personnel and to examine cross-cultural leadership and leadership development information will be obtained from the human resources departments of the various banks headquartered in Kuwait.

To ensure that the individuals selected for the sample met the inclusion criteria, a preliminary screening interview was held following acceptance of the solicitation to participate in the qualitative phase of the study. The purposeful sampling approach resulted in 25 interviewees meeting the inclusion criteria and participating in the study.

4.9 Preparing the Data for Analysis

After obtaining the data from the sample of the population, the responses have been screened cleaned and filtered with only usable questionnaires were used for the analysis. It was essential to consider the missing data because it has an impact on the reduction of the sample size available for the analysis and the statistical results. Without applying the missing data process, the results could be biased and lead to invalid results. Because the sample size of the current study is large, it is recommended that questionnaire, individual case, that has 10% missing data was not included in the data set for analysis whereas missing data under 10% for an individual questionnaire can be ignored. In addition, questionnaires with repeatable answers have been not included for the analysis (Hair et al, 2010).

A coding sheet (See Appendix D) was developed and each variable was coded by assigning character symbols to inter information into SPSS software. Each item has a
distinctive variable name, some of the items are obviously identify such as position, gender and age. By using descriptive statistics, the data was screened and each variable was checked to make sure the scores were in range for this categories.

4.10 Pilot Survey Test

The advantages of conducting pilot test is to deduct weaknesses of the instrument used to collect the necessary data for the research and should be distributed from the targeting population. Because the survey questionnaire was distributed by the researcher in person, the pilot test was also distributed personally (Cooper & Schindler, 2000). According to Ticehurst & Veal (2000) the purposes of pilot survey test are to test the questionnaire wording and layout, to test the sequences of the question, determining the awareness and estimating of the respondents, and examination of the analysis procedures.

4.10.1 Survey Questionnaire

A sample size range from 25 to 100 subjects for the pilot test is recommended and indicates a reasonable size (Cooper & Schindler, 2000). A total of 70 questionnaires were distributed to the Kuwaiti banks with 46% response rate.

The pilot test for the survey questionnaire used Cronbach’s alpha to establish the reliability of the instrument through internal consistency of the questions, with a sampling of 32 respondents meeting the inclusion criteria for the study. The alpha reliability approach for establishing reliability is based on the assumption that item variance is error variance, with the sum of the error variance substituted for true error variance (Dunn-Ranking, 2004: 118). The Cronbach’s alpha for the pilot test was .764,
which is above the level of .70 that is commonly accepted for the reliability of the instrument (Hair et al., 2010). Based on the Cronbach’s alpha estimate of reliability and the purposes recommended by Ticehurst & Veal (2000) which present a reasonable result, no changes were made to the survey questionnaire.

4.10.2 Interviews
The pilot test for the interviews involved ensuring that the data obtained from the interviews was capable of content analysis (Patton, 2002). To confirm the effectiveness of the questions for obtaining the information necessary for answering the research questions of the study, the data obtained from two interviews was analysed using open, axial and descriptive coding. The findings are organized based on the themes identified in the open coding, with the sections containing the patterns revealed through the axial coding of the data. The major themes were: leadership methods; leadership styles; leading international employees; country of origin; and leadership development. One interviewee was a manager in the risk management department of a bank and the other manager was in the loan department of a bank. Both managers were indigenous Kuwaiti males responsible for leading some individuals from other nations in Kuwait. Table 3 presents a summary of the interview analysis.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Patterns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Leadership Methods</td>
<td>1. Predominately transactional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Sometimes use situational leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. No application of formal leadership training to leadership methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Leadership styles</td>
<td>1. Generally authoritarian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Elements of delegation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Accept participation in some decision making by employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Increased directive and authoritarian behaviour in response to pressures from senior management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Leading International Employees</td>
<td>1. Communication difficulties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Difficulty managing conflicts among employees from different nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Use an authoritarian approach to managing conflicts with subordinates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Nation of Origin</td>
<td>1. Preferred leading employees from other Arabic cultures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Least comfortable with East Asian employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Could adapt to the expectation for participative leadership among North American and European employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Leadership Development</td>
<td>1. Academic-style courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Leadership seminars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Aware of external leadership development programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Simulation and role playing elements of ideal leadership programme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Summary of the Interview Findings Analysis for the Pilot Test

4.11 Data Analysis

Because of the mixed method approach to research, the data analysis procedure differed in the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study. The quantitative phase used descriptive and inferential statistical analysis, which is appropriate to test hypotheses concerning relationship among variables with empirical data using deductive reasoning (Gaur & Gauer, 2006, p. 29). The qualitative phase of the study used thematic content analysis, which is suitable for identifying patterns and themes in descriptive data using inductive reasoning (Daymon & Holloway, 2002, p. 150).
The data analysis also included a comparison of the quantitative and qualitative findings to produce a more comprehensive answer to the research questions (Flick, 2006, p. 37). In the comparison, the quantitative findings received primary consideration, with the qualitative findings considered as supplemental explanation for the quantitative findings. The analysis determined whether the quantitative and qualitative data converged and the degree of support for accepting or rejecting hypotheses from each type of data (Creswell & Clark, 2007, p. 107).

4.11.1 Quantitative Analysis

For the quantitative phase of the study, the survey questionnaire created a systematic coding frame for the data obtained from the respondents. The preliminary data was analysed using SPSS 17.0, with the coding frame as the basis for entering the data into the software programme to develop descriptive statistics about the sample. In addition, AMOS version 16.0 (analysis of moment structured) was used as a software to test and evaluate the proposed model for this study. Any survey questionnaires not fully completed or had discrepancies such as multiple answers to the same question were excluded from the data analysis.

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used in this study as a multivariate technique which mixing aspects of multiple regression and factor analysis to determine the interrelated dependence relationships simultaneously by the researcher. In addition, SEM examines the relationships among the measured variables and latent constructs and between numerous latent constructs (Hair et al, 2010). SEM integrates techniques such as path analysis, principal component analysis, and ANOVA which depict the relationship between constructs (Sharma, 1996 and hayduk, 1987). SEM is a statistical
methodology that takes confirmatory approach rather than exploratory approach to the data analysis (Byrne, 2001).

Regression analysis, correlation analysis and path analysis were used to test the hypotheses with inferential statistical methods. Regression analysis tested the existence of a statistically significant relationship between the independent and dependent variables of the study. The approach to the analysis of the data included factor analysis, which involved multiple regression analysis to assess the amount of variance accounted for by the various factors examined in the study that functioned as multiple independent variables. The correlation analysis used the correlation coefficient to test the magnitude of a statistically significant relationship between the independent and dependent variables, which functions as a predictor of the relationship. The coefficient of determination was used to assess the amount of variation in the dependent variables accounted for by changes in the independent variable (Bethea, Duran, & Boullion, 1995, p. 363). The regression analysis and correlation analysis are based on the assumption that the relationships among the variables are linear. For all the inferential statistical tests, the alpha level was set at $p < .05$. With psychometric data involving attitudes and perceptions of individuals, an alpha level of .05 is appropriate to avoid a Type II error of accepting a null hypothesis when it is in fact false (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2008, p. 238).

In order to investigate the effect of a third variable on the influence of predictors toward the dependent variables, multiple-group analysis was conducted by AMOS software. This type of analysis was used to compare between two or more samples from
the same population using the same model (Hair et al, 2010). The main purpose of multiple-group analysis is to detect the differ amount between groups (Arbuckle, 2005).

4.11.2 Qualitative Analysis

The analysis of the interview data for the qualitative phase of the study used the content analysis method of iterative thematic analysis, which is recommended by Creswell (2007, p. 72) in mixed methods research when subjective factors are related to the causal factors under investigation in the objective part of the study. In thematic analysis, the researcher focuses on what is said rather than on how it said (Bryman, 2008). The process involves coding of the data obtained from the interviewees using repeated examinations of the data based on a three-stage coding process intended to identify the themes and patterns contained in the data (Ezzy, 2002, p. 86). The first stage of the analysis uses open coding to examine the data to identify central or key themes discussed by the interviewees. The second stage of axial coding focused on determining the patterns within the themes identified during the open coding process. A pattern was deemed to exist if five or more interviewees noted or described similar concepts in the interview data, which functioned as the unit of analysis for the axial coding process. The third stage of the analysis used descriptive coding to present the themes and patterns in the context of the questions asked of the interviewees and as answers to the research questions of the study (Saunders et al., 2009).

4.12 Reliability and Validity

Reliability was established in the quantitative phase of the study by determining Cronbach's alpha in a pilot test using 32 respondents meeting the inclusion criteria for the study. The approach was based on the assumption that item variance is indicative of
error variance, with the sum of the error variance substituted for true error variance (Dunn-Ranking, 2004, p. 118). The Cronbach's alpha was .764, which is above the level of .70 commonly accepted as sufficient for considering the instrument to be reliable.

The assessment of the internal validity of the instrument and research design involved the extent that causal inferences can be made for the variables under investigation (Crano & Brewer, 2002, p. 22). Face validity of the instrument was established by peer review, while construct validity was established by examining the empirical measures to ensure they have a relationship to the theoretical constructs. The primary threat to internal validity was the possibility that confounding variables influenced the apparent relationship between the independent and dependent variables investigated in the quantitative phase of the study. External validity, or the ability to generalise the findings, depends on the adequacy of the sampling procedure and the ecological validity of the research design (Gliner & Morgan, 2000, p. 159). The random sampling method for the quantitative phase of the study established external validity with the sample population representative of the study population. The data collection occurred in the natural environment of the subjects of the study, which reduced the threats from ecological factors to the external validity of the study.

For the qualitative phase of the study, the trustworthiness approach was used to establish reliability and validity of the research, and refers to the degree of confidence that can be placed in the findings (Creswell, 2009, p. 191). Trustworthiness consists of dependability, credibility, applicability, and ability to confirm the findings. Dependability, which is analogous to reliability, was supported by using the same data collection method for all interviewees, with a record made of the decisions during data analysis for consistency in coding. Credibility is analogous to internal validity and was
established by prolonged engagement with the interviewees and the triangulation of data from multiple interviewees. Applicability is related to the external validity of the study, which is inherently low in qualitative research. Applicability was supported by using criteria in the purposeful sampling and thick description produced by the content analysis. The ability to confirm the findings is supported by the objectivity in data collection and analysis. The interview approach attempted to minimise the interviewer's influence on the interviewees. In addition, objective definitions were used in the data analysis process for consistency in decision making.

4.13 Limitations of the Methodology

A significant limitation of the methodology is the potential for researcher bias, which can influence factors such as research design, data collection, and data analysis. While the quantitative phase of the study is presumed to use objective data collection and data analysis methods, researcher bias can influence the formulation of the research questions and the design of the data gathering instruments. Researcher bias is also a limitation to the qualitative phase of the study because of the greater degree of subjective interaction between the researcher and the subjects. While the methodological triangulation in the mixed methods approach reduces the effect of researcher bias through the use of multiple collection and analysis procedures, it cannot fully eliminate the effect of researcher bias from the findings of the study.

Another limitation of the research methodology is the possibility that the respondents and interviewees did not provide candid or accurate information despite assurances of confidentiality. The large sampling for the quantitative phase of the study and the lengthy engagement with the interviewees in the qualitative phase of the study increases
the likelihood that the findings are based on accurate data. In addition, the qualitative data may not fully represent the study population of bank managers and supervisors in Kuwait because the participants were randomly selected from organisational directories. Some new employees may not have been listed in these directories, and were therefore excluded from the sample.

4.14 Ethical Considerations

The research did not pose any risk of physical or psychological harm to the participants in either the qualitative or quantitative phases of the study. The primary risk to the participants in the study was a breach of confidentiality leading to the disclosure of any adverse comments or statements made by participants concerning employers or co-workers. The approach used to preserve confidentiality was to use code numbers for participants in both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study, with the identity of the individual not linked to the code number. In addition, the completed survey questionnaires and the recordings and transcripts of the interviews were kept in a secured location accessible only to the researcher and designated research assistants.

Informed consent of the participants was another ethical consideration. The participants in the study were required to complete an informed consent form that followed the recommendations of Leong and Austin (2006, p. 176) for contents. The informed consent form provided participants with information about the purpose of the study, the risks to the participants with emphasis on breach of confidentiality, and the way in which the data was collected and analysed. The informed consent form also emphasised the voluntary nature of participation in the study, with the participants able to withdraw their consent at any time prior to the completion of
the data collection process without any penalty. It further indicated that the respondents or interviewees would not receive any reward or benefit from participating in the study. The individuals solicited for participation in the survey in the quantitative phase of the study were provided with a means to contact the researcher to answer any questions about the study or the risks to the participants. The informed consent form for the qualitative phase of the study was discussed in person with the interviewees during the briefing prior to the commencement of the interview.

4.15 Conclusion

The study used a concurrent quantitative and qualitative mixed methods approach to test the relationship between cross-cultural influences and leadership development in the private sector banking industry in Kuwait. The mixed methods approach triangulates the research methods to obtain answers to the research question, providing a more comprehensive understanding than could be obtained from the use of a quantitative or qualitative method in isolation. The mixed methods approach combines deductive and inductive reasoning, and is referred to as a pragmatic research design because it incorporates the ontological and epistemological elements necessary to answer the research questions.

The quantitative phase of the research adopted the positivist paradigm and a non-experimental research design. The data for this phase of the study was obtained from a survey questionnaire disseminated to managers and supervisors in private sector banks in Kuwait selected through random sampling. The data was analysed with regression analysis, correlation analysis, using SEM to test the hypotheses developed at the outset of the study. A pilot test was used to establish the reliability of the data collection
instrument. The qualitative phase of the study developed a case study using primary data obtained from interviews with bank managers selected through purposeful sampling. The data was analysed with content analysis using iterative thematic analysis to identify themes and patterns in the data related to cross-cultural leadership and leadership development among bank managers in Kuwait. The trustworthiness approach was used to assess reliability and validity of the qualitative data. Despite the triangulation from using multiple methods, the findings remain subject to researcher bias.
CHAPTER 5: THE EFFECTIVE CROSS-CULTURAL LEADERSHIP MODELLING (ECL)

5.1 Introduction

In order to answer the research questions, the proposed model will be tested and evaluated in this chapter. The purposes of this chapter are:

1) To provide a descriptive analysis of the demographic data,
2) To develop and evaluate the research model,
3) To test the research hypotheses, and
4) To investigate the influence of moderators on the proposed research model.

A structural equation modelling (SEM) is used to evaluate a model of effectiveness in cross-cultural leadership that best fits the data using AMOS software version 16.0. The model may help promote effective leadership in the banking industry in Kuwait and improve leaders’ professional practices, leadership programmes development, and the quality of their working life. This is a more realistic model than using standard multivariate statistical or multiple regression models alone. By using AMOS, users can specify, measure, estimate, and present the model in an instructive path diagram to show hypothesized relationships among variables (Arbuckle, 2005).

A structural equation model (SEM) is composed of two models: The measurement model and the structural model. The measurement model is used to identify the relations between the observed and the unobserved variables whereas the structural model is used to identify the relations between the unobserved variables (Byrne, 2001).
5.2 Demographic Data

The characteristics of the respondents recorded were: position, gender, age, nationality, education level, place of obtaining last qualification, and banking experience. These characteristics are presented in Table 4 by using the SPSS software.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>1) Manager</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>58.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) Supervisor</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>41.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1) Male</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>57.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) Female</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>42.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1) 20-29</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) 30-39</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3) 40-49</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>28.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4) 50-59</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5) 60+</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>1) Kuwaiti</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>60.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) Non-Kuwaiti</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>39.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level</td>
<td>1) Diploma</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) Bachelor</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>60.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3) Postgraduate</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place of Obtaining Last qualification</td>
<td>1) Europe</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) USA</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3) Asia(excluding Middle East)</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4) Middle East</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banking Experience</td>
<td>1) Less than 5 Years</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) 5-10 Years</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>37.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3) 11-20 Years</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>36.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4) More than 20 Years</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As is evident from Table 5.1, the majority of respondent to the survey was managers (58.4%, 301 cases) and male (57.7%, 297 cases). While these figures are sufficient to capture the views of both levels of management and gender, with no published figures
for such demographic, we are not able to establish if potential bias would be presents in our data. As such, these two variables (position and gender) are tested for in the analysis of this study.

A substantial number of responds were in the age range 30-39 (51.1%, 263 cases). It can be seen that younger leaders between the age of 20-39 years were the larger group (64.9%, 334 cases).

The highest percentage of leaders was Kuwaiti (60.4%, 311 cases). This high percentage of Kuwaiti national might give the study a clear idea of the perceptions of the role of international team leader among Kuwaiti managers in the Kuwaiti banking sector which is one of the research objectives.

Most of the leaders who involved in this study come from the Middle Eastern nations with a small number of leaders come from either South Asian or Europe nations.

The majority of respondents are educated to the bachelors degree level (60.4%, 311 cases) compare to diploma (22.5%, 116 cases) whereas the minority of the respondents had a postgraduate degree (17.1%, 88 cases).

Most respondents obtained their last qualification from the Middle East (49.1%, 253 cases) with the least from Asia (excluding Middle East) with only (7.6%, 39 cases). Although the majority of the respondents will be influenced by Middle Eastern culture, the variety of the places which the respondents obtained their qualifications from
indicates that this might have some influence on international leadership practices in Kuwaiti banking sector.

The banking experience sample was divided into two groups; less than 10 years (48.4%, 249 cases), and 10 years or more (51.6%, 266 cases).

5.3 Constructs of the Research Model

The proposed research model comprises six latent constructs (See Figure 4). A latent construct cannot be measured directly but can be represented or measured by one or more variables (indicators). An observed (measured) variable is a specific question or item, obtained either from respondents in response to questions in a questionnaire or from some type of observation. Measured variables are used as the indicators of latent constructs. In other words, indicators are associated with each latent construct are specified by the researcher (Hair et al. 2010).
The latent constructs in the proposed model comprise four exogenous constructs and two endogenous constructs. An exogenous construct is a latent, multi-item variable equivalent to an independent variable. It is a construct that is not affected by any other construct in the model. Endogenous constructs are latent, multi-item variables equivalent to dependent variables. It is a construct that are affected by other constructs in the model (Hair et al. 2010; Sharma 1996).

In the proposed research model, each construct comprises at least five items with a maximum of eleven items. For example, the cultural differences latent construct (CD) consists of 10 items, cd1 to cd10 according to the literature (See Table 5).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Code/Name of Construct</th>
<th>Definitions of Constructs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1*</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>cd1-cd10</td>
<td>CD</td>
<td>Cultural differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2*</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>td1-td10</td>
<td>TD</td>
<td>Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3*</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>ccldp1-cldpP10</td>
<td>CCLDP</td>
<td>Cross-cultural leadership development programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4*</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>ilp1-ilp11</td>
<td>ILP</td>
<td>International leadership practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5**</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>prog1-prog5</td>
<td>LPROGD</td>
<td>Leadership programmes development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6**</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>prac1-prac5</td>
<td>LPRACD</td>
<td>Leadership practices development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 The Six Constructs of the Research Model

* Exogenous Latent Construct (independent variable)
** Endogenous Latent Construct (dependent variable)

These six constructs were measured by a total of 51 items, 41 items for the exogenous and 10 items for the endogenous constructs.

In SEM, a two-step approach to analyse a SEM is recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) rather than a single-step approach. Firstly, the measurement model or confirmatory measurement model is evaluated to ensure that the items used to measure each of the construct are adequate and valid. In other words, it specifies the relation between the factor loadings of the observed indicator variables and the unobserved latent variables. The second step is carried out only after the measurement model is shown to be an adequate measure of the constructs. The second step involves the assessment of the structural model, which appraises the relationships between the constructs (Hair et al., 2010). The single-step approach involves assessing measurement
and structural models simultaneously. By using this two-step approach in preference, the typical problem of not being able to localise the source of poor model fit associated with the single-step approach is overcome (Singh & Smith, 2004).

Before proceeding to SEM data analysis, it is necessary to test the reliability and validity of the constructs. Reliability and validity are separate but closely related conditions (Bollen 1989). More importantly, reliability does not guarantee validity. A measure may be consistent (reliable) but not accurate (valid) (Hair et al., 2010, p.637). Both these important measures will be discussed and presented in the next two sections.

5.4 Construct Validity

Construct validity is a measure of the extents that the measures obtained actually measure the hypothesised constructs. Convergent validity and discriminant validity will be examined to measure construct validity (Hair et al., 2010). The measure has wide applicability because it can be computed for the construct(s) in a model regardless of whether the researcher is estimating the measurement model, undertaking confirmatory factor analysis or path analysis with latent variables (Hair et al., 2010). In general, researchers report at least one of three model-based estimates of reliability (Bollen 1989).

5.4.1 Convergent Validity

The amount of shared variance between the indicators of a particular construct is a measure of convergent validity. In this study, the measurement model for the latent variables was used to measure the construct reliability. In AMOS, the standardized regression weights are used as a measure of the item reliability as they are the
correlation between a single indicator variable and the construct variable. The measurement model of a good observed indicator variable should be at least .5 or higher, although a value of .7 is preferred. (Hair et al., 2010).

Twenty one observed variables (indicators) that represent the four exogenous latent constructs (CD, TD, CCLDP, and ILP) had measurement weights that exceeded 0.50. Twenty indicators did not make a substantial contributions of their predicted constructs (loading <0.05) and were deleted from the measurement model to improve the fit of the model. The indicators retained for the exogenous variables are presented in Table 6, emboldened.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Estimates</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Estimates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cd1</td>
<td>Cultural Differences (CD)</td>
<td>.633</td>
<td>ccldp1</td>
<td>Cross-cultural leadership development programmes (CCLDP)</td>
<td>.251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cd2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.551</td>
<td>ccldp2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cd3</td>
<td></td>
<td>.356</td>
<td>ccldp3</td>
<td></td>
<td>.846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cd4</td>
<td></td>
<td>.219</td>
<td>ccldp4</td>
<td></td>
<td>.878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cd5</td>
<td></td>
<td>.327</td>
<td>ccldp5</td>
<td></td>
<td>.786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cd6</td>
<td></td>
<td>.530</td>
<td>ccldp6</td>
<td></td>
<td>.635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cd7</td>
<td></td>
<td>.420</td>
<td>ccldp7</td>
<td></td>
<td>.773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cd8</td>
<td></td>
<td>.431</td>
<td>ccldp8</td>
<td></td>
<td>.448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cd9</td>
<td></td>
<td>.642</td>
<td>ccldp9</td>
<td></td>
<td>.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cd10</td>
<td></td>
<td>.549</td>
<td>ccldp10</td>
<td></td>
<td>.191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td1</td>
<td>Training and development in traditional (TD)</td>
<td>.114</td>
<td>ilp1</td>
<td>International leadership practices (ILP)</td>
<td>.828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.520</td>
<td>ilp2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td3</td>
<td></td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>ilp3</td>
<td></td>
<td>.782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td4</td>
<td></td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>ilp4</td>
<td></td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td5</td>
<td></td>
<td>.123</td>
<td>ilp5</td>
<td></td>
<td>.866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td6</td>
<td></td>
<td>.658</td>
<td>ilp6</td>
<td></td>
<td>.641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td7</td>
<td></td>
<td>.564</td>
<td>ilp7</td>
<td></td>
<td>.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td8</td>
<td></td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>ilp8</td>
<td></td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td9</td>
<td></td>
<td>.515</td>
<td>ilp9</td>
<td></td>
<td>.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td10</td>
<td></td>
<td>.572</td>
<td>ilp10</td>
<td></td>
<td>.053</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 Standardized Regression Weights of the 41 Indicators for the Four Exogenous Latent Constructs

In addition, the weights of all the ten observed variables (indicators) that represent the two endogenous latent constructs (LPROGD and LPRACD) exceeded 0.50 which shows acceptable reliability for these indicator variables. They were all consequently included in the resulting model Table 7.
Table 6 Standardized Regression Weights of the 10 Indicators for the Two Endogenous Latent Constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>prog1</td>
<td>Leadership programmes</td>
<td>.706</td>
<td>prac1</td>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>.655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prog2</td>
<td>development (LPROGD)</td>
<td>.707</td>
<td>prac2</td>
<td>practices</td>
<td>.677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prog3</td>
<td>development</td>
<td>.819</td>
<td>prac3</td>
<td>development</td>
<td>.672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prog4</td>
<td>(LPROGD)</td>
<td>.740</td>
<td>prac4</td>
<td>(LPRACD)</td>
<td>.689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prog5</td>
<td></td>
<td>.728</td>
<td>prac5</td>
<td></td>
<td>.678</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggest that an average variance extracted (AVE) for a construct with good contribute validity should ideally exceed 0.5. Hair et al. (2010) further endorse this rule-of-thumb recommendation suggesting that for an SEM with acceptable construct validity, the majority of the constructs should exceeded 0.5. This suggestion was satisfied with the ECL model, with the AVE for CCLDP and ILP, both exceeding 0.6 (0.629 and 0.616 respectively).

5.4.2 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity is present when the variances of the constructs are better explained by their indicator variables than by covariance with any of the remaining constructs and are thus distinct. It is, therefore, important to assess this validity when the constructs are interrelated. The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) estimates and correlation values between the constructs were used to determine whether the constructs in the measurement model are empirically distinguishable and therefore exhibit discriminant validity. The AVE estimates are the average for the squares of the standardized loadings of the designated indicator variables for a construct. These were calculated by fitting the model to our data, using AMOS. (In AMOS, these loadings are referred to as the standardized regression weights.)
To appraise discriminant validity, the square root of the AVE estimates, $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$, for each construct is compared to its correlations with the other construct. If the square root of AVE is greater than each of these correlations, we have evidence of discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981, Hair et al., 2010). From table 8 we confirm that discriminate validity is present in our model.

Although there is a high correlation between the two endogenous construct LPROG and LPRAC (.644), Schumacker and Lomax (2004, p. 355) suggest that correlations below .85 are generally deemed sufficient to retain the constructs as distinct and distinguishable entities in the model. Figure 5 exhibits the standardized correlation estimates and standardized regression weights for the six latent constructs after removing the indicators that were shown not to make a significant contribution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>CD</th>
<th>TD</th>
<th>CCLDP</th>
<th>ILP</th>
<th>LPROGD</th>
<th>LPRACD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CD</td>
<td>0.605</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TD</td>
<td>0.225</td>
<td>0.569</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCLDP</td>
<td>0.281</td>
<td>-0.085</td>
<td>0.793</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILP</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>-0.022</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>0.785</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD</td>
<td>0.438</td>
<td>0.103</td>
<td>0.539</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
<td>0.738</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD</td>
<td>0.313</td>
<td>0.214</td>
<td>0.522</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>0.644</td>
<td>0.669</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 Correlations between Constructs in ECL Model with $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$ emboldened on the lead diagonal.
Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices
Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD= Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Figure 5 Standardized Correlations Estimates and Standardised Regression Weights for the Six Latent Constructs after Deleting the Indicators
A standardized residual covariance between two indicators is the residual covariance between a pair of indicators divided by an estimate of their standard error. It is recommended that for discriminant validity to be present, most standardized residuals should have an absolute value less than 2.5. Absolute values between 2.5 and 4.0 are acceptable when there are no other problems with the associated indicators. If greater than 4.0, it is suggested that one of the indicators related to the residual is removed from the model (Hair et al., 2010) as there is evidence of weak discriminant validity.

Most of the standardized residuals had absolute values less than 2.5, with a few having values between 2.5 and 4.0. However, no residuals exceeded 4.0 in absolute value. Therefore, these results do not suggest any problems and provide strong evidence of discriminant validity for the all latent constructs in the measurement model (See Appendix E).
5.5 Construct Reliability

Construct reliability for the measurement model measures the internal consistency for the indicators of a latent variable. It captures the degree to which a set of measures indicate the common latent construct. An advantage of construct reliability is that it is based on estimates of model parameters. The most commonly measure for internal consistency reliability is Cronbach’s Alpha that quantifies the degree to which the indicators that make up the scale are consistent (Kline, 2005).

Hair et al. (2010) suggest that a coefficient value of .7, or higher, indicates good reliability, with a value between .6 and .7 indicating acceptable reliability. After deleting the twenty indicators from the measurement model, internal consistency reliability, based on Cronbach’s Alphas, for the measurement model items are considered to be good. This indicates that the items are correlated adequately, with each making a contribution towards a measure of their designated construct (See Table 9).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement Items</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Reliability Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Differences (CD)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.742</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership (TD)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.713</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-cultural leadership development programmes (CCLDP)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.909</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International leadership practices (ILP)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.887</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership programmes development (LPROGD)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.866</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership practices development (LPRACD)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.817</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 Summary of Cronbach’s Alphas in the Main Survey Questionnaire after Deleting the Indicators.
5.6 Goodness-of-Fit

Goodness-of-fit is a measurement that indicates the level of fit between the hypothesized model and the empirical model designed from the sample data. The aim of a goodness-of-fit test is to determine whether the hypothesized model should be accepted or rejected based on the sample data. Three distinct models are provided: the hypothesized model, default model, which is the research model, and the saturated model in which the number of estimated parameters equals the number of data observations; and the independence model in which all correlations among variables are zero (Byrne, 2001).

A variety of goodness-of-fit tests exist and each test calculates an appropriate goodness-of-fit index. Choosing which tests are appropriate and which indices to report are determined by the characteristics of the study. However, there is no single index that is sufficient to adequately identify a correct model given specific sample data (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). It is recommended to use a reasonable number of fit tests. Kline (2005) recommended at least four different tests. The controversy remains regarding which actual fit indices to report. This study reported the following goodness-of-fit tests: minimum sample discrepancy function, baseline comparisons, adjusted measures of parsimony, the root mean square error of approximation, and the Hoelter critical N measure.

5.6.1 Minimum Sample Discrepancy Function (CMIN)

CMIN, (Chi-Square statistic ($\chi^2$)), is a measure of the minimum value of the discrepancy between the fitted model and the hypothesised model. In the case of
maximum likelihood estimation, CMIN estimates an overall measure of how many of the implied moments and sample moments differ.

The P-value is the probability of getting the discrepancy as occurred in a larger discrepancy with the present sample under appropriate distributional assumptions and assuming a correctly specified model. Therefore, this is a method to select the model by testing the hypotheses to eliminate any models that are inconsistent with the available data. A P-value greater than 0.05 indicates an acceptable fit (Byrne, 2001).

CMIN/DF ($\chi^2 / df$) is the CMIM minimum discrepancy measure divided by its degrees-of-freedom. Byrne (2006) suggested that a ratio below 3 is acceptable and indicates a good fit of the model.

The values of the Chi-Square statistic ($\chi^2$), P-value, and CMIN/DF were 935.293, .0005, and 2.196 respectively, with 426 degree of freedom. The CMIN/DF of 2.196 indicates a reasonable fit whereas the P-value was significant at the level of 0.05 which indicates that the fit of the data to the hypothesized model is not adequate (See Table 10).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default model</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>935.293</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>2.196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated model</td>
<td>527</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence model</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>7432.351</td>
<td>465</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>15.984</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 CMNI for Model Fit. (AMOS Output)

5.6.2 Baseline Comparisons

There are five significant indices for baseline comparisons which are considered as practical criterion for choice when model fitting. These indices are presented in AMOS
output as NFI, RFI, IFI, TLI, and CFI. Table 11 below explains the measures and for each baseline values to be used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fit Measure Indexes</th>
<th>Fit Measure Indications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>The normed fit index. Value ranges from 0 to 1. A value close to .9 is considered a well fitting model.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RFI</td>
<td>The relative fit index. Value ranges from 0 to 1. A value close to .9 is considered a well fitting model.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>The incremental fit index. Value should be equal to, or greater than .90 to accept the model.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TLI</td>
<td>The Tucker-Lewis index. Value range from 0 to 1. A value close to .95 (for large sample) indicates a very good fit for the model.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>The comparative fit index. Value range from 0 to 1. A value close to .95 indicates a very good fit for the model.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 10 Indications of Baseline Comparisons Indices. (Byrne, 2001)**

The values of NFI, RFI, IFI, TLI, and CFI were .874, .863, .927, .920, and .927 respectively. Therefore, from the baseline values given in the table 13, these indicate a good fit for the model (See table 12).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>NFI Delta1</th>
<th>RFI rho1</th>
<th>IFI Delta2</th>
<th>TLI rho2</th>
<th>CFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default model</td>
<td>.874</td>
<td>.863</td>
<td>.927</td>
<td>.920</td>
<td>.927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated model</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent model</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 11 Baseline Comparisons Indexes for Model Fit. (AMOS Output)**

5.6.3 Model Parsimony

The Parsimony index is tied to NFI and CFI goodness-of-fit indices which represent the ratio of the degrees-of-freedom for the model to degrees-of-freedom in the independent model. A model with relatively few parameters and relatively many degrees-of-freedom is considered as a model with high parsimony and simplicity. Table 13 below provides
the typical baseline values for PNFI, the parsimony normed fit index, and PCFI, the parsimony comparative fit index.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fit Measure Indexes</th>
<th>Fit Measure Indications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PNFI</td>
<td>The closer the model is to the saturated model, the more NFI is penalized and indicates a poor fit for the model. The .95 cutoffs do not apply. A value greater than .6 indicates a good parsimonious fit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCFI</td>
<td>The closer the model is to the saturated model, the more CFI is penalized and indicates a poor fit for the model. The .95 cutoffs do not apply. A Value greater than .6 indicates good parsimonious fit.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 12** *Indications of parsimony Adjusted Measures Indexes. (Byrne, 2001)*

The values of PRATIO, PNFI, and PCFI were .916, .801, and .849 respectively, and all values of the saturated model for PRATIO, PNFI and PCFI were .000. These also all indicate a good fit for the model (See Table 14).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>PRATIO</th>
<th>PNFI</th>
<th>PCFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default model</td>
<td>.916</td>
<td>.801</td>
<td>.849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated model</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence model</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 13** *Parsimony Adjusted Measures Indexes for Model Fit. (AMOS Output)*

5.6.4 **The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)**

The RMSEA is one of the most commonly used criterion in covariance structure equation modelling which takes into account the error of estimation in the population and it is one of the fit indices less affected by sample size. The RMSEA tells us how well the model, with unknown but most favourable chosen parameter estimates would fit the populations’ covariance matrix (Byrne, 1998). Four values are calculated in AMOS for the RMSEA index. These values are RMSEA, the lower bound for the estimated 90% confidence interval for RMSEA (LO 90), the higher bound for the estimated 90% confidence interval for RMSEA (HI 90), and the P-close value. Values
less than .05 for RMSEA indicate a good fit between the hypothesized model and the observed data whereas values as high as .08 or greater indicate a reasonable error of approximation in the population and therefore, poor fit.

Byrne (2001) also suggested that the P-close value should be greater than .50 to test the hypotheses. The P value examines the hypothesis that the RMSEA is greater than .05. If the P value is greater than .05, then it is concluded that hypothesized model fits the data. AMOS also provides a 90% confidence interval for the RMSEA value to measure the precision (Steiger, 1990). A very narrow confidence interval indicates good precision of the RMSEA value in reflecting model fit in the population.

The value for RMSEA was .048 for the hypothesized model; with the 90% confidence interval ranging from .044 (LO) to .052 (HI) with the P-close value for the test of closeness-of-fit being .753. Therefore, it can be concluded that the hypothesized model also fits the data well, based on these statistics (See Table 15).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>LO 90</th>
<th>HI 90</th>
<th>PCLOSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default model</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent model</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>.167</td>
<td>.174</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14 RMSEA Measures for Model Fit. (AMOS Output)

5.6.5 Hoelter Critical N Measure (CN)

The Hoelter CN measure is used to judge the adequacy of the sample size rather than the goodness of the model fit. It gives an indication of the sample size which would be sufficient to produce an adequate model. Values that exceed 200 indicate that the model
is adequately represented by the sample size. Two N values are calculated by AMOS, one at the .05 and one at the .01 levels of significance (Byrne, 2001).

In was found that both the .05 and .01 CN values for the hypothesised model were greater than 200 (262 and 274, respectively). Therefore, it can be concluded that the size of the sample (N=515) is sufficient to yield an adequate model fit (See Table 16).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>HOELTER .05</th>
<th>HOELTER .01</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default model</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence model</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 15 Hoelter Measure for Sample Size Fit. (AMOS Output)

5.7 Summary of Model Fit

In summary, despite the result of the Chi-Square which indicates that the hypothesized model is not entirely adequate; it has been suggested that it should not be used as an indicator of the goodness-of-fit due to proven unreliable with larger samples (Byrne, 2001, p 284). The variety of goodness-of-fit tests, including CMIN/DF, NFI, RFI, IFI, TLI, CFI, PNFI, PCFI, RMSEA-LO90-HI90- and the P-CLOSE value have all demonstrated a good fit of the hypothesized research model. The sample size has also been seen to be adequate; with CN medicating 262-274 to be acceptable (see Figure 6). The model, after testing and modification, is called the “Effective Cross-Cultural Leadership” and this is to abbreviate “ECL” throughout this thesis.
Effective Cross-Cultural Model
Standardised Estimates
Chi-Square = 935.293
Degree of Freedom = 426
CMIN/DF = 2.196, Probability = .000
(NFI = .874, RFI = .863, IFI = .927, TLI = .920, CFI = .927) (PNFI = .801, PCFI = .849)
(RMSEA = .048, LO90 = .044, HI90 = .052, P-CLOSE = .753)
(CN (.05) = 262, (.01) = 274)

Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices
Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Figure 6 Effectiveness Cross-Cultural Leadership Model with Standardised Estimates
5.8 The Research Hypotheses Testing

The proposed research model (See Figure 7), which adapted and incorporated aspects of several theories of cross-cultural leadership and leadership developments presents the possible influence of the four latent constructs CD, TD, CCLDP, and ILP on the two endogenous latent constructs LPROGD and LPRACD.

The proposed model was developed to represent the following hypotheses:

H1: Cultural differences are positively related to leadership programme development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

H2: Cultural differences are positively related to leadership practices development in the banking sector in Kuwait.
H3: Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership is positively related to leadership programme development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

H4: Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership is positively related to leadership practices development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

H5: Cross-Cultural Leadership Development Programmes is positively related to leadership programme development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

H6: Cross-Cultural Leadership Development Programmes is positively related to leadership practices development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

H7: International Leadership Practises is positively related to leadership programme development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

H8: International Leadership Practises is positively related to leadership practices development in the banking sector in Kuwait.

One of the main assumptions of our SEM is that the constructs are from a multivariate Normal distribution. Consequently, prior to conducting any formal tests on the empirical parameters obtained from fitting the model, it is recommended that the indicators for the model be inspected to assess the possibility of any gross departures from Normality. Field (2009) suggested that kurtosis and skewness are important measures for a normal distribution; the closer they are to zero (assuming Kurtosis to be normalised by subtracting 3), the more likely the data are to be from a Normal distribution. As the sum (or weighted sum in the case for a construct) of Normally distributed variates is also Normally distributed, the indicators being Normally distributed will be a sufficient condition for Normality of the associated construct. From table 17, all the values for the indicators are below 1 in absolute value suggesting that these the Normality condition is satisfied.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>skew</th>
<th>kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ilp6</td>
<td>-0.072</td>
<td>-0.435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ilp5</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>-0.492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ilp3</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>-0.449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ilp2</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>-0.413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ilp1</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>-0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ccldp7</td>
<td>-0.268</td>
<td>-0.377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ccldp6</td>
<td>-0.236</td>
<td>-0.332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ccldp5</td>
<td>-0.263</td>
<td>-0.465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ccldp3</td>
<td>-0.276</td>
<td>-0.401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ccldp2</td>
<td>-0.241</td>
<td>-0.535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ccldp1</td>
<td>-0.302</td>
<td>-0.373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td10</td>
<td>-0.507</td>
<td>-0.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td9</td>
<td>-0.271</td>
<td>0.376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td7</td>
<td>-0.288</td>
<td>-0.131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td6</td>
<td>-0.794</td>
<td>0.884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>td2</td>
<td>-0.319</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cd10</td>
<td>-0.113</td>
<td>-0.422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cd9</td>
<td>-0.069</td>
<td>-0.237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cd6</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>-0.394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cd2</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>-0.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cd1</td>
<td>-0.095</td>
<td>-0.213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prac5</td>
<td>-0.73</td>
<td>-0.579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prac4</td>
<td>-0.851</td>
<td>-0.429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prac3</td>
<td>-0.772</td>
<td>-0.544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prac2</td>
<td>-0.69</td>
<td>-0.754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prac1</td>
<td>-0.655</td>
<td>-0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prog5</td>
<td>-0.62</td>
<td>-0.577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prog4</td>
<td>-0.574</td>
<td>-0.872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prog3</td>
<td>-0.523</td>
<td>-0.815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prog2</td>
<td>-0.465</td>
<td>-0.946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prog1</td>
<td>-0.538</td>
<td>-0.945</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16 Skewness and Kurtosis for the indicator variables.

**Parameter Estimates Testing**

A standardised maximum likelihood (ML) estimate for the regression coefficients is calculated to determine the relationship between the predictors and the dependent variables (assuming there are no missing values (Kline, 2005)). Only one path, ILP to LPRPGD, was not statistically significant at the 0.05 level; the remaining paths of the
hypothesised relationships were supported and statistically significant at either the 0.01 level or the 0.05 levels (See Table 18).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD &lt;--- CD</td>
<td>.520</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>8.052</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD &lt;--- TD</td>
<td>.342</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>3.805</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD &lt;--- CCLDP</td>
<td>.253</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>6.319</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD &lt;--- ILP</td>
<td>.094</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>2.649</td>
<td>.008**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD &lt;--- CD</td>
<td>.747</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>9.028</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD &lt;--- TD</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>.108</td>
<td>2.119</td>
<td>.034*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD &lt;--- CCLDP</td>
<td>.491</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>9.224</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD &lt;--- ILP</td>
<td>-.013</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>-.289</td>
<td>.773</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 17 Regression Weights for the Model**

***P < 0.0005  
**P < 0.01  
*P < 0.05

**Standardized Path Coefficients Estimates**

The standardised regression weights of path coefficients represent the average change in the dependent variable specified in standard deviations for a unit standard deviation increase in the predictor variable (Arbuckle, 1995 and Kline, 1998). The standardised path coefficients allow the researcher to determine the direct effect of each independent variable on the dependent variable (Hair et al., 2010). The interpretation is similar to that for regression, with absolute values greater than 0.10 indicating a small effect, values above 0.30 indicating a moderate effect, and those greater than 0.50 indicating a large effect (Kline, 1998, p.149) (See Table 19).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD &lt;--- CD</td>
<td>.522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD &lt;--- TD</td>
<td>.214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD &lt;--- CCLDP</td>
<td>.313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD &lt;--- ILP</td>
<td>.121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD &lt;--- CD</td>
<td>.539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD &lt;--- TD</td>
<td>.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD &lt;--- CCLDP</td>
<td>.438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD &lt;--- ILP</td>
<td>-.012</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 18 Standardized Regression weights of the Estimated Path Coefficient Estimates for the Effective Cross-Cultural Leadership Model**
5.8.1 Effect of Culture Differences (CD)

This study postulates that cultural differences are positively related to leadership programme development in the banking sector in Kuwait (H1). The results shows that the path coefficient between the constructs CD and LPROGD of $\beta=0.539$ was highly statistically significant with $P<0.0005$, providing strong evidence in support of the hypothesis.

This study postulates that cultural differences are positively related to leadership practices development in the banking sector in Kuwait (H2). The path coefficient between the constructs CD and LPRACD of $\beta=0.522$ was highly statistically significant with $P<0.0005$, providing strong evidence in support of the hypothesis.

5.8.2 Effect of Training and Development in Traditional Kuwaiti Leadership (TD)

This study postulates that training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership is positively related to leadership programme development in the banking sector in Kuwait (H3). The result shows that the small effect of the path coefficient between the constructs TD and LPROGD $\beta=0.103$ was statistically significant with $P<0.05$, providing evidence in support of the hypothesis. This result suggests that the more training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, the more increasing of leadership programmes development in the Kuwaiti banking sector.

This study postulates that training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership is positively related to leadership practices development in the banking sector in Kuwait (H4). The results shows that the small effect of the path coefficient between the constructs TD and LPRACD of $\beta=0.214$ was statistically significant with $P<0.0005$,
providing strong evidence in support of the hypothesis. This may suggest that the more training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, the more increasing of leadership practices development in the Kuwaiti banking sector.

### 5.8.3 Effect of Cross Cultural Leadership Development Programmes (CCLDP)

This study postulates that cross-cultural leadership development programmes is positively related to leadership programme development in the banking sector in Kuwait (H5). The results shows that the moderate effect of the path coefficient between the constructs CCLDP and LPROGD of $\beta=0.438$ was statistically significant with $P<0.01$, providing strong evidence in support of the hypothesis. This result suggests that the increasing of cross-cultural leadership development programmes lead to increasing of leadership programmes development in the Kuwaiti banking sector.

This study postulates that cross-cultural leadership development programmes is positively related to leadership practices development in the banking sector in Kuwait (H6). The results shows that the moderate effect of the path coefficient between the constructs CCLDP and LPRACD of $\beta=0.313$ was statistically significant with $P<0.01$, providing strong evidence in support of the hypothesis. As cross-cultural leadership development programmes increase, leadership practices development in the Kuwaiti banking sector will similarly increase, on average.

### 5.8.4 Effect of International Leadership Practices (ILP)

This study postulates that international leadership practices is positively related to leadership programmes development in the banking sector in Kuwait (H7). The results shows that the path coefficient between the constructs ILP and LPROGD of $\beta= -0.012$
was not statistically significant with $P>0.05$, providing evidence of not acceptance of the hypothesis. This indicates that international leadership practices will not affect leadership programmes development in the Kuwaiti banking sector.

This study postulates that international leadership practices is positively related to leadership practices development in the banking sector in Kuwait (H8). The results shows that the small effect of the path coefficient between the constructs ILP and LPRACD of $\beta=0.121$ was statistically significant with $P<0.01$, providing strong evidence in support of the hypothesis. As the international leadership practices increase, leadership practices in the Kuwaiti banking sector will increase similarly, on average.

Table 20 summarise the results of the proposed model hypotheses testing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
<th>Hypothesis Support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>CD</td>
<td>LPROGD</td>
<td>.539</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>CD</td>
<td>LPRACD</td>
<td>.522</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>TD</td>
<td>LPROGD</td>
<td>.103</td>
<td>.034*</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>TD</td>
<td>LPRACD</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>CCLDP</td>
<td>LPROGD</td>
<td>.438</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>CCLDP</td>
<td>LPRACD</td>
<td>.313</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>ILP</td>
<td>LPROGD</td>
<td>-.012</td>
<td>.733</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>ILP</td>
<td>LPRACD</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td>.008***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19 Summary of the Hypotheses Testing

***$P < 0.0005$

**$P < 0.01$

* $P < 0.05$

5.9 The Square Multiple Correlation (SMC)

SMC is equivalent to the coefficient of multiple determinations in multiple regression analysis and represents the amount of variance in a dependent variable that is explained by the group of predictors (Arbuckle, 2005). The predictors CD, TD, CCLDP, and ILP
have reasonable, overall, predictive power for the dependent variables, with 49.3% of the variance of LPROGD and 43.2% of the variance of LPRACD being explained by the proposed structural model.

5.10 Multiple Groups Analysis

Having fitted the full model, the research is also interested in the impact certain demographic variables may have on the dependent variables i.e. if they are control variables. Multiple group’s analysis is used to determine the impact of such moderator effects on the dependent variables. This analysis enables a comparison to be made between two or more groups of respondents to identify whether there are any significant differences between these groups. If the groups are not significantly different it suggests that the control variable does not affect the relationships of the predictors on the dependent variable.

As this study is interested in the effect and veracity of the research hypotheses, we are only concerned about structural equivalence (Kline, 2005) between the models for the separate groups. Although metric and scalar equivalence are important, it is not the focus of this research, moreover, it is also unlikely that there is sufficient data to adequately appraise these in any event (Kline, 2005; Bollen, 1989).

It is suggested (Hair et al., 2010) that multiple group’s analysis is conducted in two steps. The first step is to focus on the measurement model to establish if the model fits the data well for each group separately. The second step focuses on the structural model to determine if the path coefficient estimates that measure the linear relationship between the constructs differ between the groups. Hair et al. (2010) recommended using
one of the CFI or TLI measures, and the RMSEA indices to evaluate the model fit in the first step. In this investigation CFI and RMSEA are used.

In the second phase, when fitting the structural model, the model is estimated in two or more groups simultaneously as the direct paths are allowed to differ across the groups (Byrne, 2001).

Byrne stated that:

“If $H_0$ cannot be rejected, the groups are considered to be equivalent and thus tests for invariance are unjustified; group data should be pooled and all subsequent investigative work should be based on single-group analysis.” (Byrne, 2001. p.174).

In this research, the control variables: age, nationality, gender, position (level of seniority in the organisation), education, and job tenure (experience) are investigated. These variables were chosen as putative moderators, based on the arguments presented in section 3.7.

Two distinct models should be compared when using multiple group’s analysis to test for a moderation effect. The first model is the unconstrained model which is also referred to as the totally free multiple group model (TF) because all parameter estimates are computed separately. The second model is the constrained model where the parameter estimates are constrained to be equal across each of the distinct groups; the parameter estimates are thus specified as invariant across the groups (Hair et al., 2010).

Two associated hypotheses relating to the effect of the control variables and their effect on each of the dependent variables in the proposed research model are introduced
leading to two distinct sets of hypotheses. These are then tested (See Figure 8). The distinct sets are:

MH1a-MH6a: these hypothesise test whether the relationship between the four predictor variables (CD, TD, CCLDP and IPL) in the research model and leadership programme development are moderated by the control variables.

MH1b-MH6b: theses hypothesise test whether the relationship between the four predictor variables (CD, TD, CCLDP and IPL) in the research model and leadership practices development are moderated by the control variables.

Unstandardized path coefficients cannot be compared directly within the same model because they are affected by imposed constraints as well as the variances of the associated constructs (Kline, 1998). These estimates, however, afford comparisons of differences across the different groups (Schumacker and Lomax, 1996).
5.10.1 Position: Managers Vs Supervisors

The examination of whether the influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPROGD and LPRACD is moderated by position is performed by testing two moderating hypotheses which state that:

MH1a: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPROGD is moderated by position.

MH1b: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPRACD is moderated by position.
The standardized path coefficient estimates of the unconstrained and constrained models for the managers (301 cases) and the supervisors (214 cases) are presented in the table 21.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Characteristic</th>
<th>Unconstrained Group Model (TF for Each Group)</th>
<th>Constrained Group Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model Fit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>.915</td>
<td>.916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constructs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(DV)</td>
<td>(IV)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD CD</td>
<td>1.07 ***</td>
<td>.927 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD CD</td>
<td>.668 ***</td>
<td>.789 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD TD</td>
<td>.205</td>
<td>.157 .191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD TD</td>
<td>.370 .002**</td>
<td>.176 .083 .269 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD CCLDP</td>
<td>.519 ***</td>
<td>.531 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD CCLDP</td>
<td>.273 ***</td>
<td>.248 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD ILP</td>
<td>-.018 .801 -.031 .783 -.023 .707 .129 .009**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD ILP</td>
<td>.097 .089 .206 .035*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 20 Testing for Positions as a Moderator in the Proposed Research Model

*** $P < 0.0005$

** $P < 0.01$

* $P < 0.05$

The goodness-of-fit results for the unconstrained TF model (CFI = .915 and RMSEA = .037) for the two groups indicate that the model fits the data very well. It consequently indicates that the model for managers and supervisors are structurally equivalent but there is possibly some evidence of differences in parameter estimates at the 0.05 significant levels but not at the 0.10 level. As the path coefficient for TD $\rightarrow$ LPRACD for supervisors and that for ILP $\rightarrow$ LPRACD managers are weakly significant ($P < 0.10$) in the unconstrined model and significant at the $\alpha=0.05$ level in the combined model, the weak significant looks to be a consequence of an underpowered test due to limited sample sized. This is also most likely to be the case for the path TD $\rightarrow$ LPROGD which
is not significant in either of the separate unconstrained groups of the TF model but is significant at the $\alpha=0.05$ level in the combined model.

The goodness-of-fit results for the constrained model (CFI = .916 and RMSEA = .036) for the two groups also indicates that the model fits the data very well. We have evidence from our data that both managers and supervisors have the same path estimates and have no significant differences in relation to the constrained model.

Seven direct paths are statistically significant between determinants and dependent variables, (CD, TD, and CCLDP on LPROGD and CD, TD, CCLDP, and ILP on LPRACD). Thus it can be concluded that the two hypotheses are not supported suggesting that the influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP and ILP) on both LPROGD and LPRACD are not moderated by position. This indicates that CD, TD, and CCLDP play important roles in determining the leadership programmes development, and CD, TD, CCLDP, and ILP play important roles in determining the leadership practices development independent of position in the bank.

Both unconstrained models for managers and supervisors along with constrained model are presented in APPENDIX F.
5.10.2 Gender: Male Vs Female

The examination of whether the influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPROGD and LPRACD is moderated by gender is performed by testing two moderating hypotheses which state that:

MH2a: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPROGD is moderated by gender.

MH2b: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPRACD is moderated by gender.

The standardized path coefficient estimates of unconstrained and constrained models for the male (297 cases) and the female (218 cases) are presented in the table 22.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Fit Characteristic</th>
<th>Unconstrained Group Model (TF for Each Group)</th>
<th>Constrained Group Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>RMSEA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.917</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.918</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Males (Path Estimates) (P)</th>
<th>Female (Path Estimates) (P)</th>
<th>Combined (Path Estimates) (P)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD</td>
<td>.778</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CD</td>
<td>.643</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>.092</td>
<td>.174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TD</td>
<td>.466</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD</td>
<td>.530</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCLDP</td>
<td>.280</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD</td>
<td>-.036</td>
<td>.676</td>
<td>-.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILP</td>
<td>.177</td>
<td>.014*</td>
<td>.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD</td>
<td>.077</td>
<td>.240</td>
<td>.011*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 21 Testing for Gender as a Moderator in the Proposed Research Model

***P < 0.0005
**P < 0.01
*P < 0.05
The goodness-of-fit results for the unconstrained TF model (CFI = .917 and RMSEA = .037) for the two groups indicate that the model fits the data very well. The goodness-of-fit results for the constrained model (CFI = .918 and RMSEA = .036) for the two groups also indicates that the model fits the data very well.

The path coefficients for TD → LPROGD is not significant for female and weakly significant (α=0.1) for male. As it is significant in the combined model, we can conclude that it is also significant in the TF model but underpowered. However, the path coefficient for both TD → LPRACD and ILP → LPRACD for males are significant (P < 0.0005 respectively) but not significant for females (P= .203 and p= .240 respectively) in the unconstrained TF model and significant in the combined model, we can conclude that the moderating hypothesis that the influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP and ILP) on LPROGD is moderated by gender is not supported but that is the influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP and ILP) on LPRACD is moderated by gender is supported for both TD and ILP. This indicates that CD, TD, and CCLDP play important roles in determining the leadership programmes development and the controlling variable of gender play some important roles for TD and ILP in determining the leadership practices development.

Both unconstrained models for male and female along with constrained model are presented in Appendix F.
5.10.3 Age: Younger Vs Older

The four categories of age were 20-29 years (71 cases), 30-39 years (263 cases), 40-49 (145 cases), 50-59 (32 cases), and 60 years and older (4 cases). Because the sample of each group should be a reasonable size in multi-group analysis (Hair et al., 2010), the first two categories are aggregated into one group (334 cases), representing younger staff, with the remaining three age categories forming a group (181 cases) of older staff who are 40 years of age, or older.

Examination of whether the influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPROGD and LPRACD is moderated by age is undertaken by testing the two moderating hypotheses:

MH3a: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPROGD is moderated by age.
MH3b: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPRACD is moderated by age.

The standardized path coefficient estimates of unconstrained and constrained models for the younger and older groups are presented in the table 23.
The goodness-of-fit results for the unconstrained TF model (CFI = .920 and RMSEA = .036) for the two groups indicates that the model fits the data very well. The goodness-of-fit results for constrained model (CFI = .922 and RMSEA = .034) for the two groups also indicates that the model fits the data very well.

The path coefficients for both TD→LPROGD and ILP→LPRACD for younger staff are significant (P < 0.05) in the unconstrained model and significant in the combined model but neither are significant for older staff in the unconstrained TF model. As the corresponding P-values are high (P= .404 and P= .284 for TD→LPROGD and ILP→LPRACD, respectively), there is some evidence that age group does moderate both dependant variables. We can conclude that the moderating hypothesis that the influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP and ILP) on LPROGD is moderated by age is supported for TD and the moderating hypothesis that the influence of determinants...
(CD, TD, CCLDP and ILP) on LPRACD is moderated by age is supported for ILP. This indicates that the controlling variable of age plays an important role for TD in determining the leadership programmes development and for ILP in determining the leadership practices development.

Both unconstrained models for younger and older along with constrained model are presented in Appendix F.

5.10.4 Nationality: Middle East Vs South Asia Vs Europe

Examination of whether the influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPROGD and LPRACD is moderated by nationality is undertaken by testing two moderating hypotheses:

MH4a: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPROGD is moderated by nationality.

MH4b: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPRACD is moderated by nationality.

The standardized path coefficient estimates of unconstrained and constrained models for the Middle East (401 cases), the South Asia (60 cases), and the Europe (54 cases) are presented in the table 24.
The goodness-of-fit results for unconstrained model (CFI = .922 and RMSEA = .035) for the two groups indicates that the model fits the data very well. The goodness-of-fit results for constrained model (CFI = .923 and RMSEA = .034) for the two groups also indicates that the model fits the data very well.

The path coefficient for TD → LPROGD, TD → LPRACD and CCLDP → LPRACD for the South Asia group are not significant (P > 0.05) in the unconstrained model but significant in the combined model. Theses paths were, however, all significant for both the Middle East and Europe in the unconstrained TF model. As the estimated coefficient values are negative and have a moderate to a high value for TD → LPROGD and TD → LPRACD for south Asia, there is some evidence that nationality might have moderating effects on the influence of TD on the dependant variables (Hair et al., 2010).

However, given the very small size for this sample of respondents, such a conclusion
should only be made with considerable caution. This could be a consequence of a substantially underpowered statistical test and, as such, the test have should be considered to be inconclusive. Clearly, more data will be needed to resolve this issue for south Asia. However, the results do suggest that the hypotheses are not supported for Middle East and Europe respondents.

Both unconstrained models for Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti along with constrained model are presented in Appendix F.

5.10.5 Education Level: Diploma Vs Bachelor Vs Postgraduate
The examination of whether the influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPROGD and LPRACD is moderated by education level is performed by testing two moderating hypotheses:

MH5a: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPROGD is moderated by education level.
MH5b: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPRACD is moderated by education level.

The standardized path coefficient estimates of unconstrained and constrained models for the diploma (116 cases), the bachelor (311), and the postgraduate (88 cases) are presented in the table 25.
The goodness-of-fit results for unconstrained model (CFI = .895 and RMSEA = .033) for the two groups indicates that the model fits the data adequately. The goodness-of-fit results for constrained model (CFI = .910 and RMSEA = .031) for the two groups indicates that the model fits the data very well.

The path coefficient for ILP → LPRACD for the diploma group is not significant (P > 0.05) in the unconstrained model but is significant in the combined model. As the sample size of diploma is small, this is likely to be a consequence of underpowered test. We conclude that the hypothesis that the influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP and ILP) on LPROGD is moderated by education level is not supported and that the hypothesis that the influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP and ILP) on LPRACD is also not supported. This indicates that the controlling variable of education level

### Table 24 Testing for Education Level as a Moderator in the Proposed Research Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Unconstrained Group Model (TF for Each Group)</th>
<th>Constrained Group Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Model Fit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>.895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(DV) (IV)</th>
<th>(Path Estimates) (P)</th>
<th>(Path Estimates) (P)</th>
<th>(Path Estimates) (P)</th>
<th>(Path Estimates) (P)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD</td>
<td>.740</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.788</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD</td>
<td>.738</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.720</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD</td>
<td>.304</td>
<td>.046*</td>
<td>.124</td>
<td>.025*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD</td>
<td>.316</td>
<td>.010**</td>
<td>.267</td>
<td>.004**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD</td>
<td>.482</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.559</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD</td>
<td>.261</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>.283</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD</td>
<td>-.082</td>
<td>.366</td>
<td>-.041</td>
<td>.626</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>.172</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td>.031*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***P < 0.0005
**P < 0.01
*P < 0.05
does not play an important role in determining the leadership programmes and practices development.

Unconstrained models for diploma, bachelor, and postgraduate education levels along with constrained model are presented in Appendix F.

5.10.6 Banking Experience: Ten Years or Less Vs More than Ten Years

The four categories of banking experience were: less than 5 years (54 cases), 5-10 (195 cases), 11-20 (187 cases), and more than 20 years (79 cases). The first two categories are aggregated into one group (249 cases) representing those with 10 years and less, and the second two categories were aggregated into the alternative group (266 cases) representing those with more than 10 years banking experience.

Examination of whether the influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPROGD and LPRACD is moderated by the banking experience is performed by testing two moderating hypotheses:

MH6a: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPROGD is moderated by banking experience.

MH6b: The influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP, and, ILP) on LPRACD is moderated by banking experience.

The standardized path coefficient estimates of unconstrained and constrained models for the both groups are presented in the table 26.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>10 years or less (Path Estimates)</th>
<th>More than 10 years (Path Estimates)</th>
<th>Combined (Path Estimates)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(DV) ← (IV)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD ← CD</td>
<td>.781 ***</td>
<td>.797 ***</td>
<td>.795 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD ← CD</td>
<td>.598 ***</td>
<td>.799 ***</td>
<td>.712 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD ← TD</td>
<td>.101 .370 .266 .051**</td>
<td>.341 .002*</td>
<td>.174 .043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD ← TD</td>
<td>.209 .032* .012</td>
<td>.524 ***</td>
<td>.275 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD ← CCLDP</td>
<td>.503 ***</td>
<td>.532 ***</td>
<td>.273 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD ← CCLDP</td>
<td>.312 ***</td>
<td>.249 ***</td>
<td>.273 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPROGD ← ILP</td>
<td>-.054 .557 .096 .237</td>
<td>-.022 .719</td>
<td>.129 .009**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPRACD ← ILP</td>
<td>.149 .061 .100 .111</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 25 Testing for Banking Experience as a Moderator in the Proposed Research Model**

*** $P < 0.0005$

** $P < 0.01$

* $P < 0.05$

The goodness-of-fit results for unconstrained model (CFI = .919 and RMSEA = .035) for the two groups indicates that the model fits the data very well. The goodness-of-fit results for constrained model (CFI = .920 and RMSEA = .034) for the two groups also indicates that the model fits the data very well.

The path coefficient for TD ← LPROGD for both experience groups is not significant ($P > 0.05$) in the unconstrained TF model but they are significant in the combined model. These again look to be a consequence of an underpowered test although the sample size should be less of an issue here. This is also the case for the path ILP ← LPRACD which is not significant in either of the separate unconstrained models but is significant at the 0.05 level in the combined model. Again, as one of the test is significant at the $= 0.1$ level for both paths in the unconstrained TF model fits and both have the same
significant path coefficients (Hair et al., 2010), we conclude that both of the hypotheses (MH6a and MH6b) are not supported. There is no evidence that the level of banking experience will influence the determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP and ILP) on LPROGD and LPRACD.

Seven direct paths are statistically significant between determinants and dependent variables, (CD, TD, and CCLDP on LPROGD and CD, TD, CCLDP, and ILP on LPRACD). Thus it can be concluded that the two hypotheses are not supported suggesting that the influence of determinants (CD, TD, CCLDP and ILP) on both LPROGD and LPRACD are not moderated by banking experience. This indicates that CD, TD, and CCLDP play important roles in determining the leadership programmes development, and CD, TD, CCLDP, and ILP play important roles in determining the leadership practices development.

Both unconstrained models for cases have 10 years or less and cases have more than 10 years experience with constrained model is presented in Appendix F.
5.11 Summary

In this chapter, a preliminary data analysis was conducted to present the characteristics of the sample of the study by using SPSS version 17.0. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used as an analytical tool that combines several statistical techniques, including factor analysis, path analysis, multiple regression analysis, and multiple-group analysis. Many statistical software packages are available for structural equation modelling. This study used analysis of moments structures (AMOS) version 16.0 for the data analysis and evaluation of the model. Maximum likelihood (ML) was used as a method to estimate parameters and assess model fit.

Both construct reliability and discriminant validity have been investigated. It has been concluded that the constructs in the model reflect construct reliability and discriminant validity after deleting some indicators. Goodness-of-fit was conducted to determine whether the hypothesized model fit the sample data and whether the hypothesized model should be accepted or rejected. After using several tests to evaluate the model, it has been concluded that the model fit the data very well and it has been accepted. This model was called the “Effective Cross-Cultural Leadership” (ECL).

Standardised regression weights were used to test the hypotheses of the model and it indicated that only one hypothesis has been rejected which is related to international leadership practices toward leadership programmes development, whereas the remaining hypotheses have been accepted.
More importantly, by using square multiple correlations (SMC), the model has power to explain 49.3% of the variance of leadership programmes development and 43.2% of the variance of leadership practices development in Kuwaiti banking sector.

The results of moderating hypotheses have been indicated that there was no influence of any moderate variables on the predictors (independent variables) toward the dependent variables. Therefore, all the moderating hypotheses were rejected when multiple-group analysis has been conducted.

In conclusion, the ECL model has shown that the cultural differences, training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, and cross cultural leadership development programmes had a significantly influenced on both leadership programmes and practices development in Kuwaiti banking sector. On the other hand, the model shown that the international leadership practices has a significantly influenced on leadership practices development whereas a significantly negative influenced on leadership programmes development in Kuwaiti banking sector.

Finally, it can be recognised that in case of a small size, caution is required in generalising the findings to the population. However, the important about the sample size is the absolute size which means that the increases of sample size, the sampling error decreases when it is prepared for accept (Bryman, 2008, p.179).
CHAPTER 6: INTERVIEW RESULTS

6.1 Introduction
The interview findings will be presented in this chapter. The interview process produced data from 25 managers from banks in Kuwait, with the data from the pilot test incorporated into the analysis. All of the interviewees were indigenous Kuwaitis. The data was initially sorted using the open coding procedure to identify themes in the data. The analysis of the interview data for the qualitative phase of the study used the content analysis method of iterative thematic analysis, which is recommended by Creswell (2007, p. 72) A theme was deemed to exist if it was introduced by five or more of the interviewees. The themes were based on the direct and indirect discussion on issue by the interviewees. The open coding process identified the five theme categories of leadership methods, leadership styles, leading international employees or teams, the issues associated with employees from different nations of origin, and leadership development. Axial coding was used to identify the patterns within each theme, which are the similarities and differences in the perceptions of the interviewees of the elements related to the theme (Ezzy, 2002, p. 86). The data are presented with the descriptive analysis narrative in a separate section for each theme.

The findings presented in this chapter address the main research question of the study discussed in section 3.8, specifically: What is the relationship between perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership and leadership development among banking sector firms in Kuwait? The findings from the interview with managers provide qualitative data that was used to identify the relationship between perceptions of effectiveness and leadership development among the bank managers participating in the
study. Because of the nature of the qualitative research, the findings also provided some information relevant to the five research questions discussed on section 3.8. The findings presented in this chapter, however, were particularly relevant for answering research questions 1, 2 and 5. Research question 1 examined how cultural differences between managers and employees influence perceptions of the role of team leader. The information provided by the interviewees specifically addressed their perceptions of the effect of cultural differences on leadership. Research question 2 investigated the methods that Kuwaiti banks use to provide cross-cultural leadership development opportunities for managers. The data obtained from the interviewees included extensive discussion of the issue of leadership development opportunities. Research question 5 considered the effect of nation of origin of domestic employees and nation of assignment of expatriate managers as subordinates of Kuwaiti managers on cross-cultural leadership programmes. The interviewees provided information about their leadership behaviours based on nation of origin of employees and the effect of their experiences working or studying abroad on their leadership behaviours.

The interviewee subjects of the study consisted of groups of back office managers and front office managers, designated different tasks or roles in banking operations. The back office managers are responsible for ensuring their employees perform the routine support tasks necessary for banking operations. These tasks include risk management, evaluation of loan applications, and management of the bank's asset portfolio. The back office managers lead employees from many different nations and focus on the importance of technical competencies among the staff. The back office managers generally work in the banks' headquarters and do not have contact with customers. In contrast, the front office managers are responsible for conducting operations that
provide services directly to customers at branches and through private meetings for commercial customers. These managers also supervise a staff of international workers, but place high emphasis on ensuring the employees provide appropriate service quality to customers. The front office managers are often more creative in the approach and solutions to problems because of their focus on the quality of relationships. The qualitative findings of the study distinguish between the data provided by the back office and front office managers. It also identifies the differences in the themes and patterns in the data provided by the two types of managers in addition to the aggregate themes and patterns noted by the combined groups.

The findings generally indicated that a relationship exists between leadership practise and the effectiveness of leadership for aligning the capabilities of human assets with the goals and objectives of the organisation. The practises used by leaders in any organisation establish an organisational leadership climate, which influences the perceptions and behaviours of the followers. Leadership fundamentally involves motivating or inspiring followers to adopt the vision of a future state or condition communicated by the leader (Gill, 2006). The leadership practises determine whether the leaders are effective in communicating the desired future condition and inspiring followers to take the actions necessary to make the vision a reality. When the leader's practises are aligned with the expectations of followers for leadership methods and behaviours, the leader is more likely to be effective in motivating the followers to use maximum effort when performing tasks.

Regardless of the nature of the organisation, effective leadership practises improve commitment not only to the leader but to the organisation as a whole. Effective
leadership increases trust in the capabilities of the leader and in the organisation, which has a positive motivational effect (Rikards & Clark, 2006, p. 130). Because leadership practices influence organisational commitment, they also have a positive effect on team cohesion in a work group by fostering fellowship. At the same time, the leadership practices influence task performance by increasing the motivation and willingness of individuals to perform the tasks necessary for organisational success.

6.1.1 Theoretical Perspective

The data provided by the interviewees was examined from the perspective of distributed leadership theory (Spillane, 2006). Distributed leadership theory is based on the proposition that all individuals in an organisation have some responsibility for exercising leadership, which is manifested in both formal and informal leadership roles. The formal leadership roles are based on the hierarchical positions within the organisation that assign responsibility and authority for leadership to managers. The informal leadership roles develop when subordinates exercise leadership as the result of delegated responsibility and authority or the result of spontaneous demonstration of leadership when performing tasks. Distributed leadership theory is also based on the proposition that the collective leadership knowledge and capabilities of all employees reflects the leadership capacity of the organisation. Because of this proposition, leadership is envisioned as 'distributed' throughout the organisation.

The application of distributed leadership theory to leadership practise envisions the possibility that a formal leader in the organisational hierarchy may become an informal follower in some situations. It also envisions the possibility that the formal follower in the organisational hierarchy will adopt an informal position of leadership in some
situations. The practise of leadership requires the formal leaders in the organisation to determine how leadership will be informally distributed among followers in specific situations. The interactions between individuals in various situations leads to the formal leader temporarily accepting the role of follower and the formal follower temporarily accepting the role of leader to achieve a mutually agreed upon objective. An implicit proposition in distributed leadership theory is a requirement for the formal leader to trust the professional competency and leadership abilities of the follower prior to temporarily relinquishing a leadership role. A theoretical outcome from using distributed leadership practises is a better understanding among formal leaders of the leadership methods and styles preferred by subordinates, which are revealed when the subordinate assumes the informal role of leader in a particular situation.

Distributed leadership theory also adopts the premise that the organisation establishes a leadership environment with its formal policies and procedures and its informal expectations for managers and employees. The data from the interviews were examined to determine the perceptions of the managers from the Kuwaiti banks concerning their roles as formal leaders in the organisations and their perceptions of the expectations of leadership practise established by the organisational structures in the institutions and their supervisors. The data were also examined to determine the degree of emphasis among the interviewees on the use of transactional and transformational methods to manage human assets based on the assumption that transformational methods are more compatible with distributed leadership. In addition, the analysis examined the data to assess the managers' willingness to relinquish leadership responsibility to subordinates and to support the development of leadership abilities in among subordinates. The data provided by the interviewees was further examined to identify situations in which
followers informally acted as leaders in accordance with the propositions of distributed leadership theory.

Distributed leadership theory is based on the assumption that the traditional approach to assessing or evaluating leadership methods using the transactional and transformational dichotomy does not take into consideration the context of the situation (Lakomski, 2005, p. 69). The specific method an individual uses for leadership is a means of interacting with their leadership environment and represents a choice that is influenced by context. Because distributed leadership involves the temporary change of leadership roles, the temporary leader may select a transactional or transformational method for the leadership task. The selection of a leadership method provides followers with implicit information about the preferences of the individual for a particular leadership practice. The type of method used by the temporary leader is particularly important in cross-cultural use of distributed leadership because it provides the formal leader with a better understanding of cultural norms and values from the perspective of followers from a different nation. The leadership style used in distributed leadership, however, is inherently participative because the formal leader invites one or more followers to participate in the leadership process by becoming a temporary leader. As a result, distributed leadership is inherently shared or collaborative and does not consider authoritarian or laissez faire styles as useful. For distributed leadership to be effective, however, the follower placed in a temporary position of leadership must have freedom to select a leadership method or style.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, each of the five theme categories has revealed patterns. A summary of the themes and patterns derived from both the front and the
back office managers related to leadership practise is presented in Table 27 below. A summary of the themes and patterns derived from both the front and the back office managers related to leadership styles is presented in Table 28 below. The themes and patterns are further analysed in this chapter.

Table 26 Summary of the Themes and Patterns for Leadership Practise

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Patterns</th>
<th>Conclusion of the overall patterns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Leadership Methods      | 1. Predominately transactional leadership methods  
                           | 2. Some modification to the transaction based on situation  
                           | 3. A few use transformational leadership methods with trusted subordinates  
                           | 4. Little consideration of whether the method or approach is effective for achieving the desired leadership outcome | A cultural preference exists among Kuwaiti managers for use of rewards and consequences as motivational approach in leadership, with leadership considered as a task necessary for organising and controlling human assets |
| (All Managers)             | Patterns: 1 & 4                 | The back office managers use transactional leadership methods and merely expect the employees to implicitly understand that good performance will be awarded. These managers are also rigid in their leadership paradigm and will not consider using other leadership methods |
| (Back Office Managers)     | Patterns: 1 & 4                 | The front office managers appear more flexible than the back office managers because of their use of transformational leadership methods in some circumstances. The front office managers are also concerned with the effectiveness of their leadership approaches |
| (Front Office Managers)    | Patterns: 1, 2 & 3              |                                                                                                    |
| 3. Leading international teams | 1. Communications difficulties  
                           | 2. Difficulty managing conflict among international employees | The managers did not have sufficient knowledge or flexibility to adapt leadership methods to the specific problems encountered when leading international teams. |
| (All Managers)             |                                 | The back office managers believe they have to exert firm control over employees to manage the diversity in an international work team. |
| (Back Office Managers)     | Patterns 1 & 2                  |                                                                                                    |
| (Front Office Managers)    | Patterns 1 & 2                  | The front office managers are willing to use more flexible strategies for leadership of international teams such as written memos and routine meetings |
| **4. Nation of Origin** (All Managers) | **1.** Direct work experience outside of Kuwait improves understanding of national values and behaviours  
2. East Asians perceived as more difficult to lead | Managers with greater knowledge or experience with a cultural group were more willing to adapt some leadership methods to the needs of the followers. |
| (Back Office Managers) | Pattern: 2 | The back office managers do not exhibit flexibility in adapting their leadership methods and styles to employees from different nations. |
| (Front Office Managers) | Pattern: 1&2 | The front office managers take the nation of origin of the employee into consideration and will use a situational approach by modifying leadership behaviours based on the employee's home nation. |
| **5. Leadership development** (All Managers) | **1.** Variability in the understanding of the concept of leadership development  
2. Few opportunities to attend training and development programmes focusing exclusively on leadership.  
3. Expectation that managers will use the same leadership approaches as senior managers | Kuwaiti managers do not have extensive opportunities for formal leadership training, with the expectation that managers will conform to the leadership methods used by more senior managers perpetuating the current approaches to leadership in organisations. |
| (Back Office Managers) | Patterns: 1,2 & 3 | The back office managers rely on the management training provided by their firms as sufficient for leadership knowledge. They also do not see the relationship between leadership theory and practical applications in the workplace. |
| (Front Office Managers) | Patterns: 1,2 & 3 | The front office managers are willing to obtain more information about leadership practise, but perceive organisational culture as a barrier. They also are willing to use different methods leadership practise based on the nation of origin of the employee. |


Table 27 Summary of the Themes and Patterns for Leadership Style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Patterns</th>
<th>Conclusion of the overall patterns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 2. Leadership styles (All Managers) | 1. Authoritarian style preferred  
2. Sometimes authoritarian style leads to resistance among employees  
3. Laissez faire style used for routine tasks  
4. Change in leadership toward participative or consultative styles may be related to foreign influences  
5. Delegation to trusted subordinate but expected the subordinate to use same leadership style as the manager  
6. Emphasise task role of leader over social role | A cultural preference exists among Kuwaiti managers for the authoritarian style of leadership for important matters and the laissez faire style of leadership for routine matters, with a strong focus on the importance of task completion. Contact with foreign employees increases recognition or awareness among managers that a more participative style of leadership may be necessary in some situations, demonstrating a cross-cultural influence. |
| (Back Office Managers)     | Patterns: 1, 2, 3, 5 & 6                                                 | The back office managers rely on authoritarian leadership styles and the authority inherent in their position as manager. While they will use laissez faire leadership for routine tasks, they will quickly adopt an authoritarian style if they detect a problem. They will delegate only to highly trusted subordinates that use the same authoritarian leadership approaches. The back office managers have a strong focus on task performance and are not concerned with forming relationships with employees. |
| (Front Office Managers)    | Patterns: 1, 2, 3, 4 & 5                                                 | While the front office managers prefer using an authoritarian style, some adopted a participative style with employees from North America and Europe. These managers also believed that the leader has to maintain some social relationship with employees and should not be solely focused on tasks. |
| 3. Leading international teams (All Managers) | 1. Use of authoritarian leadership style to control differences in attitudes and behaviours  
2. Authoritarian approach preferred  
3. Emphasis on employees altering their behaviours to conform to manager's requirements | To compensate for insufficient leadership skills, they used authoritarian methods to encourage employees to adopt the behaviours expected by the managers. |
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<td>4. Nation of Origin</td>
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6.2 Leadership Practise

6.2.1 Leadership Methods

The data provided by the interviewees identified leadership methods as a theme, with leadership methods involving the use of transformational and transactional leadership. Within the theme were four patterns:

1) Predominately transactional leadership methods;
2) Some modification of transactional methods based on situation;
3) Transformational leadership with trusted subordinates; and
4) Little consideration of leadership method to achieve desired outcome.

The data also suggested that the front office managers were more willing to modify transactional method based on situation and were more willing to consider the use of leadership methods than the back office managers.

6.2.1.1 Predominately Transactional Leadership Methods

The dominant pattern in the data related to leadership method was the use of transactional leadership approaches. The majority of managers that rely primarily on transactional leadership approaches usually informed their employees about the rewards from achieving the objectives set by the managers and the consequences for failing to meet the objectives. Some managers using the transactional leadership methods specified both the goals and the specific approaches that the employees should use to achieve the goals, with negative consequences attached to the failure to use the specified approach as well as the failure to achieve the goal or objective. Many of the managers, however, did not formally articulate the benefits and sequences. One manager stated:
“I don't have to tell my employees that we have to try hard to meet our goals and that I don't tolerate slacking. When some takes a position with a firm they agree to do their best...to work as hard as necessary to make sure that the firm is profitable. Everyone knows that their pay depends on how well we do our job. An a few time I've had to reprimand some of my employees for not doing a good job or because they were very slow to finish their task. They talk among themselves, you know. They know that I have standards that they must meet when they are working in my department. I don't have to be specific about what the rewards for good performance for each task that I assign. And I don't have to tell them about what will happen if they are lazy or turn something in to me that I can't use” (Manager 22, Back Office).

A manager that linked rewards to both the approach and achieving the goal justified the method by stating:

“I have to make sure we all go about things the same way. I tell my employees exactly what has to be done. I also tell them how we should go about doing what has to be done. If they follow my directions, then I make sure they get some type of reward...more than just a good performance report. Sometimes I give them a little extra time off...that type of thing. And if they don't follow my directions, I reprimand them. The work goes much more smoothly when everyone is working the same way” (Manager 3, Back Office).

The statements of this interviewee emphasised the rewards for conforming to the goals set by the manager but minimised the consequences. The transactional approach used by this manager was typical for the majority of the interviewees.

6.2.1.2 Some Modification of Transactional Methods Based on Situation

The data from this group of interviewees also identified a pattern of using situational leadership with transactional methods, altering the specific approach based on their assessment of the characteristics of their subordinates. The interviewees using this method also indicted that it was reserved for employees that were clearly more competent than their peers and could be motivated by an intangible reward such as recommendation for advancement within the organisation. One manager stated:

“A few of my employees work for more than pay' an interview noted. 'They like the work and know what they are doing. They want to be recognised for doing a good job.
They seem to want to be managers someday...if not here, with another bank. So all I have to do with these workers is praise them for a good job and tell them they have a good future with the bank. And sometimes I bring them with me when I make a report to senior managers as my assistant” (Manager 16, Front Office).

The interviewees modifying transactional methods based on situation also noted that they sometimes allowed the employees to participate in the process of setting personal objectives and goals for specific task assignments. According to one interviewee that stated:

“There are a few really good employees in my section. I can tell that they are very interested in the work and know what they are doing. One of them has even told me that he wants to be a manager someday. With these employees, I just tell them what has to be done and how it can help advance their career. Particularly if I know that they have the skills to do the job right...the way I expect it to be done. I don't have to bother giving them a reward or tell them about what will happen if they do a poor job” (Manager 11, Front Office).

The statements of this interviewee identified specific situations in which employees had demonstrated task competency and loyalty to the manager and the organisation as appropriate situation for modifying the transaction with the employee.

6.2.1.3 Transformation Leadership with Trusted Subordinates

Among the interviewees, only six indicated that they used the methods of leadership that could be characterised as transformational. This evidence established a pattern among a small minority the interviewees suggesting that they used transformational methods in very specific circumstances. The interviewees using transformational leadership methods did not consistently apply the methods to all employees, and limited its use to situations involving subordinates that they trusted because of lengthy past relationships or because of social or kinship connections. These interviewees suggested that trust resulting from the relationships was necessary before using a leadership approach that assumed the employee would be self-efficacious based solely on internal
motivations to achieve a goal. In addition, the interviewees noted that they required some assurance concerning the employees' likely behaviours based on experience. With respect to trusted subordinates, one interviewee stated:

“One of my people went to the same university that I attended and grew up in the same part of Kuwait City. I didn't know him before he came to work here, but we have many of the same friends...many of the same experiences. He quickly showed me that I could trust his work. He has all the qualities that I like and is going to advance in the bank. In short, I trust him more than I trust my other employees. I treat him like a valued assistant because I know that he is very motivated to do the work and to make sure that my department looks good” (Manager 17, Back Office).

One interviewee who used transformational leadership with trusted subordinates stated:

“I have two employees that have been with me for a long time. I talk to them separately when we have a new project or a problem and I don’t have to tell them how to do their jobs. All I have to do is explain the task or the objective. Because I know them well, I can be certain that they will make a good effort to do the job. And they are not always coming to me looking for some type of reward when they are successful” (Manager 4, Back Office).

This interviewee also added:

“These two...they are special. I wouldn't trust any of the others to be as motivated to do a good job for its own sake.”

The data suggests that the interviewee is willing to relinquish some aspects of the leadership role in situation where the interviewee has an assurance of the subordinate's self-motivation and competence. The interviewee, however, did not indicate that the employees were fully self-directed or that the employee adopted an informal leadership role.

6.2.1.4 Little Consideration of Leadership Approach to Achieve Desired Outcomes

Another pattern in the data was that the majority of the interviewees indicated that they did not use any type of formal or structured leadership method, responding instinctively
or reflexively to the situation. In effect, the interviewees did not self-classify themselves as transactional or transformational leaders and did not rely on formal knowledge of leadership methods to guide their behaviours. One interviewee gave a response that was typical:

“I use the same approach whenever I have to give instructions to my employees. It works well most of the time. I tell them about what has to be done and the way they should do it. Then I explain the benefit of doing the task right and on time. And sometimes I mention the problems the employee will have if the work isn't done right and on time. I don't usually think about the way I lead my employees” (Manager 6, Back Office).

Many of the other interviewees have similar responses noting that they did not consider using different types of leadership methods or approaches.

Only three of the interviewees suggested that they considered or reflected on the methods they use for leading employees either before or after interactions with subordinates. These interviewees were particularly concerned with resistance among some employees, which occasionally occurred when a task was particularly difficult. These interviewees examined whether the method they used to provide instructions and guidance to the employee was the cause of the employees’ resistance to the interviewees' plan. One of these interviewees stated:

“Sometimes, the employees do not want to follow my directions. They complain and are slow to do the work. I've thought that it may be the way I tell them...the way I present what has to be done and how they should do it. So I try different ways of managing...of leading these employees. I've even looked at a few books on leadership to get some ideas” (Manager 18, Front Office).

These three employees, however, were not typical of the interviewees.
6.2.2 Leading International Teams

The analysis of the data identified a theme involving leadership of international teams. The analysis also identified two patterns within the theme relating to leadership practice consisting of:

1) Communications difficulties;
2) Difficulty management conflict among international employees.

While both the front office and back office managers identified similar patterns. The back office managers expressed greater difficulties with managing international teams.

6.2.2.1 Communications Difficulties

A pattern in the data provided by the interviewees related to leading international teams was substantial communications difficulties with individuals from different nations. The languages used in the banking firms where the managers were employed were Arabic and English, with English used primarily for communication with non-Kuwaiti staff. In general, the interviewees noted that communications with international employees involving technical matters was adequate because the employees understood the lexicon related to banking and financial tasks. The communication difficulties arose with non-technical matters such as performance expectations. Some of the interviewees also noted that international employees’ knowledge of English was based on formal education and they had little experience with the use of conversational English in the workplace. In addition, very few international employees from regions other than the Middle East had any knowledge of Arabic. The type of problems resulting from communications difficulties with international employees included employees performing the wrong task.
Several interviewees noted that merely asking international employees if they understood the instructions or the task was not sufficient to guarantee that the employees indeed understood the communication. The interviewees used various strategies to deal with this difficulty. One interviewee stated:

“I have to be very clear with employees from other nations… I often repeat myself and ask them to repeat the instruction back to me. I remember one time that I asked one of my people… he was from Malaysia… to update an asset analysis in one of our loan portfolios. He seemed to understand, but he updated the wrong portfolio. When you think about it, the situation is odd. I gave him instructions in English, but English isn't our native language” (Manager 11, Front Office).

To remedy communications difficulties, some interviewees used written communication of critical instructions. Several of the interviewees also admitted that they were not as proficient in English as they would like to be, which sometimes contributed to the communications difficulties with employees from other nations. Another strategy to remedy communications issues was to require the employee to make periodic reports about their progress in performing their tasks coupled with periodic monitoring. The interviewees using this approach, however, indicated that it was time consuming and could not be used with many employees. One interviewee stated:

“I've tried different ways of making sure that staff from other nations fully understands what I'm telling them. After we have a conversation about a task or a problem, I send them a written memo reminding them about what we talked about. I also tell them that they should ask me a question whenever they don't understand what I've told them. I've even tried holding a brief weekly meeting with each of my staff to go over their work and make sure they understand the work and what I need from them. But I found that I couldn't do this regularly when we were very busy. Nothing seems to work very well, and I'm always worried that staff does not understand what I need from them” (Manager 4, Front Office).

The communications difficulties can hamper the use of a distributed leadership approach because of uncertainty whether messages between leaders and subordinates are clearly understood.
6.2.2.2 Difficulty Managing Conflict among International Employees

The interviewees identified difficulties with conflict resolution as a pattern within the theme of leadership of international employees. The sources of conflict were varied and included differences in the expectations of employees for the leadership behaviours of managers, differences in work values, and differences in the attitudes of employees towards authority and the position of the manager in the organisational hierarchy. The interviewees also noted that conflicts could occur between the international employee and the manager or among employees of the team. According to one interviewee that stated:

“It's easier to end the conflict when the employee has a problem with me...when they are unwilling to follow directions or challenge my authority. When they are arguing among themselves, it's often hard for me to know about the problem. Particularly if the problem is within one national group of employees. For example, I have three employees from India. When they have some type of arguing or disagreeing that involves only these employees, they don't tell me about it. I can't step in to resolve the problem unless I know about it” (Manager 7, Front Office).

When the interviewees were aware of conflicts, they intervened to attempt to resolve the problem. When the conflict arose between the interviewees and international employees that could not be resolved, the interviewee often terminated the employee or transferred the employee to another department within the bank. One interviewee mentioned that:

“Before I take drastic steps like sacking an employee...I try to work things out...but sometimes the employee just refuses to get along. Sometimes it's just a personality problem...the worker doesn't like me or has other issues. I'll try talking to him first...try to find out why we are having conflict. And if the employee does good work for the company, I'll try to transfer him...to another department or branch” (Manager 11, Front Office).

The interviewees also suggested that they could not easily determine if significant conflicts existed among the employees, although sometimes the conflict became so apparent that they couldn’t be ignored. Some of the conflicts among international
employees by ensuring that work groups were not composed of individuals from cultures with long-standing rivalry or hostility. Manager 7 from the front office stated:

“They bring their dislikes and prejudices with them, I had one situation with a Kurdish employee that had a strong dislike for Turks. I had no idea that there was a problem with this employee working with individuals from Turkey. A work team...everyone has to trust each other...everyone has to be willing to cooperate. The hostility that this Kurd has for anyone from Turkey got in the way of the work. I finally had to sack him.’

Manager 11 from the front office added additional information concerning solutions of conflict in the international teams:

“I've had a few bad experiences with conflict among employees because of unwillingness to work with people from certain cultures or nations. I've become more aware of the problems that this can cause. So what I do when I get a new employee is ask them about their likes and dislikes for other people. I make it clear that everyone should be treated the same in the bank. But I also try to make sure that the work groups are arranged so that employees don't have to work with people they don't like.”

These finding suggest that some members of international teams would be unwilling to follow individuals from certain nations or cultures based on their perception and beliefs about other cultures. The findings also indicate that only some managers in Kuwaiti banks are aware of the problem of cultural prejudices and have strategies for dealing with the conflicts that prejudices can produce.

Another source of conflict among international teams identified by the interviewees was the differences in values, work ethic, and problem solving approaches. This type of conflict was subtle and difficult to detect. Manager 19 from the back office stated:

“I know there’s a problem when some of my employees don’t want to work with other employees. It isn't always for an obvious reason...because of prejudice. When you're working on the same task with someone else, you can see things that a manager doesn't always know about....sloppy work habits, laziness, bad attitude toward the bank...that sort of business. The problem often isn't just about personalities. My employees from different nations have different work habits. And when an employee doesn't want to work with someone else, they often don't tell me the real reason.”
The comments of this interviewee suggest that employees are reluctant to directly discuss problems or conflicts that can arise from differences in approaches to work, with the manager responsible for determining the root cause of employees' unwillingness to work together.

Some of the interviewees also indicated that they believed they could prevent conflicts among their employees if they became aware of a problem before it produced conflict. They were often hampered from intervening by communications difficulties and the unwillingness of employees to discuss peer relationships with their managers. Many of the interviewees suggested that a greater role in selecting employees for their work teams would be helpful in reducing conflict among team members. Manager 8 from the back office made comments that were typical of the perceptions among many of the interviewees of their limitations in controlling the composition of their employee teams.

“HR just sends me new hires with letting me interview them. I don’t know anything about them before they come to me. I don’t know if they will fit in with everyone else. I work hard to make sure everyone gets along in my department. A new employee that has different ideas...different habits can disrupt my department. It would be much better if I had some say in who works for me.”

In contrast, some of the interviewees believed they would have difficulties with conflicts regardless of the international team selection process. One of these interviewees noted:

“Part of my job is to make sure everyone can work together. And yes, I've had my share of problem employees...people that I would prefer not to have to supervise. But I'm not sure that anyone can tell if they will fit in at the bank until they begin working. And I have to use...well, I have to use leadership to make sure that a new employee fits into my team” (Manager 13, Front Office).
This perspective among some interviewees considers conflict from cultural differences inevitable in international teams, with the manager responsible for controlling the conflict.

6.2.3 Nation of Origin

The analysis of the data provided by the interviewees identified a theme of nation of origin, which refers to the perceptions of the managers about the characteristics and behaviours of employees from different nations. Four patterns related to leadership practise existed within this theme, consisting of:

1) Direct work experience outside Kuwait improves understanding of national values and behaviours;

2) East Asians perceived as more difficult to lead.

In general, the front office managers were more open to different customs and values among employees from different nations

6.2.3.1 Direct Work Experience outside Kuwait Improves Understanding of National Values and Behaviours

The interviewees that had experience working outside of Kuwait also generally suggested that they had less difficulty leading individuals from the nation where they had been previously employed. The reason for the improved ability to lead employees from these nations was greater understanding of the culture and work habits. Manager 20 from the front office explained that:

“I came to understand the British customs in the banking business when I was working in London. I also learned a good deal about the British and the way they act..."
Some of the experiences working abroad related by the interviewees, also contributed to their understanding of the difficulties that foreign employees experience in a host nation. Manager 18 from the front office spent several months working with a correspondent bank in Canada and stated that:

“It was very hard for me to adjust. I knew how to do the work...setting up an asset exchange programme for our wealth management services. The work wasn’t the problem. The people around me had different ways of approaching the problem. They think differently from me. And I wasn’t certain that I could talk any problems over with the manager supervising the project. He didn’t seem to care about what we were doing. Everything turned out well in the end, but I was hoping for more guidance...for more supervision, particularly to make sure that everyone was contributing to the project. If the manager had been more open, I would have told him about the problem I had adjusting. Since that time, I routinely ask my employees from other countries whether they need more guidance from me.”

These experiences suggested that the interviewee had expectations of a more directive leadership style than he encountered in his assignment in Canada. The experiences also contributed to a more reflective approach to leadership by considering the needs of the follower.

6.2.3.2 East Asians Perceived as More Difficult to Lead

A pattern within the theme of national origin was a lower degree of comfort among the interviewees responsible for leading individuals from East Asia. One of the difficulties noted by the interviewees was that individuals from East Asia often followed instructions specifically without identifying task problems that should be brought to the attention of the manager. As a result, the employee would perform the task incorrectly despite following instructions. With respect to this issue, one interviewee noted:
“My employees from Indonesia and Malaysia can be difficult to manage. They don't always tell me when something is going wrong. They just keep marching ahead and then tell me that they did the work the way I told them to. I have to watch some of my employees very closely…and it takes up more of my time. I have to make periodic checks of their work. I can't just wait until it is finished because it may have to be done over if it is wrong” (Manager 22, Front Office).

The perspective of this manager suggests that the work methods and attitudes of East Asian employees differ significantly from the expectations of the Kuwaiti managers.

Another difficulty related to East Asian employees was communications. Many of these employees did not have sufficient conversational proficiency in English although they could read and write in the language. Several of the interviewees managing many individuals from various nations also mentioned a collective or group orientation among employees from East Asia that prevented them from fully integrating into the department’s work group. One interviewee stated:

“I have many employees from Malaysia. They stay together...like they are separate from everyone else. They also have an informal leader among them. One employee that seems to be in charge of the group. I've found that it is better if they all work together on the same project. They seem lost when they are paired with my workers from other nations...they are less productive” (Manager 19, Back Office).

The information provided by this interviewee suggests that many East Asian workers have a stronger commitment to co-workers from their nations of origin than to the bank that employs them.

A possible explanation for the perception that East Asians are more difficult to lead may be small measurable differences between Kuwaiti culture and East Asian culture as identified in the GLOBE survey. For example, East Asians have an uncertainty avoidance index of 4.42 while Kuwaitis have an uncertainty avoidance index of 3.91 (House, Globe, 2004, p. 637). The higher uncertainty avoidance index among East
Asians suggests that they are likely to seek specific and detailed guidance from their supervisors, which a Kuwaiti manager could find burdensome. In addition, East Asians have a greater power distance orientation than Kuwaitis, which can contribute to the problem of reluctance among East Asians to report possible problems or inconsistencies in the instructions they receive for performing work-related tasks that results in work errors.

6.2.4 Leadership Development

The analysis of the interview data identified a theme of leadership development. Within this there were three patterns relating to leadership practise consisting of:

1) Variability in understanding of the concept of leadership development;
2) Few opportunities to attend leadership training and development programmes;
3) An expectation that managers will use the same leadership approaches as senior managers.

6.2.4.1 Variability in Understanding of the Concept of Leadership Development

A pattern in the theme of leadership development was variability in the understanding of the concept among the interviewees. Some interviewees considered leadership development to involve learning the skills necessary to manage the human assets of the firm, which were similar to other types of resources available to the manager to accomplish tasks. One of the interviewees attending this type of training programme noted:

“Management and leadership, they are the same thing. If I organise my department to get the job done, I am leading my department. So leadership development should help me learn more about professional skills. It should also help me learn more about ways to make sure that staff follows my directions and can contribute to the bank” (Manager 12, Back Office).
Other interviewees believed leadership development involved learning skills that were different from other types of managerial skills necessary for motivating others to accomplish a common task. This group appeared to rely on forming some type of relationship with at least some subordinates as a necessary part of leading their departments. Some of the interviewees believed that leadership skills could not be learned and was a natural characteristic of an individual. This last group of interviewees were more likely to rely on the authority inherent in their position as manager as the foundation for leadership. One interviewee stated:

“When a person becomes a manager, it's because they do a good job. But not all managers have the inborn qualities of a good leader. So we have to depend on the power that we have. The power of the manager to give rewards and to sack employees that don't want to follow the manager. I don't think any other way would work when you have people working for you from many different countries” (Manager 7, Front Office).

6.2.4.2 Few Opportunities to Attend Leadership Training and Development Programmes

A pattern with the theme of leadership development was limited opportunities for formal leadership development programmes in the institutions employing the interviewees. Only six interviewees indicated that their banks offered formal leadership development training to managers separate from other types of management training and development. In most cases, the leadership development programme consisted of an online training course that the bank made available to managers. Only two managers reported that they had attended an in-person training seminar that focuses exclusively on leadership. In addition, this training was relatively brief and lasted less than a day. In contrast, many of the remaining interviewees periodically attended formal management training programmes in which leadership was mentioned. These interviewees, however, indicated that the training programmes focused primarily on the tasks necessary to
manage a banking department. Concerning these types of training programmes, one interviewee noted:

“they teach us what should be done, but leave the way we get the job done up to us. They talk about leadership...but they do not explain what they mean. As far as I can see, leadership means getting everyone to follow directions when an order comes down to me from my supervisor. It's not clear how they expect me to lead. And the information doesn't give me any help about solving the actual problems that I have with employees. Still, I think that the training I get is very helpful for helping me understand things like preparing reports” (Manager 16, Back Office).

Three of the interviewees that had attended university outside of Kuwait also mention that leadership theory had been included in their courses. One of these interviewees stated:

“When I was in university in the UK, some of my studies concerned leadership theory. It seemed very Western, suited for use in a different type of bank. I don't think much of what they talked about would work here in Kuwait. I would never think of asking staff to help me make decisions. It would be too confusing. And I can't see how the theory would apply to many of the problems that I have with motivating staff” (Manager 14, Back Office). These managers perceived that leadership theory had little relevance to the practical situations they encountered in the workplace.

6.2.4.3 Expectation that Managers will Use Same Leadership Approaches as Senior Managers

Another pattern identified in the theme of leadership development was the existence of an informal type of mentoring in the organisations because of an unstated expectation that managers should use the same approach to leadership as the more senior managers. This pattern was also related to an authoritarian approach to leadership, which was characteristic of the leadership style throughout the banking firms. One interviewee mentioned:

“If I try something that is too different from the approaches of other managers and it doesn’t produce good results, I can expect that my supervisor will be critical. No one
watches the way I manage my staff. I have a free hand to do whatever I need to do. But if something goes wrong...if a report is late or a customer complains, then my supervisor takes a close look at what I've been doing. And if he finds out that I've been trying something new or unusual, it won't go well for me” (Manager 18, Front Office).

Senior managers also used the in-house training and development programmes to communicate expectations for behaviours among managers related to leadership, which appears to create an implicit leadership culture in the firms. Concerning management seminars conducted by the bank, one interviewee stated:

“We see how the senior managers in the company act when we go to these meetings. They smile and tell us that everyone benefits if we follow their model, if we follow their approach to management. They tell us that it is very difficult to make sure that people are organised like any other resource in the bank. These senior managers appear kind, but firm. They also demand respect. The message I take away with me from these meetings is that I should follow their example by being fair and strict with my employees” (Manager 8, Back Office).

From the perspective of this interviewee, the senior managers in the firm establish the expectations for leadership approaches and behaviours.

6.3 Leadership Styles

6.3.1 Leadership Styles

The analysis of the data identified a theme of leadership styles noted by the interviewees in the data. Within this theme, the data revealed six patterns relating to leadership styles consisting of:

1) Authoritarian style preferred by interviewees;

2) Authoritarian style leads to resistance among employees;

3) Use of a laissez faire style for routine tasks.
4) Change in leadership towards more participative or consultative style that may be related to foreign influence;

5) Delegation to trusted subordinates with the expectation they will use the same style as the manager; and

6) Emphasis on task role of leader over the social role.

Some variation in the themes existed between the front office and back office managers, the front office managers were more open to the participative style of leadership and placed a greater emphasis on the social role of the leader than the back office managers.

6.3.1.1 Authoritarian Leadership Style Preferred

A significant pattern in the theme of leadership styles was the preference for authoritarian approaches to leadership among the interviewees, which was present even among the interviewees who recognised that a more participative style of leadership may be necessary in some situations. Several of the interviewees suggested that it was necessary to use a directive and authoritarian approach with employees because many of them could not be trusted to perform the necessary tasks without detailed guidance and close supervision. Many of the interviewees also considered themselves as the individual with the most knowledge about financial issues and the bank’s procedures and therefore best able to be the sole decision-maker. Some of the interviewees also suggested that the use of an authoritarian and directive approach to leadership was necessary because of the detailed nature of the work in the banking industry. Close supervision was necessary to ensure the work was correct and all individuals used a standardised method for performing tasks. Manager 3 from the back office stated:
“Sometimes we have a problem to solve...a project the bank needs. I have to carefully watch my staff to be sure it's done right. My workers are from many different places around the world. I have to use a firm hand with them to be certain that everyone is working together...that everyone is following my directions. It's not easy. I can't be everywhere. I can't make sure that everything they are doing is right...that it doesn't have mistakes. But I make sure that they understand that if something is wrong with their work, I'll hold them responsible for not following my directions. And they never know when I'll be looking over their shoulders to make sure that they are doing what I told them to do”

These comments indicate that the manager prefers a highly directive style of leadership.

The statements of another manager were typical of the interviewees when discussing leadership styles was:

“I don’t have time to ask for everybody’s opinion. My job is to make sure the work is done right and is ready when we need it. It's much easier for me to just tell my employees what to do and how to do it. Sure, there may be different ways to get the job done. But I’m the manager because I know more about risk management than my employees. If they do what I tell them to do, they won't waste time and risk making mistakes that could cost the bank a fortune” (Manager 14, Back Office).

6.3.1.2 Some Resistance among Employees to Authoritarian Leadership Style

Approximately half of the interviewees indicated that the authoritarian style of leadership sometimes created resistance among employees, establishing a pattern within the theme of leadership styles. The resistance was linked to situations in which a difference of opinion existed between the manager and the employee concerning the way in which a task or problem should be approached. Several of the interviewees noted that when they used the authority of their position to ensure that the employee complied with directions, it could lead to poor future relationships with the employee. One interviewee explained:

“Not everyone likes it when I tell them how to do their jobs, A few of my employees believe that they are competent professionals and don't need detailed directions or close supervision. But almost all of my employees have been trained in different parts of the world and have worked for foreign firms. Our way of doing things is different from their way of doing things. They don't understand that I have to carefully watch their work to make sure it meets our standards. Some of my employees have become
hostile and uncooperative with me because they disagree with my directions' (Manager 12, Back Office).

Many of the other interviewees gave similar comments concerning employee resistance to direction. Another manager suggested that resistance among employees was unavoidable because of the need to ensure that tasks were completed correctly and on schedule.

“I expect some of my workers to be unhappy because I supervise them very closely. I know I wouldn't like someone always looking over my work and telling me how to do it. But it is necessary with some employees. I can't trust them to do the job right, especially for important work. I can't just rely on their reports and analysis of loan portfolios and such. It doesn't matter that they are unhappy with me. All that matters is that they do the work the way I want it to be done” (Manager 19, Back Office).

6.3.1.3 Laissez Faire Leadership Style Preferred for Routine Tasks

Another pattern in the theme of leadership style was the use of laissez faire leadership in situations involving routine tasks. Some of the interviewees noted that they provided less direct supervision and control over the activities of their employees when the task was routine and structured when compared to new or non-routine tasks. Most of the interviewees indicated that they do not closely supervise routine tasks because of time constraints, but will increase the amount of direction they give employees if they become aware of poor employee performance. Manager 16 from the front office stated:

“I have 12 employees that I have to supervise, I also have to provide many different reports to my supervisor, attend meetings, and talk with the bank’s clients from time to time. I don't have time to go over everything that my employees do. So I only closely supervise the way they prepare the very important reports, the ones that my supervisors will use to make decisions. With most routine matters, I only do an occasional check to make sure that the work is right. But if I find mistakes, I start watching the employee more closely.”

Another manager noted:

"Much of what we do is repetitive...the same type of work. After I make certain that an employee can do the work correctly, I generally don't supervise the job carefully.
I'm only one person and I have to pay attention to the really important work...the special reports or analysis that we have to turn out in a hurry. For the regular work, I don't interfere or direct the employees unless some type of problem happens” (Manager 8, Back Office).

The findings suggest that the interviewees are willing to use a laissez faire leadership style in some situations because of insufficient time to provide direct supervision and authoritarian control over employees in all situations. When using the laissez faire approach, the interviewees also appear to use a management by exception approach in which they intervene only if some type of problem occurs.

6.3.1.4 Change in Leadership to Increased Use of Participative or Consulting Style

Related to Foreign Influences

A pattern related to the theme of leadership styles noted by approximately half of the interviewees was a gradual change in the leadership methods used by their peers over the past several years. This pattern was primarily evident among the front office managers. Some managers, including the interviewees were occasionally using more participative management styles in which they sought the advice or discussed possible solutions to problems with employees before reaching a decision. The managers indicated, however, that consultation or participation in decision making was presented as a privilege for the employee and was not a general practice. One interviewee stated:

“Sometimes I'll ask one of my employees to provide more information to help me reach a decision. But usually, I've made up my mind before I even ask. I usually do this with some of my employees from Europe because they seem to want me to ask about their opinions. I'll do it if there's enough time to discuss different approaches to the work. I think it helps them accept my final decision...increases their cooperation because they think I trust them” (Manager 11, Front Office).

Several of the interviewees also indicated that they only allowed other Kuwaitis to participate in the decision making process although they were aware that many foreign
employees wanted to contribute perspectives and opinions concerning important
decisions in the department.

The interviewees attributed the gradual change in the leadership methods and styles to
modernisation or globalisation factors, which allowed them to observe different types of
leadership styles and methods. The interviewees mentioning that they had worked in
foreign-owned banks outside of Kuwait or had been assigned to an international branch
of a Kuwaiti bank also mentioned they occasionally used consultative or participative
styles of leadership. One interviewee stated:

“I used to work in Britain when I first left university. My manager would ask for
advice from the workers. Even from me, although I had no experience in risk
management or other aspects of the banking industry. I was afraid that I would make
a stupid suggestion. But I did learn that the other employees expected the manager to
act this way. And I remember that with my European employees” (Manager 21, Front
Office).

The data implies that the increased cross-cultural experience of Kuwaiti managers either
as employees abroad or with employees in Kuwait influences their leadership styles.

6.3.1.5 Delegation to Trusted Subordinates

Another pattern in data among interviewees with many employees under their direct
supervision was delegation to trusted subordinates. Delegation occurred in situations in
which the manager did not have a formal assistant, but used certain individuals to
function as assistants. The informal assistants functioned as leaders for smaller groups
of employees, but remained subordinate to the manager. The interviewees using
delegation indicated that the scope of their managerial responsibilities made it
impossible to directly supervise the activities of subordinates. As with the use of the
participative leadership styles, however, delegated authority was reserved for employees
that the interviewees trusted because of a lengthy relationship and prior knowledge of
the leadership capabilities of the employee. In addition, the interviewees delegating
management responsibility to a subordinate expected the subordinate to use similar
leadership methods and styles as the manager would use in the circumstances. A typical
comment concerning delegation was:

“There are periods...times when we are really busy and I can't supervise all the work.
So I have two employees that have been with me for a long time that I put in charge
of a work team. I expect him [the subordinate with delegated authority] to act as I
would...to use the same approach with my employees as I do. Actually, I picked these
two because they have the same ideas...the same way of doing things as me. I can be
sure that they will personally check the work before it comes to my desk” (Manager
13, Back Office).

Several of the interviewees were concerned that the use of different leadership styles by
the manager and assistants would create confusion among employees and undermine the
manager’s authority. One interviewee stated:

“I think consistency is important when managing...when leading people. Before I put
an employee in charge of a project team...I use a team for some complicated reports
we prepare...I want to be sure that they use the same approach that I would use. I
don't want the employees to think that they can act differently...that my expectations
are different...just because I put someone else in charge of them. It would cause too
much trouble after the project is finished. So I usually put an employee from Kuwait
or the UAE in charge of a project team” (Manager 25, Back Office).

6.3.1.6 Emphasis on Task Role of Leader over Social Role

Another pattern in the data provided by the interviewees was an emphasis on their task
role as a managerial leader over any social role an inspirational managerial leader. The
interviewees generally relied on the power inherent in their managerial position to
influence employees. If an employee does not perform work according to expectations,
the interviewees suggested that they initially increase the amount of supervision,
followed by transfer or termination of employment if the employee continues to underperform. Manager 17 from the back office noted:

"I don't have to be popular with my employees. My job as manager is to make sure that they provide value for the bank with their work. That's the most important thing. In my work group, there are so many different personalities...a lot of social differences. The easiest thing for me if an employee becomes a problem is to focus on their work product. I haven't got the time to try to find out if the employee has some type of problem that is interfering with their work. And if the employee doesn't improve, well...I can always try to transfer them to another department."

Another interviewee stated:

“Making sure that the work is done correctly and as quickly as possible is my main concern. I'm not friends with staff; I have to maintain distance from most of my workers. It makes it easier to discipline them if I need to. So I can't consider how they feel about me...about their sensitivities. We've hired them to do a job and I'm responsible for making sure that the bank benefits from their work” (Manager 5, Back Office).

Despite the evidence that the interviewees avoided considering the social role of the leader, many of the interviewees suggested that they relied on their social relationship with subordinates from Kuwait to support their leadership position and role. The findings implicitly indicated that the interviewees were willing to incorporate the social aspects of leadership into their practise when they had a common culture with the employee, with this pattern more evident among front office managers.

6.3.2 Leading International Teams

The analysis of the data identified a theme involving leadership of international teams. The analysis also identified three patterns within the theme relating to leadership style consisting of

1) Use of an authoritarian leadership style to control differences in attitudes and behaviours among employees;
2) Preference for authoritarian approach; and

3) Emphasis on employees altering their behaviours to conform to the manager's requirements.

While both the front office and back office managers identified similar patterns. The back office managers expressed greater difficulties with managing international teams.

6.3.2.1 Use of Authoritarian Leadership Style to Control Differences in Attitudes and Behaviours

The theme of leadership styles in the interview data overlaps with the theme of leading international teams because of the perception among the interviewees that an authoritarian style of leadership is necessary to manage workers from different nations. Most interviewees indicated that leading international employees was difficult because of substantial differences in attitudes and behaviours affecting approaches to tasks and problem solving. As a result, maintaining closer control over international employees in general was a high priority among the interviewees. The comments of one manager were typical of the perceived value of authoritarian leadership styles with international employees:

“When they first came to me, they have different ways of doing their job. I can't be certain that they really have the knowledge and skill about loans and asset value analysis that I really need. So I have to give them clear directions...look over their work as soon as it's finished. It takes a lot of time, but I can't afford to just let them do the work the way they want to” (Manager 6, Back Office).

Many of the interviewees noted that one of the major problems with leading international teams were fundamental differences in attitudes approaches to work and
relationships with peers and supervisors, which were related to values. One interviewee indicated:

“Some of them come here and want to change the way we do things…but then some of them will blindly follow a procedure even if it’s wrong. They don't understand how we do things at my bank. Even though they get some kind of orientation when we first hire them, it doesn't help much. The only way they can learn about my expectations is for me to control the work process as closely as I can” (Manager 5, Back Office).

The interviewees used the authoritarian leadership style to achieve greater conformity among international employees, but its use hampers the development of a distributed leadership approach in which managers can learn about cultural differences from followers when the followers adopt a temporary leadership role.

6.3.2.2 Authoritarian Approach Preferred

The majority of the interviewees discussing conflicts with subordinates indicated they preferred relying on the authority inherent in their position as manager to resolve the conflict. The interviewees also noted variability in the attitudes of employees from foreign nations. Some employees enthusiastically performed their tasks while other employees required constant direction and supervision. As a result, many of the interviewees expressed frustration with the difficulty in determining the method to use to motivate and supervise international employees. The frustration appeared to foster the use of an authoritarian style of leadership because the manager could rely on the power inherent in the managerial position to control the behaviours of the employees. A typical comment related to the approach used with international workers was:

“I am very strict with new workers…at least until I know what they can do and how they fit into my work group. I'm not certain about what motivates them, what makes them want to get the work finished quickly and accurately. And because I'm not always certain whether there's fighting...disagreements among my employees, I have to keep close watch over them. I let them know that they answer to me for any
mischief...for any setbacks that we have because of their behaviours...because of their attitudes” (Manager 13, Front Office).

Another interviewee stated:

“Standardisation...that's the key to managing international teams. My staffs come from many different countries, but we all have to work together. I can't let them just decide among themselves how they will do the job. I have to be very strict with them to make certain that they all work together in the same way...that they all behave the way that I expect them to. I don't care what they do or how they think when they are at home. But when they are at work, they have to understand that I am in charge of making sure that everyone works together in the same way. And that is a lot easier for me when I set clear rules about performance and behaviour” (Manager 11, Front Office).

The statements of this interviewee suggest that the preference for an authoritarian approach to leading international teams is based on the uncertainty of the interviewees about the behaviours and attitudes of employees from different cultures.

6.3.2.3 Employees Should Alter Behaviours to Conform to Manager's Requirements

An additional pattern within the theme of leading international employees was a perception among the managers that the employee had to conform to the attitudes, values, and behaviours established by the manager. The interviewees did not believe that they should adjust their leadership behaviours or styles to develop a closer relationship with international employees. One interviewee noted:

“The employees from different countries are guest workers here in Kuwait. This means that they have to become accustomed to the way we do things...the way we manage and lead people in the bank. It would be too difficult for me to change my management...my leadership approach for every different employee from another country. I expect them to learn and follow the way we work in our department. I especially want them to have a good attitude toward the work...to do what needs to be done without prodding or coaxing” (Manager 10, Back Office).
The perception of the interviewees that employees should conform to the work norms established by the manager and the institution suggests that the interviewees did not view international leadership as an exchange process in which the subordinate influenced the leader. The interviewees believed that the leader's role was to influence subordinates from different nations to adopt the norms, customs, and practices of the firm and the host country where the subordinates are employed. One interviewee stated:

“When I get a new foreign employee, I ask them about their experience working in Kuwait or the UAE. If they haven't worked here before, I tell them that we have ways of working at the bank that may be different from their past experience. I also tell them that they are expected to accept our customs in Kuwait without question and to act appropriately at all times. Once they come to work for me, they are part of my department and I am responsible not only for the quality of their work. I'm also responsible for making sure that they behave the way we expect for our employees” (Manager 9, Front Office).

The interviewees' reluctance to adapt to the needs of subordinates may also be a factor in the preference among the managers for using an authoritarian style of leadership. The perception that employees' attitudes, values and behaviours should conform to the managers' requirements also limits the ability for the formal leader to temporarily adopt a follower role with employees from different nations.

6.3.3 Nation of Origin

The analysis of the data provided by the interviewees identified a theme of nation of origin, which refers to the perceptions of the managers about the characteristics and behaviours of employees from different nations. The analysis revealed three patterns related to leadership style within this theme, consisting of:

1) Different relationships with employees based on nation of origin;
2) Preference for working with individuals from Arabic nations, followed by preference for individuals from Europe or North America; and
3) Use of different styles and methods of leadership based on national origin of employee

In general, the front office managers were more open to different customs and values among employees from different nations.

6.3.3.1 Different Relationships with Employees Based on Nation of Origin

Although the interviewees did not perceive the relationship aspects of leadership as significant as their roles as task managers, they provided information suggesting that they formed different types of relationship with international employees linked to the employees’ nations of origin. The relationship differences appear to be based on the degree of trust the manager places in subordinates from different nations. One manager stated:

“I find it easier to get on with employees from other Arab nations. I know what they expect and they know what I expect. So we have a mutual understanding. I can usually trust them to do their work and to listen to what I am telling them. The Europeans are also responsible. But I make sure that we have a formal business relationship. Even if we meet outside the bank at a restaurant, I make sure that the discussion is only about general matters or business matters” (Manager 8, Back Office).

Another manager noted that:

“It's difficult to know what people from other nations...from other cultures are thinking. Some of my employees smile and nod their heads as if they agree with everything I tell them. But I can't really be sure. Especially for some of my employees from India or Southeast Asia” (Manager 10, Back Office).

The pattern in the data indicated that the interviewees formed closer relationships with employees from nations cultural characteristics similar to those of Kuwait, with the relationships weakening as cultural divergence increased.
6.3.3.2 Preference for Working with Individuals from Arabic Nations Followed by European or North American Nations

A pattern within the theme of nation of origin was a preference among the interviewees for employees from nations with Arabic cultures and specifically Jordan and the UAE. The comments indicated that the interviewees were more comfortable with these individuals because of similarities in work ethics, behaviours, and attitudes towards managers or supervisors. The interviewees were also more likely to trust and delegate authority to an employee from a nation with an Arabic culture. Nonetheless, many of the interviewees noted that adequate task performance of the employee was a critical prerequisite for the assessment of employees regardless of their nation of origin. One interviewee stated:

“It is easier for me to work with employees from other Arab nations. They have the same ideas that I have. They look at the world and business the same way that I do. But I still have to be careful with them. I’ve had employees from Jordan and Egypt that are real assets for my department…but I’ve also had employees from these nations that are lazy and expect to be paid for poor work. I have to remind myself that just because I am like an employee or relate to their culture, I still have to make certain that they can do the work” (Manager 3, Front Office).

The interviewees were also generally comfortable leading employees from Europe or North America. The interviewees suggested that employees from these nations were very task oriented and competent, but often had difficulty fully integrating into the work team. One interviewee noted:

“I don’t have much problem with European or American employees. They do their jobs well…but they seem isolated from everyone around them. And many of them leave after a short time. Some of them have even been condescending toward their co-workers, particularly towards Asians. They are certain that they know more than everyone else. It can cause problems with other workers” (Manager 9, Front Office).

Many of the interviewees also commented on the greater degree of informality expected by employees from Europe and North America. The general perception among the
interviewees regarding this issue was that informality undermined their authority with other employees. Four interviewees believed that employees from Europe or North America were more likely to challenge a directive or decision in front of other employees, which was also viewed as a threat to the authority of the manager. The interviewees describing this type of situation initially discussed the matter with the employee relying on the authority of their position as managers. One of the interviewees, however, indicated that the employee had to be transferred to another department to ultimately resolve the problem. One interviewee described a particular situation involving a Canadian employee:

“From the very first day, I had to remind him to address me by my title. I don't think it was meant as disrespect, but I never invite my employees to use my first name. I should have seen trouble with this one. After a few weeks, he became very critical of my directions, of the way I wanted things done. He believed he knew more about appropriate asset allocations for clients than I did, and he let everyone know about it. I tried talking the problem over with him. I told him that he would be sacked if he didn't stop criticizing my decisions. Yet his work was very good. Eventually I sent him to work for another manager. But he left the bank shortly after” (Manager 8, Back Office).

The interviewees that had experience working in Europe or the United States, however, did not mention informality as an issue in their relationships with employees from these regions. Several of the interviews also noted that they preferred assigning difficult tasks to employees from Europe or North America because they required less supervision and were usually competent.

“I prefer having a few employees from Europe. They have all been to good schools and usually have some experience in a major bank in Europe. They are good for my department because they understand how things are done in other parts of the world. Banking is an international business these days. After I am certain that they know the work, I only have to look over their final product. It's less work for me because I don't have to make periodic checks to ensure they are doing the work the way I want it to be done” (Manager 11, Front Office).
6.3.3.3 Use of Different Styles of Leadership Based on National Origin

Although the interviewees evidenced a preference for using transformation methods and an authoritarian style, a pattern emerged in the theme of national origin indicating that the interviewees may use different styles of leadership for individuals based on country of origin. With employees from Arabic cultures, the interviewees used a more paternalistic and authoritarian approach based on the assumption that the employees respected the authority inherent in the position of the manager. With European and North American employees, the interviewees used a more participative approach to leadership, but would use an authoritarian approach if necessary. With East Asian employees, the interviewees would use an authoritarian and highly directive approach to leadership. The interviewees, however, did not appear to consider the choice of leadership style for different employees, but rather responded instinctively by selecting a leadership style they believed appropriate to the situation. One interviewee stated:

“I always have to be certain that I let my staff know that I am in charge. But the way I do this may be different for some of my foreign workers. The ones from Europe...they don't like me just telling them what to do. They want to believe that I am consulting with them. So I soften my approach with them. I say things like "What do you think." But with my workers from India and Jordan I just tell them what has to be done and how they will benefit from doing good work. I can be more direct with them” (Manager 4, Back Office).

Some of the interviewees, however, indicated that they used the same authoritarian style regardless of the situation or the characteristics of the employee. This group of interviewees were among those who noted greater difficulties with managing international teams.

“I treat everyone the same way. It shouldn't matter where the person comes from. We all have to work together. I just tell my staff what has to be done and how they should do it. But being the manager of staff from many different nations is very difficult. There is always some kind of problem with the staff. They don't get along with each other or they don't follow my directions” (Manager 15, Back Office).
6.3.4 Leadership Development

The analysis of the interview data identified a theme of leadership development. Within this there were two patterns relating to leadership style consisting of:

1) A perception that practical leadership training should be the core of ideal development programmes; and

2) Ability to consult with a mentor with more experience about leadership should be part of leadership development programmes.

6.3.4.1 Practical Leadership Training Should Be Core of Ideal Development Programmes

A pattern among the interviewees concerning the contents of an ideal leadership training programme was information about the best methods to deal with practical leadership problems. The interviewees particularly focused on the problems of leading employees from different cultures and with different methods of performing tasks. The training approach suggested by the interviewees included providing information about possible approaches to solving various types of leadership problems and role playing. Manager 17 from the front office noted:

“It's one thing to read about leadership in books and another thing to actually be in a position where I have to find ways to motivate staff. It would be very helpful if I could find some type of training course that gives me a chance to try different types of leadership methods. Something where I can experiment with different approaches to solve staff problems. If I try something with my staff and it doesn't work, I can have a bigger problem than the one I'm trying to solve. Because I'm not certain about what will happen, I don't change the way I manage my employees.”

These interviewees also indicated that practical knowledge was more important than theoretical knowledge for leading employees. According to one interviewee:

“I've learned some ways of leading foreign employees from my experience...from my mistakes. Like how I have to change my approach for dealing with certain staff members. I remember one time that I kept criticising one employee because his
reports always had some type of error. The employee finally left the bank and I think it was because I didn't give him enough help to fix the mistakes. That's the kind of practical leadership information that is helpful. The theory about leadership doesn't tell me how to fix problems” (Manager 21, Front Office).

6.3.4.2 Ability to consult with a Mentor with More Experience about Leadership

Problems should be Part of Leadership Development Programmes

Some of the interviewees also suggested that a formal mentoring system in which they could discuss leadership problems with another manager with greater experience in leading international workers would be helpful. One interviewee stated:

“I would be a better manager if I had the chance to talk about staff problems with someone who has more experience. Some more senior managers that have been responsible for managing an international staff in the past. They could provide me with information about what worked for them and what didn't work when trying to motivate staff. But I don't want to ask other managers about how to solve a staff problem...a leadership problem. I'm afraid they will think that I shouldn't be a manager because I don't know how to control my employees” (Manager 17, Front Office).

The information provided by this employee suggests that the organisation has an expectation that managers will have leadership skills, but does not provide sufficient support to assist managers with developing the skills.

Several of the interviewees consulted with foreign managers in other firms when faced with an international leadership problem. One interviewee stated:

“A few times, I've asked managers from other countries about how to solve problems that I may have with foreign staff...the guest workers. These are people that I know outside of work. I don't want anyone here to know that I need help with managing people. Sometimes, these managers have given me some good information about the cause of the problem and how to deal with it. It's usually some practical advice about how they would manage the employee or the situation” (Manager 9, Front Office).
6.7 Summary

6.7.1 Findings

The interview findings were based on the data collected from 25 indigenous Kuwaiti managers in banks. The criterion for analysis was to identify the existence of a theme or pattern within a the interviewees provided information on a topic. The analysis identified the five theme categories of leadership methods, leadership styles, leading international employees or teams, the issues associated with employees from different nations of origin, and leadership development. The analysis also examined the differences between the front office and back office managers.

The patterns within the theme of leadership methods indicated that the interviewees primarily relied on transactional leadership methods, but a small percentage of the interviewees would occasionally use transformational methods in some circumstances using a situational approach to the selection of the leadership method. The interviewees using the transactional methods were all front office managers. When using the transactional method, however, many of the interviewees who were back office managers indicated that they did not clearly specify the rewards and consequences for the behaviours of the followers, which may limit the effectiveness of the transactional method. In addition, the majority of the interviewees noted that they did not cognitively consider the relationship of the leadership method to the desired outcome of motivating employees and instinctively selected a method for the situation. The minority of employees that did consider the relationship between leadership methods and outcome were the front office managers.
All the interviewees preferred using an authoritative style of leadership although some of the interviewees in front office positions noted that a participative style of leadership was appropriate for some situations. In addition, all interviewees often used a laissez faire approach for routine tasks, and did not provide guidance to employees unless a performance problem developed. The interviewees considered the authoritarian style of leadership necessary when they did not trust their followers to perform tasks without close supervision and detailed guidance. The interviewees also noted that the authoritarian style of leadership sometimes produced resistance among employees from cultures that had expectations that the leader would use a participative approach. Related to this pattern in the data was the observation among the front office managers that participative approaches to leadership were used more often in their firms, possibly because of foreign influences. The front office interviewees, however, considered participation in the decision-making process a privilege reserved for particularly trusted employees and was sometimes limited only to Kuwaiti employees. Both front office and back office managers occasionally used delegation in their leadership style. The delegation of authority or responsibility, however, was made only to employees who were trusted and were Kuwaiti nationals. The interviewees also did not expect the employee with the delegated authority to make independent decisions. When discussing leadership styles, the interviewees from the back office had a strong focus on the role of the manager for ensuring that employees complete tasks and low emphasis on forming relationships with subordinates to increase the effectiveness of the leadership process. In contrast, the interviewees from the front office had a stronger relationship focus in their leadership style.
In the theme of leading international teams, the back office interviewees indicated that the authoritarian style was beneficial for maintaining close control over different nations and for managing the differences in behaviours and attitudes. A specific difficulty with leading an international team stemmed from the differences in work values and approaches to task performance. Communications with members of an international team was also a problem noted by both back office and front office managers, although all staff used English. The interviewees often used concrete language to ensure employees understood directions. The interviewees from both groups also noted that conflict management was a recurring issue with leading international teams. Conflicts between the manager and an employee were resolved through the authority in the manager's position or the termination or transfer of the employee. The interviewees from both the front office and the back office had greater difficulty identifying and resolving conflicts among the members of the international work team. Employees from different cultures often have prejudices and variations in work attitudes and practices that become sources of conflict. Approaches to reducing conflict among employees included the ability of the manager to select members of teams from similar cultures and using the authority inherent in the manager's position to force employees to resolve conflicts. The interviewees from the back office believed that employees from different cultures should conform to the requirements of the manager, and that the manager should not change behaviours based on the needs of subordinates. While this perception was present among the front office managers, some of the interviewees from this group also suggested that the manager should alter leadership behaviours to meet the expectations of the employees.
The interviewees from both the front office and the back office formed different types of relationships with employees based on the employee's nation of origin. The Kuwaiti interviewees had a preference of employees from nations with Arabic culture because of similarity in values and work ethic. The interviewees also considered employees from Europe and North America competent with a tendency towards informality in their relationships with managers leading to occasional challenges of authority or directions. The interviewees from both groups were least comfortable leading employees from East Asia. Some of the issues the interviewees noted with East Asians were communications difficulties, literal adherence to directions even if a task problem should be brought to the manager's attention, and a collective orientation in which individuals from specific nations formed a group that did not integrate with the general work team. The nation of origin of employees influenced the leadership method and style used by the interviewees in front office positions with a directive approach used with East Asians and a participative approach used with Europeans and North Americans.

The interviewees from the front office group and the back office group had substantially different understanding of the concept of leadership development. The back office managers believed that leadership development involved learning approaches to managing resources, which include the human resources of the firm. The front office interviewees, however, believed that leadership development was the process of learning the interpersonal skills necessary to motivate followers to perform the tasks required for their jobs. Few of the interviewees had access to formal leadership in their banks that was separate from general management training. While most of the interviewees attended formal management training programmes, the content of the
training focused on task management rather than leadership. Some interviewees also noted that informal leadership mentoring occurred in their firms. The front office interviewees considered a leadership development programme that provided information and practise with practical leadership situations and problems as the ideal type of training programme.

6.7.2 Implications of the Findings

The findings from the interviews in the themes of leadership methods and styles provided information to fill a gap in the literature concerning the identification of cultural differences between Kuwaiti managers and employees in international teams. The managers preferred using the transactional methods of leadership and an authoritarian style regardless of the nation of origin or cultural background of the employees. The preference may be rooted in Kuwaiti culture with many managers believing that they do not have natural or inherent charismatic leadership qualities. As a result, they use the structured approach of transactional leadership to create extrinsic motivations for staff. In addition, they relied on the authority inherent in their positions to establish and maintain control over employees.

The findings from the interviews also have implications for filling the gap in the literature of identifying current and ideal approaches for leadership, which is also a research objective of the study. The current approaches to leadership development among banking firms in Kuwait is unstructured, with few organisations offering programmes that directly address leadership development. The lack of sufficient leadership development opportunities in Kuwait may be because of a cultural assumption that leadership is innate and cannot be learned. The findings also revealed
two types of leadership development approaches. Some organisations offer formal training for managers, which ostensibly includes leadership development. The information provided by the interviewees, however, indicates that the content of the training focuses primarily on management of resources and operational tasks with relatively little emphasis on the skills necessary for inspiring or motivating staff. The approach to leadership development identified by the majority of the interviewees is ad hoc exposure to leadership theory or training that depends on the education and experience of the individual manager. The type of leadership development that the interviewees considered most beneficial was experience working in other nations, which provided them with practical knowledge about the behaviours and leadership expectations of individuals from different cultures. This perception was more common among the front office managers, and may be the result of their task environment in which they must ensure employees have sufficient interpersonal skills to interact with customers.

The findings from the interviews also provided information addressing the gap in the literature concerning the effectiveness of existing cross cultural leadership development programmes in Kuwait. The managers participating in the interviews noted that they often had multiple problems leading international work teams, with particular reference to difficulties with individuals from specific nations of origin. This finding suggests that the current methods of leadership development in Kuwait do not provide sufficient knowledge or training to improve the skills of leaders of cross-cultural teams. As a result, the interviewees relied on the leadership methods and styles that they felt comfortable using, with the expectation that staff would accept and respond to the manager's approach to leadership.
The information provided by the interviewees also addresses the gap in the literature concerning the approaches that should be used to incorporate cross-cultural leadership development practises in Kuwaiti leadership development programmes. Both the front office and back office managers participating in the study expressed an interest in leadership training that provided practical knowledge about cross-cultural leadership. The emphasis on practical knowledge was prompted by the difficulties the interviewees had with translating theoretical knowledge they may have acquired in university or through training to the actual situations they encountered when leading cross-cultural teams. The interviewees also suggested that mentoring should be a part of leadership development programmes, with information and suggestions provided by more senior staff members that have successfully used leadership approaches with cross-cultural teams. The organisational culture of the banks where the interviewees were employed appeared to create a barrier to mentoring because of the assumption that managers should not ask for assistance with personnel matters. The information provided by the back office interviewees suggested that organisational culture should be changed to permit managers to ask others for assistance without concern that the request will be interpreted as a sign of incompetence.
Chapter 7: Discussion and Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study presented in the previous two chapters. The discussion is based on presenting the findings in the context of previous research concerning cross-cultural leadership development programmes identified in the review of related literature. The discussion and conclusion also identifies the significant factors influencing cross-cultural leadership development programmes in Kuwait.

7.2 Overview of the Study

This mixed methods study used concurrent qualitative and quantitative research to understand the effect of cross-cultural influences on the leadership development programmes and leadership practices development. The research triangulated both numerical data from the testing of a quantitative model and the detail of a qualitative investigation in a study population consisting of Kuwaiti managers in the banking industry. The specific problem addressed by the research was the lack of cross-cultural leadership development programmes in Kuwait despite the large number of international workers employed in Kuwait and the increasing number of international subsidiaries operated by Kuwaiti firms. The main research question of the study was: What is the relationship between perceptions of effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership and leadership development among banking sector firms in Kuwait? The research question and the hypotheses derived from the research question were based on
an extensive review of literature examining theories and the findings of previous studies investigating cross-cultural leadership.

The qualitative phase of the mixed method approach to the research collected data with interviews among indigenous Kuwaiti bank managers. The data was analysed with open, axial and descriptive coding to identify themes and patterns related to cross-cultural leadership development programmes and practises in Kuwait. The quantitative phase of the study used a survey questionnaire to collect data from bank managers and supervisors. The data was analysed with structural equation modelling and regression analysis to test the theoretical model and hypotheses of the study.

The findings from the analysis of the qualitative phase of the study identified the five theme categories of leadership methods, leadership styles, leading international employees or teams, the issues associated with employees from different nations of origin, and leadership development. The findings from the quantitative phase of study validated the theoretical model of the study. The testing of hypotheses also produced results supporting acceptance of the hypotheses with the exception of hypothesis H7.

7.3 Discussion of the Quantitative Findings

The study suggests that as cultural differences in the Kuwaiti banking sector increase from the presence of a larger number of international workers and increased contacts with foreign firms, there is an increase in leadership programme development and leadership practises development. This is relevant for answering the first research question of the study, which investigated the way in cultural differences between managers and employees influence perceptions of the role of the international team
leader. The cultural differences between workers from various nations and the
indigenous Kuwaitis produce a stronger influence on leadership development
programmes and leadership development practises, because of the need to develop
programmes to address the effect of these cultural differences on business operations. In
this context, a distributed leadership approach could facilitate a better understanding of
the cultural differences between Kuwaiti managers and international employees. The
cultural differences conforms to research conducted by previous researchers indicating
that cultural differences can significantly influence perspectives of leadership practises
and the content of leadership development programmes (Dastmalchian, Javidian, &
Alam, 2001; Kabasakal & Dastmalkian, 2001; Schwartz, 2004). While the present
research did not assess the nature of the cultural differences, it nonetheless confirms the
assumptions of models developed by previous researchers such as Schwartz (2004) and
Hofstede (1985) indicating that substantial differences exist among cultures that can
influence leadership.

Training in the traditional leadership approach involves informal mentoring and social
pressures to engage in culturally appropriate leadership behaviours (Noer, Leupold, &
Valle, 2007). As a result, the leadership training that Kuwaitis receive is focused on
practises rather than formal development programmes. A large number of the
respondents were not indigenous Kuwaitis and may not receive the same degree of
training and development traditional Kuwaiti leadership methods as Kuwaitis. This
group of non-indigenous respondents may have had only minimal experience with
training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership methods. This may be
beneficial for introducing concepts of distributed leadership as a foundation for
leadership programmes development.
The current research concerning the importance of cross-cultural leadership programmes for leadership programme and practise development in the Kuwaiti banking sector may be because of the increased recognition in Kuwait and other Middle Eastern nations of the importance of leadership development (Abdullah, 2007; Shah, 2007). It is likely that many of the Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti respondents have had some type of formal or informal cross-cultural leadership training, including experience with distributed leadership approaches to cross-cultural leadership. An additional factor that may have influenced the findings is the expectations for leadership behaviours that vary among different cultures. The presence of a large number of international employees in the workforce is likely to provide a substantial amount of informal information about the leadership expectations of individuals from different cultures (McPherson, Kachelhoffer, & El Nemr, 2007). This suggests that some elements of distributed leadership may be operant in Kuwaiti culture because of the large number of international workers in the nation.

The study also provided that international leadership practises effect leadership practises development but not leadership development programmes generally conforms to the findings of previous researchers. International workers and global subsidiaries of Kuwaiti firms indirectly introduce international leadership practises into Kuwaiti firms (Ali & Azim, 1996). These practices could create an informal influence on the task and relationship roles of managers responsible for leading international teams. Exposure to international leadership practises also provides information or knowledge to managers from Kuwait about the cultural norms, values, and expectations for leadership behaviours of their employees (Broadbeck, et al., 2000). To some degree, the indirect exposure to different leadership practises through the international workforce in Kuwait
suggests that some type of informal distributed leadership process may be occurring among the managers surveyed in the study. As a result, international leadership practises have a low strength effect on leadership practises development. In contrast, the presence of international workers and globalisation of Kuwaiti firms does not have an effect on formal leadership programmes development. Previous research examining the effect of international leadership practices on formal cross-cultural leadership development programmes has produced mixed findings, suggesting that the effect may be subject to the influence of confounding variables not accounted for in the research design (Clark, Grant, & Heijltjes, 1999; Millman, Taylor, & Czaplewski, 2002).

7.4 Discussion of Qualitative Findings

The study provided data necessary for answering the research questions of the study from the perspective of Kuwaiti managers responsible for leading cross-cultural work groups. The discussion of the qualitative findings is organised around the research questions of the study. It also includes the relationship of the findings to previous research.

This study addressed the first research question of the study by providing information about the way in which the cultural differences between managers and employees influence the perception of role of international team leaders among managers. The Kuwaiti managers generally adopt a transformational approach to leadership by relying on behaviours emphasising rewards and consequences for employees that progress towards achieving the goals and objectives set by the manager. The managers also relied on their position of authority within the organisation and preferred an authoritarian or directive style of leadership. In addition, the findings indicated that the managers
preferred a competition approach to conflict resolution rather than avoidance or cooperation as described by Chen, Tjosvold, and Fang (2005). These behaviours represent a traditional Kuwaiti approach to leadership that was noted by previous researchers (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001; Ehrhart & Klein, 2001).

The study, however, also identified significant variations in the leadership perspectives and behaviours of managers from their interactions with employees from different nations. The managers from the back office generally used an authoritarian approach with all employees from other nations because of the belief that only strict control of employees' activities could reduce conflict and ensure that employees performed tasks properly. In contrast, the managers from the front office would sometimes use transformational leadership methods with subordinates they trusted and to meet the expectations of leadership behaviours of employees from Western nations. The front office managers would also occasionally use a participative style of leadership for employees from cultures that expected a greater degree of involvement with decision making. To some degree, the willingness of the front office managers to use transformation methods and a participative style was based on their experiences studying and working abroad, which gave them a better understanding of cultural differences. Previous research has also determined that Kuwaiti managers will use transformational methods of leadership when they believe it will be more effective to motivate subordinates (Ali, 1993; Al-Mailam, 2004). Previous research, however, has not identified the use of a participative style of leadership in Kuwait, with the participatory leadership approaches at variance with the traditional authoritative leadership style used in the nation.
The nation of origin of employees was also an important factor influencing the perception of the role of international team leader among the Kuwaiti managers participating in the study. The nation of origin can be considered as a proxy measure for cultural differences. The managers from both the front office and the back office had different relationships with individuals based on the nation or origin. The back office managers emphasised the task role of the leader with employees from Asian cultures. The back office and the front office managers, however, increased emphasis on the relationship role of the leader with employees from Arab cultures and sometimes with employees from Western cultures. This finding conforms to previous research suggesting that leaders from Arabic cultures prefer leadership through relationships (Bjerke, 1999). The study, however, suggests that the willingness to rely on relationships may be limited by the degree of differences in cultural values and norms. The front office managers may have been more willing to rely on relationships because of their personal experiences with the cultures of foreign nations.

The study provided some information to address the second research question of the study concerning the methods that Kuwaiti banks use to provide cross-cultural leadership development opportunities for managers. The data obtained from the interviewees indicated that opportunities for cross-cultural leadership development are sparse. While the banks employing the managers offered leadership development as part of management training, leadership was considered synonymous with management. Previous researchers also found few leadership development opportunities in Kuwait or other Gulf nations and that the content of programmes identified as leadership development often focused on managerial tasks (London, 2002; Macpherson, Kachelhoffer, & El Nemr, 2007). The current research also provided information
suggesting that organisational culture in Kuwaiti organisations may function as a barrier for managers seeking leadership advice from peers or supervisors because it would be interpreted as an indication of insufficient management knowledge or skills.

The study also provided some information necessary to answer the third research question, which examined the effect of cross-cultural leadership development programmes on the leadership behaviours of managers and the perceptions of leadership effectiveness of employees. Very few of the interviewees had received formal training in cross-cultural leadership. Some of the front office managers, however, received some informal and indirect cross-cultural training from their experiences when studying or working in nations outside of Kuwait. The study also indicated that this indirect training in cross-cultural leadership based on experiences with studying or working in a foreign nation was unstructured, with the individuals drawing various types of information about cross-cultural leadership from the experiences. In some but not all cases, the experiences made the individual managers more aware of cross-cultural differences in norms, values, and the expectations of leadership behaviours. In addition, the managers from both the front office and back office groups indicated that they valued practical knowledge about cross-cultural leadership more than theoretical or academic knowledge.

The cross-cultural leadership development programmes imply that some form of informal leadership development occurs from exposure to foreign leadership paradigms despite the lack of formal development programmes. The front office managers that had increased knowledge of foreign cultures from previous educational or work experiences were willing to use transformational leadership methods and participative leadership
styles in some situations. Previous researchers have also noted that informal cross-cultural leadership development can occur in organisations from contact with foreign employees (Reynolds, 1997) and through mentoring (Millman, Taylor, & Czaplewski, 2002). The qualitative findings also confirm the position of previous researches suggesting that managers and organisations view practical leadership training as more valuable than formal leadership training (Schriesheim, 2003).

The research provided information addressing the fourth research question of the study examining how international practises including distributed leadership can be used to augment cross-cultural leadership development programmes in Kuwait. The study indicated that managers use some international leadership practises such as the use of transformational leadership methods and participatory leadership styles, particularly among the front office managers with staff required to interact with customers. The use of a participatory leadership style is necessary to support distributed leadership in an organisation because participation is based on the premise that followers can make important contributions to support decisions made by a formal leader (Spillane, 2006). Managers are willing to delegate some degree of responsibility or authority to subordinates when they have a sufficient level of trust in the subordinates' competencies and work ethic. Trust in the competencies and abilities of subordinates are also associated with distributed leadership practises. This investigation confirm the position of previous researchers concerning the gradual changes in traditional Kuwaiti leadership from the adoption of foreign leadership practises (Ali, 1993; al-Mailam, 2004; Reynolds, 1997). They also suggest that some of these practises involve elements of distributed leadership in which employees assume some responsibility for leadership in
the organisation despite the perception of managers that they exert full control over the activities of employees.

The study also suggested that cultural barriers may exist to using certain foreign leadership practises such as distributed leadership. The managers appeared to be generally unwilling to exchange roles with a subordinate to achieve an objective. Allowing a subordinate to assume a temporary role as leader is presumed to provide the formal leader with additional information about the leadership behaviours and expectations of their subordinates (Spillane, 2006). While the managers were willing to delegate some degree of responsibility, they expected the employee with the delegated responsibility to exhibit the same leadership behaviours as the manager.

The study also provided information to answer the fifth research question of the study, which examined how demographic variables of nation of origin of domestic employees and nation of assignment of expatriate Kuwaiti managers influence the cross-cultural leadership development programmes offered by Kuwaiti banking firms. The data provided by the interviewees indicated that the nation of origin of employees was a consideration in the selection of a leadership method and leadership style of the manager particularly among the front office managers. It was not, however, a specifically noted consideration when discussing leadership development programs. The front office managers that had studied or worked abroad had a better understanding of the cultural norms of some international workers and their expectations concerning leadership behaviours. These experiences may have contributed to the perception among the interviewees concerning the importance of practical cross-cultural leadership training in leadership development programmes. Because few cross-cultural leadership
development programmes are offered in Kuwait, the influence of nation of origin and expatriate experiences on these programmes remains hypothetical.

From the perspective of distributive leadership theory, the study indicate that some managers in Kuwait are willing to adopt the participative leadership style necessary for distributive leadership despite their preference for an authoritarian leadership style. In the context of distributed leadership theory, leadership practise is flexible and involves the interactions between leaders, followers and the situation (Spillane, 2006). Leadership occurs from the interactions between the leader and followers, with the leader required to respond to the actions or perceptions of the followers. The qualitative findings suggest that this type of interaction is occurring among some managers and their employees, and particularly among the front office managers. The situation in which the employees of the front office manager are required to interact with customers appears to create a different practise dynamic than the situation in which the employees of the back office managers perform technical tasks that do not require interacting with customers. At the same time, there is some foundation for distributed leadership practise through the delegation of authority to employees to perform specific tasks. While the back office managers attempt to use an authoritarian style of leadership to control the employees in a temporary leadership role, the front office managers generally allow these employees a wider degree of latitude in selecting a leadership approach to accomplish the assigned task.
7.5 Contributions of the Study

The study addressed the gaps in the literature, which consisted of:

1) lack of identification of the cultural differences between Kuwaiti managers and employees from different nations that can affect the role of the manager as international team leader;

2) insufficient investigation of the current approaches to cross-cultural leadership development in Kuwait;

3) insufficient examination of the effectiveness of cross-cultural leadership development programmes in Kuwait for improving cross-cultural leadership skills;

4) lack of sufficient investigation of the approaches to incorporating international cross-cultural leadership development practises into Kuwaiti leadership development programmes; and

5) insufficient investigation of the effect of demographic modifiers on the relationship between cross-cultural influences and leadership development in Kuwait. This study was specifically designed to address these gaps in the literature with both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the research.

7.5.1 Theoretical Contributions

The development and testing of the ECL model was a significant theoretical contribution of the study because it was the first use of this type of model in cross-cultural leadership studies at the organisational level. The model proved to be extremely useful in understanding the factors influencing the relationships among individuals from various cultures employed in Kuwait who are forced to interact with each other and with managers accustomed to Kuwaiti leadership methods. The model demonstrated that leadership development is an important variable for managing individuals from
different cultures in the workforce. The successful application of the ECL model to the Kuwaiti context implies that it would be valuable in future cross-cultural leadership studies in environments other than Kuwait. The model would also be suitable for use with different variables related to leadership substituted for some or all of the variables used in this study. As a result, the ECL model provides an empirically verified framework for the testing of theoretical propositions related to cross-cultural leadership in many different contexts in developing and industrialised nations. An additional significant contribution to cross-cultural leadership theory was establishing the importance of the situational approach to leadership among managers required to interact with employees from varied cultural backgrounds. The study extended cross-cultural leadership theory by demonstrating that managers in Kuwait used different approaches to leadership based on cultural differences with subordinates, their personal leadership development experiences, and the circumstances determined by their position and the organisational objectives.

7.5.2. Methodological Contribution

The study made a methodological contribution through its use of a mixed methods approach to investigating cross-cultural leadership in a developing nation such as Kuwait. Previous research examining cross-cultural leadership has adopted either an exclusively quantitative approach using surveys to collect and compare data from a broad range of subjects a qualitative approach to collect data from small group of subjects. By using a mixed methods approach to the research, this study demonstrated that qualitative data about cross-cultural leadership obtained from respondents in a developing nation is useful for providing a broader understanding of quantitative findings.
An additional methodological contribution was a research design that enabled the collection of data related to cross-cultural leadership from a single country in the Middle East. Previous research examining cross-cultural leadership has often relied on data collected from subjects in many different nations or from Western nations with a large immigrant population attempting to assimilate the norms of the dominant culture.

Because previous researchers adopted either a quantitative or qualitative research methodology, the mixed methods approach used in this study demonstrated the effectiveness of using both qualitative and quantitative methods for answering the research questions. By combining the qualitative and quantitative approaches, this study demonstrated that objective and subjective methods are effective for answering research questions involving the complex phenomenon of cross-cultural leadership development programmes and practises.

7.5.3 Practical Contribution

An important practical contribution of the study was the information provided to managers faced with the concrete problems associated with leading employees from many different cultures. Among the specific study population of Kuwaiti bank managers, the leadership expectations and norms in Kuwaiti culture influenced their instinctive approach to leadership. Many of the managers, however, recognised that additional leadership development training and knowledge was necessary to lead a cross-cultural workforce. This information has practical importance for managers beyond the context of Kuwait banking organizations because of the increasingly common problem faced by managers of leading individuals from varied cultures. A particularly significant practical contribution of the study was that foreign leadership
practises contribute to the leadership development practices in an organisation with an international workforce. This information provides managers responsible for cross-cultural leadership with an indication of how they can obtain information about the leadership methods and styles that will be most effective in their situation. Managers can obtain information from their subordinates about leadership expectations to guide them when faced with a leadership issue, which is consistent with distributed leadership theory. They can also obtain information from the literature describing leadership practises in the home nations of their subordinates.

Because the study focused on the banking industry, it also makes a practical contribution to human resources planning for the industry in Kuwait and other Middle Eastern nations that employ a large number of international workers.

7.6 Limitations of the Study

Although the study developed and validated the ECL model for the specific context of the banking industry in Kuwait, the model and the other findings of the study may not be fully capable of generalisation to a larger population. The large sample size and the use of random selection support the ability to generalise the findings obtained in the quantitative phase of the study. The sample, however, reflected the specific situation in Kuwait in which international workers represent a large proportion of the workforce. While this situation is common in some Middle Eastern nations, it is not common in the majority of the nations outside the region. The findings obtained in the qualitative phase of the study are based on a small number of participants selected through purposeful sampling, which creates an additional limitation for the study. The qualitative findings only describe the perceptions and experiences as understood by the specific subjects of
this phase of the study and may not be representative of a larger population of bank managers in Kuwait or manager in other nations.

Another limitation of the study was its use of correlation methods of analysis for the quantitative phase of the study. While testing for a correlation and identifying the existence of a statistically significant path coefficient establishes the existence of relationships among variables, it does not establish a cause and effect relationship. In effect, the ECL model shows that a relationship exists between the independent and dependent variables in the model, but cannot prove that a change in an independent variable causes a change in the dependent variable. Other confounding variables not accounted for the research design of this study could play a role in producing changes in the dependent variables of leadership programmes development and leadership practices development.

An additional limitation of the study was the research design and sampling procedure that collected and analysed data about cross-cultural leadership only from managers and supervisors in Kuwaiti banks. While this approach provided data concerning the behaviours and views of individuals in leadership positions, it did not provide data from the employees or followers in the organisations. The data obtained from the managers and supervisors may be subject to self-reporting bias, which occurs when individuals are aware they are in a study situation and provide information intended that does not fairly or accurately reflect their behaviours or viewpoints (Hayes, 1992, p. 28). In effect, the data from this study concerning the leadership practises of managers and supervisors was not corroborated with information obtained from the employees in the banking organisations. The findings and conclusions of the study concerning the effectiveness of
leadership practices and leadership development programmes were assessed only from the viewpoint of managers and supervisors. The employees could have substantially different views about the nature of the leadership behaviours among their managers and supervisors, and the effect of cultural factors on their relationships with a leader. In distributed leadership theory, the followers can have a significant effect on the practices of a leader, and may have different perspectives of the effectiveness of the leader.

7.7 Suggestion for Further Research

Future research should examine the applicability of the ECL model in other industries and nations. This research should focus on the use of the model to assess cross-cultural leadership programmes development and practices development in large multinational organisations with a culturally diverse workforce. These organisations may be analogous to the banking industry in Kuwait because the firms employ individuals from many different nations and cultures. The traditional culture of the home nation could be substituted for the variable of training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership in the ECL model as developed in this study. The findings of such research could contribute to the understanding of the way in which cultural factors contribute to the design and implementation of cross-cultural leadership development programmes in global firms.

Future research should also investigate the direct effect of formal cross-cultural leadership development programmes incorporating distributed leadership techniques on the leadership methods and styles of managers in Kuwait and Middle Eastern nations. Because of the few opportunities for managers in the Gulf region to receive formal cross-cultural training, the effect of these programmes is uncertain. This type of
research could adopted an experimental design, with a randomly selected group of managers assigned to traditional leadership development training and another group assigned to cross-cultural leadership development training emphasising distributed leadership methods and techniques. Any differences in leadership methods or styles and perceived effectiveness of leadership among followers would be evidence of the relative value of the approaches for cross-cultural leadership. This type of experimental research could help to establish a cause-and-effect relationship between cross-cultural leadership training and leadership outcomes in Kuwait and other Middle Eastern nations.

7.8 Summary

This mixed methods study used concurrent quantitative and qualitative research to investigate the effect of cross-cultural influences on the leadership development programmes and leadership practices development in private banks in Kuwait. The quantitative phase of the study developed and validated the ECL model using SEM procedures for model analysis. The model testing determined that the independent variable constructs of cultural differences, training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, cross-cultural leadership development programmes, and international leadership practises have a statistically significant correlation with the dependent variables of leadership programmes development and leadership practises development. In addition, the four variables account for 49.3% of the variance in leadership programmes development and 43.2% of the variance in leadership practises development. The testing of the hypotheses found that a statistically significant direct relationship existed between the independent and dependent variables with the exception of the relationship between international leadership practises and leadership programmes development. Demographic variables had no moderating effect on the
relationships identified in the ECL model. The findings from the quantitative phase of the study suggest that distributed leadership approaches incorporated into cross-cultural leadership programmes and practises development could be beneficial for improving the understanding of cultural differences among managers.

The qualitative findings had explanatory value for the quantitative findings by identifying the interaction between leadership styles and leadership practise that influences the effectiveness of leadership for achieving the goals and objectives of the leader. The factors identified in the quantitative phase of the study as influencing leadership practise implicitly included the use of authoritarian, laissez faire, and participative leadership styles, which were identified in the qualitative phase of the study. The study also identified differences between back office and back office managers in leadership practise. The back office managers used a task approach to leadership with greater reliance on authoritarian styles and transactional methods while the front office managers used a relationship approach to leadership with some use of participative styles and transformational methods. These differences may explain some of the variance not accounted for in the ECL model.

Although the findings of the study have some limitations, the development of the ECL model and the findings make a contribution to the theoretical and practical literature concerning cross-cultural leadership in developing nations with a large international workforce such as Kuwait. This area of research has been overlooked in previous investigations. The findings of this study have demonstrated the importance of culture-related variables to cross-cultural leadership practises and cross-cultural leadership
development programmes. It also demonstrated the importance of using multiple research methods to obtain a better understanding of leadership behaviours.
References


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APPENDIX A: Survey Questionnaire (Quantitative Phase)
Dear Participant,

I am a PhD student under the supervision of Prof. Nelarine Corneliusnat and Dr. James Wallace, School of Management, Bradford University, United Kingdom. I would like to invite you to be a part of a research study. This research entitled: Examining leadership training and practices in the Kuwaiti banking industry. The aim of the study is to identify the relationship between cross-cultural influences and leadership development in the Kuwaiti banking industry.

The following survey is purely academic and it is part of the study conducted. The survey is intended to obtain information regarding your opinions about leadership training and practices. Although there is no compensation for responding to the questions in this survey, the information that you will provide is important for developing a better understanding of the perceptions and trends in the banking industry that benefit your firm which will provide a great contribution to the leadership development as well as academic study.

Your participation to complete this survey is completely voluntary which might require 15 to 20 minutes from your valuable time. There is no particular right or wrong answer to these questions. Please feel comfortable to state your opinion to answer the survey questionnaire.

ALL THE INFORMATION WILL BE KEPT ANONYMOUS AND WILL BE USED FOR THE STUDY PROPOSED ONLY. YOUR RESPONSE TO THE SURVEY WILL BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL AND WILL NOT BE EXPOSED TO ANY ONE INSIDE OR OUTSIDE YOUR ORGANISATION.

Sincerely,
Ammar Malallah

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Committee for Ethics in Research, School of Management, Bradford University. Phone: +44 (0) 1274 234393 E-mail: management@bradford.ac.uk
The Purpose of the Study is to Identify the Relationship Between Cross-Cultural Influences and Leadership Development in Kuwaiti Banking Industry.

Section A: Background of the Participant. (Demographic Data)
Please Choose the Appropriate Answer from the Following Questions

A1. What is your position in the firm?
   a  Manager    b  Supervisor

A2. What is your gender?
   a  Male       b  Female

A3. What is your age?
   a  20-29      b  30-39      c  40-49
   d  50-59      e  60+

A4. What is your nationality?
   a  Kuwaiti    b  Non Kuwaiti
      1.Middle Eastern  2.Europe  3.South Asian

A5. What is your education level?
   a  High School    b  Diploma    c  Bachelor
      d  Postgraduate  e  Other

A6. Where did you obtain your last qualification?
   a  Europe       b  USA
      c  Asia(Excluding Middle East)  d  Middle East

A7. How long have you been working at banking sector including your current bank?
   a  Less than 5 years  b  5-10 years
      c  19-20 years    d  More than 20 years
Section B: Leadership Programmes Development (Dependent Variable), (LPROGD)
Please rate the extent to which you agree with each statement below. (Please check √ only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(1) Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>(2) Disagree</th>
<th>(3) Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th>(4) Neither Disagree nor Agree</th>
<th>(5) Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>(6) Agree</th>
<th>(7) Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1. Leadership development needs formal training in leadership theory from the firm where I have been employed.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2. Leadership development needs courses at university that focused only on leadership theory.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3. Leadership development needs courses at university concerning management that included topics directly related to leadership theory</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4. Leadership development needs to encourage informal discussion of leadership issues with peers, supervisors, or human resources specialists.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5. Leadership development needs formal training courses in leadership theory on my own initiative not required by my employer since leaving university.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section C: Leadership Practices Development (Dependent Variable), (LPRACD)
Please rate the extent to which you agree with each statement below. (Please check √ only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(1) Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>(2) Disagree</th>
<th>(3) Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th>(4) Neither Disagree nor Agree</th>
<th>(5) Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>(6) Agree</th>
<th>(7) Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1. Leadership development needs formal training in leadership practice from the firm where I have been employed.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2. Leadership development needs courses at university that focused only on leadership practice.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3. Leadership development needs courses at university concerning management that included topics directly related to leadership practice.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4. Leadership development needs informal training in leadership practice such as mentoring at firms where I have been employed.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5. Leadership development needs formal training courses in leadership practice on my own initiative not required by my employer since leaving university.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section D: Cultural Differences (Independent Variable), (CD)
Please rate the extent to which you agree with each statement below. (Please check √ only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(1) Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>(2) Disagree</th>
<th>(3) Neither Disagree nor Agree</th>
<th>(4) Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>(5) Agree</th>
<th>(6) Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D1. Leading individuals from different nations requires an understanding of their culture.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D2. Misunderstandings in the workplace often develop because of differences in values among workers from various nations.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D3. Leading employees from different cultures is more difficult than leading only employees from Kuwait.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D4. Managers from Kuwait are effective leaders of cross-cultural work teams or groups.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D5. The role of the leader of international workers in a Kuwaiti bank is to ensure that they meet all objectives set by management.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D6. The nation of origin of workers is an important factor affecting the methods used to lead the workers.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D7. A different style or method of leadership should be used with each individual depending on their nation of origin.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D8. Leadership of international workers focuses on ensuring they conform to the practices and policies established in Kuwaiti banks.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D9. A Kuwaiti leader of international workers should allow workers to participate in make decisions related to their jobs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D10. A Kuwaiti leader of international workers should consult with subordinates before reaching a decision.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section E: Training and Development in Traditional Kuwaiti Leadership (Independent Variable), (TD)
Please rate the extent to which you agree with each statement below. (Please check √ only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(1) Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>(2) Disagree</th>
<th>(3) Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th>(4) Neither Disagree nor Agree</th>
<th>(5) Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>(6) Agree</th>
<th>(7) Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E1. Leadership skills are inborn and cannot be learned through training and development.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2. Leadership skills are best learned through formal training courses.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3. Leadership skills are can be learned through experience.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E4. Leadership is the same as management in practical situations.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5. The specific skills necessary to lead international teams can be learned through communication with the members of the team.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E6. A mentoring programme to allow leaders to consult with another manager experienced with a particular leadership problem can enhance leadership effectiveness.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E7. Organizations should establish in-house leadership training and development programmes suited for their specific industry.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E8. A manager should attempt to improve leadership skills without relying on a formal training and development programme provided by the organization.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E9. Leadership development programmes should include training about regulating emotions and recognizing the emotional responses of others.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E10. Leadership development programs should include training about methods to establish and maintain social networking relationships with subordinates.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section F: Cross-Cultural Leadership Development Programmes (Independent Variable), (CCLDP)
Please rate the extent to which you agree with each statement below. (Please check √ only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(1)Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>(2)Disagree</th>
<th>(3)Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th>(4)Neither Disagree nor Agree</th>
<th>(5)Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>(6)Agree</th>
<th>(7)Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1. Cross-cultural leadership training and development programmes are effective for improving the leadership skills of managers responsible for leading international workers.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2. Formal cross-cultural leadership training programmes are an effective method to provide information about different cultures.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3. Formal cross-cultural leadership training programmes are more effective when they allow participants to practice leadership skills with simulated exercises.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4. Cross-cultural leadership training programmes can help to create better alignment between the expectations of leaders and subordinates from different cultures.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F5. Cross-cultural leadership training programmes can help to increase job satisfaction among workers by fostering better understanding of cultural issues among leaders and subordinates.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F6. Managers without enough understanding of the cultures of subordinates should take responsibility for obtaining information outside of formal leadership development programmes.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F7. Cross-cultural leadership development programmes can help managers to use different styles of leadership based on the expectations for leader behaviour among individuals from different cultures.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F8. Cross-cultural leadership development programmes are not necessary because leadership is the same in all cultures.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F9. Cross-cultural leadership development programmes can help Kuwaiti managers understand the factors motivating employees from different cultures.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F10. Cross-cultural leadership development programmes can help Kuwaiti managers to use appropriate conflict management approaches when misunderstandings arise with international workers.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section G: International Leadership Practices (Independent Variable), (ILP)

Please rate the extent to which you agree with each statement below. (Please check √ only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(1) Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>(2) Disagree</th>
<th>(3) Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th>(4) Neither Disagree nor Agree</th>
<th>(5) Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>(6) Agree</th>
<th>(7) Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G1. The presence of a many international workers in Kuwaiti banks has changed the leadership practices of Kuwaiti managers</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G2. Increased globalization of the Kuwaiti banking industry has influenced the leadership methods and styles of managers</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G3. Leadership development programmes should be available to all employees in the organization</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G4. Leadership development programmes should incorporate the methods used for leadership in other nations</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G5. The leadership methods used in Europe has had a significant influence on the leadership methods used in Kuwait</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G6. The leadership methods used in the United States has had a significant influence on the leadership methods used in Kuwait</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G7. The leadership methods used in Asia has a significant influence on the leadership methods used in Kuwait</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G8. Kuwaiti values often conflict with the values shared in other cultures</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G9. Because of international influences, Kuwaiti managers have adopted participatory leadership styles with the workers</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G10. Because of international influences, Kuwaiti managers have adopted a situational leadership style using different methods with each subordinate</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G11. Because of international influences, Kuwaiti managers have adopted a goal-oriented leadership style by bargaining with subordinates to meet these goals</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you for your time and corporation.
If you have any inquiry regarding this questionnaire survey, please contact at a.a.y.malallah@bradford.ac.uk / Phone: 99210005
APPENDIX B: Semi Structured Interview (Qualitative Phase Protocol)
Dear Participant,

I am a PhD student under the supervision of Prof. Nelarine Corneliusnat and Dr. James Wallace, School of Management, Bradford University, United Kingdom. I would like to invite you to be a part of a research study. This research entitled: Examining leadership training and practices in the Kuwaiti banking industry. The aim of the study is to identify the relationship between cross-cultural influences and leadership development in the Kuwaiti banking industry.

The interview is purely academic and it is part of the study conducted. The interview is intended to obtain information regarding your opinions about leadership training and practices. Although there is no compensation for responding to the participation in this interview, the information that you will provide is important for developing a better understanding of the perceptions and trends in the banking industry that benefit your firm which will provide a great contribution to the leadership development as well as academic study.

Your participation to complete this interview is completely voluntary which might require 20 to 30 minutes from your valuable time. There is no particular right or wrong answer to these questions. Please feel comfortable to state your opinion to answer the survey questionnaire.

ALL THE INFORMATION WILL BE KEPT ANONYMOUS AND WILL BE USED FOR THE STUDY PROPOSED ONLY.
YOUR RESPONSE TO THE SURVEY WILL BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL AND WILL NOT BE EXPOSED TO ANY ONE INSIDE OR OUTSIDE YOUR ORGANISATION.

Sincerely,
(Ammar Malallah)

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Committee for Ethics in Research, School of Management, Bradford University. Phone: +44 (0) 1274 234393 E-mail: management@bradford.ac.uk

I am the interviewee, aware that the interview will be recorded, stored, and kept strictly confidential. I am pleased to participate to the interview as long my answers will be used for the study proposed only and my personal data will be kept anonymous.

The interviewee,
(Signature)
Interview Questions

1. How do managers lead international teams of workers in your bank?

2. What types of leadership behaviours and skills do you use?

3. Have the leadership methods or styles changed since you began working at the bank, and if so how have they changed?

4. What are some of the problems with leadership that you have encountered with employees from different cultures?

5. How have these problems been resolved or remedied?

6. How do you vary your leadership styles and methods based on their country of origin and the country of origin of their subordinates?

7. What type of leadership development programmes are offered at your bank?

8. What information or skills do these leadership development programmes teach?

9. What type of leadership development programmes is available outside of the bank, and what do these programmes teach?

10. In an ideal leadership development programme, what type of approach should be used to teach employees about cross-cultural leadership?
APPENDIX C: Questionnaire Instrument
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept to Explore</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Academic reference to support central research question/gap</th>
<th>References</th>
<th>Items No. in the survey questionnaire</th>
<th>Interview questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Programmes Development</td>
<td>Formal &amp; informal leadership training programmes, leadership knowledge and skills</td>
<td>To provide the individuals the necessary leadership knowledge based on the needs of the organisation</td>
<td>Avolio, B (2005) Bass, B (2000) Fulmer, R &amp;</td>
<td>Section B B1-B5</td>
<td>2. What types of leadership behaviours and skills do you use?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5. How have these problems been resolved or remedied?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concept to Explore</td>
<td>Construct</td>
<td>Academic reference to support central research question/gap</td>
<td>References</td>
<td>Items No. in the survey questionnaire</td>
<td>Interview questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Training and development | Cross-cultural leadership development | Traditional leadership paradigms in Kuwait, the increased internationalisation of the workforce and operations, and the Kuwaiti attitudes towards leadership and management | Abdalla & Al-Homoud, (2001)  
Johnson, LENartowicz, & Apud (2006)  
Macpherson, Kachelhoffer, & El Nemr (2007)  
Miller & Sharda (2000)  
Noer, Leupold, & Val(2007)  
Yeo, 2007 | Section E E1-E10 | 6. How do you vary your leadership styles and methods based on their country of origin and the country of origin of their subordinates?  
7. What type of leadership development programmes are offered at your bank? |
| Effect of cross-cultural leadership development programmes | Leadership behaviours and perceptions of international followers about leadership behaviours | The construct examines the effect of cross-cultural leadership development programmes on the degree of congruence between leadership behaviours and perceptions of followers | Al-Mailam (2004)  
Chan, Tjosvold & Fang(2005)  
Luo & Shenkar (2006) | Section F F1-F10 | 8. What information or skills do these leadership development programmes teach?  
9. What type of leadership development programmes is available outside of the bank, and what do these programmes teach? |
| Effect of international leadership practises on leadership development programmes | Distributed leadership, transactional leadership, situational leadership, transformational leadership | The construct examines the perceptions about including different international cross-cultural leadership practices into Kuwaiti leadership development programmes | Bass (2000)  
Fu, et al. (2004)  
Miner (2002)  
Pillai, Scandura, & Williams (1999)  
Rosen, et al. (2000)  
Spillane (2006) | Section G G1-G11 | 10. In an ideal leadership development programme, what type of approach should be used to teach employees about cross-cultural leadership? |
APPENDIX D: Coding Sheet
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Question No.</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td></td>
<td>Case number</td>
<td>Case number</td>
<td>1-515</td>
<td>Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>1= manager</td>
<td>a) Manager</td>
<td>2 options</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2= supervisor</td>
<td>b) Supervisor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>A2</td>
<td>1= male</td>
<td>a) Male</td>
<td>2 options</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2= female</td>
<td>b) Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>A3</td>
<td>1= 20-29</td>
<td>a) 20-29</td>
<td>5 options</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
</tr>
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APPENDIX E: Standardised Residual Covariances for Indicators for all Latent Constructs after Deleting Indicators
|     | lpl6 | lpl5 | lpl3 | lpl2 | lpl1 | ecdp7 | ecdp6 | ecdp5 | ecdp3 | ecdp2 | ecdp1 | td10 | td9 | td7 | td6 | ud2 | ed10 | ed9 | ed8 | ed7 | ed6 | ed5 | ed4 | ed3 | ed2 | ed1 | prac5 | prac4 | prac3 | prac2 | prac1 | prog5 | prog4 | prog3 | prog2 | prog1 |
|-----|------|------|------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| lpl6 |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| lpl5 | -411 |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| lpl3 |      | 888  |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| lpl2 |      |      | -639 |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| lpl1 |      |      |      | -700 |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| ecdp7 |      |      |      |      | 555  |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| ecdp6 |      |      |      |      | 391  |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| ecdp5 |      |      |      |      | 313  |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| ecdp3 |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| ecdp2 |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| ecdp1 |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| td10 |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| td9  |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| td7  |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| td6  |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| td2  |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| cd10 |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| cd9  |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| cd7  |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
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| cd2  |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
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| prac2 |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |       |       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
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APPENDIX F: Multiple Group Analysis
Position Cases
Unstandardised Estimates

Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Unconstrained Model for Managers
Position Cases
Unstandardised Estimates

Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Unconstrained Model for Supervisors
**Position Cases**

**Unstandardised Estimates**

**Four Exogenous Latent Constructs:** CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

**Two Endogenous Latent Constructs:** LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

*Constrained (combined) Model for Position*
Gender Cases
Unstandardised Estimates

Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Unconstrained Model for Male
**Gender Cases**

**Unstandardised Estimates**

**Four Exogenous Latent Constructs:** CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

**Two Endogenous Latent Constructs:** LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

**Unconstrained Model for Female**
Gender Cases
Unstandardised Estimates

Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD= Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Constrained (combined) Model for Gender
Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Unconstrained Model for Younger
Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Unconstrained Model for Older
Age Cases

Unstandardised Estimates

**Four Exogenous Latent Constructs:** CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

**Two Endogenous Latent Constructs:** LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

*Constrained (combined) Model for Age*
Nationality Cases
Unstandardised Estimates

Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD= Leadershio programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Unconstrained Model for Middle East
Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Unconstrained Model for Europe
Position Cases
Unstandardised Estimates

Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Unconstrained Model for South Asia
Nationality Cases
Unstandardised Estimates

Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Constrained (combined) Model for Nationality
Education Level Cases
Unstandardised Estimates

Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development
Education Level Cases
Unstandardised Estimates

Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices
Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Unconstrained Model for Bachelor
Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD = Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Unconstrained Model for Postgraduate Education Level Cases

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Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD= Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Constrained (combined) Model for Educational Level
Banking Experience Cases
Unstandardised Estimates

Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD= Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Unconstrained Model for 10 years or less of Banking Experience
Banking Experience Cases
Unstandardised Estimates

Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices
Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD= Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Unconstrained Model for more than 10 years of Banking Experience
Four Exogenous Latent Constructs: CD = Cultural Differences, TD = Training and development in traditional Kuwaiti leadership, CCLDP = Cross-cultural leadership development programmes, ILP = International leadership practices

Two Endogenous Latent Constructs: LPROGD= Leadership programmes development, LPRACD = Leadership practices development

Constrained (combined) Model for Banking Experience