

Participative Leadership Behavior among Business Leaders in China

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ABSTRACT

Over the past decade, the Chinese economy has grown to become the second largest in the world. In order to survive in rapidly changing global markets, Chinese management teams must adopt an appropriate leadership style to retain talented employees and attract competent applicants to the company. Therefore, in order to understand whether a participative leadership style has been adopted among Chinese companies, this study identified three kinds of corporations in China: (a) branch offices of foreign enterprises or joint-venture corporations (JVEs); (b) Chinese privately owned enterprises doing international business (POEIs); and (c) Chinese privately owned enterprises doing domestic business only (POELs). This study used the Empowering Leadership Questionnaire (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000) to assess participants' perceptions of participative leadership behaviors among their supervisors. Of 460 in the sample pool of Chinese employees with at least one year of experience in their current companies who received the survey by email, there were 346 with valid data, and the final response rate was 76.3%. After utilizing factor analyses, frequency table, one-way ANOVA, and Tukey-HSD post hoc test, two significant differences existed in the (a) informing; and (b) participative decision-making and coaching behavior of participative leadership style between POELs and JVEs, and both indicated that POELs produced higher levels of perception than JVEs. Furthermore, three specific behaviors were identified to explain these differences: (a) explains company goals; (b) explains company decisions; and (c) listens to my work group's ideas and suggestions. This research provides HRD professionals with a reference to help supervisors develop

participative leadership in China, recognizing the items on which supervisors generally scored the lowest within the Chinese context.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Not only is China the world's most populous nation with over 1.3 billion people, but, since 2002, the Chinese economy has kept its growth rate at over 8%, making China the world's second-largest economy (Associated Press, 2010; Black, 2013; Blecher, 2009; Robertson, Olson, Gilley, & Bao, 2007; Trading Economics, n.d.; Wang & Wheatley, 2010; Wu, 2010). Even during the recent global economic meltdown, China's economy grew 7.8% in 2012 (Black, 2013). During the past 20 years, more than 400 corporations ranked in the Fortune 500 have invested in China, and over 70% of Chinese CEOs have indicated plans to make more aggressive investments to expand their businesses (Brousseau, Ho, & Tseng, 2005). Clearly, Chinese businesses have entered the global market and continue to grow at a rapid pace.

To manage a global business, a corporate management team must adopt an appropriate leadership style in order to retain talented employees, attract competent applicants to the company, and advance their organization among rapidly changing global markets. Brousseau, Ho, and Tseng (2005) studied the leadership styles of Chinese business leaders, including state-owned enterprises (SOEs), privately-owned enterprises (POEs), and multinational and joint venture enterprises (JV9Es). Their research concluded that Chinese business leaders are inclined to have decisive and hierarchical styles. These leadership styles are both more task-oriented and intellectual than the social and participative leadership styles of North American business leaders, which tend to be more flexible and integrative than those of their Chinese counterparts (Brousseau et al., 2005). Further, their research found that task-oriented and intellectual leadership styles

dominated Chinese manager' styles, regardless of rank or position within an organization or the method under which the organization was owned. This leadership style is in sharp contrast with other countries (Brousseau et al., 2005), where managers move up through an organization from an entry level and adapt their leadership styles to meet the requirements of each new position or situation. Managers from other countries generally demonstrate task-oriented and intellectual leadership styles, and become more social and participative as they grow into more demanding leadership roles. Conversely, Chinese managers and executives do not demonstrate this type of leadership development (Brousseau et al., 2005).

As a company grows into a multinational organization, the more decisive and hierarchical Chinese management styles may not be suitable. Brousseau et al. (2005) indicated that some autocratic decisions made by Chinese managers are not always thorough and are often less competitive in the global market. In order to compete with global businesses, therefore, Chinese managers may need to develop a more social and participative leadership style that will effectively gather information from various perspectives, make decisions that promote better quality, and set feasible goals in the process (Yukl, 2002).

Participative Leadership and Competitive Advantage

Participative leadership occurs when a manager seeks to involve company employees, to solicit their ideas and take their suggestions into serious consideration before making decisions (Chen & Tjosvold, 2006). This leadership style is characterized by consultation, empowerment, joint decision-making, democratic leadership, and power sharing (Clark, 2007), and should not be considered a sign of weakness. Rather,

participative leadership is a sign of strength that employees respect, and which, in turn, can have a strong effect on employee satisfaction and commitment (Howell & Dorfman, 1988). In addition, Yukl (2002) suggested that participative leadership offers a variety of potential benefits, including: (a) a higher quality of decision-making because several participants together make better decisions than does one person alone; (b) more understanding of issues and greater acceptance of decisions by participants; (c) greater participant satisfaction with the decision-making process, more commitment to resultant actions from their decision-making, and increased social loyalty to one another, as well as dedication to the decision's outcome; and (d) increased development of decision-making skills by participants. These benefits are especially important in global businesses in which the complexity of business decisions is far greater than what an organization expects within its own nation.

Many executives consider complexity to be the real leadership challenge.

Maznevski, Steger, and Amann (2007) identified four major sources that interact with each other, creating the complexity of doing global business: (a) diversity of stakeholders, employees, and customers; (b) interdependence of every matter, such as reputation, financial flows, value chain flows, top management, and corporate governance issues; (c) ambiguity of information, such as financial figures, studies, scenarios, and survey results that are interpreted differently from different perspectives by different individuals; and (d) situational flux of solutions in which today's solutions may be outdated tomorrow.

Clinton and Nouri (2002) found that leaders preferred a participative leadership style to make decisions that involve high levels of complexity; an autocratic leadership style is not usually a decision-making style in global organizations.

Moreover, many researchers (Brousseau et al., 2005; Kao, 2005; Ralston, Gustafson, Terpstra, & Holt, 1995) have begun studying concerns as to whether a participative leadership style is acceptable among Chinese business executives and managers in a manner that will enable them to lead their employees to maintain product competitiveness. Brousseau et al. (2005) indicated that Chinese business leaders are inclined to use decisive and hierarchical styles. Other researchers, including Kao (2005), however, found that employee youth and corporate locations in modern regions or cities were factors that promoted Chinese managers becoming more open to developing a participative leadership style. Furthermore, Ralston et al. (1995) agreed that age is a factor in whether Chinese managers would choose to adopt a participative leadership style. Such research indicated that young Chinese managers are more willing to adopt western ways of thinking than are the older generations of managers. In addition, modern regions and cities of China are also more likely to accept a participative leadership style. Kao's (2005) research showed that an empowering leadership style—assigning task responsibility and letting employees follow through on their own initiative—was used more than the other three leadership styles—directing, coaching, and supporting—in Shanghai. Does this mean that a participative leadership style has started to become accepted by younger corporate leaders as well as corporate leaders in modern cities?

Participative Leadership Style in China

Some researchers (Bond, 1996; Hofstede, 1991, 2001; Hui & Tan, 1996) have expressed doubt that participative leadership could work effectively in China, as the country's culture is one in which power (i.e., management authority) must be exerted over vast distances, a circumstance that promotes the virtues of submission, humility,

tolerance, and hierarchy (Hofstede, 1991, 2001). Furthermore, China is greatly influenced by Confucian ideology, wherein leaders are expected to act as the quasi-parent of a group or organization and practice authoritarian control over that group or organization (Bond, 1996; Hui & Tan, 1996). This type of leadership style is called paternalistic leadership. This approach is broadly defined as a father-like leadership style, in which clear and strong authority is combined with concern, consideration, and elements of moral leadership. It is an indigenous leadership style rooted in China's SOEs and POEs. Farh, Cheng, Chou, and Chu (2006) found that paternalistic leadership was not only applied in POEs in China, but also applied to overseas Chinese family businesses.

Other researchers (Tsui, Wang, Xin, Zhang, & Fu, 2004) have contended that Communist ideologies that emphasize whole-hearted service to the people, loyalty to the Party and the leader, and hard work and self-sacrifice for collective interests also help foster a more command-based leadership style in typical Chinese enterprises. Schermerhorn and Nyaw (1990) found that employees in such enterprises tended to submit to this leadership style and might not be accustomed to—or even receptive of—participative leadership behaviors. However, it has been 23 years since that research, and China has changed in numerous ways, including—as this research will show—employers' approaches to leadership style in Chinese enterprises. Huang, Shi, Zhang, and Cheung (2006) indicated that the influence of participative leadership behaviors on Chinese employees is more complex than other studies have suggested. They found that participative leadership behaviors were positively related to the competence dimension of psychological empowerment and organizational commitment. Participative leadership

tends to make short-tenured employees feel competent to perform their tasks and, therefore, they are more committed to their organizations.

In contrast, Huang et al. (2006) stated that participative leadership behaviors are less likely to produce feelings of competence and organizational commitment in long-tenured employees because those employees are reluctant to make changes that concern their jobs. This research (Huang et al., 2006) is consistent with the suggestion (Chen & Francesco, 2000; Lo & Aryee, 2003) that individual employee characteristics, such as age and tenure in an organization, might explain the differing reactions of Chinese employees toward a new leadership style.

Compared with employees in typical enterprises, the leadership style in JVEs depends on whether the joint venture includes an existing organization or creates a new organization (Bond, 1996). JVEs in China typically comprise one Chinese company and one western company in a strategic alliance to form a partnership. Each faction of the company normally requests their management team to join the new partnership company. However, compatibility needs to be improved between managers who favor different values, leadership styles, and corporate cultures. Wang (1989) studied the enhancement of participation and organizational improvement by emphasizing task commitment and group responsibility. Research has indicated that, in JVEs, participation can increase skill utilization and morale, and lead to higher quality decision-making. Jamal and Xie (1991) concluded that participative leadership would bring greater satisfaction and more job involvement as well as less role stress in Chinese companies. Dorfman and Howell's (1988) study cited similar findings among U.S. American employees. Most of the cited research studies (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Jamal & Xie, 1991; Wang, 1989) are over 22

years old. However, if applying the principles of participative leadership behavior shows similar positive outcomes, Chinese companies may well have adopted such a style in the past few years. Therefore, this study will update current information about whether Chinese leaders have adopted—or may in the future adopt—a participative leadership style in their organizations.

Problem Statement

Participative leadership has been developed from western society's cultural, democratic background. Under globalization, businesses need talent and creative ideas to develop their products in a manner that will enable them to maintain their competitiveness in the global market. Participative leadership style, in some contexts, has been shown to help decision-makers best determine what decisions to make (Clark, 2007). In what contexts do Chinese leaders adopt a participative leadership style to manage in their organizations? To answer that question, this study will consider two research questions:

1. Are there any differences of employees' perceptions of participative leadership behavior among Chinese enterprises?
2. To what extent do Chinese supervisors exhibit the characteristics of participative leadership behaviors in Chinese enterprises and are these behaviors reflected differently based on type of organization?

In order to answer these questions, this study identifies three kinds of corporations in China: (a) branch offices of foreign enterprises (JVEs); (b) Chinese privately owned enterprises doing international business (POEIs); and (c) Chinese privately owned enterprises doing local business only (POELs).

Significance of the Study

This study integrates western leadership theories within Chinese leadership contexts to create a strong theoretical foundation with which to explore whether: (a) China is ready for participative leadership, and (b) what Chinese enterprises currently need to develop participative leadership. As suggested by Brousseau et al. (2005), a participative leadership style in China may allow the nation to compete with global businesses and maintain a competitive edge. This study explores the existence of a participative leadership style in China and the obstacles leaders must overcome to develop a participative leadership style.

The significance of this study is threefold. First, this study provides empirical evidence to bridge the knowledge gap that might exist between employees' and supervisors' perceptions of participative leadership style. Through this study, Human Resource Development (HRD) professionals will be able to develop training programs to bridge knowledge gaps between employees and their supervisors as leaders develop feasible participative leadership styles.

Second, rather than measuring the fitness of western leadership style in China, this study utilizes a demographic perspective to study the factors in China that promote a participative leadership style. This study explores demographic factors that show a preference toward successful participative leadership in China.

Finally, this study provides HRD professionals with a reference through which to explore leadership development in China. Just as thousands of new multinational corporations are entering the global market, a participative leadership style may be beginning to develop. Fortunately, years of experience in developing a participative

leadership style in other parts of the world may be a valuable asset to help Chinese enterprises transition smoothly into the global marketplace. As in McLean and McLean's (2001) definition, HRD is

any process or activity that, either initially or over the long term, has the potential to develop adults' work-based knowledge, expertise, productivity and satisfaction, whether for personal or group/team gain, or for the benefit of an organization, community, nation or, ultimately, the whole of humanity. (p. 322)

Participative leadership development will benefit Chinese enterprises initially because of increasing productivity and satisfaction (Hui, 2004).

After successful experiences from these first enterprises, Chinese employees might begin to express their ideas more freely, listen to others' opinions, share common goals, make their own decisions, and willingly take more responsibility for what they are doing, especially when their actions are based on their own decisions. As soon as Chinese leaders and individuals share ideas about the greater good for the environment and the world, humanity will also benefit. China's role as a model to protect and cherish the resources in the world will set an example the world can follow.

Definitions of Key Terms

This section provides definitions of the three major constructs. Comprehensive reviews of each of these constructs are presented in Chapter 2.

Chinese Leadership

Yao (1996) concluded that leadership is a new academic field for the Chinese. The best way to learn about Chinese leadership is to read the biographies of famous leaders in ancient Chinese history. Since the style of Chinese leadership depends on

experience, leaders have generally kept their thoughts on the subject of leadership secret. Littrell (2002) considered that a Chinese leader has broad and unquestioned authority; leaders must be more skilled in the technical and performance-based aspects of their jobs in order to lead employees effectively. Therefore, Littrell concluded that older employees are leaders because they have wider experience and more practice in the job. The authority of elders is ingrained in Chinese society and culture.

Leadership Style

Brousseau et al. (2005) considered leadership style as the way in which a person makes decisions and acts on them in a business context, and the approaches a person uses when interacting in groups, influencing others, motivating people, and presenting information.

Participative Leadership

Participative leadership is a style in which a leader involves team members in making decisions, which is essential when creative thinking is needed to solve complex problems (McCrimmon, 2007). Even after team member involved, however, the leader makes the final decisions.

Summary

This study assesses perceived participative leadership styles in China from the perspectives of both business leaders and their employees. The study seeks to determine the participative leadership knowledge and skills needed by business leaders in China. It also seeks to discover whether differences exist between the business leaders and their employees in terms of the perceived importance of participative leadership training needs.

Some research (Bond, 1996; Hofstede, 1991, 2001; Hui & Tan, 1996) has found that autocratic leadership in traditional enterprises was very common in China. However, other research (Chen & Francesco, 2000; Huang et al., 2006; Lo & Aryee, 2003) has discovered that participative leadership has begun to emerge in JVEs. More current research is needed to address specific participative leadership training needs for Chinese business leaders that can help HRD professionals and practitioners develop participative leadership training programs. Research results can contribute to methods used to achieve acceptance of participative leadership in China, as well as to train and develop necessary participative leadership skills among Chinese management.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

As discussed in Chapter 1, the purpose of this study was to examine whether business leaders in China perceive that a participative leadership style exists. This chapter reviews leadership views and theories, discusses how globalization affects leadership style, and how leadership style affects Chinese enterprises. Specifically, this chapter suggests how a participative leadership style could make a difference for China in the global market.

Typically, the founders of any organization have a specific vision of and mission for their organization, including setting the ultimate goal that the organization wishes to reach and recruiting people who have an interest in the stated mission and are willing to work together to accomplish the ultimate goal. Normally, in the initial stages, founders are leaders within the organization. As the organization expands and succeeds, founders bring more people into the organization to make it grow larger and stronger in order to complete the vision. These new people are followers of the founders who, in turn, lead others to accomplish certain tasks within the organization. A leader is a futurist who defines the directions of the organization, an ambassador who represents the face of the organization, and an analyst, who forecasts opportunities for and challenges to the organization (Vogan, 2006). After organization founders make decisions, organization leaders influence their employees to overcome resistance and implement those decisions (Mills, 2005). Obviously, leadership is a very important factor that helps maximize organizational efficiency, achieve organizational goals, and promote organizational vision, just as a quarterback leads his team toward a touchdown in football. In the stock

market, investors understand that a strong leader can turn a weak business plan into a success, while a weak leader may ruin even the best business plan (Mills, 2005; Orans, 1997).

Views of Leadership

Researchers who have conceptualized leadership have provided different views and definitions of leadership. In the process view of leadership, the focus is on the process by which an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2007). In the trait view of leadership, the focus is on specific personality traits that differentiate leaders from followers (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2007). In the skill view of leadership, effective leadership is developed through acquiring knowledge and abilities (Katz, 1955; Northouse, 2007). Finally, the style view of leadership emphasizes what leaders do and how they act (Stogdill, 1948). None of these views is perfect; however, each provides a framework for providing directions about how to understand leadership and develop successful ideas through which individuals can become better leaders. Each view of leadership has its own specific characteristics (see Table 1).

Table 1

Views of Leadership

View	Born or Learned	Key Ideas
Process	Learned	Focused on a phenomenon that stays in context and makes leadership available to everyone.
Trait	Born	Focused on identifying the innate qualities and characteristics possessed by famous and successful leaders.
Skill	Learned	Focuses on skills and abilities that effective leaders can learn and develop.
Style	Learned	Focuses on the behavior of a leader.

The Process View of Leadership

The major emphasis of the process view of leadership that makes leadership available to everyone as something that can be learned (Northouse, 2007). The process view emphasizes leadership as an interactive process of an event rather than as a one-way direction of that event, which is how the trait view of leadership sees a leader, that is, as a special person with inborn talents (Northouse, 2007).

In studies of the process view of leadership, some researchers focused on emergent leadership in which an individual who is the most influential member of an organization, regardless of that individual's title, is viewed as a leader. Thus, a successful leader emerges over time through positive communication behavior, such as being verbally involved, seeking others' opinions, and initiating new ideas (Fisher, 1974; Yamaguchi, 2001). Smith and Foti (1998) studied specific personality traits of emergent leadership and found that such leaders are more dominant, more intelligent, and more confident about their own performance and have better self-efficacy.

Unlike the trait view of leadership, the process view of leadership suggests that positive communication behavior and the three personality traits cited earlier are learned behaviors that everyone can develop.

The Trait View of Leadership

The trait view of leadership was one of the first systematic attempts to study leadership (Northouse, 2007). Researchers were interested in identifying the innate qualities and characteristics possessed by great political and military leaders, such as Mohandas Gandhi, Abraham Lincoln, and Napoleon. However, Stogdill (1948) challenged this trait-centered approach, suggesting that a leader who possessed these

traits also needed the appropriate social situation to become a great leader, which means the leaders need to experience critical events to perform their leadership behavior. For example, Abraham Lincoln was a great leader not only because of his leadership traits, but also because he led the North to win the Civil War, a social phenomenon that made him a leader to remember. This concept is similar to a Chinese proverb that says, “The hero creates a situation; the situation produces a hero” (Li, 2010, p. 1).

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) emphasized the importance of leadership traits because a leader who has them is not like other people. These researchers suggested that effective leaders differ from followers in six traits: (a) drive to achieve and take initiative; (b) leadership motivation that desires to lead but not to seek power; (c) honesty and integrity; (d) self-confidence, which is associated with emotional stability; (e) cognitive ability; and (f) knowledge of the business or situation. Even the last trait may not be a trait; however, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) pointed out that these traits need not be inherent in an individual; they can be learned and developed and should be recognized as an important part of the leadership process.

The Skill View of Leadership

The skill view of leadership focuses on skills and abilities that effective leaders can learn and develop (Northouse, 2007). Some scholars (e.g., Katz, 1955; Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000) have maintained that leaders can obtain certain skills that would assist them in effective performance. Mumford et al. (2000) proposed a skill-based model of leadership that found significant relationships between certain skills and performance. Consequently, the skill view of leadership provides a structure for understanding the nature of successful leadership. Specifically, leaders can

enhance performance by improving problem-solving and social judgment skills, as well as increasing subject matter knowledge.

However, one criticism of the skill view of leadership is that it lacks research into the cause and effect aspect of how competence in certain skills predicts leadership performance. Moreover, some of the existing research of the skill-based model of leadership was conducted with military personnel and may be inappropriate to generalize to other organizational settings (Northouse, 2007). The skill view of leadership suggests that, if individuals are capable of learning from their experiences and acquiring new skills, they can become leaders.

The Style View of Leadership

The style view of leadership focuses on the behavior of a leader, which distinguishes it from the trait view of leadership that emphasizes the leader's personality characteristics, and the skill view of leadership that emphasizes the leader's skills and abilities. The style view of leadership emphasizes what leaders do and how they act (Northouse, 2007). This approach was the focus of these studies: (a) the Ohio State University studies (Stogdill, 1974); (b) the University of Michigan studies (Likert, 1961, 1967); (c) the Blake and Mouton studies in designing a Leadership Grid (Blake & Mouton, 1964); (d) Hersey-Blanchard situational leadership model (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977); and (e) Bass' theory of transactional/transformational leadership (Bass, 1990).

The Ohio State University's research developed the leader behavior description questionnaire (LBDQ), in which they found that subordinates' responses came together in two types of leader behavior: task behavior and relationship behavior (Stogdill, 1974). Similarly, the University of Michigan studies also identified two types of leadership

behavior: employee orientation and production orientation (Likert, 1961, 1967). The third well-known model of managerial behavior was the managerial grid, renamed the leadership grid, which was proposed to explain how leaders help organizations reach their mission through two factors: concern for production and concern for people (Blake & Mouton, 1964). The situational leadership model is focused on the fit of leadership style and a follower's maturity, which is indicated by the follower's readiness to perform in a given situation. Leaders who emphasize either task or relationship behavior in this model can adopt four different leadership styles to deal with different levels of followers' maturity (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).

Bass' theory of transactional/transformational leadership recognizes that there are different types of leadership, both of which are necessary in an organization.

Transformational leaders transform, or change, his or her followers. As a result, followers trust the leader, perform behaviors that contribute to the achievement of organizational goals, and are motivated to set a higher standard of performance (Bass, 1990). Transactional leadership, on the other hand, considers that the necessary tasks that every organization requires from top management get done by exchanging things with subordinates to advance both interests and agendas (Bass, 1990).

Taken together, most of these studies established that a leader's style consists primarily of two major types of behavior: task/production and relationship/people. Task or production orientation refers to how a leader is concerned with achieving organizational tasks, and relationship or people orientation refers to how a leader attends to the people in the organization who are trying to achieve its goals (Blake & Mouton, 1964). The studies suggest that a successful leader understands how to balance these two

behaviors and how to work with subordinates in order to complete both the organization's mission and specific tasks. Therefore, based on the style view of leadership, leaders can assess their own behavior and determine how they could change certain behaviors to improve their leadership style (Northouse, 2007).

However, the style view of leadership also lacks enough research to support how leaders' styles are associated with performance outcomes (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Yukl, 1994). In addition, the style view of leadership implies that the most effective leadership style is consistent with both high task and high relationship oriented styles. However, different situations and work environments may require use of different leadership styles to direct subordinates successfully to be more effective and productive (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Yukl, 1994). For example, the leader in a production line factory may not need too much relationship behavior but would likely rely on task behavior in order to get things done quickly.

Although there is some indication that a more considerate leadership style would create more satisfied employees (Yukl, 1994), the style view of leadership might have a greater possibility of keeping employees in the organization. Retention of employees may mean a lower turnover rate, as well as saved time and money to seek and train suitable new employees, assuming new employees will be hired. The style view of leadership may be preferable in some cases because it regards human capital as a major asset. Further, this perspective contends that a more participative leadership style will develop a mutual communication platform that allows employees to feel more personal control, trust in their jobs, and more satisfied with their work. When these factors are not present, employees might quit their jobs simply to rid themselves of bad leaders, even

though they like their workplaces (Wilson, 2010). A Gallup survey found that leaders should look at themselves whenever an employee resigns, rather than blaming factors such as salary and workplace environment for the departure. The Gallup survey also indicated that an employee's relationship with a leader is as important as their relationship with a spouse (Wilson, 2010).

Participative Leadership and Empowerment Leadership

Participative leadership is similar to empowerment leadership. Participative leadership is characterized by consulting, empowerment, joint decision-making, democratic leadership, and power sharing (Clark, 2007; Somech, 2005). There is a positive relation between participative leadership and empowerment. When a leader empowers employees, from the social exchange theory perspective, those employees will likely reciprocate in a positive manner by becoming more responsive to the leader. In other words, leaders who provide negotiating latitude and encouragement of self-worth empower employees by heightening their perceptions of control (Somech, 2005). Moreover, research found that leaders who empowered employees through their leadership were seen as being fair (Keller & Dansereau, 1995). In essence, empowerment is not simply a set of external behaviors; it is a process of changing the internal values of people (Conger, 1989). A participative leader enables employees to feel empowered and to express their own ideas and values, which cause employees to feel capable of and strive toward shaping their work roles and work contexts (Spreitzer, 1995). Currently, several organizations are changing from traditional ways of leading to empowering their employees. Leaders who encourage their workers to see the value of

autonomy as an end in itself contribute to the overall growth of the organization (Carr, 1994).

Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, and Drasgow (2000) developed a set of five constructs to measure empowered leader behavior: (a) leading by example, (b) participative decision-making, (c) coaching, (d) informing, and (e) showing concern. These five categories enable assessment of leadership effectiveness through empowerment.

Leading by Example

Leading by example refers to a set of behaviors that show the leader's commitment to his/her own work, as well as to the work of his/her employees. This construct includes behaviors such as working as hard as possible and even working harder than his/her employees.

Participative Decision Making

Participative decision-making refers to a leader's use of employees' information and input in making decisions. This construct includes behaviors such as encouraging employees to express their ideas and opinions. A successful participative leader might display several characteristics that make the employees work more effectively and efficiently.

Coaching

Coaching refers to a set of behaviors that educate team members and help them to become self-reliant. This construct includes behaviors such as making suggestions about performance improvements and helping the team to be self-reliant. For example, a participative leader will help employees' workgroups see areas in which they need more training.

Informing

Informing refers to the leader's dissemination of company-wide information, including such things as mission and philosophy. This construct includes behaviors such as explaining company decisions to the team and informing the team about new developments in organizational policy.

Showing Concern

Showing concern is a collection of behaviors that demonstrate a general regard for the employees' well-being. This construct includes behavior such as taking time to discuss employees concerns. Besides, interacting with the team incorporates behaviors that are important when interfacing with the team as a whole. This construct includes behavior such as keeping track of what is going on in the team and working closely with the team as a whole.

These five leadership characteristics validly measure the behavior of an empowered leadership. However, will participative leaders survive globalization?

Globalization and Leadership Style

Globalization is defined as a combination of factors: a single marketplace with rising free trade among countries; the growing and rapid sharing of information and connections with people around the world; and the opportunity for corporations and guests to shop all around the world without boundaries (Marquardt & Berger, 2003).

Many forces cause globalization to become inevitable (McLean, 2001). First, economic freedom among countries has become popular. The countries that cancel restrictive regulations in their marketplace have the benefit of exporting their products globally (McLean, 2001). Second, the evolution of telecommunication technology has

reduced much of the cost of information and interaction (Friedman, 2000). Computer technology helps speed up communication to make trade easier so buyers can complete a trade online without complicated transactions. Finally, international organizations, such as the International Monetary Fund and the World Trade Organization, have set up numerous important regulations to make global business both possible and secure (McLean, 2001). Under these circumstances, business occurs every minute.

Multinational companies are looking for better products and services all over the world and coalitions with locals to maximize their competition. Globalization has become a worldwide trend (Donlon, 1997). Even a Communist-controlled government like that of China can not stop it (Gupta & Wang, 2009).

In order to make profits and survive the impact of globalization, an organization requires an entirely different mindset. Many experts have identified globalization as a new way for firms to organize their activities, and the emergence of human capital is a new stakeholder in the organizations (Marquardt & Berger, 2003). At the same time, many organizations have eliminated layers of middle management by introducing more decentralized decision-making inside the corporation and by empowering workers at lower levels of the firm's hierarchy. This has resulted in flatter hierarchies inside the corporation (Holmstrom & Kaplan, 2001; Rajan & Wulf, 2002). Hierarchy may not be possible in today's organizations. Maznevski (2007) suggested that an organization becomes a hierarchy by simplifying and clarifying vision and values, improving core processes, and decentralizing the interdependent, networked organization so every part reflects a different perspective of the whole. Leadership style should encourage employees' initiative, creativity, and competence for success. In recognizing individual

differences in training, communication might take place more in terms of storytelling, interpreting context and meaning, and investing in relationships more than in transferring facts or orders (Maznevski, 2007).

In addition to speeding up communication channels both from the top down and from the bottom up, human capital has become a new stakeholder in the firm. While past enterprises largely meant the ownership of physical assets, present enterprises use specialized human capital to create ideas about how to do things differently to survive in an increasingly competitive environment. Innovative and customized deals are the source of profits today (Marin & Verdier, 2003). Knowledge work is becoming team-based because nobody is able to be an expert on all aspects of the work (Pearce, 2004). The enterprise's talented workforce has become an important source of value to the firm. Therefore, empowering talented employees is critical for them to apply their talents freely.

A shared, empowered, participative leadership style is emerging in many successful team performances (Pearce, 2004) because leaders are able to gain different perspectives before making decisions. Such perspectives include more consideration of the environment, human rights, and diversity issues. If adopted by organization leaders, a participative leadership style would enable those organizations to cope more effectively with the rapidly changing global market, provide better communication, and retain talented employees.

Challenges of Participative Leadership in China

The almost 4000-year history of China's political system began with an imperial dynastic system in which the territory of China was ruled by an emperor. This system

prevailed until 1911 when it was overturned, and a republican system was put in place. This form of government lasted through World War I, World War II, and the Chinese Civil War. However, in 1949, the Chinese Communist Party took charge of Mainland China. Politically, the Chinese have developed a long history of group consciousness about leadership style, which is autocratic. In addition to dynastic, republican, and Communist political influences on leadership style, the teachings of Confucius have also influenced the Chinese people. Confucian ideology, with its complex system of moral, social, political, philosophical, and religious thought, is inherent in the education system; the Chinese consider those moral qualities of a person, first expressed thousands of years ago, as far more important than any other leadership concept. Confucianism represents a major challenge to China if workers are to accept a participative leadership style (see Table 2).

Table 2

Challenges of Participative Leadership in China

Factor	Key Ideas	Characteristic
Political Orientation	Imperial dynastic system	A ruler is the leader who established a set of systems and power relationship with nobles and citizens to govern his country.
	Communist government	Chinese Communist Party rules the country by the ideologies of Communism.
Confucianism	The superior man	Cultivate his or her mindset; learn and develop ethical and cognitive intelligence, and able to gain insight of the ordinances of nature.
	Face saving	Maintain harmonious relationships in social interactions and show respect for one's social status and reputation in society.
Chinese Culture	Higher power distance	The leader must provide detailed instructions on tasks since the followers expect the leader to lead them.
	Collectivism	Collectivistic cultures have a great emphasis on groups. Harmony and loyalty within a company is very important; it is maintained and confrontation is avoided.

Chinese Political Orientation Influence on Leadership Style

From the first documented dynasty, the Shang Dynasty, beginning in 1766 B.C.E., China's hierarchy started with an emperor and went to various social classes ending with slaves. Under the dynastic system, a ruler was a leader who established a set of systems and power relationships with nobles and citizens to govern his country. After ruling for more than 600 years, the Shang Dynasty gave way to the Chou Dynasty, which continued the dynasty system. Confucius, who developed the code of ethics that dominated Chinese

thought and culture for the next 25 centuries (Halsall, 1999), was born in 551 B.C.E., during the Chou Dynasty.

China was ruled by over 20 dynasties until 1911 when the Nationalist Party led by Dr. Sun Yat-sen overthrew the last emperor. Some emperors asked their ministers to record history in official publications and discussed with those ministers how to rule the country to make it stronger and healthier. For example, a book entitled *Essence of Government in the Chen-kuan Era* was published in the 8th century and recorded comments, discussions, and argument between emperor Tang Taizong and his ministers. Those men led the Tang Dynasty into the Chen-Kuan Era, which means “under Tang Taizong’s governance,” when people lived in peace and were free from worry (“Chen-kuan Era,” 2010).

In one conversation between Tang Taizong and his minister during his second year of governance, Tang Taizong asked his minister why the people recognized some emperors as wise emperors and some as fatuous emperors. His minister answered,

The reason why an emperor is wise is because he is able to listen different opinions in all respects; on the other hand, the reason why an emperor is fatuous is because he only listens to one-side of a story. There were wise emperors who opened all kinds of channels to listen and understand issues that come from far and near areas. Consequently, nobody is able to deceive wise emperors. On the contrary, there were some fatuous emperors in the past who only listened to specific ministers that were close to them. In such a case, when even rebellion succeeded in occupying the Imperial City, the fatuous emperor had no idea what

was going on. Therefore, keeping an open mind to listen to different opinions is a key to being a wise emperor. (Wu, 1997, p. 1)

This example shows that wise emperors needed to be pro-active in gathering information from their employees and other resources. Furthermore, it seems as though the Chinese may well have discovered and applied the essential ideas of participative leadership.

In 1912, the newly established modern China was to follow the democratic worldwide trend of implementing a republican system in China. However, a series of conspiracies and wars after the era of Imperial China eventually contributed to the failure of the republican system, and Chinese Communist Party (CCP) rule began in 1949. After over sixty years of rule, the CCP's ideology continues to impact leadership practices in China (Lin, 2008).

Ling (1989) studied the Performance-Maintenance Theory of Leadership in a Chinese context and found that a third factor, moral character, enhanced leadership effectiveness, together with performance and maintenance of leadership behaviors. When Chinese people assess a leader, they not only consider the behaviors of performance and maintenance dimensions, but, more importantly, they also evaluate the leader's moral character (Ling, 1989). This research pointed out that a principle of leader selection is that one's political morals must be evaluated before one is selected as a leader. Moral character includes: (a) commitment to abide by the law and avoid corrupt practices; (b) a positive attitude toward the CCP and willingness to follow party dictates, even when they conflict with one's own personal views; (c) fairness to all employees; (d) a positive

attitude toward party political workshops held during working hours; and (e) responsiveness to suggestions from workers (Ling, 1989; Littrell, 2002).

Fu and Tsui (2003) noted that Chinese Communist ideologies contribute considerably to Chinese leadership attributes that are socially desirable. However, the CCP's constitution states that "Party members must abide by Party policies and state laws, maintain unity, be loyal and honest to the Party, resist against corruption, promote communist moral codes and be ready to sacrifice their lives at times of difficulties and danger" (Fu & Tsui, 2003, pp. 425-426). This statement implies that CCP policies are superior to state laws during a conflict of interest. Therefore, foreign investors are very careful to consider the risk of dealing with the Communist government because the Chinese legal system does not provide adequate and effective protection for non-Chinese companies (Dacare Executive Search, 2007; McIntyre, 2010). On the other hand, the CCP ideology may also influence leadership integrity, which means being honest and doing what is right, no matter the circumstances (Sporleder, 2009), as CCP policies are superior to a corporation's mission and policies.

The Chinese political system has remained centralist from the dynastic system to the current Communist system. Therefore, the national leader plays an important role in this trickle-down effect. Even CCP ideology teaches the moral character of leadership, including the characteristic of responsiveness to suggestions from workers (Ling, 1989; Littrell, 2002). CCP interests override any other concern (Fu & Tsui, 2003). However, emperors and CCP leaders alike understand the importance of participative leadership to assist them in making better decisions.

Confucianism Influence on Leadership Style

Confucius traveled for years to promote his ideas of Confucianism to seven governors. However, at that time, every governor was either preparing to invade a smaller state or preparing a defense against larger states. In the end, no governor hired Confucius to administer any part of the country. His students recorded his words and conversations while traveling and published a well-known book, *Analects* (*Oxford World's Classics*, 2008), which has dominated Chinese thought and culture. Many scholars believe that Confucius played a major role in constructing Chinese culture with a cross-border influence upon generations, eras, and regions (Cho & Lee, 2001; Pun, 2001). The most common Confucian ideology of leadership reflects being a leader who begins cultivating his/her inherent qualities, then being able to put his/her family in good order. After that, a leader is able to run a country well and then proceed to lead a virtuous world (Nuyen, 2004). Therefore, a leader in Confucian terms should be the superior man who is morally appealing (Lin, 2008; Mayer, 1960).

The Superior Man

Fernandez (2004) indicated that the most important priority of a Confucian leader is to cultivating his or her mindset, based on the statement, “The progress of the superior man is upwards; the progress of the mean man is downwards” (*Analects*, XIV.24); and “What the superior man seeks is in himself. What the mean man seeks is in others” (*Analects*, XV.20). Such a mindset and inherent quality include benevolence, duty, observance of rites, wisdom, courage, and reliability (Lau, 1992). These qualities correspond to the statement, “The superior man is modest in his speech, but exceeds in his actions” (*Analects*, XIV.29); and “The superior man is wise who is free from perplexities; the superior man is virtuous who is free from anxiety; and the superior man

is brave who is free from fear” (*Analects*, IX.29). After a leader acquires these characteristics as his or her inherent qualities, the leader is able to perform credibly and will lead effectively (Fernandez, 2004; Lin, 2008; Wong, 2001).

In addition, the ideology of the superior man is to expect leaders to learn and develop ethical and cognitive intelligence (Tu, 2001) and be able to gain insight from the ordinances of nature (*Analects*, XX.3). Therefore, the ideology has taught a leadership style that tends to be less participative because it focuses on self-cultivation, discipline, and dignity in being a leader. Javidan, Dorfman, de Luque, and House (2006) also found that Chinese employees saw signs of incompetence in a leader who asked for opinions frequently in a decision-making process. Chinese organizations that endorse Confucian values and highly value authoritarian leadership do not expect participative decision-making (Lin, 2008). Besides, Chinese people usually practice the ideology of the superior man in their behavior to reach a standard of higher ethical and cognitive intelligence. Therefore, their behavior tends to be reserved, which is considered an active behavior in practice of a superior man, who needs to build interpersonal relationships that is a foundation that makes it possible to find the right level of context in which to speak and behave (Hofmann, 2009).

Face Saving

In addition to the superior man, the Confucian principle of face saving is also an important leadership practice in Chinese organizations (Dorfman, Howell, Hibino, Lee, Tate, & Bautista, 1997). Saving face means maintaining harmonious relationships in social interactions and showing respect for one’s social status and reputation in society (Wang, Wang, Ruona, & Rojewski, 2005). Therefore, Chinese will not openly argue or

contradict leaders in a public place because it is considered a symbol of not giving face to a leader. Furthermore, the ideology of Confucianism teaches the stability of society, which means that society is structured by hierarchical relationships for stability and order. Consequently, followers must show loyalty, diligence, conformity, and behaviors that enhance a leader's face (Lin, 2008). The leader-follower relationship found in Confucianism is also a direct reflection of the social structure in a Confucian family that values filial piety between parents and children (Dorfman et al., 1997).

In a culture of face saving that maintains harmonious relationships between leaders and followers, the followers have adopted a directive leadership style in Chinese organizations; the harmonious phenomenon of the workplace makes directions and instructions acceptable. Even when the leader states consequences implicitly, the followers understand quickly what the leader means. On the other hand, followers also expect their leaders to be kind and care about them like parents (Hsu, 1982; Redding, 1990). Consequently, Chinese leaders even sacrifice task accomplishment to maintain harmonious relationships with and among their followers because Confucian values have fostered a Chinese leadership style that is known as rule by man as opposed to rule by law (Lin, 2008; Wang et al., 2005). Many researchers (Chuang, 2007; Farh, Tsui, Xin, & Cheng, 1998; Tan & Snell, 2002; Tsui & Farh, 1997) also discovered that moral and ethical behaviors (performance, trust, turnover, and absences in the Chinese workplace) are part of an harmonious environment. Chinese employees typically avoid conflicts and aggressive ways of arguing in order to protect social face and maintain relationships (Chen et al., 2005; Leung, 1997; Morris et al., 1998; Ting-Toomey, 1988). Therefore, the

leader and followers comment only in a private place or on an appropriate occasion in order to protect their relationship (Hofmann, 2009).

A participative leadership style is not easy to develop in the workplace in a face saving culture because it might hurt relationships during the participative process.

Chinese employees are also motivated to discuss and resolve issues openly to develop genuine harmony (Leung, 1996; Leung et al., 2002). Therefore, a participative leadership style might work well if leaders keep the face saving factor in mind to maintain an harmonious workplace when they work with followers. Another Gallup survey found that, when employees were satisfied with their workplace environment, they perceived that they performed better, and there was less company turnover (Forsloff, 2010).

Chinese Culture Influence on Leadership Style

Hofstede's (1991, 2001) well-known cross-cultural research initially identified four national culture dimensions, with a fifth added in the 1990s. The power distance index (PDI) is the extent to which less powerful members of organizations both accept and expect that power will be distributed unequally. Individualism (IDV) states that, in societies where ties between individuals are loose, everyone must look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. In contrast, collectivist societies tend to have stronger ties between group members and place a higher value on communal interests than individual interests. Masculinity (MAS) is the distribution of roles between genders, whereas, in feminine cultures, roles are shared by both genders. The uncertainty avoidance index (UAI) deals with a society's tolerance or intolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity. Last, long-term orientation (LTO) stands for fostering virtues oriented towards future rewards. It measures the value of long-term commitments, respect for the

past and tradition, persistence, patience, and social stability of the national culture. On the contrary, values associated with short-term orientation include a lack of respect for tradition, short-term thinking, lack of planning for the future, and fulfilling of social obligations to protect one's face in the present (Hofstede, 2010). The index scores for each country uses a scale of roughly 0 to 100 for each dimension. The higher the score, the more that society exhibits the dimension.

China's index numbers for the five national culture dimensions in the series are: PDI, 80; IDV, 20; MAS, 66; UAI, 30; and LTO, 118. The United States' index numbers for the five national culture dimensions are: PDI, 40; IDV, 91; MAS, 62; UAI, 46; and LTO, 29. Significantly, compared with the United States, Chinese culture includes higher scores on power distance, collectivism tendency, and long-term orientation. Hofstede's research results reflect the ideologies of Confucius and the CCP that taught Chinese people the idea of stability in a society structured by hierarchical relationships. These relationships led to developing a harmonious society with respected leaders, taking special care of children, and expecting those children to learn filial piety.

However, Fang (2009) indicated that Chinese youth now earn ten or even twenty times more than their parents, which has impacted traditional Chinese notions of hierarchy and absolute authority of the family father. Fang (2009) agreed with Inglehart and Welzel's (2005) finding that cultural change comes hand in hand with economic progress. As a result, "the more developed the economy, the more vigorously the value of self-expression blossoms" (Fang, 2009, p. 162). Therefore, further research is necessary to update the value; for example, of LTO in current China.

In addition, PDI contributes to organizational leadership style (Odubiyi, 2010). In a country with a high PDI, such as China (80), the leader must provide detailed instructions on tasks as followers expect the leader to lead them, thus leading to a preference for an autocratic or hierarchical leadership style. A low PDI country, such as the US (40) that is used to participative leadership style to manage, may not succeed in China. In such organizations, subordinates work for their leaders out of fear and are ready to leave the organization as soon as an opportunity is present. Conversely, leadership styles that empower followers and treat them with respect characterize low PDI organizations similar to low power distance cultures. Therefore, organizations may wish to develop PDIs to retain current employees and recruit other quality employees (Odubiyi, 2010).

Collectivistic cultures emphasize groups. Harmony and loyalty within a company are very important to maintain while avoiding confrontation. In China, it is out of the question to disagree with someone's opinion in public. People disagree in a more private and personal atmosphere in order to protect both parties from losing face, which is a major aspect of Confucianism. Furthermore, in collectivistic cultures, people avoid direct confrontation; they use expressions or phrases to describe a disagreement or negative statement instead of simply saying no, which would destroy group harmony. The relationship between leader and followers requires trust, harmony, and a deep understanding of moral values (Hofmann, 2009). Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) stated that LTO was not equivalent to Confucianism, which has a mixed set of values. Confucianism has influenced a collectivistic culture in Asia, such as China (118), Hong Kong (96), Taiwan (87), Japan (80), and South Korea (75), which have higher LTO

scores than in individualistic cultures, such as the Philippines (19), Canada (23), Great Britain (25), USA (29), and New Zealand (30).

Even though Mainland China, Hong Kong, Singapore, and Taiwan are geographically close, speak the same language, and respect the ideology of Confucius, there are some differences in leadership styles among business leaders (Li, Fu, Chow, & Peng, 2002). In this research, Mainland Chinese leaders scored lower on future orientation than the other three societies, perhaps as a result of unpredictable policy changes initiated by the government. In addition, Mainland Chinese leaders scored higher on power distance and non-participative indices. Westwood and Chan (1992) found that Mainland Chinese-owned organizations were very autocratic. Researchers (e.g., Li et al., 2002; Silin, 1976) argued that Mainland Chinese leaders protect their own business and withhold information and resources from their employees. Further, the business culture on Mainland China gave employees very limited space in which to show initiative. Showing initiative indicates a motivation to learn the key business, which reflects the Chinese saying, "Once the apprentice understands the tricks, the master is no longer needed" (Li et al., 2002, p. 58). Finally, Mainland Chinese leaders rated high in status consciousness because almost all levels of government leaders gained appointment by the CCP, and status consciousness seemed most important for the success of a leader (Li et al., 2002).

Joint Venture Enterprises and Privately Owned Enterprises in China

Joint venture enterprises (JVEs), owned jointly by foreign and Chinese investment companies, have overcome many regulations to be able to start their businesses. As a result, JVEs develop management systems that support their survival.

JVEs provide reasonable benefits, compensation, and clear paths of career development that attract many talented Chinese. In addition, most Chinese investors in JVEs also prefer western management systems and styles to expand their businesses in the international marketplace. Western leadership practices are easily adapted under these circumstances.

Chinese privately-owned enterprises (POEs) are typically owned by a single family and their relatives, and their management style is influenced by both Confucianism and CCP ideology. Evidence shows that state-owned enterprises (SOEs) and POEs significantly differ in many ways, such as leadership style, promotion patterns, income allocations, human relations, and so on (Tang, 2005), unlike JVEs that make long-term plans, such as recruiting, utilizing, and retaining qualified staff. Instead, POEs are flexible and responsive to the company's short-term needs and market situation (Shen, 2008).

Typically, a paternalistic leadership style is used in Chinese POEs (Farh, Cheng, Chou, & Chu, 2006). Paternalistic leadership is broadly defined as a "father-like leadership style in which clear and strong authority is combined with concern and considerateness and elements of moral leadership" (Farh et al., 2006, p. 230).

Paternalistic leadership is an indigenous leadership style rooted in China's patriarchal tradition and is prevalent in Chinese family businesses even overseas (Farh et al., 2006). However, in knowledge-dependent industries, talented employees are important assets for any corporation. A more democratic and empowered leadership style is key to retaining those talents (Pearce, 2004).

Besides JVEs, this study will study the other two kinds of POEs: Chinese POEs doing international business (POEIs) and Chinese POEs doing local business only (POELs). The two hypotheses are tested in this study:

Hypothesis 1. There is no difference among employees in JVEs, POEIs, and POELs on perceived participative leader behavior from their supervisors.

Hypothesis 2. There are no differences among employees in JVEs, POEIs, and POELs on individual items reflecting perceived participative leader behavior from their supervisors.

Summary

There are four sections in this Chapter. First, it reviews four views of leadership theories and models—process view, trait view, skill view, and style view. Second, it reviews empowerment leadership and introduces Arnold et al.'s (2000) set of five constructs to measure empowered leader behavior: (a) leading by example, (b) participative decision-making, (c) coaching, (d) informing, and (e) showing concern. Third, it reviews three factors that are challenges of participative leadership in China: (a) political orientation; (b) Confucianism; and (c) Chinese culture. Last, it introduces different kinds of enterprises that this study is going to research: (a) joint venture enterprises; (b) local privately-owned enterprises; and (c) international privately-owned enterprises.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

This chapter describes the research methods used to conduct this study. It consists of four major sections: (a) an introduction of the study instrument and translation process; (b) the target population and participants' qualification; (c) procedures for data collection; and (d) the statistical methods for post-collection data analysis.

Survey Implementation

The survey instrument adopted a validated questionnaire, the empowering leadership questionnaire (ELQ) (Arnold et al., 2000), to assess subjects' perceptions of participative leadership style in their organizations. The major reason this instrument was selected for use was because it is not only a valid and reliable questionnaire, but also an updated one that is specifically focused on participative leadership style. The well-known leadership behavior questionnaire, a revised leader behavior description questionnaire (LBDQ) by Stogdill (1963), is difficult to apply to the current business world (Arnold et al., 2000) and is only partially applicable to participative teamwork environments. Therefore, this study used ELQ to study employees' perceptions of Chinese participative leadership behavior in China.

The questionnaire identifies 38 items as participative leadership behaviors and groups them into five categories: (a) leading by example; (b) participative decision-making; (c) coaching; (d) informing; and (e) showing concern.

The Likert-type scale uses a range from 1 to 6 (1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Mildly Disagree; 4 = Mildly Agree; 5 = Agree; 6 = Strongly Agree) to measure the extent to which each item is perceived by employees in the Chinese

corporations to be present. The questionnaire also contains questions to collect subjects' information on the industry of the organization in which the respondent is working; how long he/she has worked in the organization; the subject's gender; and the city in which the company is located.

Arnold et al. (2000) developed the ELQ based on three studies. In the first study, researchers conducted in-depth interviews with team leaders and members of three empowering organizations to elicit information about the critical leadership behaviors for empowered teams. The three empowering organizations were a clothing retailer, a building products supplier, and a telecommunications corporation in the United States. After transcribing the audio recordings, they coded 125 separate behaviors that they classified into eight tentative categories of leader behaviors for empowered teams (Arnold et al., 2000).

In the second study, researchers developed an instrument consisting of 48 items divided into eight categories of empowering leadership behavior. They administered the instrument in two companies, a building products supplier and a telecommunications corporation. They also determined internal consistency reliability in each category with over 0.85 for each category, an acceptable level. They performed a set of analyses from a correlation matrix for the items within a subscale and eliminated those items with low inter-item and item-total correlations. Finally, they performed factor analyses on the item-level data by confirmatory factor analysis to examine the factor structure of the instrument, though they should probably have used exploratory factor analysis. The outcome indicated five categories of behaviors for empowering leadership (Arnold et al., 2000). Table 3 lists the constructs and items used to measure each construct.

Table 3

List of Construct and Items Information

Construct	Section	Item Number
Leading By Example	A	1-5
Participative Decision-Making	A	6-11
Coaching	A	12-22
Informing	A	23-28
Showing Concern	A	29-38
Demographic Information	B	39-43

In Table 3, the first part of the questionnaire consists of 38 items to assess if their supervisor is leading by example (item 1-5), participative decision-making (item 6-11), coaching (item 12-22), informing (item 23-28), and showing concern (item 29-38). The second section asks the respondents to provide the type of the organization they represent, as well as personal demographic information.

To confirm the reliability of the revised instrument, Cronbach's alpha was run on all 38 Chinese ELQ items with a resulting Cronbach's reliability coefficient (α) of .96, which considered highly reliable. To confirm the validity of the revised instrument, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was employed to test if there was more than one factor in each construct. Figure 1 shows the scree test results for each construct using an eigenvalue of 1 as the determinate criterion (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

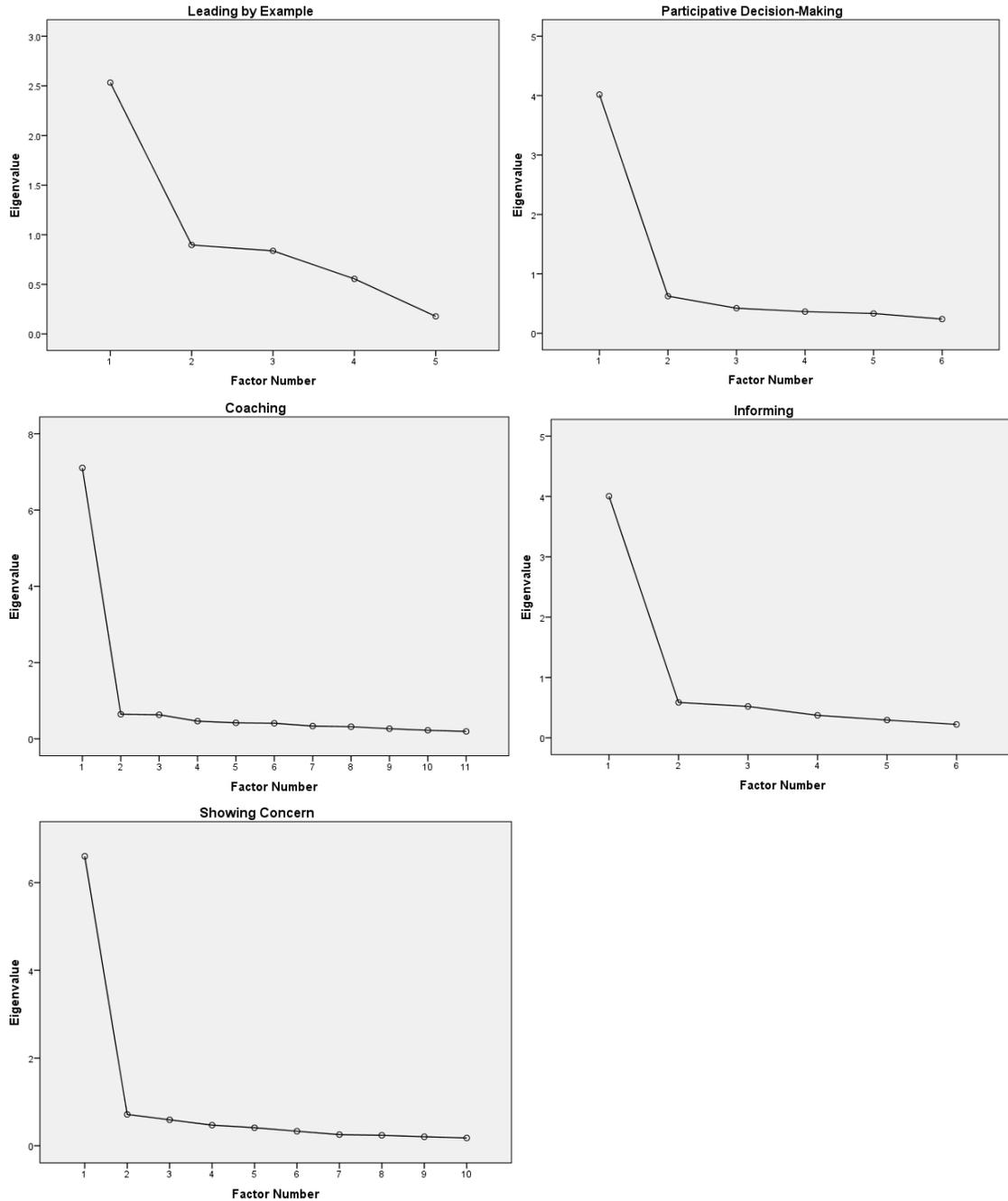


Figure 1. Scree plots for exploratory factor analysis. Plots were generated by SPSS. Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Direct Oblimin.

In Figure 1, all five constructs (leading by example, participative decision-making, coaching, informing, and showing concern) show clear unidimensionality with one major factor that accounts for most of the common variance shared by the items. Table 4 shows

the result of the pattern matrix (factor loadings) of the five-factor structure with oblique rotation that displays factor loadings of .35 or larger (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) and Worthington and Whittaker (2006) provided guidelines for the minimum loadings of each of the items on the factors as at least .32 and not double-load on any two factors at the .32 level. This study sets a slightly higher factor loading minimum of .35.

Table 4

Pattern Matrix Showing Factor Loadings of Exploratory Factor Analysis (Only values larger than .35 were shown)

Indicators	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
#8	.70				
#7	.66				
#6	.61				
#15	.56				
#14	.55				
#9	.53				
#11	-.46				
#13	.45				
#21	.40				
#17	.38				
#20	.35		-.35		
#19					
#22					
#10					
#16					
#5		-.83			
#4		-.68			
#2		-.51			
#3		-.45			
#1					
#38			-.77		
#30			-.72		
#29			-.69		
#34			-.65		
#35			-.61		
#12			-.51		
#33			-.48		
#36			-.46		
#18			-.40		
#23				.71	
#24				.64	
#28				.64	
#25				.62	

#26		-.36	.43
#27			.41
#37			
#32			-.52
#31			-.44

The pattern matrix of the exploratory factor analysis in Table 4 revealed that the two constructs of participative decision-making and coaching were loaded on the same factor 1, indicating that a considerable portion of the construct of participative decision-making shares common components with the construct of coaching. There are six items that do not have loadings over .35 in any factors, which need to be removed in the revised instrument: #1 (i.e., sets high standards for performance by his/her own behavior); #10 (i.e., considers my work group's ideas when he/she disagrees with them); #16 (i.e., provides help to work group members); #19 (i.e., tells my work group when we perform well); #22 (i.e., helps develop good relations among work group members); and #37 (i.e., knows what work is being done in my work group). There are two items that are double-loaded that need to be removed as well: #20 (i.e., supports my work group's efforts) and #26 (i.e., explains the purpose of the company's policies to my work group). One item, #12 (i.e., helps my work group see areas in which we need more training) falls in factor 3, which is not in the construct of coaching but the construct of showing concern. Therefore, the constructs of participative decision-making and coaching are the same factor in the revised instrument; I named this factor participative decision-making and coaching, and #12 was moved to the construct of showing concern. After the EFA was rerun with these modifications, the result of the pattern matrix (factor loadings) of the four-factor structure with oblique rotation that displays factor loadings of .35 or larger are shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Pattern Matrix Showing Factor Loadings of Rerun Exploratory Factor Analysis

Indicators	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
#8	.74			
#7	.68			
#6	.66			
#15	.62			
#9	.56			
#14	.55			
#11	.50			
#21	.46			
#13	.43			
#17	.41			
#5		-.77		
#4		-.68		
#2		-.52		
#3		-.47		
#38			-.82	
#29			-.72	
#30			-.72	
#35			-.71	
#34			-.65	
#36			-.59	
#33			-.50	
#12			-.46	
#31			-.46	
#32			-.43	
#18			-.37	
#23				.71
#24				.64
#28				.61
#25				.56
#27				.39

The four factors in Table 5 are: (a) factor 1 as participative decision-making; (b) factor 2 as leading by example; (c) factor 3 as showing concern; and (d) factor 4 as

informing. Next, confirmatory factor analysis was utilized to test the factor structure of the revised instrument. Three major model fit measures are used: Goodness-of-fit index (GFI); comparative fit index (CFI); and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Gallion (2008) recommended that GFI should be equal to or greater than .90; CFI should be equal to or greater than .95 to accept the model. Good models have an RMSEA of .05 or less and values between .08 to .10 indicate mediocre fit. As the output of the model fit measures was not high enough using the whole instrument, both GFI and CFI were lower than .90 (Table 6), and RMSEA is only .09, I determined covariates between items within the same factor that had high errors of covariance of modification indices, as well as the items in the standardized residual covariances that were above .40 were considered to remove. Eventually, eleven items were removed based on high errors of covariance belonging to different factors. Table 6 lists the overall model fit comparison with retained items of low errors of covariances of modification indices and low standardized residual covariances.

Table 6

Model Fit Comparison for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Item Numbers	χ^2 (df)	GFI	CFI	RMSEA	Cronbach's α
30	1517.59 (371)	.76	.86	.09	.96
19	407.82 (143)	.89	.94	.07	.95

Table 6 shows that the overall model fit improved, and GFI and CFI increased from .76 and .86 to .89 and .94, respectively. Even though the Cronbach's reliability coefficient (α) dropped from .96 to .95, this is still considered highly reliable. Figure 2 shows the five factors with the constructs of the retained items.

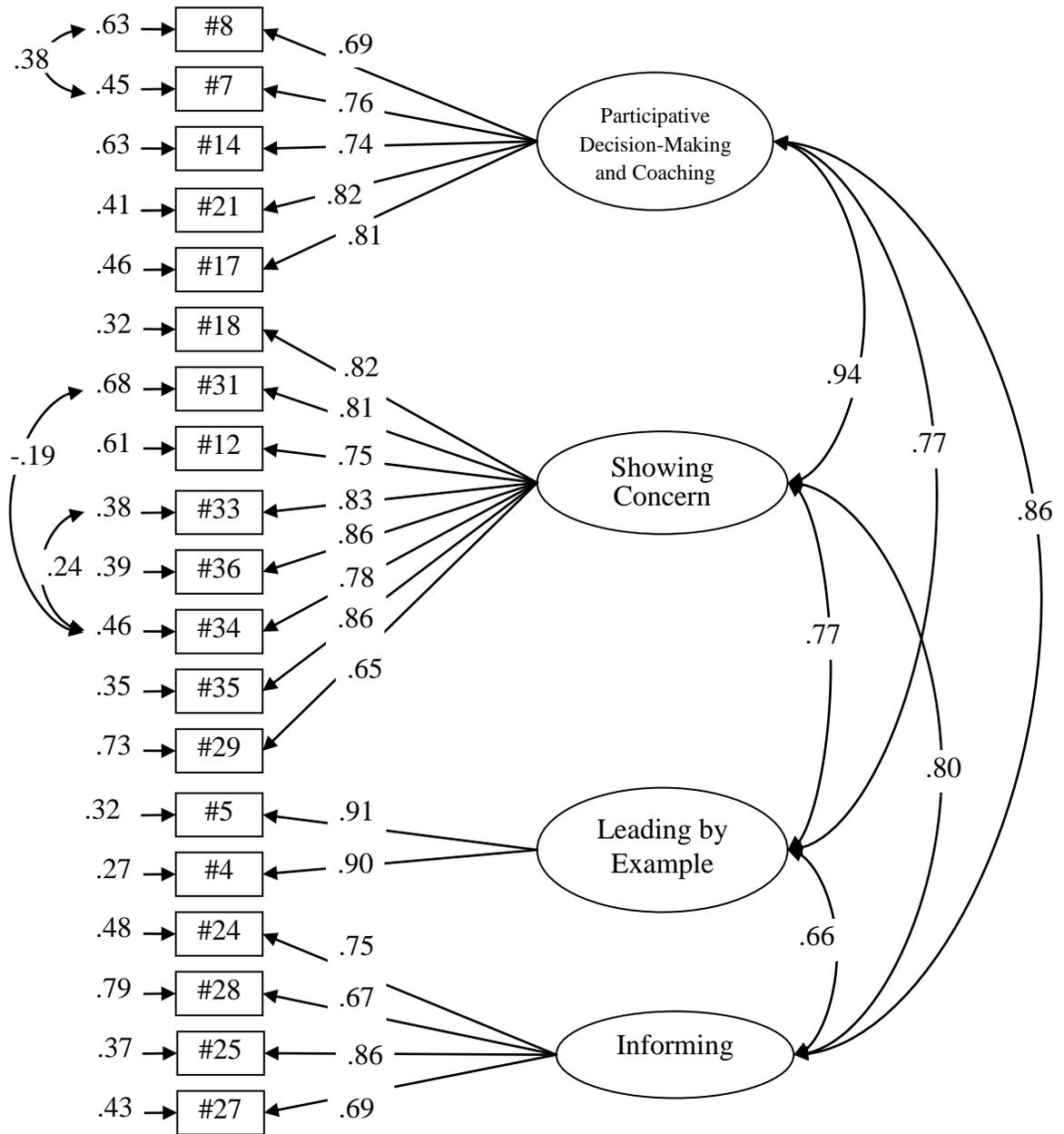


Figure 2. Confirmatory factor analysis of constructs with standardized coefficient and residuals.

The standardized loadings for the indicators ranged from .65 to .91, all of which can be considered moderately- to highly-related to the constructs. Figure 2 also shows the residuals of each indicator. The significant paths between indicators and corresponding residuals suggested that each indicator had unique variances not accounted for by the latent constructs. Correlation paths were added for four pairs of residuals (#7 and #8; #31 and #34; #33 and #34) based on the modification indices provided by Amos software output to help improve model fit. Table 7 shows the correlations between individual constructs.

Table 7

List of Correlations of Five Constructs

Construct	Correlation
Participative Decision-Making and Coaching \leftrightarrow Leading By Example	.77**
Participative Decision-Making and Coaching \leftrightarrow Showing Concern	.93**
Participative Decision-Making and Coaching \leftrightarrow Informing	.86**
Leading By Example \leftrightarrow Showing Concern	.76**
Leading By Example \leftrightarrow Informing	.65**
Showing Concern \leftrightarrow Informing	.80**

** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

The correlation coefficients between constructs ranged between .65 and .93 in Table 7, indicating high associations between constructs at the significant level of .01. The correlations between participative decision-making and coaching, informing, and showing concern are considerably higher compared with other correlation coefficients, with values of .93, .86, and .80.

As a coefficient of determination comes from a squared correlation coefficient, it is one of the best means for evaluating the strength of a relationship. Therefore, 86% of the construct of participative decision-making and coaching is directly accounted for by

the construct of showing concern and vice versa. Similarly, 74% of the construct of participative decision-making and coaching is directly accounted for by the construct of informing and vice versa; as well as 64% of the construct of informing is directly accounted for by the construct of showing concern and vice versa. Table 8 shows the correlations between individual items.

Table 8

Correlation Coefficients of Items

	#4	#5	#7	#8	#12	#14	#17	#18	#21	#24	#25	#27	#28	#29	#31	#33	#34	#35	#36
#4	1																		
#5	.82**	1																	
#7	.56**	.57**	1																
#8	.50**	.51**	.70**	1															
#12	.55**	.51**	.51**	.48**	1														
#14	.49**	.47**	.54**	.54**	.59**	1													
#17	.56**	.60**	.60**	.53**	.58**	.63**	1												
#18	.62**	.60**	.59**	.49**	.63**	.65**	.70**	1											
#21	.52**	.57**	.63**	.57**	.59**	.59**	.64**	.65**	1										
#24	.48**	.49**	.51**	.49**	.49**	.53**	.55**	.49**	.55**	1									
#25	.48**	.49**	.53**	.47**	.56**	.53**	.55**	.59**	.64**	.62**	1								
#27	.38**	.46**	.53**	.44**	.41**	.39**	.46**	.52**	.55**	.48**	.60**	1							
#28	.39**	.38**	.37**	.35**	.39**	.34**	.41**	.42**	.46**	.50**	.60**	.45**	1						
#29	.41**	.36**	.43**	.38**	.44**	.44**	.53**	.49**	.40**	.42**	.50**	.37**	.41**	1					
#31	.51**	.56**	.57**	.55**	.56**	.54**	.66**	.65**	.68**	.52**	.56**	.39**	.48**	.56**	1				
#33	.62**	.62**	.61**	.59**	.63**	.60**	.61**	.71**	.58**	.52**	.56**	.51**	.41**	.56**	.62**	1			
#34	.50**	.50**	.53**	.49**	.59**	.55**	.59**	.61**	.56**	.43**	.50**	.44**	.38**	.50**	.54**	.73**	1		
#35	.59**	.54**	.60**	.52**	.65**	.53**	.62**	.67**	.64**	.52**	.55**	.46**	.46**	.62**	.70**	.69**	.69**	1	
#36	.60**	.62**	.57**	.55**	.62**	.57**	.62**	.68**	.63**	.51**	.56**	.41**	.47**	.54**	.72**	.72**	.67**	.78**	1

***p* < .01 (two-tailed)

As shown in Table 8, items within the same construct show higher correlations compared with correlations between items across different constructs. The correlation coefficients between items #4 and #5 of the construct, leading by example, was .82, which was much higher compared with other items than other correlations, which ranged from .38 to .62. Therefore, the correlation coefficients among all measurement indicators provide evidence that items used in the study each measure another concept.

Authorization

A request email for authorization was sent to Dr. Arnold, the lead researcher in developing the ELQ, who provided permission (see Appendix A) to use the ELQ (see Appendix B) and to translate it into Chinese (see Appendix C).

Translation

I translated the ELQ (Appendix B) into Simplified Chinese (Appendix C) that was then reviewed by a subject expert who is fluent in both Chinese and English. The subject expert is a Taiwanese who has a minor in English from Taiwan and then studied in a program of translation and interpreting at the University of Minnesota. She has been an English-Chinese translator for 10 years. After the review, there were a few modifications, such as not adding, deleting, or substituting words where not necessary. Then, a U.S. American who had lived in Taiwan for over 15 years and has been working in a Chinese language educational institute in the U.S. for at least five years translated the Chinese questionnaire back into English. The retranslated questionnaire was compared with the original English version. We worked together on any discrepancies to ensure that the questions delivered the same meaning in both languages.

Pilot Study

Once the questionnaire was developed, a pilot study was conducted in a local Chinese immersion school with ten Chinese teachers whose native language is Chinese. The selected participants matched the qualification of the prospective participants who had worked in their organizations at least one year. Based on the initial feedback on the questionnaire, some Chinese terms were revised to enable participants to understand the questions more easily and be able to finish the questionnaire.

IRB Approval/Human Subjects

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of Minnesota approved the research study procedures and final questionnaire (Appendix D), in both English and Chinese, on Study Number 1201P09229. They also approved the informed consent statement that was included in the beginning of the questionnaire (see Appendix E for English consent form; Appendix F for Chinese consent form).

Target Population

As the major purpose of this study was to understand the perception of participative leadership style behavior in organizations, the subjects of primary interest were employees who had stayed in a company for at least one year. In this study, the sample organizations were business companies in the major cities in China that represent the target population of Chinese businesses. To understand the differences in participative leadership behaviors among types of companies, the three kinds of business companies were identified as: (a) local privately owned enterprises (POELs), i.e., privately owned companies doing only local or national business; (b) international privately owned enterprises (POEIs), i.e., privately owned companies that do not only

national business, but also international business; and (c) joint venture enterprises (JVEs), i.e., either a branch of a foreign company or a joint venture company in China.

To ensure the quality and precision of information collected through the questionnaire, two criteria were applied to identify suitable participants for this study. First, the participants must have been working in the organization for at least one year, so that they would have a degree of familiarity and understanding about the company. Second, the participants must not be in the top management position so they could use their supervisor's leadership behavior to answer the questionnaire.

Online Survey

This research used both the SurveyMonkey system (see Appendix G), and the UMSurvey system (see Appendix H) that provides a more user-friendly and more secure approach (Cline, 2010; University of Minnesota, 2009). It is very simple to complete this online survey by using a computer mouse or a tablet computer with clicks or touches, except for the beginning consent form that requested participants to type their names. Further, the survey was kept short. Based on the pilot test, it took less than 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Researchers have proposed that participants in online surveys are not representative of the population because online surveys not only exclude non-internet users, but are also biased toward those with more experience on the internet (Grandcolas, Rettiei, & Marusenko, 2003). Normally, online surveys tend to have low response rates, but there is no evidence of online survey bias, and no differences have been found in results between online surveys and traditional hard copy surveys and mailings (Grandcolas, Rettiei, & Marusenko, 2003; Tse, 1998).

In order to increase the response rate, I knew that I had to establish a connection between the recipients and me. To do this, I personalized each email to use participants' Chinese last names or their English first names. This also indicated to recipients that s/he was selected specifically and that her/his response was important to the success of the study (Grandcolas, Rettiei, & Marusenko, 2003). Each email message was sent to one recipient at a time in order to prevent filters treating it as a SPAM message. Personalization has generally been found to increase response rates in mail surveys, as well as in internet surveys (Cook, Heath, & Thompson, 2000; Dillman et al., 2009). While this study did personalize e-mails, the targeted response rate was not reached. Online surveys may have lost credibility in the modern world of mass customization. Besides personalization, computer technology enables researchers to schedule specific days and times to send messages, so recipients receive and read the message in that period. There is no evidence, however, that indicates a best day and time to send online surveys to increase response rate (Sauermann & Roach, 2012).

One technique that is used to increase response rate is a financial incentive (Sauermann & Roach, 2012), which I did not pursue because it is too complicated to send online financial incentives to China. I also considered that using financial incentives would increase incentive-driven participants' bias in the research results. Furthermore, the incentive amount needs to be high enough to make it an effective motivator for recipients to do the online survey. Obviously, financial incentives also increase study costs.

In order to control the quality of participants, I did not purchase email lists from marketing vendors. Participants' names were collected one by one from online job banks.

Sample Description

In the beginning of the data collection, I utilized my network to acquire 27 employee emails in China from international companies in the US (Appendix I) and in Taiwan. Six of them responded, for a response rate of 23%. In order to obtain more data, I accessed recruiters' email accounts from www.51job.com, one of the largest online job banks in China, providing job opportunities in 104 Chinese cities. I reviewed their job listings and contacted them to request their participation in the study. A total of 9,256 online requests via email were sent out, with 433 volunteers offering to participate. After the follow-up process to remind the initial 27 participants, as well as the later 433 volunteers, a total of 460, 345 respondents were obtained. Six additional participants were included from international companies in the US and in Taiwan who completed the survey at the beginning, resulting in a total of 351 respondents. With 460 in the sample pool, the final response rate was 76.3%. Among 351 respondents, 5 were incomplete. As a result, there were 346 with valid data in the sample. Table 9 summarizes participants' gender.

Table 9

Gender (n = 346)

Gender	Frequency	Percent (%)
Female	199	57.5
Male	147	42.5
Total (n)	346	100

There were more female participants than male participants. The latest population survey shows that there are 8% more males than females in China (CNN, 2013).

However, the sample has more female participants, perhaps because participants were mainly from recruiting departments. Table 10 indicates the seven industrial categories of participants' organizations.

Table 10

Industry of Organization (n = 346)

Industry of Organization	Frequency	Percent (%)
Manufacturing	93	26.9
Educational Services	32	9.2
Finance/Insurance/Real Estate	74	21.4
Health Services	8	2.3
Information/Technology	54	15.6
Wholesale/Retail Trade	42	12.1
Other Services	43	12.4
Total (n)	346	100

Table 10 shows that almost half of the respondents came from two groups: manufacturing (26.9%) and finance/insurance/real estate (21.4%). Table 11 reports participation in the three types of participant organizations.

Table 11

Types of Organization (n = 346)

Types of Organization	Frequency	Percent (%)
POEL	250	72.3
POEI	32	9.2
JVE	64	18.5
Total (n)	346	100

By far, most participants were in POELs (72.3%). Table 12 summarizes the number of years participants had worked in their current companies.

Table 12

Years Worked in Current Organization (n = 346)

Years of Working in the Organization	Frequency	Percent (%)
1-2 years	159	46.0
3-5 years	115	33.2
6-10 years	52	15.0
11+ years	20	5.8
Total (n)	346	100

Table 12 shows that the 1-2 years (46%) category had the greatest representation.

Table 13 reflects the company's region of participants.

Table 13

Location in China (n = 346)

Location in China	Frequency	Percent (%)
North	34	9.8
Northeast	12	3.5
Northwest	16	4.6
East	136	39.3
South	75	21.7
Southwest	73	21.1
Total (n)	346	100

There are six regions in China: (a) North; (b) Northeast; (c) Northwest; (d) East; (e) Midsouth; and (f) Southwest (Appendix J). By region, the cities whose individuals participated in this study were:

- North region: (a) Beijing, (b) Taiyuan;
- Northeast region: (a) Harbin, (b) Shenyang, (c) Dalian;
- Northwest region: (a) Xi'an;
- East region: (a) Shanghai, (b) Xiamen, (c) Ningbo, (d) Nanjing, (e) Qingdao, (f) Hangzhou, (g) Suzhou, (h) Huainan, (i) Jinan, (j) Wuhu, (k) Fuzhou, (l) Jinhua, (m) Yanzhou;
- Midsouth region: (a) Shenzhen, (b) Hong Kong, (c) Dongguan, (d) Wuhan, (e) Changsha, (f) Changde, (g) Zhengzhou, (h) Foshan, (i) Ganzhou, (j) Quanzhou;
- Southwest region: (a) Chongqing, (b) Chengdu, (c) Kunming.

The East region contained the largest percentage of participants with 39.3%. The Midsouth region (21.7%) had almost the same number of participants as the Southwest region (21.1%). Participation from the North region, 9.8%, was more than twice as high as both the Northeast region (3.5%) and the Northwest region (4.6%).

Statistical Analyses

Two sets of software were used for data analysis: SPSS v21.0 (IBM Corp., 2012) and Amos 21 (IBM Corp., 2012). SPSS was used in the descriptive data analysis and reliability tests, while Amos was used for the analysis of the confirmatory factor analysis.

To answer the first research question, I utilized one-way ANOVA to determine whether the perceptions of participative leadership behavior were different among the three types of corporations: POEIs, POELs, and JVEs. In addition to looking for total

scores, I also examined the five categories of participative leadership behavior: (a) leading by example; (b) participative decision-making; (c) coaching; (d) informing; and (e) showing concern, to determine whether there were any differences among the five demographic findings.

To answer the second research question, the Tukey-HSD post hoc test was applied to determine which groups contributed to the statistical significance when significance was found.

Summary

To measure how Chinese leaders and followers perceive participative leadership behavior in their workplaces, I administered a Chinese version of the ELQ to 9283 employees in three kinds of corporations: JVEs, POEIs, and POELs. The final response rate of 76.3% was based on a total of 351 responses from a total of 460. Reliability of five constructs was more than .95, which was determined based on the collected data, and a confirmatory factor analysis confirmed the construct validity of the instrument.

Hypotheses stated that (a) there is no difference among employees in JVEs, POEIs, and POELs on perceived participative leader behavior from their supervisors; and (b) there are no differences among employees in JVEs, POEIs, and POELs on individual items reflecting perceived participative leader behavior from their supervisors.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the analyses of collected data for each research question. First, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized to understand the perceptions of participative leadership behavior among four constructs: (a) leading by example; (b) participative decision-making and coaching; (c) informing; and (d) showing concern. Second, to answer the second research question, the mean and standard deviation for each item are displayed, and bar charts are utilized to demonstrate the frequency of each item in three organizations, which is straightforward to locate differences among these items.

I applied an online survey to conduct this study. The collected data provided information about two research questions:

1. Are there any differences of employees' perceptions of participative leadership behavior among three types of corporations: POELs, POEIs, and JVEs?
2. To what extent do Chinese supervisors exhibit the following characteristics of participative leadership behaviors in Chinese enterprises: (a) leading by example; (b) participative decision-making; (c) coaching; (d) informing; and (e) showing concern, and are these behaviors reflected differently based on type of organization? Based on factor analyses, (b) and (c) were combined into participative decision-making and coaching.

I determined two hypotheses to test the research question: (a) there is no difference among employees in JVEs, POEIs, and POELs on perceived participative leader behavior from their supervisors; and (b) there are no differences among employees

in JVEs, POEIs, and POELs on individual items reflecting perceived participative leader behavior from their supervisors.

**Comparison of Perceived Participative Leader Behavior and Its Four Categories
Based on Organization Type**

In order to answer these hypotheses, I first applied one-way ANOVA to determine whether the perception of participative leadership behavior was different among the three types of corporation. Table 14 shows the one-way ANOVA for perception of participative leadership behavior by three types of organizations.

Table 14

One-Way ANOVA for Perception of Participative Leadership Behavior

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Overall Perception	Between Groups	926.40	2	463.20	1.68	.18
	Within Groups	94051.95	343	274.20		
	Total	94978.35	345			
Leading By Example	Between Groups	2.38	2	1.19	.19	.82
	Within Groups	2098.51	343	6.11		
	Total	210	345			
Participative Decision-Making and Coaching	Between Groups	84.90	2	42.45	1.99	.13
	Within Groups	7284.62	343	21.23		
	Total	7369.52	345			
Informing	Between Groups	93.846	2	46.92	3.76	.02*
	Within Groups	4269.87	343	12.44		
	Total	4363.72	345			
Showing Concern	Between Groups	173.58	2	86.79	1.45	.23
	Within Groups	20449.44	343	59.61		
	Total	20623.02	345			

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 14 shows that there is a difference between in the perception of informing behavior among three types of corporations. Next, a Tukey-HSD post hoc test (see Table 15) was used to identify the specific differences among the types of organization.

Table 15

Tukey-HSD Post Hoc for Perception of Informing Behavior

		Mean Difference	S.E.	Sig.
POEL	POEI	1.22	.66	.15
	JVE	1.13	.49	.04*
POEI	POEL	-1.22	.66	.15
	JVE	-.94	.76	.99
JVE	POEL	-1.13	.49	.04*
	POEI	.94	.76	.99

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 15 shows that the score of perception of informing behavior in POELs was higher than the score of perception of informing behavior in JVEs. Thus, participants in POELs perceived more informing behavior from their supervisors than participants in JVEs. Therefore, hypothesis (a) is mostly rejected; there is no difference between employees in JVEs, POEIs, and POELs on perceived participative leader behavior from their supervisors, except for informing behaviors, in which POELs received more than JVEs.

Comparison of Individual Items in Perceived Participative Leader Behavior Based on Organization Type

Table 16 shows the mean and standard deviation for each item.

Table 16

Mean, and Standard Deviation for Each Item

	Mean	Std. Deviation
#4	4.97	1.20
#5	4.91	1.39
#7	4.98	1.03
#8	4.69	1.11
#12	4.72	1.18
#14	4.68	1.18
#17	4.62	1.17
#18	4.91	1.01
#21	4.72	1.12
#24	4.83	1.05
#25	4.58	1.19
#27	4.80	0.91
#28	4.39	1.21
#29	4.13	1.13
#31	4.15	1.43
#33	4.70	1.13
#34	4.68	1.08
#35	4.60	1.19
#36	4.43	1.25

All the answers average in the range of 4.13 to 4.97 of the 6-point Likert-type scale. The standard deviation is from 0.91 to 1.39. Appendix K shows bar charts of each item that demonstrate the percentages of answers in the three types of organization.

Bar charts are a straightforward means to locate apparent differences among items, though they do not offer statistical significance conclusions. For examples, in Figure 3, the yellow bar (i.e., Agree) is usually the longest. However, item #5 (i.e., lead by example) had almost 50% in the strongly agree red bar in POELs and looked quite different than JVEs and POEIs, which means that employees in POELs appear to perceive that their supervisor leads them by example more so than in the other two types

of organizations. Another example is easily found; item #8 (i.e., uses my work group's suggestions to make decisions that affect us) shows that employees in POEIs only mildly agree on this item, apparently unlike in JVEs and POELs.

Item #24, #25, #27, and #28 are acts of informing behavior. POELs in item #24, #25, and #27 show that its yellow bars are much longer than other two types of organization. On the other hand, POEIs in item #28 shows the longest yellow bar compared with the other two types of organization. However, given that bar charts cannot reflect statistical significance, I utilized another one-way ANOVA (see Table 17) to determine which items of informing behavior in the questionnaire were different between POELs and JVEs to answer the second research question.

Table 17

One-Way AVOVA on Individual Items of Perception of Informing Behavior

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Explains company goals	Between Groups	9.19	2	4.59	4.23	.01*
	Within Groups	372.40	343	1.08		
	Total	381.59	345			
Explains company decisions	Between Groups	10.30	2	5.15	4.08	.01*
	Within Groups	432.65	343	1.26		
	Total	442.96	345			
Explains how my workgroup fits into the company	Between Groups	8.02	2	4.01	2.82	.06
	Within Groups	488.04	343	1.42		
	Total	496.06	345			
Explains his/her decisions and actions to my workgroup	Between Groups	4.77	2	2.38	1.63	.19
	Within Groups	501.32	343	1.46		
	Total	506.10	345			

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 17 shows that two retaining items of informing behavior are significant: (a) explains company goals and (b) explains company decisions. Then, a Tukey-HSD post

hoc test, shown in Table 18, was used to identify differences among POELs, POEIs, and JVEs.

Table 18

Tukey-HSD Post Hoc for Perception of Informing Behavior

Explains Company Goals		Mean Difference	S.E.	Sig.
POEL	POEI	-.14	.21	.76
	JVE	.41*	.15	.02*
POEI	POEL	.14	.21	.76
	JVE	.56	.24	.05
JVE	POEL	.41*	.15	.02*
	POEI	-.56	.24	.05

Explains Company Decisions		Mean Difference	S.E.	Sig.
POEL	POEI	.17	.19	.66
	JVE	.42*	.14	.01*
POEI	POEL	-.17	.19	.66
	JVE	.25	.22	.51
JVE	POEL	-.42*	.14	.01*
	POEI	.25	.22	.51

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 18 showed that POELs had significantly higher scores than JVEs in both informing behaviors. Thus, participants in POELs perceived more informing behaviors than participants in JVEs.

Even though there was no significance in the other categories in Table 14, there may be differences within categories for individual items. In order to answer the second research question, I utilized one-way ANOVAs for the other three categories. Table 19 shows the comparison of perceptions of participative decision-making and coaching behavior.

Table 19

One-Way AVOVA Comparing Individual Items for Perceptions of Participative Decision-Making and Coaching Behavior, by Three Types of Organizations

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Listens to my work group's ideas and suggestions	Between Groups	9.60	2	4.80	4.64	.01*
	Within Groups	354.21	343	1.03		
	Total	363.81	345			
Uses my work group's suggestions to make decisions that affect us	Between Groups	1.14	2	.57	.46	.62
	Within Groups	420.37	343	1.22		
	Total	421.52	345			
Encourages work group members to solve problems together	Between Groups	5.80	2	2.90	2.08	.12
	Within Groups	477.22	343	1.39		
	Total	483.02	345			
Teaches work group members how to solve problems on their own	Between Groups	2.24	2	1.12	.82	.44
	Within Groups	466.91	343	1.36		
	Total	469.15	345			
Helps my work group focus on our goals	Between Groups	3.34	2	1.67	1.33	.26
	Within Groups	430.89	343	1.25		
	Total	434.24	345			

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 19 shows that one retaining item, #7, within participative decision-making and coaching behavior, listens to my work group's ideas and suggestions, was significant. Therefore, a Tukey-HSD post hoc test, shown in Table 20, was used to identify differences among POELs, POEIs, and JVEs.

Table 20

Tukey-HSD Post Hoc for Item #7 within Perceptions of Participative Decision-Making and Coaching Behavior

		Mean Difference	S.E.	Sig.
POEL	POEI	.39	.19	.10
	JVE	.36*	.14	.03*
POEI	POEL	-.39	.19	.10
	JVE	-.03	.22	.98
JVE	POEL	-.36*	.14	.03*
	POEI	.03	.22	.98

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 20 showed that POELs had significantly higher scores than JVEs in item #7. Thus, participants in POELs perceived more participative decision-making and coaching behaviors than participants in JVEs. Table 21 shows perceptions of showing concern behavior.

Table 21

One-Way AVOVA on Individual Items for Perceptions of Showing Concern Behavior, by Three Types of Organizations

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Helps my work group see areas in which we need more training	Between Groups	5.20	2	2.60	1.88	.15
	Within Groups	473.03	343	1.37		
	Total	478.24	345			
Pays attention to my work group's efforts	Between Groups	1.94	2	.97	.96	.38
	Within Groups	347.09	343	1.01		
	Total	349.04	345			
Cares about work group members' personal problems	Between Groups	2.81	2	1.40	1.10	.33
	Within Groups	436.33	343	1.27		
	Total	439.14	345			
Treats work group members as equals	Between Groups	3.80	2	1.90	.93	.39
	Within Groups	696.38	343	2.03		
	Total	700.18	345			
Shows concern for work group members' success	Between Groups	4.32	2	2.16	1.71	.18
	Within Groups	432.41	343	1.26		
	Total	436.74	345			
Stays in touch with my work group	Between Groups	4.59	2	2.29	1.97	.14
	Within Groups	398.43	343	1.16		
	Total	403.02	345			
Gets along with my work group members	Between Groups	3.22	2	1.61	1.15	.31
	Within Groups	481.52	343	1.40		
	Total	484.75	345			
Gives work group members honest and fair answers	Between Groups	4.24	2	2.12	1.35	.25
	Within Groups	536.45	343	1.56		
	Total	540.69	345			

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 21 shows that there was no item of showing concern behavior that was significant. Table 22 shows perceptions of leading by example behavior.

Table 22

One-Way AVOVA for Individual Items for Perceptions of Leading by Example Behavior, by Three Types of Organizations

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Sets a good example by the way he/she behaves	Between Groups	.04	2	.02	.01	.98
	Within Groups	495.53	343	1.44		
	Total	495.58	345			
Leads by example	Between Groups	3.03	2	1.51	.78	.45
	Within Groups	660.36	343	1.92		
	Total	663.39	345			

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 22 shows that there was no item of leading by example behavior that was significant. Table 23 shows the overall perception of participative leadership behavior by gender.

Table 23

One-Way AVOVA for Perception of Participative Leadership Behavior, by Gender

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	118.18	1	118.18	.13	.71
Within Groups	304931.22	344	886.42		
Total	305049.41	345			

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 23 shows that there was no difference between genders on the overall perception of participative leadership behavior. Table 24 shows the overall perception of participative leadership behavior by years of working in the organizations.

Table 24

One-Way AVOVA for Perception of Participative Leadership Behavior, by Years of Working in the Organizations

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2668.08	3	889.36	1.01	.39
Within Groups	302381.32	342	884.15		
Total	305049.41	345			

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 24 shows that there was no difference between overall perception of participative leadership behavior and years of working in the organizations. Table 25 shows overall perception of participative leadership behavior by industry category.

Table 25

One-Way AVOVA for Perception of Participative Leadership Behavior, by Industry Category

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	12672.13	6	2112.02	2.44	.02*
Within Groups	292377.28	339	862.47		
Total	305049.41	345			

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 25 shows that there were differences on overall perception of participative leadership behavior based on industry category. Therefore, a Tukey-HSD post hoc test, shown in Table 26, was used to identify differences among different industry categories.

Table 26

Tukey-HSD Post Hoc for Industry Category

		Mean Difference	S.E.	Sig.
Manufacturing	Educational Service	-12.95	6.01	.32
	Finance/Insurance/Real Estate	-6.42	4.57	.79
	Health Service	-29.48	10.82	.09
	Information/Technology	-8.53	5.02	.61
	Wholesale/Retail Trade	-6.61	5.46	.88
	Other Service	2.76	5.41	.99
Educational Service	Manufacturing	12.95	6.01	.32
	Finance/Insurance/Real Estate	6.53	6.21	.94
	Health Service	-16.53	11.60	.78
	Information/Technology	4.42	6.55	.99
	Wholesale/Retail Trade	6.33	6.89	.96
	Other Service	15.71	6.85	.25
Finance/Insurance/ Real Estate	Manufacturing	6.42	4.57	.79
	Educational Service	-6.53	6.21	.94
	Health Service	-23.06	10.93	.34
	Information/Technology	-2.10	5.25	1.00
	Wholesale/Retail Trade	-0.19	5.67	1.00
	Other Service	9.18	5.63	.66
Health Service	Manufacturing	29.48	10.82	.09
	Educational Service	16.53	11.60	.78
	Finance/Insurance/Real Estate	23.06	10.93	.34
	Information/Technology	20.95	11.12	.49
	Wholesale/Retail Trade	22.86	11.32	.40
	Other Service	32.25	11.30	.06
Information/Tec hnology	Manufacturing	8.53	5.02	.61
	Educational Service	-4.42	6.55	.99
	Finance/Insurance/Real Estate	2.10	5.25	1.00
	Health Service	-20.95	11.12	.49
	Wholesale/Retail Trade	1.91	6.04	1.00
	Other Service	11.29	6.00	.49
Wholesale/Retail	Manufacturing	6.61	5.46	.88
	Educational Service	-6.33	6.89	.96
	Finance/Insurance/Real Estate	0.19	5.67	1.00

Trade	Health Service	-22.86	11.32	.40
	Information/Technology	-1.91	6.04	1.00
	Other Service	9.38	6.37	.76
Other Service	Manufacturing	-2.76	5.41	.99
	Educational Service	-15.71	6.85	.25
	Finance/Insurance/Real Estate	-9.18	5.63	.66
	Health Service	-32.25	11.30	.06
	Information/Technology	-11.29	6.00	.49
	Wholesale/Retail Trade	-9.38	6.37	.76

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

However, there were no differences after running the Tukey-HSD post hoc test, because the sensitivity of ANOVA is greater than the sensitivity of the Tukey-HSD post hoc test. ANOVA detects lower variability around means, while the Tukey-HSD post hoc test hardly distinguishes between the pair's means. Therefore, there may exist differences on the means but not on the post-hoc analysis (Zubcoff, 2011). Table 27 shows the overall perceptions of participative leadership behavior based on six regions.

Table 27

One-Way ANOVA for Perception of Participative Leadership Behavior, by Region

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	14256.29	5	2851.26	3.33	.01*
Within Groups	290793.11	340	855.27		
Total	305049.41	345			

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 27 shows that there were differences between overall perceptions of participative leadership behavior based on regions. Therefore, a Tukey-HSD post hoc test, shown in Table 28, was used to identify differences among different regions.

Table 28

Tukey-HSD Post Hoc for Region

		Mean Difference	S.E.	Sig.
North	Northeast	10.33	9.82	.90
	Northwest	23.62	8.86	.08
	East	10.60	5.60	.44
	Midsouth	15.80	6.04	.09
	Southwest	1.26	6.07	1.00
Northeast	North	-10.33	9.82	.90
	Northwest	13.29	11.16	.84
	East	-0.03	8.80	1.00
	Midsouth	5.46	9.09	.99
	Southwest	-9.07	9.11	.91
Northwest	North	-23.62	8.86	.08
	Northeast	-13.29	11.16	.84
	East	-13.32	7.72	.51
	Midsouth	-7.82	8.05	.92
	Southwest	-22.36	8.07	.06
East	North	-10.30	5.60	.44
	Northeast	0.03	8.80	1.00
	Northwest	13.32	7.72	.51
	Midsouth	5.49	4.20	.78
	Southwest	-9.04	4.24	.27
Midsouth	North	-15.80	6.04	.09
	Northeast	-5.46	9.09	.99
	Northwest	7.82	8.05	.92
	East	-5.49	4.20	.78
	Southwest	-14.54	4.80	.03*
Southwest	North	-1.26	6.07	1.00
	Northeast	9.07	9.11	.91
	Northwest	22.36	8.07	.06
	East	9.04	4.24	.27
	Midsouth	14.54	4.80	.03*

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 28 showed that the southwest region had significantly higher scores than the midsouth region. Thus, participants in the southwest region overall perceived more participative leadership style behaviors than participants in the midsouth region.

Summary

Overall, two significant differences existed in the informing and participative decision-making and coaching behavior of participative leadership style between POELs and JVEs, and both indicated that POELs produced higher levels of perception than JVEs. Furthermore, three specific behaviors were identified to explain these differences: (a) explains company goals; (b) explains company decisions; and (c) listens to my work group's ideas and suggestions. Participants in the southwest region overall perceived more participative leadership style behaviors than participants in the midsouth region.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This final chapter provides a summary of the dissertation, provides a discussion based on the findings, suggests conclusions, and offers implications for practice, theory, and future research.

Summary

Over the past decade, the Chinese economy has grown to be the second largest in the world (Associated Press, 2010; Black, 2013; Blecher, 2009; Robertson, Olson, Gilley, & Bao, 2007; Trading Economics, n.d.; Wang & Wheatley, 2010; Wu, 2010). Not only do Chinese CEOs plan to make more aggressive investments to expand their businesses, more than 400 international corporations have also invested in China (Brousseau et al., 2005). Although the Chinese Communist Party rules the country, the trending global market has opened the door for further economic expansion. As overseas corporations invest in local Chinese corporate branches or explore joint ventures with China, more and more Chinese corporations are working to expand their businesses out of the country. In order to survive in rapidly changing global markets, Chinese management teams must adopt an appropriate leadership style in order to retain talented employees and attract competent applicants to the company. Brousseau et al. (2005) concluded that Chinese business leaders are inclined to have more decisive and hierarchical styles—more task-oriented and intellectual—than do North American business leaders. Hierarchical leaders have their own ideas and explain to employees how best to do things right. They also exhibit less social and participative styles.

Therefore, in order to understand whether a participative leadership style has been adopted among Chinese companies, this study proposed two research questions:

1. Are there any differences of employees' perceptions of participative leadership behavior among three types of corporations: POELs, POEIs, and JVEs?
2. To what extent do Chinese supervisors exhibit the following characteristics of participative leadership behaviors in Chinese enterprises: (a) leading by example; (b) participative decision-making; (c) coaching; (d) informing; and (e) showing concern, and are these behaviors reflected differently based on type of organization? Based on factor analyses, (b) and (c) were combined into participative decision-making and coaching.

The study identified three kinds of corporations in China: (a) branch offices of foreign enterprises or joint-venture corporations (JVEs), such as Apple Inc.; (b) Chinese privately owned enterprises doing international business (POEIs), such as Haier Corporation; and (c) Chinese privately owned enterprises doing domestic business only (POELs), such as QQ.com.

The study adopted a validated questionnaire—the empowering leadership questionnaire—from Arnold et al. (2000). To assess participants' perceptions of participative leadership behavior from their supervisors, the questionnaire used a set of five constructs to measure participative leader behavior: (a) leading by example; (b) participative decision-making; (c) coaching; (d) informing; and (e) showing concern. Based on factor analyses, (b) and (c) were combined into participative decision-making and coaching.

The hypotheses proposed that (a) there are no differences among employees in JVEs, POEIs, and POELs on perceived participative leader behavior from their supervisors; and (b) there are no differences among employees in JVEs, POEIs, and POELs on individual items reflecting perceived participative leader behavior from their supervisors. One-way ANOVA was utilized to test the hypotheses. When the results showed differences in any behavior constructs, a further Tukey-HSD post hoc test was utilized to determine specific behavior item differences. Then, to answer the second research question, the mean and standard deviation for each item were displayed, and bar charts were utilized to demonstrate the frequency of each item within the three types of organizations. After that, one-way ANOVAs were utilized to compare individual items for all four categories and for individual items within categories to determine if there were differences among the three types of organizations.

Initial results indicated two significances in participative leadership between POELs and JVEs: the act of informing and participative decision-making and coaching. Consequently, three specific behaviors are identified that show differences between POELs and JVEs: (a) explains company goals; (b) explains company decisions; and (c) listens to my work group's ideas and suggestions. Supervisors in POELs perform at a higher level than supervisors in JVEs in all three of the behaviors in which there were differences.

Discussion

The findings of this study reveal several discussion points. I discuss recent Chinese leadership studies and discuss quanxi and ethnocentrism to address the higher perceptions of participative leadership behavior in POELs.

Recent Chinese Leadership Research

A recent study that compared Chinese paternalistic leadership style between mainland China and Hong Kong where the leader acts as a father figure by taking care of their subordinates as a parent would (Sheer, 2013), found that participants' perceptions of paternalistic leadership by their managers reported that employees in China had greater loyalty, commitment, and satisfaction with leadership than did their Hong Kong counterparts (Sheer, 2013). Is that another aspect of Chinese leadership that merits study?

Moreover, Wu, Huang, and Chan (2012) found that authoritarian leadership would definitely damage trust between Chinese supervisors and their subordinates, thereby having a negative effect on performance. Conversely, as business has driven Chinese leaders to change their leadership styles in order to survive in the global market, unfriendly authoritarian leadership may have shifted to a more friendly participative leadership style in China, which may have resulted in widespread use among POELs in recent years.

Factor of Guanxi and Ethnocentrism

The Chinese social system is classified as relation based, focusing on special relationships between individuals and based on reciprocity in order to achieve harmony (Chen & Easterby-Smith, 2008). Relationship, the Chinese term is guanxi, is very important in Chinese society, especially in the business world. It potentially pushes every Chinese employee to work very hard to complete their obligations, try to be loyal to friends, do favors, and maintain a reputation for fairness (Chen & Easterby-Smith, 2008). Therefore, it is a very common practice for Chinese leaders to be aware of all things being considered in their organizations, including informing behavior.

Unfortunately, it is also likely to see employees and supervisors using guanxi to solicit personal gains, so employees have greater loyalty, commitment, and satisfaction with their leadership. In a large corporation, such as a POEI or a JVE, supervisors are more straightforward. As they monitor results and performance, the concept of guanxi might not be very useful if employees do not meet their supervisor's expectations. In contrast, as employees are more concerned about company decisions and company goals, they pay greater attention to such ideas and expect their supervisor to inform them and explain decisions to them. As a result, if the supervisor does not inform subordinates substantially, subordinates strengthen their perceptions of not experiencing informing behavior.

It is understandable that, if subordinates cannot tolerate a supervisor, those subordinates look for other opportunities and leave the company. However, if they are employed by a POEI or a JVE, the situation might be different. Liu (2012) found that, if Taiwanese work in a POEI or a JVE, their main job satisfaction comes from the challenge of the job and payroll. Additionally, Taiwanese subordinates will demonstrate happier behavior and show more passion for their jobs when top management's leadership style is participating and delegating (Liu, 2012). Moreover, when employees felt that their company had good human resource practices and managed production operations well, they showed greater commitment to their jobs (Jiang, Baker, & Frazier, 2009). These conclusions explain why the result of this study shows that the overall scores of perceptions of participative leadership behavior in POEIs and JVEs are generally lower than in POELs: employees in POEIs and JVEs who are dissatisfied with their supervisor

will likely stay with a company, while dissatisfied employees in POELs are likely to leave right away.

A Chinese proverb says, “Don't wash your dirty linen in public” (Baidu.com, 2007), which teaches them to criticize family members in private and keep any scandal within the family circle. Has this become a part of Chinese subconscious and will therefore affect the research result? POELs are commonly family businesses, where employees are treated as family members. Generally, they are more loyal than other types of organizations.

Some studies in ethnocentrism of consumer behavior found a strong influence on preferences in shopping for domestic brands. Ishii (2009) found that Chinese consumer ethnocentrism is a combination of patriotism and negative internationalism. Patriotism is positively correlated with consumer ethnocentrism, but is negatively correlated with animosity. Moreover, Hsu and Nien (2008) found that ethnocentric consumers in Shanghai believe that their domestic brands are the best choices. Therefore, whenever participants in POELs are asked to participate in international research to compare leadership between domestic and outsiders, does ethnocentrism play a role to affect their answers to survey questions as well?

Has China Leadership Changed?

Despite the few items of significance, the findings of this study have provided insight into leadership behavior among Chinese business leaders. Driven by global business and employee preference, Chinese business leaders may have changed their leadership style from autocratic style to a more participating and delegating style, given the high means across all of the categories and across all of the types of organizations.

Just as China has dramatically increased its economic growth over the past 10 years, so does it appear that they have changed their leadership styles.

Although payroll, good human resource practices, and well-managed production operations would help employees to commit to their jobs in China (Jiang, Baker, & Frazier, 2009; Liu, 2012), leadership is still the major factor that motivates Chinese employees to reach anticipated outcomes. Appropriate leadership style will create a positive work climate and improve performance (Chen & Tjosvold, 2006; Yukl, 2002).

Conclusion

This study found that POEL leaders did better on informing and participative decision-making and coaching behavior than did JVE leaders. Hence, three specific behaviors explained these differences: (a) explains company goals; (b) explains company decisions; and (c) listens to my work group's ideas and suggestions.

Further, a Simplified Chinese instrument was validated with high reliability for measuring participative management styles.

Finally, relatively high means (all in the 4s on the 6-point Likert-type scale) verify that, regardless of organization type and its traditional culture, Chinese managers are perceived to have relatively high scores on participative management style.

Limitations of the Study

The observed items for some research variables were relatively small, so the results of this research may not be sufficient to determine the current relationship between perceptions of participative leadership behavior and types of organizations.

China is a very large country with multiple cultures and traditions, so the results of this study should be considered as preliminary findings obtained through surveying in

seven general business categories. Further studies might include participants in different industries or nonprofit organizations.

The study was also limited by the convenience of sampling in the online job banks in China. The organizational characteristics may be somewhat the same as those for the general population but may be different in that not all organizations might use online job banks for recruitment.

Finally, the results of this study are primarily for the benefit of China and may not be transferable to other countries, even those in which Chinese populations dominate, such as Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore, Macau, and so on.

Direction for Future Research

While more Chinese leadership research may be needed to determine whether participative leadership could work effectively in China because previous studies have become outdated (Bond, 1996; Hofstede, 1991, 2001; Hui & Tan, 1996), the research used in this study does not support that point. Further, Communist ideologies that emphasizes whole-hearted service to the people, loyalty to the Party and its leader, and hard work and self-sacrifice for collective interests may not reach far enough to influence Chinese business practices. Some research has contended that Communist ideologies help foster a more command-based leadership style in typical Chinese enterprises (Tsui et al., 2004). This study found some differences in participative behavior between POELs, POEIs, and JVEs, as well as regions in China. Findings from this study have broadened the understanding of Chinese employees' perceptions of participative leadership behavior in current organizations.

This research suggests possible directions for future research that could result in meaningful and innovative studies. Chinese tradition, values, and perceptions are so different from those in the West that there is an urgent need for West and East to understand each other better. A case study or interpretive research might provide additional ways to understand Chinese leadership and the present leadership phenomenon and to ensure representation of Chinese leadership style and behavior.

As specified earlier, China is a very large country, with regional differences likely. This study found differences based on region, and further research would be useful in identifying internal differences that might exist within China. Moreover, this study did not find any differences based on gender or industry category. Future research might add more demographic data useful, such as support staff and operational staff to explore factors that might have differences.

There are also many approaches to leadership. This study used one perspective only. However, much research in the area of leadership focuses on Bass' (1990) transactional-transformational constructs. Use of Bass' instrument might indicate other ways to view Chinese leadership.

Unfortunately, much of the research across Asia uses a western perspective with western instruments. Future research might focus on the creation of an indigenous instrument to look at leadership style from a Chinese perspective. It is recommended to start up a platform, perhaps using a blog format, to be composed not only domestic scholars, corporation leaders, and domestic HRD practitioners, but also provide an online forum for freelancers who are interested in this topic with the objective of exchanging

ideas and collaborating on the research in order to develop an thorough indigenous instrument.

While using performance as an outcome variable is extremely difficult, it is very important to determine if there is a relationship between leadership style and performance within the Chinese context. This might be done by having employees make judgments about their own organization's performance relative to their major competitors.

Implications for Practice

All kinds of businesses work very hard to survive and succeed in the market. Even extrinsic motivators, such as payroll and, good human resource practices, help talented employee commit to their jobs (Jiang, Baker, & Frazier, 2009; Liu, 2012). Leadership is the key to energizing employees' intrinsic motivation to work diligently. As long as employees have internal desire to perform, they improve productivity, profit, and long-term growth (Francis & Mazany, 1996) to give organizations a competitive advantage. This research provides HRD professionals with a reference to help supervisors develop participative leadership in China, recognizing the items on which supervisors generally scored the lowest within the Chinese context.

Expatriate and inpatriate managers need training to be familiar with Chinese leadership and leadership styles in the country to which the Chinese managers are being sent. The results of this study will enable such managers to understand how their preferred styles might differ from styles with which the managers are more accustomed.

Implications for Theory

Odubiyi (2010) suggested that power distance contributes to leadership style. A low power distance country, such as the US (40), that is accustomed to participative

leadership style, may not succeed in China. However, as the results show that supervisors in POELs behave with more informing activity than supervisors in JVEs, it reflects Hofstede (2001)'s PDI concept that might be out of date to explain current differences between POELs and JVEs. The evidence of this study provides HRD professional a new direction to figure out a leadership style that combines both autocratic and participative styles that work well among Chinese businesses.

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Appendix A: Dr. Arnold's Permission

Empowering Leadership Questionnaire | [chux0058@umn.edu](#) |

☆ **Chemin Chu**  to **jarnold** [show details](#) Feb 4 [Reply to all](#) ▼

Hi Professor Arnold:

I am a doctoral student in the University of Minnesota. I found your article "The empowering leadership questionnaire: the construction and validation of a new scale for measuring leader behaviors" was very interesting and would like to use this questionnaire in my dissertation research in China. My research is going to find out the differences of empowering leadership between Chinese companies with and without doing global business. My professor told me to ask for permission to use before doing my research. As you are the lead researcher in this article, may I have your permission to use ELQ, so I will translate it into Chinese to do the research?

Best regards,

- Chemin

[Reply](#) [Forward](#)

☆ **Chemin Chu**  to **jarnold** [show details](#) Feb 16 [Reply to all](#) ▼

Dear Professor Arnold:

It has been almost two weeks to hear from you. I will appreciate your approval as soon as possible because it will take a lot of time in the process to translate ELQ, review by subject matter experts, and send the questionnaires. Thank you for your attention on this matter.

Best regards,

- Chemin
- Show quoted text -

[Reply](#) [Forward](#)

☆ **Josh Arnold**  to **Chemin** [show details](#) Feb 16 [Reply to all](#) ▼

Dear Chemin,

I am currently on leave, attending to family issues.

You have my permission to use the ELQ for your research.

Good luck,

Josh Arnold

- Show quoted text -

[Reply](#) [Forward](#)  [Invite Josh Arnold to chat](#)

Appendix B: Questionnaire (English Version)

PART A:

Please read each statement carefully and indicate how you agree on each statement according to your observations of the organization you are working with by circling the number after each statement. There is no right or wrong answer to each question. However, your precise information is very help to this study, so please respond as accurately as possible.

	1 = Strongly Disagree	4 = Mildly Agree					
	2 = Disagree	5 = Agree				<i>Strongly</i>	<i>Strongly</i>
	3 = Mildly Disagree	6 = Strongly Agree				<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Agree</i>
1. Sets high standards for performance by his/her own behavior	1	2	3	4	5	6	
2. Works as hard as he/she can	1	2	3	4	5	6	
3. Works as hard as anyone in my work group	1	2	3	4	5	6	
4. Sets a good example by the way he/she behaves	1	2	3	4	5	6	
5. Leads by example	1	2	3	4	5	6	
6. Encourages work group members to express ideas/suggestions	1	2	3	4	5	6	
7. Listens to my work group's ideas and suggestions	1	2	3	4	5	6	
8. Uses my work group's suggestions to make decisions that affect us	1	2	3	4	5	6	
9. Gives all work group members a chance to voice their opinions	1	2	3	4	5	6	
10. Considers my work group's ideas when he/she disagrees with them	1	2	3	4	5	6	
11. Makes decisions that are based only on his/her own ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	
12. Helps my work group see areas in which we need more training	1	2	3	4	5	6	
13. Suggests ways to improve my work group's performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	
14. Encourages work group members to solve problems together	1	2	3	4	5	6	
15. Encourages work group members to exchange information with one another	1	2	3	4	5	6	
16. Provides help to work group members	1	2	3	4	5	6	
17. Teaches work group members how to solve problems on their own	1	2	3	4	5	6	
18. Pays attention to my work group's efforts	1	2	3	4	5	6	
19. Tells my work group when we perform well	1	2	3	4	5	6	
20. Supports my work group's efforts	1	2	3	4	5	6	
21. Helps my work group focus on our goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	
22. Helps develop good relations among work group members	1	2	3	4	5	6	
23. Explains how my work group fits into the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	
24. Explains company goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	

25. Explains company decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. Explains the purpose of the company's policies to my work group	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. Explains rules and expectations to my work group	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. Explains his/her decisions and actions to my work group	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. Cares about work group members' personal problems	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. Shows concern for work group members' well-being	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. Treats work group members as equals	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. Takes the time to discuss work group members' concerns patiently	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. Shows concern for work group members' success	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. Stays in touch with my work group	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. Gets along with my work group members	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. Gives work group members honest and fair answers	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. Knows what work is being done in my work group	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. Finds time to chat with work group members	1	2	3	4	5	6

PART B: ORGANIZATIONAL INFORMATION

I. What is the industry of your organization?

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Manufacturing | <input type="checkbox"/> Educational Services |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Finance/insurance/real estate | <input type="checkbox"/> Health Services |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Information | <input type="checkbox"/> Wholesale/Retail Trade |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please specify: _____) | |

II. What kinds of organization does your company belong?

- JVE (For example: Apple Inc.)
- POEI (For example: Haier Inc.)
- POEL (For example: Tencent [qq.com])

III. How long have you worked in the company?

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-2 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 3-5 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 6-10 years | <input type="checkbox"/> More than 11 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please specify:_____) | |

IV. Your gender:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Male | <input type="checkbox"/> Female |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|

V. How old are you?

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Under 20 | <input type="checkbox"/> 21-29 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 30-39 | <input type="checkbox"/> 40-49 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 50-59 | <input type="checkbox"/> More than 60 |

VI. What city are you working in this company?

- | | |
|---|------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Beijing | <input type="checkbox"/> Shanghai |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Guangzhou | <input type="checkbox"/> Chongqing |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Wuhan | <input type="checkbox"/> Harbin |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please specify:_____) | |

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Appendix C: Questionnaire (Chinese Version)

参与式领导问卷

第一部分:

请仔细阅读每个句子，并选出适当的数字来表示你对该句子同意的程度。请根据你对你现在工作团队的领导的观察，圈选你对该句子同意的程度。每个句子并没有所谓的正确或错误的答案。然而，这项研究仰赖您给我们的正确的信息，所以请尽可能精准的回答。

1 = 强烈不同意	4 = 稍微同意				
2 = 不同意	5 = 同意				
3 = 稍微不同意	6 = 强烈同意	强烈不同意			强烈同意
1. 领导的个人行为，为工作表现设立高标准	1	2	3	4	5 6
2. 领导尽其所能的努力工作	1	2	3	4	5 6
3. 领导和工作团队的成员同等努力	1	2	3	4	5 6
4. 领导的行为树立了一个好榜样	1	2	3	4	5 6
5. 领导以身作则	1	2	3	4	5 6
6. 领导鼓励工作团队成员表达意见或建议	1	2	3	4	5 6
7. 领导会倾听我们工作团队的意见和建议	1	2	3	4	5 6
8. 领导会用我们工作团队所提的意见做出对我们有所影响的决策	1	2	3	4	5 6
9. 领导让所有工作团队成员有机会表达他们的意见	1	2	3	4	5 6
10. 即使领导不同意我们工作团队的想法时，他(她)也会考虑我们工作团队的想法	1	2	3	4	5 6
11. 领导做决策时只会根据他(她)自己的想法	1	2	3	4	5 6
12. 领导帮助我们的工作团队看我们在哪些领域需要更多的训练	1	2	3	4	5 6
13. 领导会建议我们如何改善我们工作团队的表现	1	2	3	4	5 6
14. 领导鼓励工作团队的成员一起解决问题	1	2	3	4	5 6
15. 领导鼓励工作团队成员彼此交流信息	1	2	3	4	5 6
16. 领导会对我们工作团队的成员提供必要的帮助	1	2	3	4	5 6
17. 领导会教导我们工作团队的成员如何自己解决问题	1	2	3	4	5 6
18. 领导重视我们工作团队的努力	1	2	3	4	5 6
19. 当我们表现良好时，领导会让我们的工作团队知道	1	2	3	4	5 6
20. 领导支持我们工作团队的努力	1	2	3	4	5 6
21. 领导会帮助我们工作团队专注于我们的目标	1	2	3	4	5 6
22. 领导会帮助我们培养工作团队成员之间的美好	1	2	3	4	5 6

关系							
23.	领导会解释说明我们的工作团队和公司是如何地相融	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	领导会解释说明公司目标	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	领导会解释说明公司决策	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	领导会对我们的工作团队解释公司政策及其目的	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	领导会对我们工作团队解释规则和期望	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	领导会对我们工作团队说明他(她)的决定和行动	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	领导关心工作团队成员的个人问题	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	领导展现出他(她)关心工作团队成员的身心健康	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	领导平等地对待工作团队成员	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	领导耐心的花时间来讨论工作团队成员的顾虑	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	领导展现出他(她)关心工作团队成员的成功	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	领导和我们的工作团队保持联系	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	领导和我们工作团队相处融洽	1	2	3	4	5	6
36.	领导提供工作团队成员坦白和公平的答案	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	领导知道我们的工作团队完成了哪些工作	1	2	3	4	5	6
38.	领导会抽空和工作团队成员聊天	1	2	3	4	5	6

第二部分：公司信息

I. 公司是属于什么行业？

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 制造业 | <input type="checkbox"/> 教育服务 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 金融 / 保险 / 房地产 | <input type="checkbox"/> 医疗服务 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 资讯业 | <input type="checkbox"/> 批发 / 零售业 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 其他（请注明：） | |

II. 贵公司是

- 外资企业（举例：苹果公司）
- 国际私企（举例：海尔集团）
- 本土私企（举例：腾讯网）

III. 您在这公司有多久了？

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1 - 2 年 | <input type="checkbox"/> 3 - 5 年 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 6 - 10 年 | <input type="checkbox"/> 11 年以上 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 其他（请注明：） | |

IV. 您的性别

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 男 | <input type="checkbox"/> 女 |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|

V. 您的年龄：

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 20 岁以下 | <input type="checkbox"/> 21 - 29 岁 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 30 - 39 岁 | <input type="checkbox"/> 40 - 49 岁 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 50 - 59 岁 | <input type="checkbox"/> 60 岁以上 |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> 其他（请注明：） |

VI. 您工作的城市是

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 北京 | <input type="checkbox"/> 上海 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 广州 | <input type="checkbox"/> 重庆 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 武汉 | <input type="checkbox"/> 哈尔滨 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 其他（请注明：） | |

非常感谢您的合作！

Appendix D: IRB Approval

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Twin Cities Campus

*Human Research Protection Program
Office of the Vice President for Research*

*D528 Mayo Memorial Building
420 Delaware Street S.E.
MMC 820
Minneapolis, MN 55455
Office: 612-626-5654
Fax: 612-626-6061
E-mail: irb@umn.edu or ilrc@umn.edu
Website: <http://research.umn.edu/subjects/>*

02/06/2012

Chemin Chu
Work,Community/Family Edu
Room 210 VoTech
1954 Buford Ave
St Paul, MN 55108

RE: "Participative Leadership Behavior among Business Leaders in China"
IRB Code Number: **1201P09229**

Dear Chemin Chu:

The referenced study was reviewed by expedited review procedures and approved on February 3, 2012. If you have applied for a grant, this date is required for certification purposes as well as the Assurance of Compliance number which is FWA00000312 (Fairview Health Systems Research FWA00000325, Gillette Children's Specialty Healthcare FWA 00004003). Approval for the study will expire one year from that date. A report form will be sent out two months before the expiration date.

Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval of this study includes the consent form received January 24, 2012.

The IRB would like to stress that subjects who go through the consent process are considered enrolled participants and are counted toward the total number of subjects, even if they have no further participation in the study. Please keep this in mind when calculating the number of subjects you request. This study is currently approved for 600 subjects. If you desire an increase in the number of approved subjects, you will need to make a formal request to the IRB.

The code number above is assigned to your research. That number and the title of your study must be used in all communication with the IRB office.

As the Principal Investigator of this project, you are required by federal regulations to inform the IRB of any proposed changes in your research that will affect human subjects. Changes should not be initiated until written IRB approval is received. Unanticipated problems and adverse events should be reported to the IRB as they occur. Research projects are subject to continuing review and renewal. If you have any questions, call the IRB office at 612-626-5654.

On behalf of the IRB, I wish you success with your research.

Sincerely,



Christina Dobrovolny, CIP
Research Compliance Supervisor
CD/ks

CC: Gary Mc Lean

1201P09229 - PI Chu - IRB - APVD Continuing Review

1 message

irb@umn.edu <irb@umn.edu>
To: chux0058@umn.edu

Sat, Jan 12, 2013 at 11:27 PM

TO : mclea002@umn.edu, chux0058@umn.edu,

The IRB: Human Subjects Committee renewed its approval of the referenced study listed below:

Study Number: 1201P09229

Principal Investigator: Chemin Chu

Expiration Date: 01/10/2014

Approval Date: 01/11/2013

Title(s):

Participative Leadership Behavior among Business Leaders in China

Appendix E: Consent Form (English Version)

Participative Leadership Behavior among Business Leaders in China

You are invited to be in a research study of participative leadership behavior among business leaders. You were selected as a possible participant because you are working in your company at least one year. We ask that you read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Background Information:

The purpose of this study is to understand how Chinese business leaders and their employees perceive participative leadership behavior in China. It is going to compare three types of enterprises in China which are 1) joint venture enterprises such as Apple Inc; 2) private own enterprises that are doing international business such as Haier Group; and 3) private own enterprises that are doing business in China only such as QQ.com. The leadership style in this study indicates participative leadership style.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, we would ask you to do the questionnaire online at <https://zh.surveymonkey.com/s/chux0058>

There are two parts of the questionnaire. First part is your perception of leadership style in the company, and the second part is the demographic information. The questionnaire takes about 10 minutes to finish.

Confidentiality:

The records of this study will be kept private. In any sort of report we might publish, we will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject. Research records will be stored securely and only researchers will have access to the records. Study data will be encrypted according to current University policy for protection of confidentiality.

Contacts and Questions:

Is conducting this study are: Chemin Chu. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you are encouraged to contact them at 651-329-7040.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than I, you are encouraged to contact the Research Subjects' Advocate Line, at (612) 626-5654.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Signature of Investigator: _____ Date: _____

Appendix F: Consent Form (Chinese Version)

同意书

您被邀请参加一项由美国明尼苏达大学博士生主持的研究。本知情同意书提供给您一些信息以帮助您决定是否参加此项研究。您参加本项研究是自愿的。本次研究已通过美国明尼苏达大学研究机构伦理审查委员会审查。请您仔细阅读下列信息，如有任何疑问，请向负责该项研究的研究者提出。

本项目是针对中国企业的领导风格而进行的一项研究。本研究主要目的在于了解三种不同企业类型里员工对于领导风格的体验是否有所不同。这三种不同类型的企业分别是：外资企业（例如：苹果公司）、国际私企（例如：海尔集团），和本土私企（举例如腾讯网）。研究中所指的领导风格是指参与式的领导风格。

本研究邀请您填写一份问卷，问卷分成两个部分，第一部分请您针对领导风格的体验回答问题；第二部分邀请您提供您的基本资料，以利问卷分析研究。整份问卷预估将花费十分钟的时间完成。您的回答对于我们的研究非常重要，因此我们希望您能帮助我们完成这份研究。您所填答的各项资料，只提供给研究人员做为学术上的分析之用，不会做为其他用途，请您放心填写。

如果您同意参加，你将会被要求签署这表格以证明我们已与你商讨这项研究及你亦同意参加。您可以联络研究员朱哲民讨论任何与本研究有关的问题。他的美国联系电话号码是（651）329-7040

假如您有任何有关参予研究的权利和问题，您可以联络明尼苏达大学研究机构审查委员会，美国电话号码（612）626-5654 签署这份文件意味着这个研究已经告知您上述信息，并且您自愿的同意参与本研究。

签署您的大名在以下表格表示我已经阅读这份参加研究同意书并同意参加这项研究

签署

我已经阅读这份参加研究同意书。我同意参加这项研究。

签名日期 (Date)

参与者签名 (Participant's signature)

参与者的印名 (Participant's printed name)

Appendix G: Online Survey in SurveyMonkey Systems

参与式领导调研

本调研是针对中国企业的领导风格而进行的一项研究。本研究主要目的在于了解三种不同类型企业里员工对于领导风格的体验是否有所不同。这三种不同类型的企业分别是：外资企业（例如：苹果公司）、国际私企[市场扩及海外]（例如：海尔集团），和本土私企[市场集中国内]（例如：腾讯网）。研究中所指的领导风格是指参与式的领导风格。本研究邀请您填写一份问卷，问卷分成两个部分，第一部分请您针对领导风格的体验回答问题；第二部分邀请您提供您的基本资料，以利问卷分析研究。整份问卷预估将花费十分钟的时间完成。

You have completed 0% of this survey

0%



100%

同意书

*

亲爱的朋友，您好！

您被邀请参加一项由美国明尼苏达大学博士生主持的研究。本知情同意书提供给您一些信息以帮助您决定是否参加此项研究。您参加本项研究是自愿的。本次研究已通过美国明尼苏达大学研究机构伦理审查委员会审查。请您仔细阅读下列信息，如有任何疑问，请向负责该项研究的研究者提出。

本项目是针对中国企业的领导风格而进行的一项研究。本研究主要目的在于了解三种不同类型企业里员工对于领导风格的体验是否有所不同。这三种不同类型的企业分别是：外资企业（例如：苹果公司）、国际私企（例如：海尔集团），和本土私企（例如：腾讯网）。研究中所指的领导风格是指参与

式的领导风格。本研究邀请您填写一份问卷，问卷分成两个部分，第一部分请您针对领导风格的体验回答问题；第二部分邀请您提供您的基本资料，以利问卷分析研究。整份问卷预估将花费十分钟的时间完成。

您的回答对于我们的研究非常重要，因此我们希望您能帮助我们完成这份研究。您所填写的各项资料，只提供給研究人员做为学术上的分析之用，不会做为其他用途，请您放心填写。

如果您同意参加，你将会被要求签署这表格以证明我们已与你商讨这项研究及你亦同意参加。我们会给予你这份已经签名的表格副本。请收存这份已经签名的副本表格作纪录之用。这份副本表格有重要的名字及电话号码，将来你可能希望作参考之用。

您可以联络研究员朱哲民讨论任何与本研究有关的问题。他的美国联系电话号码是 (651) 329-7040

假如您有任何有关参与研究的权利和问题，您可以联络明尼苏达大学研究机构审查委员会，美国电话号码 (612) 626-5654

签署这份文件意味着这个研究已经告知您上述信息，并且您自愿的同意参与本研究。

签署

我已经阅读这份参加研究同意书。我同意参加这项研究。

***领导的个人行为，为工作表现设立高标准**
请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意

- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导尽其所能的努力工作**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导和我们工作团队的成员同等努力**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导的行为树立了一个好榜样**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导以身作则**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导鼓励工作团队的成员表达意见或建议**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会倾听我们工作团队的意见和建议**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会用我们工作团队所提的建议做出对我们有所影响的决策**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导让所有工作团队成员有机会表达他们的意见**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意

- 同意
- 非常同意



***当领导不同意我们工作团队的意见时，他(她)也会考虑我们的想法**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导做决策时只会根据他(她)自己的想法**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导帮助我们的工作团队看清我们在哪些领域需要更多的训练**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意

- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会建议我们如何改善我们工作团队的表现**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会鼓励工作团队的成员一起解决问题**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会鼓励工作团队的成员彼此交流信息**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会协助工作团队的成员**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会教导工作团队的成员如何自己解决问题**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导重视我们工作团队的努力**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***当我们表现良好时,领导会让我们的工作团队知道**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会支持我们工作团队的努力**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意

- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会帮助我们的工作团队专注于我们的目标**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会协助工作团队成员之间培养良好的关系**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会解释说明我们的工作团队如何成为公司的一分子**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意

- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会解释说明公司的目标**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会解释说明公司的决策**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会对我们的工作团队解释公司政策的目
的**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会对我们工作团队解释规定和期望**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会对我们工作团队说明他(她)的决定和行动**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会关心工作团队成员的个人问题**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导对工作团队成员的身心健康表示关心**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导平等对待工作团队的成员**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意

- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导耐心地花时间讨论工作团队成员的顾虑**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导对工作团队成员的成功表示关心**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导和我们的工作团队保持联系**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意

- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导和我们工作团队的成员相处融洽**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会提供工作团队成员坦白和公平的答案**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导知道我们的工作团队完成了哪些工作**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***领导会抽空和工作团队成员聊天**

请选择一个符合的选项

- 非常不同意
- 不同意
- 稍微不同意
- 稍微同意
- 同意
- 非常同意



***贵公司是属于什么行业?**

请选择一个符合的选项

请选择以下一项:

- 制造业
- 教育服务
- 金融 / 保险 / 房地产
- 医疗服务
- 资讯业

- 批发 / 零售业
- 其他 (请注明:)

请在此发表评论:

* 贵公司是:

请选择一个符合的选项

- 外资企业 (举例:苹果公司)
- 国际私企 (举例:海尔集团)
- 本土私企 (举例:腾讯网)

* 您在这公司有多久了?

请选择一个符合的选项

请选择以下一项:

- 1-2 年
- 3-5 年
- 6-10 年
- 11 年以上
- 其他 (请注明:)

请在此发表评论:

* 您的性别是:

- 女
- 男

*** 您的年龄:**

请选择一个符合的选项

请选择以下一项:

- 20 岁以下
- 21-29 岁
- 30-39 岁
- 40-49 岁
- 50-59 岁
- 60 岁以上
- 其他 (请注明:)

请在此发表评论:

*** 您工作的城市是:**

请选择一个符合的选项

请选择以下一项:

- 北京
- 上海
- 广州
- 武汉
- 重庆
- 天津
- 哈尔滨
- 沈阳
- 南京

- 成都
- 其他（请注明：）

A large, empty rectangular text area with a light gray border and a vertical scrollbar on the right side. It is intended for users to enter their comments.

请在此发表评论:

非常感谢您的合作!有任何反馈和建议,敬请指教:

A smaller, empty rectangular text area with a light gray border and a vertical scrollbar on the right side. It is intended for users to provide feedback or suggestions.

提交

[退出并清除答案]

Appendix H: Online Survey in UMSurvey

参与式领导问卷

*

1. 亲爱的朋友，您好！

您被邀请参加一项由美国明尼苏达大学博士生主持的研究。本知情同意书提供给您一些信息以帮助您决定是否参加此项研究。您参加本项研究是自愿的。本次研究已通过美国明尼苏达大学研究机构伦理审查委员会审查。请您仔细阅读下列信息，如有任何疑问，请向负责该项研究的研究者提出。

本项目是针对中国企业的领导风格而进行的一项研究。本研究主要目的在于了解三种不同企业类型里员工对于领导风格的体验是否有所不同。这三种不同类型的企业分别是：外资企业（例如：苹果公司）、国际私企（例如：海尔集团），和本土私企（举例如腾讯网）。研究中所指的领导风格是指参与式的领导风格。

本研究邀请您填写一份问卷，问卷分成两个部分，第一部分请您针对领导风格的体验回答问题；第二部分邀请您提供您的基本资料，以利问卷分析研究。整份问卷预估将花费十分钟的时间完成。您的回答对于我们的研究非常重要，因此我们希望您能帮助我们完成这份研究。您所填答的各项资料，只提供給研究人员做为学术上的分析之用，不会做为其他用途，请您放心填写。

如果您同意参加，你将会被要求签署这表格以证明我们已与你商讨这项研究及你亦同意参加。您可以联络研究员朱哲民讨论任何与本研究有关的问题。他的美国联系电话号码是 (651) 329-7040

假如您有任何有关参予研究的权利和问题，您可以联络明尼苏达大学研究机构审查委员会，美国电话号码 (612) 626-5654 签署这份文件意味着这个研究已经告知您上述信息，并且您自愿的同意参与本研究。

签署您的大名在以下表格表示我已经阅读这份参加研究同意书并同意参加这项研究。

*

2. 领导的个人行为，为工作表现设立高标准

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意

- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

3. 领导尽其所能的努力工作

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

4. 领导和我们工作团队的成员同等努力

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

5. 领导的行为树立了一个好榜样

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

6. 领导以身作则

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意

- 4. 稍微同意
 - 5. 同意
 - 6. 非常同意
7. 领导鼓励工作团队的成员表达意见或建议

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

8. 领导会倾听我们工作团队的意见和建议

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

9. 领导会用我们工作团队所提的建议做出对我们有所影响的决策

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

10. 领导让所有工作团队成员有机会表达他们的意见

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意

6. 非常同意

*

11. 当领导不同意我们工作团队的意见时，他(她)也会考虑我们的想法

1. 非常不同意

2. 不同意

3. 稍微不同意

4. 稍微同意

5. 同意

6. 非常同意

*

12. 领导做决策时只会根据他(她)自己的想法

1. 非常不同意

2. 不同意

3. 稍微不同意

4. 稍微同意

5. 同意

6. 非常同意

*

13. 领导帮助我们的工作团队看清我们在哪些领域需要更多的训练

1. 非常不同意

2. 不同意

3. 稍微不同意

4. 稍微同意

5. 同意

6. 非常同意

*

14. 领导会建议我们如何改善我们工作团队的表现

1. 非常不同意

2. 不同意

3. 稍微不同意

4. 稍微同意

5. 同意

6. 非常同意

*

15. 领导会鼓励工作团队的成员一起解决问题

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

16. 领导会鼓励工作团队的成员彼此交流信息

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

17. 领导会协助工作团队的成员

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

18. 领导会教导工作团队的成员如何自己解决问题

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

19. 领导重视我们工作团队的努力

- 1. 非常不同意

- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

20. 当我们表现良好时,领导会让我们的工作团队知道

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

21. 领导会支持我们工作团队的努力

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

22. 领导会帮助我们的工作团队专注于我们的目标

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

23. 领导会协助工作团队成员之间培养良好的关系

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意

- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

24. 领导会解释说明我们的工作团队如何成为公司的一分子

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

25. 领导会解释说明公司的目标

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

26. 领导会解释说明公司的决策

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

27. 领导会对我们的工作团队解释公司的政策及其政策的目的是

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意

6. 非常同意
28. 领导会对我们工作团队解释规定和对我们工作团队的期望
1. 非常不同意
2. 不同意
3. 稍微不同意
4. 稍微同意
5. 同意
6. 非常同意

*

29. 领导会对我们工作团队说明他(她)的决定和行动
1. 非常不同意
2. 不同意
3. 稍微不同意
4. 稍微同意
5. 同意
6. 非常同意

*

30. 领导会关心工作团队成员的个人问题
1. 非常不同意
2. 不同意
3. 稍微不同意
4. 稍微同意
5. 同意
6. 非常同意

*

31. 领导对工作团队成员的身心健康表示关心
1. 非常不同意
2. 不同意
3. 稍微不同意
4. 稍微同意
5. 同意
6. 非常同意

*

32. 领导平等对待工作团队的成员

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

33. 领导耐心地花时间讨论工作团队成员的顾虑

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

34. 领导对工作团队成员的成功表示关心

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

35. 领导和我们的工作团队保持联系

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

36. 领导和我们工作团队的成员相处融洽

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意

- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

37. 领导会为工作团队成员提供坦诚,公正的答案

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

38. 领导知道我们的工作团队完成了哪些工作

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

39. 领导会抽空和工作团队成员聊天

- 1. 非常不同意
- 2. 不同意
- 3. 稍微不同意
- 4. 稍微同意
- 5. 同意
- 6. 非常同意

*

40. 第二部分: 公司信息

I. 公司是属于什么行业?

- 制造业
- 教育服务

- 金融 / 保险 / 房地产
- 医疗服务
- 资讯业
- 批发 / 零售业
- 其他 (请注明:)

*

41. II. 贵公司是

- 外资企业 (举例: 苹果公司)
- 国际私企 (举例: 海尔集团)
- 本土私企 (举例: 腾讯网)

*

42. III. 您在这公司有多久了?

- 1 - 2 年
- 3 - 5 年
- 6 - 10 年
- 11 年以上
- 其他 (请注明:)

*

43. IV. 您的性别

- 男
- 女

*

44. VI. 您工作的城市是

- 北京
- 上海
- 广州
- 武汉
- 上海
- 重庆
- 哈尔滨
- 其他 (请注明:)

Appendix I: Two Sample Letters to Recruit Chinese Participants

Survey Dissertation x 📄 🖨 📎

 **Gary Vickrey** <gvickrey@jacksonleadership.com> 2/22/12 ☆ ↶ ▾
to clshea, tsnyder, me ▾

Christian and Terry,

I am working with a Ph.D. Student at the U of Minn. to collect leadership data in Chinese businesses – the research is to map how Western leadership philosophies map onto Chinese leadership characteristics and behaviors. We have received approval from the IRB (Chinese Gov) to collect the data.

The survey is online, and in Mandarin and should not take more than 15 mins. Is there someone I can talk to at PKFI to see if they would be willing to ask their Firm (employees) to complete the survey?

We are also collecting surveys from:
Husky Intl.
Clayton & McKervey – We have talked to Julie Qi for the last two year to set this up
Horwath Int.
And a Chinese Venture Cap Co.

I would really appreciate your help. We will provide all companies/Firms that participate with a copy of the findings and reports for how Chinese and Western Leaders can best integrate their leadership styles.

Gary Vickrey
President
JLS-VICKREY
Toronto/Indianapolis
P + (317) 903.7932
E gvickrey@jacksonleadership.com | W <http://www.jacksonleadership.com> |

Participative leadership - research project

8 messages

Darley, Stephen (International) <stephen.darley@pkf.com> Sun, Mar 25, 2012 at 10:12 PM
To: Henry Leung <henryleung@pkf-hk.com>, David Leong <davidleong@pkf-hk.com>
Cc: "Gary Vickrey (gvickrey@jacksonleadership.com)" <gvickrey@jacksonleadership.com>, "Chemin Chu (cchu2007@gmail.com)" <cchu2007@gmail.com>

Dear Henry, David

We at PKFI have an opportunity to be part of a research project with the University of Minnesota in the United States that is assessing the impact that "Participative Leadership" (inclusivity, involving others, being open to the input of others) has on Chinese businesses that do work internationally. Gary Vickrey, an Industrial/Organizational Psychologist that works extensively with PKF North America and has worked throughout Asia, is conducting this research with Che-Min Chu from the University of Minnesota.

Specifically, the research is targeting three types of business in China:

1. Joint Venture Businesses
2. Privately Owned Chinese businesses with International Clients
3. Privately Owned Chinese businesses with National (China Only) Clients

Che-Min has built a 44 item online survey (which takes 10 minutes to complete) that is written in Mandarin.

Gary has requested permission to allow Che-Min to send the online survey to your employees. Again, the surveys are all online, in Mandarin, and will take less than 10 minutes to complete. Once given the email addresses and names of the employees, Che-Min will set up, send, and collect all surveys himself. There will be no administrative burden on your Firm beyond providing the names and emails of your employees that will participate.

Once the data is collected, Gary and Che-Min will provide you and your Firm with the findings of the research. I feel this research will be a great opportunity for you and your Firm to see how your Firm's culture impacts your success when interacting with International Clients. There is also the opportunity for the data to be shared at an upcoming PKFI event.

Gary will be in touch directly with further information as required and answer any questions. I commend you and your organization to assist in this endeavor.

Thank you for your consideration.....

Kind rgds

Stephen Darley

Asia Pacific Regional Director

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Appendix K: Clustered Bar Charts of Each Item

