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INTRODUCTION

Your attitude towards what the Japanese refer to as 'forest bathing'[2] is possibly that it is important for your health. If your attitude is closely tied to some of the values and beliefs in your cultural vicinity, then you would probably place a high value on such an outdoors' experience. But will this necessarily make you walk in the forest, breathe the fresh air and make your heart pump happily in a healthy body? Perhaps. Perhaps not. The question of whether attitudes and values can explain behavior and help us understand not only what is going on, but possibly even predict what will happen, has long engaged scholars across many disciplines. But (as yet) there are no simple answers.

If we turn to the area of leadership, it is well-established that leadership attitudes vary across countries. But attitudes about leadership are so-called 'far-from-action' approaches, which stress general subconscious needs and values, while so-called 'close-to-action' approaches include specific goals and intentions (Locke & Latham, 1990; Szabo et al, 2001). This is an important dichotomous distinction because the specific close-to-action approaches "have been far more successful in explaining action than the general, far-from-action concepts" (Locke & Latham, 1990:6). The larger predictive power could be due to that situational and contextual aspects are taken into consideration for the close-to-action concepts, but not for the far-to-action ones. In order to increase our knowledge about leadership behavior we would thus need to explore more 'close-to-action' leadership concepts (Szabo et al., 2001). Drawing on Locke (1991:293), who argues that intentions are "among the most direct and motivational determinants of performance", Szabo et al. (2001) suggest that 'behavioral intent' could serve as such a 'close-to-action' leadership measure. Despite the intuitive appeal of using behavioral intent, psychology research has not univocally supported its place as an effective link between attitudes and behavior. In this chapter, we will instead propose a related, yet distinctly different concept, 'action intent' as our close-to-action concept. We differentiate 'action intent' from

[2] Qing Li (2018) describes how in Japan, "we practice something called forest bathing, or shinrin-yoku. Shinrin in Japanese means "forest," and yoku means "bath." So shinrin-yoku means bathing in the forest atmosphere, or taking in the forest through our senses" (see: https://time.com/5259602/japanese-forest-bathing/ accessed on July 25, 2019)

behavioral intent in that action intent is detailed with situational and contextual specifics, serving as cues to the transformation of intent into action. This leads us to our first research question of what can we learn by using action intent as a close-to-action concept when examining leadership across countries?

Large-scale cross-national research has been a relative rarity (Tsui et al., 2007). The importance of conducting this type of multi-country studies lies in Smith et al.'s (2002:189) assertion that in order to yield convincing results, "culture-level studies must include an adequately representative range of currently existing nations". Variation in leadership attitudes, ideals, perceptions and preferences identified in large-scale multi-country studies has been reliably associated with national culture (see e.g., House et al., 2004; Smith et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2002; Zander, 1997). We are in this chapter especially interested in the situational and contextual cues offered by national culture. Early research on leadership, aimed at explaining across-country variation with national culture differences, relied mainly on the work of Hofstede (1984). With the emergence of additional cultural frameworks (e.g., House et al., 2004; Maznevski et al., 2002; Schwartz, 1994; Trompenaars, 1993) scholars have broadened our knowledge about the interplay between national cultural values and leadership. Cementing a significant relationship between culture and leadership, we may thus speak with confidence about culture-endorsed leadership.

House et al. (2004: 15) define culture as "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations". Members of the same culture share a common frame of reference, which we can think of as implicit leadership beliefs. These beliefs have a strong impact on our expectations and perceptions of leadership, forming our leadership ideals, and framing our leadership perceptions. In their attempt to seek evidence for implicit theory, Eden and Leviathan (1975) examined ratings of perceived leadership behavior and found that the variance could not be attributed to respondents' experience (or any instructions they had been given at the onset of the survey). Therefore, they argued, such variation must be due to implicit patterning of leadership behaviors as preconceptions of leadership in the minds of the respondents, and reflective of the culture

at large (Eden & Leviathan, 1975). This line of inquiry is still flourishing 40 years later, but as theorizing about implicit leadership (and followership) becomes more complex there is a dire need for more empirical research (Foti et al., 2017). Our second research question is therefore whether managers tap into nationally held perceptions of what constitutes ideal leadership prototypes when deciding how to act in specific situations?

Our ambition in this chapter is thus to contribute to a more fine-grained understanding of leadership globally by introducing 'action intent' as a close-to-action measure. We will first briefly discuss large-scale studies of leadership around the world before moving to how we came to 'action intent' as an appropriate close-to-action leadership measure. Subsequently, we will present and discuss an empirical illustration where 1,868 leaders in 22 countries have made action choices for handling six specific leadership scenarios. This is followed by an analysis of whether the respondents tapped into their culturally endorsed leadership ideals when making their choices of the action alternatives. The chapter wraps up with implications for global leadership and making a difference as a global leader.

LEADERSHIP AROUND THE WORLD

In the cross-cultural large-scale leadership literature the focus has mainly been on measuring leadership around the world in form of attitudes and ideals, preferences and perceptions (including leadership evaluations). These empirical advancements have resulted in accumulated leadership knowledge, which cannot be seen as lacking in relevance. On the contrary. The cross-cultural leadership research to date has provided us with a firm foundation for research on the intercultural interpersonal aspects of global leadership and with it an increased cultural awareness. It is however time to expand our understanding of leadership specifics across cultural contexts by moving closer to the action.

The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Project (GLOBE), headed by the late Professor Bob House, pulled together 170 scholars worldwide to participate in identifying, measuring and finally developing six leadership dimensions based on managers' perceptions of

leadership attributes and attitudes that enhance or impede outstanding leadership (House et al., 2004). Drawing on implicit leadership theory, House et al. (2004:710) developed and measured so called ideal leadership prototypes, which can provide guidance to global leaders but also more broadly inform "meaningful prescriptions for cross-cultural strategy and policy formulation, organizational improvement interventions, human resource management practices, the design of organizational structures and incentive and control systems, and a multitude of business and management issues". The project examined ideal leadership in 62 countries and found that most of the studied leadership prototypes were related to cultural values and beliefs (House et al., 2004). Several studies have focused on the GLOBE dimensions and their relationship to leadership perceptions (see e.g., Brodbeck et al., 2000; Den Hartog et al., 1999; Gupta et al., 2004; House et al., 2004; Resick et al., 2006). Den Hartog et al. (1999) found that some aspects of charismatic/transformation leadership were universally endorsed, although most of the studied leadership aspects varied across countries. Brodbeck et al. (2000) demonstrated how perceptions about leader attributes and ideals differed significantly within a single region in the European subset of GLOBE. Other groups of co-investigators in the GLOBE project have similarly discussed leadership ideals in different cultural regions of the world in more detail. Gupta et al. (2004) tested a construct of entrepreneurial leadership using the full GLOBE data (62 countries) and found that it correlated negatively with Hofstede's power distance and uncertainty avoidance dimensions and positively with individualism. Resick et al. (2006) used the data collected in the GLOBE project to identify four aspects of ethical leadership - Character/Integrity, Altruism, Collective Motivation, and Encouragement, important to effective leadership across cultures. These four were also culturally endorsed by GLOBE's cultural dimensions.

All of these, and other studies, have provided ample evidence of cultural endorsement, reliability and relevance of using attitudes and ideals to study leadership. Alas, drawing on ideal leader prototypes involves using leadership dimensions that fall into the group of far-to-action leadership concepts, which are less able to predict leadership behavior (Locke & Latham, 1990; Szabo et al., 2001). There are, however, leadership studies engaging in less 'far-from-action' concepts. In these studies, subordinate respondents are typically asked about their perceptions of managers' leadership

behaviors or have assessed their managers' behaviors. A few large-scale studies have thus focused on perceptions and evaluations of leadership behavior (e.g., Bochner & Hesketh, 1994; Offermann & Hellmann, 1997; Zander, 2002). For example, Bochner and Hesketh (1994) tested the influence of Hofstede's individualism and power distance dimensions on superior-subordinate relationships, decision-making styles, work ethic, task orientation, psychological contracts and individual and group achievement on a sample of employees in 28 countries. Although, the authors did find some variance between ingroups and outgroups they emphasized that broadly based cultural values, such as those derived by Hofstede, 'spill over into the workplace'. Offermann and Hellmann (1997) found that subordinates' assessments of managers' leadership practices in 39 diverse national cultures were related to several of Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Uncertainty avoidance was significantly positively associated with more leader control, and less delegation and approachability whereas power distance proved to be significantly and negatively associated with leader communication, delegation, approachability, and team building. Drawing on data collected in 12 European countries, Zander (2002) compared the extent to which subordinates evaluated their immediate manager to empower them with the extent to which subordinates wanted to be empowered. The empowering preferences were drawn from Zander (1997), which included data from more than 17,000 employees in 18 countries. Theoretically derived, developed and measured interpersonal leadership dimensions (empowering, coaching, directing, communicating and interacting) were shown to be significantly associated with cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1984; Laurent, 1983; Maznevski et al., 2002; Schwartz, 1994; Trompenaars, 1993). In Zander (2002) the degree of congruence between subordinates' perceptions of their immediate manager's empowering, and subordinates' preferences of empowering was found to be significantly related to subordinates' satisfaction with their work duties.

However, despite encouraging findings of culturally endorsed leadership perceptions and evaluations, these measures lack the contextual and situational specificity that characterizes a closer-to-action concept (Locke & Latham, 1990; Szabo et al., 2001). A few large-scale multi-country projects have focused on concepts that are closer to action compared to those reviewed earlier in this section. By surveying how specific situations and events are handled by leaders, a few researchers

have come somewhat closer to examining actual leadership behavior (Fu et al., 2004; Smith et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2002). Smith et al. (1998) asked managers and supervisors in various organizations in 23 countries about the extent to which disagreements take place at work and how they are handled, relating them to Hofstede's (1984) power distance and individualism dimensions. In another project, Smith et al. (2002) studied the sources of guidance that managers use in 47 countries when handling a specific set of events. They tested the ability of Hofstede's (2001), Smith et al.'s (1996), and Schwartz' (1994) cultural dimensions to predict sources of guidance self-reported by managers, and found that these could be successfully made for vertical relationships in organizations but less so for lateral relationships. The authors conclude that there is a need for a greater cultural sensitivity and more contextualized aspects of managerial experience to understand leadership behavior across countries. Fu et al. (2004) are among the few to use scenarios in their study. The authors attempted to predict the perceived effectiveness of influence strategies employed by managers when handling specific situations at work. In their study, they tested and found support for a link between GLOBE-based cultural dimensions (in-group collectivism, uncertainty avoidance and future orientation) as well as social beliefs (e.g., religiosity and cynicism) and how managers in twelve countries had indicated the effectiveness of various tactics in solving a situation involving the need to influence another coworker.

In sum, cross-cultural leadership studies have mainly focused on attitudes and ideals, perceptions and evaluations. Despite attempts at getting closer to leadership behavior by surveying how managers handle conflict, draw on sources of guidance, and evaluate the effectiveness of influence tactics (Fu et al., 2004; Smith et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2002), these measures do not capture actual leadership behavior. Only limited detail is provided in the surveys used by Smith and colleagues (1998, 2002), and even if the Fu et al. (2004) provided more context in their scenarios the purpose was to rate influence tactic effectiveness and not to measure leadership behavior. Leaving us with an assumption, in need of empirical validation, that actual leadership behavior is culturally endorsed. For an illustration of far-from-action to close-to-action concepts see Figure 1. The empirically established relationships with cultural dimensions are indicated with a continuous line while the assumed

relationship is indicated with a dotted line.

INSERT FIGURE 1

The leadership study by Szabo et al. (2004) is not a multi-country study as such, but it is important in that the authors raise the need to work with 'close-to-action' approaches in order to come closer to leadership behavior. It is evident that empirical studies that are based on close-to-action concepts are quite rare. Even though the ability to predict leadership behaviors as such is shaky for the more far-from-action measures, they can provide very different sets of information, which increases our understanding of how people think about leadership across countries and cultures. In this chapter, we are looking to get closer to the action by measuring action intent, a concept we will develop and discuss in the next section.

ACTION INTENT AS A CLOSE-TO-ACTION LEADERSHIP CONCEPT

We usually expect the behavior of a person to be consistent with the attitudes that they hold, reflecting the idea that people are rational and follow-through with their intentions. To return to our introductory example this would mean to engage in forest bathing after talking about doing so, rather than just continuing to talk about it. Wicker had demonstrated in 1969 that behavior was only weakly predicted by general attitudes (Webb & Sheeran, 2006) leading to more than four decades of psychology research of whether behavioral intent could predict or have a moderating (or mediating) effect on behavior. Drawing on a review by Sheeran (2002), Armitage and Conner (2004:128) define behavioral intentions as "people's decisions to perform particular behaviors and represent a summary of people's motivation to act: the more an individual *intends* to do something, the more likely that behavior is performed".

Empirical evidence had firmly placed 'intent' as a contributing link in the attitude-intention-behavior sequence (Armitage & Conner, 2004; Webb & Sheeran, 2006; Zigarmi et al., 2012) but concerns were voiced as findings were primarily based on an associative relationship between intent

and behavior. Correlations, even if substantial and significant, cannot support claims of causality, which led Webb and Sheeran (2006) to turn to experimental psychology research. They carried out a meta-analytical study and found support in favor of causality claims, but the significant influence of intent on behavior was less pronounced than earlier studies had identified. As Webb and Sheeran (2006) formulated it: a medium-to-large change in intention only led to a small-to-medium change in behavior.

Intention could refer to both what you intend to do (e.g., take a forest bath), and what you do not intend to do (e.g., not take a forest bath). But we humans are much more predictable when it comes to what we intend not to do, compared to what we intend to do. Numbers as high as 80% correct outcome predictions were found for intentions not to do something, whereas only 43% of the predictions were correct for intentions to do something (Orbell, 2004). These were disappointing results as to the use of intent to predict behavior, which led scholars to investigate whether intent could possibly be moderated by other variables. One of these was the stability of intentions, that is if you intend to do something, e.g., take a 'forest bath' and your intention remains the same for some weeks or more your intent is seen as stable, and non-surprisingly is a better predictor of behavior than if you change your mind over time (Armitage & Conner, 2004). However, if your attitude towards 'forest bathing' is ambivalent (or unstable in that you are not sure about promised health effects), but you let us know that you intend to try this Japanese health trend, we cannot predict whether you will, or not, try it out (Armitage & Conner, 2004). Ambivalent attitudes can predict, but also not predict, behavior, when intent is included in the model.

Given these conflicting results scholars instead turned their focus to self-regulation, or specifically to how individuals transform action into reality (Orbell, 2004). For example, to specify what is intended to happen, when and how, is a powerful self-regulatory strategy, according to Orbell (2004), who draws on Gollwitzer's (1999) concept of 'implementation intention'. Such an implementation plan could in our forest bathing example involve joining a group of enthusiastic forest bathers, and when they suggest that you come and try it out at 2 pm on the coming Saturday, you agree to the kind invitation. The details and specificity of your plan will increase the likelihood of turning

intent into action, and, as empirical evidence has shown, action will also happen sooner when a specific intention plan has been formulated (Orbell, 2004).

Gollwitzer (1999:495) posits that "[b]y forming implementation intentions, people can strategically switch from conscious and effortful control of their goal-directed behaviors . . . to being automatically controlled by selected situational cues". Thus, taking on an almost 'mechanistic guise' similar to forming habits where intended behavior is to be activated by cues such as 'I am now in this situation, and when in this situation this is what I have decided to do…'. We would argue that for implementation intention plans to work, and to be able to explain and predict behavior, these need to be action-oriented and saved in contextual memory repositories. In a later article, Gollwitzer and Sheeran (2006) stress that if forming 'if-then' plans involves a selection of effective detailed behavior, then the correspondence between intended and actual behavior towards goal attainment dramatically increases. For example, it is Saturday morning and you are really tired from an exhausting week, it is rainy and cold outside, and staying indoors seems particularly appealing. But you remember that you had decided to try out forest bathing, that you had planned to wear clothes comfortable for walking, to take the subway to the meeting point, to bring along something (hot) to drink, and moreover that the people who had invited you seemed friendly. Our predictive power of you engaging in this outdoor activity on this particular Saturday has increased dramatically compared to if you had vaguely responded that you would 'come along and try it someday'. Notably the level of detail is vital, as specific behaviors are better predicted by specific intentions (Orbell, 2004). Moreover, predictive power increases when situational and contextual factors are considered (Locke & Latham, 1990; Smith et al., 2002; Szabo et al., 2001).

Our use of action intent, should, thus, increase the explanatory (and probably also the predictive) power when it comes to leadership behavior. Szabo et al. (2001) returns to Lewin's 1926 classical work on intent, volition and need ('Vorsatz, Wille, und Bedürfnis') observing that to Lewin intent is not necessarily followed by action, although many contemporary scholars assume it is. Instead volition is described as a translation of intent into action. Notably, volition means "an act of

making a choice or decision"[3] often with the addition that this is done by free will. We in conclusion consider 'action intent' to qualify as a 'close-to-action' concept in three ways. First, as a measure of intent, action intent builds on the assumption that the stronger, and more stable, the intent, the higher probability that what was intended will happen. Second, action intent builds on the idea of volition, i.e., making a choice (a decision) of how to translate intent into action. Third, action intent moves beyond implementation intent, in forming an intent with detail and specificity in a context, while retaining flexibility and free will to act consciously.

One way of measuring action intent is by the use of leadership scenarios. Scenarios allow for a high level of specificity (Choi & Dalton, 1999), inclusion of contextual factors, and can precisely describe a situation or context, thus minimizing the risk of interpretative differences. Moreover, scenarios are high on the level of mundane realism (Rus et al., 2010). In cross-cultural samples, this is especially relevant. Other data-collection alternatives such as large-scale direct observation of leader behaviors across different countries, intriguing as it may be, are both costly and difficult. Moreover leaders may not necessarily be enthusiastic about having a researcher shadowing them. Thus, to take the next steps in cross-cultural leadership research in this chapter we use a scenario approach to study and distinguish leadership that is closer to action.

AN EMPIRICAL ILLUSTRATION

We have surveyed action intent via the use of six scenarios related to *Goal-setting*, *Decision-making*, *Conflict-resolving*, *Rewarding*, *Face-saving* and *Empathizing*. We start with examining the findings across the 22 countries in our study to address our first research question of what we can learn from using action intent as a close-to-action concept. Subsequently, we will turn to our second research question of whether the respondents draw on culturally endorsed leadership beliefs when selecting their action alternatives for each scenario. In doing so we present and discuss the results of the analysis of the relationship between respondents' action intent and six culturally endorsed leadership

[3] Definition from Merriam-Webster online dictionary at https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/volition) accessed on July 24, 2019.

dimensions (Charismatic/Value-Based, Team-Oriented, Participative, Humane-Oriented, Autonomous, and Self-Protective Leadership).

What can we learn about leadership from action intent?

The data for this study was collected in 2005 and 2006 in 22 countries as a part of a larger project on language and culture[4]. For more information about the data collection process see Zander et al., (2011). A total of 1,868 responses were used in the analysis that was carried out for this chapter[5]. The respondents participated in graduate and executive programs, majoring in business, at major universities in the following countries: Brazil, Canada, Chile, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, India, Ireland, Japan, Lithuania, Malaysia, Mexico, Netherlands, Philippines, Portugal, Sweden, Thailand, Taiwan, Turkey, UK and the USA. The average age in the sample was 34 years, with a participant average of 10 years of work experience.

The questionnaire contained six scenarios, theoretically derived and translated by bilingual native speakers in each language, after which the translation was discussed and fine-tuned in a focus-group setting with the translator and several native speakers present, before being used in the data collection. For each scenario, respondents were asked to envision themselves in a leadership position (e.g., product division manager, CEO, top manager, department manager) in their home country. Each scenario pertained to a different aspect of leadership: 1) main priorities as a top manager (*Goal-setting*), 2) how one would make an important decision as CEO of a company (*Decision-making*), 3) dealing with inter-departmental conflict as department manager (*Conflict-resolving*), 4) the manager's preference with regard to *Rewarding* high-performing employees who are part of a team (*Rewarding*), 5) as a manager confronting the own superior who has made a mistake (*Face-saving*), and 6) reactions to personal difficulties encountered by a direct subordinate (*Empathizing*). A choice of six to eight

[4] For publications from the culture and language project see Harzing et al. (2002), Harzing et al. (2004), Harzing (2005), Harzing et al. (2009). For work on leadership and language within the project see Zander et al. (2011).
[5] For this chapter, only native-language responses were included in the analysis, the only exception is the French sample, where we use responses from both the native- and the English-language questionnaires as the data collection was carried out in a slightly different way compared to the other countries in the project. We included the total French sample after testing and finding that there were no noteworthy differences to the results whether we omitted it or not.

alternative reactions was provided for each scenario (see Table 1).

INSERT TABLE 1

The respondents were asked to report their first-, second- and third-rankings for how they would act in the situation described by a scenario. We refer to all options as 'action alternatives' even though a few of them literally did not involve any action, e.g., one of the alternative actions in the *Conflict-resolving* scenario is phrased as 'Ignore the conflict. The issue will resolve itself'.

For our analysis and discussion, we focus on the first-ranked action alternatives that were preferred by the largest group of respondents in at least one of the countries in the study. Take for example the *Goal-setting* scenario, if the action alternative 'build and retain personal relationships within and outside the company' had been selected by the largest percentage of respondents in any one country, then we would have included it in our analysis, but as this was not the case, it was omitted from further analysis. On the other hand, if an action alternative was selected by the largest group of respondents in at least one country it was included in the analysis. One example is the action alternative 'exercising power' for the *Goal-setting* scenario, which was only selected by the largest percentage of respondents in two of the twenty-two countries.

Carrying out the same procedure of ascertaining which action alternative had the largest frequency of respondents in each country led to 17 action alternatives for the six scenarios being retained. For *Goal-setting* and *Face-saving,* the different first-ranked choices across the countries in our study resulted in four action alternatives being retained in the analysis as they were chosen by the largest group of respondents in one or more of the 22 countries. For *Conflict-resolving* three action alternatives were retained, and for *Decision-making* and *Rewarding* two action alternatives were retained for each scenario. For *Empathizing* only one action alternative was retained. See Table 2 for the action alternatives by scenario that will be further analyzed and discussed in this chapter.

INSERT TABLE 2

The selection of first-ranked action alternatives was not random. A random selection of the action alternatives in each scenario would result in 16.6% of the respondents choosing one of the alternatives in the '*Conflict-resolving*' scenario, 14.2 % choosing one of alternatives in the '*Decision-making*', the '*Face-saving*' and the '*Empathizing*' scenarios, and 12.5% choosing one alternative in the '*Goal-setting*' scenario. The first-ranked selection results clearly exceed random selection percentages for each of the 17 retained action alternatives for the six scenarios (see Table 2). Examining the first-ranked choices of our respondents, we made the following two observations:

First, there is intra-country variation as to first-ranked action choices in some of the countries, for some of the scenarios. For example, the *Face-saving* scenario had more than one action alternative per scenario selected as a first-ranked alternative across the respondents in 18 out of 22 countries. In Germany, three alternatives were selected by 37.7%, 31.1% and 27.9% of the respondents respectively, but in Taiwan one alternative was endorsed by 52.8% of the respondents. The action alternative preferred by most in Taiwan was 'mention the correct features in the meeting without referring to your superior's earlier description'. The percentage range for this particular alternative as a first-ranked choice varies across countries from 10.3% to 52.8% of the respondents. This means that in the country with the lowest percentage you could expect that about one in ten leaders would endorse this action compared to in Taiwan were about every other leader can be expected to do so in a situation with their immediate superior. If we add those who selected the same action alternative as a second-ranked choice then the range is from 30% to 82.3%. Such findings provide us with several pieces of information. Apart from which action alternative the largest percentage of respondents chose in any particular country, we will also know whether to expect a rather evenly distributed selection of action alternatives, or whether there are just one or two alternatives that constitute the preferred choice for a particular scenario in a specific country. Moreover, the action alternatives that were not chosen by a large group of respondents provide us with information of what leadership action to not expect in

a particular country. For the respondent percentage by scenario for each country in our study see Table 2.

Second, we observe inter-country variation as to first-ranked action choices. Notably even the action alternative of expressing sympathy and allowing absence (for the *Empathizing* scenario), which was chosen as a first-ranked alternative by the largest percentage of respondents in all the countries, varies across countries in percentage size from 41.5% to 87.5% (see Table 2). Another example is the *Decision-making* scenario, where the frequency of choosing the action alternative 'to decide after discussion with top management team, explain the reason fully to your employees and clarify any queries' varied from 26.3% to 74.5% of the respondents across the 22 countries (see Table 2). In the country with the lowest respondent percentage about 1 in 5 leaders would select this action option, whereas in the country with the highest respondent percentage 3 out of 4 leaders would choose this action alternative. Also, the range of variation in action choice frequency across the countries in the study varies. If we examine the action alternative for using a group-based incentive in the *Rewarding* scenario we find that the range is from 4.8% to 43.2%. If we instead look at the action alternative 'clarify the responsibilities of the two department heads and establish clearer procedures' for the *Conflict-resolving* scenario the frequency ranges from 2.1% to 72.2% (and adding the second-ranked alternatives brings the range to 32.8%-90.7%.). For the range of variation in action choice frequency by scenario and by country, see Table 2.

In sum, the context of the described scenarios and the specificity of each action alternative allowed the respondents to place themselves in the described scenario and consider which action alternative to choose. The action alternatives were not randomly selected, the number of action alternatives selected for some of the scenarios varies more within some countries than others, and more for some scenarios than others. The selected action alternatives vary in percentage endorsement across the countries in the study. These results demonstrate how studying action intent, a close-to-action measure, can generate a more detailed type of information than far-from-action measures, not only in form of what to expect but also what not to expect from leaders in different countries. Additionally, the knowledge that certain situations (scenarios), in certain countries, render a wider host

of intended action alternatives than others would open up to leadership flexibility and the possibility of other variables than culture being relevant in leaders' action intent. As to the percentage endorsement of action intent varying across countries, these may be indicative of implicit leadership beliefs influencing leaders' action intent. In order to ascertain whether the respondents' choices of action alternatives are associated to implicit leadership ideals, we will in the next section explore whether there are any meaningful relationships between the selected action alternatives and culturally endorsed leadership dimensions.

Culturally endorsed leadership dimensions

For our second question of whether managers tap into nationally held perceptions of what constitutes ideal leadership prototypes when deciding how they should act in a specific situation, we decided to use the six culturally endorsed leadership prototype dimensions developed and measured by House et al. (2004): 1) Charismatic leadership, 2) Team-oriented leadership, 3) Participative leadership, 4) Humane-oriented leadership, 5) Autonomous leadership, and 6) Self-Protective leadership. For definitions of the culturally endorsed leadership dimensions and keywords (House et al. 2012) see Table 3.

INSERT TABLE 3

The statistical relationship between action intent (measured by the percentage of respondents who selected a specific scenario action alternative as their first choice) and the GLOBE measures of culturally endorsed leadership dimensions (House et al., 2004) were analyzed using Spearman rank correlations. The analysis was done at the country level to control for differences in sample sizes. There are GLOBE measures for 19 of the countries included in our study. The results from the Spearman's rank correlation analysis at the country level yielded 15 significant correlations (see Table 4).

INSERT TABLE 4

Three of the *Goal-setting* scenarios action alternatives correlate significantly with culturally endorsed leadership dimensions (see Table 4). In countries with self-protective leadership ideals, which entails self-centeredness, status enhancement, saving face and keeping status quo, the significant negative correlation with the action alternative 'balancing shareholders and 'stakeholders' demands' (ρ=-.42, p<.10) is to be expected. Balancing different demands, ideas, needs and expectations among share- and stakeholders is challenging and can even be risky at a personal level. If not successful then failure can threaten both status and 'face', in an environment characterized by self-protective leadership ideals where a common belief would be that it is better to not rock the boat. We could also expect the significant positive correlation between self-protective leadership and the action alternative 'exercise power to ensure that all employees will focus on achieving organizational goals' (ρ=.47, p<.05) that emerged from our analysis. Letting go of the control that comes with exerting power could lead to a perceived backlash where employees could be seen as 'straying away from a goal-directed path', which would not sit well in a cultural setting characterized by self-protective leadership ideals. From this follows that engaging in participative leadership could also be perceived as a high-risk leadership practice. As expected, we find that 'participative leadership ideals' correlate negatively with 'exercising power' (ρ=-.59, p<.001). To this we can add that exercising power to ensure that employee focus is on achieving organizational goals is at odds with endorsing 'team-oriented leadership ideals'. With teamwork ideals usually follows expectations of achieving goals together as a team, and the team takes precedence over organizational goals. As could be expected we find a negative significant correlation between 'exercising power' and team-oriented leadership ideals (ρ=-.40, p<.10). Lastly, we find that the action alternative 'maximizing profit for share-holders' correlates positively with autonomous leadership ideals in a country (ρ=.44, p<.10). Leaders working in a more individualistic and independent oriented environment such as those where autonomous leadership ideals are endorsed, would look to maximizing share-holder profit, a direct individual-based

outcome, instead of engaging in other types of *Goal-setting* action alternatives.

For the *Decision-making* scenario there was on only one action alternative - 'discuss, decide and explain' – that correlated with any of culturally endorsed leadership ideals (see Table 4). That managers discuss with the top management team before making a decision (and after that explain the decision to employees), instead of going solo on taking major decisions (that will have a large impact on the employees), is what we could expect in environments endorsing participative leadership beliefs. Our results support a positive correlation (ρ=.42, p<.10).

Two of the action alternatives for the *Conflict-resolving* scenario correlate with leadership ideals (see Table 4). The conflict-resolution method 'to clarify the responsibilities of the two department heads and establish clearer procedures' was significantly negatively correlated (ρ=-.51, p<.05) with team-oriented leadership ideals. Given that this was an action alternative that did not involve relying on a team, but on the department heads, this is not surprising. But what is somewhat surprising, however, is that team-oriented leadership ideals were, in our analysis, not associated with the action choice option of establishing a cross-functional team with team-level goals to handle inter-departmental conflicts. Instead, this action choice option is significantly and positively correlated with the culturally endorsed dimension of humane-oriented leadership (ρ=.40, p<.10). Thus, handing over the solving of a conflict to a cross-functional team is a highly favored option in an environment where the leadership ideals are to be supportive and considerate, and where leaders are not expected to draw attention to themselves, but display modesty.

Two significant relationships were difficult to explain. One of these was a negative association between 'autonomous leadership' ideals and 'individual reward', for the *Rewarding* scenario (see Table 4). Autonomous leadership ideals are about placing primacy on independence and individualism. The question then is why, in such an environment, there would be a negative correlation with individual financial incentives based on each employees' performance and autonomous leadership ideals (ρ=-.42, p<.10). This result merits more study.

Two of the *Face-saving* scenario action alternatives correlate with leadership ideals (see Table 4). To 'say nothing at meeting but arrange for clients to get the correct information afterwards'

correlates significantly and positively with self-protective leadership ideals (ρ=.66, p<.01), whereas humane-oriented leadership correlates significantly and positively with the action alternative 'say nothing in meeting but talk to superiors afterwards' (ρ=.41, p<.10). Interestingly, we can see how two different types of leadership ideals are associated with similar but yet different action alternatives. Both action alternatives are about not disclosing the immediate superior's mistake at the meeting itself but instead talk about it afterwards. Saving the superior's 'face' by not disclosing anything at the meeting, but instead bring the problem to the superior's attention later could be seen as in line with humane-oriented leadership ideals. Whereas informing the clients instead of speaking to the superior after the meeting could be perceived as an effective self-protective strategy to remain on good footing with the clients.

In the *Empathizing* scenario, the action alternative to 'express sympathy and remind your subordinate that it is possible to take time off to care for a partner who is seriously ill' is correlated with four of the culturally endorsed leadership ideals (see Table 4). First, there is a positive correlation with charismatic leadership ideals (ρ=.43, p<.10). Charismatic leadership ideals are about being inspirational and motivational with an outcome focus, but it is also about valuing integrity and self-sacrifice. Combining these could enable leaders to understand the subordinate's traumatic situation, which could explain the positive relationship. Second, as to the positive correlation with participative leadership ideals (ρ=.60, p<.01), we could envision that in an environment espousing participative leadership ideals the subordinate's leader would be more people-oriented and place trust in the employee to participate in handling the situation. We can also see how expressing sympathy could be negatively and significantly correlated with self-protective leadership (ρ=-.81, p<.01). As in environments endorsing self-protective ideals, leader concern would be directed to the self instead of thinking of the subordinate employee's difficult situation. Lastly, the second inexplicable significant relationship that was identified was a negative correlation between humane-oriented leadership ideals and the Empathizing action alternative to 'express sympathy and remind your subordinate that it is possible to take time off to care for a partner who is seriously ill' (ρ=-.44, p<.10).

Finally, in response to our second research question of whether respondents tap into their

nationally held leadership ideals when selecting their most preferred action alternative our response is affirmative. We have identified a series of meaningful significant correlations, providing empirical evidence that the concept of action intent regarding leadership is culturally endorsed. We also identified two unexplained relationships (among the fifteen significant associations) between culturally endorsed leadership dimensions and our measures of action intent that require further research and inquiry.

CONCLUSION

We set out to contribute to the growing body of global leadership, especially the interpersonal intercultural cross-cultural leadership by getting closer to the action. Specifically, we introduced the idea that understanding leaders' 'action intent' will get us closer to leadership behavior, which will contribute to global leaders', and others', awareness and understanding of variation across countries and cultures. The extant literature has firmly established that leadership attitudes and ideals vary across countries and are associated with cultural values and beliefs; yet, although influential, these antecedents to leadership behavior are argued to be relatively 'far away' from actual leadership behaviors. Other leadership measures, focusing on subordinate respondents evaluating leader behavior, are viewed as closer to action, but less so than studies surveying how specific situations and events are handled by leaders.

By exposing leaders from different countries to specific, contextualized scenarios describing salient management situations and asking them to choose a preferred action alternative, we arrived at measures of their 'action intent'. In this chapter, we propose that action intent can be used as a potent close-to-action concept when explaining and predicting leadership behavior across countries. While also observing intra-country variation in leaders' action choices, we found considerable inter-country differences when comparing action intent across 22 countries. Action intent was, in turn, shown to correlate significantly with widely accepted and used culturally endorsed leadership dimensions, supporting implicit leadership theory. Our findings demonstrate the usefulness of leadership scenarios in large-scale multi-country research. By using scenarios, we were able to take situational and

contextual factors into account and measure close-to-action action intent, a concept we have developed in this chapter, building on and moving beyond studies of mere leader attitudes and ideals, perceptions and evaluations.

Our contributions to global leadership are three-fold: 1) Although there are no simple answers as to how to predict leadership behavior, we posit that using closer-to-action leadership measures, as exemplified in this chapter, enables us to better understand and provide stronger predictions of leader behavior globally; 2) we provide meaningful correlations between culturally endorsed leadership ideals and the action intent measured in our study, explaining across-country variance from a cultural perspective, and corroborating implicit leadership theory, and 3) with our study of differing action intent across 22 countries in terms of leadership scenarios, we add to the limited number of large-scale studies, which Smith et al. (2002) point out are necessary to yield convincing results and to contribute to the extant research of a cultural mapping of the world.

In our view, the key implication for global leadership practice is that we have increased our understanding of how leaders from different national cultures are likely to behave in common and salient leadership situations. We have empirically displayed that there is no one given way of handling a specific leadership situation, instead this varies by situation, and by country. At the same time, it is important to remember that for some situations, in some countries, the action alternatives in use can be several, suggesting a flexibility in how to go about handling a situation. Another important finding is that although leaders in many of the countries in the study selected similar action alternatives, the percentage of respondents who did so varied greatly across countries. Notably, this variation could be meaningfully explained by using culturally endorsed leadership measures, empirically supporting the importance of having cultural understanding and awareness as a global leader.

Although we do not purport that these similarities and differences in behaviors are absolute, they do give a sense about the likelihood of managers in different cultures reacting to situations in certain ways and may help to shape understandings about cross-national differences in leader behaviors. In order to make a difference, leaders acting on the global arena need to have an inquisitive mind and a keen sense of learning, in all of its forms. For example, to grasp whether there are large

degrees of freedom in how a specific leadership situation ought to be handled, or if a more limited set of actions are taken for granted is indispensable knowledge to a global leader. Consequences of leadership actions that are incongruent with employee expectations can for example have demotivating effects (see chapter 4 in this volume), but could also lead to positive leadership practice transfer and/or mutual double loop learning. Moreover, leadership behavior that has earlier been taken for granted may change as a result of generational shifts such as that when Millennials take on global leadership assignments (see chapter 8 in this volume). Finally, to develop one's own and others' leadership skills and cultural awareness is not just a goal in itself, but a means towards making a difference to people in their everyday activities. By measuring leaders' action intent we arrived at an understanding that is nearer to a clearer and better view of leadership behavior globally. Knowledge of variation and similarity in action intent coupled with cultural awareness will take global leaders closer to the action and enable them to make a real difference.

----------THE TREE TEXT BOXES----------

Ideas for Further Research

In this chapter, we proposed action intent as a 'close to action' concept to move away from 'far-to-action' concepts such as leadership attitudes and ideals. Close-to-action concepts serve as better predictors of leadership behavior, we present findings from a worldwide study in which we measured choices of alternative action to various leadership scenarios. These choices were found to be associated to culturally endorsed leadership ideals in meaningful ways. More research is still needed to understand leadership behaviors across countries and cultures.

- Future research linking cultural values at the societal and/or individual levels as well as intended leadership behaviors to actual leadership behavior could build upon the findings of our study.
- Future research could provide empirical assessment of leadership with both far-from-action and close-to-action concepts.
- Future leadership research would benefit from the application of the scenarios in this chapter in other countries, as well as developing other scenarios to measure action intent.

Relevance for Educators

This study introduces the notion of 'far-from-action' and 'closer-to-action' leadership concepts that are still under-researched in the leadership and cross-cultural leadership literatures. A key question is how and/or whether we can predict leader behaviors in different countries and cultures. Educators can explore this question with students by:

- Discussing the relative importance of values, attitudes and ideals in relation to human behavior in general and leadership in particular.
- Examining similarities and differences in leadership evaluations across countries and cultures.
- Discussing the role of context in leadership scenarios and other managerial situations.
- Conducting role plays with students based on the scenarios in this study.

Interest to Practitioners

The field of cross-cultural leadership has seen a boom in empirical research over the last few decades, yet we know very little about actual leadership behavior. In this chapter, leader's 'action intent' is proposed as a concept to get closer to leadership behavior. Although our findings are largely exploratory, the results are based on a sample of 1,868 respondents in 22 countries. From a practitioner perspective, it is interesting to note that there are vast differences in the ways in which people in different countries, when faced with the same situation/task or circumstances and when given a set of identical alternatives, respond or react to leadership situations. For some situations, in some countries there is a large variance in preferred leadership action, while for other situations, similar responses are selected across countries. However, there are still large country differences in the percentage of leaders who have made similar choices. Moreover, these are linked to culturally endorsed leadership beliefs. Studying action intent generates knowledge closer to leadership action, enabling leaders to develop their global leadership skills and cultural awareness to make a difference to people in their everyday activities.

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Table 1: Scenarios and response alternatives - measures of action intent*

Goal-setting *You are a top manager in a company. What would be your most important priorities?*	**Decision-making** *You are a company CEO and need to make a major decision that will have an impact on all employees. What would be the best way to make this decision?*	**Conflict-resolving** *You are manager of manufacturing division. It is important for the sales department and R&D department to work together, but there are frequent work conflicts between them. What would be the best way to resolve these conflicts?*
1. Personal networks 2. Balance stakeholder demands 3. Managing within external constraints 4. Exercise power 5. Maximizing profit 6. Coaching objectives 7. Coaching employees 8. Personal goals	1. Decide individually and announce decision 2. Decide individually and explain decision 3. Discuss, decide and announce 4. Discuss, decide and explain 5. Consult with employees 6. Invite employee consensus 7. Accept majority viewpoint	1. Clarify responsibilities and establish clearer procedures 2. Refer to your superior 3. Encourage heads to resolve conflict 4. Establish cross-functional work team 5. Involve external mediator 6. Ignore conflict.
Rewarding *You are a manager of a product division with several workplace teams. What would be the best way to reward high performing employees in this division?*	**Face-saving** *You are a manager of company that produces a high-technology product. You and your superior are attending a meeting with potential clients. During the meeting, your superior makes a mistake in describing the product. What would you do?*	**Empathizing** *You are a manager in a local company. John, a direct subordinate who has been with the company for a long time, is having a difficult time because his wife suffers from a serious illness. How would you behave towards him?*
1. Individual rewards 2. Group-based reward 3. Employee profit-sharing scheme 4. Non-financial individual incentives 5. Individual recognition 6. Team recognition 7. Promoting individuals	1. Politely correct your superior in meeting 2. Take responsibility for mistake yourself 3. Mention correct features in meeting not referring to mistake 4. Say nothing in meeting, talk to your superior afterwards 5. Say nothing in meeting, inform client afterwards 6. Do nothing. It is not your responsibility 7. Do nothing to cause superior to lose face	1. Don't talk about it; it's a private matter 2. Express sympathy and allow absence to take care of wife 3. Secretary send a gift 4. Ask colleagues to support him 5. Visit John's family 6. Arrange for the company to pay some costs

* Abbreviated version in Table 1. For more details on the scenario alternatives in use in this chapter, see Table 4 on p.xx. For the full version of all response alternatives, see Zander et al. (2011).

Table 2. Action intent by country

Countries	Goal-setting				Decision-making		Conflict-resolving		
	Balance stake-holders	Exer-cise power	Maxi-mize profit	Coaching employ-ees	Discuss decide explain	Consult employ-ees	Clarify and estab-lish	Cross-func-tional team	Encour-age heads
Brazil	42.6%	6.6%	16.4%	27.9%	55.7%	13.1%	39.3%	39.3%	21.3%
Canada	38.2%	7.5%	21.5%	14.0%	42.5%	36.8%	23.2%	57.5%	16.7%
Chile	29.1%	7.3%	36.4%	18.2%	49.1%	23.6%	16.4%	56.4%	25.5%
Finland	30.0%	0.0%	35.0%	17.5%	42.5%	35.0%	45.0%	35.0%	17.5%
France	46.2%	4.5%	3.1%	26.4%	43.6%	18.2%	32.5%	36.3%	26.0%
Germany	37.7%	3.3%	16.4%	18.0%	54.1%	21.3%	18.0%	68.9%	13.1%
Greece	22.7%	4.5%	11.4%	27.3%	40.9%	29.5%	38.6%	38.6%	18.2%
India	49.1%	21.1%	14.0%	8.8%	26.3%	42.1%	28.1%	42.1%	28.1%
Ireland	34.0%	13.9%	15.3%	12.5%	40.6%	31.5%	26.7%	51.4%	17.1%
Japan	28.9%	20.5%	3.6%	8.4%	31.3%	36.1%	22.9%	56.6%	10.8%
Lithuania	13.0%	37.0%	14.8%	7.4%	42.6%	29.6%	72.2%	11.1%	9.3%
Malaysia	44.4%	18.5%	16.7%	5.6%	34.0%	35.8%	27.8%	42.6%	27.8%
Mexico	25.9%	10.6%	27.1%	27.1%	49.4%	30.6%	35.3%	49.4%	14.1%
Netherlands	47.9%	6.3%	2.1%	31.3%	39.6%	27.1%	2.1%	39.6%	56.3%
Philippines	59.1%	0.0%	4.5%	9.1%	40.9%	18.2%	27.3%	31.8%	22.7%
Portugal	45.1%	1.4%	9.9%	25.4%	49.3%	36.6%	26.8%	57.7%	15.5%
Sweden	51.0%	15.7%	3.9%	29.4%	74.5%	21.6%	29.4%	41.2%	29.4%
Thailand	27.6%	10.3%	29.3%	12.1%	53.4%	19.0%	20.7%	43.1%	27.6%
Taiwan	13.2%	15.1%	18.9%	32.1%	41.5%	17.0%	18.9%	47.2%	24.5%
Turkey	3.4%	49.2%	15.3%	16.9%	35.6%	39.0%	40.7%	32.2%	22.0%
UK	37.8%	13.4%	18.5%	16.0%	54.6%	27.7%	22.7%	48.7%	26.1%
USA	30.8%	3.1%	15.4%	21.5%	55.4%	20.0%	21.5%	63.1%	12.3%

Table 2. Action intent by country continued

Countries	Rewarding			Face-saving				Empathi-zing
	Group Reward	Individual reward	Individual promotion	Mention correct	Politely correct in meeting	Talk to superior afterwards	Inform client afterwards	Express sympathy
Brazil	32.8%	34.4%	14.8%	37.7%	23.0%	21.3%	14.8%	73.8%
Canada	25.4%	24.1%	14.0%	30.4%	20.7%	30.4%	11.5%	82.5%
Chile	20.0%	36.4%	14.5%	23.6%	41.8%	21.8%	7.3%	54.5%
Finland	40.0%	17.5%	12.5%	20.0%	47.5%	17.5%	10.0%	87.5%
France	34.1%	21.4%	22.1%	36.0%	18.5%	25.0%	14.7%	76.4%
Germany	29.5%	29.5%	11.5%	31.1%	27.9%	37.7%	3.3%	80.3%
Greece	43.2%	31.8%	13.6%	38.6%	13.6%	18.2%	22.7%	59.1%
India	29.8%	15.8%	14.0%	10.3%	22.4%	43.1%	20.7%	45.5%
Ireland	29.5%	21.9%	17.1%	45.1%	14.6%	24.3%	6.9%	84.2%
Japan	18.1%	38.6%	7.2%	21.7%	18.1%	16.9%	24.1%	55.4%
Lithuania	20.4%	31.5%	24.1%	14.8%	38.9%	27.8%	18.5%	46.3%
Malaysia	24.1%	29.6%	24.1%	14.8%	38.9%	35.2%	5.6%	64.8%
Mexico	27.1%	18.8%	23.5%	43.5%	29.4%	12.9%	10.6%	81.2%
Netherlands	20.8%	29.2%	29.2%	43.8%	27.1%	18.8%	2.1%	85.4%
Philippines	4.5%	13.6%	31.8%	13.6%	27.3%	40.9%	9.1%	68.2%
Portugal	35.2%	36.6%	16.9%	40.8%	18.3%	28.2%	7.0%	66.2%
Sweden	37.3%	29.4%	11.8%	41.2%	23.5%	25.5%	2.0%	80.4%
Thailand	25.9%	8.6%	8.6%	25.9%	24.1%	32.8%	12.1%	42.1%
Taiwan	22.6%	13.2%	15.1%	52.8%	5.7%	18.9%	13.2%	41.5%
Turkey	36.2%	20.7%	19.0%	22.0%	16.9%	40.7%	15.3%	57.6%
UK	31.9%	18.5%	16.8%	40.3%	31.1%	15.1%	5.0%	82.4%
USA	29.2%	35.4%	12.3%	40.0%	20.0%	26.2%	4.6%	80.0%

Table 3. Culturally endorsed leadership dimensions: definitions and keywords*

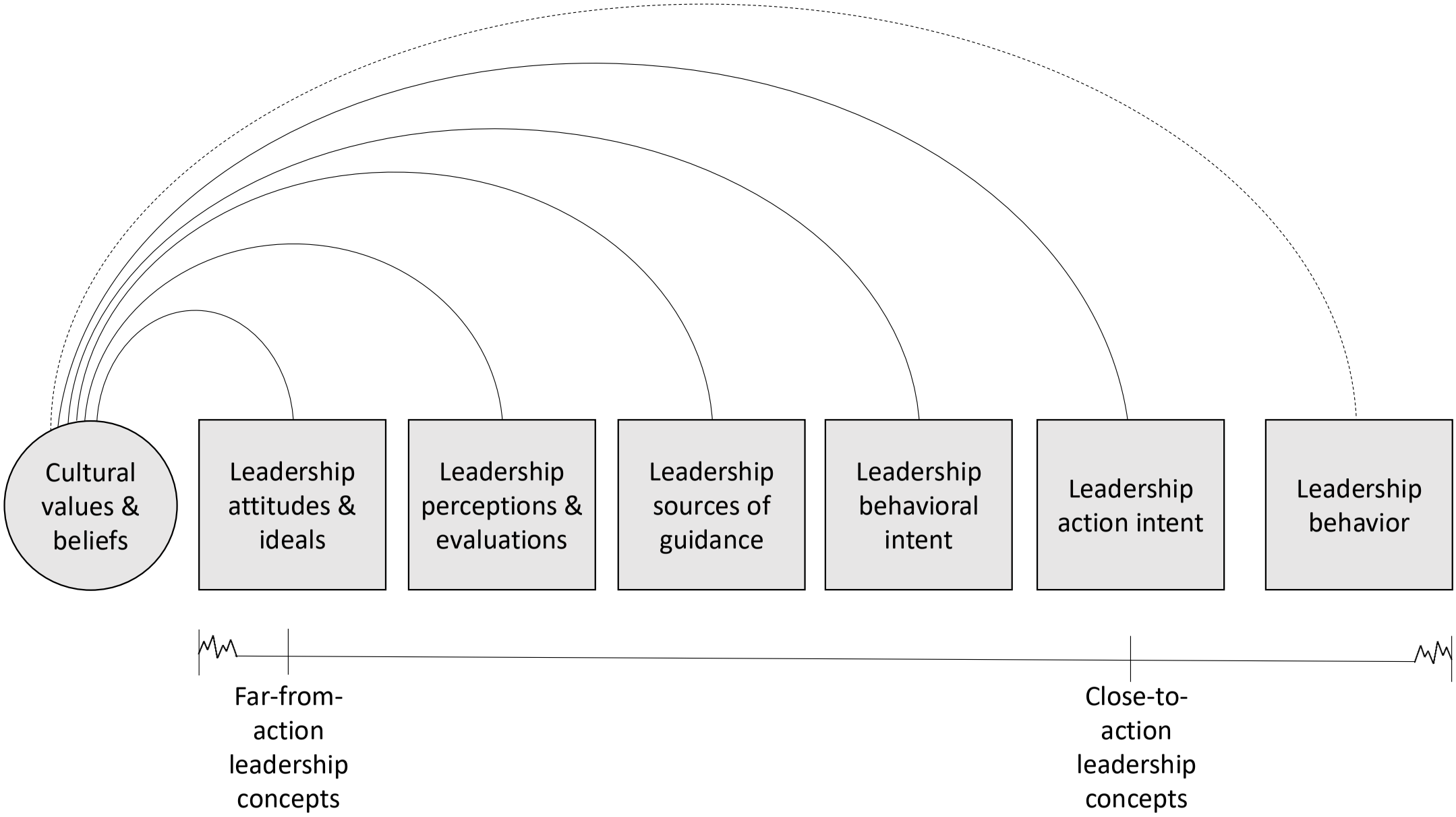
Leadership dimensions	Definition	Key words
Charismatic	A broadly defined leadership dimension that reflects the ability to inspire, to motivate, and to expect high performance outcomes from others.	Visionary and inspirational leadership, self-sacrifice, integrity, decisive and performance-oriented
Team-oriented Leadership	A leadership dimension that emphasizes effective team building and implementation of a common purpose or goal among team-members.	Collaborative, team-oriented and team integrator, diplomatic, malevolent (reverse coded) and administratively competent
Participative Leadership	A leadership dimension that reflects the degree to which managers involve others in making and implementing decisions.	Non-participative and autocratic (both reverse scored) leadership
Humane-oriented Leadership	A leadership dimension that reflects supportive and considerate leadership but also compassion and generosity.	Modesty and humane orientation
Autonomous Leadership	A newly defined leadership dimension that refers to independent and individualistic leadership attributes.	Autonomous, independent and individualistic leadership
Self-protective Leadership	From a Western perspective this newly defined leadership dimension focuses on ensuring the safety and security of the individual and the group through status enhancement and face-saving.	Self-centeredness, status conscious, internally competitive, face-saver and bureaucratic

*Based on House et al. (2012:506)

Table 4. Action intent and culturally endorsed leadership dimensions by scenario

Scenarios	First-ranked selected response alternatives in 19 countries	Percentage range*	GLOBE Leadership Dimensions	Correlation coefficient (sig level)
Goal-setting	Balance the demands of shareholders and other stakeholders.	3.4 - 59.1	Self-protective	-.42 (.07)
	Exercise power to ensure that all employees will focus on achieving the goals in the organization.	0.0 - 49.2	Team-oriented Self-protective Participative	-.40 (.09) .47 (.04) -.59 (.01)
	Maximize profit for the shareholders of the company.	2.1 - 36.4	Autonomous	.44 (.06)
	Coach subordinates to help them reach the company's objectives.	5.6 - 32.1		
Decision-making	Decide after discussion with top management team, explain the reason fully to your employees and clarify any queries.	26.3 - 74.5	Participative	.42 (.07)
	Consult with your employees before reaching a decision.	13.1 - 42.1		
Conflict-resolving	Clarify the responsibilities of the two department heads and establish clearer procedures.	2.1 - 72.2	Team-oriented	-.51 (.03)
	Encourage the heads of the sales department and the R&D department to resolve the conflict.	9.3 - 56.3		
	Establish a cross-functional work team (consisting of sales and R&D) with team-level goals.	11.1 - 63.1	Humane-oriented	.40 (.09)
Rewarding	An individual incentive based on each employee's individual performance.	8.6 - 38.6	Autonomous	-.42 (.07)
	A group-based financial incentive based on the results of the team.	4.8 - 43.2		
	Faster promotion for high-performing employees.	7.2 - 31.8		
Face-saving	Politely correct your superior in the meeting.	5.7 - 47.5		
	Mention the correct features in the meeting without referring to your superior's earlier description.	10.3 - 52.8		
	Say nothing in the meeting but talk to your superior afterwards.	12.9 - 43.1	Humane-oriented	.41 (.08)
	Say nothing in the meeting, but arrange for clients to receive full technical information afterwards.	2.0 - 24.1	Self-protective	.66 (.01)
Empathizing	When an employee has a wife suffering from a serious illness - express sympathy and remind the subordinate of the company policies of absence to care for a seriously sick partner.	41.5 - 87.5	Charismatic Humane-oriented Participative Self-protective	.43 (.07) -.44 (.06) .60 (.01) -.81 (.00)

***** From the country with the lowest response percentage to the country with the highest response percentage


Cultural values & beliefs
Leadership attitudes & ideals
Leadership perceptions & evaluations
Leadership sources of guidance
Leadership behavioral intent
Leadership action intent
Leadership behavior
Far-from-action leadership concepts
Close-to-action leadership concepts