Gerhard Reber[*]

EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR BY MEANS OF ACCULTURATION: CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND LEARNING STRATEGIES

Abstract. Leadership behavior is acquired through acculturation from the earliest childhood and very stable over time. This first acculturation creates habits that are applied unconsciously throughout life and are hard to change. Different learning strategies have the potential to mitigate individual habits when individuals are confronted with an intercultural experience, for example as expatriates. We examine the role of imitation/vicarious learning, learning through cognitive reflection in a training program, and learning through changing the organizational structure on adapting leadership behavior. Imitation/vicarious learning showed cultural adjustment but did not improve a manager's leadership effectiveness in the sample of German and US expatriates. Learning during a training program that focuses on self-reflection of personal behavior patterns can change the original acculturation and increase leadership effectiveness. The implementation of a matrix-structure during an organizational integration process challenged the diverse cultural habits and stimulated new acculturation within a company merger across cultures.

Keywords: leadership, acculturation, learning strategies, situational leadership, Vroom/ /Yetton model.

1. THE PROBLEM: HOW CAN THE ACCULTURATION OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR BE ACHIEVED?

The expanding globalized economy seeks the acculturation of individuals, groups, and organizations. Hence, when adopting or borrowing traits from another culture, perhaps even multiple cultures, during their professional lives, managers are expected to display a behavior different to that of their original culture.

Leadership behavior is deeply rooted in culture and formed during an acculturation process from the earliest personal experiences beginning in childhood by vicarious learning from parents, siblings, teachers, as well as peers from kindergarten onwards. This **first acculturation** creates habits that are applied unconsciously throughout life. In a seven-nation study applying the

_____

[*] Johannes Kepler University Linz, Austria.

Vroom/ Yetton (1973) contingency leadership model, Jago, Reber, Böhnisch, Maczynski, Zavrel, and Dudorkin (1993) concluded that culture explained about 71% of the systematic variance of leadership behavior – measured in terms of the degree of participativeness of decision styles chosen depending on the specific characteristic of the situation. Reber/Jago (1997) conducted a longitudinal analysis of the data collected from 1989 to 1996/1997 in Germany, Austria, Switzerland, France, Poland and the Czech Republic.

Longitudinal studies (Auer-Rizzi/Reber, 2010) with an annual feed back rate in the countries Austria, Czech Republic, Germany and the US up to 2011 resulted for the US and the Czech Republic – despite the Velvet Revolution – in the continuity of the individual leadership patterns. In Germany (since 1996) and Austria (since 2001) the exceptionally high participation rates declined significantly but still remained relatively high in comparison with all other countries in our studies (Auer-Rizzi/Reber, 2007). This development might be attributed to the adjustment to other government structures in the EU, growing global competition, and an increase of the crime rate with reduction of trust in business relations. In Poland, a comparative study before and after the introduction of the market economy (1988 vs. 1994) reforms showed no changes in leadership styles (Jago et al., 1996). A comparison of students and managers in Ireland showed no "convergence" but the continuation of "divergence" in the European context (Marktin et al., 2004).

Reports about the practice of management indicate that in severe situational crisis situations, leaders in top positions especially in internationally active companies are replaced by persons who seemed to fit better into the chanced environments: For example Seidlitz (2010, p. 18) reports that in prominent German companies a new generation of top managers with different education and experience than their predecessors are appointed to positions on managing boards. He states, for example, that firms like Bayer, Thyssen Krupp, BASF, Siemens, and Metro selected CEOs with about the same characteristics. They are primarily external managers with MBA or doctoral degrees in business administration. Such a process seems to confirm theories anchored in Social Darwinism like the population ecology theory (Hannan/Freeman, 1977; Singh, 1990), the path dependency theory (Ackermann, 2001, Dobusch, 2008) or the quantum approach (Miller/Friesen, 1984). In an empirical study looking at 135 dramatic transition periods of 66 North American companies, Miller/Friesen (1984) found that in all cases the top executives (presidents or CEOs) were replaced. These theories argue, that the consistency of person/environment is enacted not by learning, but by replacement/selection of persons who fit adequately to dynamic changes in the environment.

Contrary to this stream of theories, other approaches and empirical studies demonstrate that learning is possible. Especially recent studies highlight in today's continually changing work environments that employees "adjust to their

perceptions of job insecurity and feeling of powerlessness by engaging in transaction forms of relationships, through seeking to acquire more […] to make themselves more employable" (Martin et al., 1998, p. 21). This experience may open employees for learning especially in line with concepts of "self--management". According to Manz/Sims, 1984), these self-managing skills include self-problem assessment, self-goal setting, self-rehearsal, self-observation and evaluation, and self-reinforce assessment and/or punishment. (Manz/Sims, 1984, also: Locke/Latham, 1990). Especially Bandura's concepts of the development of "self-efficacy" (1986) and his "social learning theory" (1977) underpins the essence of "self management".

In partial contrast to this approach which transfers learning alone to the self--responsibility of employers, many other theories highlight the necessity of support by organizational support systems like mentoring systems (Russel/Adams, 1997), training programs in all aspects of professional and social competences, or executive development through "Consciousness – Raising Experiences" (Mivris, 2008).

2. FOCUS AND FRAMEWORK INCLUDING IMPLICIT HYPOTHESES

In the midst of the mentioned theoretical frameworks and empirical investigations this article focuses on the
– specific conditions of intercultural leadership;
– the Vroom/Yetton model is used as a theoretical framework;
– the chances of "self-management" based on Bandura's theory of "social respectively vicarious learning" are empirically tested;
– the empirical results of the application of the Vroom-Yetton theory for the improvement of leadership effectiveness are reported;
– empirical data are reported about a case, in which the effectiveness of a (relatively) long team training program is replaced by the necessity of a short--term change of the organizational leadership structure.

3. THE VROOM/YETTON LEADERSHIP MODEL

The Vroom/Yetton model consists of three building blocks: leadership strategies, diagnostic questions and rules. Vroom/Yetton defined and operationalized the leadership strategies in the tradition of Lewin et al. (1939), Maier (1955), and Tannenbaum/Schmidt (1958) as five levels of participation. These range from autocratic (AI, AII) to consultation (CI, CII) to group decision making (GII). Empirical studies in which managers were asked to specify differences in the intensity of participation on a scale from one to ten revealed that AI attained the participation grade 0, AII 1, CI 5, CII 8 and GII 10.

The diagnostic questions are created for the leader to analyze the situation where the strategies are to be applied. The seven questions are based on Maier's (1955) differentiation between quality and acceptance requirement. Questions A, B, C characterize the quality dimension, and D, E, F, G the acceptance level.

Each of the seven decision rules excludes certain strategies for particular situations. Applying the seven rules leads to one or more strategies (feasible set) appropriate to fulfill the requirements of the goals of the organization, given the specific situation. When the feasible set contains more than one strategy, the model adds two additional selection criteria, time and subordinate development. Model A is targeted to time saving among the feasible strategies, whereas Model B replaces the goal of time efficiency with the goal of subordinate development and recommends the most participative strategy among the feasible alternatives. The more the behavior of the leader is congruent with the rules, the more effectively the organization's objectives can be achieved. Several validation studies confirm this assumption (Böhnisch, 1991, p. 34f; Vroom/Jago, 2007, p. 21).

Later in this paper we report data based on the Vroom/Yetton leadership model. These are typically collected prior to a leadership training program. The participants are asked to decide which strategy they would apply to a set of 30 short decision-making cases. At the time of the data collection, participants are unaware of the theories behind the Vroom/Yetton model. Thus, the data collection cannot be influenced. However, despite the lack of theoretical knowledge, the earnestness to prepare for an intensive management training program may help to explain findings by House/Aditya (1997) that the validity of the model is even higher in field settings than in laboratory studies.

4. INDIVIDUAL LEARNING STRATEGIES IN ACCULTURATION SITUATIONS FOR EXPATRIATES

Three individual learning strategies, particularly regarding expatriates, seem relevant and are often applied with diverse effectiveness: imitation/vicarious learning, training sessions that provide insight and reflective learning, and organizationally imposed cooperation practices.

4.1. Learning by imitation

Learning by imitation is the most common strategy to integrate into a new organization culture (Foppa, 1968). This is especially prominent when the new working place is embedded in a very different national environment. A source for imitation can be readings, integrative training sessions and numerous other sources. People in a new environment play an important role as face-to-face relationships are then developed. Bandura (1971; 1986) created the term "vicarious learning" as the core of a "social learning theory".

From the perspective of the social learning theory the human being is neither driven by inner forces nor buffeted helplessly by environmental influences. Rather, psychological functioning is best understood in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between behavior and its controlling conditions. This means in other words: Social learning theory, just as the Vroom/Yetton model, is based on the situational/contingency concept. The social learning theory "…places special emphasis on the important roles played by vicarious, symbolic, and self-regulating processes, which receive relatively little attention even in most contemporary theories of learning" (Bandura, 1971, p. 2).

Although behavior can be shaped into new patterns to some extent by rewarding and punishing consequences, learning would be exceedingly laborious and hazardous if it proceeded solely on this basis. Environments are loaded with potentially lethal consequences that befall those who are unfortunate enough to perform dangerous errors. For this reason it would be ill-advised to rely on differential reinforcement of trial-and-error performances. […] Apart from questions of survival, it is difficult to imagine a socialization process in which the language, mores, vocational activities, familial customs, and the educational, religious, and political practices of a culture are taught to each new member by selective reinforcement of fortuitous behaviors, without benefits of models who exemplify the cultural patterns in their own behavior.

Most of the behaviors that people display are learned, either deliberately or inadvertently, through the influence of example. There are several reasons why modeling influences figure prominently in human learning in everyday life. When mistakes are costly or dangerous, new modes of response can be developed without needless errors by providing competent models who demonstrate how the required activities should be performed. Some complex behaviors, of course, can be produced only through the influence of models. […] Where novel forms of behavior can be conveyed only by social cues, modeling is an indispensable aspect of learning. Even in instances where it is possible to establish new response patterns through other means, the process of acquisition can be considerably shortened by providing appropriate models. Under most circumstances, a good example is therefore a much better teacher than the consequences of unguided actions. (Bandura, 1971, p. 5).

Social learning theory assumes that modeling influences vicarious learning principally in five interrelated processes (Bandura, 1971, p. 9):

As in all behavioral theories, the social learning theory also assumes that imitating responses strive for positive reinforcement respectively the avoidance of negative (1) reinforcement in order to learn. However, in the social learning theory reinforcement is seen only as one of several factors – like unexpected events in the environment – that can influence what is observed and what goes unnoticed. Anticipation of reinforcement is considered a facilitator rather than a necessary condition. "Knowing that a given model's behavior is effective in producing valued rewards or averting negative consequences can enhance observational learning by increasing observers' [(2)] attentiveness to the model's action. Moreover, anticipating reinforcement can strengthen [(2)] retention of what has been learned observationally by motivating people to code and to rehearse modeled responses that have high value" (Bandura, 1971, p. 9).

The attention and retention of (3) modeling stimuli are channeled by the interpersonal attraction of models. Models who possess interesting qualities – like

those having high status, prestige, power and those who have been frequently rewarded – are sought out, whereas those who lack pleasing characteristics tend to be ignored or rejected, even though they may excel in other ways.

Both, the operant conditioning theories of social imitation (Miller/Dollard, 1941) and social learning theories assume that what has been learned observationally is strongly influenced by the (5) consequences of such actions. However, according to social learning theory "… actions are not always predictable from external sources of influence because cognitive factors partly determine what one observes, feels, and does at any given moment" (Bandura, 1971, p. 35). Cognitive events refer to (4) symbolic coding, cognitive organization, and rehearsal. These steps decide the process and the outcome of vicarious learning.

The observer can see the behavior of many potential models in his/her social environment; what he/she cannot see, however, are the causes of the behavior of others and he/she therefore cannot be sure about the causes of success of other people because their success or failure may depend on realities that cannot be directly observed. Observations can lead the observer to some hypotheses which have to be "empirically" tested and improved. In the improvement of this process the opportunities of vicarious learning can be harvested.

As far as improving leadership behavior in inter-culturally different contexts, vicarious learning is confronted with many bottlenecks. It seems logical to assume that expatriates want to be successful and therefore pay attention to the attributes of the new environments. They may take the dictum "when in Rome, do as the Romans do" seriously. In the new situation, they find plenty of new models around them; their cognitive abilities are loaded with information. They have to select the right models and gain insights about the causes of success or failure of the potential models. They also have to make a decision about their own capability as to whether or not they can imitate the behavior of the successful "Romans". In this process the observers cannot erase the existing models acquired "at home" which may have become "tacit knowledge" with the new experience. The observed models may either be in conflict with an orientation on successful people "back home" who they want to please for advancement of their career, or the expatriates may prefer an orientation that can please the new bosses and colleagues of the new culture. Many prejudices can sneak into the interpretation process of the observer. Often, pure observation is not enough for an insightful and foresighted vicarious learning process. But precise observations can be a good start for the opening of a fruitful discussion with the observed model in which both the model and the observer can come to an enhanced understanding of their behavior based on inter-cultural differences and explore opportunities to learn from each other. For such a process, prerequisites seem to be necessary which can avoid "defensive behavior" that is "in use" not only in "pathological" but in most

"normal" organizations, too. These behaviors "in use" are frequently in unconscious contradiction to the "espoused" theory of action of the individuals and learning partners within an organization. According to Argyris (1985), this difference between theories "espoused" and "in use" inhibits learning and is caused by the installation of suboptimal organizational structure and inadequate leadership. The defensive behavior is caused by the fact that

…individuals strive to be in control of the context in which they are operating. Each player also tries to win and not lose. The individuals strive to minimize the creation of negative feelings in others or in themselves. They appear to do their best not to upset others or themselves. Finally individuals strive to be rational by having a goal in mind and trying to achieve it. These four factors – (1) obtain unilateral control, (2) maximize winning and minimize losing, (3) minimize negative feelings, and (4) maximize rationality – turn out to be the four values that govern the action of most of the individuals we have studied. Such actions lead to consequences […] that are primarily defensive. This defensiveness results in miscommunication, mistrust, protectiveness, self-fulfilling prophecies, and self-stating processes. These results make it less likely that errors will be corrected – indeed it is more likely that errors would escalate (Argyris, 1985, 80f).
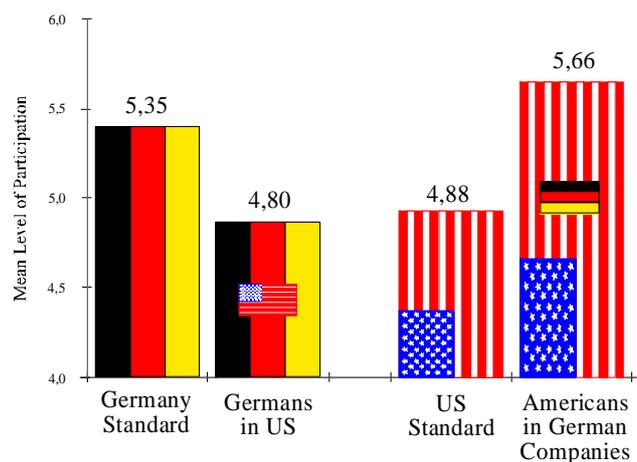

Fig. 1. Mean Level of Participation of German Managers in the U.S. and U.S. Managers in Germany

Based on the Vroom/Yetton model, vicarious learning processes and the achieved results can be observed (Figure 1, 2, and 3). The data in Figure 2 indicate that German expatriates show a higher rate of violations of the acceptance rules than German managers working at home in Germany at their "mother" company ("Germany Standard") (Violation of the Conflict Rule: Germans in the US: 48; Standard Germans 34; Violations of Acceptance Rules (Average): Germany Standard: 31; Germans in the US: 43). This seems to show that German expatriates working in the USA lose a significant portion of their social competence. US managers, in turn, change their behavior in the appropriate direction:
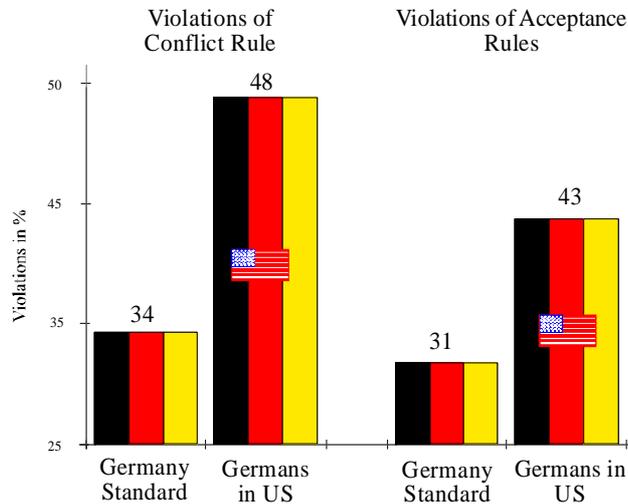
Fig. 2. Violation of Conflict Rule and Acceptance Rules of German Managers in the U.S.
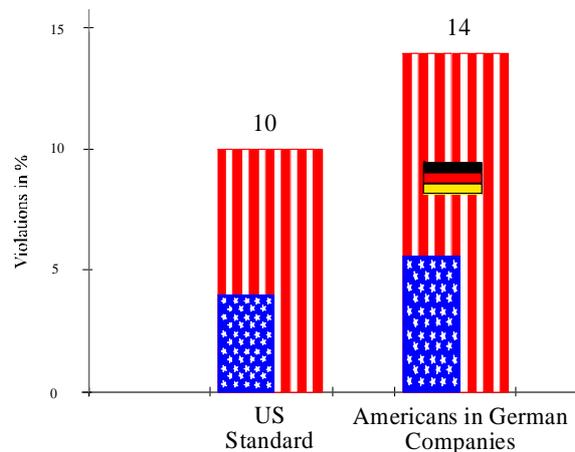

Fig. 3. Violations of Acceptance Rules by American Managers working in German Companies

The Mean Level of Participation (Figure 1) of US-Managers working in Germany (MLP = 5.66) is higher than that of US standard managers (MLP = 4.88) and even higher than the level of German managers working at home (German standard = 5.35). However, American expatriates seem to lose some ground (not significant yet) concerning the Quality Rules. Figure 3 reveals that they tend to violate Rule 2 (Goal Congruency Rule) at a higher rate than the "Standard US managers". They apply the GII strategy in situations where subordinates do not share the company goals (high participation in inappropriate situations; a mistake they tend to avoid in their own culture).

The differences shown above are not statistically significant at this point due to a small sample size of expatriates from both countries. However, for the whole sample we can show that the "move away" from one's own culture is also statistically significant. We split the participating managers into two groups, those who perform their work in their own culture – such as German managers working in the German location of an international German company – (n = 56) and those who are confronted with a different culture through their assignment (n = 32). The latter group consists of Germans working in U.S. subsidiaries of German multinational companies as well as U.S. managers who work for multinational German companies in the U.S. For each of the participants we calculated for the "Mean Level of Participation" (MLP – indicator for the use of strategies) and the "Violations of Acceptance Rules" (indicator for "social competence") the absolute distance of the individual score of the participant to the respective "National Standard Mean". We then aggregated this individual distance to a mean distance for the "home culture assignment group" and one for the "foreign culture assignment group".

We tested the hypothesis that the mean distance of the "foreign culture assignment" group is higher than that of the "home culture assignment" group regarding (a) the Mean Level of Participation as well as (b) the summary of violations of acceptance rules. An analysis of variance confirmed this hypothesis for (b) the summary of violations of acceptance rules. The mean distance for the "foreign culture assignment" group is 15.97 percentage points and that for the "home culture assignment" group is 11.51 ($F = 3.9$; $p < = 0.05$). Regarding the (a) Mean Level of Participation, the mean distance to the respective national standard is higher for the "foreign culture assignment" group (0.96) than for the "home culture assignment" group (0.85); however, this difference is statistically not significant ($F = 0,39$; $p = 0,5$).

Based on these findings we can conclude that regarding German and American managers a change of acculturation can be explained by vicarious learning processes. Managers wishing to perform their job in the host culture well realize that their behavioral habits do not correspond to the new environment. This suggests that habits become "conscious" and can be controlled and then have to be adjusted to the behavioral patterns of acting persons in their immediate environment. The vicarious learning process is then established without reflection on the loss of more effective dimensions of their previous leadership patterns. Hence, expatriates strive to become better Americans/Germans than the Americans/Germans and therefore neglect an opportunity to increase their leadership effectiveness by openly discussing the pros and cons of intercultural differences. This limited success of the learning process can be attributed to the "defensive routines" in the definition of Argyris (1985). These routines may be reduced by training programs which improve for each participant the cognitive understanding of successful leadership in general

and also specifically the diagnosis of observable differences in leadership behavior in other cultures. Such a program can be an important feature of "corporate universities" of international organizations (Reber, 2007) or any other institution with adequate research based training facilities.

4.2. Learning by Reflection in a Vroom/Yetton Training Program

In the validation studies of the Vroom/Yetton model, Field (1979) and House/Aditya (1997) cautioned that the model could be considered too complicated to be used effectively in training programs, especially as regards the acceptance rules. The basic model to which we refer follows the recommendations of Miller (1956), who came to the conclusion that a qualitative cognitive judgment of humans is limited to the "magic number 7 plus minus 2": The number of participative strategies is 5, the number of diagnostic questions and the decision rules is 7. Vroom/Jago (1988; 1991) and Vroom (2003) have extended the first model to provide more variables. For the purpose of longitudinal studies and the training program, we abide by the original version (Vroom/Yetton, 1973; Böhnisch, 1991). The following data are restricted to the results of two countries, Germany and Austria. We will report on each country separately.

A relatively large number of program participants attended two training units of two and a half days each. T1 comprises the reaction of participants during the "first" set of 30 cases before the training began; T2 shows the data of a "second" case set containing the same situations but "packaged" differently in order to make the data comparable. These data were collected before the second training unit after six to twelve months.

Figure 4 shows that the participants at point T2 substantially increased the degree to which they let subordinates participate in decision-making. However, only increasing the degree of participation does not necessarily mean that they increased leadership effectiveness. Leadership effectiveness increases with the degree of agreement with the model recommendations. In other words: the lower the rule violations, the higher the leadership effectiveness. Figure 5 shows a slight decrease in the violations of the Quality Rules ("technical quality of the decision"). Figure 6 reveals quite a substantial decrease in the field of the Acceptance Rules ("conflict resolution", "social competence").

The key to successful reflection is an (empirically validated) model. If the managers in the training program can add to their demonstrated explicit knowledge the motivation to apply it in practice, they reach the level of positive intentions. In case they fail to apply their knowledge, however, they may still have the intention to analyze this deviation. This can result in an even firmer intention on their behalf to verify the quality of the cognitive model in a contingent situation.
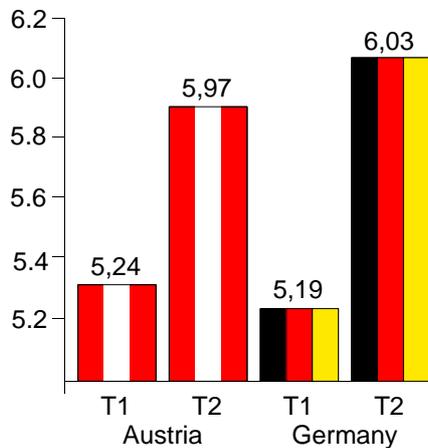
Fig. 4. Mean Level of Participation of Austrian and German Managers before and after a Training Program
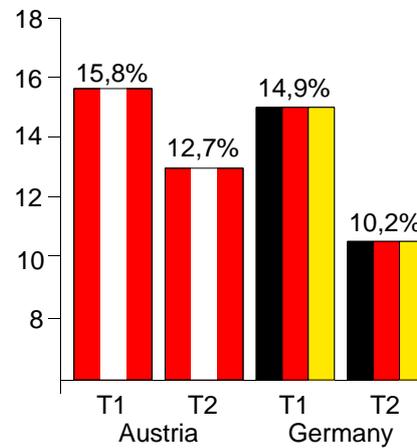

Fig. 5. Violation of Quality Rules of Austrian and German Managers before and after a Training Program
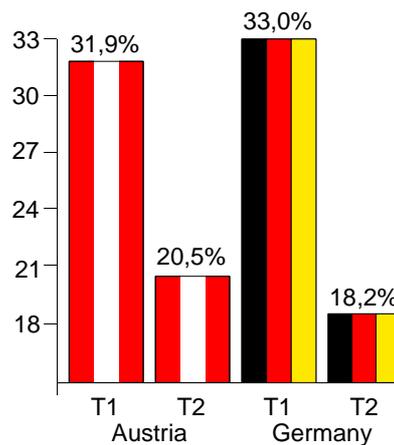

Fig. 6. Violation of Acceptance Rules of Austrian and German Managers before and after a Training Program

During the second part of the Vroom/Yetton training program, the participants were asked to recall several "cases" from their own practice and to analyze them based on the dimensions of the Vroom/Yetton model. In most cases, the participants' analysis unveiled decision strategies in accordance with the model. This clearly indicates that the cognitive learning effect of using the Vroom/Yetton case set has been successfully transferred to the participants' "real world", even though they have only completed "50 percent" of the training program.

4.3. Learning by Changing the Organizational Structure

Following Skoda's takeover by Volkswagen, a special matrix-form called "Tandem" was introduced in order to facilitate the integration process. A Czech and a German (expatriate) manager were appointed to the most important hierarchal positions from the management board down and each person in the Tandem had the same formal power. Only upon agreement reached jointly by both partners could a decision be considered as rendered. As the company takeover was completed in a very short period (Dorow/v. Kibed, 1997; 2006), the managers of both nationalities were ill prepared for tasks and duties of this nature. Tandem's challenging mission was associated with numerous conflicts, as there was not much trust and acceptance due to the negative historical prejudices concerning relations between Czechs and Germans as well as a long tradition of pride in both companies. Skoda, in particular, was and is a company with a long history and a high reputation in the Czech Republic.

The Tandem model was discontinued as soon as the integration process had become successful and the partners in the model had learned to cooperate. Despite the higher labor cost – especially in the integration phase – in comparison to any other VW plant worldwide, the new generation of Skoda vehicles proved to be very profitable and the Skoda subsidiary became a well-respected unit within the VW corporation.

The question is whether or not the Tandem model coined an acculturation of leadership style after most of the German expatriates had left the Czech Republic. A study using the Vroom/Yetton framework showed amazing results in that the newly created culture attained a nearly complete "middle line" between the German and the Czech customs and traditional leadership behavior as far as the Mean Level of Participation (Figure 7), the Violation of the Quality (Figure 8) and the Acceptance Rules (Figure 9) are concerned. Perhaps the "balance of power" in the Tandem matrix structure compelled the partners to be more aware of the differences in their leadership habits, and conflicts required them to create a "third" approach in order to find a way to cooperate. We can assume that the tightness of the dual matrix structure of the Tandem model forced the partners to reduce the "defensive behavior" Argyris (1985) had very often detected in organizational life: Miscommunication, mistrust, protectiveness, self-fulfilling prophecies, and self-sealing processes. It may sound paradox that an organizational structure which enhances conflicts on the interpersonal level can break down the interpersonal defenses. If these consequences can be realized, then the matrix form can be very successful. Conversely, when the persons involved cannot develop good strategies for conflict resolution, the matrix form may end in a disaster. Such a duality may explain that the application of the matrix leads either to very good or to very bad results but rarely to something "in between" (Reber/Strehl, 1988).
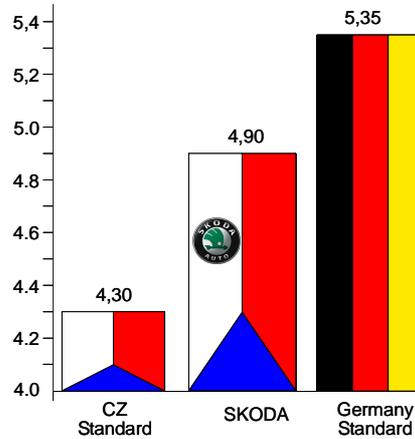
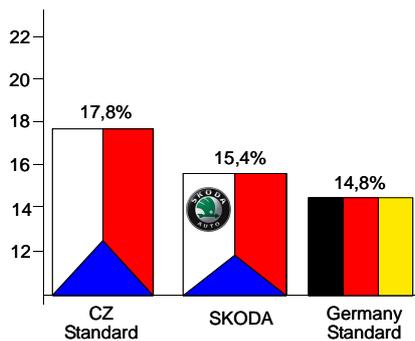Fig. 7. Mean Level of Participation of Skoda Managers
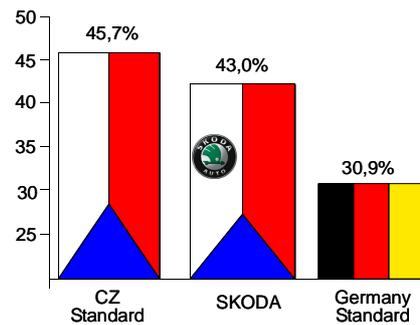

Fig. 8. Violation of Quality Rules
of Skoda Managers

Fig. 9. Violation of Acceptance Rules
of Skoda Managers

5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

a) Leadership behavior is adopted during an acculturation process from the earliest personal experiences beginning in childhood and formed by vicarious learning from parents, siblings, teachers, as well as peers from kindergarten onwards. This acculturation creates habits that are applied unconsciously throughout life.

b) Three individual learning strategies can be differentiated: (1) Learning by imitation/vicarious learning demonstrates cultural adjustment but does not improve a manager's leadership effectiveness as shown from an example of German and US expatriates. (2) Learning during the course of a training program that focuses on the self-reflection of personal behavior patterns can

change the original acculturation and increase leadership effectiveness, (3) The implementation of a matrix structure during an organizational integration process challenges the diverse cultural habits and stimulates new acculturation within a company merger.

c) Leadership can be learned, but concentrated and sufficient measures are required in order to create an effective shift of acculturation within international/ /global firms and societies.

REFERENCES

Ackermann R. (2001), *Pfadabhängigkeit, Institutionen und Regelformen*, Tübingen: Mohr Lübeck.

Argyris C. (1985), *Strategy, Change and Defensive Routines*, Boston: Pitman.

Auer-Rizzi W., Reber G. (2007), "Zusammenhang zwischen Corporate – Governance Structure und Führungsverhalten – Empirische Befunde und Erklärungsansätze" in: Jürgens U., Sadowski D., Schuppert G. F., Weiss M. (eds.), *Perspektiven der Corporate Governance*, Baden Baden: Nomos, p. 182-206.

Auer-Rizzi W., Reber G. (2010), "Stability and Change of Leadership Behavior in Four Cultures: Austria, Czech Republic, Germany, and USA", *WISO*, No. 33 (special issue), p. 51-63.

Bandura A. (1971), *Social Learning Theory*, New York: General Learning Press.

Bandura A. (1986), *Social Foundations of Thought and Action*, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Bandura A. (1997), *Self- Efficacy: The Exercise of Control*, New York: Freeman.

Böhnisch W. (1991), *Führung und Führungskräftetraining nach dem Vroom/Yetton-Modell*, Stuttgart: Schäffer-Poeschel.

Dobusch L. (2008), "Escaping Path Dependency: Adoption of Networks Effect Technologies and Organizational Innovations". Revised version of the paper at the 'Wissenschaftliche Tagung Organisationsforschung der VHB, München'.

Dorow W., Varga von Kibed G. (1997), "Market Entry in Eastern Europe as a Challenge for Expatriates – Case Study: The Volkswagen-Skoda Joint Venture in the Czech Republic", in: Wagner D. (ed.), *Bewältigung des ökonomischen Wandels; Entwicklung der Transformationsforschung in Ost und West*, München: Hampp, 208-217.

Dorow W., Varga von Kibed G. (2006), "Transformation von Unternehmenskulturen im Spannungsfeld west-europäischer Wertedifferenzen: Zwei Fallbeispiele für Lösungsansätze deutscher Konzerngesellschaften", in: Beichelt T., Choluj B., Rowe G. C., Wagner, H. J., Lange T. (eds.), *Europa-Studien: Eine Einführung*, Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozial-wissenschaften, 415-432.

Field R. H. G. (1979), "A Critique of the Vroom-Yetton Contingency Model of Leadership Behavior", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 1, No. 2, p. 249-257.

Foppa K. (1968), *Lernen, Gedächtnis, Verhalten*, Köln/Berlin: Kiepenheuer & Witsch.

Hannan M. T., Freeman J. (1977), "The Population Ecology of Organization", *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 82, p. 929-964.

House R. J., Aditya R. N. (1997), "The Social Scientific Study of Leadership: Quo vadis?", *Journal of Management*, Vol. 23, No. 3, p. 409-473.

Jago A. G., Maczynski J., Reber G. (1996), "Evaluation Leadership Styles?: A Comparison of Polish Managers Before and After Market Economy Reforms", *Polish Psychological Reflection*, Vol. 27, No. 2, p. 107-115.

Jago A. G., Reber G., Böhnisch W., Maczynski J., Zavrel J., Dudorkin J. (1993), "Culture's Consequence?: A Seven Nation Study of Participation", in: Rogers D. F, Raturi A. S (eds.), *Proceedings of the 24th Annual Meeting of the Decision Sciences Institute, Decision Sciences Institute*, Washington D.C., p. 451-454.

Lewin K. (1958), "Group Discussion and Social Change", in: Maccoby E. E., Newcomb T. M., Hartley E. L. (eds.), *Readings in Social Psychology*, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, p. 197-211.

Lewin K., Lippitt R., White R. K. (1939), "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created Social Climates", *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 10, p. 271-301.

Locke E., Latham G. P. (1990), *A Theory of Goal Setting and Task Performance*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Maier N. R. F. (1955), *Psychology in Industry*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Manz C. C., Sims H. P. J. (1984), "Searching for the Unleader: Organizational Member View of Leading Self-Management Groups", *Human Relations*, Vol. 37, p. 409-424.

Martin G., Stainer H., Pate J. (1998), "Linking Job Security and Career Development in a New Psychological Contract", *Human Resource Management Journal*, Vol. 8, No. 3, p. 20-40.

Martin G., Szabo E., Keating M. (2004), "Convergence or Divergence? How Students and Managers in Austria and Ireland Perceive Social Practice in a Vacuum", in: Holfter G., Krajenbrink M., Moxon-Browne E. (eds.), *Beziehungen und Identitäten: Österreich, Irland und die Schweiz*, Bern: Peter Lang, p. 357-374.

Miller G. A. (1956), "The magical number seven, plus minus two: Some limits on our capacity for processing information", *The Psychological Review*, Vol. 63, No. 2: p. 81-97.

Miller N. E., Dollard J. (1941), *Social learning and imitation*, New Haven: Yale University Press.

Miller P., Friesen P. H. (1980), "Archetypes of Organizational Transition", *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 25, p. 268-299.

Miller P., Friesen P. H. in collaboration with Mintzberg, H. (1984), *Organizations, a Quantum view*, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Mirvis P. (2008), "Executive Development Through Consciousness-Raising Experiences", *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, Vol. 7, No. 2, p. 173-188.

Reber G. (2007), "Corporate Universities: Konsequenzen für die Gestaltung von Trainings", in: Auer-Rizzi, W., Blazejewski S., Dorow W., Reber G. (eds.), *Unternehmenskulturen in globaler Interaktion*, Wiesbaden: Gabler, p. 387-419.

Reber G., Jago A. G. (1997), "Festgemauert in der Erde... Eine Studie zur Veränderung oder Stabilität des Führungsverhaltens von Managern in Deutschland, Frankreich, Österreich, Polen, Tschechien und der Schweiz zwischen 1989 und 1996". in: Klimecki R., Remer A. (eds.), *Personal als Strategie: Mit flexiblen und lernbereiten Human-Ressourcen Kernkompetenzen aufbauen*, Bern: Haupt, p. 158-184.

Reber G., Strehl F. (eds.) (1988), *Matrix-Organisation: Klassische Beiträge zu mehrdimensionalen Organisationsstrukturen*, Stuttgart: Poeschel.

Russell J. E. A., Adams D. M. (1997), "Changing the Nature of Mentoring in Organizations: An Introduction to the Special Issue on Mentoring in Organizations", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol. 51, p. 1-14.

Seidlitz J. V. (2010), "Der neue Weg ins Risiko", *Die Welt*, 5 June, p. 18.

Singh J. V. (1990), *Organizational Evolution*, New York/ London/ New Delhi: Sage.

Tannenbaum R., Schmidt W. H. (1958), "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern", *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 36, No. 2, p. 95-101.

Vroom V. H. (2003), "Educating Managers for Decision-Making and Leadership", *Management Decision*, Vol. 41, No. 10, p. 968-978.

Vroom V. H., Jago A. G. (1988), *The New Leadership: Managing Participation in Organizations*, Englewood Cliffs (NJ): Prentice Hall.

Vroom V. H., Jago A. G. (1991), *Flexible Führungsentscheidungen: Management der Partizipation in Organisationen*, Stuttgart: Schaeffer-Poeschel.

Vroom V. H., Jago A. G. (2007), "The Role of the Situation in Leadership", *American Psychologist*, Vol. 42, No. 1, p. 17-24.

Vroom V. H., Yetton P. W. (1973), *Leadership and Decision-Making*, Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.