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Moderating Impact of Country Culture on Transformational Leadership in Innovation Cultures

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Walden University
2024

Abstract

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MS, Texas Southern University, 1996

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

As businesses seek competitive advantages through expansion into global markets, the risk of failure is amplified when inappropriate leadership skills are applied. Transformational leaders who reinforce innovative practices have had greater success in some countries, evidencing that country culture may also be a relevant factor. There is a general understanding about the impacts of transformational leadership, country culture, and innovation culture in binary applications, but little is offered to provide business managers with guidance on how to account for the simultaneous relationship between country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation culture in the context of U.S.-based companies operating in different countries. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to understand whether country culture influenced the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture in U.S.-based companies operating in the United States and Japan. The theoretical frameworks for the study were Bass' transformational leadership theory, Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory, and Hurley's innovation culture theory. A 34-question Likert scale convenience sample was used to collect 212 responses from managers of multinational companies headquartered in the United States working in the United States or Japan. While the relationship between the country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation culture was substantiated, the correlation coefficients revealed no statistical significance between country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation culture, suggesting that directing attention toward nurturing the relationship between transformational leadership, country culture, and innovation culture can lead to positive social change.

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Dedication

To the One who, when asked, gives wisdom generously to all – the Most High God

To the bone of my bones, and flesh of my flesh – Tanya Fisher-Miller

To those who, when honored, the promise of prolonged life is given – James B. Miller and Frances Miller; and Leonard D. Fisher and Joyce M. Fisher

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I acknowledge and extend a loving thank you to my family who sacrificed time, the most precious resource required to complete this dissertation. To my wife, Tanya Fisher-Miller who supported me during the most difficult times of relocating twice and encouraged me to stay on task no matter the circumstance – Thank you. To my sons, Shane, Nekoda, Jachin, and Jahleel, who accepted that my isolation was a necessity and not a luxury – Thank you.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Multinational organizations operate in complex environments across different cultures. While leadership is a critical factor for organizational success, culture is equally important (Gardašević et al., 2021; Garg, 2018). A leadership style that proves effective in one culture may not have the same effect in a different culture (Garg, 2018). As pointed out by Hofstede (1984), every person has a set of assumptions composed of values and beliefs that she or he uses to interpret the world. These assumptions differ from one country to another (Hofstede, 1980, 1983). The collection of shared assumptions among individuals within a culture form what Hofstede (1980) referred to as national culture. Since national culture influences perceptions, it might impact the way leadership style is perceived by those within a given culture (Gardašević et al., 2021). This should be considered as leaders pursue the accomplishment of organizational objectives within multinational organizations.

While there is abundant research on how national culture influences organizational performance in multinational companies, leadership style itself is another factor to consider. Narrowing the research focus to the effects of leadership style on multinational organizations reveals that a particular leadership style motivates employees to pursue achievements beyond their culturally influenced self-interests (Athukorala et al., 2016; Gardašević et al., 2021; Gerlach et al., 2020). This occurs when employees trust their leadership (Afsar et al., 2019; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Khalili, 2016; Lazányi, 2017). Trust is essential to establishing an organizational culture that facilitates the moderation of norms associated with national culture (Afsar et al., 2019; Alnatour &

Shehada, 2020; Haleem et al., 2018; Khalili, 2016; Lazányi, 2017). Transformational leadership is the facilitator of that trust, and the leader is the catalyst for developing a culture that allows an organization to perform well in complex environments (Bass & Avolio, 1994). As demonstrated by Martínez-Córcoles et al., (2020) individualized consideration is one of the transformational leadership factors that was paritcularly beneficial in establishing a trusting environment in organizations. They concluded that enhanced communication flow and information exchange were the results of trusted leadership (Martínez-Córcoles et al., 2020). These elements introduce another critical factor to consider for organizational success – innovation.

Within highly volatile contexts where multinational organizations compete, innovation is indispensable. The generation of new ideas is the competitive element that provides companies with certain advantages (Gama et al., 2019). Idea generation is possible in a culture where honest communication and the free flow of ideas are present (Martínez-Córcoles et al., 2020; Michaelis et al., 2018). Its presence is evidence of a strong culture where everyone focuses on achieving the vision (Silva, 2017). The organic consequence of strong culture is innovation, where strong communication, the exchange of ideas, interdisciplinary collaboration, and effective problem solving exists (Silva, 2017). These consequential results are elements of the innovation culture described by Hurley (1995). An organization with an innovation culture provides the platform for power sharing and collaborative decision-making (Gao & Gurd, 2020; Heizmann et al., 2018; Mohan et al., 2017). Innovation culture, transformation leadership, and national culture are important factors that impact the performance of multinational companies. As

demonstrated in the current research study, myriads of research studies have linked national culture, leadership style, and innovation culture dichotomously. In this study, I examined the relationship between country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation culture simultaneously.

Background of the Study

For businesses to outpace their competitors, the pursuit of the competitive advantage is fundamental. Some have argued that expansion into international markets provided a wellspring of opportunities for competitive dominance (Kovač & Labaš, 2019; Mutoh et al., 2020). Others asserted that innovation was the crucial element of business success (Allegretti et al., 2018; Pranowo et al., 2020). Although competing in international markets can lead to great profit, the risk of failure is amplified by the lack of appropriate leadership skills (Park et al., 2021; Tulacz & Reina, 2019). A significant amount of research has been conducted on identifying leadership qualities that can facilitate innovation in global markets, and studies on transformational leadership appear to top the list.

Transformational leadership is arguably the most favored leadership style that can produce desired organizational results in competitive markets. It is recognized as an effective leadership style that enhances the potential of an organization to realize a competitive advantage in global markets (Hunt, 2017; Rahman et al., 2018; Wang & Varma, 2018). The appropriate leadership style is so critical that Al-Husseini and Elbeltagi (2016) recommended that organizations integrate HR practices that focus on hiring and developing transformational leaders. One primary advantage is that this

leadership style has a positive influence on organization culture (Mokhber et al., 2018). Culture also affects organizational performance.

Cultural contexts, particularly the national ethos within which a business operates, can have a substantial impact on organizational performance. Alamir et al., (2019) found that in Syria, organizational outcomes were impacted by the employees' perception of fairness when transformational leadership was employed. In other studies, the organizational benefits that resulted from cultural diversity led researchers to conclude that organizations should consider the impact of national culture on leadership (Alamir et al., 2019; Öztürk et al., 2017). Despite these observations, Aarons et al. (2017) determined there was insufficiency in literature that examined how national culture influenced the relationship between transformational leaders, followers, and organizational culture. This is particularly important since innovation augments business success.

Problem Statement

There have been many studies about transformational leadership in the wake of pressures to innovate and how it impacts organizational performance. Views about the relationship between leadership style and organizational performance are diverse. While some researchers believe that the employment of transformational leadership negatively impacted organizational performance, particularly in environments where uncertainty prevailed, others believe it is the panacea for substandard performance (Alamir et al., 2019; Brown et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2019; Hannah et al., 2020). A preponderance of research focuses on understanding the relationship between leadership style and

organizational outcomes in the business sector of Western countries (Chen et al., 2019). In a departure from this vein, Chen et al. (2019) and Alamir et al. (2019) found that transformational leadership was a predictor for organizational innovation and organizational commitment in non-Western countries. These studies did not take country culture into consideration.

With increased incidences of business failures involving multinational companies, there has been increased interest in finding ways to enhance competitiveness through innovation. Chen et al. (2016) concluded, however, that extant literature regarding the impact of transformational leadership on organizational innovation singularly focused on human capital. Another problem is that the strategies employed by multinational corporations failed to be fully operationalized in host countries where the culture of that country was not considered (Bucheli & Salvaj, 2018). This failure is often directly attributed to leadership that lacked a comprehensive understanding of the technological and cultural factors involved in enhancing competitiveness (Park & Lee, 2021). While there is a general understanding about the impacts of transformational leadership, country culture, and innovation culture, mostly in binary application, there appears to be a lack of understanding of the relationship between all three of these variables (country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation culture) in the Western culture.

The general management problem is that a significant number of business failures are predicted to occur in the expansive global market where leaders have different leadership styles and cultural differences (see Galperina & Klen, 2017; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018). The specific problem associated with this expansion and evitable

business failure is there are no studies that provide business managers with guidance on how to account for the relationship between country culture and transformational leadership in the context of U.S.-based companies with an innovation culture (see Galperina & Klen, 2017; Putri, et al., 2020; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018). The results of this study may present positive social change by contributing to extant literature on the subject matter and may offer a solution to the management problem of business failures caused by a lack understanding the relationship between the variables examined.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the relationship between three variables, country culture (moderator variable), elements of transformational leadership (independent variable), and innovation cultures (dependent variable) within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries. Country culture are the aspects of an individual in one group that differentiates them from individuals of a different group (Bissessar, 2018). The dimensions of this concept include power distance (PD), uncertainty avoidance (UA), individualism (IN), and masculinity (MS; Bissessar, 2018). Transformational leadership is an adaptive leadership style that influences innovative behaviors (Mokhber et al., 2018). It has four dimensions which include idealized influence (II), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individualized consideration (IC; Mokhber et al., 2018).

Innovation culture is an organization that stimulates creativity within an environment with a high tolerance for failure (Xie et al., 2016). In their study, Hurley and Hult (1998) measured innovation culture using a group culture measure, which was mean

score compiled by the aggregate of the individual scores pertaining to the power sharing, participative decision making, learning and development, and support and collaboration. The allocation of resources is vitally important to optimizing performance. Reducing uncertainty pertaining to organizational performance starts with understanding the relationship between critical resources.

Hofstede's cultural dimensions have been used to demonstrate the link between nationality and certain leadership styles (Bissessar, 2018; Lofquist & Matthiesen, 2018). The dimensions of transformational leadership have also been explored extensively in varying contexts. The relationship between transformational leadership and innovative behaviors have been examined in the context of Iranian firms (Mokhber et al., 2018). I focused on determining whether there is a relationship between country culture, elements of transformational leadership and innovation cultures within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries.

Research Question(s) and Hypotheses

RQ: Does country culture modify the relationship between elements of transformational leadership, and innovation cultures within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries? This question was expressed using hypotheses that incorporate the use of the dimensions of three variables: country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation culture.

$H_0$1: Power distance does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

H_a1: Power distance does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_0 2$: Uncertainty avoidance does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_a 2$: Uncertainty avoidance does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_0 3$: Individualism versus collectivism does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_a 3$: Individualism versus collectivism does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_0 4$: Masculinity versus femininity does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_a 4$: Masculinity versus femininity does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_0 5$: Long-term versus short-term orientation does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_a 5$: Long-term versus short-term orientation does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_0 6$: Indulgence versus restraint does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_a 6$: Indulgence versus restraint does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical framework for this study was comprised of Bass' (1985) work on transformational leadership theory, Hofstede's (1984) theory on cultural dimensions and the contributions of Hurley (1995) toward the development of innovation productivity measure innovation culture.

Transformational Leadership Theory

Burns (1978) was the first to investigate the notion of transforming leadership. Bass et al. (1987) were credited with advancing the study on transforming leadership by describing transformational leadership as a multidimensional concept composed of a charismatic scale, an individualized consideration scale, and an intellectual stimulation scale. Waldman et al. (1990) sought to further understand the relationship between leadership and job performance; therefore, they refined and expanded the scale to include four dimensions: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Transformational leadership theory continues to be one of the most prevalently studied leadership concepts (Neilsen, et al., 2019).

Hofstede's Cultural Dimension Theory

Hofstede (1984) followed the work of several predecessors who studied culture summarizing the concept as the mental capacity to differentiate between members within groups. He went on to describe cultural differences among 40 countries using four dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity (Hofstede, 1984). The significance of national culture influences on organizations was deemed dynamic enough to require management scientists to consider other dimensions

(Hofstede, 1994). The expansion of the theory encompassed the inclusion of long-versus short-term orientation and indulgence versus restraint as dimensions (Hofstede 2007; Hofstede et al., 2010; Hofstede & Soeters, 2002). The final version of the Hofstede's dimensionalized national culture theory comprised six dimensions, which included power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, long term versus short term orientation, and indulgence versus restraint (Hofstede, 2011)

Innovation Culture Theory

Hurley (1995) asserted there was a link between organizational culture and innovative productivity. He concluded that innovation culture comprised four dimensions, participative decision making, power sharing, support and collaboration, and people and career development (Hurley, 1995). The degree of innovation demonstrated by an organization was found to be contingent upon leader reinforcement of these factors (Hurley & Hult, 1998). The result was an enhanced capacity for higher levels of innovativeness (Hurley, 1995). Shaping and creating an innovative culture, then, was the responsibility of the organization's leader (Hurley & Hult, 1998).

Nature of the Study

A quantitative correlational research design was appropriate, as the intent of this study was to understand the relationship between variables (see Burkholder, et al., 2016). To test the relationship, Frankfort-Nachmias and Leon-Guerrero (2015) opined that the independent variable influenced the dependent variable. The independent variable, which Warner (2013) referred to as a predictor variable was *transformational leadership,*

including its dimensions: idealized influence (II), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individualized consideration (IC). The moderator variable was *country culture,* including its dimensions: power distance (PD), uncertainty avoidance (UA), individualism versus collectivism (IN), masculinity versus femininity (MS), long-term versus short-term orientation (LT), and indulgence versus restraint (IR). The dependent variable was *innovation culture* with its dimensions participative decision making (PM), power sharing (PS), support and collaboration (SC), and people and career development (PC).

The convenience sampling technique was used in this study, as it aligned with the quantitative approach to inquiry (see Etikan et al., 2016). A three-part survey was used to collect data pertaining to the dimensions of each variable. Data for the dimensions of country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation culture were obtained using established questionnaires that capture data using Likert scales. The survey instrument intended to capture country culture data allowed comparisons to be made between participants in the Unites States and participants in Japan. The survey instrument also captured transformational leadership data and innovation culture data, which was used to determine whether a relationship exists between the variables.

The intent was to determine whether the country's culture moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture. The correlation design falls in the category of a nonexperimental design (Burkholder et al., 2016). It is an appropriate framework for examining moderator effects (Frazier et al., 2004). The data used to understand the relationship between the variables was collected from a

statistically significant sample size, as determined by G*Power, version 3.1.9.4. The population was comprised of 212 managers (male and female) who work in U.S.-based companies operating in the United States and U.S.-based companies operating in Japan.

Definitions

Idealized influence: Idealized influence is the first leader behavior factor of transformational leadership. It enables the leaders to build trust among followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Individualism versus collectivism: Individualism versus collectivism, the third dimension of national culture, represents the extent to which ties between individuals in a society are loosely knit, where individuals support immediate family; or tightly knit, where individuals support in-group members beyond immediate family (Halkos & Skouloudis, 2017; Hofstede, 1980).

Individualized consideration: Individualized consideration is the fourth leader behavior factor of transformational leadership. It involves meeting the needs of each follower and developing a personal plan for success for each team member (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Koveshnikov & Ehrnrooth, 2018).

Indulgence versus restraint: Indulgence verses restraint, the sixth dimension of national culture, represents the degree to which members of a society control urges to indulge in or refrain from satiating desires (Halkos & Skouloudis, 2017; Hofstede, 1980).

Innovation culture: Innovation culture is an organizational culture created by a leader "that is more receptive to new ideas and innovation is likely to increase the magnitude of innovative productivity" (Hurley, 1995, p. 73). It has four dimensions,

participative decision making, power sharing, support and collaboration, and people and career development (Hurley, 1995; Hurley & Hult, 1998).

Inspirational motivation: Inspirational motivation is the second leader behavior factor of transformational leadership. It involves the use of an "emotional appeal to increase awareness and understanding of mutually desired goals" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 553).

Intellectual stimulation: Intellectual stimulation is the third leader behavior factor of transformational leadership. It involves supporting innovation and encouraging followers to challenge the status quo (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Long-verses short-term orientation: Long-versus short-term orientation, the fifth dimension of national culture, represents mentality of a society in terms of its focus on the future or the present (Hofstede, 1980; Minkov & Hofstede, 2012).

Masculinity versus feminism: Masculinity versus feminism the fourth dimension of national culture, represents the degree to which the values in a society are dominated by gender roles (Halkos & Skouloudis, 2017; Hofstede, 1980).

National culture: National culture is the collection of elements shared by the people in one nation that differentiates them from the people of another nation (Hofstede, 1980). Its six dimensions include power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus feminism, long-term versus short-term orientation, and indulgence versus restraint (Boyadzhieva, 2016; Hofstede et al., 2010; Minkov & Hofstede, 2012).

Participative decision making: Participative decision making is a dimension of innovation culture that refers to the extent to which employees can provide input in organizational decisions (Hurley, 1995).

People and career development: People and career development is a dimension of innovation culture that refers to the extent to which an organization actively develops its employees and their careers formally or informally (Hurley, 1995).

Power distance: Power distance, the first dimension of national culture, represents the degree to which a society accepts the unequal distribution of power within its social institutions (Hofstede, 1980).

Power sharing: Power sharing is a dimension of innovation culture that refers to the extent to which organizational resources, influence and information is shared throughout an organization (Hurley, 1995).

Support and collaboration: Support and collaboration is a dimension of innovation culture that refers to the extent to individuals "actively support and help one another in their work" (Hurley, 1995, p. 60).

Transformational leadership: Transformational leadership is a style of leadership that encompasses leader behaviors that inspire followers to achieve unpredicted results (Avolio & Bass, 1995). It comprises four behaviors "referred to as the 4 Is of transformational leadership" idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 553).

Uncertainty avoidance: Uncertainty avoidance, the second dimension of national culture, represents the extent to which a society accepts ambiguity (Halkos & Skouloudis, 2017; Hofstede, 1980).

Assumptions

In a study to clarify differences between research perspectives, Slevitch (2011) asserted that ontology dictated epistemology. Ontology concerns itself with how truth is perceived, either as a realist perspective where one truth is certain, or a relativist perspective where the truth is subject to interpretation (Burkholder et al., 2016). Epistemology, on the other hand, concerns itself with how truth is obtained, scientifically through the collection of facts that can be measured or through the knowledge gained through the interactions with people (Burkholder et. al., 2016). In accordance with Babbie (2017), I conducted this study using the positivist epistemology aimed at substantiating theory. It stands to reason that the objectivist position is therefore applied. Three primary assumptions were made to adhere to the ontological and epistemological perspectives of this study. The first assumption was that the objective truth is derived from respondents that answered surveys honestly. The second assumption was that the dimensions of national culture data obtained from the Hofstede Insight website accurately reflects the culture of the countries selected for this study. Finally, I assumed that the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was an acceptable instrument for collecting transformational leadership data.

Scope and Delimitations

In this nonexperimental quantitative correlation study, I examined the relationship between country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation culture. In accordance with Burkholder et al. (2016), the research question framed the research scope and boundaries. I focused on determining whether country culture moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture in multinational corporations based in the United States. There are limitations associated with focusing on the effect size in linear modeling as opposed to the use of the null hypothesis for significance testing (Kraemer et al., 2008). Despite the potential of unexplained variances, a common approach for determining a causal relationship between variables employed the use of the correlational design to test the moderation effects between the variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Kraemer et al., 2008). To determine the moderation effect of country culture, data collection was limited to U.S.-based companies that operate in culturally divergent environments. Although recent studies suggest regional implications pertaining to effects of country culture (e.g., Lam & MacGregor, 2018; Shafi et al., 2018), I focused on western cultural influence, as implied by research question.

As noted by Hofstede (1994), the United States and Japan have exhibited divergence in all cultural dimensions, with more distinct divergence in the uncertainty avoidance, and individualism versus collectivism dimensions. This divergence has been maintained in the intervening years since Hofstede's earlier research. As evidenced in more relevant research, the long-term versus short-tern orientation and the indulgence versus restraint dimensions were added to the list of distinct divergence between the two

countries (Hofstede et al., 2010). The Hofstede Insights country comparison tool (https://www.hofstede-insights.com/product/compare-countries) enables the user to make present-day comparisons between multiple countries. Besides Hofstede's theoretical framework for country culture, other relvant theories examined in the current reserach study included Bass' transfomational leadership theory and Hurley's innovation culture theory.

Equally important to the discusison about the scope of the current study are the delimitations. One limitation of the current study was that I focused only on individuals identified as managers. A manager, regardless of gender identification, was construed as a person within a compnay with direct-report subordinate personnel. An additional limitation was experienced using the Bass and Avolio (1997) Form 5X of the Multifactor leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). While there are multiple versions of the MLQ, this version is was most appropriate for obtaining data that pertained solely to the transformational leadership dimensions (Mokhber et al., 2015). This allowed me to focus data collection on what was relevant, avoiding the potential of collecting data that resulted in wasted time for the research participant and the added requirement of additonal ethical considerations. The scope and delimitations in the current study made certain limitations inevitable.

Limitations

This section addresses the limitations related to the research design and methodology employed. As previously mentioned, the convenience sample was used for the current research study. The convenience sampling method provides the researcher

with ease of access to potential participants (Etikan et al., 2016). As suggested by Burkholder et al. (2016), one limitation of research that employs the use of nonrandom sampling is the potential lack of generalizability. Warner (2013) and Burkholder et al., deduced that statistical inference regarding the larger population from which the sample was drawn may be compromised. This limitation is unavoidable, but inferences about a larger population with similar characteristics may be made (Warner, 2013). I attempted to minimize bias as research participants with characteristics like the larger population were sought. A second limitation involved the use of the research design I employed.

The second limitation involves the use of the nonexperimental correlation design in the current research study. Although correlational research design is widely used to examine relationships between variables, it poses bidirectionality and third variable problems, which affects the ability of the researcher to make inferences (Burkholder et al., 2016). This limitation was addressed by employing the use of multiple regression analyses. This allows the researcher to make reasonable predictions pertaining to the relationship between the variables (Burkholder et al., 2016). The ability to make predictions related to the relationship between the variables aligns with the purpose of the current study.

Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, country culture, and innovation culture within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries. I expected to close the gap in literature comprising research studies that have typically examined the relationship between these

important variables in binary fashion. Research in the management discipline is important because the results can provide solutions to practical problems. This is particularly important in global markets perforated with economic turbulence and failed businesses where innovation can be a key factor for business success (Khouroh et al., 2019; Mayer-Foulkes, 2015). More research is needed to understand the relationships between important variables that influence the success of organizations (Putri et al., 2020). The significance of the current study is evidenced by the contribution to management theories, usefulness to current management practice, and impact on social change.

Significance to Theory

The current study contributes to extant literature by my examining the relationship between transformational leadership, country culture, and innovation culture simultaneously. Extant literature provides ample discourse about the moderative and mediative relationship between these variables, but only in binary fashion. As presented earlier and evidenced by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2018), business failures are inevitable. As multinational corporations expand operations into new and unknown territories, culture will become an increasingly important factor for corporate survival (Park & Lee, 2021). It influences organizational learning and the ability of an organization to be competitively innovative (Park & Lee, 2021). In one research study, culture was observed as a factor that influenced the relationship between followers and leaders (Öztürk et al., 2017). In other research studies, the relationship between followers and leaders was explained as a motivating factor, by which leaders stimulated followers to pro-organization and innovative behaviors that had a positive effect on task

performance and overall organizational performance (e.g. Aryee et al., 2012; Effelsberg et al., 2014; Gashema, 2021). Observations like these are important because they add to and become the basis for the development of theory (Warner, 2013).

The significance of theory is evidenced by its applicability across disciplines (Burkholder et al., 2016). When applied appropriately, theories provide an explanation about observed phenomena (Babbie, 2017). My goal with this study was to demonstrate that country culture moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture. Organizations compete in global markets, and there is limited research on how country culture impacts/moderates the effectiveness of transformational leadership when an organization is pursuing an innovation strategy. The current research may add to the extant body of knowledge on the relational implications of transformational leadership, country culture, and innovation culture.

Significance to Practice

The current research study may contribute to management practice by providing a framework for leading diverse teams that comprise innovative organizations competing in global markets. The uncertainty associated with organizational performance created by environmental turbulence can be mitigated when companies develop strategies that incorporate innovation (Fernandes & Solimun, 2017). It is important to understand whether leadership style impacts organizational performance in organizations pursuing innovation. Campbell (2015) affirmed that transformational leadership was often cited as the leadership style that facilitated creativity and innovation within an organizational context. Wang and Varma (2019) found that when multinational company employees

assigned to foreign environments left their assignments before the completion time, cultural differences were a contributing factor. Leadership success was critically contingent upon selecting the right person for an abroad assignment (Wang & Varma, 2019). Management practice ought to consider country culture as an influencing agent in organizational success.

Burkholder et al. (2016) opined that the significance of research was apparent in its potential to influence practice and affect policy. As observed by Park and Lee (2021), multinational corporations that directed more attention on human resource policy and practice aimed at location-specific advantages were able to mitigate obstacles created by cultural differences. When transformational leaders directed human resource policy and practice on enhancing the psychological well-being of followers, innovation and peak performance led to competitive advantage and enhanced organizational performance (Hannah et al., 2020). Understanding the relationship between country culture and transformational leadership in the context of U.S.-based companies with an innovation culture may help business leaders develop clarity on how to manage multicultural workplaces, and thereby reducing the potential of business failure. The current study may also have far-reaching implications on social change.

Significance to Social Change

The social implication of the findings from this study could aid organizations in determining whether human resources should develop strategies on recruiting transformational leaders. The results of this study may also provide guidance to educational institutions on developing curricula that considers diversity issues in training

future transformational leaders. Employing recruitment and training strategies that focus on cultural distance (the difference between home country and host country) could result in significant reductions in organizational disruption that negatively impacts productivity and business failure (Wang & Varma, 2019). This adaptation to the local environment is a key attribute of organizational survival in the expanding global market (Park & Lee, 2021). The current research study may result in the fulfillment of the meaning of social change, as embraced by Walden University, (2015) the improvement of human and social conditions towards a positive future.

Summary and Transition

In this study, I examined whether country culture modifies the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures within multinational companies based in the United States. Internationalization and globalization provide competing firms with the opportunity to gain competitive advantage over one another. Inevitably many organizations will fail because their leaders are devoid of the knowledge required to successfully operate in foreign markets. This study may provide useful information that can be used to mitigate the potential of business failure. Research is a critical element of organizational leadership. While a significant amount of research has been conducted on transformational leadership, country culture, and innovation culture, the literature review demonstrates that the preponderance of research focuses on bivariate relationships.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

An inordinate number of business failures is eminent in the expansive global market (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018). While innovation was found to be a crucial element for organizational survival, the problem was exacerbated when leadership style was inappropriately applied in varying countries where firms operated (Galperina & Klen, 2017; Haddad et al., 2019). The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the relationship between three variables, national culture, elements of transformational leadership, and innovation cultures within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries.

This chapter presents the search strategies employed to develop a comprehensive understanding of key variables used in the current study. The appropriateness of the theoretical foundation was explored. The use of transformational leadership theory, national culture theory, and innovation culture theory were examined as variables in extant literature.

Literature Search Strategy

Multiple electronic databases were used to conduct the literature review, including AMI/INFORM, EBSCO, ERIC, Emerald Insight, IEEE Xplore, Google Books, ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global, SAGE Journals, and Thoreau Multi-Database. To retrieve seminal literature a broad search criterion was used. Seminal works were captured using the intervening years since 1980. The search scope was narrowed to include years since 2016, to retrieve current peer-reviewed journals, dissertations, and conference proceedings. Key terms and phrases used in the search included the

following: *Bass, transformational leadership; transformational leadership, importance; transformational leadership, cultural differences; transactional leadership, transformational leadership; idealized influence; individualized consideration, transformational leadership; inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation, transformational leadership; Hofstede; national culture; indulgence versus restraint, culture; individualism versus collectivism; long-versus short-term orientation, culture; masculinity versus femininity, national culture; masculinity/femininity, leadership, culture; masculinity/femininity, culture; power distance, culture; uncertainty avoidance index, measure; decision making, innovation culture;* and *innovation culture.*

The search strategy was conducted to compile a literature review on relevant theories and empirical research pertaining to transformational leadership, national culture, and innovation culture. In some instances, the term itself was insufficient to retrieve literature on the subjects. In those cases, a combination of terms, or phases were used to retrieve relevant literature. Most of the literature employed in the current study were empirical studies aimed at developing a comprehensive understanding of the use of key variables, results of relevant research, and implications for the current study.

Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical foundation supporting this study was based on transformational leadership theory developed by Bass (1985), national culture theory developed by Hofstede et al. (2010) and Hurley's (1995) innovation productivity theory. Bass referred to his adaptive leadership style as transformational leadership because it enabled leaders to achieve operational results beyond expectation, while simultaneously meeting various

needs of employees in dynamic environments. In their study to examine whether transactional and transformational leadership were effective under conditions of uncertainty, Bass et al. (2003) concluded that transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) augmented the effect of transactional leadership (management-by-exception but not necessarily contingent reward) concerning the achievement of unit objectives under highly stressful combat conditions. The use of transformational leadership theory in the current study is appropriate since it has been linked empirically to organizational performance during periods of uncertainty. Barring some limited factors, Bass (1997) asserted this was the universal approach to management in certain countries.

The applicability of management theory across national borders is contingent on other factors. Hofstede (1980) proposed that national culture influenced whether Western management practices were effective in other countries. Hofstede (1983) intimated that Western management theory and practice was not universal. He found that leader behavior was a factor (Hofstede, 1983). The empirical link between national culture and leadership makes the Hofstede model appropriate for use in the current study.

National culture and leadership influence organizational effectiveness. Productivity is a measure of organizational effectiveness (Drucker & Marciarello, 2008). Innovation being one way of determining firm productivity, Hurley (1995) found that culture and leadership had an impact on organizational innovativeness. Hurley's (1995) model for innovation productivity, therefore, is appropriate for the current study.

Literature Review

To develop a thorough understanding of the key variables employed in the current study, each variable was explored in terms of its origin. Differentiating between transformational and transactional leadership was necessary because of their propinquity with one another. The application of transformation leadership and its dimensions in extant literature was explored. The same approach was used in the discourse on national culture and innovation culture.

Transformational Leadership

A comprehensive understanding of transformational leadership involved exploring its origin to define the concept and differentiate it from its predecessors. Since the theory was used in the current study, of particular importance is understanding how the dimensional factors evolved and how they are used to measure the concept.

Development of Transformational Leadership Theory

The friction that existed between organizational leaders and employees produced the creative tension from which the development of transformational leadership evolved. Hater and Bass (1988) observed that prevailing research focused on transactional leadership in the intervening years since World War II. Transactional leadership was described as having a tenuous motivational link between leaders and followers, because this leadership style was contingent upon the leaders' ability to exert legitimate power effectively and the followers having sufficient fear of consequences (Bass, 1990). Organizational outcomes were generally mediocre when transactional behaviors were employed (Bass, 1990). Despite the rise in the success of organizations led by

charismatic leaders, the preponderance of research on organizational psychology was directed toward understanding leadership based on contingent reinforcement (Bass, 1985). The focus on organizational results was the impetus for many studies on the relationship between leadership and employees, and its impact on organizational performance.

The contingent rewards aspect of transactional leadership was inconsequential to the achievement of improved operating results. Bass (1985) found that to achieve organizational objectives, transactional leaders used contingent reinforcement and intervened only when employees were off task; an approach that facilitated neither positive motivation nor employee satisfaction. The wanton nature of transactional leadership led researchers to further investigation of a concept introduced by Burns – transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Bass et al., 1987). The emergence of transformational leadership generated newfound interest among researchers.

Although the contingent reinforcement leadership model produced limited organizational success, it was still considered a practical approach to leadership. When complemented with transformational leader behavior, such as charismatic leadership, the impact to organizational outcomes were manifold (Bass, 1985). As demonstrated in studies on leaders such as Wilson (Boeing), Perot (EDS), Wexner (The Limited), Smith (General Motors Corporation), Iacocca (Chrysler), Welch (General Electric), and Goizueta (Coca Cola), in organizations where transformational behaviors were practiced, greater results were achieved than ones that employed only transactional behaviors (Bass, 1990). Transformational leadership motivated followers to achieve more than expected –

bringing awareness to the importance of applying Maslow's hierarchy in the treatment of leadership theory (Bass, 1985). Hater and Bass (1988) postulated that transactional leadership and transformational leadership were interrelated since both were used to accomplish organizational outcomes. They suggested the two were differentiated by the manner motivation was executed as well as the kinds of outcomes expected (Hater & Bass, 1988). The dichotomous relationship between leaders and followers was the crux of research on understanding differences between the two leadership models.

Differentiating Between Prevalent Competing Leadership Models

Discourse about leadership was directed at differentiating between two prevalent models for organizational leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership. The distinction between transactional leadership and transformational leadership primary pertained to the perception of the followers and the effects of their application on organizational performance (Brown et al., 2020; Erdel & Takka, 2020; Hannah et al., 2020; Neilsen et al., 2019). The differences were noteworthy and required separate discourse.

Transactional Leadership. Observed differences start with the definition of the concept. The transactional style of leadership comported to the idea that the relationship between leaders and followers was facilitated through the exchange of leader action and the distribution of organizational rewards (Gerlach et al. 2020). The definition affirmed that at its core, transactional leadership focused on organizational results (Brown et al., 2020; Erdel & Takka, 2020). Leader action was expected to achieve a specific result. This myopic approach was criticized because it was devoid of compassion for employees

(Brown et al., 2020). Without compassion for employees, which was believed to be a behavioral trait that motivated employees towards task achievement, organizational success was compromised (Hannah et al., 2020). An examination of organizational success suggested that employee satisfaction was a critical element.

Copious research has been conducted to examine the impact of transactional leadership on employees and organizational outcomes. The active traits of transactional leadership, contingent reward, and active management-by-exception, which involved correction upon deviation from task objectives, correlated with leadership outcomes; but, when simultaneously employed with transformational leadership, contingent material rewards undermined the vision casting element of transformational leadership (Erdel & Takka, 2020; Neilsen et al., 2019). According to Hannah et al., (2020) the inability of leaders to motivate employees beyond self-interest was attributed to inattention to the psychological well-being of employees. When leaders engaged transactional leadership, a style that focused on subjective well-being (the hedonic motivation that pertains to experiences of pleasure and pain) as opposed to psychological well-being (the eudaimonia motivation that pertains to experiences of meaning and purpose) organizational innovation was negatively impacted (Hannah et al., 2020). Innovation enhanced competitiveness and was numbered among the most consequential strategies (Brown et al., 2020; Hannah et al., 2020). The application of transformational leadership, conversely, enhanced organizational performance.

Transformational Leadership. The transformational style of leadership required leadership that motivated employees towards accomplishment beyond their self-interest

through vision setting (Athukorala et al., 2016; Gerlach et al., 2020). This style of leadership comprised several dimensions, but vision casting was identified as its most distinguishing factor because it stimulated innovation, employee engagement, and synergistic organizational results (Brown et al., 2020; Ghani et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2015). In studies that examined the effects of leaders that employed this style, researchers found that transformational leadership facilitated the creation of an environment of trust, a necessary element of innovative organizations (Afsar et al., 2019; Khalili, 2016; Lazányi, 2017).

In studies that examined the extent of the relationship between followers and leaders that employed this style, employees consistently rated transformational leaders higher than those that employed the transactional style and were more inclined to innovative behavior (Chen et al., 2019; Choi et al., 2016; Feng et al., 2016; Passakonjaras & Hartijasti, 2020). Employee creativity and innovation were the products of transformational leader action that enhanced organizational competitiveness (Al-Edenat, 2018; Al-Husseini & Elbeltagi, 2016; Campbell, 2015; Jiang et al., 2015). Organizations integrated practices that focused on developing transformational leaders because of the bolstered potential for innovation and positive organizational performance (Al-Husseini & Elbeltagi, 2016; Ho & Fu, 2018). This positive view of transformational leadership was not held universally.

There were some criticisms about the employment of transformational leadership. It was argued that the applicability of transformational and transactional leadership in public and private organizations was questionable (Jensen et al., 2019; Neilsen et al.,

2019). Using dialectical forensics, Jensen et al. (2019) found that variable confoundment (transformational leadership as a concept used the effect in its conceptualization making it difficult to measure its effect on employees), material and nonmaterial rewards that were not uniformly theorized (ranges of effect differed), and lack of appropriate boundaries were negative aspects of the leadership styles. It was also purported that factors of publicness (financial, political, and ownership status) required reconceptualization and re-operationalization before the concepts were used to measure their effect on employees in both public and private organizations (Jensen et al., 2019). Further research was encouraged as Jensen et al. (2019) were unable to affirm the success of their theoretical and empirical construct of transformational and transactional leadership. Despite arguments regarding the applicability of transformational leadership it continued to be one of the most prevalently researched leadership styles (Neilsen et al., 2019). Understanding its composition and how it is measured is paramount.

Dimensional Factors of Transformational Leadership

The dimensional factors of transformational leadership evolved from three behavioral factors initiation, consideration, and charisma. Seltzer and Bass (1990) observed that two transactional leadership factors (initiation and consideration) had almost exclusively been used to measure the effects of leadership on individual and organizational performance. Generally, the initiation and consideration scales dealt with what work was performed and how that work was performed respectively. The notion of how work was being performed became the subject of much discourse, since it was surmised that leader behaviors influenced employee performance that exceeded

expectations and employee satisfaction (Seltzer & Bass, 1990). The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire was used to measure the transactional factors (initiation and consideration) and the outcome measures were leader effectiveness, subordinate extra effort, and subordinate satisfaction with the leader (Seltzer & Bass, 1990). The authors concluded there was a positive correlation between three factors, initiation, consideration, and charisma (Seltzer & Bass, 1990). This revelation led to further studies on the transformational leader concept that expanded operationalization beyond initiation and consideration.

Measuring Transformational Leadership

Several studies used the MLQ to measure the impact of transformational leadership on employees and organizational outcomes. Manifold research has been conducted to measure the impact of transformational leadership. Employee perceptions were measured using a MLQ developed comprising five factors – two transactional factors (contingent reward and management by exception) and three transformational factors (charisma, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation; Bass, 1985; Waldman et al., 1987). After several iterations of research on the transactional and transformational concepts of leadership, the separate and distinct transactional and transformational traits were synthesized into the four dimensions of transformational leadership in use today: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1997a, 1997b; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Seltzer & Bass, 1990;). Each dimension was used to understand the unique relationship between transformational leader action and

employee or organizational performance. The transformational leader was responsible for establishing organizational culture (Alnatour & Shehada, 2020; Haleem et al., 2018), which in some instances did not align with the culture within which the firm operated (Boukamcha, 2019; Kasımoğlu & Ammari, 2020). To fully understand the breadth of leader influence, an examination of each dimension was necessitated.

Idealized Influence. Contemporary research on idealized influence generally sought to understand the impact of leader actions on followers (Azizah et al., 2020; Brown et al., 2017; Freihat 2020; Haleem et al., 2018; Koveshnikov & Ehrnrooth, 2018; Langat et al., 2019; Mir et al., 2020; Otieno et al., 2019; Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). The concept referred to the notion, that through the creation of vision and adherence to shared values, trust in leadership was established and followers were motivated to emulate leader behavior (Azizah, 2020; Brown et al., 2020; Freihat, 2020; Koveshnikov & Ehrnrooth, 2018; Otieno et al., 2019; Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). This idea aligned with charisma as Avolio and Bass (1995) first described the dimension, which led to improved performance.

The potential for improved performance was observed in several studies. Azizah (2020) observed that idealized influence had a significant effect on employee optimism, a contributing factor of innovation. Engagement and an enhanced inclination toward risk taking, which stimulated creativity, were outcomes among employees that esteemed and trusted their leaders (Freihat, 2020; Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). Organizational outcomes, including employee retention, adaptation to change, and teamwork were also noted results (Brown et al., 2017; Freihat, 2020; Mir et al., 2020). There were, however,

negative implications towards job satisfaction and cross-cultural utilization associated with idealized influenced when combined with other dimensional elements (Haleem et al., 2018; Koveshnikov & Ehrnrooth, 2018).

Inspirational Motivation. Inspirational motivation was described as the ability of the leader to acclimatize the conscious of employee towards shared goals through pathos appeals (Bass et al., 1996). As with idealized influence, extant research on inspirational motivation was directed at understanding the impact of leader actions on followers (Ahmad et al., 2019; Freihat, 2020; Haleem et al., 2018; Langat et al., 2019; Salas-Vallina & Fernandez, 2017; Schuesslbauer et al., 2018). Inspirational leadership has been empirically linked to participative decision making and happiness at work (Salas-Vallina & Fernandez, 2017), improved employee performance and team cohesion because of effective leadership (Ahmad et al., 2019; Alnatour & Shehada, 2020; Freihat, 2020; Langat et al., 2019), and adaptability to change (Brown et al., 2017; Schuesslbauer et al., 2018). These effects facilitated innovativeness (Freihat, 2020; Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017) and competitive advantage for organizations in global markets (Salas-Vallina & Fernandez, 2017; Schuesslbauer et al., 2018).

Intellectual Stimulation. The intellectual stimulation element of transformational leadership, conceptualized by Avolio et al. (1991), referred to the ability of the leader to create an environment that fostered creativity. Current research was primarily focused on employee performance and organizational results (Boukamcha, 2019; Freihat, 2020; Jensen et al., 2020; Kasımoğlu & Ammari, 2020; Minai et al., 2020; Ohunakin et al., 2019; Sánchez-Cardona et al., 2018; Shafi et al., 2020; Yamamoto & Yamaguchi, 2019;

Yin, et al., 2020). Empirical studies demonstrated that intellectual stimulation was connected to employee psychological safety, increased job satisfaction, attenuated turnover and contributed to job life expectancy (Ohunakin et al., 2019; Yin et al., 2020). Experimental evidence also inferred that intellectual stimulation encouraged creativity and knowledge sharing (Boukamcha, 2019; Freihat, 2020; Sánchez-Cardona et al., 2018); and enhanced organizational performance due to employee self-determination and innovativeness (Jensen et al., 2020; Minai et al., 2020; Shafi et al., 2020). An important observation was that of Boukamcha (2019) and Kasımoğlu and Ammari (2020), who affirmed that intellectual stimulation was impactful in stimulating creativity in some Middle Eastern countries but not in certain African countries.

Individualized Consideration. According to Bass et al., (2003), individual consideration referred to the ability of a leader to ascertain the needs of the follower through coaching and mentoring and to reward individual followers based on their growth and achievement. As with the other dimensional factors, a considerable number of recent studies on individualized consideration focused the understanding the relationship between leaders and followers (Azizah, 2020; Djourova et al., 2020; Haleem et al., 2018; Jensen et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2020; Koveshnikov & Ehrnrooth, 2018; Kwon et al., 2019; Martínez-Córcoles et al., 2020; Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017; Yin et al., 2020). Empirical evidence indicated that individualized consideration mediated the relationship between follower surface acting (an outward emotional display of the ability to understand and perform a job) and job satisfaction, whilst emotional intelligence moderated the relationship between surface acting and perceive individualized

consideration (Kwon et al., 2019). As identified by Yin et al. (2020), individualized consideration contributed to psychological safety and employee efficacy, which in turn mediated the relationship between individualized consideration and knowledge sharing among team members. Contradicting the positive effect individualized consideration had on employee efficacy, was Djourova et al., (2020) who observed a negative relationship between the two concepts. Similarly, Haleem et al., (2018) opined that individualized consideration had no significant impact on job satisfaction. Jensen et al. 2020 demonstrated that individualized consideration had a positive impact on firm return on assets. Whilst Azizah (2020) affirmed that individualized consideration had a positive effect on the innovative capacity of an organization. Koveshnikov and Ehrnrooth (2018), Khan et al. (2020), and Martínez-Córcoles et al. (2020) concluded that individualized consideration aided in clarifying ambiguity pertaining to organizational expectations, which leads to employee creativity and improved organizational results (Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). Extant literature reveled there were conflicting views about the effects of individual rewards.

National Culture

The same approach used to understand transformational leadership was used to understand national culture. This meant exploring its origin to define the concept and differentiate it from other management theories pertaining to culture. Since the theory was used in the current study, of particular importance is understanding how the dimensional factors evolved and how they are used to measure the concept.

Development of a National Culture Theory

The concept of national culture theory was borne from the notion that there was no agreed upon definition of culture or how it influenced management practice and theory across national boundaries. In her study, Iancu (2020) opined that several factors, including human and technological, contributed to the need for organizational leadership to identify ways to enhance its competitiveness. She suggested that the creation of a performance culture was a key element for organizational success in competitive environments (Iancu, 2020). By this time, Hofstede (1984) had already noted that management was the accomplishment of organizational objectives through the manipulation of human and technical resources; and that the human element was subject to the influences of national culture. He also observed that national culture had been neither commonly described nor systematically researched (Hofstede, 1983). Thus, the development of national culture theory was borne out of necessity.

For organizations to successfully compete in a global context, organizational leadership needed to understand whether national culture played a role in the application of management practice. Hofstede (1984) opined that values (a broad range of preferences) were the foundation of culture. In a broad sense of the word, culture was the accumulation of value patterns that distinguished one society from another (Hofstede, 1984). He observed that the value patterns of a society were associated with quality of life, and quality was a derivative of value (Hofstede, 1984). Culture, then, as described by Hofstede (1980) was a lens through which people perceived the world; an amalgamation

of systems, beliefs, and values programmed into people by the structures and institutions they shared. There was opposition to the thought that culture influenced social construct.

Some researchers subscribed to the convergence hypothesis to explain the progression of societies towards homogeneity. While there were multifarious discussions on inequality within societies, there was consensus among some that, due to community pressure, convergence between equality and inequality was an inevitable eventuality (see Azadegan et al., 2018; Pshenichnykh et al., 2020; Ranjbar et al., 2018). Hofstede (1983) argued that the convergence hypothesis, which purported that the influence of national culture on management was negligible, was inconsistent with reality. The nuances of national culture and its influence on management was critical towards the success of multinational and multicultural companies, because the political, social, and psychological characteristics of society permeated the institutions and organizations responsible for the collective programming (culture) of the members of a society (Hofstede, 1983). This observation was the foundation upon which studies were launched on the impact of culture on management practice.

National Culture and Management Theory

Several studies were undertaken to conceptualize and operationalize national culture. In one study, Hofstede (1980) engaged the mixed methods approach to inquiry to determine whether national culture could be measured; and whether management practice and theory developed in one country could be applied to another country. He employed the qualitative approach and the longitudinal correlation design to describe culture; and to determine whether a country displayed tendencies towards any of his four dimensions

(Hofstede, 1983; Hofstede, 1993). The culture of organizations across countries were reflective of the community in which they operated; and quality of life was reflective of how those firms met the needs of their employees (Hofstede, 1984). A one size fits all approach to leadership was an ineffective method when national boundaries were a factor.

Abraham Maslow pioneered the idea of motivation based on the satisfaction of human needs in the United States, but values differed across cultures (Hofstede, 1984). In a quantitative study to examine whether universal management theory could be applied to the internationalization of small to medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in developing countries, people and institutions were found to be barriers to the process (Mendy & Rahman, 2019). The universal application of management theory across international boundaries, as proposed by Bass (1997) was not cogent (Hofstede, 1984). Pertaining to the application of leadership and management theory and practice, there were factors to consider that differentiated one country from another. Hofstede identified six dimensions to describe national culture and interpret differences between societies.

The Dimensions of National Culture

The influence of national culture essentially ruled out the universal approach to management theory and practice. This was supported by the observation that the collective social influence of one society distinguished it from that of another society (Handoyo, 2018; Hofstede, 1980; Williamson, 2000 as cited by Sun et al., 2019). Recent empirical investigations on Hofstede's (1980) six dimensions of national culture generally focused on determining whether the differences influenced individual employee

behaviors toward organizational constructs; and, if so, whether certain behaviors impacted organizational performance (Handoyo, 2018; Iancu, 2020; Liu et al., 2019; Mulaomerovic et al., 2019; Ogigau-Neamtiu & Antonoaie, 2019; Oruh & Dibia, 2020; Siddique et al., 2020; Singh et al., 2017; Tear et al., 2020; Yu, 2017). Each dimension offers a unique perspective and required examination.

Power Distance Index. The power distance index provides the basis for evaluating the influence of authority within social structures. Hofstede (1980) suggested that this dimension represented the values of a society as pertaining to the distribution of power within its institutions and organizations. It measured the extent to which a society accepted that power was unequally distributed between members in social structures (Hofstede, 1980). Recent studies examining the effects of the power distance dimension found that countries with high power distance were replete with systems and structures that reinforced hierarchical authority (Iancu, 2020; Liu et al., 2019; Mulaomerovic et al., 2019; Oruh & Dibia, 2020). Without the appropriate support from leadership, these implements stymied employee creativity, innovation, and were the cause of negative organizational outcomes (Oruh & Dibia, 2020; Siddique et al., 2020; Tear et al., 2020). Examination of the power distance dimension also revealed conflicting views.

Opposing views about the impact of the unequal distribution of power within institutions and organizations were primarily concerned with the strength and directional aspects of the index. In his research study, Handoyo's (2018) employed the use of Geert Hofstede's national culture index data to determine whether countries with lower power distance had a higher capacity of national innovation. Contrary to this hypothesis, he

found that national propensity toward innovation was strongly associated with higher power distance (Handoyo, 2018). This was in stark contrast to Mulaomerovic et at. (2019) and Yu (2017), as well as Ogigau-Neamtiu and Antonoaie (2019) who found that creativity and innovation were associated with members of a social structure with low power distance index. This dissent was a basis for consideration in the present research study.

Uncertainty Avoidance Index. In social structures, evasive behaviors are dictated by cultural norms. As conceptualized by Hofstede, (1980), the uncertainty avoidance index measured the extent to which a society implemented avoidance behaviors when periods of uncertainty were experienced. Empirical evidence suggested that societies that experienced uncertain and ambiguous environments exhibited strong avoidance behaviors, which included leadership dependance, resistance to change, risk aversion, and a desire for formalized regulations (Fedotova, 2017; Gaganis et al., 2019; Shear et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2017; Zhang & Yang, 2018). As an example, in their research study, Fedotova (2017) as well as Zhang and Yang (2019) found that during periods of turbulence, employee decision making was driven by adherence to strict organizational protocols. While some organizations were less likely to consider risky strategic undertakings (Gaganis et al., 2019; Shear et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2017), Kwan (2018) found that innovation stimulated some societies to embrace uncertainty more readily, particularly where democracy was valued. Except for companies with innovative culture, it appears there was general agreement about the effects of uncertainty avoidance

behaviors on decision making among leaders and followers within institutions and organizations.

Individualism Versus Collectivism. According to Hofstede (1980), the difference between individualist and collective societies was a measure of the how people interacted with the social frameworks to which they were associated. In individualist societies, people pledged loyalty to self and immediate family members only (Hofstede, 1980). People in collectivist societies extended loyalty to in-groups and out-groups to which they were associated beyond family members (Hofstede, 1980). Handoyo (2018) and Pelc (2017) findings were consistent with Janićijević (2019) who found that countries with high individualism were predisposed to innovation and were more likely to embrace transformational leadership. Conversely, Usoro and Abiagam (2018), as well as Ogigau-Neamtiu and Antonoaie (2019) demonstrated that institutions and organization with collectivist behaviors were more inclined to elements of an innovation culture. Their opposing views were worthy of further examination.

Masculinity Versus Femininity. To Hofstede (1980) a measure of the extent to which a society embraced a dominant or nurturing role represented its propensity toward masculinity or femininity, respectively. The preponderance of contemporary research studies on the effects of the masculine and feminine attributes of societies were focused on leadership (Bissessar, 2018; Dheer et al., 2019; Hofstede, 2016; Janićijević, 2019; Ogigau-Neamtiu & Antonoaie, 2019; Usoro & Abiagam, 2018). Hofstede (2016) attributed femininity to societies where leaders focused on the needs of their followers through acts of caring and nurturing. These attributes have been empirically linked to

transformative leadership (Bissessar, 2018). In accordance with Janićijević (2019), these leaders were more likely to be effective in group oriented-tasks rather than individual-oriented tasks. It is probable that this group-oriented success was associated with the knowledge sharing and collaboration evident among members who collectively promoted the greater good of the group (Janićijević, 2019; Usoro & Abiagam, 2018). As demonstrated by Rosenthal (2020), collaboration was a thematic element of innovation culture. The proposition that innovation was stimulated by either a masculine or feminine culture was not espoused homogenously.

In their research study, Usoro and Abiagam (2018) concluded that, both the masculine, and the feminine attributes of leadership in Nigerian cities contributed to knowledge sharing, a factor Xie et al. (2016) noted as an element of innovation culture. Similarly, Dheer et al. (2019) found that women in masculine Eastern and Middle Eastern countries were more likely to engage in entrepreneurial activity, a risk-taking venture. Conversely, Ogigau-Neamtiu and Antonoaie (2019) concluded that masculine societies were prone to adopting the use of technology, particularly in participative governance (Janićijević, 2019; Kwan, 2018); and adaptation, as noted by Rosenthal (2020), was a thematic condition of an innovation culture.

Long- Versus Short-Term Orientation. This dimension, according to Franke et al. (1991, as cited by Hofstede, 1994), was originally referred to as the Confucian Dynamic due to the propensity of a society to express values that were viewed, both positively, and negatively. As implied by the nomenclature, this dimension measured the extent to which a society or organization directed its activities toward future

achievements or present gains based on past events. Extant literature pertaining to this metric focused on the impact of a social construct on society at large (Dermol, 2019; Halkos & Skouloudis, 2017; Luria et al., 2019; Ogigau-Neamtiu & Antonoaie, 2019; Özdasli et al., 2016; Teo & Huang, 2019). In their research study, Ogigau-Neamtiu and Antonoaie (2019) determined that when corporate social responsibility was demonstrated as part of an organization's long-term orientation, that organization was negatively associated with the inclination toward helping others in the larger community. This attribute of a feminine culture has been empirically linked to transformation leadership (Bissessar, 2018). Leadership that focused on the future state of the organization was more strategic. The long-term-orientation was found to be critical to strategic competitiveness (Dermol, 2019). This orientation aligned with a high tolerance for the acceptance of technology as noted by Teo and Huang, (2019) as well as adaptiveness as observed by Özdasli et al. 2016. Both of which were characteristic of transformational leadership (Rosenthal, 2020).

Indulgence Versus Restraint. According to Hofstede et al., (2010, as cited by Sun et al., 2019) this final, and most recently added dimension, measured the extent to which members of a society gratified or restrained themselves from satisfying their personal desires to indulge hedonistic behaviors. Like studies on the long- versus short-term orientation, recent research about this dimension were focused on the impact of a social construct on society at large (Halkos & Skouloudis, 2017; Luria et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2019; Zhang & Yang, 2018;). In one study, researchers observed that Turkish people living in the United States of America were being culturally assimilated, inferring that

Turkish leaders were influenced by American culture (Özdasli et al., 2016). An organization with leadership focused on corporate social responsibility, was positively associated with an inclination to help others in the larger community (Halkos & Skouloudis, 2017; Luria et al., 2019). As demonstrated by other studies on transformational leadership, Sun et al. (2019), as well as Zhang & Yang (2018) observed that leaders that practiced indulgent behaviors (or individualized consideration) negatively influence organizational performance (Djourova et al., 2020; Haleem et al., 2018).

The Influence of National Culture on Leadership and Innovation

Hofstede's cultural dimensions were used to demonstrate the existence of a relationship between nationality and certain leadership styles. The extent of the influence national culture had on leadership effectiveness was examined, as well as, what influence, if any, national culture had on organizational effectiveness at achieving innovation.

National Culture and Transformational Leadership. As previously discussed, national culture referred to the collection of beliefs and values that distinguished one society from another (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 1984). Transformational leaders motivated employees to achieve results that exceeded expectations (Bass, 1985). Recent research studies sought to understand the interaction between these concepts and their impact on leadership and organizational performance (Bissessar, 2018; Crede et al., 2019; Hunt, 2017; Rahman et al., 2018; Shapira-Lishchinsky & Litchka, 2018; Wang et al., 2018;). In her research study, Bissessar (2018) engaged a qualitative design to understand

the impact of culture on leadership in schools. She concluded that leaders in Canadian, Jamaican, and Trinidadian schools viewed themselves as transformational leaders (Bissessar, 2018). This leadership style was found compatible with Jamaica, since it was listed among countries with a low to moderate uncertainty avoidance index score (Bissessar, 2018; Hofstede, 1984). In the case for Canada and Trinidad, compatibility was attributed to exception (Bissessar, 2018).

According to Kouzes and Posner (1995 as cited by Abu-Tineh et al., 2008) specific leader practices were tied to transformational leadership. In their research study, Shapira-Lishchinsky and Litchka (2018) concluded that certain transformational leadership practices were applicable in both the United States and Israel, as was associated with the degree of masculinity and uncertainty avoidance in those countries. They also concluded that some aspects of transformational leadership practice were culture-dependent, due to the different levels of power distance, individuality, and masculinity between the countries (Shapira-Lishchinsky & Litchka, 2018).

Crede et al. (2019) examined the relationship between transformational leaders and their subordinates across countries. Wang et al. (2018 as cited by Crede et al., 2019) noted that organizational citizenship behavior was empirically linked to transformational leadership. In the study conducted by Crede et al. (2019), the researchers found that transformational leadership was least effective in highly developed Western societies and strongest in developing countries. They also indicated that cultures with higher levels of collectivism and long-term orientation were more suitable for transformational leadership (Crede et al., 2019).

In a study to understand whether career obstacles were predictors for career differences between male and female leaders, Wang et al. (2018) examined elements of national culture as moderating factors. From among the dimensions of national culture, the researchers selected uncertainty avoidance since the job of a CEO was inherently associated with addressing ambiguity, and gender egalitarianism since status in a society was potentially ascribed to an individual based on gender (Wang et al., 2018). The researchers concluded that impact varied for both dimensions on the career of females and males (Wang et al. 2018). While uncertainty avoidance exacerbated obstacles for female leaders, they were reduced in gender egalitarian societies (Wang et al., 2018).

In another study, the moral construct of ethical leadership, including transformational leadership was explored to understand whether humane orientation was moderated by the cultural dimensions identified in the Global Leadership and Organization Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project in certain countries (Hunt, 2017). Humane orientation referred to the extent to which individuals or societies exemplified and rewarded kindness (Hunt, 2017). The researcher opined that since the United States was individualistic with a masculine orientation, it did not associate well with humane orientation (Hunt, 2017). It could, however, be facilitated through transformational leadership, which embraced mentorship as an expression of individual consideration (Hunt, 2017). In the case of China, which registered as a collectivist culture with high power distance on the GLOBE project, transformational leadership was ideal since charisma was inherent to the authoritarian style of leadership practiced (Hunt, 2017). The charismatic factor, authoritarian leadership, associated well with transformational

leadership dimensions, idealized influence and inspirational motivation (Hunt, 2017). The individual consideration dimension of transformational leadership aligned with Mexico, which was identified as a collectivist culture with high masculinity (Hunt, 2017).

Acquainted with knowledge that Bangladesh was a collectivist society, Rahman et al. (2018) engaged a quantitative correlation to test their hypotheses on the relationship between organizational leadership and organizational commitment. The researchers concluded that transformational leadership was one of the leadership styles that was the best predictor of employee organizational commitment (Rahman et al., 2018).

National Culture and Innovation. An examination of whether and how national culture influenced innovation has been the subject of limited debate in extant literature. Prevailing discourse focused on the interaction between national culture and organizational performance (Attah-Boakye et al., 2020; Boubakri et al., 2021; Kaasa, 2017; Michaelis et al., 2018; Moonen, 2017; Švarc, 2017; Švarc et al., 2019). There were also implications regarding a connection to leadership (Moonen, 2017; Švarc et al., 2019). Attah-Boakye et al. (2020) conducted a study to test their hypotheses on the relationship between national culture and firm innovativeness. They obtained data on national culture from the Hofstede website, a manner consisted with other researchers. A presupposition concerning the dependent variable was that a firm's investment in research and development was an expedient measure of firm innovativeness (Attah-Boakye et al., 2020). While the primary focus of the study was gender influence on firm innovativeness, Attah-Boakye et al. (2020) concluded that innovativeness was more

probable with firms operating in societies with high masculinity, individualism, long-term orientation, and indulgence.

Švarc (2017) engaged a qualitative analysis to understand the formative implication socio-cultural factors had on national innovation culture in Croatia. The researcher opined that socio-political factors comprised a crony capitalistic political economy, and a sociology that demonstrated criminal privatization, referred to as situational reaction deficit and cultural inertia disposed to egalitarianism (Švarc, 2017). In accordance with Hofstede (2017; as cited by Švarc, 2017), Croatia was not inclined to innovation since it possessed high power distance and uncertainty avoidance scores. Croatia also had low scores in masculinity, individualism, and indulgence (Švarc, 2017). Although, Croatia possessed a long-term orientation, which was conducive for innovation, Švarc (2017) concluded that to overcome the cultural aversion toward innovation, moral leadership was compulsory.

Boubakri et al. (2021) conducted a quantitative correlation study to determine whether a relationship existed between national culture and corporate innovation. Hofstede (1980, as cited by Boubakri et al., 2012) asserted that national culture influenced innovation. The researchers sought to add to the existing body of knowledge on the subject by testing whether and how each individual dimension of national culture influenced corporate innovation (Boubakri et al., 2021). Corporate innovation referred to the number of patents acquired by a firm and the number of citations an acquired patent received (Boubakri et al., 2021). The sample used in the study comprised of firms with and without innovations from 27 countries (Boubakri et al., 2021). The researchers

concluded that firms were more innovative within societies that exhibited higher levels of individualism, feminism, indulgence orientation, or long-term orientation (Boubakri et al., 2021). There was a negative relationship between corporate innovation and firms within societies with high power distance, and uncertainty avoidance (Boubakri et al., 2021). The researchers made a point to note their surprise regarding firms being innovative within feminist societies (Boubakri et al., 2021).

Similarly, in a study to examine the relationship between national culture and innovation in countries within the European Union and neighboring countries, Kaasa (2017) found that high power distance and uncertainty avoidance were negatively associated with innovation. Additionally, individualism was found to be positively related to innovation. In the Kaasa (2017) study, however, innovation was measured using an index comprising patent information derived from four sources: World Intellectual Property Indicators, World Bank's Knowledge Indexes databases, the U.S. Patent and Trademark Office, and organizational investment expenditure information from the Global Innovation Index known as INSEAD.

Moonen (2017) used the summary innovation index to measure innovation performance in the European Union. Using this index, a country's innovation performance was characterized as either innovation leaders, innovation follower, moderate innovator, or modest innovator. The GLOBE project was used to measure national culture (Moonen, 2017). This measure included the six dimensions developed by Hofstede (2010, as cited by Moonen, 2017) and included two additional dimensions, human orientation, and performance orientation. Along with finding that national culture

influenced innovation in countries within the European Union, Moonen (2017) concluded that leader action was also a factor, and that further research was required to determine the effects of various leadership styles.

In a study to explore potential impacts of national culture on regional innovation in Croatia, Švarc et al. (2019) used a quantitative comparative analysis. Hofstede (1984, as cited by Švarc et al., 2019) asserted that innovation was likely to occur in societies that supported high individualism, low power distance, high masculinity, low uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation, and indulgence. A single value for each region taken from a regional competitiveness index was used as a measure of innovativeness (Švarc et al., 2019). The researchers found that innovation varied among regions in a manner inconsistent with Hofstede's claim (Švarc et al., 2019). They concluded that the use of Hofstede's theory was insufficient in determining regional innovativeness and intimated that leadership style may be a factor (Švarc et al., 2019).

In their research study to examine whether there was a relationship between innovation culture and new product development performance, Michaelis et al. (2018) found that innovation culture was difficult to conceptualize. They conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to test their innovation culture construct composed of nine dimensions (Michaelis et al., 2018). The dimensions were: innovative mission and value statements (promoted organizational efficiency), democratic communications (facilitated participative decision-making), safe spaces (enabled the generation of new ideas), flexibility (fostered employee development), collaboration (facilitated the development of trusting relationships), boundary spanning (supported the free-flow communication

between organizational levels), incentives (reinforced positive behaviors), leadership (supported employee empowerment, and sustainability (established and maintained a creation culture) (Michaelis et al., 2018). New product development performance referred to new product sales and profits. They found that innovation in eastern countries was aligned with collectivist factors including lower ratings in democratic communication, safe spaces, and boundary spanning (Michaelis et al., 2018). Innovation in western countries was aligned with individualist factors including incentives, boundary spanning, leadership, and flexibility (Michaelis et al., 2018). In contrast to Švarc et al. (2019), the researchers concluded that culture of a geographic region did not influence innovation (Michaelis, et al., 2018).

Innovation Culture

Like the approach used to develop a comprehensive understanding of national culture, innovation culture was explored to understand its origin to define the concept and differentiate it from other management theories pertaining to culture. Since the theory was used in the current study, of particular importance is understanding how the dimensional factors evolved and how they are used to measure the concept.

Development of Innovation Culture

There is an inherent relationship between organizational culture and organizational performance. For many years, innovation was considered the impetus of capitalism (Pimentel et al., 2020). Innovative culture as a concept emanated from the seminal works of Barnett (1953, as cited by Hurley, 1995), and Burns and Stalker (1961, as cited by Hurley, 1995), who ascertained that innovative productivity was the result of

organizational culture. Hurley (1995) also noted that while prior research primarily focused on understanding the relationship between innovation and leadership, and innovation and culture, literature lacked sufficiency on research that examined the relationship between organizational culture and innovative productivity. The observed differences between organizational culture and climate led to the notable deduction that climate facilitated innovative activities such as freedom, encouragement, coordination, and recognition (Hurley, 1995). The identification of these innovative behaviors led to the notion that innovation culture comprised four dimensions: participative decision making, power sharing, support and collaboration, and people and career development (Hurley, 1995). In the intervening years since this supposition several research studies have been conducted to substantiate the notion that innovative leadership facilitated the development of an innovative culture.

Recent qualitative studies were aimed at describing innovative culture through leader behavior. It has been expressed as that which was created by the firm leader (Gonzales & Storti, 2019; Haddad et al., 2019; Pimentel et al., 2020; Rosenthal, 2020). In a research study to identify the elements that contributed to a culture of innovation within the Massachusetts school district, Rosenthal (2020) indicated that the themes (and associated codes) which emanated from interviews were: adult collaboration (collaboration, advice, motivation); curriculum adaptation, delivery, and outcomes (projects, innovation, benefits to students, autonomy, motivation, resources); administrative and community support (administration); and professional development (professional development and resources). In another research effort to describe

innovation culture from a Brazilian perspective, Pimentel et al. (2020) identified several themes which included understanding the challenge, generating ideas, ideation, action planning, and proposing ideas to decision makers. They noted that the innovative behaviors of employees were impacted by leader behaviors (Pimentel et al., 2020).

The notion that innovation culture started with the leader was affirmed by Gonzales and Storti (2019), who observed that school principals charged with creating a culture of innovation in Costa Rican schools exhibited the attributes, motivator, and acquirer of resources. The themes derived from Haddad et al. (2019) led them to conclude that some of the attributes were that of a transformational leader. They recommended that to sustain a competitive advantage, leaders of SMEs in the Middle East needed to direct their attention to idea generation, influencing organizational culture, communicating clear vision and organizational goals, and engaging employees and customers as resources for critical feedback (Haddad et al., 2019). With leadership identified as a critical role in developing a culture of innovation, additional research was aimed at understanding the relationship between leadership and organizational results.

The link between leadership and organizational results has been researched extensively. Studies on the relationship between innovative leaders and organizational outcomes, however, were limited. Recent studies on this topic suggested that innovative leaders produced improved organization results; and that national culture was a factor (Attah-Boakye et al., 2020; Dabić et al., 2019; Hanifah et al., 2019; Švarc et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2016). In accordance with Dobni (2008, as cited by Hanifah, et al., 2019) innovation culture comprised four dimensions: intension, infrastructure, influence, and

implementation. Innovation performance was operationalized as incremental improvements to products, processes, and/or procedures. Governmental support was the financial assistance provided (Hanifah et al., 2019). The researchers concluded that with an innovation culture, particularly during periods of economic uncertainty, Bumiputera SMEs experienced improved innovation performance which enabled the Malaysian government to achieve its objective of becoming an innovation driven economy (Hanifah, et al., 2019). They also found that innovation culture was a mediator of innovative performance on Bumiputera SMEs (Hanifah et al., 2019). The relationship between innovation culture and organizational performance was substantiated by Dabić et al. (2019) who observed that higher levels of innovation culture, a concept influenced by Western countries, led to higher levels of business performance in Croatian SMEs.

Due to the complexities of the transitional economies of China and Vietnam, Xie et al. (2016) conceptualized and operationalized organizational innovation culture as a multi-dimensional concept comprising knowledge sharing, organizational innovation atmosphere, team decision-making, and organizational change. They found that all four factors of innovation culture influenced organizational performance; and that national culture was a factor in describing the differences in impacts in China and Vietnam (Xie et al., 2016). The cultural model developed Hofstede (1980, as cited by Attah-Boakye et al., 2020; Švarc et al., 2019) was observed as playing significant role in describing the relationship between innovation culture and organizational performance. While certain leader behaviors contributed to the culture of an organization with a propensity towards

innovation, national culture was considered as another contributing factor. Innovation as an attribute of organizational performance, then, needed to be explored.

Dimensions of Innovation Culture

Relative to the development of transformational leadership and national culture, innovation culture is a novel concept. Recent discussions on the topic have focused on refining the dimensional concept and measuring its effects on organizational performance. When an organization experienced innovative productivity, because of its group values and norms, it was viewed as one that possessed an innovative culture (Hurley, 1995). Studies on the dimensions of innovative culture were directed toward understanding leader influence on organizational outcomes. The extent of innovativeness within an organization was measured by four cultural variables (Hurley, 1995):

Decision Making. This dimension conveyed the degree of openness to employee participation in the decision-making process (Hurley, 1995). Recent studies on the decision-making dimension generally pertained to measuring the impacts following the implementation of strategic initiatives (Cerreta et al., 2020; Daldanise, 2020; Gao & Gurd, 2020; Mohan et al., 2017; Xie et al., 2016). In their research study, Xie et al. (2016) found that knowledge sharing, collaborative decision-making, and an organizational change culture contributed to the ability of Chinese and Vietnamese companies to experience an improved innovation performance.

Managerial decision-making was empirically linked to organizational innovation culture by Mohan et al. (2017), as well as Gao and Gurd (2020). In a case study to evaluate the significance of culture on the use of an Italian asset, Cerreta et al. (2020)

observed that the San Sebastiano del Monte dei Morti Living Lab was the result of collaborative decision making among stakeholders. It was recognized as a place where new processes and new ideas were generated, yielding increased productivity (Cerreta et al., 2020). In another study that evaluated the strategic use of community resources in Italy, Daldanise (2020) noted that collaboration decision-making was a critical element for knowledge creation and innovation.

Power Sharing. In accordance with Hurley's (1995) conceptualization, this term referred to the confluence of knowledge, resources, and authority. The sharing of information and influence was required to achieve the state of collaborative decision making previously discussed (Cerreta et al., 2020; Daldanise, 2020; Gao & Gurd, 2020; Mohan et al., 2017; Xie et al., 2016;). By implication, these research studies inferred that leadership incited power sharing. Additional research studies aimed at understanding the concept were focused on leadership influence (Gonzales & Storti, 2019; Heizmann et al., 2018).

In their case study on the role of leadership influence on Cost Rican institutions, Gonzales and Storti (2019) found that in environments where collaborative decision making was encouraged, conflict was inevitable. Conflict resolution, then, required the introduction of leader influence, or power, which resulted in improved processes and an innovative workforce (Gonzales & Storti, 2019). In a study to understand intercultural knowledge sharing relationships among Australian expatriates and Vietnamese host country nationals, Heizmann et al. (2018) observed recurring themes pertaining to shared power, which included information sharing, collaboration, and conflict management.

These themes were associated with power sharing (Cerreta et al., 2020; Daldanise, 2020; Gao & Gurd, 2020; Gonzales & Storti, 2019; Mohan et al., 2017; Xie et al., 2016;).

Support and Collaboration. This dimension referred to the extent to which employees supported one another in task achievement (Hurley, 1995). Extant literature focused on evaluating the effects of organizational leaders who manipulated resources to create a supportive work environment (Ainsworth & Chesley, 2020; Doshi & Clay, 2017; D'Souza et al., 2017; van de Meene et al., 2020; Vnoučková & Urbancová, 2020). In studies pertaining to organizational design, researchers identified common themes to consider when designing a structure that was supportive of the workforce (Ainsworth & Chesley, 2020; Doshi & Clay, 2017; D'Souza et al., 2017). Achieving an alignment that facilitated the collaborative process was identified as a key role for leadership in an innovation culture (Ainsworth & Chesley, 2020). In case studies on organizations with innovation as part of their strategy, van de Meene et al. (2020) found that decision-making was informed by the collaborative process. It was the job of the leader to establish an organizational culture that was supportive and facilitated innovation (Vnoučková & Urbancová, 2020).

People and Career Development. Hurley (1995) opined that this dimension reflected the degree of employee development, whether formal or informal, that took place within an organization. Empirical evidence noted it was the role of leadership to create an environment that was supportive of workforce development (Altinay et al., 2020; Ghavifekr & Ramzy, 2020; Gonzales & Storti, 2019; Sales et al., 2017). As noted by Vnoučková and Urbancová (2020), the leader's role was inherent in creating an

environment that supports the innovation culture. Gonzales and Storti (2019) concluded that when principals appropriately motivated teachers towards an innovation culture, the Costa Rican government was able to enhance its global competitiveness. In their study, Ghavifekr and Ramzy (2020) observed that transformational leadership was a factor among school principals in Kuala Lumpur who recognized the importance of staff development. With the appropriate leadership and development opportunities, teachers aspired to innovative cultures in Spanish and Turkish institutions (Altinay et al., 2020; Sales et al., 2017). Research findings about innovation culture demonstrated a connection to leadership and country culture.

The link between transformational leadership, national culture and organizations with innovation cultures was also evidenced. Al-Edenat (2018) found there was a relationship between transformational leadership, innovation, and job satisfaction; and recommended that organizations seek transformative leaders, since this style enhanced a firm's potential for product and service innovation. Dabić et al. (2019) observed that higher levels of innovation culture were a concept influenced by Western countries. Since Mohan et al. (2017) linked managerial decision-making, an integral component of transformational leadership, to organizational innovation culture, it was rational to conclude that the management of culture, national or otherwise, was another leadership responsibility (Alnatour & Shehada, 2020; Haleem, et al., 2018). Despite this leadership responsibility, Bissessar (2018) observed there was a lack of research on the impact of Hofstede's five dimensions of culture on leadership and engaged the qualitative approach to inquiry to address the application of Hofstede.

Summary and Conclusions

In this section, I examined the origin and applicability of the three variables used in the current study, national culture (moderator variable), transformational leadership (independent variable), and innovation cultures (dependent variable). Organizations experienced improved operating results when transformational leaders created environments that facilitated innovation behaviors. Multiple studies directed at measuring the impact of transformational leaders utilized the multifactor leadership questionnaire to measure its four dimensions. Among the four dimensions, idealized influence and inspirational motivation were perceived as factors that contributed to innovation performance. A primary link between inspirational motivation and innovation was through shared decision making. There were mixed views on whether the remaining two dimensions influence innovation. There was solid evidence that management practice impacted organizational results.

National culture emerged to fill the void on understanding whether culture was a factor that influenced management practice. A six-dimensional model was developed to measure the impact of national culture on management practice across national borders. Certain dimensions were found to directly influence innovation, which include power distance and uncertainty avoidance, while long-term orientation was linked to transformational leaderships and innovation. The six dimensions of national culture and GLOBE project were instrumental in identifying countries that were compatible with transformational leadership and innovativeness. Innovativeness was more likely in countries with high masculinity, individualism, long-term orientation, and indulgence.

Culture was inherently linked to management practice and the achievement of an innovation culture through leadership. The culture of an organization towards innovation was measured using four dimensions. All four of the innovation culture dimensions were used to measure the impact of leadership on organizational outcomes. While innovative behaviors of the leadership in an organization were influenced by all the dimensions of culture of a country, certain dimensions including individualism, and uncertainty avoidance were more likely to have a direct influence on innovativeness.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the relationship between three variables, country culture (moderator variable), elements of transformational leadership (independent variable), and innovation cultures (dependent variable) within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries. This section of the study addresses the research design and rationale, methodology, data analysis plan, different threats to validity, and summary.

Research Design and Rationale

The three approaches to research are qualitative, quantitative, and a combination of these two approaches known as mixed methods (Burkholder et al., 2016). The qualitative research design is aimed at describing phenomena (Babbie, 2017; Burkholder et al., 2016). The participant selection is more important than the population and sampling technique, since in-depth description of experiences is crucial in qualitative research. (Babbie, 2017; Burkholder et al., 2016). This is a particularly important aspect of qualitative research, since it is appropriate for theory generation (Burkholder et al., 2016). As described in the previous chapters of the current study, the seminal works of Hofstede (1980), Bass (1985), and Hurley (1995) resulted in ample qualitative descriptions of their observations regarding country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation culture, respectively. Since the research variables employed in the current study have been well-defined by these researchers, both theoretically and operationally, a qualitative study was not considered. In the current study, I sought to examine the

relationship between variables using existing theories. This positivist orientation typically examines phenomena using the quantitative approach to inquiry (Burkholder et al., 2016).

The choices among research designs vary, but alignment among the research components dictated which study design was appropriate. Burkholder et al., (2016) discussed the choices among research designs, noting that experiment designs, quasi-experimental designs, and nonexperimental designs were appropriate for quantitative approaches to inquiry. Babbie (2017) opined that an idiographic explanation pertaining to specific conditions provided ample meaning for observed phenomena. In Chapter 1 of my study, I demonstrated that in the intervening years since the introduction of these variables, the quantitative approach to inquiry had been used to understand the impact of country culture and transformational leadership on organizational innovation. These quantitative studies examined the relationship between the variables in binary fashion. In the current study I examined the interaction between all three variables.

The time series approach was one I considered for the current study. This approach enables the researcher to observe changes to a variable over time (Burkholder et al., 2016; Warner, 2013). Since cultural changes take place at a very slow pace, if change takes place at all, this research design was deemed inappropriate (Hofstede, 1993). In the current study, I examined the relationship between variables that did not consider changes over a period. In accordance with Burkholder et al. (2016), a correlational research design was appropriate when the intent was to understand the relationship between variables. Frankfort-Nachmias and Leon-Guerrero (2015) opined that this relationship should not be construed as casual. Rather, the relationship should be

described in terms of the degree to which an independent variable influences a dependent variable. In a correlation design, the term predictor variable is used instead of the independent variable and the term criterion variable instead of dependent variable when a correlational research design is employed (Burkholder et al., 2016). As demonstrated by Baron and Kenny (1986), a correlation design was employed when the effect of a relationship between predictor and criterion variables was expressed in terms of direction and/or strength. A moderator was appropriate when a weak relationship existed between the predictor and criterion or there was inconsistency between sample groups (Baron & Kenny, 1986). I thought this to be the case in the current study since the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture was considered in the context of country culture.

Since I did not seek to establish causality with this study, it is a nonexperimental research study. As stipulated by Burkholder et al. (2016), a nonexperimental design is necessitated when the relationship between variables presents a bidirectionality problem; the direction of the relationship between variables is undeterminable. In this study, I used transformational leadership as the predictor variable, innovation culture as the criterion variable, and country culture as the moderator variable.

Methodology

Population

The scope of the study was U.S.-based companies operating in different countries. A Google search on multinational companies headquartered in the United States produced a list of 246 companies that matched the focus of this study. Similar research

studies on transformational leadership included from one to 12 companies to comprise the population group (Arifin, et al., 2022; Randy-Cofie, 2018; Thomas, 2018). I attempted to use at least three companies in my study. The sample population was comprised of mangers of multinational companies based in the United States and managers with cultural dimensions divergent to those based in the United States. In accordance with Hofstede's cultural dimensions model, divergence was the measured difference in cultural values (de Mooij & Beniflah, 2017; Hofstede, et al., 2010). The greater the difference between the cultural values between countries, the greater the divergence between those countries (de Mooij & Beniflah, 2017; Hofstede, et al., 2010). A manager was construed as a person who supervised the duties and responsibilities of two or more employees within the company. Using data obtained from the Hofstede Insight website, Japan and the United States were determined to have sufficient cultural divergence for the current study (Hofstede Insights, 2021).

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

The sample size was determined using the G*Power to calculate total sample size in a linear multiple regression analysis. Certain presets were required when using the software, including the test family, statistical test, type of power analysis, effect size, alpha (α) level, and power level (see Faul et al., 2007). The F-statistic was the appropriate test family since a multiple regression analysis was employed (see Frankfort-Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero, 2015). In accordance with the seminal work of Frazier et al., (2004), the appropriate statistical test selection was the linear multiple regression. The type of power analysis was set to a priori: compute required sample size, since the actual power was

unknown at this time. The effect size was at 0.15 medium, as recommended when predictor variables were used (see Faul et al., 2007). The α level was set to 0.05, as suggested by Frankfort-Nachmias and Leon-Guerrero (2015) to balance between Type I and Type II errors. The power was set to a customary level of 0.80 as prescribed by Bradley and Brand (2013), who opined that this level ensured statistical significance at an acceptable level when α was set at 0.05. The number of predictors was set to 14, which included the predictor variable for each hypothesis, the criterion variable, the moderator variable, and the interaction for each hypothesis. As noted by Warner (2013), as the number of correlations required in a study increases, the risk of Type I error also increased. To reduce the risk of Type I error, Warner (2103) proposed the use of the Bonferroni procedure.

The Bonferroni correction was described as a simple way of minimizing the risk of Type I error (Armstrong, 2014; Warner, 2013). A few dated arguments against the use of the Bonferroni correction suggested it was unnecessary and had the potential of proving deleterious results (see Nakagawa, 2004; Perneger, 1998). Despite the arguments against its use, it is still widely used (Armstrong, 2014; Nakagawa, 2004; Perneger, 1998; Warner, 2103). The α error probability level was set at 0.004 to account for the Bonferroni correction. Having set G*Power to these presets, an estimated total sample size of 205 was calculated.

A convenience sample was used to collect the data for the analysis. The convenience sampling method is appropriate when a hypothetical population is desired (Warner, 2013). In the current study, the hypothetical sample generated via convenience

sampling was obtained by selecting multinational companies with divergent cultures. Representativeness of the target population is compromised when a convenience sample was employed, thereby limiting the generalizability of study results (Burkholder et al., 2016; Warner, 2013). The convenience sample was deemed an appropriate technique since this study included as study participants, managers at U.S.-based multinational companies, who represented stark contrasts between cultures.

As previously mentioned, the target population comprised managers of multinational companies headquartered in the United States. Data was collected from companies in the United States and companies in Japan that are U.S.-based. The instrument was a self-administered questionnaire using SurveyMonkey. The link to the SurveyMonkey questionnaire was distributed to participants by personal contacts. An institutional review board (IRB) approved research approach enabled me and stakeholders, who were identified as professionals from within the vulnerable population, to share the responsibility and control of the research procedure (see Numans et al., 2019). The stakeholders in the current research were associates known through professional organization affiliations. They were company CEOs or persons with sufficient authorization to grant permission to access employees. Permissions for company employees to participate in the research study were obtained through an invitation email to obtain organizational permission to participate (See Appendix B). An approved Form A was completed to establish a partnership with these organizations.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection (Primary Data)

Participants were recruited from companies headquartered in the United States that were operating in the United States and that were operating in Japan. I found a list of companies that conformed with this criterion on the *Public Citizen* website at https://www.citizen.org/wp-content/uploads/migration/uscorpsinjapan.pdf. Recruitment of eligible managers was accomplished by electronic means, which Babie (2017) described as using the internet to collect data in a cost-effective manner. In the current study, I used the internet to correspond with approved stakeholders from multiple companies. As pointed out by Mitchell (1994), the generalizability of results was enhanced when surveys from multiple companies were obtained as opposed to obtaining surveys from multiple people within the same organization. In accordance with the guidance provided by Numans et al. (2019), additional criteria to consider for the role of stakeholders included willingness to participate, organizational status, and the research process.

As researcher of the current study, I was personally acquainted with executives of several companies listed on the *Public Citizen* website. The companies on the list with known associates were selected to receive correspondence requesting participation. These associates were contacted directly via email to obtain permission for the company to participate in the study; and to request that they serve as the stakeholder during data collection. The email addresses of the known associates are not publicly available. Companies on the list which I had no personal acquaintance with were contacted via LinkedIn by identifying an executive in the company to obtain permission to participate

in the study and to identify a stakeholder. The same recruitment letter (Appendix A) was used for both known and unknown associates. Researchers have noted the decline in survey response rates over the years (Dusek et al., 2015; Greaves et al., 2020; Meyer et al., 2022; Stedman et al., 2019). Attempts to obtain participants were equally challenging in the current study. One company agreed to participate and comprised the study group. When the estimated sample size was not obtained, I sought other companies to participate in the study; two from the list of known associates and one that was unknown. This process was repeated until the number of needed volunteer participants was met to achieve the estimated total sample size.

The willingness of the stakeholder was established using an informed consent form that explained the nature of the study and its relevance to scientific research. The stakeholder's status within an organization enabled them to identify eligible participants as managers. Each manager, inclusive of any gender identity, was provided with the opportunity to participate in the current study upon consent and completion of an informed consent form. The SurveyMonkey link was distributed to IRB-approved stakeholders via email, who subsequently distributed the surveys as a link embedded within an email or an attachment to an email to managers of their representative organizations. Completed surveys were accessible by me via SurveyMonkey secure login credentials.

Each participant received an email with an informed consent form. The form also provided information to contact a Walden University IRB representative. Prior to completing the survey questionnaire, each participant was required to provide an

electronic signature indicating an agreement to participate. This action was construed as an agreement to participate in the research study on a voluntary basis. Refusal to participate as a volunteer was accomplished by exiting the browser. No further action was required. To enhance the potential for anonymity and confidentiality, identifying information of the participant was not required to complete the survey (see Burkholder et al., 2016). I anticipated that the survey would take approximately 20 minutes for a participant to complete. The participants were expected to complete the survey by answering each question without being coerced or experiencing a sense of obligation.

A test link was sent to the stakeholders to determine whether the SurveyMonkey link was accepted by the company server. In instances where the SurveyMonkey link was not accepted due to cyberthreat defenses, the stakeholder informed me. Then, I requested email address information for the participants and sent a scanned copy of the survey to the participants. The survey was emailed using the Walden University Outlook email encryption key. Using the Walden University Outlook email encryption key permits the addressee only to view the email. The participant was instructed to use the reply function to return the completed copy of the survey, as this permitted the email originator only to view the document. Alternatively, the participant used Dropbox to convey the scanned completed survey. In instances where scanning was unavailable, the participant sent the completed surveys using regular U.S. mail. Postal envelopes with prepaid postage affixed were provided by me. It should be noted that stakeholders are associates of the researcher through professional associations and these associations were subject to IRB approval as a professional partnership.

Archival Data

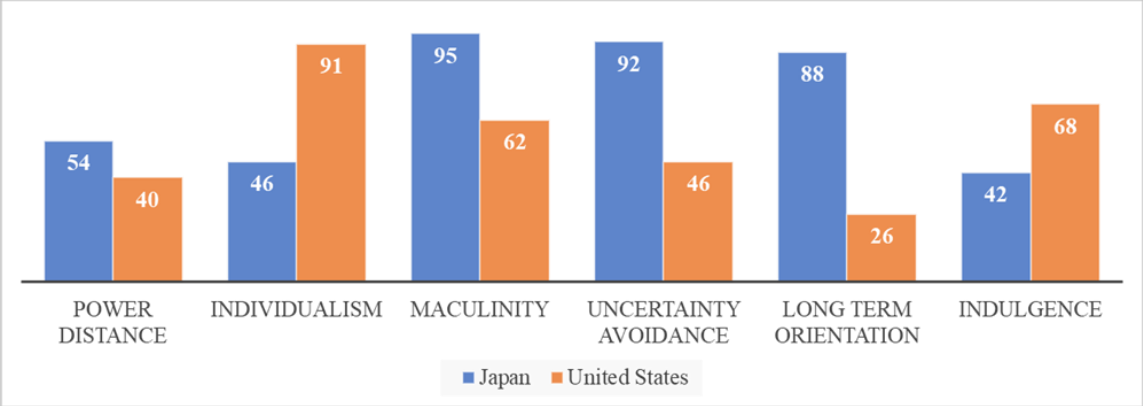
Values used to determine country culture divergence were obtained from the Hofstede Insights website. The original data were collected at different intervals between 1967 and 1969, and again between 1971 and 1973 (Hofstede, 1980). Although the data is significantly dated by 40–50 years, Hofstede asserted this concern was remedied by the fact that little to no change was anticipated in the estimated values for each country, as cultural change is slow (Hofstede et al., 2010). Researchers acknowledged that country culture changes over time (Chimenson et al., 2021; Oreg & Sverdlik, 2018). There was no consensus on the number of years required to constitute substantial change. The amount of cultural change realized over time, however, was described as incremental; and that the increment had minimal effect on the theoretical points of research (Chimenson et al., 2021; Oreg & Sverdlik, 2018; Peterson et al., 2019). The use of the instruments and data collected by the operationalization of country culture developed by Hofstede is still relevant for research (Masood et al., 2019). The use of the data and instruments is germane to the current study.

Permission to use the data was granted for noncommercial and personal use under the terms and conditions of the copyright page and in the Frequently Asked Questions page on the Hofstede Insights website (see Appendix C). As discussed in the scope and delimitations of the current study, data collection was limited to culturally divergent countries. Burkholder et al. (2016) opined that narrowing the study aided in clarifying who was to be included in the study population and enhanced the opportunity to establish validity. The use of archival data to determine divergence was accomplished in the

current study. Divergence between Japan and the United States was evidenced using the country comparison data on Insights. The scores in each dimension for Japan and the United States are depicted in Figure 1. The divergence between Japan and the United States was substantiated in a later study by Bergiel et al. (2012).

Figure 1

Divergence Between Japan and the United States



Note. This comparison is a reproduction of the graph created using the Country Comparison Tool made available by Hofstede Insights as a free tool. From Hofstede Insights (n.d.). *Country Comparison Tool*. (https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison-tool). Copyright 2023 Hofstede Insights.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

Country culture was used as the moderator variable. As previously mentioned, the country culture study conducted by Hofstede et al. (2010) captured data for 40 countries during the study of IBM using the Values Survey Modules (VSM) survey instrument. The VSM has gone through several iterations to improve effectiveness. Matviuk (2004) employed the use of the VSM-94 in a study to understand the relationship between culture and leadership behaviors among American and Mexican managers. The VSM-94

enabled researchers to assess five cultural dimensions, adding the long-term orientation dimension, as opposed to four dimensions, as with the previous VSM-80, and VSM-82 survey instruments (Matviuk, 2004).

In another quantitative correlational study, Chaitani (2010) employed the use of the VSM-08 to examine the relationship between dimensions of national culture, Gross Domestic Product per capita, and the Human Development Index. The VSM-8 added two additional dimensions, indulgence/restraint, and monumentalism/self-effacement. Hofstede and Minkov (2013) recommended replacing the use of the VSM-08 with the VSM-2013, which measures the six dimensions of country described in earlier research.

The user manual for the VSM-2013 indicated that the Cronbach's α be used only for country mean scores and that the values for Power Distance, Individualism, Masculinity, and Uncertainty Avoidance were all above .70. Specifically, the Power Distance Index was .84, Individualism Index, .77, Masculinity Index, .76 and the Uncertainty Avoidance Index, .71. Cronbach's alpha should only be used in country mean scores and not on individual scores (Hofstede & Minkov, 2013). Permission was granted to use VSM-2013 free for educational purposes. According to Hofstede and Minkov (2013, as cited by Harding, 2016), the VSM was appropriate for correlation studies since comparisons were being made.

Transformational leadership was used as the predictor variable. Data for each dimension of the variable were obtained using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X) survey instrument purchased from the Mind Garden website. Permission from the developer to use the instrument was made available from the same source upon

purchase of the MLQ-5X remote online survey license. Despite controversy regarding the presence of bias, the instrument continues to be employed in correlation studies with Cronbach's coefficient alpha between 0.71 to 0.91 (Bass & Avolio, 2000 as cited by Gong, et al., 2013). As described by Johnson (2017), the MLQ is a 45-question survey administered as a self-rater instrument using a 5-point Likert scale. In her quantitative correlational study, Chavarria (2018) sought to understand the moderating effect of the Latino culture on the relationship between transformational leadership and workplace motivation. Mean scores for transformational leadership were calculated and employed as continuous variables.

In a similar quantitative correlational research study, Robinson-Wilia (2020) examined the moderating effect of a leader's personality on the relationship between transformational leadership and leader's creativity. Each dimension of transformational leadership was operationalized using the MLQ-5X and treated as continuous data on the interval scale. Mean scores were calculated to achieve the desired results (Robinson-Wilia, 2020). As noted by Mgqibi (2019), only 20 of the 45-question MLQ-5X questionnaire pertained to transformational leadership needed to be used. This minimized the potential of collecting unnecessary data. In the current study, I used the same approach to collect data for and calculate transformational leadership.

Innovation culture was the criterion variable. As discussed previously, innovation culture is the result of leader influence. Specifically, Hurley (1995) found that organizations were inclined to innovation when their leaders directed considerable attention to decision making; power sharing; support and collaboration; and people and

career development. Questions from the Burke-Litwin Organizational Assessment Survey (BLOAS) were used to measure the dimensions of innovation culture. The external factors of BLOAS were not used in the current study.

In a quantitative correlation research study to examine the relationship between organizational performance, change model, and perception of leanness, Stone (2010) operationalize organizational culture using the BLOAS instrument. In that research study, the leader behaviors that encouraged innovation were included in the model that measured organizational performance (Stone, 2010). A correlation of mean scores was performed to evaluate differences between variables.

In another quantitative correlation study, Machie (2019) engaged the BLOAS to examine the relationship between organizational performance factor and organizational performance in public sector organizations. Machie (2019) engaged the BLOAS to operationalize the leader's behavior factors that contributed to organizational performance. These factors were congruent with the factors that lead to innovation culture within organizations (Hurley, 1995; Machie, 2019). Similar to other research studies, the Likert scores of the participants were averaged prior to computing the correlation statistics. Stone (2015) asserted that BLOAS was a valid and reliable instrument citing published research with Cronbach's α above .70. Permission from the developer to use the instrument was obtained via personal communication (See Appendix D).

Data Analysis Plan

As mentioned in Chapter 1, in the current study I sought to determine whether country culture moderated the relationship between elements of transformational leadership and innovation culture within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries. The question was addressed using hypotheses that incorporate a dimension of country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation culture expressed as:

$H_0$1: Power distance does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

H_a1: Power distance does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_0$2: Uncertainty avoidance does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

H_a2: Uncertainty avoidance does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_0$3: Individualism versus collectivism does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

H_a3: Individualism versus collectivism does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_0$4: Masculinity versus femininity does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

H_a4: Masculinity versus femininity does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_0$5: Long-term versus short-term orientation does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

H_a5: Long-term versus short-term orientation does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

$H_0$6: Indulgence versus restraint does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

H_a6: Indulgence versus restraint does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

Prior to data analysis, Warner (2013) recommends that appropriate data screening procedures be followed. In accordance with this recommendation, a scatter plot was conducted to identify and correct data errors (Warner, 2013). During the data screening process, I followed the checklist provided by Warner (2013), which includes remedying problems associated with missing data, outliers, and distribution linearity. Data cleaning is also an important function to consider in quantitative research (Osborne, 2013; Warner, 2013).

Osbourne (2010) asserted that without data cleaning quantitative research should not be considered satisfactory. The Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to conduct the tests required to perform a thorough analysis of the data. As stipulated by Frazier et al. (2004), multiple regression was recommended in analyzing the moderator effects when the predictor or moderator variables were categorical or continuous. Descriptive statistics were used to aid in the interpretation of the data. Descriptive statistics can be used to provide summative information about the sample

including means, variances, and standard deviations (Babbie, 2017; Warner, 2013). The moderated regression analysis was used in SPSS to determine whether the relationship between transformational leadership – the predictor variable, and innovation culture – the criterion variable, was moderated by country culture – the moderator variable. Frazier et al. (2004) noted that the power to detect interaction was low in nonexperimental studies that used hierarchical multiple regression with continuing scale predictor and moderator variable. Enhancing the power to detect interaction was achieved with adequate sample size and overall effect size, reliability of the predictor and moderator variables, and scale coarseness.

Threats to Validity

External Validity

Threats to external validity was addressed in the current study. External validity refers to the generalizability of study results (Burkholder et al., 2016; Warner, 2013). When external validity is threatened study findings derived from a sample cannot be applied to the population from which it was drawn (Burkholder et al., 2016). Nor can study findings be transferred to another study with similar characteristics (Burkholder et al., 2016). Threats to external validity were generally addressed through an extensive literature review intent on building upon existing frameworks; or by achieving generalizability, principally through research methodologies (Burkholder et al., 2016).

In a correlation study similar to the current study, Johnson (2020) analyzed the relationship between binary variables and used methodology to minimize threats to external validity. Survey instruments were only available to the research participants

(Johnson, 2020). In another correlation study, Randy-Cofie (2018) minimized threats to external validity by ensuring that the survey was completed in a setting convenient for, and familiar to the research participants. Warner (2013) opined that good external validity can be expected with a nonexperimental research design, such as the correlational research design being used in the current study. Minimizing the threat to external validity was accomplished by ensuring that extensive research has been conducted using the framework employed in the current study and following methodologies that yielded generalizability in similar studies. Warner (2013) warned that strong external validity may be achieved at the expense of internal validity. Ensuring internal validity was equally important.

Internal Validity

Internal validity refers to the extent to which causal inference can be made from the study results (Burkholder et al., 2016; Warner, 2013). The current study is a nonexperimental quantitative correlational study. Warner (2013) noted that observing correlation was not a basis for establishing causal inference and led to low internal validity. Common threats to internal validity include history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, statistical regression to the mean, researcher bias, selection, and overall mortality (Burkholder et al., 2016).

In a correlational study to observe the relationship between transformational leadership, and organization citizenship behavior, Randy-Cofie (2018) mitigated these common threats to internal validity by ensuring that the survey was given during a short interval of time and that the participants were only allowed to complete the survey once. I

used this approach in the current study. As noted by Johnson (2020), in her correlation study involving transformational leadership, low internal validity may have existed since little control over the variables was exercised. The same was thought to be true in the current study.

Construct Validity

Construct validity refers to the degree to which survey instruments are accurately measuring what the researcher intended (Burkholder et al., 2016). Assurance that measuring what was intended is evidenced through several forms of validity that comprise construct validity (Burkholder et al., 2016; Warner, 2013). These forms include content validity and face validity, criterion-oriented validity, convergent validity, discriminant validity, concurrent validity, and predictive validity (Warner, 2013). There are challenges to expressing construct validity.

In their seminal research, Cronbach and Meehl (1955) opined that construct validity had to be established in upper and lower bounds, since no single coefficient could be used to express it. They suggested that correlation matrices and factor analysis were effective methods for determining construct validity. In the intervening years since their effort to develop a single coefficient, several methods have been used to affirm construct validity within a reasonable degree of certainty. Westen and Rosenthal (2003) opined that structural equation modeling, (SEM), analysis of variance (ANOVA), and confirmatory factor analysis were among the statistical methods of confirming construct validity. I applied an analysis of variance using SPSS in the current study to establish construct validity.

Statistical conclusion validity refers to the extent to which research findings pertaining to the relationship between variables are correct (Burkholder et al., 2016). Knowledge about the appropriate statistical model is critical to reduce threats to statistical conclusion validity (Burkholder et al., 2016; Matthay & Glymour, 2020). Techniques aimed at reducing threats to statistical conclusion validity include statistical power analysis and data cleaning, which were employed in the current study (Burkholder et al., 2016; Matthay & Glymour, 2020).

Ethical Procedures

While ethical procedures in research differ across university campuses, the common principle is ensuring that researchers treat participants with beneficence, respect, and justice (Ritchie, 2021). Beneficence refers to the practice of ensuring no harm is experienced by the research participant (Ritchie, 2021). While respect and justice pertain to obtaining informed consent from participants and ensuring that participant decisions are uncoerced; and treating the participants in a fair and unbiased manner, respectively (Ritchie, 2021). Adherence to these three elements was consistent with the guidance outlined in The Belmont Report (Babbie, 2017). To ensure that research complies with all federal regulations and university standards on ethical research Walden University has established an IRB Approval Process (2021). Prior to starting data collection, I followed the Walden University four-step process to obtain IRB approval no. 01-19-23-0572092.

Form A and Form C were completed. The use of Form B was determined during the URR phase since archival data was used to determine culture divergent only. Data was collected from participants outside of the United States. IRB requirements by other

governments were considered and compliance was observed. Other considerations included the confidentiality and treatment of data.

Protecting the anonymity of participants was achieved through the electronic survey process, which required no identifying information to complete. Anonymity means that neither researchers nor the readers can identify the research participant (Babbie, 2017). Confidentiality refers to the commitment of the researcher, who may be able to identify the identity of a participant, to not make the identify public (Babbie, 2017). As the researcher of the current study, I was fully committed to confidentiality.

Summary

The chapter outlined the research design and rationale, methodology, data analysis plan and threats the validity. A quantitative correlation study was used to address the research questions. This non-experimental approach was appropriate since early qualitative studies led to the conceptualization and operationalization of the theories being tested. The methodology included a discussion on selecting the population and collecting an appropriates sample for the current study. Archival data was only used to determine divergence among the cultures being examined.

SPSS was used to conduct statistical calculations to examine the relationships between variables. The data was collected using instruments that had proven success in the areas of validity and reliability. Ethical procedures complied with university IRB standards to ensure beneficence, respect, and justice. Chapter 4 will present an analysis of the data and research findings.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the relationship between three variables, country culture (moderator variable), elements of transformational leadership (independent variable), and innovation cultures (dependent variable) within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries. The research question for the study was "Does country culture modify the relationship between elements of transformational leadership, and innovation cultures within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries?" This question was expressed using hypotheses that incorporate the use of the dimensions of three variables: country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation culture. I hypothesized that country culture does impact the relationship between transformational leadership and the innovation culture of organizations U.S.-based companies operating the United States and operating in Japan. SPSS was used to determine whether the relationship between transformational leadership (predictor variable) and innovation culture (criterion variable) was moderated by country culture (moderator variable). This chapter describes the process used to collect data for the study, the results from an analysis of that data, and closes with a summary of the results pertained to the research questions.

Data Collection

The survey data were collected from participants over a 6-week period. A total of 212 responses were collected. This sample size was well over the calculation determined by the power analysis noted in Chapter 3. Data collection was slow at the onset. No responses were received during the first week. Calling participants to remind them about

the survey revealed that the SurveyMonkey email was found in survey participant junk folders. During the next 2 weeks approximately 25% of the total survey responses were received. The remaining 3-week period yielded approximately 75% of the total survey responses. Four of the survey responses were discarded because the participants did not have a direct-report relationship with subordinate personnel as described in the scope of this study.

The sample comprised data collected from participants employed by U.S.-based companies that operated in culturally divergent environments. As discussed earlier, Japan and the United States were determined to have sufficient cultural divergence for the current study (Hofstede Insights, 2021). Approximately 63% of the participants indicated the United Staes as their workplace location. The remaining participants identified Japan as their workplace location. After removing survey responses with missing data, the assumptions for normality were tested using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and the Shapiro-Wilk tests. Table 1 indicates that the data was not normally distributed for the dependent variable.

Table 1

Test of Data Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	*df*	Sig.	Statistic	*df*	Sig.
Innovation Culture:	.185	204	<.001	.882	204	<.001
PD Higher vs. Lower	.409	204	<.001	.610	204	<.001

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

As depicted in Figure 2, each dimension of country culture is a constant. A regression analysis, which was used to determine whether moderation occurs, cannot be calculated in SPSS using constants. The country culture variable was dichotomized using the value one for the dimension with higher value and zero for the dimension with the lower variable (see Wagner, 2016). To determine the normality of the data distribution a histogram was used. This was necessary since the dichotomization of variables can lead to a faulty result when the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and the Shapiro-Wilk tests are used to test normality (see Bilon, 2023). As depicted in Figure 2, the data appears to be normally distributed since approximate symmetry of a normal bell curve can be visually observed (see Warner, 2013). Homoscedasticity is present given random scatter in the residuals scatterplot (see Figure 3). Having satisfied the assumptions of normality of the residuals and homoscedasticity, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to test each of the hypotheses.

Figure 2

Distribution of the Residuals for the Innovation Culture

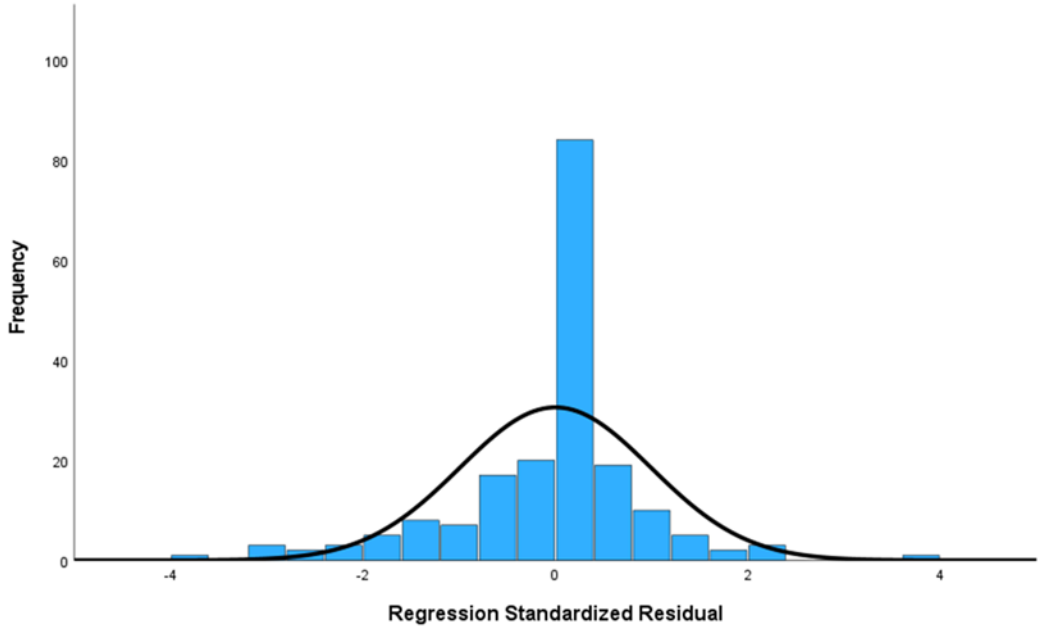
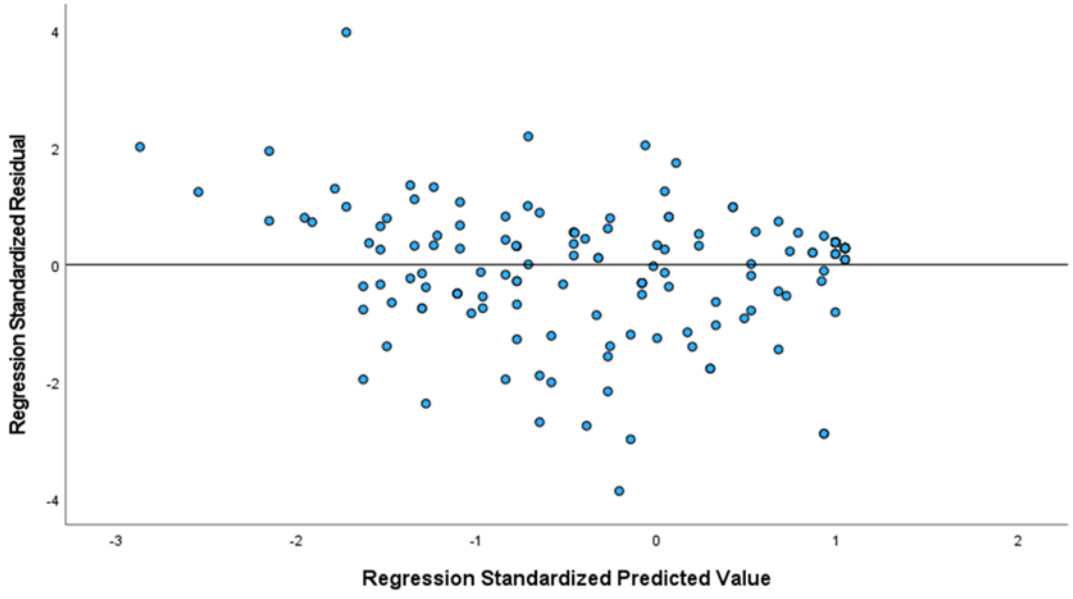


Figure 3

Scatter Plot of the Predicted and Residuals of the Dependent Variables



Study Results

Answering the research question, "Does country culture modify the relationship between elements of transformational leadership, and innovation cultures within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries?", required the testing of six hypotheses. The SPSS ANOVA was used to conduct correlational and regression analyses for each hypothesis (see Wagner, 2016; Warner, 2013). Linear regression was used to test relationships. In the first step of the model, the primary predictor (transformational leadership) and the respective moderator (PD, UA, IN, MS, LT, and IR) were inputted into SPSS. As specified by Frazier et al. (2004) an interaction term (Tnl*PD) was created and inputted into the second step of the model.

To support moderation two conditions must be met. The first condition for moderation is that the regression model with the interaction term must explain significantly more variance than the model without the interaction (Baron & Kenny, 1986). To test the first condition, the change in the R^2 between Models 1 and 2 will be reported. The second condition for moderation involves testing the interaction term (Tnl*PD) for statistical significance with a *t* test. If the findings of the *t* test for the interaction term are statistically significant ($p < .05$), then the second condition for moderation is supported (Baron & Kenny, 1986). If both conditions are supported, sufficient evidence for moderation is present.

The first hypothesis tested whether PD, a dimension of country culture, moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures.

$H_0$1: Power distance does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

H_a1: Power distance does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

To address the first hypothesis, the dependent variable innovation culture was regressed against the predictor variables transformational leadership, PD, and the interaction. The findings of the first step of the model (see Table 3) revealed a statistically significant relationship, $F(2, 187) = 294.88$, $p < .001$, indicating that collectively transformational leadership and PD significantly predict innovation culture. The findings of the second step of the model also revealed a statistically significant relationship, $F(3, 186) = 195.74$, $p < .001$, indicating that collectively transformational leadership, PD, and TnL*PD significantly predicted innovation culture. The coefficient of determination (R^2) was .759 for both models, indicating that approximately 75.9% of the variance in innovation culture could be explained by the predictors. There was no significant change between Model 1 and Model 2 (F change [1, 186] = 0.15, $p = .696$). The inclusion of the interaction term (TnL*PD) did not contribute a significant portion of variance to the model. Therefore, the first condition for moderation was not supported. Tables 2 and 3 present the findings of the collective regression models and the change statistics between the two steps.

Table 2

*Regression with Transformational Leadership, Power Distance, and TnL*PD predicting Innovation Culture*

Model		*Sum of Squares*	*df*	*Mean Square*	*F*	*Sig.*
1	Regression	123.010	2	61.505	294.875	<.001[b]
	Residual	39.004	187	.209		
	Total	162.015	189			
2	Regression	123.042	3	41.014	195.744	<.001[c]
	Residual	38.972	186	.210		
	Total	162.015	189			

Table 3

*Model Change Statistics for Regression with Transformational Leadership, Power Distance, and TnL*PD predicting Innovation Culture*

				Std. Error	Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.871[a]	.759	.757	.45671	.759	294.875	2	187	<.001
2	.871[b]	.759	.756	.45774	.000	.153	1	186	.696

a. Predictors: (Constant), PD Higher vs Lower, Transformational Leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), PD Higher vs Lower, Transformational Leadership, TnL PD*

c. Dependent Variable: Innovation Culture

An examination of the individual predictors in the second step of the model (see Table 4) revealed that transformational leadership (B = 1.02, t = 18.08, p < .001) was the only predictor that was statistically significant. With every one-unit increase in transformational leadership, innovation culture increased by approximately 1.02 units. The moderator, PD (B = -0.13, t = -0.34, p = .733) was not a significant predictor of innovation culture. The interaction term, TnL*PD (B = 0.03, t = 0.39, p = .696), was not a significant predictor of innovation culture. Due to no significance of the interaction

term, the second condition for moderation was not supported. Neither of the conditions were met for moderation, indicating that power distance did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_0$1) for research question one was not rejected.

Table 4

*Examination of Individual Predictors in Regression with Transformational Leadership, Power Distance, and TnL*PD predicting Innovation Culture*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-.322	.188		-1.710	.089		
	Transformational Leadership	1.032	.043	.872	24.122	<.001	.984	1.016
	PD Higher vs Lower	.016	.069	.008	.227	.821	.984	1.016
2	(Constant)	-.260	.245		-1.063	.289		
	Transformational Leadership	1.018	.056	.860	18.076	<.001	.571	1.752
	PD Higher vs Lower	-.126	.369	-.066	-.341	.733	.035	28.859
	TnL*PD	.034	.087	.075	.391	.696	.035	28.447

a. Dependent Variable: Innovation Culture

The second hypothesis tested whether UA, a dimension of country culture, moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures.

$H_0$2: Uncertainty avoidance does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

H_a2: Uncertainty avoidance does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

The dependent variable innovation culture was regressed against the predictor variables transformational leadership, UA, and the interaction. The findings of the first step of the model (see Table 5) revealed a statistically significant relationship, $F(2, 187) = 294.88$, $p < .001$, indicating that collectively transformational leadership and UA significantly predict innovation culture. The findings of the second step of the model also revealed a statistically significant relationship, $F(3, 186) = 195.74$, $p < .001$, indicating that collectively transformational leadership, UA, and TnL*UA significantly predicted innovation culture. The coefficient of determination (R^2) was .759 for both models, indicating that approximately 75.9% of the variance in innovation culture could be explained by the predictors. There was no significant change between model 1 and model 2 (F change [1, 186] = 0.15, $p = .696$). The inclusion of the interaction term (TnL*UA) did not contribute a significant portion of variance to the model. Therefore, the first condition for moderation was not supported. Tables 5 and 6 present the findings of the collective regression models and the change statistics between the two steps.

Table 5

*Regression with Transformational Leadership, Uncertainty Avoidance, and TnL*UA predicting Innovation Culture*

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	123.010	2	61.505	294.875	<.001[b]
	Residual	39.004	187	.209		
	Total	162.015	189			
2	Regression	123.042	3	41.014	195.744	<.001[c]
	Residual	38.972	186	.210		
	Total	162.015	189			

Table 6

*Model Change Statistics for Regression with Transformational Leadership, Uncertainty Avoidance, and TnL*UA predicting Innovation Culture*

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.871[a]	.759	.757	.45671	.759	294.875	2	187	<.001
2	.871[b]	.759	.756	.45774	.000	.153	1	186	.696

a. Predictors: (Constant), UA Higher vs Lower, Transformational Leadership
*b. Predictors: (Constant), UA Higher vs Lower, Transformational Leadership, TnL*UA*
c. Dependent Variable: Innovation Culture

An examination of the individual predictors in the second step of the model (see Table 7) revealed that transformational leadership (B = 1.02, t = 18.08, p < .001) was the only predictor that was statistically significant. With every one-unit increase in transformational leadership, innovation culture increased by approximately 1.02 units.

The moderator, UA (B = -0.13, t = -0.34, p = .733) was not a significant predictor of innovation culture. The interaction term, TnL*UA (B = 0.03, t = 0.39, p = .696), was not a significant predictor of innovation culture. Due to no significance of the interaction term, the second condition for moderation was not supported. Neither of the conditions were met for moderation, indicating that uncertainty avoidance did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_0$2) for research question one was not rejected.

Table 7

*Examination of Individual Predictors in Regression with Transformational Leadership, Uncertainty Avoidance, and TnL*UA predicting Innovation Culture*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-.322	.188		-1.710	.089		
	Transformational Leadership	1.032	.043	.872	24.122	<.001	.984	1.016
	UA Higher vs Lower	.016	.069	.008	.227	.821	.984	1.016
2	(Constant)	-.260	.245		-1.063	.289		
	Transformational Leadership	1.018	.056	.860	18.076	<.001	.571	1.752
	UA Higher vs Lower	-.126	.369	-.066	-.341	.733	.035	28.859
	TnL*UA	.034	.087	.075	.391	.696	.035	28.447

a. Dependent Variable: Innovation Culture

The third hypothesis tested whether IN, a dimension of country culture, moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures.

$H_0$3: Individualism versus collectivism does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

H_a3: Individualism versus collectivism does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

The dependent variable innovation culture was regressed against the predictor variables transformational leadership, IN, and the interaction. The findings of the first step of the model (see Table 8) revealed a statistically significant relationship, $F(2, 187) = 294.88$, $p < .001$, indicating that collectively transformational leadership and IN significantly predict innovation culture. The findings of the second step of the model also revealed a statistically significant relationship, $F(3, 186) = 195.74$, $p < .001$, indicating that collectively transformational leadership, IN, and TnL*IN significantly predicted innovation culture. The coefficient of determination (R^2) was .759 for both models, indicating that approximately 75.9% of the variance in innovation culture could be explained by the predictors. There was no significant change between Model 1 and Model 2 (F change [1, 186] = 0.15, $p = .696$). The inclusion of the interaction term (TnL*IN) did not contribute a significant portion of variance to the model. Therefore, the first condition for moderation was not supported. Tables 8 and 9 present the findings of the collective regression models and the change statistics between the two steps.

Table 8

*Regression with Transformational Leadership, Individualism versus collectivism, and TnL*IN predicting Innovation Culture*

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	123.010	2	61.505	294.875	<.001[b]
	Residual	39.004	187	.209		
	Total	162.015	189			
2	Regression	123.042	3	41.014	195.744	<.001[c]
	Residual	38.972	186	.210		
	Total	162.015	189			

Table 9

*Model Change Statistics for Regression with Transformational Leadership, Individualism versus collectivism, and TnL*IN predicting Innovation Culture*

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.871[a]	.759	.757	.45671	.759	294.875	2	187	<.001
2	.871[b]	.759	.756	.45774	.000	.153	1	186	.696

a. Predictors: (Constant), IN Higher vs Lower, Transformational Leadership
b. Predictors: (Constant), IN Higher vs Lower, Transformational Leadership, TnL IN*
c. Dependent Variable: Innovation Culture

An examination of the individual predictors in the second step of the model (see Table 10) revealed that transformational leadership (B = 1.05, t = 15.90, p < .001) was the only predictor that was statistically significant. With every one-unit increase in transformational leadership, innovation culture increased by approximately 1.05 units. The moderator, IN (B = 0.13, t = 0.34, p = .733) was not a significant predictor of

innovation culture. The interaction term, TnL*IN (B = - 0.03, t = -0.39, p = .696), was not a significant predictor of innovation culture. Due to no significance of the interaction term, the second condition for moderation was not supported. Neither of the conditions were met for moderation, indicating that uncertainty avoidance did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_0$3) for research question one was not rejected.

Table 10

*Examination of Individual Predictors in Regression with Transformational Leadership, Individualism versus collectivism, and TnL*IN predicting Innovation Culture*

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	-.306	.183		-1.672	.096		
Transformational Leadership	1.032	.043	.872	24.122	<.001	.984	1.016
IN Higher vs Lower	-.016	.069	-.008	-.227	.821	.984	1.016
(Constant)	-.386	.276		-1.401	.163		
Transformational Leadership	1.051	.066	.889	15.895	<.001	.413	2.419
IN Higher vs Lower	.126	.369	.066	.341	.733	.035	28.859
TnL*IN	-.034	.087	-.079	-.391	.696	.031	31.809

a. Dependent Variable: Innovation Culture

The fourth hypothesis tested whether Masculinity vs femininity, (MS) a dimension of country culture, moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures.

$H_0$4: Masculinity versus femininity does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

H_a4: Masculinity versus femininity does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

The dependent variable innovation culture was regressed against the predictor variables transformational leadership, MS, and the interaction. The findings of the first step of the model (see Table 11) revealed a statistically significant relationship, $F(2, 187) = 294.88$, $p < .001$, indicating that collectively transformational leadership and MS significantly predict innovation culture. The findings of the second step of the model also revealed a statistically significant relationship, $F(3, 186) = 195.74$, $p < .001$, indicating that collectively transformational leadership, MS, and TnL*MS significantly predicted innovation culture. The coefficient of determination (R^2) was .759 for both models, indicating that approximately 75.9% of the variance in innovation culture could be explained by the predictors. There was no significant change between model 1 and model 2 (F change [1, 186] = 0.15, $p = .696$). The inclusion of the interaction term (TnL*MS) did not contribute a significant portion of variance to the model. Therefore, the first condition for moderation was not supported. Tables 11 and 12 present the findings of the collective regression models and the change statistics between the two steps.

Table 11

*Regression with Transformational Leadership, Masculinity vs femininity, and TnL*MS predicting Innovation Culture*

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	123.010	2	61.505	294.875	<.001[b]
	Residual	39.004	187	.209		
	Total	162.015	189			
2	Regression	123.042	3	41.014	195.744	<.001[c]
	Residual	38.972	186	.210		
	Total	162.015	189			

Table 12

*Model Change Statistics for Regression with Transformational Leadership, Masculinity vs femininity, and TnL*MS predicting Innovation Culture*

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.871[a]	.759	.757	.45671	.759	294.875	2	187	<.001
2	.871[b]	.759	.756	.45774	.000	.153	1	186	.696

a. Predictors: (Constant), MS Higher vs Lower, Transformational Leadership
*b. Predictors: (Constant), MS Higher vs Lower, Transformational Leadership, TnL*MS*
c. Dependent Variable: Innovation Culture

An examination of the individual predictors in the second step of the model (see Table 13) revealed that transformational leadership (B = 1.02, t = 18.01, p < .001) was the only predictor that was statistically significant. With every one-unit increase in transformational leadership, innovation culture increased by approximately 1.02 units. The moderator, MS (B = -0.13, t = -0.34, p = .733) was not a significant predictor of

innovation culture. The interaction term, TnL*MS (B = 0.03, t = 0.39, p = .696), was not a significant predictor of innovation culture. Due to no significance of the interaction term, the second condition for moderation was not supported. Neither of the conditions were met for moderation, indicating that uncertainty avoidance does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_0$4) for research question one was not rejected.

Table 13

*Examination of Individual Predictors in Regression with Transformational Leadership, Masculinity vs femininity, and TnL*MS predicting Innovation Culture*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-.322	.188		-1.710	.089		
	Transformational Leadership	1.032	.043	.872	24.122	<.001	.984	1.016
	MS Higher vs Lower	.016	.069	.008	.227	.821	.984	1.016
2	(Constant)	-.260	.245		-1.063	.289		
	Transformational Leadership:	1.018	.056	.860	18.076	<.001	.571	1.752
	MS Higher vs Lower	-.126	.369	-.066	-.341	.733	.035	28.859
	TnL*MS	.034	.087	.075	.391	.696	.035	28.447

a. Dependent Variable: Innovation Culture

The fifth hypothesis tested whether Long-term vs short-term orientation, (LT) a dimension of country culture, moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures.

$H_0$5: Long-term versus short-term orientation does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

H_a5: Long-term versus short-term orientation does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

The dependent variable innovation culture was regressed against the predictor variables transformational leadership, LT, and the interaction. The findings of the first step of the model (see Table 14) revealed a statistically significant relationship, $F(2, 187) = 294.88$, $p < .001$, indicating that collectively transformational leadership and LT significantly predict innovation culture. The findings of the second step of the model also revealed a statistically significant relationship, $F(3, 186) = 195.74$, $p < .001$, indicating that collectively transformational leadership, LT, and TnL*LT significantly predicted innovation culture. The coefficient of determination (R^2) was .759 for both models, indicating that approximately 75.9% of the variance in innovation culture could be explained by the predictors. There was no significant change between model 1 and model 2 (F change [1, 186] = 0.15, $p = .696$). The inclusion of the interaction term (TnL*LT) did not contribute a significant portion of variance to the model. Therefore, the first condition for moderation was not supported. Tables 14 and 15 present the findings of the collective regression models and the change statistics between the two steps.

Table 14

*Regression with Transformational Leadership, Long-term vs short-term orientation, and TnL*LT predicting Innovation Culture*

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	123.010	2	61.505	294.875	<.001[b]
	Residual	39.004	187	.209		
	Total	162.015	189			
2	Regression	123.042	3	41.014	195.744	<.001[c]
	Residual	38.972	186	.210		
	Total	162.015	189			

Table 15

*Model Change Statistics for Regression with Transformational Leadership, Long-term vs short-term orientation, and TnL*LT predicting Innovation Culture*

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.871[a]	.759	.757	.45671	.759	294.875	2	187	<.001
2	.871[b]	.759	.756	.45774	.000	.153	1	186	.696

a. Predictors: (Constant), LT Higher vs Lower, Transformational Leadership
b. Predictors: (Constant), LT Higher vs Lower, Transformational Leadership, TnL LT
c. Dependent Variable: Innovation Culture

An examination of the individual predictors in the second step of the model (see Table 16) revealed that transformational leadership (B = 1.02, t = 18.08, p < .001) was the only predictor that was statistically significant. With every one-unit increase in transformational leadership, innovation culture increased by approximately 1.02 units. The moderator, LT (B = -0.13, t = -0.34, p = .733) was not a significant predictor of

innovation culture. The interaction term, TnL*LT (B = 0.03, t = 0.39, p = .696), was not a significant predictor of innovation culture. Due to no significance of the interaction term, the second condition for moderation was not supported. Neither of the conditions were met for moderation, indicating that Long-term vs short-term orientation did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_0$5) for research question one was not rejected.

Table 16

*Examination of Individual Predictors in Regression with Transformational Leadership, Long-term vs short-term orientation, and TnL*LT predicting Innovation Culture*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-.322	.188		-1.710	.089		
	Transformational Leadership	1.032	.043	.872	24.122	<.001	.984	1.016
	LT Higher vs Lower	.016	.069	.008	.227	.821	.984	1.016
2	(Constant)	-.260	.245		-1.063	.289		
	Transformational Leadership	1.018	.056	.860	18.076	<.001	.571	1.752
	LT Higher vs Lower	-.126	.369	-.066	-.341	.733	.035	28.859
	TnL*LT	.034	.087	.075	.391	.696	.035	28.447

a. *Dependent Variable: Innovation Culture*

The last hypothesis tested whether Indulgence vs restraint, (IR) a dimension of country culture, moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures.

$H_0$6: Indulgence versus restraint does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

H_a6: Indulgence versus restraint does moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture.

The dependent variable innovation culture was regressed against the predictor variables transformational leadership, IR, and the interaction. The findings of the first step of the model (see Table 17) revealed a statistically significant relationship, $F(2, 187) = 294.88$, $p < .001$, indicating that collectively transformational leadership and IR significantly predict innovation culture. The findings of the second step of the model also revealed a statistically significant relationship, $F(3, 186) = 195.74$, $p < .001$, indicating that collectively transformational leadership, IR, and TnL*IR significantly predicted innovation culture. The coefficient of determination (R^2) was .759 for both models, indicating that approximately 75.9% of the variance in innovation culture could be explained by the predictors. There was no significant change between model 1 and model 2 (F change [1, 186] = 0.15, $p = .696$). The inclusion of the interaction term (TnL*IR) did not contribute a significant portion of variance to the model. Therefore, the first condition for moderation was not supported. Tables 17 and 18 present the findings of the collective regression models and the change statistics between the two steps.

Table 17

*Regression with Transformational Leadership, Indulgence vs restraint, and TnL*IR predicting Innovation Culture*

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	123.010	2	61.505	294.875	<.001[b]
	Residual	39.004	187	.209		
	Total	162.015	189			
2	Regression	123.042	3	41.014	195.744	<.001[c]
	Residual	38.972	186	.210		
	Total	162.015	189			

Table 18

*Model Change Statistics for Regression with Transformational Leadership, Indulgence vs restraint, and TnL*IR predicting Innovation Culture*

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.871[a]	.759	.757	.45671	.759	294.875	2	187	<.001
2	.871[b]	.759	.756	.45774	.000	.153	1	186	.696

a. Predictors: (Constant), IR Higher vs Lower, Transformational Leadership
*b. Predictors: (Constant), IR Higher vs Lower, Transformational Leadership, TnL*IR*
c. Dependent Variable: Innovation Culture

An examination of the individual predictors in the second step of the model (see Table 19) revealed that transformational leadership (B = 1.05, t = 15.90, p < .001) was the only predictor that was statistically significant. With every one-unit increase in transformational leadership, innovation culture increased by approximately 1.02 units.

The moderator, LT (B = 0.13, t = 0.34, p = .733) was not a significant predictor of innovation culture. The interaction term, TnL*IR (B = -0.03, t = -0.39, p = .696), was not a significant predictor of innovation culture. Due to no significance of the interaction term, the second condition for moderation was not supported. Neither of the conditions were met for moderation, indicating that Indulgence vs restraint did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_0$6) for research question one was not rejected.

Table 19

*Examination of Individual Predictors in Regression with Transformational Leadership, Indulgence vs restraint, and TnL*IR predicting Innovation Culture*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-.306	.183		-1.672	.096		
	Transformational Leadership	1.032	.043	.872	24.122	<.001	.984	1.016
	IR Higher vs Lower	-.016	.069	-.008	-.227	.821	.984	1.016
2	(Constant)	-.386	.276		-1.401	.163		
	Transformational Leadership	1.051	.066	.889	15.895	<.001	.413	2.419
	IR Higher vs Lower	.126	.369	.066	.341	.733	.035	28.859
	TnL*IR	-.034	.087	-.079	-.391	.696	.031	31.809

a. Dependent Variable: Innovation Culture

Summary

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the relationship between country culture, elements of transformational leadership, and

innovation cultures within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries. The research question for the study was “Does country culture modify the relationship between elements of transformational leadership, and innovation cultures within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries?” This research question was expressed using six hypotheses. The hypotheses were addressed by collecting an appropriate sample size as determined using a power analysis. Data cleansing was conducted using SPSS during the analytical process. The data was displayed using histograms and spatter plots to identify potential problems with the data and descriptive statistics were used to summarize and describe the data.

Inferential statics were used to test the hypotheses and draw conclusions about the broader population. The dependent variable innovation culture was regressed against the predictor variables transformational leadership, each dimension of country culture, and the interaction. The significance of the relationship between each variable was tested. Model measuring was also conducted to determine whether variation in the outcome was explained by the predictor. The coefficients were used to determine the effect of the moderator interaction. In Chapter 5, I will provide an interpretation of the findings. I will also offer an explanation regarding the limitations of this study, provide recommendations for further research, and discuss the potential impact this research study may have for positive social change.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the relationship between three variables, country culture (moderator variable), elements of transformational leadership (independent variable), and innovation cultures (dependent variable) within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries. Since sufficient divergence was observed between the country cultures of Japan and the United States, a quantitative correlational research design was used to test and understand the relationship between these variables within U.S.-based companies that operated in Japan and the United States (see Burkholder et al., 2016; Frankfort-Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero, 2015; Hofstede Insights, 2021). Answering the research question required the formation and testing of six hypotheses determine whether country culture moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures within these U.S.-based companies. In this chapter, I present the answer to the research question through an interpretation of the research findings. I also explain the limitations that were considered during the research study, how the limitations can be mitigated in future research studies, and I describe how this study can contribute to the improvement of human and social conditions towards a positive future for organizations pursuing innovation (see Walden University, 2015).

Interpretation of Findings

The first hypothesis examined whether the PD dimension of country culture moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures. With $p < .001$, the findings indicated that transformational leadership and power distance

significantly predict innovation culture. The findings also indicated that with every one-unit increase in transformational leadership, innovation culture increases by approximately 1.02 units. This supports Handoyo's (2018) view that a higher PD index led to a higher capacity for innovation. Opposing views indicated that countries with higher PD stifled creativity and innovation (see Oruh & Dibia, 2020; Siddique et al., 2020; Tear et al., 2020). A closer examination of the research findings revealed that with $p = .733$, PD is not a significant predictor of innovation culture and that the interaction term, which yielded $p = .696$, is not a significant predictor of innovation culture. Since the null hypothesis, $H_0 1$: PD did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture could not rejected, there is insufficient evidence to support the affirming or opposing views pertaining to the moderating effect of PD on the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture in companies headquartered in the United States operating in the United States and Japan (e.g., Fedotova, 2017; Gaganis et al., 2019; Handoyo, 2018; Shear et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2017; Švarc, 2017; Zhang & Yang, 2018). The second hypothesis had similar results.

The second hypothesis examined whether the UA dimension of country culture moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures. The $p < .001$, value indicated transformational leadership and uncertainty avoidance significantly predicts innovation culture. As with the PD dimension, with every one-unit increase in transformational leadership, innovation culture increases by approximately 1.02 units. This supported extant literature which concluded that countries with a high uncertainty avoidance index were not inclined towards an innovation culture (see

Fedotova, 2017; Gaganis et al., 2019; Shear et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2017; Švarc, 2017; Zhang & Yang, 2018). With $p = .733$, it was determined that UA is not a significant predictor of innovation culture. Additionally, the interaction term, which yielded $p = .696$, is not a significant predictor of innovation culture. The failure to reject the null hypothesis, $H_0 2$: UA does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture, suggests there is insufficient evidence to support the earlier views pertaining to the moderating effect of UA on the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture in companies headquartered in the United States that operating in the United States and Japan (see Fedotova, 2017; Gaganis et al., 2019; Shear et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2017; Švarc, 2017; Zhang & Yang, 2018). The third hypothesis was then examined.

The third hypothesis examined whether the IN dimension of country culture moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures. Also having a $p < .001$ value, the findings indicated that transformational leadership and the IN dimension significantly predicts innovation culture. The findings also indicated that with every one-unit increase in transformational leadership, innovation culture increases by approximately 1.05 units. This supports earlier views that a higher IN resulted in a predisposition to innovation (see Handoyo, 2018; Janićijević, 2019; Pelc, 2017). The opposing views indicated that countries with higher collectivist behaviors were more inclined to innovation cultures (Ogigau-Neamtiu & Antonoaie, 2019; Usoro & Abiagam, 2018). A closer examination of the research findings revealed that with $p = .733$, PD is not a significant predictor of innovation culture and that the interaction term,

which yielded $p = .696$, is not a significant predictor of innovation culture. Since the null hypothesis, $H_0$3: IN does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture, was not rejected, there is insufficient evidence to support the affirming or opposing views pertaining to the moderating effect of IN on the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture in companies headquartered in the United States operating in the United States and Japan (see Handoyo, 2018; Janićijević, 2019; Ogigau-Neamtiu & Antonoaie, 2019; Pelc, 2017; Usoro & Abiagam, 2018). The fourth hypothesis yielded similar results.

The fourth hypothesis examined whether the MS dimension of country culture moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures. The $p < .001$, value indicates transformational leadership and MS dimension significantly predicts innovation culture. With every one-unit increase in transformational leadership, innovation culture increases by approximately 1.02 units. Since Japan had higher masculinity than the United States, this result is in opposition to the views in extant literature that countries with a high masculinity were not inclined towards an innovation culture (see Janićijević, 2019; Usoro & Abiagam, 2018; Xie et al., 2016). A closer examination of the research findings revealed that with $p = .733$, it was determined that MS is not a significant predictor of innovation culture. Additionally, the interaction term, which yielded $p = .696$, is not a significant predictor of innovation culture. The failure to reject the null hypothesis, $H_0$4: MS does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture, suggests there is insufficient evidence to support the earlier views pertaining to the moderating effect of MS on the relationship

between transformational leadership and innovation culture in companies headquartered in the United States that operating in the United States and Japan (see Bissessar, 2018; Dheer et al., 2019; Hofstede, 2016; Janićijević, 2019; Ogigau-Neamtiu & Antonoaie, 2019; Usoro & Abiagam, 2018). The fifth hypothesis was then examined.

The fifth hypothesis examined whether the LT dimension of country culture moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures. Also having a $p < .001$ value, the findings indicated that transformational leadership and the LT dimension significantly predicts innovation culture. The findings also indicated that with every one-unit increase in transformational leadership, innovation culture increases by approximately 1.02 units. This supports prevailing views that a higher LT resulted in a tendency towards innovation (see Handoyo, 2018; Janićijević, 2019; Ogigau-Neamtiu & Antonoaie, 2019; Pelc, 2017; Usoro & Abiagam, 2018). A closer examination of the research findings revealed that with $p = .733$, power distance is not a significant predictor of innovation culture; and that the interaction term, which yielded $p = .696$, is not a significant predictor of innovation culture. Since the null hypothesis, $H_0$5: LT orientation does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture, was not rejected, there is insufficient evidence to support the affirming or opposing views pertaining to the moderating effect of long-term versus short-term orientation on the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture in companies headquartered in the United States operating in the United States and Japan (see Handoyo, 2018; Janićijević, 2019; Ogigau-Neamtiu &

Antonoaie, 2019; Pelc, 2017; Usoro & Abiagam, 2018). The final hypothesis yielded similar results.

The sixth hypothesis examined whether the IR dimension of country culture moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures. The $p < .001$, value indicated transformational leadership and IR significantly predict innovation culture. As with the IN dimension, with every one-unit increase in transformational leadership, innovation culture increases by approximately 1.05 units. This supported extant literature which concluded that countries with a high indulgence were not inclined towards an innovation culture (see Sun et al., 2019; Zhang & Yang, 2018). With $p = .733$, it was determined that IR is not a significant predictor of innovation culture. Additionally, the interaction term, which yielded $p = .696$, is not a significant predictor of innovation culture. The failure to reject the null hypothesis, $H_0$6: IR does not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture, suggests there is insufficient evidence to support the earlier views pertaining to the moderating effect of IR on the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture in companies headquartered in the United States that operating in the United States and Japan (see Halkos & Skouloudis, 2017; Luria et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2019; Zhang & Yang, 2018). The research findings addressed to primary research question of determining whether country culture modified the relationship between transformational leadership, and innovation cultures within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries.

The influence of divergent cultures on the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture was not clearly manifested. The primary research was to determine whether country culture moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures within these U.S.-based companies. As indicated in Figure 1, Japan had higher levels of PD, MS, UA, and LT than the United States and lower levels of IN and IR. It has been argued that transformational leaders who exhibited varying levels of PD, individualism, and masculinity make transformational leadership culture-dependent and were well suited for innovative practices (Crede et al., 2019; Shapira-Lishchinsky & Litchka, 2018; Wang et al., 2018). Opposers have concluded that masculinity, individualism, and indulgence inhibited innovation (Djourova et al., 2020; Haleem et al., 2018; Švarc, 2017). As with earlier research, this research study demonstrated there is a relationship between country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation culture and that the ongoing dialogue on whether country culture moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation is still relevant. I also demonstrated there was a difference between companies that operate in Japan and companies that operated in the United States in the amount of increased innovation culture with each increased unit of transformational leadership. This was particularly evident where companies in Japan had higher levels of PD, MS, UA, and LT than companies operating in the United States; and where companies in United States had higher levels of IN and IR than companies operating in Japan. Addressing the research question yielded there was insufficient evidence in each hypothesis to conclude that country culture moderated the relationship between

transformational leadership and innovation cultures within these U.S.-based companies operating in different countries. Of the limitations presented earlier, the use of the multiple regression analysis presented the most significant challenge.

Limitations of the Study

In this study, I used the convenience sampling method to select research participants. Although this sampling method provided me with ease of access to potential participants, one of its limitations was the potential lack of generalizability (see Burkholder et al., 2016; Etikan et al., 2016; Warner, 2013). As noted by Warner (2013), a correlational research design was used to overcome threat to external and internal validity by ensuring that the correlation was not used as a basis for establishing a causal inference. In accordance with Randy-Cofie (2018), threats to internal validity were mitigated by ensuring that the survey could be taken only once by each participant and the ANOVA was used to mitigate threats to validity (see Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Westen & Rosenthal, 2003). Statistical conclusion validity was achieved by achieving the recommended statistical power for the study. In the current study, the sample data collected exceeded the recommended sample size to achieve statistical power. The most significant limitation was overcoming the inability to use a constant to determine whether moderation between variables occurred using ANOVA in SPSS.

As noted in Chapter 4, a regression analysis, which was used to determine whether moderation occurred, cannot be calculated in SPSS using constants. In the current study, archival data was used to determine country divergence. This divergence between countries was expressed by dichotomizing the values of the data depicted in

Figure 1, as either higher or lower. Although dichotomizing the values may impose range restriction, it offers a validated method of measuring a moderation effect (McNemar, 1969 as cited Baron & Kenny, 1986). It was not understood at the onset that the dichotomization step must be accomplished before running the moderation models in SPSS (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Not doing so produced results that were inconsistent with the examples provided by Wagner (2016). Future studies could be undertaken to understand the dichotomization of variables and the use of SPSS. This limitation was overcome by reviewing the literature and practicing the model using sample data. Once this was accomplished, reasonable predictions pertaining to the relationship between the variables were possible (Burkholder et al., 2016). The predictions made the purpose of the study achievable and recommendations relevant.

Recommendations

In the current study, I used a nonexperimental quantitative correlation to examine the relationship between country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation culture. This study is the first step in understanding the relationship between the three variables more thoroughly. While the relationship between the variables was substantiated, there was insufficient evidence to conclude that country culture moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture. Future studies could focus on examining the relationship between the variables using more precisely expressed country culture data. For example, a mixed methods approach could be appropriate. With this approach, future research could extend knowledge to understand the range of differences among the various dimensions of country culture

before testing for moderation. By including the inductive processes of this approach, researchers can integrate participant views cultural dimension theory, thereby enhancing the quality of country culture data. Another consideration for future research would be to focus on only one dimension.

Existing data indicated that the most significant divergence between Japan and the United States occurred in the long-term orientation versus short-term orientation dimension of country couture. Future studies could explore the changes in the relationship between the variables over time. As noted earlier in the current study, changes to country culture tend to take place over extended periods of time. A time series design should be considered to capture these changes over time; and to determine whether these changes influence the relationship between the three variables. Care should be taken when selecting participating companies at the onset, as changes in leadership could have a negative impact on continued company participation during the research intervals. A final recommendation would be to broaden the scope of a future research study on the relationship between these variables to include other countries.

In this study, I focused on Japan and the United States. I collected data from companies in these two countries because of their cultural divergence. Data collection was slow and difficult at the onset. The difficulty may have been attributed to the fact that these two countries are not only culturally divergent, but the countries where the companies operate also compete within the same global markets. A measure to mitigate this concern in future studies would be to include companies that operate in more than two countries. Additionally, expanding the scope to include companies that operate in

more countries may also mitigate any problems that can arise because of political differences between participating countries. For example, today there are conflicts between countries that would prevent companies in one country from participating in a research study that involves a country with which it is in conflict. Although broadening the scope may require additional resources and time, a benefit would be a broader application and contribution to positive social change.

Implications

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the relationship between three variables, country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation cultures within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries. As more businesses seek to gain an advantage over competitors, expansion into international markets appears to offer the potential for favorable prospects (Kovač & Labaš, 2019; Mutoh et al., 2020). Competing in global markets, however, requires that companies consider cultural differences when determining an appropriate leadership style; one that leverages innovativeness (see Allegretti et al., 2018; Park et al., 2021; Pranowo et al., 2020; Tulacz & Reina, 2019). The findings of the current study revealed there is a relationship between transformational leadership, country culture and innovation. It contributes to extant literature on management theories and provides guidance for management practices and social institutions.

Although there was insufficient evidence to conclude that country culture had an influence on the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture, it did reveal there was a relationship between the variables. This aligns with current

literature that supports the idea that certain elements of transformational leadership and country culture facilitate innovation cultures (see Abbas & Ali, 2023; Al-Husseini & Elbeltagi, 2016; Amin et al., 2020; Ho & Fu, 2018). The current study revealed that with each unit increase in transformational leadership, innovation culture was influenced. This is significant because it adds to the existing body of knowledge on management theory. In their study on the effects of transformational leadership on innovative behaviors, Jada and Mukhopadhyay (2019) found that certain transformational leadership attributes coupled with the higher power distance dimension of country culture promoted innovation behaviors in India. In another study, Luo et al. (2020) found that a high power distance dimension deminished the effectiveness of transformational leadership in China. As suggested by Warner (2013) these kinds of observation, along with the current study, provide the basis for future development of management theory. The current study has practical implications as well.

As discussed earlier, it may be a prudent pursuit for transformational leaders that compete in global markets to direct significant attention to certain dimensions of country culture. The existence of a relationship between transformational leadership, country culture, and innovation culture was substantiated in the current study. As indicated earlier, several studies have explored the relationship between these variables in binary fashion. For example, some studies show that transformational leadership contributes to innovation behaviors (see Afsar et al., 2019; Khalili, 2016; Lazányi, 2017). Other studies have concluded that country culture impacts innovation (see Handoyo, 2018; Mulaomerovic, et at., 2019; Ogigau-Neamtiu & Antonoaie, 2019; Oruh & Dibia, 2020;

Siddique et al., 2020; Tear et al., 2020; Yu, 2017;). The current study revealed there is a relationship between all three variables, transformational leadership, country culture, and innovation culture.

The findings contribute to management theory and suggest that when transformational leaders are intentional about nurturing certain elements of a country's culture, innovative behaviors can be stimulated. Abbas and Ali (2023) found that transformationl leadership was most effective in cultures with higher power distance and collectivism, and organizations experience better results with IT projects that required innovation. In their study, Amin et al. (2020) concluded that transformational leaders that exercised lower power distance were likely to experience enhanced decision making. In countries like Vietnam, transformational leaders that maintained high power distance were found to have negative impacts on job satisfaction, job performance, and ultimately organizational outcomes (Vuong et al., 2023). The significance of this study is that it can serve as a tool for guidance for transformationl leaders who are attentive to country culture. Doing so can lead to management practices that stimulate employees with dieverse cultures to come up with innovative ways for improved organizational performance. Directing attention toward nurturing the relationship between transformational leadership, country culture, and innovation culture can also lead to positive social change.

As organizations continue to expand into international market as a strategy to gain the competitive advantage, paying attention to the relationship between transformational leadership, country culture, and innovation culture can help mitigate the potential for

business failures. The willingness of transformational leaders to take differences between country cultures under consideration and adapting to local environments can lead to reduced business failures for companies that compete in global markets (Park & Lee, 2021; Wang & Varma, 2019). The current study is significant because it serves as guidance for taking these factors into consideration. In their research study, Peng et al. (2021) found that a stong power distance orientation among transformational leaders led to shared values, commuincations and collaboratoin among team members. Nguyen et al. (2020) concluded that transformational leadership facilitated employee creativity, a critical factor of innovation, in a company operating in Vietnam. With greater understanding of the relationship between transformational leadership, country culture and innovation cultures, the potential for multinationl business failues can be mitigated.

Conclusions

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the relationship between three variables, country culture, elements of transformational leadership, and innovation cultures within U.S.-based companies operating in different countries. Specifically, the researcher addressed whether country culture modified the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures within U.S. -based companies operating in Japan and operating in the United States. While there was insufficient evidence to conclude that country culture had a moderating effect on the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture, transformational leadership, and each dimension of country culture significantly predicted innovation culture. This finding informs extant literature, management practitioners, and social

institutions about the importance of considering cultural differences. As businesses seek to expand into international markets as a strategy to gain a competitive advantage, transformational leaders should seek guidance for developing hiring practices and training programs that take cultural diversity into consideration. This research study offers such guidance.

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Appendix A: Recruitment Correspondence

Dear Colleague:

I am a doctoral student at Walden University in the dissertation phase of my research study. My study examines whether country culture affects the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation cultures. This correspondence is directed to you for two reasons. First, to ask you to verify that your company is willing to participate in this research study. Second, to ask you to serve as a research partner stakeholder.

Be assured that the data provided by your company will be kept confidential. Any identifiable information pertaining to your company and its employees will be used for research purposes only. As a stakeholder you will be asked to distribute a survey among qualified participants within your organization and to return them to me. A person is qualified to participate if she/he agrees to participate in this research study voluntarily and is a manager within your company. For the purposes of this research study, a manager will be construed as a person who supervises the duties and responsibilities of two or more employees within a participating company.

Your voluntary participation in this survey is important to the success of the research, and the field of management field. There is no penalty if you choose not to participate. The survey will take approximately 20 minutes to answer, and your individual responses will be kept strictly confidential and anonymous. Returning the completed survey constitutes an acknowledgement of your agreement to participate. If you have any questions, please contact me at [redacted].

Thank you for your consideration.

Appendix B: Invitation Email to Obtain Organizational Permission to Participate

From: [redacted]
Sent: Wednesday, March 9, 2022 4:20 PM
To: [redacted]

Subject: [External] Re: Dissertation Research

[EXTERNAL] DO NOT CLICK links or attachments unless you recognize the sender and know the content is safe.

Dear [redacted]

Thank you for your email. I left Richmond Airport at 6:45 this morning and have just arrived in Portland, Oregon. We are honored to be able to assist you in your research and hope that the results will lead to the development of Richmond Airport. Please do not hesitate to tell us what you need.

There seems to be uncertain on my schedule in May, regarding airport tour, thus how about the timing from the end of June to July?

Best regards

[redacted]

From: [redacted]
Sent: Friday, February 25, 2022 12:02 PM
To: [redacted]

Subject: RE: [External] Declined: Introduction Meeting between [redacted] & [redacted]

No worries, [redacted]! I was not planning on going, but I also will be in NYC next week!

I also heard back from the Japan Commerce Association of Washington DC (JCAW). It is a big organization with lots of Japanese companies as members. Unfortunately, no takers. I was told that they "often" get these types of requests and generally elect not to participate.

Sorry about that, but I am glad that at least one company responded. [redacted] is a very large Japanese company, so it will be good to include it in your research.

Best- [redacted]

[redacted]
Fri 1/28/2022 2:41 PM
To: [redacted]

As mentioned during our brief telephone conversation, besides my job as the [redacted], I am a doctoral student at Walden University in the dissertation phase of my research study. My study will examine whether country culture affects the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation culture in multinational companies operating in the United States and operating in Japan. A potential social impact of this study may result in providing guidance to educational institutions on developing curricula that considers diversity issues in training future leaders. It will also add to the extant body of knowledge on management and the associated relational implications of country culture, transformational leadership, and innovation culture. Participation would be greatly appreciated.

Prior to starting the research, I need confirmation from a person with sufficient authority to grant permission for company participation and to authorize a designated person to assist with forwarding the link for the surveys (electronically) to other managers (people that supervise the activities of at least two people) in the company? The survey questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. The data collected pertaining to the company and the survey participants will be kept strictly confidential. I am available to answer any question pertaining to the research and/or the procedures and can be reached by email or by phone.

[redacted]

Appendix C: Permission to Use Hofstede Data

INTRODUCTION

Thank you very much for your interest in the model and the work we do. Below you will find the most frequently asked questions that we have collected and brought together for your convenience.

Please note that while we are extremely grateful to all those that undertake research using the model, unfortunately, we cannot help you with your research. We hope that the answers to these questions help you with your research.

Please note that questions answered in the FAQ will no longer be answered to by e-mail.

I want to cite your website in my academic article/ thesis. How can I do that?

Single reproduction of limited parts of this website are allowed as part of thesis & academical articles.

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What is the range of scores?

The scale runs from 0 – 100, with 50 as a mid-level. The rule of thumb is that if a score is under 50 the culture scores relatively LOW on that scale and if any score is over 50 the culture scores HIGH on that scale. In the case of IDV – the LOW side (under 50) is considered "Collectivist" and above 50 considered "Individualist".

However, when using the 6-D Model, it is important to keep in mind that culture only exists by comparison. The country scores on the dimensions are relative; societies are compared to other societies. Without comparison, a country score is meaningless.

That means that only in comparison to another country can you say that a country is individualistic. For example, only in comparison to a country that scores 28 on this

Appendix D: Permission to Use the Innovation Culture Instrument

Burke, Warner <burke1@exchange.tc.columbia.edu>
To:Perry Miller
Fri 4/23/2021 5:24 PM

The Burke-Litwin Organizational Assessment Survey.pdf **7 MB**

Dear Perry,

I incorporated the culture survey into the overall Burke Litwin Model Survey- see attached. You are welcome to use this Survey or any part of it. My condition is that you use it for your personal research purposes not for any commercial use.
wwb
W. Warner Burke, PhD
Professor of Psychology and Education
Box 24 Teachers College, Columbia University
525 West 120th Street
New York, NY 10027
(212) 678-3831

On Fri, Apr 23, 2021 at 1:19 PM Perry Miller <[redacted]> wrote:
Dr. Burke,

I am working on my dissertation and would very much like to use an instrument you developed. In their research study, Hurley and Hult (1998) indicated they measured innovation culture using the subject matter. In the reference was the following:

> Burke, W. Warner (1989), "Culture Instrument," working paper, Columbia University.

I left you a voicemail that probably sounded crypted. Please ignore that voicemail and reply to this email. I have two questions. Is that instrument available for use? If so, how may I obtain a copy of it?

Perry J. Miller