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**CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISONS OF  
PREFERRED ROLE TYPES  
BETWEEN AUSTRALIAN AND  
INDONESIAN MANAGERS**

A Thesis

Submitted for the degree of Master of Organizational Psychology  
The University of Queensland

By

Wustari H. Mangundjaya

February 10, 2002

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## DECLARATION

I declare that the work presented in this thesis, to the best of my knowledge and belief, is original and my own work, except as acknowledged in the text, and the material has not been submitted, either in whole or part, for a degree at this or any other university.

Wustari H. Mangundjaya

## ABSTRACT

Substantive research (Haire, 1966; Hofstede, 1980, 1986) indicates that culture plays an important role in influencing values, personality, and behaviour of people. Nevertheless, there are a very limited number of empirical studies (England, 1975; Danandjaya, 1985) which investigate differences between managers role behaviour in different countries, especially between Australia and Indonesia. The present study aims to compare preferred role types across culture, particularly between Australian and Indonesian managers using the Team Management Index (TMI) instrument, a measure of preferred role types. The present study uses a closely matched sample, with 126 managers from each country. Sex, managerial level, and function are matched on both samples. Multivariate analysis of variance shows there is no significant differences between Australian and Indonesian managers in their perceived work preferences (Extroversion-Introversion, Practical-Creativity, Analytical-Beliefs, and Structured-Flexible). The results also show that there is no significant difference found between their managerial role preferences (Assessor-Developer, Upholder-Maintainer, Creator-Innovator, Reporter-Adviser, Thruster-Organiser, Concluder-Producer, Explorer-Promoter, and Controller-Inspector). The only significant relationship found was the association between managerial level and preferred role types, inferring that managerial level is more important than country background for managers in indicating their preferred approach to managerial work. Nevertheless, care should be taken not to generalise the findings.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION		ii
ABSTRACT		iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT		iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS		v
LIST OF TABLES		vii
LIST OF FIGURES		viii
CHAPTER ONE:	INTRODUCTION	1
	1.1 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF CROSS CULTURAL STUDY	3
	1.2 THE TEAM MANAGEMENT INDEX	4
	1.3 AUSTRALIAN AND INDONESIA CULTURAL CHARACTERISTICS	7
	1.4 CRITIQUE OF EVIDENCE	13
	1.5 ARE AUSTRALIAN AND INDONESIA MANAGERS DIFFERENT?	14
CHAPTER TWO:	METHOD	21
	2.1 SUBJECTS AND SAMPLE DERIVATION	21
	2.2 MEASURES	24
	2.2.1 PREFERRED WORK BEHAVIOURAL ORIENTATIONS	24
	2.2.2 DEFINITIONS	24
	2.2.3 SCORING	25
	2.2.4 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY	27
	2.2.5 THE PREFERRED ROLE TYPES	30
	2.3 PROCEDURE	33
	2.4 DATA ANALYSIS	34
CHAPTER THREE:	RESULTS	35
	3.1 DIAGNOSTICS	35
	3.2 PREFERRED WORK BEHAVIOURAL ORIENTATION ANALYSIS	35
	3.3 PREFERRED ROLE TYPES	39
CHAPTER FOUR:	DISCUSSION	43
	4.1 SPECIFIC HYPOTHESIS	43
	4.2 NON-HYPOTHESIZED RESULTS	46
	4.3 CRITIQUE OF THE STUDY	47
	4.4 FUTURE RESEARCH	49
	4.5 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS	50
	4.6 CONCLUSION	51

<b>REFERENCES</b>	vi	
	52	
Appendix 1	Listed of item for each construct	56
Appendix 2	TMI Questionnaire	58
Appendix 3	Explanation of the eight preferred role types	64
Appendix 4	MANOVA summary tables for main effects and interaction effects on the four construct scale (Table 10)	68
Appendix 5	Table Hierarchical Log Linear (Table 12)	70
Appendix 6	Table Factor Analysis on E-I construct scale (Table 14)	74
	Table Factor Analysis on P-C construct scale (Table 15)	75
	Table Factor Analysis on A-B construct scale (Table 16)	76
	Table Factor Analysis on S-F construct scale (Table 17)	77



## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Sample size by sex	22
Table 2	Sample size by managerial level	22
Table 3	Sample size by age grouping	23
Table 4	Sample size by functions	23
Table 5	Listed of items for each construct (Appendix 1)	56
Table 6	Reliability results	28
Table 7	Alpha coefficient reliability for both samples	29
Table 8	Correlation of the four construct scales	35
Table 9	MANOVA analysis of four construct scales of Australian and Indonesian managers	36
Table 10	MANOVA summary tables for main effects and interaction effects of the four construct scales	68
Table 11	The distribution of Preferred Role Types	40
Table 12	Hierarchical Log Linear	70
Table 13	The distribution of Preferred Role Types across level by country	42
Table 14	Factor Analysis on E-I construct scale	74
Table 15	Factor Analysis on P-C construct scale	75
Table 16	Factor Analysis on A-B construct scale	76
Table 17	Factor Analysis on S-F construct scale	77

## LIST OF FIGURES

viii

Figure 1	The TMI Construct Scale	22
Figure 2	The Team Management Wheel	31
Figure 3	Profile of Australian and Indonesian Managers on The Four Construct Scales	37

## CHAPTER ONE

### Introductions

Today, the emergence of a global economy and market is moving nations into growing interdependence. The rapid growth of international interdependence of national economies has created a growing demand for knowledge in international and comparative management (Bhagat, Crawford, Kaplan, & Kedia, 1990). The above mentioned condition also facilitates a cross-border flow of people, ideas and information (Harris & Morran, 1987). As a result, developing cultural awareness and understanding in global managers has been the central thrust in today's world. Furthermore, interactions among persons belonging to different cultural groups are becoming increasingly important as the concept of "we are part of the world" is becoming to be more widely accepted (Mackay, 1990). People from different cultures differ in terms of values and behaviours, with the proposed study focussing on the differences in the preferred role types in two different cultures.

The present study is a cross-cultural comparison of the preferred role types of Indonesian and Australian managers. Preferred role types can be defined as managers' perceived and preferred approach in dealing with managerial work (Margerison & McCann, 1984). The study is important for several reasons. The first reason is that research has shown that the understanding of preferred work behavioural orientation and preferred role types has a major impact on the development of managers, in particular their success in managing people (Margerison & McCann, 1991). It also appears that there have been no cross-cultural studies undertaken concerning the preferred work behavioural orientation and preferred role types of Indonesians and Australians, even though these two countries are

very close neighbours. In addition, research has shown that Australian managers have realised that relationships with the rest of the world, especially with Asia, are fundamental to their future survival (Mackay, 1990). Furthermore, to become a successful manager in a global market, he or she should have the cultural sensitivity to be capable of operating comfortably in a global environment (Harris & Morran, 1987; Sachs, 1990; Tung & Miller, 1990). Moreover, research has shown that one's native culture affects the way a manager views every critical factors of the management process, ranging from decision-making and problem-solving to supervision and appraisal (Harris & Morran, 1987). Finally, the composition of the expatriate work force is changing. The current expatriate work force is approximately 80 000 individuals located in over 130 countries (Bhagat, Kedia, Crawford, and Kaplan, 1990). The above condition leads to the situation in which the expatriates are required to make numerous adjustments to cultures which are dissimilar to their home country cultures.

The present study focuses on the similarities and differences between Indonesian and Australian preferred role types, as measured by the Team Management Index (TMI; Margerison & McCann, 1991). The TMI consists of eight major role preferences referred to in the present study as "preferred role types", which are assigned based on four work preferences, called "preferred work behavioural orientation", (Margerison & McCann, 1984) namely: Extroversion/Introversion, Practical/Creative; Analytical/Belief-based and Structured/Flexible.

As discussed previously, the present study will be conducted in two different cultures. So, in order to give a background to the issue of cross-cultural study, the next section will discuss the importance and significance of conducting cross-cultural studies.

drawn towards particular occupations. The above tendency helps to explain why, when they rise to the position of responsibility in management, the members of the management teams are likely to have much in common. Belbin (1981) furthermore tried to group people under four different types namely: Stable Extroverts, Anxious Extroverts, Stable Introverts and Anxious Introverts, and investigate their behaviour, particularly in relation to individual and team roles.

The Team Management Index measures four key managerial orientation from the ideas of Jung. They are as follows: (a) How people prefer to relate to others, which is related to the extent of Jung's extroverted or introverted types of people; (b) How people prefer to gather and use information, which is related to the extent of being practical or creative type of people; (c) How people prefer to make decisions, which is related to the extent of being analytic or belief-based people; and (d) how people prefer to organise themselves, which is related to being structured or flexible types of people (Margerison & McCann, 1991).

In summary, it can be said that the four key managerial orientation discussed above are measured by the so called *preferred work behavioural orientations*, Extroversion/Introversion, Practical/Creative, Analytical/Belief-based, and Structured/Flexible, generated from the four construct scales of E-I, P-C, A-B and S-F. Though Margerison and McCann (1984, 1991) called the Extroversion/Introversion, Practical/Creative, Analytical/Belief-based and Structured/Flexible dimensions work preferences, in the present study therefore called preferred work behavioural orientations basically of their relationship to the basic principle of Jung's personality dimensions.

Furthermore, based on the combination of above preferred work behavioural orientations, Margerison and McCann (1984) then derived the

preferred role types, which combine the four preferred work behavioural orientation in different combinations (see Figure 2 and fuller explanation in the Method section). Reporter Advisers are good as advisers as they are usually excellent at generating and providing information. Creator-Innovators are usually the people who are good at initiating new ideas and concepts. Explorer-Promoters are usually the people who are excellent at introducing new ideas and seeing the wide picture of the problem. Assessor-Developers usually have a strong analytical approach and enjoy experimenting with new ideas. Thruster-Organisers are the people who make things happen. Concluder-Producers are very practical people; their strength lies in setting up plans and standard system. Controller-Inspectors are people who have high concern for establishing and enforcing rules and regulation. Upholder-Maintainers are usually people who like maintaining and consolidating both the physical task side and the social side of work (Margerison & McCann, 1991).

### 1.3 Australian and Indonesian Cultural Characteristics

Are the preferred role types the same or different among managers? How do managers in different countries differ from one another in their role preferences? As a basis for answering the above questions, two assumptions require noting. First, the cultural environment in which people have been raised or have lived for some significant period might have an influence on their personality development and their characteristics (Barnouw, 1973; Jarvis, 1987) as well as on their cognitive styles (Kolb, 1982; Lessor, 1976). Second, numerous authors (Haire, 1966; Rokeach, 1979, Yucelt, 1984) have discussed the question of the possibility that managers might be affected by their cultural and social backgrounds as well as by behavioural and economic factors.

The present section does not aim to present a complete description of the national character of the people in either Australia or Indonesia. Nevertheless, because understanding the cultures is essential to understanding how preferred role types differ, the following section will provide a brief discussion and summary of the cultures both in Australia and in Indonesia. The following discussion will illustrate some similarities and differences in the cultural characteristics of both countries, in particular, managerial characteristics.

Australia. Australia according to a number of writers (Feather, 1986; Hofstede, 1976, 1980) can be regarded as a complex and developed society, whose culture is similar to that of Britain and the United States, but differs markedly from that of countries such as Singapore, Malaysia and Indonesia (Hofstede, 1976, 1980). Clark and McCabe (1970) also supported the previous findings by showing that Australian managers hold leadership beliefs similar to those of managers in England and the United States. Feather (1986) furthermore said that Australians live in a competitive social environment where progress and achievements are valued for what they bring. There is a praise for people who succeed and admiration for people who stand out against authority. The characteristics discussed above are likely to be related to the role of Thruster-Organiser of the TMI, in which it can be regarded as the people who usually will make things happen. Nevertheless, tensions do arise between the collectivist ideology and a system that rewards personal accomplishment and individual enterprise (Feather 1985, cited in Feather 1986). Tensions also exist between masculine and feminine values within the culture, as a result of new prescriptions about sex roles in the society (Feather, 1986). Hofstede (1980) has supported these arguments with his findings that have shown Australia to be an individualistic and masculine country. Generally the

research on Australian national characteristics seems to fail to take into account the fact that Australia is a complex multi-ethnic and multi-cultural society.

Furthermore, Hofstede (1980) said that Australia along with Great Britain and the United States of America is among the most individualistic countries in the world. The implication for behaviour is that an Australian would see himself/herself as "I", and both men and women in Australia are expected to be assertive and competitive (Hofstede, 1980). Barry and Dowling (1984) have supported Hofstede's finding showing that Australian managers are high on Factor E1 (Dominance) on the 16 PF meaning that they tend to be self-assertive, aggressive and competitive. Combined with a combination of relatively high score on the factor Q2 (self-sufficiency) of the 16 PF, it can be said that Australian managers have a tendency to pursue their own decision making assertively. The above discussion infers Australians are more Extroverted in their preferred work behavioural orientation and are less likely to be Upholder-Maintainers, whose main tasks are stabilising team.

In addition, the research on Australian managers using the 16 PF (Barry & Dowling 1984), shows the following results: Australian managers have a high score on factor M, which means that they tend to be unconventional and impractical with everyday matters. The factor also indicates that their performance level might be increased if they were to function in a work environment which was flexible and somewhat unstructured. Mackay's finding supports Barry and Dowling's (1984) study, as according to Mackay (1990), Australian chief executive officers appear to be proud of their relaxed attitude to life. The above findings are related to the Flexible (versus Structured) preferred work behavioural orientation as defined by the THI measurement (Margerison & Mccan, 1991).



According to Margerison and McCann (1991), the people who choose flexible preferred work behavioural orientation are more unstructured and spend more time in diagnosing the situation.

Furthermore, Barry and Dowling's (1984) findings also show that Australian managers have a high score on factor Q1, which indicates that they are analytical, liberal and innovative. They tend to prefer logic rather than feelings, they also are prepared to break established methods if necessary. The results of the above findings can be related to the Analytical (versus Belief-based), and Creative (versus Practical) dimensions as well as on the role of Explorer-Promoter, who are usually the people with excellent skills at introducing new ideas and seeing the wide picture of the problem. The characteristics discussed above are similar to the characteristics of Analytical and Creative dimensions and to the role of Explorer-Promoter. The study by Barry and Dowling (1984) can be regarded as an important contribution to the field and significant for the present study, as their work was done using Australian managers as their sample. Nevertheless, care should be taken not to generalise from their findings, because what they regarded as a "high-score" in their findings ranged only from 6.8 (Q1 and M factors) to 7.2 (E factor) and 7.4 (B factor) on a ten point scale point, which may not be regarded as high-scoring on different scales or for other groups.

Other studies conducted by two different researchers (Danandjaya, 1985; England, 1975) using the same instruments on personal values of managers have shown that Australian managers have low pragmatic values (40.2%; England (1975) compared to Indonesian managers (71%) as found by Danandjaya's (1985). Though the above studies measured the personal values of managers, the findings can still be considered to be related to the Practical (versus Creative) dimension of the TMI, inferring Australians are

more creative compared to Indonesian managers. Even though the findings of England (1975) appear to be important to the present study, it should be noted that his study to Australians was conducted 16 years ago. It is possible that results might now be different due to the changes during that time. There have been many changes, especially during the global transformation phase currently underway, which consequently might affect the values, attitudes and behaviours of managers.

Indonesia. Indonesia as one of the developing countries is the largest archipelago in the world. With 13,677 islands of which 6,044 are inhabited, Indonesia represents a rich variety of local customs and traditions among its diverse people. A basic concept in the Indonesian daily life, both in social and business context, is the importance of avoiding making someone feel *malu* (ashamed or embarrassed). As a result, an Indonesian is usually very sensitive to criticism. Criticising or contradicting a person in front of another will cause the loss of face to both parties (Joynt & Warner, 1985). Respect comes with a person's status (Harris & Morran, 1987; Joynt & Warner, 1985) and one form of demonstrating respect to others is by not questioning them. As a result, being refined, which shows itself in emotional equanimity, polished behaviour and pleasant appearance (Palmier, 1985) is very important. Indonesians have grown up in a culture where they depend more on non-verbal means of communication than on verbal messages. Lubis (1990) in his book has raised the issue of not being frank and open as one of the characteristics of Indonesian people. Lubis (1990) in his book has also said that feudalism is still found in the majority of Indonesian people. The above characteristics are likely to be related to the Introversion (versus Extroversion) dimension of the THI measurement, inferring that Indonesians are more Introverted compare to Australian people.

Furthermore, according to Harris & Morran (1987), Indonesian people tend to be group-oriented rather than individually-oriented. Consequently, consensus plays an important role in Indonesia. Unity, conformity and harmony are some of the most important concepts in Indonesia. In this respect, the individual must act to achieve harmony every time, everywhere, in a family, in a job and/or in a society, as *Rukun* means harmony and feelings of affections. The above cultural characteristics can be seen as a picture of Indonesian people. However, this is based on a very limited number of empirical studies (Harris & Morran, 1987; Joynt & Warner, 1985) which were conducted, in particular, using managers as the sample. Furthermore, according to Hofstede (1980) Indonesia can be regarded as both collectivist and feminine. Being a member of a collectivist country, an Indonesian accordingly would see himself/herself in terms of a group, as "we", and see themselves as relating rather than competing in contrast to Australians. The above discussion shows that as a group Indonesians could be seen as likely to assume the role of Upholder-Maintainer in terms of the THI measurement, because, according to Margerison and McCann (1991), the Upholder-Maintainers are the people who like maintaining and consolidating the group.

Leadership is very paternalistic. *Gotong royong* (mutual help), and *musyawarah* (collective decision-making) are some of the organisational principles also embedded in the proto-Indonesian culture. Research conducted by Hofstede (1976) shows that high scores on conformity and low scores on independence are found among Asians. They also aspire less to leadership and diversity. The findings are also likely to apply to Indonesia because Indonesia has a similar culture and traditions as the other Asian countries. From Hofstede's (1984) findings demonstrate that Indonesia can be regarded as a large power distance society, in which

subordinates have strong dependence needs. The subordinates also expect superiors to behave autocratically and not to consult them. Ideal superiors in such a culture are benevolent autocrats or paternalists, "good fathers" on whom subordinates like to depend. Consequently, Indonesian is likely to be more Beliefs-based (versus Analytical) in terms of the TMI measurement. In other words, it can be said that being an ideal leader, a person should act both as a competent leader that the subordinates can depend upon, and also act as a good stabiliser. The above discussions seems to indicate that Indonesian managers are likely to assume the role of Upholder-Maintainers as well as the role of Reporter-Adviser.

Based on the discussion of Australian and Indonesian characteristics it can be concluded that there are quite a number of different characteristics between Australian and Indonesian people. It can, thus, be speculated that this will have an effect on their preferred role types in terms of the TMI measurement.

#### 1.4 Critique of Evidence

Even though there is a considerable evidence (Barry & Dowling, 1984, Danandjaya, 1985; England, 1975; and Hofstede, 1984) showing that there are differences between Australian and Indonesian managers, there is still a need to conduct the present study for the reasons discussed below. The first reason is the present study uses TMI measurement based on Jungian typology, a popular basis for preferred role types for managers (Belbin, 1981; Myer-Briggs, 1981), and not done before. The previous studies using TMI measurements (Connoly, 1986; Corcoran, 1987; Davies, 1986) only used one country as the sample.

Another reason is, that the previous cross-cultural studies (Danandjaya, 1985; England, 1975; and Hofstede, 1984) have not used a

matched sample in their design. For example, the previous studies by Hofstede (1980, 1984) were conducted only at one multinational organisation (IBM) in many countries with relatively small samples, with no attempt being made to match the samples.

In addition, the previous studies (Clark & McCabe, 1970; England, 1975; and Hofstede, 1980) were conducted many years ago, which a possibility that changes results might occur if the studies were repeated today. Moreover, there is also a possibility of different interpretation of the findings. For example, studies of the 16 PF by Barry and Dowling (1984), which showed a high score on some scales may not be regarded as high scoring on different measuring instruments. Furthermore, the reliability of measuring instruments used in those studies has not been reported. Finally, as the previous studies use many different kinds of instruments, the comparability of the findings appears to be difficult to ascertain. The need for further research in this area is, thus, justified.

#### 1.5 Are Australian and Indonesian Managers Different?

As discussed previously, it appears that there is considerable evidence showing that Australians are different from Indonesians by being more individual, assertive, open to criticism, competitive, analytical and creative, (Barry & Dowling, 1984; Danandjaya, 1985; England, 1975; and Hofstede, 1984). The aim of the present study is to investigate the similarities and differences between Australian and Indonesian managers in respect to their preferred role types. If significant differences are found, an attempt will be made to discuss this in light of cultural differences. The present study will also be based specifically upon the comparison of results of the TMI between the two countries.

Preferred work behavioural orientations. In relation to the aim of the study, the following will discuss the differences between Australian and Indonesian managers in light of their personalities and managerial styles, which will lead to generating hypotheses based on the TMI.

Based on the cultural characteristics of the people, Australians as well as other Western people are likely to be considered more extroverted than Indonesians (Hofstede, 1976, 1980; Harris & Morran, 1987; and Lubis, 1990). The findings by Barry & Dowling (1984) showing that Australian managers tend to be self-assertive lead to the first hypothesis as follows:

*Hypothesis 1: Australian managers are more extroverted than Indonesian managers.*

The findings of Danandjaya (1985) show that Indonesian managers are more practical than Australian managers, and Barry and Dowling (1984) findings demonstrate that Australian managers are unconventional and impractical with everyday matters. This leads to formulation of the second hypothesis as follows:

*Hypothesis 2: Australian managers are more creative than Indonesian managers.*

Findings of Barry and Dowling (1984), furthermore, show that Australian managers are analytical and logical, whilst Indonesians, in general, according to Lubis (1990), can be regarded as belief-based people. Based on the above arguments, the third hypothesis is postulated:

*Hypothesis 3: Australian managers are more analytically based than Indonesian managers.*

Findings of both Mackay (1990) and of Barry and Dowling (1984), discussed above, show that Australian managers can be regarded as flexible and unstructured, whereas Indonesians, as people of one of the Asian countries, are less likely to aspire to variety (Hofstede, 1976), 1980). This leads to the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 4: Australian managers are more flexible than Indonesian managers.*

The above hypotheses are related to preferred work behavioural orientations of the TMI measurement, which basically function as the basis for the managerial role preferences. The following will discuss the managerial role preferences as well as their leading hypotheses.

Preferred role types. An important managerial functions and roles, according to many authors (Margerison & McCann, 1984, 1991; Mintzberg, 1989), is related to managing a team and subordinates, which consequently means giving advice as part of a job. Among Indonesian managers because of their cultural characteristics, in particular their paternalistic leadership style (Harris & Morran, 1987), the adviser role appears to be very much required. In addition, Indonesian subordinates have strong dependence needs on their superiors as documented by Hofstede's findings (1984). Australian managers, on the other hand, according to Frenkel & Manners (1980) are more democratic, as the authors' findings show that workers' participation is regarded to be an important factor for Australian managers. One of the characteristics of the Reporter-Advisers is that

they are usually excellent at generating and providing information. The implications from the above arguments lead to hypothesis 5.

*Hypothesis 5: The role of Reporter-Advisers will be found more often among Indonesian managers than among Australian managers.*

In relation to Hypothesis 4, which says that Australian managers are more creative than Indonesian managers, Barry and Dowling (1984) furthermore, have said that Australian managers are innovative and will prefer to break with established methods if necessary. Feather (1986) has supported the previous findings by saying that Australian people valued achievement and competition highly. According to Margerison and McCann (1991) Creator-Innovators are usually good at initiating new ideas and concepts, whilst Explorer-Promoter are usually excellent at introducing new ideas and seeing the wide picture of the problem. So, based on the above discussion, the following hypotheses are stipulated:

*Hypothesis 6: The role of Creator-Innovators will be found more often among Australian managers than among Indonesian managers.*

*Hypothesis 7: The role of Explorer-Promoters will be found more often among Australian than among Indonesian managers.*

One of the characteristics of the Assessor-Developers is that they can be regarded as challengers and analytical thinkers. The characteristics discussed above, in general based on Barry and Dowling (1984) have been found in Australian managers, whilst Indonesian managers are regarded to be more Belief-based (Lubis, 1990). Based on the arguments



above, the following hypothesis is generated.

*Hypothesis 8: The role of Assessor-Developers will be found more often among Australian managers than among Indonesian managers.*

Thruster-Organisers are people who will make things happen (Margerison & McCann, 1984, 1991). Feather (1986) has argued that Australians place a high value on progress and achievements. Findings by Barry & Dowling (1984) have supported the arguments which have shown that Australian managers had a high score on self sufficiency. In addition, Frenkel & Manners (1980) have also found that Australian managers put a very high rank on individual contribution to the organisation. Indonesians, on the other hand, as members of a collectivist country do not value individual achievement very high (Hofstede, 1984). Based on the above arguments, the following hypothesis is stipulated:

*Hypothesis 9: The role of Thruster-Organisers will be found more often among Australian than among Indonesian managers.*

Concluder-Producers are very practical people (Margerison & McCann, 1984, 1991). In relation to the previous hypothesis (hypothesis 2), which is supported by Danandjaya's (1985) findings that showed Indonesian managers to be more practical than Australian managers, as well as Barry and Dowling's (1984) findings, which have also demonstrated that Australian managers were unconventional and impractical with everyday matter, the following hypothesis is stated:

*Hypothesis 10: The role of Concluder-Producers will be found more often among Indonesian managers than among Australian managers.*

Controller-Inspectors are people who have a high concern for establishing and enforcing rules and regulations (Margerison & McCann, 1984, 1991). Indonesian leaders and/or managers is required to be an ideal leader, as they are usually become a model for their subordinates (Harris & Morran, 1997; Hofstede, 1984). Consequently, they also have to ensure that the job is finished according to the plan, which they are likely to check by themselves rather than trust their subordinates. On the contrary, Australian managers are likely to be more democratic (Frenkel & Manners, 1980). Thus, based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is stipulated:

*Hypothesis 11: The role of Controller-Inspectors will be found more often among Indonesian managers than among Australian managers.*

In Indonesia, preserving harmony within the social environment is a powerful motivator, with *rukun* which means harmony is the basic concept. In addition, conformity is also the important concept in Indonesia. Consequently, people tend to be group oriented rather than individually oriented (Harris & Morran, 1987). Hofstede's (1984) findings have also demonstrated a significant difference between Indonesians and Australians, showing that Indonesia can be regarded as a collectivist whilst Australia as an individualist country. It is speculated that the basic cultural principle of *rukun* as well as national character will effect preferred role types of both Indonesian and Australian managers. Upholder-Maintainers according to Margerison & McCann (1991) are people who have strong

convictions on maintaining and consolidating both the physical side of work and social side. Thus, based on the discussions above the following hypothesis is stipulated:

*Hypothesis 12: The role of Upholder-Maintainers will be found more often among Indonesian managers than among Australian managers.*

As discussed previously, the research questions to be addressed in the present study have not been investigated before, and the research done in both Indonesia and in Australia is very limited. Consequently, the present study is of an exploratory nature.

## Methods

### 2.1 Subjects and Sample Derivation

The final sample consisted of 126 Australian and 126 Indonesian managers. The Indonesian respondents were specially selected for this study, while Australian respondents were selected from an existing data base gathered by other researchers. The Indonesian managers were MBA students representing from six MBA schools in Jakarta. A total of 300 questionnaires were distributed to the MBA students. Out of that amount, a total of 188 questionnaires was returned, a 63 % response rate, but only 126 respondents were managers so, the others were omitted.

TMI scores of Australian managers were available from a large pool of data gathered in the last five years. A sample of Australians was chosen from this pool to match the Indonesian sample. To ensure comparability between the Australian and Indonesian samples, the sample was matched on sex, managerial level and functions. There were 109 males and 17 females (Table 1). Ages ranged from 26 to 53 years in both samples. A significant difference was found in the average Indonesian and Australian managers age between the two countries using a t-test (at  $p < .01$ ) which was 34.6 years for Indonesian and 36.6 years for Australian managers (Table 2). Managerial level was divided into three levels, top, middle and low, based on both the numbers of subordinates and level in the organisation. Both countries have the same numbers in each of the three managerial level (Table 3). The functions performed by the managers in both countries ranged from corporate planning and development to administration (Table 4). Some differences exists between the samples. Only 32 respondent or 25.4% of the Australian managers were MBAs, whilst in the Indonesian sample 100% of the respondent were MBA students.

Table 1

Sample size by sex

Sex	Australia		Indonesia	
	<u>n</u>	%	<u>n</u>	%
Male	109	86.5 %	109	86.5 %
Female	17	13.5 %	17	13.5 %
Total	126	100.0 %	126	100.0 %

Table 2

Sample size by age grouping

Age group	Australia		Indonesia	
	<u>n</u>	%	<u>n</u>	%
26 - 35	56	44.5 %	76	60.3 %
36 - 45	62	49.2 %	43	34.1 %
46 - 55	8	6.3 %	7	5.6 %
Total	126	100.0 %	126	100.0 %

Table 3

Sample size by managerial level

Managerial level	Australia		Indonesia	
	n	%	n	%
Top	40	31.7 %	40	31.7 %
Middle	55	43.7 %	55	43.7 %
Low	31	24.6 %	31	24.6 %
Total	126	100.0 %	126	100.0 %

Table 4

Sample size by function

Function	Australia		Indonesia	
	n	%	n	%
Corporate Planning Development	31	24.6 %	31	24.6 %
Personnel	6	4.7 %	6	4.7 %
Finance/Accounting	34	27.0 %	34	27.0 %
Sales/Marketing/PR	16	12.7 %	16	12.7 %
Production/ Construction/Control	27	21.4 %	27	21.4 %
Design/RD	5	4.0 %	5	4.0 %
Consultancy	5	4.0 %	5	4.0 %
Administration	2	1.6 %	2	1.6 %
Total	126	100.0 %	126	100.0 %

### 2.2.1 Preferred work behavioural orientations.

The Team Management Index was used to measure a manager's preferred work style. The TMI, developed by Charles Margerison & Dick McCann (1982), is a sixty-item questionnaire. As stated, the TMI is based on 4 sub-scales which measure Extroversion-Introversion; Practical-Creative; Analytical-Belief; and Structured-Flexible (Margerison & McCann, 1991). The four construct scales are based upon four dimensions, namely establishing relationship, information management, decision-making and organizational issues.

### 2.2.2 Definitions.

The dimension labeled establishing relationships consists of two types, that is extrovert and introvert (Margerison & McCann, 1991). Extroverts require variety and stimulation, they often think things out by talking them through. They are less inhibited and enjoy taking the initiative in making new friends and establishing relationships. On the other hand, Introverts usually like to think things through clearly before they communicate. They also do not have a high need to meet regularly with others. They will pursue an issue in depth until they feel they can control the situation before they put forward their opinion.

There are also two types within the generating information dimension, namely practical and creative. Practical people like to work with tested ideas and real things. They prefer systems and methods and pay attention to facts and details. On the other hand, creative people are the ones who have creative vision and insight as they tend to emphasis more the imaginative side of their personality. As a result, they usually enjoy ambiguous problems and can see possibilities and implications.

Within the decision making dimension, there are also two types of approaches namely: Analytical and Beliefs-based approaches. Analytical people try to establish objective decision making

criteria and usually show concern for fairness based on rules. They are more tasks oriented and like analysis and clarity. On the other hand, the Beliefs-based people have personal subjective decision making criteria which they use for making decision and which are usually related to values and beliefs.

Finally, within the organization dimension, there are also two approaches: structured and flexible. The structured people usually like clarity and dislike ambiguity. Consequently, they are very orderly and can be somewhat inflexible, as they usually emphasize decision making over information getting. On the other hand, the flexible people usually can tolerate ambiguity and enjoy searching and finding information before they make decision. They are more concerned with knowing rather than organizing. They also like to find as much as possible information before action is taken.

### 2.2.3 Scoring

The four preferred work behavioural orientations are measured by using the four constructs scales (E-I, P-C, A-B, and S-F). To achieve a score result, for each item, respondents are asked to choose between two alternatives on the basis of their agreement or disagreement on each of the four constructs. No neutral option is available and the respondent must choose one or other of the alternatives, and indicate the strength of his/her preference for that option over the alternative. Each of the constructs (Extroverted/Introverted (E-I), Practical/Creative (P-C), Analytical/Beliefs (A-B), and Structured/Flexible (S-F) is measured by 15 randomly ordered items of the TMI (Table 5 in Appendix 1). Additionally, some items are randomly reverse scored. Each item has a possible score ranging from -1, -2, +1, and +2. The final score is for each construct obtained by adding up the items. Items for each construct are listed in Table 5 (in Appendix 1).



The possible resulting scores will range from 30 for the first pole in each pair through to 0, which represents a balance between the two poles, through to 30 for the opposite pole as illustrated in Figure 1 (Davies, 1988). A respondent's score is given as the first letter of the appropriate pole signifying the direction of the preference and a number signifying the "magnitude of the preference". This is repeated for each scale, resulting in four "preference scores". For example: a person given scores of E-20, C-5, B-10 and F-11 has endorsed more of the Extrovert responses than the Introvert, more of the Creative than Practical responses, more of the Beliefs-based than the Analytical and more of the Flexible than the Structured responses. Because the magnitude of the E-I score is higher than the P-C score it could be said, with more confidence, that this person is more Extroverted (rather than Introverted) than to say he/she is more Creative (rather than Practical). The questionnaire is provided in Appendix 2.

The special case of a respondent scoring "0 (zero)" on a construct causes some difficulties in assigning a particular preference. In order to overcome this difficulty, the computer program refers back to several questions which have been found to be good single indicators of the appropriate scale, and uses these to assign the preference score. Then an individual's major role preference is determined by the first letter of his/her four TMI scores; in this case the magnitude of the number does not make any difference (Davies, 1988).

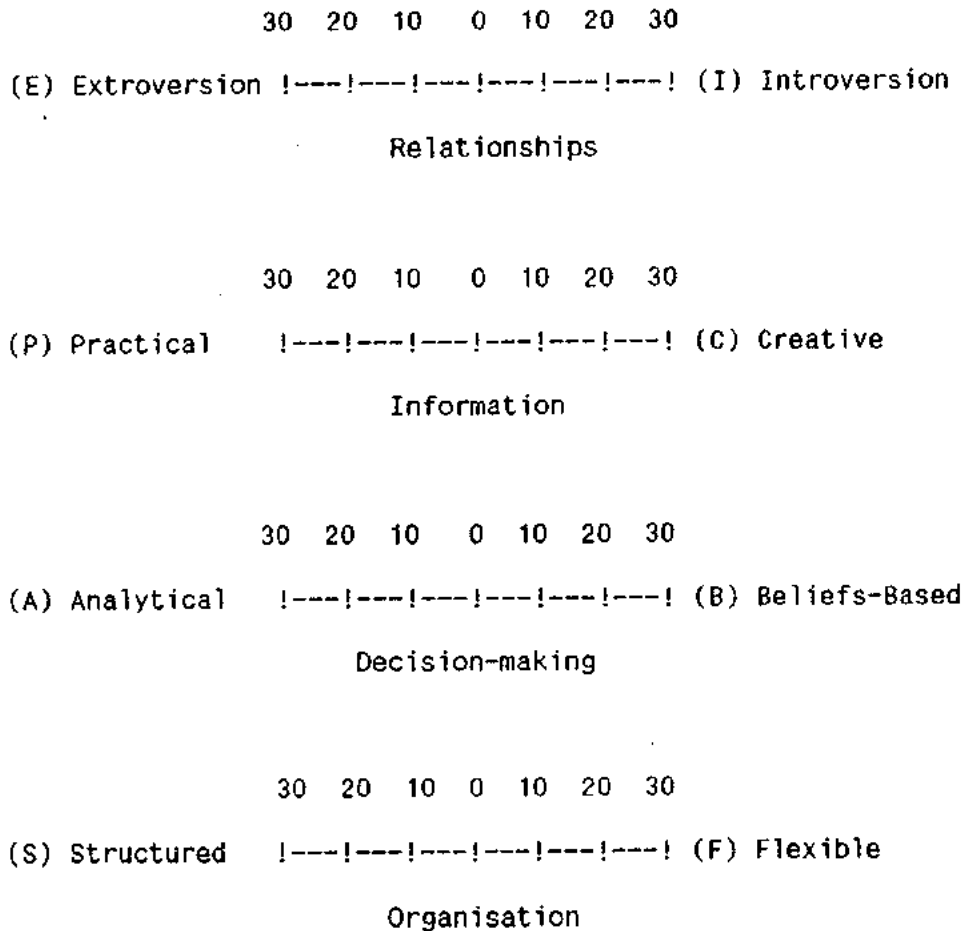


Figure 1. The TMI Constructs Scale. From "Team Management Systems" by Davies, 1988, p 11. Copyright by R.V. Davies. Reprinted with permission.

#### 2.2.4 Reliability and Validity.

Correlations between the four TMI construct scales had shown that the four constructs scales of the Team Management Index are relatively independent (Margerison & McCann, 1991). The correlation matrix of construct scale scores revealed slight to moderate relationships: E-I is moderately negatively related to P-C (-.34) while P-C is moderately positively related to A-B and S-F (.32 and .32). A-B is moderately positively related to S-F (.32) while E-I and S-F are fairly independent (-.13). The two most closely related scales could be considered to be relatively independent (Margerison & McCann, 1991).

However, Margerison and McCann (1991) have not reported any confidence levels for these findings.

Furthermore, reliability estimates were calculated in Table 6 by Margerison and McCann (1991) and Table 7 for the present study.

Table 6

Reliability results

Construct scale	Alpha	split-half	KR-20
Extroversion-			
Introversion	.83	.81	.81
Practical-			
Creative	.85	.88	.83
Analytical-			
Belief based	.86	.86	.85
Structured			
Flexible	.80	.84	.77

Note. Margerison and McCann (1991)

In the present study, alpha coefficients were also conducted separately for the Australian and Indonesian samples. From the results (Table 7), it can be seen that the reliability results for the Australian sample were higher than for the Indonesian. It maybe that the results were affected by the language because the original English language questionnaire was used for both samples.

Table 7

Alpha Coefficient Reliability for Both Samples

Construct scale	Australia (n=126)	Indonesia (n=126)
Extroversion-		
Introversion	.80	.67
Practical-		
Creative	.85	.72
Analytical-		
Belief based	.79	.61
Structured-		
Flexible	.77	.57

It appears that so far, the factor analysis have not been conducted on the TMI. However, in order to investigate the four constructs scale, factor analysis was conducted in the present study. The factor analysis in Table 14-17 (Appendix 6) showed that there were four factors derived from three construct scales (P-C, A-B, and S-F) and five factors derived from one construct scales (E-I). The major factor loadings for each of the construct scales were found to be consistent with the basic principle of the TMI. For example, relationship factor was found to be the major factor in E-I construct scale; information factor was found to be the major factor in P-C construct scale; decision making was found to be the major factor in A-B construct scale; and organisation was found to be the major factor in S-F construct scale (Margerison & McCann, 1991). However, it appears that

each construct scale also consisted of the other three factors, which according to the developer of the TMI measurement (Margerison & McCann, 1991) belongs to other construct scale. For example, the P-C construct scale, according to Margerison and McCann (1991), is supposed to measure only the gathering information. But, according to the present finding, it is found that the P-C construct scale also consists of decision making, relationship, and organisation factors (Table 15). This is not a very good indication of validity construct, as it is usually expected that each construct scale could derive only one factor (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989).

#### 2.2.5 The preferred role types.

The preferred role types are derived from the combination score of the preferred work behavioural orientations. The scoring of the TMI is based on the four preferred work behavioural orientations, Margerison and McCann (1984) then derive eight preferred role types, which are a result of the combination of the sixteen preferred work behavioural orientations, as be seen in Figure 2. From the sixteen combinations, then eight preferred role types are generated (Margerison & McCann, 1991). As the preferred role types are derived from the labelling of preferred work behavioural orientations, the data are categorical.

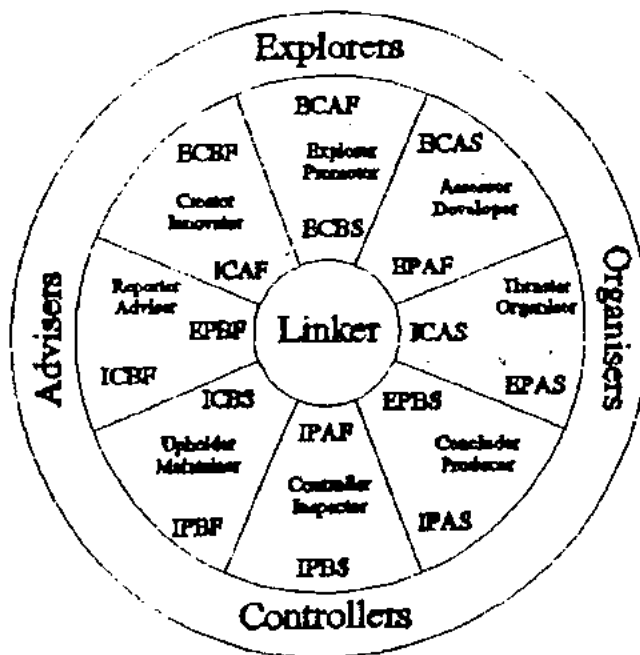


Figure 2. The Team Management Wheel. From "Team Management, Understanding How People Work Together", by Margerison & McCann, 1991, p 58.

Definitions. The explanation for each preferred role types can be seen in the Appendix 3. However, to gain some insights into each of the role preferences, the following is the summary of each role (Margerison & McCann, 1984, McCann & Margerison, 1985, Davies, 1988):

Reporter-Advisers. Reporter-Advisers are excellent at generating and providing information for the team and are very invaluable as advisers to the team, providing time is available.

Creator-Innovators. Creator-Innovators are people who have imagination and are good at initiating new ideas or concepts in which they are usually very independent and future oriented.

Explorer-Promoters. Explorer-Promoters are usually excellent at taking up and introducing new ideas into the organisation, and excellent at seeing the wide picture of the problem.

Assessor-Developers. Assessor-Developers like challenges and enjoy to

experiment with new ideas. They have a strong analytical approach and interest in developing an innovation , but usually are not interested in producing it in the regular procedure.

Thruster-Organisers. Thruster-Organisers are the people who will make things happen, as their concern is more with producing and action resulting out of ideas.

Concluder-Producers. Concluder-Producers are very practical people. Their strength is in setting up plans and standard systems so that they can achieve their work according to the plans.

Controller-Inspectors. Controller-Inspectors are reflective people who enjoy doing detailed work and have a high concern for establishing and enforcing rules and regulation.

Upholder-Maintainers. Upholder-Maintainers are usually people with strong convictions about the way things should be done. Their tasks are usually related to maintaining and consolidating both the physical side of work and the social side.

Reliability and validity. As the preferred role types profile is derived from the combination of the preferred work behavioural orientation results, then reliability is also based upon the previous results (Table 6 and 7). The founders of the TMI (Margerison & McCann, 1991) admit that the TMI validity is still an ongoing activity. Nevertheless, some estimation of validity was conducted by Davies (1988), who examined the relationship between preferred role types and people types of work. From his results it can be said that there is a relationship between role preferences and people's types of work (work functions). For example, among managers working in production, construction or control areas, 41 percent were Concluder-Producers, while only 3 percent were Explorer-Promoters (Margerison & McCann, 1991). A chi-square procedure was also performed to

test the findings, and it was found that the findings were significant at  $p < .05$  (Margerison & McCann, 1991) for the relationship between preferred role types and work functions.

### 2.3 Procedure

Indonesian respondents were asked to fill out the questionnaires. Subjects from Indonesia were chosen from 6 MBA schools in Jakarta, as most MBA students hold managerial positions. Some filled out the questionnaire during the course while others took it home and brought it back after completion. Each subject received explanations by letter and orally (where possible), that the study's would be reported as group's results not individual. It was emphasised that their participation was entirely voluntary and that the information they provided would be treated confidentially and used only for research purposes. The questionnaires were in the original English language version, as one of the requirements of the MBA course is that the participants have to master English language. Nevertheless, explanations in Indonesian language were given to provide clarification for some statements.

Australian respondents ranged from MBA students to career men and women. The people were selected from a pool of data that had been gathered by the Team Management Services from management development courses. Out of that number 126 respondents were selected as they were the close match with the characteristics of the Indonesian sample.

### 2.4 Data Analysis

To compare the Extroversion-Introversion (E-I), Practical-Creative (P-C), Analytical-Beliefs (A-B) and Structured-Flexible (S-F) constructs scales of the two groups (Australian and Indonesian), the data were analysed using MANOVA (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). MANOVA (Multivariate



Analysis of Variance) is a generalisation of analysis of variance to a situation in which there are several dependent variables (DV) and they are all measured on the same scale. A minimum data set for MANOVA has one or more independent variables (IV), each with two or more levels, and two or more DV for each subject within each combination of IV. The purpose of MANOVA is to test whether there are mean differences among groups on a combination. One of the purpose of this study is to find the differences between the Australian and Indonesian managers on the four construct scales, as stipulated in the hypothesis. In addition, the Dependent Variables were correlated with each other (Table 8). So, based on the above discussion, the MANOVA analysis is used, with the four construct scales as DV and the Australian and Indonesian managers as IV.

Furthermore, to analyse the differences between Australian and Indonesian managers on the preferred role types, Multiway Frequency Analysis or loglinear analysis was used (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). This method was used because the relationship among categorical variables (the relationship of the preferred role types with the country of origin and demographic factors) was to be analysed. In addition, with this method, the association between variables as well as the effect of the variables can also be detected. The purpose of this study is to explore the distribution of the preferred role types between the two countries, in which the preferred role types and the managers are both discrete variables. Furthermore, the present study is also trying to take into account possible confounding demographic variables besides the country background, such as managerial level, sex, age and work functions, as those factors are also important in the way people choose their role preferences. So, based on the assumptions about the loglinear analysis, then the log linear method is used.

## Results

### 3.1 Diagnostics

Prior to the data analysis, the four construct scales (E-I, P-C, A-B, and S-F) were examined through various SPSSx programs for accuracy of data entry, missing values, and fit between their distributions and the assumptions of multivariate analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). There were no cases deleted, nor transformation conducted as the outliers detected were not significant. As a result, all cases ( $n=252$ ) were analysed. In addition, investigation of the correlation of the four construct scales was also conducted (Table 8). The data were thus suitable for MANOVA, as inter-correlations occurred between E-I and A-B, P-C and S-F, and A-B and S-F.

Table 8

Correlation of the Four Construct Scales

Variable	E-I	P-C	A-B	S-F
E-I	-			
P-C	-.208*	-		
A-B	-.577**	.249*	-	
S-F	-.161	.496**	.418**	-

\*  $p < .05$     \*\*  $p < .01$

### 3.2 Preferred Work Behavioural Orientation Analysis

In order to compare the two groups on their preferred work behavioural orientations, MANOVA was used. The multivariate  $F$ -tests

revealed that significant differences did not occur (Wilks  $F = 2.297$ ;  $df = 4$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Hence, the hypotheses were not confirmed for preferred work behavioural orientation. Table 9 shows the mean scores for each country's managers on the four construct scales of the TMI.

Table 9

MANOVA Analysis of Four Construct Scales of Australian and Indonesian Managers, with Univariate F-tests.

Construct scale	Australia		Indonesia		df	F
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
E - I	-.294	11.496	.484	8.941	1.250	.3593
P - C	1.095	11.300	-2.238	8.474	1.250	7.0175*
A-B	13.770	8.636	12.698	6.830	1.250	1.1932
S-F	6.524	9.989	6.643	7.183	1.250	.3429

$p < .01$

Table 9 above shows that there is a significant univariate difference on P-C scale. However, as the Wilks multivariate test of significance for the overall country effect has not supported the result, the above finding in Table 9 cannot be interpreted. Furthermore, in order to compare the profile of Australian and Indonesian managers on the four construct scales developed by Margerison & McCann (1991), which has been discussed previously in the Method section (Figure 1), the results shown in Table 9 were converted to profiles (Figure 3).

From Table 9 and Figure 3, it can be seen that the E-I and the P-C scales are clustered around the midpoint of the scales (zero). The A-B scale shows a preference for the Analytical pole over the Beliefs pole. The S-F scale shows a smaller preference for the Structured over the

Flexible pole. Although non significant, the result indicates a preference by the samples of both Australian and Indonesian managers for analytical rather than belief-based decision-making and structured rather than flexible work organisation.

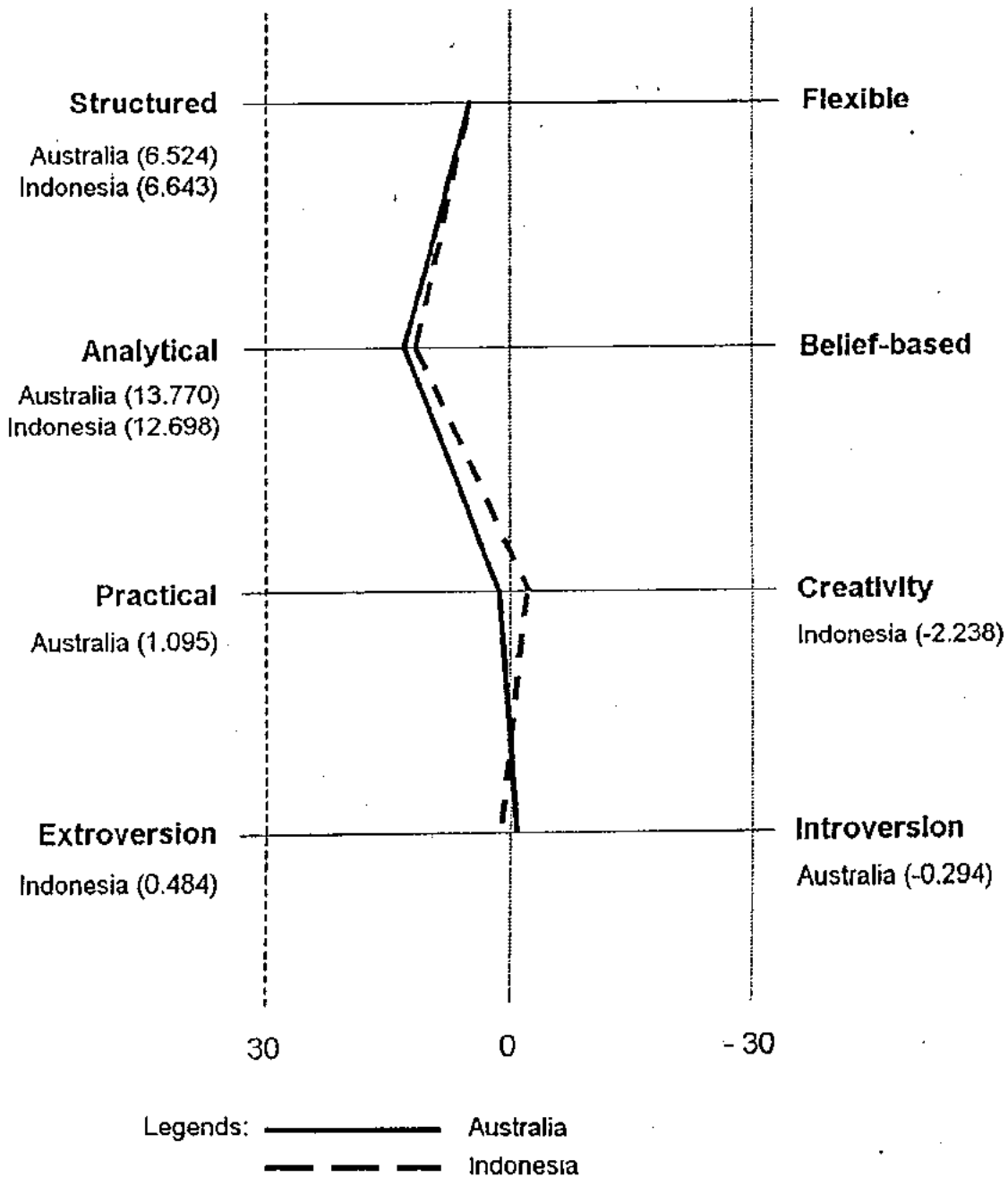


Figure 3. Profile of Australian and Indonesian managers on the four construct scales.

Although, the t-test, indicated that the differences were not significant, but in order to give a picture of each country's profile, the following will discuss the nonsignificant results. The results show a difference in the mean scores on E-I and P-C scales, which shows that Australian managers are more practical and Indonesian managers are more creative. The results also show that Australian managers are more introverted and Indonesian managers are extroverted, as depicted in Table 9 and Figure 3.

Based on the above findings, the hypotheses stipulated in the present study were not confirmed. Hence, Australian managers are not more extroverted, creative, analytical, and flexible than Indonesian managers. In general, the findings tentatively suggest that in both cultures (Australia & Indonesia) managers' self perceived preferred work behavioural orientations are similar.

Furthermore, in order to investigate any confounding effects of managerial level, sex, age and job functions on the four construct scales, MANOVA analysis was again conducted. The results are presented in Table 10 (Appendix 3). No significant effect was found for country or sex in relation to the four construct scales, nor there were significant effects found for interactions between country and sex.

No significant finding was found on the main effects of country or managerial level in relation to the four construct scales, and no significant finding was found on the interaction effect between country and managerial level.

There was a significant main effect of job function on the four construct scales (Wilks  $F= 1.714$ ;  $df= 28$ ,  $p < .05$ ), with no significant finding was found on the interaction effect between country and function. From the above findings, it appears that there is an effect of people's function regardless of their country's background on the preferred work

behavioural orientations. In other words, it can be said that there is a relationship between job functions and preferred work behavioural orientations.

No significant finding was found on the main effects of country or age grouping in relation to the four construct scales. Nor there were the significant findings found on interaction effect between country and age grouping.

### 3.3 Preferred Role Types

In order to test the hypotheses about the distribution of the preferred role types between Australian and Indonesian managers, the combination of hiloglinear and loglinear method was used to test the hypothesis, because the data were categorical. Table 11 shows the percentages of Australian and Indonesian managers in each preferred role types. The Chi-square test was used to test the significance of the findings. The test indicated that the distributions were not significantly different ( $\chi^2 = 10.364$ ,  $df=7$ ,  $p = .17$ ). Table 11 shows that there were 4 cells out of 16 (25%) with expected frequency  $< 5$ , which according to Tabachnick and Fidell (1989) render results uninterpretable.

In order to further investigate the association and any confounding effects of other demographical factors, hiloglinear was conducted (Table 12, Appendix 4). The results in Table 12 show that the association between preferred role types and country were not significant ( $\chi^2 = 11.109$ ,  $df=7$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

Table 11

The Distribution of Preferred Role Types

Preferred Role Types	Australia		Indonesia	
	<u>n</u>	%	<u>n</u>	%
Reporter-Adviser	0	0 %	2	1.59 %
Creator-Innovator	13	10.32 %	5	3.97 %
Explorer-Promoter	8	6.35 %	11	8.73 %
Assessor-Developer	27	21.43 %	35	27.78 %
Thruster-Organiser	37	29.36 %	38	30.16 %
Concluder-Producer	30	23.81 %	31	24.60 %
Controller-Inspector	8	6.35 %	3	2.38 %
Upholder-Maintainer	3	2.38 %	1	.79 %
Total	126	100.00 %	126	100.00 %

As a result of the present findings, none of the following hypotheses is supported. Hence, the roles of Reporter-Advisers, Creator-Innovators, Explorer-Promoters, Assessor-Developers, Thruster-Organisers, Concluder-Producers, Controller-Inspectors and Upholder-Maintainers were not found more often among either Indonesian or Australian managers. The results have clearly demonstrated that there is no statistically significant difference between the managers in the two countries regarding their preferred role types.

The hiloglinear analysis showed that there were no significant effect

or association found with other variables, such as: sex and preferred role types; age and preferred role types or functions and preferred role types.

However, a significant difference ( $df=14$ ,  $\chi^2=32.571$ ,  $p < .01$ ) for respondents from both countries was found between managerial level and preferred role types (Table 12).

The distribution of preferred role types among managerial level in both countries is provided in Table 13. The results show that among the top level managers ( $n=80$ ), the role of Assessor-Developers was found to be the most preferred (11.11%), whilst the role of Upholder-Maintainers (.79%), Reporter-Advisers (.79%) and Creator Innovators (.79%) were the least preferred. Among the middle level managers ( $n=110$ ), the role of Thruster-Organisers was found to be the most preferred (14.68%), whilst the role of Reporter-Advisers (0%) were the least preferred. Among the low level managers ( $n=62$ ), the role of Thruster-Organisers was the most preferred (8.73%), whilst the role of Controller-Inspectors (0%), Upholder-Maintainers (0%), and Reporter-Advisers (0%) were the least preferred. In other words, it can be said that the role of Reporter-Advisers is the least preferred by the managers at all levels, while the role of Thruster-Organisers was the most preferred by both the middle and low level managers. Hence, although one's country did not affect preferred role types, one's managerial level did.



Table 13

The Distribution of Preferred Role Types across Managerial Level by country

Preferred Role Types	Managerial level					
	Top		Middle		Low	
	<u>n</u>	(%)	<u>n</u>	(%)	<u>n</u>	(%)
Explorer-Promoter						
Australia	3	( 2.38 %)	3	( 2.38 %)	2	( 1.59 %)
Indonesia	1	( .79 %)	5	( 3.97 %)	5	( 3.97 %)
Total*	4	( 1.59 %)	8	( 3.17 %)	7	( 2.78 %)
Assessor-Developer						
Australia	13	(10.32 %)	11	( 8.73 %)	3	( 2.38 %)
Indonesia	15	(11.90 %)	12	( 9.52 %)	8	( 6.35 %)
Total*	28	(11.11 %)	23	( 9.13 %)	11	( 4.37 %)
Thruster-Organiser						
Australia	9	( 7.14 %)	18	(14.29 %)	10	( 7.94 %)
Indonesia	7	( 5.56 %)	19	(15.08 %)	12	( 9.52 %)
Total*	16	( 6.35 %)	37	(14.68 %)	22	( 8.73 %)
Concluder-Producer						
Australia	9	( 7.14 %)	10	( 7.94 %)	11	( 8.73 %)
Indonesia	11	( 8.73 %)	15	(11.90 %)	5	( 3.97 %)
Total*	20	( 7.94 %)	25	( 9.92 %)	16	( 6.35 %)
Controller-Inspector						
Australia	3	( 2.38 %)	5	( 3.97 %)	0	( 0 %)
Indonesia	3	( 2.38 %)	0	( 0 %)	0	( 0 %)
Total*	6	( 2.38 %)	5	( 3.97 %)	1	( .40 %)
Upholder-Maintainer						
Australia	1	( .79 %)	2	( 1.59 %)	0	( 0 %)
Indonesia	1	( .79 %)	0	( .79 %)	0	( 0 %)
Total*	2	( .79 %)	2	( 1.79 %)	0	( 0 %)
Reporter-Adviser						
Australia	0	( 0 %)	0	( 0 %)	0	( 0 %)
Indonesia	2	( 1.59 %)	0	( 0 %)	0	( 0 %)
Total*	2	( .79 %)	0	( 0 %)	0	( 0 %)
Creator-Innovator						
Australia	2	( 1.59 %)	6	( 4.76 %)	5	( 3.97 %)
Indonesia	0	( 0 %)	4	( 3.17 %)	1	( .79 %)
Total*	2	( .79 %)	10	( 3.97 %)	6	( 2.38 %)

\*  $p < .05$  .

## CHAPTER FOUR

### Discussion

There are differences in cultural characteristics, and these differences will be affected to many areas, such as behaviour, and managerial style. Previous research findings (Hofstede, 1980, 1986), which led to the generation of the hypotheses advanced in this dissertation, were basically based upon differences in cultural characteristics. Although there is considerable evidence of cultural and attitudinal differences among countries, there are limited number of empirical studies (England, 1975; Danandjaya, 1985) which discuss differences in managerial behaviour or personality traits of managers of different ethnic backgrounds, in particular Australian and Indonesian managers. Consequently, the present study aimed to investigate, through cross-cultural comparison, possible differences between Australian and Indonesian managers in respect to their preferred work behavioural orientation and preferred role types. Significant differences were, however, not found in this study.

Though the present study showed no significant differences, however, the possibility of generalizing the results needs to be treated with some cautions. In other words, it can be said that at the present stage the results could only be regarded as preliminary research.

#### 4.1 Specific hypotheses

The aim of the study was to investigate the similarities and differences between Australian and Indonesian managers in their preferred work behavioural and preferred role types, in particular through comparison of the TMI results between the two countries. It

was hypothesized that there would be significant differences between Australian and Indonesian managers. Nevertheless, the results have clearly demonstrated that there is neither statistically significant difference between the managers in the two countries in terms of their preferred work behavioural orientation of Extroversion-Introversion, Practical-Creative, Analytical-Belief, and Structured-Flexible nor in their preferred role types of Assessor-Developer, Upholder-Maintainer, Creator-Innovator, Thruster-Organizer, Explorer-Promoter, Concluder-Producer, Reporter-Adviser, and Controller-Inspector. As a result, none of the stipulated hypotheses was confirmed. The present findings should be taken into consideration, as there are many variables that might be the cause of the findings. Firstly, the construct validity as it was measured by the factor analysis results was not satisfactory. Consequently, it is a possibility that the results reported in the present findings were affected. Secondly, the samples of the research are managers. In this regard, the nature of the managers tasks might be stronger than the cultural differences.

The present study attempted to test the theories of personality which said that cultural background would have an influence on individuals' values, personality and behaviour (Binnie-Dawson, Blowers & Hoosain, 1981). As research by Hofstede (1980, 1984), based on his four dimensions of national culture, showed differences between Australia and Indonesia. However, the research findings show that the four preferred work behavioural orientation (E-I, P-C, A-B, and S-F), as well as the preferred role types expressed by the respondents as discussed in the present study show no significant differences between Australian and Indonesian managers.

There could be several reasons for contradictions between the results obtained in the present study and those speculated in the

hypotheses. One could be due to the nature of the managers' tasks. It could be that both Australian and Indonesian managers were focusing on the tasks of managing rather than on their preferred ways of thinking. Cole (1971) and Kolb (1982) in their study reported that although culture influenced people's way of thinking, however, if complicated by the tasks, culture differences in cognition would not be a significant effect. Hence, it is possible that the lack of differences between Australian and Indonesian manager found in the present study is due to the fact that both groups are performing the same managerial tasks. Another limitation maybe the validity of the instrument. It is expected that only one factor will be derived from each construct scale. In the present study, however, more than one, four, and even five factors were derived from each construct scale. The factor analysis results showed that the major factor is consistent with the basic principle; however, the construct scales also consisted of other factors that should not belong to that factor (Tables 14-17, Appendix 6).

Furthermore, the very limited research on the optic of managerial styles both nationally as well as cross culturally has made it difficult to derive conclusions on differences in managerial style in a cross-cultural setting. However, based on the present findings, it can be speculated that the present findings support the study of Haire et al. (1966), who have stated that there was a very strong and consistent tendency for managers in different countries to express similar beliefs about management. According to Haire et al. (1966), the values, perceptions, and attitudes inherent in the managerial role can be said to universal. They said that to be a manager is to have a philosophy of management much like that of other managers everywhere. Furthermore, they said that as a result of the strong similarities, the national groups, taken as units, tend to be

remarkably similar. Present findings, although based on limited data and therefore not permitting generalization, appear to suggest that a country's cultural background has no significant effect on preferred role types. Which is very unlikely in two such different cultures. So it can be said that, the present findings are likely to support Haire et al. (1966). However, the findings seem to contradict Potter's (1989) argument that organizations and managers vary among themselves, both within and across-cultural borders.

#### 4.2 Non-hypothesised results

The present findings show that significant association (for both countries) found in the present research was that of the managerial level and preferred role types. As a result, it can be speculated that the managerial level might seem to be more important than the country background in influencing managers preferred role types, or it can be said that both groups are performing the same managerial tasks. The present findings appear to support Haire (1966) who said that the managerial role could be said to be universal.

The present findings also show that there is no association or effect of sex on preferred work behavioural orientation and preferred role types, which support the recent work of Connolly (1986) who conducted a comparative study between sex and preferred role type using the TMI as well as the results of Ryan, Watson and Williams (1981) who found that there was no differences between males and females managerial values. Furthermore, the findings of this research show that there is still no association or effect of age on managerial work and preferred role types, which support the results of Corcoran (1987).

The association or effect between job functions and preferred role types as well as preferred work behavioural orientations were

also investigated in the present study. There is a significant association between job functions and preferred work behavioural orientations, however, there is no association between the job functions and preferred role types was found. The present finding seems to contradict results of the previous work of Davies (1986) who showed a clear relationship between the job functions (such as production, finance, personnel) of the managers and their preferred role types. However, his findings only based on Australian samples.

### 4.3 Critique of the study

#### 4.3.1 Critique of the measure.

Some concerns about measurement/questionnaire should be noted. The most important concern related to the questionnaire is its validity and reliability. Although the questionnaire has been used extensively by other researchers (Corcoran, 1987; Connoly, 1986; Davies, 1986), its validity and reliability remains to be established. Many researchers (Corcoran, 1987; Connoly, 1986) as well as the developer of the TMI (Margerison & McCann, 1991) have also discussed the importance of the validity issue, which might be an important factor in the present study, since it could affect the results. As discussed in the Method section, factor analyses of the TMI measure has never been reported, and it was found in the present study that there was more than one factor derived from each construct scale (E-I, P-C, A-B, and S-F) as presented in Tables 14-18 (Appendix 6).

Another concern relates to the language of the instrument. It seems to be usual practice to translate the questionnaire to be used in other cultural areas (Bhagat et al., 1990; Hofstede, 1976; Shenkar & Ronen, 1987), because there is always a possibility that the concepts could be misunderstood. As it seems to be the cause in present study, because it appears the level of reliability is lower

among the Indonesian managers compared to the Australian manager (Table 7). It is speculated that this could be the effect of using version might have created some problems; a different problems would have been faced if the present study used the Indonesian translation. Such a translation would also introduce a source of error of potentially the same size as the values to be measured (Hofstede, 1976).

The other concern is related to cultural values embedded in the Western instrument and English language used in the South East Asian country. It should be noted that in the present study instruments developed in the West were employed to measure Eastern (Shagat et al., 1990; Shenkar & Ronen, 1987). As a result, it could mean that questions based on individual dispositions do not adequately reflect attitudes of Indonesian people, because sometimes the English and/or Western expression will be interpreted differently in Indonesian language.

In addition, the usage of one questionnaire (TMI) alone without a supplementary measure of specific cultural attributes could limit the ability to make comparisons with managers from other countries and therefore preclude the possibility of finding conflicting results on another measure testing similar traits (Roberts, 1970; Such, 1970), because the findings will only based on one measure.

#### 4.3.2 Critique of the procedure

One concern that should be taken into consideration is about the uniformity of procedure. The Australian data for the present study were obtained from the Team Management Service Office, about five years ago, and it was found that 21 Australian managers used the old version of TMI. As some of the questions included in the old version have different wording than the questions intended to express the

same meaning in the new version, consequently, this might have had an effect on the responses given by Australian managers.

Another concern that should be taken into consideration is the way the sample was derived. In the present study, the Indonesian sample was selected from specific population, business managers attending business school in Jakarta. As a result, the group of respondents cannot be considered representative of all managers in Indonesia.

#### 4.4 Future Research

The results obtained in the present study could be verified and/or complemented by conducting studies using other instruments as supplementary. It could be done, for example, by using the Managerial Style Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by McBer Company (Chusmir, 1989) at the same time as the TMI. The managerial Style Questionnaire measures six different managerial approaches, namely Coercive, Authoritative, Affiliative, Democratic, Pace Setting, and Coaching (McBer & Company, 1991). Comparisons and test could then be made to see whether there is any relationship between preferred role types and the managerial style, as well as whether there is any cultural related difference in the results obtained. The MSQ appears to have a better validity as it has been used by researchers (Chusmir, 1989).

Such hypotheses as those tested in the present study could be investigated again in future research with a larger sample, and including controls for educational level of managers and the number of working years. Because, there is also a possibility that the educational level as well as the number of working years will have an effect on the results. Such information is not available about Australian managers in the present data, except for the functional areas.



What should be conducted is further investigation on the TMI measurement. The validity of the measurement should be further investigated. In particular, a detailed analysis should be conducted of the scale items that failed to associate well with the scale they were intended to measure. Furthermore, culture-specific instruments have to be developed and tested, which can be used as a standard questionnaire allowing for the cross-cultural comparisons as intended in the present study.

#### 4.5 Practical Implications

As discussed previously, the awareness and need of cultural understanding are being now widely recognised, as the world is moving toward global economy (Harris & Morran, 1987; Tung & Miller, 1990), and business leaders need to know more about other cultures and value systems in order to achieve an effective results. So, based on the present findings, organizations should be aware that there is a possibility the managerial level (or the position occupied by managers) within the organization will have an effect on which preferred role types in management the manager will choose. Furthermore, the present study is also important for organization in relation to the issues of training, orientation, selection and assigning people overseas. It also appears that there is still a need to gain more cross-cultural understanding among nations, in order to survive in the changing world.

In addition, the achievement of a team process in organizations requires building cultures based upon mutual respect and trust. One way to create this is by gaining cross-cultural perspective. So that people involved can understand each other with a wide variety of views (Sachs, 1990). As the present study considers a cross-cultural setting, it is hoped that it will enrich the knowledge about two

different cultures (Australian and Indonesian), which in turn will enhance the understanding among nations.

#### 4.6 Conclusion

The role-played by culture in the development of the people's way of thinking and behaviour according to many authors (Haire, 1966; Hofstede, 1976, 1980) is likely to be significant. Consequently, differing cultural backgrounds may produce differing patterns of values in comparable areas of behaviour. However, in the present study it was found that there was no significant difference between the two groups of managers on preferred role types as well as on preferred work behavioural orientations. The results might be due to the similarity of the managers in the managerial' roles and tasks, or it also might be affected by other factors such as the validity of the instruments.

In summary, it can be said that undoubtedly further cross-cultural research should be done to confirm the contention expressed here that the preferred work behavioural' orientations and preferred role types are not related to the country or the cultural background but related to the managerial level. Such hypotheses should be investigated again in future research.

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Appendix 1

Listed of items for each construct

Table 5

Listed of items for each construct (Davies, 1988)

Extroversion- Introversion	Practical- Creative	Analytical- Beliefs	Structured- Flexible
06	05	01	02
09	07	03	04
14	15	10	08
16	17	12	11
20	22	18	13
23	26	27	19
25	28	29	21
30	33	31	24
34	37	36	32
38	40	39	35
41	42	43	45
48	44	47	51
50	46	49	54
55	53	52	56
59	58	57	60



Appendix 2

Team Management Index (TMI) Questionnaires

## HOW TO COMPLETE THE TEAM MANAGEMENT INDEX

While there is no set time limit for completion of the Team Management Index, it will normally take approximately 10-15 minutes. Please note that it is *not* a test — there are no right or wrong answers. Each individual has different work preferences, so you should answer according to the way you *prefer* to work, irrespective of your present job, the way you think you ought to work or the way you currently have to work to do your job.

*Before you proceed to answer the 60 questions in the Index, please note carefully the following points:*

- 1) Answer all questions in terms of your work or career — your preferences at home or in your social life may be quite different.
- 2) The questions are 'scored' by deciding which of the statements you agree with (either statement A or statement B). Your decision should be indicated as follows:

If you definitely prefer statement A, your score should be  $\frac{A}{2} \frac{B}{0}$  or

If you definitely prefer statement B, your score should be  $\frac{0}{0} \frac{2}{2}$

If you find it difficult to decide which statement you prefer you would score either:

$\frac{A}{2} \frac{B}{1}$  or

$\frac{1}{1} \frac{2}{2}$

### IMPORTANT SCORING INFORMATION

2 — 0 (or 0 — 2) and 2 — 1 (or 1 — 2) are the only possible combinations for each question. Only whole numbers may be used. Do not allocate half numbers. You *must* make a choice one way or the other, no matter how marginal your decision may be. All questions must be answered.

Example question:

A B

I like the beach — — I like the mountains

Example answers:

A B

$\frac{0}{0} \frac{2}{2}$  Indicates:  
I much prefer the mountains

$\frac{1}{1} \frac{2}{2}$  I prefer the mountains, but like the beach

$\frac{2}{2} \frac{1}{1}$  I prefer the beach, but like the mountains

$\frac{2}{2} \frac{0}{0}$  I much prefer the beach

Please now turn the page and answer all 60 questions in this way.

A B

- |   |       |       |   |
|---|-------|-------|---|
| 1. I like to be convinced by the facts.   | _____ | _____ | I like to be convinced by people's view of what is right and wrong.                             |
| 2. I like to explore many different avenues, even if it means delaying action.                                    | _____ | _____ | I like to make sure that action is implemented quickly to resolve problems.                     |
| 3. I emphasise facts in explaining a decision as people respond best to logic and rationality.                    | _____ | _____ | I emphasise beliefs in explaining decisions as people work harder for things they believe in.   |
| 4. I prefer to work with as much information as possible and will not always be orderly.                          | _____ | _____ | I put a lot of emphasis on working in an orderly way so I know where things are.                |
| 5. I prefer working on complex problems.  | _____ | _____ | I prefer working on straightforward problems.   |
| 6. I find talking things over with others helps me to come to decisions.  | _____ | _____ | I prefer to be left alone to come to decisions.   |
| 7. I actively search out theories.  | _____ | _____ | I'm a practical person and I don't spend much time theorising.                                  |
| 8. I probably take longer than others to make decisions because I like to gather as much information as possible. | _____ | _____ | I am probably quicker to take decisions than others as I like to see action and results.        |
| 9. On balance I am more outgoing and gregarious.  | _____ | _____ | On balance I am more quiet and reflective.  |
| 10. Logical analysis comes first with me.   | _____ | _____ | People's feelings come first with me.   |
| 11. I often change my mind at the last minute.  | _____ | _____ | I attach a high value to planning ahead and dislike changing my mind at the last minute.        |
| 12. When making decisions I often rely on a 'gut feeling' rather than spending much time analysing the situation. | _____ | _____ | When making decisions I usually analyse the situation fully rather than rely on 'gut feelings'. |
| 13. I prefer more of an organising role to an advisory role.  | _____ | _____ | I prefer more of an advisory role to an organising role.  |
| 14. I find it requires a special effort to mix with people I do not know well.                                    | _____ | _____ | I find it relatively easy to mix with people whom I do not know well.                           |
| 15. I prefer possibilities.   | _____ | _____ | I prefer realities.   |

A

B

- |   |       |       |   |
|---|-------|-------|---|
| 16. I like work which involves high public visibility such as making presentations at meetings and conferences. | _____ | _____ | I like work which involves low public visibility where I can do my work in my own way.  |
| 17. People may describe me as 'down-to-earth' because I prefer the commonsense approach.                        | _____ | _____ | People may describe me as having my 'head in the clouds' because I'm often dreaming up new ideas and new ways of changing things. |
| 18. I try to keep my personal feelings to the minimum when business decisions have to be made.                  | _____ | _____ | My personal feelings and beliefs are important influences in my business decisions.   |
| 19. When organising my work, I usually come to temporary decisions and revise them when necessary.              | _____ | _____ | When organising my work, I usually come to a decision and stick to it as far as possible.   |
| 20. In a group at work I would on average talk less than others.  | _____ | _____ | In a group at work I would on average talk more than others.  |
| 21. I plan work to avoid the unexpected wherever possible.  | _____ | _____ | I often leave things unplanned and respond well to the unexpected.  |
| 22. I often come up with new ideas but I don't always know how to make them operationally effective.            | _____ | _____ | I usually know how to make things work but don't always come up with the new ideas.   |
| 23. I'm easy to get to know as I like meeting lots of people.   | _____ | _____ | I'm fairly quiet and people don't always know the real me.  |
| 24. I prefer well laid down rules so that everyone knows what to do and work is completed efficiently.          | _____ | _____ | I prefer fewer rules and procedures so that changes are easier to make when needed.   |
| 25. I come up with my best ideas working in groups.   | _____ | _____ | I come up with my best ideas working by myself.   |
| 26. I emphasise getting ideas.  | _____ | _____ | I emphasise getting facts.  |
| 27. I usually let my heart rule my head.  | _____ | _____ | I usually let my head rule my heart.  |
| 28. Attention to detail is the most important part of the work process.   | _____ | _____ | Attention to creativity is the most important part of the work process.   |
| 29. I think I am basically a person of reason.  | _____ | _____ | I feel basically I tend to rely on my own opinions and views.   |
| 30. I prefer to work in depth on a few issues at a time.  | _____ | _____ | I prefer to work widely with many issues at a time.   |

	A	B	
31. I ask 'Is it fair?'	_____	_____	I ask 'Will it work?'
32. I rarely allow deadlines to be altered.	_____	_____	I often allow deadlines to be altered.
33. I prefer to work on tasks where I can use my existing skills.	_____	_____	I prefer to work on opportunities where I have to develop new skills.
34. When under pressure I put more emphasis on having time for myself to think things through.	_____	_____	When under pressure I put more emphasis on meeting with others to talk things through.
35. I prefer to take things as they come.	_____	_____	I prefer to work to a clear schedule and system.
36. Solutions become clearer to me when I relate them to my beliefs.	_____	_____	Solutions become clearer to me when I relate them to the facts.
37. I usually see the whole problem but often miss the details.	_____	_____	I usually do well with the details of a problem but often find it difficult to see the 'complete picture'.
38. I speak a lot and this helps me think.	_____	_____	I think a lot before I speak.
39. Under pressure, reason must take precedence over personal principles.	_____	_____	Under pressure, personal principles must take precedence over reason.
40. I like to experiment with new ways of doing things.	_____	_____	I like to solve problems in a practical, systematic way.

**QUESTIONS 41-60: WHICH WORD IN EACH PAIR DESCRIBES YOU BEST?  
(SCORE AS FOR QUESTIONS 1-40)**

41. Persuade	_____	_____	Consider
42. Future	_____	_____	Present
43. Question	_____	_____	Faith
44. Imagination	_____	_____	Common sense
45. Orderly	_____	_____	Flexible
46. Production	_____	_____	Research
47. Belief	_____	_____	Reason
48. Concentration	_____	_____	Variety
49. Pragmatic	_____	_____	Principles
50. Talkative	_____	_____	Quiet

	A	B	
51. Unplanned	_____	_____	Planned
52. Feelings	_____	_____	Analysis
53. Creative	_____	_____	Practical
54. Implement	_____	_____	Support
55. Control	_____	_____	Explore
56. Understand	_____	_____	Decide
57. Objective	_____	_____	Subjective
58. Build	_____	_____	Design
59. Careful	_____	_____	Impulsive
60. Action	_____	_____	Information

### RESEARCH QUESTIONS

By providing the following information you will help us with our research work. Your answers are completely confidential.

Full name: \_\_\_\_\_ Years in present functional area: \_\_\_\_\_  
 Sex: \_\_\_\_\_ Age: \_\_\_\_\_ Estimated time spent in management/supervisory and professional/technical activities:

Managing/supervising	_____	%
Professional/technical	_____	%
	100	%

Professional or technical area (if appropriate) (e.g. engineering, accountancy, computing, journalism, secretarial): \_\_\_\_\_

Functional Area: (please tick the one in which you spend most of your time)

Corporate Planning/Development

Personnel

Finance/Accounting

Sales/Marketing/PR

Production/Construction/Control

Design/R&D

Consultancy

Administration

Other (please specify)

Previous functional area (if appropriate):

The total number of all those below you in your part of the organisation. If you do not supervise anyone it is 0. If you supervise two who each supervise ten workers then it is 22.

Total below you:

Levels *between* yourself and the top person in the organisation.

0

1

2

3

4

5 or more

10 or more

Appendix 3  
Explanation of The Preferred Role Types

The Explanation of 8 Preferred Role Types (Margerison & McCann, 1991; Margerison & McCann, 1982; Margerison & McCann, 1984)

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### Reporter-Advisers

Reporter-Advisers are good at generating information and gathering it together in such a way that it can be understood. Such people are usually patient, and are prepared to hold off making a decision until they know as much as they can about the work to be done. Others may feel that they procrastinate and put things off. However, to the Reporter-Adviser it is better to be accurate than put forward advice which later is seen to be in error. Such people are invaluable as "support" members of the team, but they are not likely to be the people who will be sufficiently interested to want to push forward as an organiser. Indeed, their concern is to make sure that the job is done correctly. Usually they are knowledgeable, well-liked people who prefer an advisory role.

### Creator-Innovators

Creator-Innovators are people who have a number of ideas which may well contradict and upset the existing way of doing things. Such people can be very independent and wish to experiment and develop their ideas regardless of the present systems and methods. They therefore need to be treated in such a way that they can pursue their ideas without disrupting the present way of working until their new approaches have been proven. Many organisations therefore set up research and development units (often separated from the production units) which allow people who have the ideas to bring these to fruition. However, every team must have people to develop their ideas and they should be given an opportunity to talk through their views, even though it may seem at the time to be disturbing the existing way of operating.

### Explorer-Promoters

Explorer-promoters are usually excellent at taking up an idea and getting people enthusiastic about it. They enjoy finding out what people outside the organisation are up to and they like to compare any new ideas with what others are doing. They are also good at bringing back contacts and information and resources which can help the innovation move forward. They may not necessarily be good at controlling details, but they are excellent at seeing the wide picture and developing an enthusiasm amongst other people for an innovation. They are very capable of pushing an idea forward even if they are not always the best people to organise and control it. They can be influential, speak easily in public and frequently come up with a lot of options and ideas for tackling problems.



### Assessor-Developers

Assessor-Developers like to have new ideas with which to experiment. They have a strong analytical approach and will enjoy developing prototypes, looking for new markets and testing to see how, when and where the product or service will work. They often make excellent product development managers, or people concerned with assessing new ventures. In a team role they are at their best when given several different possibilities to analyse and develop before a decision is made. They like organising new activities and respond well to such challenges. They are willing to push the idea forward and organise it into a workable scheme. However, once they have shown how to make it work they will not usually be interested in the regular production and control the output.

### Thruster-Organisers

Thruster-Organisers make things happen. Their concern is to produce and action out of ideas, discussion and experiments. They enjoy organising and will always "thrust" forward to make sure results are achieved. They keep pressing for outputs and decisions. Others may have the ideas but it is the Thruster-organiser who pushes for action to get ideas and practice.

They are sometimes prone to impatience. On occasions they might rush into action without getting enough information. Nevertheless, if you want something to happen, give it to a Thruster-Organiser. For them action is the name of the game, even if it does mean that on the way certain "feathers are ruffled"

### Concluder-Producers

Concluder-producers take great pride in producing a product or service to a standard. They will do this on a regular basis and feel that their work is fulfilled if their quotas and plans are met. Indeed, they like working to set procedures and doing things in a regular way. The fact that they produced something yesterday does not mean that they will be bored with producing it tomorrow. This stands in contrast to the Creator-Innovators who dislike doing similar things day after day and want the variety and challenge of doing things differently. To the Concluder-Producer the important thing is to use one's existing skills rather than continually change and learn new ways of doing things. They therefore enjoy reproducing things and achieving the plans that they set.

### Controller-Inspectors

Controller-Inspectors are people who enjoy doing detailed work and making sure that the facts and figures are correct. They will be careful and meticulous. Indeed, one of their great strengths is that they concentrate for long periods of time upon a particular task. This contrasts with the Explorer-Promoters who continually needs a wide variety of tasks. In contrast, the Controller-Inspector wishes to pursue something in depth and make sure that the work is done according to plan in an accurate way. They are extremely valuable, for example, in financial and quality issues where the control and inspection of work is vital.

Upholder-Maintainers

Upholder-Maintainers are very good at making sure the team has a sound basis for operations. They take pride in maintaining both the physical side of work and the social side. Such people can very well become the "conscience" of the team and provide a lot of support and help to team members. They usually have strong views on the way the team should be run, based on their convictions and beliefs. If these are upset, such people can become rather obstinate. However, when they believe in what the team is doing, they can be a tremendous source of strength and energy.

## Appendix 4

## Table 10

MANOVA Summary Table for Main Effects and Interaction Effects  
on the Four Construct-Scales

Table 10

MANOVA Summary Table for Main Effects and Interaction Effects  
on the Four Construct-Scales

Source	df	F	p
Country (C)	4	2.296	.600
Sex (S)	4	.407	.804
Level (L)	8	1.389	.199
Function (F)	28	1.714	.012*
Age (A)	8	1.563	.133
C X S	4	.774	.543
C X L	8	.185	.306
C X F	28	1.241	.186
C X A	8	1.611	.119

\*  $p < .05$

## Appendix 5

Table 12 : Hierarchical Log Linear

Table 12

Hierarchical Log Linear

	df	Partial Chisq	Prob	Iter
RLE*CTY*FNC*SEX*AGE	14	.000	1.0000	5
RLE*CTY*FNC*SEX*LVL	14	.120	1.0000	5
RLE*CTY*FNC*AGE*LVL	28	.687	1.0000	6
RLE*CTY*SEX*AGE*LVL	28	.949	1.0000	4
RLE*FNC*SEX*AGE*LVL	28	.117	1.0000	5
CTY*FNC*SEX*AGE*LVL	4	.000	1.0000	5
RLE*CTY*FNC*SEX	7	1.941	.9630	5
RLE*CTY*FNC*AGE	14	3.381	.9982	6
RLE*CTY*SEX*AGE	14	.056	1.0000	6
RLE*FNC*SEX*AGE	14	1.271	1.0000	7
CTY*FNC*SEX*AGE	2	.006	.9971	6
RLE*CTY*FNC*LVL	14	9.466	.8001	5
RLE*CTY*SEX*LVL	14	7.033	.9334	5
RLE*FNC*SEX*LVL	14	1.1542	1.0000	6
CTY*FNC*SEX*LVL	2	.179	.9145	6
RLE*CTY*AGE*LVL	28	11.595	.9973	6
RLE*FNC*AGE*LVL	28	5.340	1.0000	10
CTY*FNC*AGE*LVL	4	.000	1.0000	7
RLE*SEX*AGE*LVL	28	.080	1.0000	7
CTY*SEX*AGE*LVL	4	4.389	.3559	5
FNC*SEX*AGE*LVL	4	.043	.9998	6
RLE*CTY*FNC	7	4.213	.7550	8
RLE*CTY*SEX	7	14.549	.0422	6
RLE*FNC*SEX	7	6.020	.4373	9
CTY*FNC*SEX	1	3.845	.0499	8
RLE*CTY*AGE	14	21.136	.0982	6
RLE*FNC*AGE	14	4.273	.9936	10
CTY*FNC*AGE	2	.551	.7592	9
RLE*SEX*AGE	14	4.136	.9946	7
CTY*SEX*AGE	2	.478	.7875	9
FNC*SEX*AGE	2	.002	.9991	9
RLE*CTY*LVL	14	14.689	.3997	7
RLE*FNC*LVL	14	10.625	.7152	9
CTY*FNC*LVL	2	2.021	.3640	9
RLE*SEX*LVL	14	16.227	.2997	6
CTY*SEX*LVL	2	.927	.6291	8
FNC*SEX*LVL	2	3.922	.1407	9
RLE*AGE*LVL	28	28.572	.4345	6
CTY*AGE*LVL	4	10.098	.0388	9
FNC*AGE*LVL	4	5.240	.2636	9
SEX*AGE*LVL	4	1.912	.7520	9

Table continued.