

WESTERN CULTURAL VALUES AND ITS IMPLICATIONS ON MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

A.M. INUN JARIYA

Senior Lecturer

Department of Accountancy and Finance

Faulty of Management and Commerce

South Eastern University of Sri Lanka

Oluvil, Sri Lanka

Email: inunjariya@yahoo.com / jariyaam@seu.ac.lk

Tel: +94777105988

ABSTRACT

The objective of the study is to investigate and analyze the influence of Western cultural values on human resource, marketing, finance and general management practices. This paper is expected to answer the importance question: Are Human Resources Management, Marketing, Finance and General Management practices influenced by Western culture or not? It is generally accepted that the practices of management is considered to be universal until Hofstede (1980) published the seminal work: Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work Related Value in 1980. Hofstede's work is the most popular in cross culture management studies so that his framework in national culture and few other models such as Trompenaars (1997; 2004,) and Schwartz (1994; 1999) were used in this study.

This study was done by using the Literature survey method. The results of literature survey indicate that the national culture dimensions of Western culture tend high for individualism and masculinity and low for power distance, and uncertainty avoidance. The literature survey reveals that most of the market behaviors are culture-bound. Both consumer behavior and business practices are performed to a large extent by the culture within which they take place. Therefore, in order to match the marketing mix with consumer preferences, purchasing behavior, and product-use patterns in a potential market, marketers must have a thorough understanding of the cultural environment of that market. The study shows that the western culture influences variety of general management practices, including strategic decision making, leadership style, planning, organizing and management controlling.

Finally it reveals that western cultural values influence HRM practices such as selection, promotion, performance evaluation, compensation package, conflict solving, and reward and communication systems. Further this study shows that western culture and organizational culture of those countries influence on some of human resource, marketing, Finance and general management practices. Therefore, this study supports the divergence theory that management practices are culture-bound.

Key Words: Western Cultural Values, Management Practices, Cultural Implications

INTRODUCTION

Business leaders and managers need to obtain results from the people involved in the socio cultural entity, which is organized for a specific purpose, mainly the wealth maximization in a commercial context. Business leaders are entrusted with the responsibility of getting the best out to the Human Resources, which is called the most valuable asset of the business organization. Social aspect of business organizations demand the managers to operate in an environment, where different individuals have their own goals and objectives which are widely diverse and social organization having collective expectations, goals, and objectives. Such objectives may fall in alignment with the organization or may be neutral if not contradicting. Unique situation that the business leaders will identify as challenging is to foster an environment where everyone will be having a common direction to achieve the organizational goals while they satisfy their individual goals and objectives, and satisfying collective objectives in social settings.

In the environment described above, people will have unique cultural manifestations that managers will have to understand, operate, and facilitate while the functions of management are applied in the business context.

Since more than two decades ago, a number of distinguished management and social scientists questioned the applicability of Western, especially American management theory abroad (Hofstede, 1980, Laurent, 1986). Hofstede, for example, argued that western management theories reflect the cultural environment in which they were written. Therefore, it can be concluded that western management can not be separated from western culture.

Meanwhile, Laurent (1986) stated that: "a comparative analysis across national culture brings the startling evidence that there is no such thing as Management with a capital M. The art of managing and organizing has no homeland. In additions, Laurent (1986) said that every culture has developed through its own history some specific and unique insight into the managing of organization and their human resources. Every culture has also developed specific and unique blindspots in the art of managing and organizing. The lie the still largely undiscovered opportunities and threats of international management.

The notion that management practices are universal has been questioned. A number of management policy that successfully practiced in a certain country, may not successfully applied in another country.

Globalization is an inevitable process in the 21st Century, and so is the cross-culturalization. On the one hand, the world is becoming more homogeneous, and distinctions between national markets are not only fading but, for some products, will disappear altogether. This means that management is now a world-encompassing discipline. However, on the other hand, the differences among nations, regions, and ethnic groups in terms of cultural factors are far from distinguishing but become more obvious. It is suggested that the claims for "a right to culture" by national states in recent years can be important criteria for trade policy making, intellectual property rights protection, and the resource for national interests. The last summit of francophone nations in the 20th century called for a "cultural exception" in GATT/WTO rules governing trade of goods. The claims will not only affect public policy in these nations but international business rules. It might initiate a worldwide cultural protectionism for trans-national management while we are approaching the globalization economically in the 21st Century. From a management point of view it is very important for managers realize that as the world becomes globalized the cultural imperative is upon them; Markets in the 21st century are world and yet cross-cultural markets. To be aware of and sensitive to the cultural differences is a major premise for the success in the 21st Century business organizations.

The objective of the study is to investigate and analyze the influence of Western cultural values on Human resource, Marketing, Finance and General management practices. The paper is expected to answer the importance question: Are HRM, Marketing, Finance and General Management practices influenced by Western culture or not? It is generally accepted that the practices of management is considered to be universal until Hofstede (1980) published the seminal work: Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work Related Value in 1980. Hofstede's work is the most popular in cross culture management studies so that his framework in national culture and few other models such as Trompenaars (1997; 2004,) and Schwartz (1994; 1999) were used in this study.

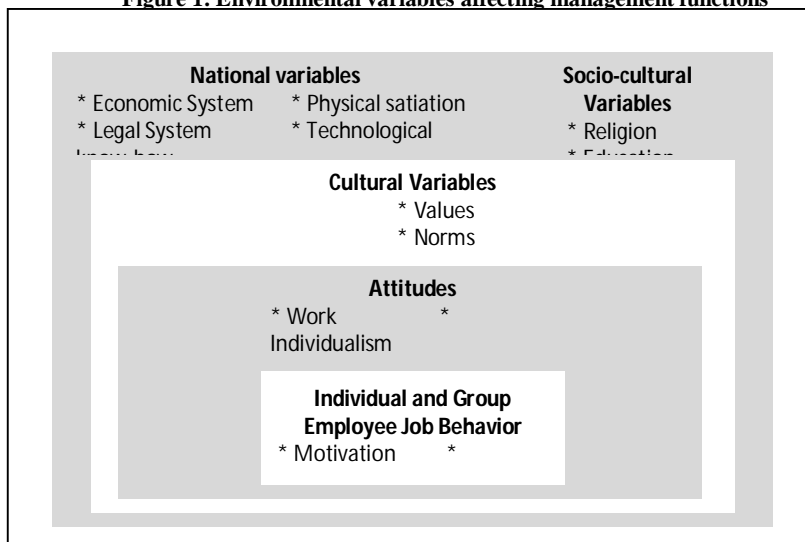
CULTURE AND ITS IMPACT ON ORGANIZATIONS

Definition of culture is not fixed, but broadly agreed upon as "the pervasive and shared beliefs, norms, values, and symbols that guide everyday life transmitted by symbols, stories and rituals often taken-for-granted", "an integrated pattern of human knowledge, belief, and behaviour that depends upon the capacity for symbolic thought and social learning and "the set of shared attitudes, values, goals, and practices that characterizes an institution, organization or group".

The starting point of culture is the society of an individual. As generally understood, the culture of a society comprises the shared values, understandings, assumptions, and goals that are learned from earlier generations, imposed by present members of a society, and passed on to succeeding generations. This shared outlook results, in large part, in common attitudes, codes of conduct, and expectations that subconsciously guide and control certain norms of behavior. One is born into, not with, a given culture, and gradually internalizes its subtle effects through the socialization process. Culture results in a basis for living grounded in shared communication, standards, codes of conduct, and expectations. Over time, cultures evolve as societies adapt to transitions in their external and internal environments and relationships.

A manager assigned to a foreign subsidiary, for example, must expect to find large and small differences in the behavior of individuals and groups within that organization. As depicted in Figure-1, these differences result from the societal, or socio-cultural, variables of the culture, such as religion and language, in addition to prevailing national variables, such as economic, legal, and political factors. National and socio cultural variables, thus, provide the context for the development and perpetuation of cultural variables. These cultural variables, in turn, determine basic attitudes toward work, time, materialism, individualism, and change. Such attitudes affect an individual's motivation and expectations regarding work and group relations, and they ultimately affect the outcomes that can be expected from that individual.

Figure 1: Environmental variables affecting management functions



Adopted from: Deresky, H (2002)

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Compared to societal culture, which is often widely held within a region or nation, organizational culture varies a great deal from one organization, company, institution, or group to another. Organizational culture represents those expectations, norms, and goals held in common by members of that group. For a business example, consider the oft-quoted comparison between IBM—considered traditionally to be very formal, hierarchical, and rules-bound, and with its employees usually in suits—and Apple Computer, whose organizational culture is very organic, or “loose” and informal, with its employees typically wearing casual clothes and interacting informally.

CULTURAL VARIABLE

Harris and Moran identified eight categories that form the subsystems in any society. This systems approach to understanding cultural and national variables—and their effects on work behaviour—is consistent with the model shown in figure-1 that shows those categories as a broad set of influences on societal culture. According to Harris and Moran the eight categories of cultural variables are kinship, education, economy, politics, religion, association, health and recreations.

Kinship - A kinship system is the system adopted by a given society to guide family relationships.

Education- The formal or informal education of workers in a foreign firm, received from whatever source, greatly affects the expectations placed on those workers in the workplace. It also influences managers' choices about recruitment and staffing practices, training programs, and leadership styles. Training and development programs, for example, need to be consistent with the general level of educational preparation in that country.

Economy- Whatever the economic system, the means of production and distribution in a society (and the resulting effects on individuals and groups) has a powerful influence on such organizational processes as sourcing, distribution, incentives, and repatriation of capital.

Politics - The system of government in a society, whether democratic, communist, or dictatorial, imposes varying constraints on an organization and its freedom to do business.

Religion - The spiritual beliefs of a society are often so powerful that they transcend other cultural aspects. Religion commonly underlies both moral and economic norms.

Associations- Many and various types of associations arise out of the formal and informal groups that make up a society. Whether these associations are based on religious, social, professional, or trade affiliations, managers should be familiar with them and the role they may play in business interactions.

Health- The system of health care in a country affects employee productivity, expectations, and attitudes toward physical fitness and its role in the workplace. These expectations will influence managerial decisions regarding health care benefits, insurance, physical facilities, sick days, and so forth.

Recreation - Closely associated with other cultural factors, recreation includes the way in which people use their leisure time, as well as their attitudes toward leisure and their choice of with whom to socialize. Workers' attitudes toward recreation can affect their work behavior and their perception of the role of work in their lives.

CULTURAL VALUE DIMENSIONS

Cultural variables result from unique sets of shared values among different groups of people. Most of the variations between cultures stem from underlying value systems, which cause people to behave differently under similar circumstances. **Values** are a society's ideas about what is good or bad, right or wrong—such as the widespread belief that stealing is immoral and unfair. Values determine how individuals will probably respond in any given circumstance. As a powerful component of a society's culture, values are communicated through the eight subsystems just described above and are passed from generation to generation. Interaction and pressure among these subsystems (or more recently from foreign cultures) may provide the impetus for slow change. The dissolution of the Soviet Union and the formation of the Commonwealth of Independent States is an example of extreme political change resulting from internal economic pressures and external encouragement to change.

Hofstede's book “Cultures' Consequences” (1980; 2001) was a major breakthrough in the application of the national culture construct to organizations. Hofstede (1998) highlights that cultural differences can be interpreted as differences in shared values. Hofstede defines values as “broad tendencies to prefer certain states of affairs over others”. His work (1998) is notable for its contribution towards theoretical justification for expecting cultural differences, and proposed model which can be used to identify what differences should be expected. Hofstede model highly regarded as a prominent model which contemporize research feat (Redding, 1994). Hofstede's views are supported by Drenth and Den Hartog (1998). They view the issue as the observation of different characteristics or patterns of national organizations and finding out if the differences are due to different national cultures. Hofstede model was widely cited and used in many articles in the areas of marketing and advertising, (Blodgett, J.G., et al., 2001; Roth, 1995; Gregory and Munch, 1997), management (Pheng and Leong, 1999; Harris and Kumra, 2000; Muller & Turner, 2005; Muller et al, 2007) and also in information technology (Ford et al, 2003).

Table 1: Summary of worldwide different cultural models

Researchers	Survey	Title	Dimensions
Hofstede (1980, 1989; 2005)	A survey on over 100 000 IBM employees from 50 countries	National culture's influence on the values in the workplace	5 dimensions power distance individualism vs collectivism uncertainty avoidance masculinity vs femininity long-term vs short-term orientation
Hall (1989)	A university-based research in many countries	Culture and Communicative Interactions	Comparison of High context and low context communication
Schwartz (1994; 1999)	A survey on teachers and students from 49 countries	Culture's influences on individual values	2 individual level and 3 cultural level dimensions openness to change, self-transcendence to self-enhancement embeddedness vs. autonomy hierarchy vs. egalitarianism mastery vs. harmony
Trompenaars (1997; 2004)	A survey on 15 000 employees from almost 50 countries	National culture's influence on problem solving approach at micro/individual level	7 dimensions universalism vs. particularism, affective vs. neutral individualism vs. communitarianism achieved status vs. ascribed status specific vs. diffuse time as sequence vs. time as synchronization internal control vs. external control
Chang and Ding (1995)	A survey in 22 Asian countries	National culture influence on industrial buying behavior	4 dimensions Integration Confucian work dynamics Human heartedness Moral discipline
House et al (1997; Javidan M & House RJ. (2001)	GLOBE study: A Survey on 18,000 middle managers from 62 countries	National culture affects organizational behavior	9 dimensions: 5 from Hofstede, 4 new Future orientation Power distance Uncertainty avoidance Individualism-Collectivism Masculinity-femininity; and Performance orientation Humane treatment Family collectivism Assertiveness
Shore & Cross (2005)	Case studies of project groups from EU, Japan, Russia and US	National culture affects transnational project groups management	6 dimensions: 4 from Hofstede, 2 from GLOBE Power distance Uncertainty avoidance Individualism-Collectivism Future Orientation performance Orientation Humane treatment

However, Hofstede's work has also been criticized to some extent for an overly simplistic dimensional conceptualization of culture and inability to capture dynamic nature of culture (Sivakumar & Nakata, 2001; McSweeney, 2002; Jackson, 2001; Holden, 2001; Jagne, 2004). Alternative dimensional frameworks include those by Schwartz (1999), Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner (1997), Hall et al (1989), Chang and Ding (1995) and those developed in the GLOBE study (House et al, 1997; Javidan & House 2001). Ng et al (2007) conclude that in the context of international trade, Schwartz's dimensions are more prominent than the Hofstede's model. Trompenaars model focus more on micro or individual level while Hall's model took a slightly different approach of indicating culture as low or high context of communication (Muller, 2004). Chang & Ding (1995) model was based on Confucianism was adopted later by Hofstede as another dimension. The GLOBE study, which incorporates the Hofstede's 5

dimensions, uses more detailed approach than Hofstede. GLOBE study was able to address three shortcomings of the usual cross-national research namely the consideration of both universalistic and particularistic factors affecting leadership, the application of most-practiced approach to ensure reliable comparability and lastly the incorporation of both quantitative and qualitative techniques while providing freedom of exploration of specific issues to researchers (Blyton,2001). Some researches for instance Shore & Cross (2005) have adopted a different approach by selecting both models: Hofstede and GLOBE. These frameworks including Hofstede's are summarized in Table - 1.

WESTERN CULTURE

The term "Western culture" is used very broadly to refer to a heritage of social norms, ethical values, traditional customs, religious beliefs, political systems, and specific artifacts and technologies. Specifically, Western culture may imply:

- a Graeco-Roman Classical and Renaissance cultural influence, concerning artistic, philosophic, literary, and legal themes and traditions, the cultural social effects of migration period and the heritages of Celtic/Germanic etc. ethnic groups, as well as a tradition of rationalism in various spheres of life, developed by Hellenistic philosophy, Scholasticism, Humanisms, the Scientific Revolution and Enlightenment, and including, in political thought, widespread rational arguments in favour of free thought human rights, equality and democratic values averse to irrationality and theocracy
- ABiblical-Christian cultural influence in spiritual thinking, customs and either ethic or moral traditions, around Post-Classical Era.
- Western European cultural influences concerning artistic, musical, folkloric, ethic and oral traditions, whose themes have been further developed by Romanticism.

The concept of western culture is generally linked to the classical definition of the Western world. In this definition, Western culture is the set of literary, scientific, political, artistic and philosophical principles which set it apart from other civilizations. Much of this set of traditions and knowledge is collected in the Western canon.

The term has come to apply to countries whose history is strongly marked by Western European immigration or settlement, such as the Americas, and Australasia, and is not restricted to Western Europe.

Some tendencies that define modern Western societies are the existence of political pluralism, prominent subcultures or countercultures (such as New Age movements), increasing cultural syncretism resulting from globalization and human migration.

IMPLICATION OF CULTURE FOR MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

The Fit between national culture and management

Until recently, the dominance of western management theory led to the belief that "one size fits all," that a good manager in one particular country will also be a good manager in other countries, and that effective western management practices will be effective anywhere. This view is now being supplanted with the knowledge that managerial attitudes, values, behaviors, and efficacy differ across national cultures. There is no one best way to manage a business. Differences in national cultures call for differences in management practices.

This simple idea is surprisingly difficult to accept. The current drive toward globalization makes it harder. Globalization leads to standardization. Big Macs are the same around the world, but McDonald's management practices should not be. Just as Big Macs in Moscow are status and luxury while Big Macs in New York are utilitarian, requisite management practices differ across cultures even when products do not.

The fact that management practices should not be universal is illustrated by examples with which most managers are familiar. Pay-for-performance schemes are popular and work quite well in the U.S. and U.K. but are less used and not so successful outside the Anglo countries. This is not just an issue for American companies. It works both ways. Quality circles are widely used and effective in Japan but have not delivered the same performance results in the West despite no lack of trying.

National culture and Management Practices in Western Cultures

National culture is defined as the values, beliefs and assumptions learned in early childhood that distinguish one group of people from another [Beck and Moore 1985, Hofstede 1991]. This definition is consistent with Hofstede's notion of national culture as software of the mind [1991] and with Jaeger's "common theories of behavior or mental programs that are shared" [1986: 179]. National culture is embedded deeply in everyday life and is relatively impervious to change.

Child's [1981] observation that national culture was woefully underdeveloped conceptually for comparative research has been addressed in recent years with several attempts to conceptualize and measure differences in cultures among nations and to relate cultural differences to differences in management practices. The most well-known examples include the international survey

results reported in Trompenaars [1993], Hofstede [1991, 1980], Laurent [1983, 1986], and Haire, Ghiselli and Porter [1963]. There is ample empirical evidence that national cultures vary and that a variety of management practices, including strategic decision making [Schneider and DeMeyer 1991], leadership style [Dorfman and Howell 1988; Puffer 1993], and human resource management [Luthans, Welsh and Rosenkrantz 1993] differ by national culture.

National culture is a central organizing principle of employees' understanding of work, their approach to it, and the way in which they expect to be treated. National culture implies that one way of acting or one set of outcomes is preferable to another. When management practices are inconsistent with these deeply held values, employees are likely to feel dissatisfied, distracted, uncomfortable, and uncommitted.

Employees evaluate management practices as enhancing or threatening their well-being and self-worth. Managerial approaches that are at odds with prevailing cultural values are unlikely to be effective because the employees won't like to adopt them. Since cultures differ in the values they endorse, people from these cultures often interpret the same managerial practices quite differently. The table – 2 summarizes the difference between the Western and nonwestern cultures.

Table 2: Cross-cultural implications – Western vs. Non- Western

Western	Non Western
1. Christianity concerned with absolute moral values, differences between good and evil, and redemption of the soul.	1. Non-Western religions focus on virtue. Buddhism and Confucianism providing an ethical code of behavior.
2. Society is built on legalistic contractual relationships.	2. Society is built on direct personal relationships.
3. Individualistic orientation.	3. Group orientation. Clan, Caste, Tribe.
4. Behavior controlled by rules, punishments and rewards	4. Behavior controlled by group adaptation. Departures from the group norm are accompanied by feelings of shame.
5. Attribution groups are important (family, class, occupation).	5. Frame groups are important (village, neighborhood, company, region, and nation)
6. Weak hierarchical structure	6. Strong hierarchical structure.
7. Important values are freedom and personal conscience.	7. Important values are security and obedience.
8. Need for self-assertion	8. Need for coordination
9. Contractual relationships based on rights and duties	9. Personal relationship based on mutual obligations and mutual dependence.

CROSS CULTURAL DIMENSIONS AND GENERAL MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS IN WESTERN CULTURES

Based on the literature survey, the following findings can be summarized in table -3 how western cultural values impact on the management process.

Table 3 : Cross cultural dimensions and western cultural perspectives

Cross Culture Dimension	Western Cultural Perspective																			
Language	English is the international business language so everyone should use it.																			
Individualism vs. Collectivism	<p>Strong Individualism - They rely on their own view to determine what they should do. They tend to work alone and are reluctant to cooperate because their individualism and masculine culture view cooperation in general as a sign of weakness and place a high value on independence and control.</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="500 485 1289 1186"> <thead> <tr> <th data-bbox="500 485 873 590">Management processes</th> <th data-bbox="873 485 1289 590">High individualism in Western culture and management implications</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 590 873 674">Human Resources Management</td> <td data-bbox="873 590 1289 674"></td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 674 873 737">Management Selection</td> <td data-bbox="873 674 1289 737">Universalistic based on individual traits</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 737 873 800">Training</td> <td data-bbox="873 737 1289 800">General skills for individual achievement</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 800 873 863">Evaluation/Promotion</td> <td data-bbox="873 800 1289 863">Based on individual performance</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 863 873 926">Remuneration</td> <td data-bbox="873 863 1289 926">Extrinsic rewards (money, promotion) based on market value</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 926 873 989">Leadership Styles</td> <td data-bbox="873 926 1289 989">Individual rewards and punishments based on performance</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 989 873 1052">Motivational Assumptions</td> <td data-bbox="873 989 1289 1052">Calculative; Individual cost/benefit</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 1052 873 1186">Decision Making/Organizational Design</td> <td data-bbox="873 1052 1289 1186">Individual responsibility; preference for smaller organizations</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		Management processes	High individualism in Western culture and management implications	Human Resources Management		Management Selection	Universalistic based on individual traits	Training	General skills for individual achievement	Evaluation/Promotion	Based on individual performance	Remuneration	Extrinsic rewards (money, promotion) based on market value	Leadership Styles	Individual rewards and punishments based on performance	Motivational Assumptions	Calculative; Individual cost/benefit	Decision Making/Organizational Design	Individual responsibility; preference for smaller organizations
Management processes	High individualism in Western culture and management implications																			
Human Resources Management																				
Management Selection	Universalistic based on individual traits																			
Training	General skills for individual achievement																			
Evaluation/Promotion	Based on individual performance																			
Remuneration	Extrinsic rewards (money, promotion) based on market value																			
Leadership Styles	Individual rewards and punishments based on performance																			
Motivational Assumptions	Calculative; Individual cost/benefit																			
Decision Making/Organizational Design	Individual responsibility; preference for smaller organizations																			
Cooperation	Westerners place greater importance on contractual safeguards than the Asian. They believe that contracts can ensure that their partners' tendencies to focus on individual goals and aspirations do not interfere with their own individual goals and aspirations.																			
Uncertainty Avoidance	<p>Risk-taking – Westerners are relatively high risk-taking. USA has a short-term orientation.</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="500 1398 1289 1883"> <thead> <tr> <th data-bbox="500 1398 898 1503">Management process</th> <th data-bbox="898 1398 1289 1503">Low power distance in Western culture and management implications</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 1503 898 1566">Human Resources Management</td> <td data-bbox="898 1503 1289 1566"></td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 1566 898 1608">Management Selection</td> <td data-bbox="898 1566 1289 1608">Educational achievement</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 1608 898 1650">Training</td> <td data-bbox="898 1608 1289 1650">For autonomy</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 1650 898 1692">Evaluations/Promotion</td> <td data-bbox="898 1650 1289 1692">Performance</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 1692 898 1776">Remuneration</td> <td data-bbox="898 1692 1289 1776">Small wage difference between management and worker</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 1776 898 1818">Leadership Styles</td> <td data-bbox="898 1776 1289 1818">Participative; theory Y</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="500 1818 898 1883">Motivational Assumptions</td> <td data-bbox="898 1818 1289 1883">People like work; extrinsic and intrinsic rewards</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		Management process	Low power distance in Western culture and management implications	Human Resources Management		Management Selection	Educational achievement	Training	For autonomy	Evaluations/Promotion	Performance	Remuneration	Small wage difference between management and worker	Leadership Styles	Participative; theory Y	Motivational Assumptions	People like work; extrinsic and intrinsic rewards		
Management process	Low power distance in Western culture and management implications																			
Human Resources Management																				
Management Selection	Educational achievement																			
Training	For autonomy																			
Evaluations/Promotion	Performance																			
Remuneration	Small wage difference between management and worker																			
Leadership Styles	Participative; theory Y																			
Motivational Assumptions	People like work; extrinsic and intrinsic rewards																			

	Decision Making/Organizational Design	Decentralized; flat pyramids; Small proportion of supervisors
	Strategic Issues	Varied
Masculinity / Femininity	Medium Masculinity – Western partners may get totally confused by the roundabout way the Asians use to solve seemingly simple problems. The different ways that Chinese and American managers resolve conflicts seem to find support from Weaver's finding that feminine societies prefer to resolve conflict through negotiation and compromise (Weaver, 2000).	
	Management processes	Low masculinity in Western culture and management implications
	Human Resources Management	
	Management Selection	Independent of gender, school ties less important; androgyny
	Training	Job-Oriented
	Evaluation/Promotion	Job performance with less gender role assignments
	Remuneration	Less salary differences between levels; more time off
	Leadership Styles	More theory Y;
	Motivational Assumptions	Emphasis on quality of life, time off, vacations; work not central
	Decision Making/Organizational Design	Intuitive/group; smaller organizations
Conflict Resolution	Western managers are used to confronting problems directly and bringing things out in the open. To resolve differences, Western managers will prefer to use tactics that involve directly confronting others with rational arguments, factual evidence, and suggested solutions (Ting-Toomey, 1985).	
Work Group Characteristics	Western managers may encourage their group members to learn from each other, to focus on task rather than on social and interpersonal relations, and to build the confidence required for superior performance (Sosik and Jung, 2002). They place a much higher importance on the task or business deal and hope to focus very quickly on specific business matters. They are achievement oriented, that is "work first". They don't think establishing personal relationship is necessarily involved in the work.	
Motivation Systems	In Western value systems, great emphasis is placed on individual achievement, and they are expected to achieve success only by their individual efforts. They value competition, achievement and personal goals, and therefore, desire to have plans that recognize individual contributions.	
Power distance	Management process	Low power distance in Western culture and management implications
	Human Resources Management Management Selection	Educational achievement

	<p>Training</p> <p>Evaluations/Promotion</p> <p>Remuneration</p> <p>Leadership Styles</p> <p>Motivational Assumptions</p> <p>Decision Making/Organizational Design</p> <p>Strategic Issues</p>	<p>For autonomy</p> <p>Performance</p> <p>Small wage difference between management and worker</p> <p>Participative; theory Y</p> <p>People like work; extrinsic and intrinsic rewards</p> <p>Decentralized; flat pyramids; Small proportion of supervisors</p> <p>Varied</p>																				
Short term orientation vs Long term Orientation	In western cultures managers are Short term oriented.																					
	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Management Processes</th> <th>Short Term Orientation</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Human Resources Management</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Management Selection</td> <td>Objective skill assessment for immediate use to company</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Training</td> <td>Limited to immediate company needs</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Evaluation/Promotion</td> <td>Fast; based on skill contributions</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Remuneration</td> <td>Pay; promotions</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Leadership Styles</td> <td>Use incentives for economic advancement</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Motivational Assumptions</td> <td>Immediate rewards necessary</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Decision Making/Organizational Design</td> <td>Logical analyses of problems; design for logic of company situation</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Strategic Issues</td> <td>Fast; measurable payback</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Management Processes	Short Term Orientation	Human Resources Management		Management Selection	Objective skill assessment for immediate use to company	Training	Limited to immediate company needs	Evaluation/Promotion	Fast; based on skill contributions	Remuneration	Pay; promotions	Leadership Styles	Use incentives for economic advancement	Motivational Assumptions	Immediate rewards necessary	Decision Making/Organizational Design	Logical analyses of problems; design for logic of company situation	Strategic Issues	Fast; measurable payback	
Management Processes	Short Term Orientation																					
Human Resources Management																						
Management Selection	Objective skill assessment for immediate use to company																					
Training	Limited to immediate company needs																					
Evaluation/Promotion	Fast; based on skill contributions																					
Remuneration	Pay; promotions																					
Leadership Styles	Use incentives for economic advancement																					
Motivational Assumptions	Immediate rewards necessary																					
Decision Making/Organizational Design	Logical analyses of problems; design for logic of company situation																					
Strategic Issues	Fast; measurable payback																					

CONCLUSIONS

Managers in the third millennium are global managers. They have to learn about cultural differences, and how these differences shape the most effective managerial practices. The development of sensitivity to others begins with self-knowledge. Managers who learn about their own motives and cultural values can understand what motivates employees in other cultures. Managers who are sensitive to the variation in cultural values understand how such values shape the motives for coming to work, getting results, and innovating and initiating new developments. This knowledge enables them to modify and implement managerial practices that will be motivational and contribute to a person's sense of self-worth and well-being. The main principle that should

direct managers of the global world proposes the adoption of those effective managerial practices that best fit the cultural values of the organizations where they are implemented. This principle is supported by three sub-principles: self-knowledge; the identification of cultural values of different countries; and understanding of the meaning ascribed to various managerial practices by people with distinct cultural backgrounds. Successful global leaders are those who adopt these principles and use them as guidelines for implementing managerial approaches around the globe.

LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This article is limited with the methodology of literature view and only in Western cultural perspective. It can be suggested to use empirical testing of Western cultural perspectives and its implications in management practices at different types of organization and comparing it with other non-western cultural perspective will give more direction towards the management practices.

REFERENCE

- Blodgett, J.G., Lu, L.C., Rose, G.M., & Vitell, S.J. (2001). Ethical Sensitivity to Stakeholder Interests: A Cross-Cultural Comparison. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 29, 2 (Spring), 190-202.
- Blyton, P. (2001). The general and the particular in cross-national and comparative Research. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, vol 50, no. 4, 590-595.
- Deresky, H. (2002). *International Management: Managing Across Borders and Cultures*, Pearson Education
- Drenth, P. J. D., & Den Hartog, D. N. (1998). Culture and organizational differences. In W. J. Lonner, & D. L. Dinnel (Eds.), *Merging past, present, and future in cross-cultural psychology: Selected papers from the fourteenth international congress of the international association for cross-cultural psychology* (pp. 489–502). Bristol, PA: Swets and Zeitlinger Publishers (Ford et al, 2003).
- Ford, D. P., & Chan, Y. E. (2003). Knowledge Sharing in a Multi-Cultural Setting: A Case Study. *Knowledge Management Research & Practice*, 1(1), 11-27.
- Gregory, G.D. and J.M. Munch (1997). Cultural Values in International Advertising: An Examination of Familial Norms and Roles in Mexico. *Psychology and Marketing*, 14 (2), 99-119.
- Hampden-Turner, C. and F. Trompenaars (1997). Response to Geert Hofstede. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 21 (1), 149-159.
- Harris, H. and Kumra, S. (2000). International Manager Development - Cross-cultural training in highly diverse environments. *The Journal of Management Development*, vol. 19(7), pp. 602 - 14.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work related values*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Hofstede, G. (1996). Riding the waves of commerce: A test of Trompenaars' "Model" of nationalcultural differences. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 20(2), 189-198.
- Hofstede, G. (1997). Riding the Waves: A Rejoinder. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 21 (2), 287-290.
- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work Related Values*, 2001 edition, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Institute for Research on Intercultural Cooperation. (2001). Europeans in the 2000 Social Science Citation Index [Online], http://cwis.kub.nl/~fsw_2/iric/index2.htm.
- Müller R. and Turner J. R. (2005). The project manager's leadership style as a success factor on projects: A literature review", *Project management journal*, Vol. 6, No. 2, pp.49-61.
- Muller R. and Turner J. R. (2007). Matching the project manager's leadership style to project type. *International Journal of Project Management*, Vol. 25, No. 1, pp.21–32.
- Ng, K. Y., & Van Dyne, L. (1999). Individualism–collectivism as a boundary condition for effectiveness of minority influence in decision making. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 84(2), 198–225.
- Offermann, L. R., & Hellmann, P. S. (1997). Culture's consequences for leadership behavior: National values in action. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 28(3), 342–351.
- Redding, S. G. (1994). Comparative Management Theory: Jungle, Zoo, or Fossil Bed? *Organization Studies*, 15(3), 232-359.
- Roth, Martin S. (1995). The Effects of Culture and Socioeconomics on the Performance of Global Brand Image Strategies," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 32 (May), 163-175.
- Schwartz, Shalom H. (1992). Universals in the Content and Structure of Values: Theoretical Advances and Empirical Tests in 20 Countries". In *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 25. In eds M. Zanna. Orlando, FL: Academic. 1-65.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 25, 1– 65.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1994). Cultural dimensions of values: Towards an understanding of national differences. In U. Kim, H. C. Triandis, C. Kagitcibasi, S. C. Choi, & G. Yoon (Eds.), *Individualism and collectivism: Theoretical and methodological issues* (pp. 85–119). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1999). A theory of cultural values and some implications for work. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 48, 23–47.
- Trompenaars, F. (1993). *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding cultural diversity in business*. London: Economist Books.
- Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. (1997). *Riding the waves of culture: understanding cultural diversity in business* (2nd ed.). London: Nicholas Breale.