EMPLOYEES’ USE OF SOURCES OF GUIDANCE AT WORK: A CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISON BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND BRAZIL

André Luiz Mendes Athayde & Cláudio Vaz Torres

ABSTRACT

Purpose – The objective of this research was to statistically compare employee’s use of sources of guidance (SOGs) at work in the United States and Brazil and discuss results in the light of differences concerning national cultural characteristics.

Method – 220 employees from a Brazilian university and 166 employees from an American university filled out a paper-and-pencil questionnaire. Pearson correlation tests (r) and Student t-tests were run to investigate statistically significant differences between the two samples, which were discussed in the light of national cultural characteristics.

Main results – Americans presented significantly higher means than Brazilians on Informal Rules and People Outside Organization, and Brazilians presented significantly higher mean than Americans on Formal Rules and Procedures. The discussion showed that some of these differences are compatible with national cultural characteristics.

Relevance/Originality – Recognizing the importance and the role of national cultures on individuals’ attitudes and behavior within the organizational environment is fundamental in the search for effective and contextualized management practices.

Theoretical/methodological contributions – Up until 2020, only 12 theoretical-empirical studies about SOGs were developed. Hence, the present study theoretically and empirically contributes to knowledge about this very important work-related construct.

Social/management contributions – The results suggest to managers, human resource professionals, and psychologists important differences in the attitudes of American and Brazilian employees concerning the use of sources of guidance at work, contributing, for instance, to recruitment and selection processes in multinationals.

INTRODUCTION

Several sources of information may be used by employees to interpret and respond to the events they experience at work. These sources of information used by employees to handle different events at work are attitudes known in the literature as sources of guidance (SOGs) (Peterson et al., 1990). According to Smith et al. (2002), the following groups of sources of guidance are among the most frequent in a wide variety of cultural contexts and events at work: the individual’s own experience, based on previous experience and training; social sources, based on superiors, subordinates, specialists, and co-workers; impersonal sources, based on formal rules or informal norms; and beliefs that are spread in a nation.

SOGs are used by employees to respond to different situations or events they encounter in their work environment. Work events include anything that triggers an employee’s conscious attention (Smith et al., 2002). Peterson, Smith, and Barreto (2016) presented some examples of these events that may be faced by organization
members: situations in which subordinates are doing consistently good work; equipment or machinery used in the department seems to need a replacement; another department does not provide the resources or support required; there are differing opinions within the department, among other events.

Classical contingency leadership models (e.g., House, 1971) consider that some work tasks and work settings are more structured than others, which means that leaders act according to how structured a task or setting is. Peterson et al. (1990), however, proposed something different. According to their alternative hypothesis, employees’ work varies over time, according to the event they are handling. So, this means that employees’ attitudes and behavior must change over a day or week to correspond with changes in the events that they are encountering. Peterson et al. (1990) highlighted that such variability in attitudes and behavior in response to changing situations – events – is exactly what is found in work organizations. This hypothesis turned out to be known as the event-based contingency hypothesis, the background of this article.

By proceeding with a literature review of theoretical-empirical studies involving SOGs from an event-management perspective between 1990 – when the first empirical study was published – and 2020, it is possible to identify a considerable lack of research about this construct, once, up until 2020, only 12 theoretical-empirical studies about this construct were published within such a long period. Four of them discuss the use of SOGs itself with an exploratory approach (Peterson et al., 1990; Smith, Peterson, & Wang, 1996; Peterson, Elliott, Bliese, & Radford, 1996; Smith, Wang, & Leung, 1997), and eight of them its relationship with other constructs (Peterson, Radford, Savage, & Hama, 1994; Smith, Peterson, & Misumi, 1994; Smith et al., 1994; Smith et al., 1999; Smith et al., 2002; Smith & Peterson, 2005; Peterson et al., 2010; Smith et al., 2011). It is important to highlight that the study carried out by Peterson, Smith, and Barreto (2016) only updated the data collection instrument, revising the number of frequent organizational events from eight to six, omitting two events that had shown some method problems. This means that, considering the period between 1990 and 2020, the last empirical study about SOGs from an event-management perspective was carried out ten years ago (Smith et al., 2011).

Besides the highlighted theoretical gap and scarcity of studies on this construct, why do sources of guidance at work deserve to be deeper investigated? As previously presented, relying on sources of guidance is an employee’s attitude that guides their actions while dealing with different events at work. Hence, their ultimate behavior and performance are connected to the guidance sources they prioritize at work. For instance, Smith et al. (2011) investigated the use of SOGs by 7,701 employees in 56 countries in dealing with work events and found that reliance on specific SOGs was positively correlated with perceived effectiveness at work.

Furthermore, there is strong theoretical-empirical evidence to consider that the national culture can influence an individual’s attitudes and behavior (e.g., Yuniawan, Djastuti, Hidayati, & Udin, 2020). Even though some organizations may foster their employees to use desired specific sources of guidance (e.g., standard operating procedures), the national culture where the organization is located, as well as employees’ nationalities, may influence their attitudes of relying on SOGs within their work environment, which may ultimately impact their behavior and performance. Hence, in times of increasing organizational internationalization, investigating how attitudes and behaviors vary cross-culturally can provide strategic information for the international management of people (Athayde, Santos, Fiuza, & Costa, 2019).

Given the role of national cultures on employee’s attitudes and behavior, tested and confirmed in previous studies (e.g., Motta & Gomes, 2019; Aldulaimi, 2018), the present research aimed to statistically compare employee’s use of sources of guidance at work in the United States and Brazil and discuss results in the light of differences concerning national cultural characteristics. The United States and Brazil were chosen in the present research, beyond accessibility reasons, because they are largely considered culturally different (e.g., Hofstede,
employees’ use of sources of guidance at work: a cross-cultural comparison between the United States and Brazil

1980, 2011; Vignoles et al., 2016). Hence, it was assumed that some results could be discussed in the light of cultural differences between these two countries.

To accomplish this objective, one of the best-known characterizations of cultural differences derived from business employees was selected in this research to distinguish the American and Brazilian national cultures. Four dimensions of cultural variation proposed by Hofstede (1980, 2001, 2011) were adopted in the present study to support theoretical discussion about possible influences of national culture on the use of SOGs: Individualism x Collectivism, Masculinity x Femininity, Power Distance, and Uncertainty Avoidance.

Globalization is characterized not only by an increase in the movement of capital and products, but also by mobilizing workers in different markets (Silva, Orsi, & Nakata, 2013). In this internationalization scenario, Hill (2005) emphasizes the importance of reviewing the management of people concerning recruitment and selection processes, expatriate management, training, and development, among other subsystems. Bearing in mind that the human resources field is critical for the success of an international business (Vance & Paik, 2006), it becomes strategic to understand how the management of people should be worked on in this multicultural scenario, what challenges exist and what adaptations are necessary. Therefore, deeper investigating differences in the attitudes of American and Brazilian employees of relying on sources of guidance at work seems to be compatible with this mindset, shedding light on the importance of the countries where companies are located, as well as on the importance of employees’ nationalities.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.1. Sources of guidance

The sources of information used by employees to handle different events at work are attitudes known in the literature as sources of guidance (SOGs) (Peterson et al., 1990; Smith et al., 2011). When employees have to deal with work events, they operate within a context of alternative SOGs, many of which extend beyond the individual (Peterson & Smith, 2000). SOGs may include interpretive structures, such as memories, thoughts, and understandings to which new events can be connected, and may also include views on events that would likely be considered by a manager, employee, subordinate, or friend. In addition, prevailing views in society (e.g., country beliefs) and organizational documents (e.g., standard operating procedures) can be used by organization members to verify what guidelines they can offer. Over the last three decades, only 12 theoretical-empirical studies about this construct were developed within such a long period.

Web of Science database was used to map the relevant empirical studies on Sources of Guidance from an event-management perspective. On the search, the following terms were used: *source* of *guidance*, *source* of *event-management*, *source* of *meaning*, and *source* of *event meaning*. The search was done in titles, abstracts, and keywords, and adopted a period range from 1945 through 2019. Initially, 954 studies were found, and each one of them had its title, abstract, and keywords read. For some cases, other sections, such as literature review and method, had to be read to make sure that they fitted the scope of the present research. After this content analysis filter, only 12 empirical studies were chosen to be deeper analyzed, once they dealt with sources of guidance from an event-management perspective. Most of the discarded articles were from the areas of Biology, Medicine, and Information Technology.

First, it is important to emphasize that this apparent low number of articles (12) may be because the scope of the present investigation is the study on SOGs under one specific perspective (event-management). As mentioned above, the study of SOGs, considering all perspectives and all knowledge areas, resulted in 954 studies. Moreover, this apparent low number of articles (12) includes only empirical studies. Theoretical studies on SOGs from an event-management perspective have been developed throughout the...
years, such as Smith and Peterson (1988) and Athayde and Torres (2020).

The main results for some empirical studies will be presented hereafter.

First, Peterson et al. (1990) developed a questionnaire to ask employees from five electronics plants in four countries – the United States, the United Kingdom (UK), Japan, and Hong Kong – to what extent they used five SOGs to respond to two categories of events: day-to-day situations and unusual problems. The results indicated that employees responded differently to the five SOGs in the four countries. The correspondence between reliance on co-workers for day-to-day and unfamiliar events was higher for respondents in the USA and UK than for those in Japan and Hong Kong.

Smith, Peterson, and Misumi (1994) developed research that evaluated the effectiveness of work teams in similar electronics assembling units – in Japan, the UK, and the USA – comparing which of five SOGs were used by employees while handling work events. The referred study examined whether differences in event management among national samples could predict job performance. Western results suggested that ways of achieving optimal performance are contingent on the type of event encountered.

Smith et al. (2002) tested the hypothesis that the predominant values of members of an organizational culture lead them to rely on certain SOGs to respond to what happens around them. By using samples from 53 different countries, they tested whether value differences at the cultural level could predict typical SOGs used to handle work events.

Smith and Peterson (2005) carried out a meaningful survey with 7,380 managers from 60 countries to determine whether demographic variables were correlated with their reliance on SOGs to handle work events and whether these correlations differed depending on the characteristics of the national culture. Results pointed out that demographic effects are stronger in individualist and low-power-distance nations than elsewhere.

Peterson et al. (2010) investigated the influence of employees’ values and the use of guidance sources on e-mail use. The study was developed in Canada, the English-speaking Caribbean, Nigeria, and the USA. Results showed that e-mail use was positively associated with work contexts that show high reliance on Specialists, Subordinates, and Informal Rules.

More recently, Smith et al. (2011) investigated the use of SOGs by 7,701 employees in 56 countries in dealing with work events, and the moderating role of national culture in this relationship. Correlations between the sources of guidance that employees use and the perceived effectiveness of how well these events are handled were employed. These correlations were predicted to vary with dimensions of national culture. Results showed that reliance on one’s Own Experience, on Formal Rules and Procedures, and one’s Subordinates was positively correlated with perceived effectiveness globally.

Having described the main results of the previous theoretical-empirical studies on SOGs from an event-management perspective, the characteristics of the American and Brazilian national cultures will be presented hereafter, once they will be used to discuss results regarding the use of sources of guidance in the present investigation.

1.2. Characteristics of the American and Brazilian national cultures

Researchers have frequently used Hofstede’s well-known cultural dimensions to predict and explain cultural differences in reactions to leadership, communication, job performance, attitudes at work, and other aspects of organizational behavior (Smith et al., 2011; Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006). When learning about national culture, it is fundamental to understand that culture describes a central tendency in society. Everybody is unique, yet social control ensures that most people will not deviate too much from the norm.

The American and Brazilian national cultures will be characterized in this study based on four of Hofstede’s (2011) cultural dimensions.
which will be used to discuss empirical results. The description of each culture dimension and the American and Brazilian scores in each one of them are based on the Country Comparison Tool – Hofstede Insights (2021).

Power Distance: this dimension of culture refers to the degree of inequality within a society. This means that power is naturally distributed unevenly, as each person is unique. In addition, this dimension shows how the less powerful people expect and accept that this power is unequal. With a score of 69, Brazil reflects a society that believes that the hierarchy must be respected and inequalities between people are acceptable. With a score of 40, the United States has a low level for this cultural dimension. In American organizations, the hierarchy is established for convenience, superiors are accessible, and managers trust the experience of employees and teams. Moreover, communication is relatively informal, direct, and participatory.

Uncertainty Avoidance: this dimension refers to how uncertainties and unpredictability are interpreted by members of society. This means that there are cultures that deal with greater or lesser comfort with the uncertain future. In addition, societies protect themselves from Uncertainty Avoidance by creating rules and institutions to reduce the anxiety and stress that the unpredictable future generates. Brazil has a high score for this cultural dimension (76), as do most Latin American countries. These societies show a strong need for rules and legal systems, with bureaucracy, laws, and rules being very important in making the world a safer place to live. The United States, on the other hand, scores below the average for this cultural dimension (46). In the United States, there is a good degree of acceptance of new ideas, innovative products, and a willingness to try something new or different.

Individualism versus Collectivism: this dimension concerns how people are inserted into social groups. Societies based on individualism tend to lead people to behavior restricted to themselves, where people look at themselves and their families. Collectivist societies, on the other hand, are guided by the relationships of fidelity exercised by people as a result of behaviors within cohesive and united social groups. Brazil has a 38 score in this cultural dimension, which means that, in business, it is important for Brazilians to build trust and lasting relationships. With 91 points, the United States is one of the most individualistic cultures in the world. People are expected to take care of themselves and their families without the support of others. In the business world, employees are expected to be proactive and decisions are based on merit.

Masculinity versus Femininity: this dimension is related to the values permeated by the sexes in society. Masculinity-based societies tend to have more competitive and assertive values. In turn, societies based on Femininity aim for more collaborative values and are focused on quality of life. Brazil presents an intermediate score in this cultural dimension (49). The United States, in turn, scores high (62).

2. METHOD

The American sample was comprised of employees from a private university, chosen based on accessibility reasons, with a total of 9,304 enrolled students; 25 undergraduate courses; 33 graduate courses; 1,600 full-time, part-time, and vendor-contracted employees; and 60 buildings (including 11 residence halls). The Brazilian sample was comprised of employees from a federal university campus, also chosen due to accessibility reasons. The refereed campus is comprised of 1,200 enrolled students – 10 of them international students –; 6 undergraduate courses; 8 graduate courses; 350 full-time, part-time, and vendor-contracted employees; and 20 buildings – including 01 residence hall.

The sampling technique used in this study was non-probabilistic by convenience, according to which the most available individuals are selected to provide the necessary information (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tathan, 2009). The sample size for the present study was defined by the following recommendations from Cohen (1992) for power calculation in studies of this nature: it was applied...
an average effect (w) of 0.25, with a significance level of 0.05, and a desired statistical power of 0.80. The minimum sample size calculated with the software G*Power 3.1 was 115.

Once cultural dimensions can vary significantly between regions and states within the same country, especially in countries with high geographic dimensions and cultural diversity, such as the United States and Brazil, it is noteworthy that the Brazilian sample was comprised of respondents from 12 Brazilian states, and that the American sample was comprised of respondents from 25 American states.

Out of the 193 answered questionnaires in the USA, 27 were discarded because they had more than 10% of missing values per case. Data collection took place from February 13th, 2019 to April 30th, 2019. Out of the 233 answered questionnaires in Brazil, 13 were discarded because they had more than 10% of missing values. Data collection took place from June 3rd, 2019 to October 29th, 2019. The number of valid questionnaires left was 166 in the USA and 220 in Brazil.

Employees were first invited via e-mail to participate in the study and were asked to specify a day and time when the questionnaire (paper-and-pencil) could be administered to them in person. The official websites of the two universities were used to obtain employees’ e-mail addresses.

The applied data collection instrument regarding the use of sources of guidance (SOGs) in the management of work events was the Managerial Decisions Questionnaire – Global (Mdq1GL), which was piloted by Peterson (1987) and later revised by Peterson et al. (2016), in its English and Portuguese versions. The events – situations – described in the Mdq1-GL were selected as likely to occur within the work of any type of organization in any nation: “When one of your subordinates is doing consistently good work”; “When some of the equipment or machinery used in your department seems to need a replacement”; “When another department does not provide the resources or support you require”; “When there are differing opinions within your department”; “When you see the need to introduce new work procedure into your department”; and “When the time comes to evaluate the success of new work procedures”.

The phrasing for each event was: “When [event] ..., to what extent are the actions taken affected by each of the following?” For each event, the question was followed by a listing of nine guidance sources, described as follows: a) “Formal rules and procedures” (FRP); b) “Unwritten rules about how we do things around here” (informal rules - IR); c) “My subordinates” (SUB); d) “Specialists” (SPE); e) “Other people at my level” (co-workers - CWO); f) “My superior” (SUP); g) “Opinions based on my own experience and training” (OEX); h) “Beliefs which are widely accepted in my country about what is right” (country beliefs – CB); and i) “People outside this organization” (POU). Responses were made on 5-point Likert-type scales, anchored by terms ranging from 1= “not at all” to 5= “to a very great extent”.

The first event, related to subordinates, was discarded in the present study, once this event applies only to managers, and the present research does not differ managers from non-managers. Further, for the same reason, the source of guidance “subordinates” was also discarded from the other five events left in the present study. So, compared to the original questionnaire (Mdq1GL) by Peterson et al. (2016), the questionnaire used in the present research has one less event and one less source of guidance.

Nevertheless, it is important to point out that this does not mean data loss, given the fact that the reliance on SOGs, in previous studies, was measured by calculating a mean across all events, that is, the events were not analyzed separately. The same procedure was adopted in the present research.

The final part of the questionnaire covered sociodemographic items, and, as described earlier, the questionnaire was administered in person (paper-and-pencil), once the electronic application, even being more convenient, would greatly limit comparability of the present research with previous studies on SOGs.

Statistical analyses were done by using the software IBM® SPSS® Statistics 20.0 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Following
recommendations by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) and by Miles and Shevlin (2001), the variables were checked for their normal distribution. Additionally, bias in scale use was eliminated by mean-centering of guidance source ratings provided by each respondent.

At last, descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation tests \( (r) \), and mean difference tests (Student t-test) were run to discuss differences between Brazil and the United States based on their national cultural characteristics.

3. RESULTS

Respondents’ sociodemographic characteristics for categorical variables and interval variables are summarized in Tables 1 and 2 respectively.

Table 1. Respondents’ sociodemographic characteristics – Categorical variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>USA (%)</th>
<th>Brazil (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>53.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-managers</td>
<td>70.5</td>
<td>46.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>59.6</td>
<td>50.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No college or university</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college or university education</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completed undergraduate degree</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some graduate education</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completed Master’s degree</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study towards a second Master’s degree or Ph.D.</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completed second Master’s degree or completed Ph.D.</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>30.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research data elaborated by the authors.

Table 2. Respondents’ sociodemographic characteristics – Interval variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>USA</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Brazil</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>Hanz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of children living at home</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work hours per week</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in the present organization</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in the present department</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in the present position</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research data elaborated by the authors.

Concerning the attitude of relying on sources of guidance while dealing with different events at work in the American sample, the highest means were found on the following SOGs: Superiors (M=3.75; SD=0.77), Formal Rules and Procedures (M=3.51; SD=0.73), Informal Rules (M=3.19; SD=0.86), and Own Experience (M=3.16; SD=0.88). Regarding the Brazilian sample, the highest means were found on the following SOGs: Superiors (M=3.78; SD=0.82), Formal Rules and Procedures (M=3.77; SD=0.73), Coworkers (M=3.19; SD=0.75), and Own Experience (M=3.07; SD=0.77). Results for the use of all SOGs are shown in Tables 3 and 4.
Pearson correlation (r) tests were run according to Hair et al. (2009) in order to verify the correlations between the use of guidance sources at work in each country. Centered scores were used to run the tests. In the USA, the highest significant correlations were found between POU x SUP (r = -0.419, p < 0.001) and between CB x SUP (r = -0.324, p < 0.001). In Brazil, the highest significant correlations were found between IR x SUP (r = -0.377, p < 0.001) and between POU x SUP (r = -0.355, p < 0.001).

At last, aiming to achieve the main objective of the study, Student t-tests were run to verify which sources of guidance have significant mean differences between Americans and Brazilians. Results pointed out significant mean differences, with equal variances assumed, for the SOGs Formal Rules and Procedures, Informal Rules, and People Outside the Organization. The results are detailed in Table 5.

### Table 3. Sources of guidance descriptive statistics – USA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of Guidance</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FRP</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPE</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CWO</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUP</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OEX</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CB</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POU</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research data elaborated by the authors.

### Table 4. Sources of Guidance Descriptive Statistics - Brazil

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of Guidance</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FRP</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPE</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CWO</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUP</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OEX</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CB</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POU</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research data elaborated by the authors.

4. DISCUSSION

At this point, it is fundamental to emphasize that, when differences in employees’ reliance on sources of guidance are discussed in the light of national cultural characteristics in this study, a special cross-cultural precaution will be taken: avoiding ecological fallacy. Hofstede (1980) states that ecological fallacy is the mistake of taking a relationship between two or more variables, established at a given level of analysis, and...
assuming that the same relationship occurs at a different level of analysis. However, even though results in the individual level of analysis cannot be categorically generalized to the national level of analysis and vice-versa, it is important to acknowledge the existence of culture and self-intersections. Being a person – a self – requires input from sociocultural meanings and practices, and the self is the center of awareness and agency that incorporates and reflects these sociocultural patterns. So, the self and culture constitute one another (Markus & Kitayama, 2010).

Therefore, during the discussion of the results, even though national cultural differences will not be considered as the predicting factor in the result differences between the two countries, the idea of sampling, adopted by Triandis et al. (2001), will be used. Sampling, in this case, is directly related to probability, and, in practice, this means that the more individualistic the culture, the more frequent the sampling of individualistic individuals (idiocentric selves) and the less frequent the sampling of collectivistic individuals (allocentric selves).

Moreover, it is important to observe that, even though Hofstede later proposed two other cultural dimensions (Long-term Orientation and Indulgence vs. Restraint) (Hofstede, 2011), he originally proposed four cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980), which were adopted in the present investigation, once they have been the most used ones in cross-cultural research over the years.

Smith et al. (2002) emphasize that the following groups of SOGs are among the most frequent in a wide variety of cultural contexts and events at work: the individual’s own experience, based on previous experience and training; social sources, based on superiors, subordinates, specialists, coworkers, and people outside the organization; impersonal sources, based on formal rules or informal norms; and beliefs that are spread in a nation. All aforementioned groups of SOGs were present in the instrument Managerial Decision Questionnaire – Global (Mdq1GL), administered in the present research. Because of that, it was expected that none of the eight guidance sources would have mean scores close to one – minimum score in the scale –, once these SOGs are among the most frequent in a wide variety of cultural contexts and events at work. This expectation was confirmed for all SOGs, except for People Outside Organization, which was the guidance source with the lowest mean both in the USA (M=1.99; SD=0.80) and in Brazil (M=1.64; SD=0.71).

Based on the findings of Smith et al. (2002) in a study with samples from 53 different countries, it was expected that Specialists and Country Beliefs would be SOGs much less used than the others. This hypothesis was confirmed in the present research in both countries. In the USA, Country Beliefs (M=2.38; SD=0.99) and Specialists (M=2.69; SD=0.78) were the SOGs with the lowest means, along with People Outside Organization (M=1.99; SD=0.78). In Brazil, Country Beliefs (M=2.22; SD=0.91) and Specialists (M=2.77; SD=0.80) were also the SOGs with the lowest means, along with People Outside Organization (M=1.64; SD=0.71).

Concerning the highest significant correlations in the American sample, American employees’ reliance on People Outside Organization as a guidance source was negatively correlated with reliance on Superiors (r = -0.419, p < 0.001). In addition, American employees’ reliance on Country Beliefs as a guidance source was negatively correlated with reliance on Superiors (r = -0.324, p < 0.001). This means that, in the American sample, employees who rely on Superiors as a guidance source tend not to rely on People Outside Organization nor Country Beliefs.

Regarding the highest significant correlations in the Brazilian sample, Brazilian employees’ reliance on Informal Rules as a guidance source was negatively correlated with reliance on Superiors (r = -0.377, p < 0.001). Moreover, Brazilian employees’ reliance on People Outside Organization as a guidance source was negatively correlated with reliance on Superiors (r = -0.355, p < 0.001). This means that, in the Brazilian sample, employees who rely on Superiors as a guidance source tend not to rely on Informal Rules nor People Outside Organization.

Superiors were the SOG that presented the highest mean both in the USA (M=0.75; SD=0.77) and in Brazil (M=3.78; SD=0.82). This result can be
discussed in light of national culture characteristics. Even though the United States and Brazil are largely considered by cross-cultural scholars as an individualist national culture and a collectivist national culture respectively (e.g., Hofstede 1980, 2001, 2011), collectivist cultures are not identical in their collectivism, and individualist cultures are not identical in their individualism. Hence, as highlighted by Triandis et al. (2001), it is important to recognize an important distinction between vertical and horizontal collectivist cultures, and between vertical and horizontal individualist cultures.

While vertical collectivist cultures see some members of the ingroup as more important than most members of the ingroup (e.g., superiors, in comparison to other members of a department, such as coworkers, subordinates, and specialists), horizontal collectivist cultures see most members of the ingroup as equal. Moreover, while vertical individualist cultures emphasize that the individual is different from others (superior, the best), in horizontal individualist cultures, the individual is unique, but not superior (Triandis, 2001). Hence, it is reasonable to assume that the strong reliance on Superiors as a guidance source both in the United States and in Brazil may be influenced by the fact that the American national culture is a vertical individualist culture and that the Brazilian national culture is a vertical collectivist culture. Moreover, this may be one of the reasons why no statistically significant difference was found for the SOG Superiors between the two countries compared.

Furthermore, Formal Rules and Procedures was the SOG that presented the second highest mean both in the USA (M=3.51; SD=0.73) and in Brazil (M=3.77; SD=0.73). This result has theoretical support, as reliance on this specific SOG has been proven to be strong universally (Smith et al., 2011).

It was expected that American employees in the present research would highly rely on their Own Experience as a guidance source while dealing with different events at work, once the United States is considered one of the most individualistic national cultures in the world. For instance, Peterson et al. (1996) found that Own Experience was reported to be highly used by American employees. Moreover, Smith et al. (1999) developed a study in 14 countries whose results showed that employees in countries classified by Hofstede (1980) as high on Individualism and low on Power Distance reported greater reliance on Own Experience. Even though the USA presents high scores on individualism and low scores on Power Distance, the same result was not confirmed in the present study. On the other hand, Smith et al. (1999) also found that employees in countries classified by Hofstede (1980) as low on Individualism and high on Power Distance (e.g., Brazil) relied more on Formal Rules and Procedures. This result was confirmed in the present study, once Formal Rules and Procedures was the SOG with the second highest mean in the Brazilian sample.

Focusing on the main research objective – to statistically test mean differences concerning reliance on SOGs between the USA and Brazil –, out of the eight SOGs measured in the present study, three of them presented significant mean differences between the USA and Brazil. Americans presented significantly higher mean than Brazilians on the SOGs Informal Rules and People Outside Organization, and Brazilians presented significantly higher mean than Americans on the SOG Formal Rules and Procedures.

First, the higher reliance of American employees on Informal Rules as a guidance source at work, compared to Brazilian employees, can be discussed in the light of Hofstede’s cultural dimension of Masculinity. A high score on this dimension indicates that the society will be driven by competition, achievement, and success, with success being defined by the winner/best in the field – a value system that starts in school and continues throughout organizational life. Brazil scores 49, a very intermediate score on this dimension. On the other hand, the score of the USA on Masculinity is high at 62, and this can be seen in the typical American behavioral patterns (Country Comparison – Hofstede Insights, 2021). Hence, the higher reliance of American employees on Informal Rules, compared to Brazilian employees, may be due to the higher tendency of Americans to strive to show how well they did a job (Masculinity feature), which may also include fulfilling informal rules within the organization. Americans attain higher status based on how good they can be, and, in this scenario, being compliant with informal
rules, along with formal rules and procedures, can be a mechanism used to achieve and show success and to become more competitive.

Furthermore, the lower scores of Americans in the cultural dimension Power Distance compared to Brazilians may also be used to discuss the higher reliance of American employees on Informal Rules as a guidance source at work. Once the low score of Americans on the cultural dimension Power Distance leads them to a more informal communication style, which is normally direct and participative to a degree (Country Comparison – Hofstede Insights, 2021), this may influence American employee’s higher reliance on informal rules, which is compatible to the American informal communication style, broadening compliance with formal rules to comply with informal rules also.

Second, the higher reliance of American employees on People Outside Organization as a guidance source at work, compared to Brazilian employees, can be discussed in the light of the cultural dimension Power Distance. On the one hand, Brazil scores high on this dimension (76) and so do the majority of Latin American countries. These societies show a strong need for rules and elaborate legal systems to structure life. On the other hand, the USA scores below average, with a low score of 46. As a consequence, there is a fair degree of acceptance for new ideas, innovative products, and a willingness to try something new or different, whether it pertains to technology, business practices, or food (Country Comparison – Hofstede Insights, 2021). Hence, the lower score on the cultural dimension of Power Distance compared to Brazilian employees may lead American employees to be more tolerant of new ideas or opinions from People Outside Organization and may lead them to allow freedom of expression more openly.

At last, the higher reliance of Brazilian employees on Formal Rules and Procedures as a guidance source at work, compared to American employees, can also be discussed in the light of the cultural dimension of Uncertainty Avoidance. In Brazil, as in all high Uncertainty Avoidance societies, bureaucracy, laws, and rules are very important to make the world a safer place to live in. The low score of Americans on this dimension leads them not to require a lot of rules (Country Comparison – Hofstede Insights, 2021). Hence, this difference may influence the higher tendency of Brazilian employees to rely more on Formal Rules and Procedures as a guidance source at work compared to American employees.

CONCLUSION

Organizational behavior is the field concerned with attitudes, decision-making, interpersonal processes, and individual and group behavior in work settings (Judge, Klinger, Simon, & Yang, 2008). Recognizing the importance and the role of national cultures on individuals’ attitudes and behavior within the organizational environment is fundamental in the search for effective and contextualized management practices (Hofstede, 2001). Given the strong literature evidence that points out the influence of national culture on employee work outcomes (e.g., Yuniawan, Djastuti, Hidayati, & Udin, 2020; Chen, Podolski, & Veeraraghavan, 2017), it was prudent to consider the role of national culture on employee’s attitude of relying on sources of guidance when dealing with different events at work, as investigated in the present research.

The present study intersected an important work-related construct with the theme of national cultures and, as results highlighted, employees from two educational institutions located in two different countries presented significant differences in their reliance on sources of guidance at work. The discussion showed that some of these differences were compatible with some national culture characteristics, based on Hofstede’s (2011) cultural dimensions.

Smith et al. (2011) state that sources of guidance are used by employees during the process of making decisions and taking action. Hence, their ultimate behavior and performance can be considered connected to the guidance sources they use at work. Moreover, they emphasize that national cultural characteristics are associated with the specific sources of guidance.
prioritized at work, as was discussed in the present study.

The present research successfully achieved its main objective: to statistically compare employees’ use of sources of guidance at work in the United States and Brazil and discuss results in the light of differences concerning national cultural characteristics. The results suggest to managers, human resource recruiters, decision-makers, and psychologists important differences in the attitudes of American and Brazilian employees concerning the use of sources of guidance at work. This can be strategic information when it comes to recruitment and selection processes.

A limitation of the present research regards the exclusive quantitative approach adopted. To better investigate variation within and between groups, Schrauf (2017) suggests the application of mixed methods in cross-cultural research, namely the use of qualitative and quantitative techniques in the same study. For the author, the main contribution of mixed methods to cross-cultural comparison lies in their ability to integrate data from different levels. Hence, it is recommended, as an opportunity for future research, to adopt both quantitative and qualitative approaches in the same study when comparing the attitudes of American and Brazilian employees, whose results can be compared and discussed with the findings of the present investigation. In addition, future studies may also analyze differences in the use of Sources of Guidance at work (SOGs) in light of the other two cultural dimensions proposed by Hofstede (2011) not adopted herein (Long-term Orientation and Indulgence vs. Restraint), as well as in light of other cultural dimensions besides Hofstede’s (e.g., GLOBE Project).

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O USO DE FONTES DE ORIENTAÇÃO NO TRABALHO POR COLABORADORES: UMA COMPARAÇÃO TRANSCULTURAL ENTRE OS ESTADOS UNIDOS E BRASIL

André Luiz Mendes Athayde & Cláudio Vaz Torres

DETALHES DO ARTIGO

Histórico do Artigo:
Recebido em: 05 de janeiro de 2022
Aceito: 13 de março de 2022
Disponível online: 17 de março de 2022

Sistema de revisão “Double blind review”

Editor Científico
Ilan Avrichir

Palavras-chave:
Fontes de orientação
Comportamento organizacional
Pesquisa transcultural

RESUMO

Objetivo – O objetivo desta pesquisa foi comparar estatisticamente o uso de fontes de orientação (SOGs) no trabalho por colaboradores nos Estados Unidos e no Brasil e discutir os resultados à luz de diferenças de culturas nacionais.

Método – 220 colaboradores de uma universidade brasileira e 166 colaboradores de uma universidade americana preencheram um questionário em papel e caneta. Testes de correlação de Pearson (r) e testes t de Student foram realizados para investigar diferenças estatisticamente significativas entre as duas amostras, as quais foram discutidas à luz das culturais nacionais.

Principais resultados – Americanos apresentaram médias significativamente maiores que brasileiros no uso de Regras Informais e de Pessoas Fora da Organização, e os brasileiros apresentaram média significativamente maior que americanos no uso de Regras e Procedimentos Formais. A discussão mostrou que algumas dessas diferenças são compatíveis com características da cultura nacional.

Relevância/Originalidade – Reconhecer a importância e o papel das culturas nacionais nas atitudes e comportamentos de indivíduos no ambiente organizacional é fundamental na busca por práticas de gestão eficazes e contextualizadas.

Contribuições teórico-metodológicas – Até 2020, apenas 12 estudos teórico-empíricos sobre SOGs foram desenvolvidos. Assim, o presente estudo contribui teoricamente para o conhecimento acerca desse importante construto relacionado ao trabalho.

Contribuições sociais/gerenciais – Os resultados sugerem a gestores, profissionais de recursos humanos e psicólogos diferenças importantes nas atitudes de colaboradores americanos e brasileiros quanto ao uso de fontes de orientação no trabalho, contribuindo, por exemplo, para processos de recrutamento e seleção em multinacionais.
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<td><strong>Historia del Artículo:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Objetivo</strong> – El objetivo de esta investigación fue comparar estadísticamente el uso de fuentes de orientación (SOG) en el trabajo por parte de los empleados en los Estados Unidos y Brasil y discutir los resultados a la luz de las diferencias en las culturas nacionales.</td>
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<td><strong>Método</strong> – 220 empleados de una universidad brasileña y 166 empleados de una universidad estadounidense completaron un cuestionario en papel y bolígrafo. Se realizaron las pruebas de correlación de Pearson (r) y las pruebas t de Student para investigar las diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las dos muestras, que se discutieron a la luz de las culturas nacionales.</td>
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<td><strong>Resultados principales</strong> – Los estadounidenses mostraron promedios significativamente más altos que los brasileños en el uso de reglas informales y personas fuera de la organización, y los brasileños mostraron promedios significativamente más altos que los estadounidenses en el uso de reglas y procedimientos formales. La discusión mostró que algunas de estas diferencias son compatibles con características de la cultura nacional.</td>
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Como citar este artículo: