

FUNDAÇÃO GETULIO VARGAS
ESCOLA DE ADMINISTRAÇÃO DE EMPRESAS DE SÃO PAULO

GABRIELA JARDIM ROCHA

DEFINING LEADERSHIP IN CHINA: A LITERATURE REVIEW
*How is leadership defined in China by scholars based on a review of published researches
since 2000?*

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*“Para ser grande, sê inteiro: nada
Teu exagera ou exclui*

*Sê todo em cada coisa. Põe quanto és
No mínimo que fazes.*

*Assim em cada lago a lua toda
Brilha, porque alta vive”*

Ricardo Reis, Heterônimo de Fernando Pessoa

Resumo

A partir do ano de 2000, o processo de internacionalização da China se intensificou e tornou ainda mais visível as diferenças culturais diante das perspectivas Ocidentais. Uma delas é a divergência entre as práticas de gestão e liderança. Baseada em uma revisão de literatura de 234 artigos publicados em periódicos com fator de impacto acima de 1.0, esta dissertação identifica como estudiosos definem liderança na China desde 2000 até hoje. Os resultados podem ser divididos em três grupos: perspectiva das Teorias Ocidentais, perspectiva das Teorias Orientais e perspectiva teorias combinadas onde os estudos interculturais e a liderança transformacional dominaram as perspectivas adotadas pelos pesquisadores (estes incluídos no grupo de perspectiva das Teorias Ocidentais). Na perspectiva das Teorias Orientais, o Confucionismo e o Guanxi foram os mais citados. Enquanto na perspectiva das Teorias Combinadas, Confucionismo e o *Guanxi* foram misturados com várias Teorias Ocidentais. Portanto, embora haja uma forte cultura local, a perspectiva mais adotada pelos periódicos internacionais e estudiosos para olhar a e analisar a liderança na China foram os estudos interculturais e a Liderança Transformacional.

Palavras-chave: Liderança – China; Estudos interculturais; Confucionismo; Psicologia organizacional.

Abstract

From 2000, China's internationalization process intensified and highlighted cultural differences against Western perspectives. One of those is the divergence in management and leadership practices. Based on a literature review of more than 234 articles published in journals with an impact factor higher than 1.0, this dissertation identifies how scholars define leadership in China from 2000 until today. The findings can be divided into three groups: Western Theories' perspective, Eastern Theories' perspective and Blended Theories' Perspective wherein cross-cultural studies and transformational leadership dominated the perspectives adopted by researchers and were included in the Western Theories' perspective. In the Eastern Theories' perspective, Confucianism and *Guanxi* were the most cited. While in the Blended perspective, Confucianism and Guanxi were blended with several Western Theories. Therefore, even though there is this local culture, the most adopted perspective by international journals and scholars to look and analyze leadership in China is the cross-cultural studies' and the transformational leadership approach.

Keywords: Leadership – China; Cross-cultural studies; Confucianism; Organizational Psychology.

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List of Abbreviations

WTO	World Trade Organization
TL	Transformational Leadership
LMX	Leader-member Exchange Theory
OCBO	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors towards the organization
I-C	Individualism-Collectivism

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research objective and method

In order to foment understanding, the purpose of this thesis is to categorize leadership definition in China. Therefore, the aim is to categorize how leadership is defined in China by scholars through published researches since 2000. This thesis will provide a further understanding regarding the local culture in an international perspective. Such categorization was made through a literature review which the steps will be detailed in the Methodology section.

The research question is:

How is leadership defined in China by scholars based on a review of published researches since 2000?

The idea of researching articles and papers only from 2000 is due to the Chinese “Go Global” strategy, launched in 2000. It was in that moment that, officially, China supported its companies to expand their activities through international investments. Another reason for that period was the country’s effective participation in the WTO (World Trade Organization) in 2001.

To properly answer this research question, will be presented the methodology used and the results analysis from this literature search. Later, also a comparison between the data gathered in the search with the current studies involving China.

1.2 Relevance for scholars and practitioners

Nowadays, there are several articles available on internet regarding Chinese companies, management style and leadership practices. Unfortunately, this content is not condensed in one source, but in several journals and websites. Therefore, the relevance for scholars and practitioners is, firstly, to have a research which organizes the related content of the most impactful journals in a unique methodology.

Also because China is a growing country which affects not only Brazil, but has a huge impact on the international agenda: from economy to social issues. From that perspective, it will be beneficial for local countries (and its respective companies) to understand more deeply which the Chinese perceptions when dealing with leadership management are.

And the companies focusing on the Chinese market or local companies result of the merger with Chinese companies can increase their behavioral approach focusing on understand that specific culture.

1.3 Dissertation outline

The basis to this dissertation was its methodological approach and its comparisons with the existing studies regarding Chinese culture. Attributable to that, it will first be shared the theoretical framework used to position leadership definition since its first use in order to give an overview about the topic. Also, a brief cross-cultural studies presentation to share the current research lines regarding culture.

Then, the methodological approach will be shared to position the readers how the data was gathered. Following, the data results will be translated into categories and main concepts to understand leadership definition in China by scholars in published articles since 2000. In the Analysis Finding chapter, the theoretical framework will be added into analysis.

In Conclusion and Future Recommendations' Chapter, a proposal for the definition of leadership in China will be presented and also some future research and studies recommendations to the subject.

2. CONTEXT AND DEFINITIONS: Why China? A macroeconomic view.

With the communist power transition from Mao to Deng Xiaoping, China started a series of economic and institutional changes which lead to a path of accelerated growth until nowadays. This period is known as the China Economic Reform. In constants steps, the country gathered world relevance (economical and politically) and now has a relevant impact in the Brazilian trades with repercussion in companies' cultural management differences and leadership alignment.

The Chinese economic transformation started in 1978 reaching to increase the market mechanisms role in the system and reduce (not eliminate) government planning and direct control. According to Chow (2002), from 1978 to 1990, the six major components of the economic reform were agriculture, state-enterprises, banking system, foreign trade and investment (the open door policy), the non-state sectors, institutional infrastructure.

Much credit from the success of the first phase is given to China's president, Deng: he actually fostered new ideas through "pragmatism and experimentation" (Chow, 2002, p. 59) and this supportive behavior enhanced Chinese growth and improvement throughout the years.

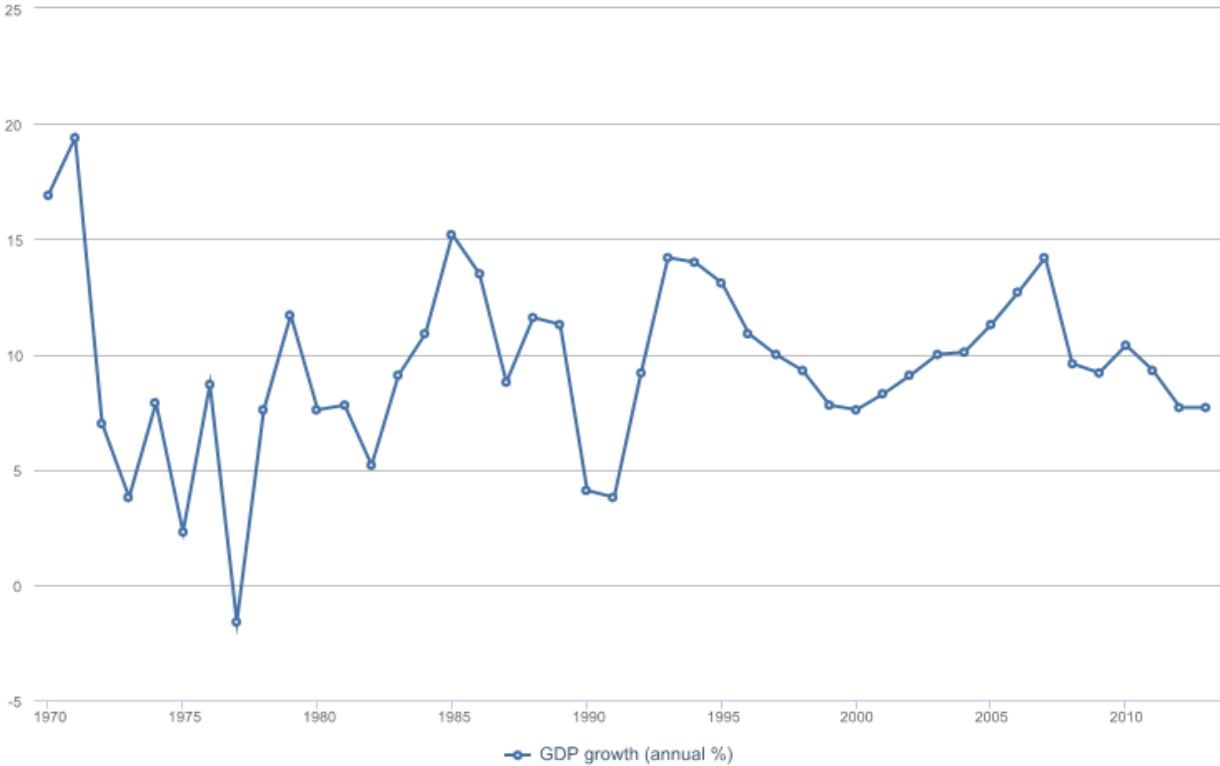
In the second phase, from beginning of the 90's (1992) until 1999, decentralization was even stronger what made possible an improvement in the Chinese people life quality. Also, during this period, the Shanghai Stock Exchange - closed in Mao's government - was re-established and operations began. Deng opened it in 1978 what is today the 6th largest stock market in the world.

It was also during the second phase that privatizations started to appear and, for the first time, private sector's GDP become bigger than the state sectors (Brandt and Rawski, 2008). Actually, the main concern in the second phase was the Chinese life quality used as drive to foster industrialization and market liberalization.

The third phase is the one lived today since the year 2000. This last phase's goal was to reduce unemployment, to rebalance income distribution, to implement private property rights and to continue to grow protecting the environment (Brandt and Rawski, 2008).

There was also a step in which China launched the “Go Global” or “Go Outward” strategy launched by the Premier Zhu Rongji in 2000 in his report to the National People’s Congress. According to Turner (2014, p. 59), the government goal with such an initiative was that “enterprises under all forms of ownership were strongly encouraged to invest in overseas operations and expand their international market shares”. The Chinese companies had government support to develop outward foreign direct investments. In the following two Five-Year plan (2001-2005 and 2006-2010) this strategy was strengthened and its processes and bureaucracy diminished to accelerate companies’ internationalization.

It was also during the last phase (in 2001), that China was approved in the World Trade Organization (WTO). All those efforts were felt directly through an increase on China’s GDP:



Country : China
 Created from: World Development Indicators
 Created on: 09/18/2014

Graphic 1: China’s GDP: from 1970 to 2013. *Source: World Development Indicators.*

As shown in the chart, the last year China had a GDP lower than zero was in 1977 (GDP -1.6%), one year before the Reform Era started. In Economic Reform's first year, China's GDP embarked in an increasing era: in 1978, the GDP came up for 7.6% - an increase of 8%. Another important data that proves China's growth is an average annual rate of 9,9% of the last 30 years (Larçon, 2009).

All this foreign investment encouragement made that, in 2008, "29 leading Chinese enterprises were already on the Fortune 500 Global list (and that) 8 mainland China companies are among the top 100 non-financial multinationals from developing countries." (Larçon, 2009, p.2).

Huawei Technologies is an example of how successful was this internationalization process. In 2001, they've created FutureWei designed to attend North American market focused on R&D and with its headquarters located in the USA. Lenovo also is an example when bought the personal computer division of IBM in 2004 (Holstein, 2014).

The Brazilian relationship with China was firstly formalized during the economics' reform second phase, in 1993. In that time, China's GDP already was of 14.2% one of the biggest in the country's history, losing only for the GDP in 1985 (15.2%).

There was a moment when China decided to reconnect with the biggest countries in the world, after the Tiananmen episode¹. Besides its political impact amongst the European countries and the USA, China also needed to increase its market spread and find new ways of generating capital (Junior, 2010). Therefore, in 1993, a Strategic Partnership (as it was titled) was settled between Brazil and China. For Brazil, it represented the first time the country established an alliance with an international player besides Latin America, Europe and USA. Besides this economic and political expansion, in the Brazilian perspective, this partnership would bring exports increase and political alliances in the international arena and forums.

The Sino-Brazilian partnership was the first partnership to be recognized by China, before the Russian (1996) and the French (1997). It gave significant results and impacts for the Brazilian trade balance until 1997. In 1998 and 1999, this result started to fall due to the Asian financial

¹ In 1989, student-led protests pro-democracy happened in the Tiananmen Square, in Beijing. Around 5 thousand students get united to protest against corruption, unemployment and inflation increase. The government decided to end the protest by force and, according to the Chinese Red Cross, almost 2600 people were killed.

crisis in 1997. It generated China's exports decrease as a result of the impact in the exchange rate and Brazilian real devaluation for 18 consecutive months (Junior, 2010). This commercial trade fluctuation is shared below:

Exportações	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1997	1998	1999
Valores	226	460	779,0	822,0	1.204,0	1.088,2	904,9	676,1
Varição (%)	- 40,8	103,5	69,3	5,5	46,5	-2,3	-16,9	-25,3
Part. (%) na Ásia	4,0	8,2	12,7	11,7	14,7	14,1	16,1	11,8
Part. (%) no total	0,7	1,3	2,0	1,9	2,6	2,05	1,77	1,41
						12°	14°	15°
Importações	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1997	1998	1999
Valores	129,0	116,0	305,0	463,0	1.039,0	1.166,4	1.033,8	865,2
Varição (%)	-23,6	- 9,5	161,0	52,0	124,8	3,0	-11,4	-16,3
Part. (%) na Ásia	3,2	2,9	8,3	9,3	12,7	12,9	13,1	13,4
Part. (%) no total	0,6	0,6	1,2	1,4	2,1	1,94	1,78	1,76
Saldo Comercial	97,4	343,3	474,5	358,9	162,0	10°	12°	14°
Comércio bilateral	355,4	576,8	1.084,3	1.285,9	2.243,5	-78,2	-128,9	-189,0
						3.254,6	1.938,7	1.541,3

Table 1: Commercial Trade with China (1991-1995) and (1997-1999). *Source: Junior, 2010, p. 78 and 79*

But, the alliance took off in the year 2000, when China deliberated outwards investments with the “Go Global” policy. It was also when the trade balance became positive for Brazil again, as show in table 2:

Exportações	2000	2001	2002	2003
Valores	1.085,2	1.902,0	2.520,4	4.532,5
Varição (%)	60,5	75,2	32,5	79,8
Part (%) na Ásia	17,2	27,4	28,7	38,8
Part. (%) no total	1,9	3,3	4,2	6,2
Importância como mercado	12°	6°	4°	3°
Importações	2000	2001	2002	2003
Valores	1.222,2	1.328,0	1.554,0	2.147,6
Varição (%)	41,3	8,6	17,0	38,2
Part (%) na Ásia	14,2	14,9	19,4	24,1
Part. (%) no total	2,2	2,4	3,3	4,4
Saldo Comercial	-137,0	573,9	966,4	2.384,9
Comércio bilateral	2.307,5	3.230,1	4.074,4	6.680,1
Importância como fornecedor	11°	9°	7°	5°

Fonte: CACEX/DEPEC (Valores em US milhões F.O.B.)

Table 2 - Commercial Trade with China (2000-2003). *Source: Junior, 2010, p. 112*

Above it is possible to see that, from 2002 to 2003, the exports' value had a growth of 55%.

“What actually changed from 1997-1999 to 2000-2003 was the exports scale both in soya as in iron ore”, explains Junior (2010, p. 113).

After 2003, in the following years, this partnership continued to bring even more value for both countries, as following attested:

Figura 19. Entre os países, a China tornou-se o mais importante destino das exportações brasileiras.

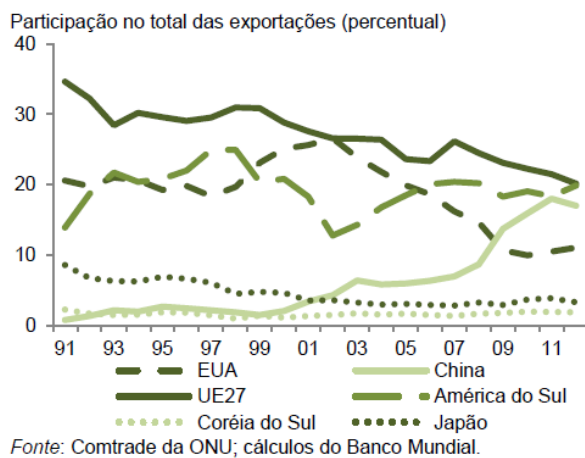
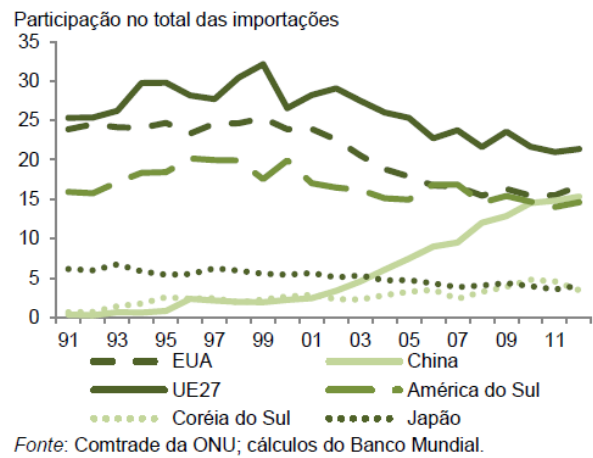


Figura 20. A China tornou-se a segunda mais importante fonte de importações do Brasil.



Graphic 2: Countries participation on Brazilian exports and imports. *Source: World Bank, 2014, p. 41.*

According to the figure 4, in 2009, China overcome USA and became Brazil's biggest commercial partner, especially regarding exports. Besides commodities, now China is also looking for Brazilian and Latin America consumer market and this is currently, the main factor why there are so many Chinese investments in the country (Caleiro, 2014). Chery, JAC Motors are focused on Brazilian new C class, for example.

All this increase exchange between the two countries generated a closer and more frequent contact with each country's companies. Therefore, quicker than ever, the need to understand each other's culture is getting bigger in the same speed as its commercial trade movement.

Due to that, all the data shared in this chapter aims to advocate to China as a research topic focus. During the last 35 years, the country displayed consistency in its growth path and, especially since 2000, the positive and relevant impact the sino-brazilian partnership had in the Brazilian economy.

The success of those Brazilian-Chinese companies after mergers & acquisitions, Chinese companies' expanding their activities in Brazil (such as Lenovo, Chery, JAC Motors and Huawei) and Brazilian companies with operations in China (such as Suzano, Bunge and BRF) all depend on cultural alignment and understanding.

Lenovo experience when acquiring IBM personal computer division is an example of how is important this cultural management knowledge about each country. One of the situations cited was how Chinese and North Americans deal with their leaders: “western managers expected their direct reports to push back and sometimes challenge their superiors' decision, but the Chinese tendency was to merely execute (...). ‘In China we have to respect the leaders’, explains Qiao, Lenovo’s HR” (Holstein, 2014, p. 3).

This is just one real example that shows how cultural knowledge of management and leadership are fundamental to provide the most conducive environment for generating even more profits for all shareholders.

3. CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

3.1 Conceptualizing leadership

The first time the word leadership appeared was a long time before leadership definition has been attached to management theories. There are some scholars such as Mumford (1906) and van Vugt (2008) that defend leadership as an instinctive function present not only in human, but also in animals, especially, social animals.

For Mumford (1906, p. 225), leadership is a prerequisite to all animal societies. “Among many of the larger societies of mammal the best-qualified member gains the leadership and finally obtains absolute obedience”. To van Vugt (2008, p. 1), “leadership is a response to the need for collective action” and animals and humans are subjected to this simple behavior of “following the one who moves first”.

The Darwinian perspective also defends this point of view through examples of leadership amongst social animals (Darwin, 1981). van Vugt (2008, p. 2) shares this Darwinian evolutionary approach regarding adaptation of leadership throughout the human species evolution and defines 3 stages to such development. The first phase ended in the ice age and lasted 2.5 million years. In that time, human were nomadic and had a more democratic style of leadership. The second phase was marked by the agriculture development, about 13.000 years ago. As the human started to group themselves and to fix in places, the need of a centralized leader increased and, due to that, a more formalized and authoritarian leadership style was settled. The third phase started with the industrial revolution, 250 years ago. Here was when academic discussions regarding leadership started and the word was linked to business and politics spheres.

Besides this evolutionary perspective regarding leadership definition, Mumford (1906, p. 226), also believes that in human beings “the instinctive character both of leadership and obedience may be noted in the associations of children and especially in their playing. The stronger, more energetic, more masterful, or more resourceful member of the group gains the ascendancy and often exercises almost complete control over his companions”.

According to Toor & Ofori (2008, p. 62), the origin of the words “lead”, “leader” and “leadership” “have their roots in pre-Anglo-Saxon culture (and it comes) from the word ‘lead’, the roots of which are in ‘loedan’ (or ‘lithan’) which means ‘to travel’”. Bass & Stogdill (1990, p. 3) shared that the first written document to mention the words leadership, leader and followers was from the Egyptians in 2300 BC. This document was assigned to Ptahhotep who wrote the first book of humanity and in which leadership was identified as derived from a human transcendent order, referring to the exceptional qualities of a leader.

In the China, leadership was already being contemplated by the Chinese philosopher and poet writings, Lao Tzu, in 2500 years ago (Toor & Ofori, 2008, p. 63):

A leader is the best
When people barely know he exists
Not so good when people obey and acclaim him
Worse when they despise him
But of a good leader, who talks little,
When his work is done, his aim fulfilled,
They will say: we did it ourselves.

The first time the word leadership appeared at the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) was in 825 CE through the word “lead”. But, its modern definition came only in 1225 CE already defining the modern concept of leadership as a guiding process powered by action, opinion, persuasion and argument (Toor & Ofori, 2008).

In 1513, Machiavel, in his book “The Prince”, deepened the discussion regarding leadership since his entire book was focusing in the leadership application. This was considered a milestone in the leadership discussion.

According to Toor & Ofori (2008), in the nineteenth century, leadership was conceptualized as a way of influence and persuade through dominion. It was connected to a state of a person. While, in the twentieth century, this definition evolved to an ability to lead in a determined context.

Throughout the years, the definition of leadership changed mostly influenced by the definition of “leader”. And those changes occurred according to the research year and to the author, as shared in the Attachment 1.

Even though leadership definition came from more the million years ago, the attempts to categorize leadership practices originated during the First World War. Along with the definition of leadership emerged different leadership approaches which will be detailed in the following section.

3.2 Leadership Approaches

Walking together with the leadership definition was the development of different leadership approaches. Those approaches were scholars’ theoretical grouping of ideas, definition, concepts and points-of-view about leadership practices.

3.2.1 Traits and Attributes Theory

According to Sills & Merton (2008, p. 378), during the nineteenth and the early twentieth centuries, the predominant leadership approach was the “great man” theories. The conceptual origin of those studies came in the 1930’s when some scholars looked for social, physical, intellectual or personality traits that could differentiate leaders from non-leaders (Campello, Rocha & Becker, 2006). For this approach, leaders were born leaders and could not be developed as such.

Some experts that embraced Traits and Attributes Theory were Ralph Stogdill, Richard Mann (1959) and, more recently, a re-analysis of the subject was made by Robert Lord, Christy de Vader, and George Alliger (1986). There are also renowned authors such as Smith & Peterson (1994), Buono & Bowditch (1992), Yulk (1994) and House & Baetz (1978) that focused in studying all leadership approaches, including the Traits and Attributes Theories.

3.2.2 Behavioral Theory

After the Second World War, behavior was included as a research topic. Scholars started to develop the Behaviors Theories switching their focus from what leaders are (Traits Theory) for what leaders do (Behavioral Theory). The main difference between the Traits and Attributes to the Behavioral Theory is that the second believes that leaders not only can be born as leaders, but they can also be developed. Some scholars were crucial for the development of this approach, such as Lewin (1930) and Lewin, Lippitt & Withe (1939). There were also some important studies such as Ohio State (1940s), Michigan University (1945), the X and Y Theory from McGregor (1957), the Managerial Grid by Blake and Mouton (1964), the Scandinavian Studies (1990s), the Immaturity-Maturity Theory by Argyris (1964) and Likert Management Systems' (1967).

3.2.3 Contingency and Situational Theories

This approach examines both “the tasks and the follower characteristics to specify what behavior is required of effective leaders” (Sills & Merton, 2008, p. 379). There were several theories related, but the most influential were the following ones: Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory of leadership, Reddin's (1966) organizational effectiveness, Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) situational leadership model, House's (1971) path-goal theory of leadership and Vroom and Yetten's (1973) normative decision model.

3.2.4 Transactional Theories

The focus on this approach is to understand the “process-oriented exchange between leaders and followers” (Sills & Merton, 2008, p. 380) and it focus on the follower's perception of the leader's behaviors and actions. Some of the renowned studies are inside Transactional Theories such as Implicit Leadership Theory, Leader-Member Exchange Theory and Pygmalion Theory.

In the Implicit Leadership Theory, “a leader's behavior will not be effective unless the person is perceived as a leader” (Calder, 1977). While the Leader-Member Exchange Theory, from Graen and Ginsburg (1977) presumes that “leaders have *in-groups* of trusted individuals within their organization. Subordinates in the *out-group* are supervised through a more formal authority

process” (Sills & Merton, 2008, p. 380). And the Pygmalion theory advocates that “raising leader expectations regarding follower achievement produces an improvement in the followers’ performance” (Eden, 1990).

3.2.5 New-genre Theories

Since 1980s, it encompasses leadership theories such as charismatic, inspirational, transformational, transactional and visionary leadership. According to Rost (2008), those studies brought to the leadership research the symbolism, the senses management and how is important to understand the followers’ feelings and emotions to better lead them. The studies that emerged from the New-genre Theories were Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, Charismatic Leadership, Authentic Leadership and Servant Leadership.

3.3 Cross-cultural studies

As viewed in the later section, throughout the years, several studies that tried to understand and organize leadership definition emerged. Even though there is a line of thought in all studies shared, there are some discussions regarding the uniformity of a leadership approach.

Due to that, some scholars started to question themselves about how much applicable were those Leadership Theories in cultures besides USA and Europe. Is leadership definition a universal management principle? Or does it differ from country to country?

Cross-cultural studies started to research, among other issues, if leadership definition could vary from one country to another. Even though this dissertation is not a cross-cultural research, it’s important to overview this scholar perspective to understand why they’ve emerged and which are the most used cross-culture theories in corporate environment.

The starting point to unravel cross-cultural studies is to firstly understand what culture is. According to Schein (1992, p. 247), culture is “a pattern of shared basic assumptions, invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to consider valid, and, therefore, is to be taught to new members of the group as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in

relation to those problems”. It means culture is everything that is not instinctive for human, but all things that human beings add value.

With the nation borders getting smaller, through the economic agreements and globalization, increased the need to understand cultural differences. “To succeed, corporations must develop global strategies. The final decades of the twentieth century made the importance of such recognition commonplace, at least among leading firms and management scholars”, explains Adler (2008, p. 9).

Such an international perspective requirements for multinational companies made cross-cultural management studies emerge. The reason is that national boundaries started to matter and to impact business through people’s behavior. The focus of such studies is to improve the relation between people from different nationalities represented by leaders, co-workers, suppliers, clients and so on.

According to Adler (2008, p. 24), the Chinese cultural management approach is to combine the two extremes: good (Confucian tradition) with the evil (Lao Tzu tradition), different from the North Americans, for example. Such a cross-cultural awareness and need to understand the other developed several theories. Most of them used nation as level of analysis due to convenience, homogeneity and stability.

There were 5 studies in the field: Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961), Hofstede’s (1980) Cultural Dimensions, Trompenaars’ (1997) Cultural Typology; GLOBE Study (1991) and Schwartz’s (1992, 1994) Value Inventory (SVI). During the research findings’ chapter, will be explored two streams of research: Hofstede’s Cultural Dimensions and GLOBE study since they were found in the data analysis.

4. METHODOLOGY

The literature review was used as the methodological approach to understand what leadership in China is through the scholars' perspective. The database used was published articles since 2000 in journals with an impact factor higher than 1.0 and the focus was articles only written in English to capture the international perspective.

4.1 Methodology relevance & validity

The efforts were made focusing on “identifying, evaluating, and synthesizing the existing body of completed and recorded work produced by researchers, scholars, and practitioners” (Fink, 2009, p. 3). Since the goal is to summarize the current status of the research on the topic, this dissertation is considered a Basic Literature Review, according to Machi & McEvoy (2012) definition.

The impact factor is used as a methodological way to select the journals which would be researched to this dissertation. It's a number obtained dividing the article citation number in a specific magazine of the Institute of Scientific Information (ISI) database by what has been published in the same magazine in the last 2 years. According to CAPES (Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior), impact factor higher or equal to 1 is considered the best classification for an article (Brito, de Luca & Teixeira, 2013).

Due to the researcher language skills, there were scanned articles written in English, Spanish and Portuguese.

4.2 Sample

To summarize the content regarding leadership in China, 228 articles were used as sample. They were published in several international journals, all of them with an impact factor higher than 1.0 and separate according to Journal Citation Reports (JCR) Social Sciences Edition of 2013's categories *management*, *business*, *public administration*, *sociology* and *social psychology*. According to JCR (2013), “each journal indexed in JCR is assigned to at least one subject

category, indicating a general area of science or the social sciences”. Therefore, some articles were cited in more than one database.

Analyzing each database composition, it’s possible to conclude that the majority of the journals are from the *management* JCR category followed by *business* and *social psychology*. All this data will be explored and analyzed in the 5th chapter.

4. 3 Research method and data collection

The first step in this Literature Review, according to Machi & McEvoy (2012), was to select a topic. Here, the topic was specified, firstly, using Thesaurus to understand what words were grouped together with leadership and also Oxford dictionary to have a clear knowledge of leadership synonymous. It was also researched the etymological meaning and historical roots of this word to comprehend its origin which was detailed in the Theoretical Framework. This is a very important step to pass by to clarify some possible biases that can appear during the literature search.

Secondly, it was time to search the literature: this is where the process begins to be tangible. According to Machi & McEvoy (2012), there are three main phases: scanning, skimming and mapping. The scanning process was used to place the topic. It’s a first overview of what have been published.

The key words employed in this phase were the Boolean combination of “Chinese and leadership” and “Asia and leadership”. All articles scanned were published from 2000 until today (2014) from the JCR databases on the categories business, management, social psychology, sociology and public administration.

This first step focuses on a quantitative analysis and was a first contact with the subject. In the Attachment 2, there are all journals researched totalizing almost 10.000 articles founded. In this process, if an article was found in both Boolean searches, it was counted twice. After all, this step was a photograph of all journals content.

Then, the articles were skimmed in order to start a qualitative analysis. In this second step, the journals and articles were selected. Following, in the 5th chapter, will be deepened the results previewed here order to define Chinese leadership through the papers' perspective.

4. 4 Data analysis and answer the question

The aim of this thesis is to answer the following question: *How is leadership defined in China by scholars based on a review of published researches since 2000?* After scanning and organizing the articles in the several journals, it is necessary to analyze and organized this data. After all, only clustering them to discover the underneath patterns.

The step in charge of analyzing the data is considered by Machi & McEvoy (2012) as skimming. And it means to recognize potentially useful articles to, in the future, group and categorize. To organize the entire data skimmed, a spreadsheet was made with the following fields: database, journal name, impact factor, “Chinese and leadership” or “Asia and leadership”, article name, authors' name, publication year, article keywords, article abstract, themes organization (made by this dissertation author). All articles analyzed in this step will be detailed in the Analysis Finding's chapter but can be accessed through Attachment 3.

In the following table, there are the journals in which the sampled articles were published, with each journal impact factor, the JCR category and the amount of articles in each one:

Journal Name	Impact Factor	Category 1	Category 2	# of articles
Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources	1,000	management		28
Leadership Quarterly	2,006	management		17
Asia Pacific Journal of Management	2,742	management		15
Journal of International Management	1,096	management		14
Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology	1,746	social psychology		14
Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes	2,897	management	social psychology	9
Journal of International Business Studies	3,594	business		8
International Business Review	1,552	business		8
Journal of Business Ethics	1,632	business		7

International Journal of Intercultural Relation	1,216	social psychology		7
Academy of Management Annual	7,333	management		6
Management & Organization Review	3,277	management		6
Leadership	1,000	management		6
Family Business Review	4,243	business		5
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	1,623	management		5
Journal of Nursing Management	1,142	management		4
Management Communication Quarterly	1,047	management		4
Journal of World Business	1,909	business		4
Social Indicators Research	1,452	sociology		4
Journal of Business Research	1,379	business		4
Journal of Management	6,862	management	business	3
Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology	2,480	management		3
Industrial Marketing Management	1,897	management		3
Human Relations	1,867	management		3
Harvard Business Review	1,853	management	business	3
Journal of Applied Behavioral Science	1,088	management		3
Personality and Individual Differences	1,861	social psychology		3
Review of Public Personnel Administration	1,225	public administration		3
Academy of Management Perspectives	2,826	business		2
Academy of Management Review	7,817	management	business	2
Management Accounting Research	1,421	management		2
Management Learning	1,245	management		2
Small Group Research	1,155	management	social psychology	2
Sex Roles	1,698	social psychology		2
Journal of Personality and Social Psychology	5,510	social psychology		1
American Sociological Review	4,266	sociology		1
Public Administration	1,863	public administration		1
International Marketing Review	1,803	business		1
Personnel Psychology	4,54	management		1
Journal of Applied Psychology	4,367	management		1
International Journal of Research in Marketing	1,744	business		1
Journal of Management Studies	3,277	management	business	1
Journal of Organizational Behavior	3,262	management		1
Social Science Research	1,515	sociology		1

Omega - The International Journal of Management Science	3,190	management		1
Business Horizons	1,306	business		1
Policy and Society	1,268	sociology		1
Strategic Management Journal	2,993	management	business	1
Human Resource Management Journal	2,423	management		1
Administrative Science Quarterly	2,394	management	business	1
British Journal of Management	1,909	management	business	1
MIT Sloan Management Review	1,804	management	business	1
Information & Management	1,788	management		1
International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management	1,759	management		1
Journal of Management Inquiry	1,594	management		1
International Sociology	1,000	sociology		1
Journal of Knowledge Management	1,257	management		1

Table 3: Articles distribution by journals

Management category corresponded for almost 60% of all articles analyzed (154 articles). According to the JCR, management category description encompasses “resources on management science, organization studies, strategic planning and decision-making methods, leadership studies, and total quality management” (JCR, 2013). This justifies the relevance of this category in the database.

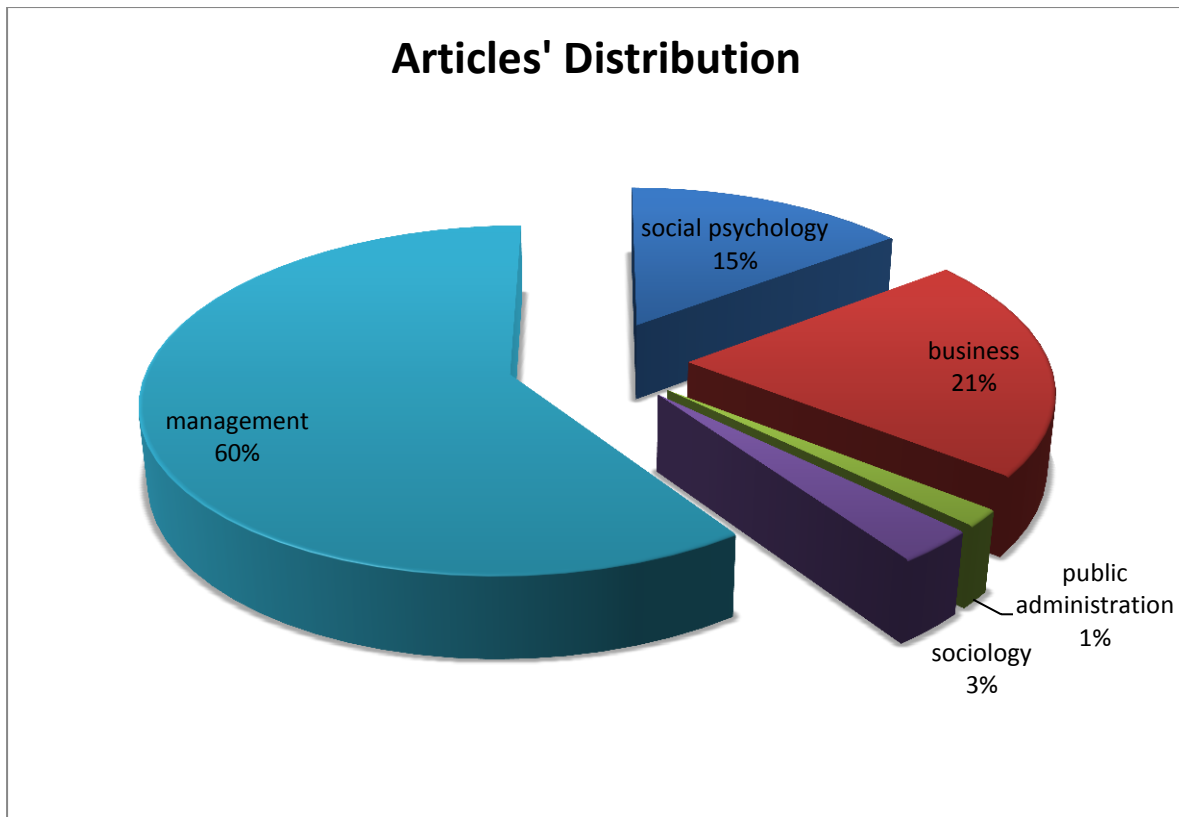
Following, there is the list of all journals from the *management* category, organized by the number of articles:

Journal Name	Impact Factor	Database	Number of articles
Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources	1,000	management	28
Leadership Quarterly	2,006	management	17
Asia Pacific Journal of Management	2,742	management	15
Journal of International Management	1,096	management	14
Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes	2,897	management	9
Academy of Management Annual	7,333	management	6
Management & Organization Review	3,277	management	6
Leadership	1,000	management	6
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	1,623	management	5
Journal of Nursing Management	1,142	management	4
Management Communication Quarterly	1,047	management	4

Journal of Management	6,862	management	3
Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology	2,480	management	3
Industrial Marketing Management	1,897	management	3
Human Relations	1,867	management	3
Harvard Business Review	1,853	management	3
Journal of Applied Behavioral Science	1,088	management	3
Academy of Management Review	7,817	management	2
Management Accounting Research	1,421	management	2
Management Learning	1,245	management	2
Small Group Research	1,155	management	2
Personnel Psychology	4,54	management	1
Journal of Applied Psychology	4,367	management	1
Journal of Management Studies	3,277	management	1
Journal of Organizational Behavior	3,262	management	1
Omega - The International Journal of Management Science	3,190	management	1
Strategic Management Journal	2,993	management	1
Human Resource Management Journal	2,423	management	1
Administrative Science Quarterly	2,394	management	1
British Journal of Management	1,909	management	1
MIT Sloan Management Review	1,804	management	1
Information & Management	1,788	management	1
International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management	1,759	management	1
Journal of Management Inquiry	1,594	management	1
Journal of Knowledge Management	1,257	management	1

Table 4: Journals distribution by management category

The second most used category was *business*, accounting for 54 articles. *Public administration* database had only 4 articles, *sociology* 8 articles and *social psychology* 38 articles. Following, there is a graphic representation of the discussed distribution:



Graphic 3: Overview of database articles distribution

In the *business* category description by JCR are covered “all aspects of business and the business world. These may include marketing and advertising, forecasting, planning, administration, organizational studies, compensation, strategy, retailing, consumer research, and management. Also covered are resources relating to business history and business ethics” (JCR, 2013).

The action of categorizing this material is already a mapping step in which the information is organized in order to be included in the literature review. Therefore, mapping was made by reading the articles’ abstract and, if interesting and directly related to the topic, each article’s introduction and conclusion. All articles were then organized according to their analyzed themes and theories.

The third step is represented by developing an argument after concluding data organization. This step was accomplished after finalizing the table, when articles categorization were reunited, which will be explored in the Analysis of Findings chapter. Here, themes/theories were grouped

according to their frequency and a pattern started to emerge: some articles used Western leadership approaches to look at Chinese leadership, while some used the Eastern lenses to understand local cultural perspectives whilst others blended both Western and Eastern perspectives to analyze the same scenario. Due to that, the qualitative selected articles were clustered into three different groups: Western Theories' Perspective, Eastern Theories' Perspective and Blended Perspectives.

Finally, the review was written and is here being shared. As said before, the goal is to collect and organize the available data about the subject and bring some light to it.

4.5 Expected findings

First of all, due to some knowledge in cross-cultural studies and an assumption of the Chinese culture, the first expected finding was to see the Chinese leadership definition not as a static concept, but as a relationship between people, so, a fluid concept. And, because of the collectivist assumption, a second expected finding was to define Chinese leadership as not something born in the corporate world, on the contrary, something established with the family, especially because of the Confucian doctrine.

Based on those assumptions, was expected to define Chinese leadership rooted on the country cultural traditions, but, at the same time, to be an evolving concept, especially because of China's globalization and open its economy and market for Western companies.

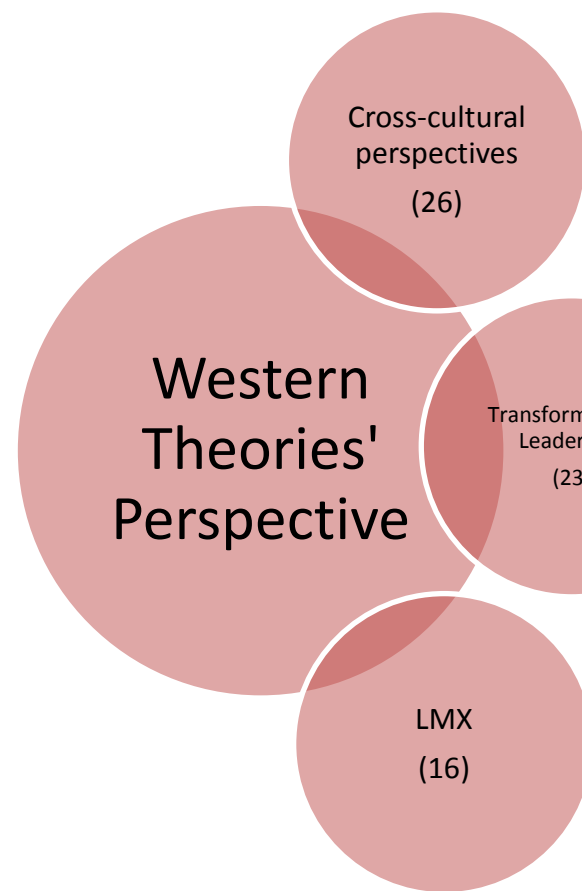
4.6 Limitations on the research process

It may be missing a local perspective, written in the local language, about the subject even though this research focus was on articles written only in English, due to the international perspective;

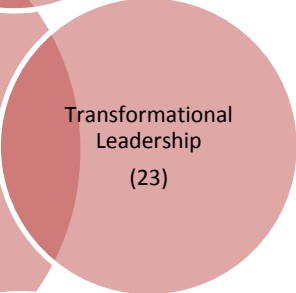
Besides, the articles researched are from 2000 and mainly academic papers. Therefore, there are chances of the reality shared in this thesis being only regarding an academic view about leadership and not leadership lived and practice in Chinese businesses.

5. ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

After reading all articles, as described in the methodology, they were categorized in order to cluster the concepts into groups and analyze the patterns. The figures 1 and 2 summarize the findings of the search of the literature:



Silverthorne, 2001; Dickson, Hartog & Mitchelson, 2003; Chen & Tjosvold, 2005; Hong, Snell & Easterby-Smith, 2006; Kelley, MacNab & Worthley, 2006; Church et all, 2006; Goncalo & Staw, 2006; Ergeneli, Gohar & Temirbekova, 2007; Nyberg & Jensen, 2009; Javidan & Dastmalchian, 2009; Li, 2010; Fock, Yim & Rodriguez, 2010; Kuchinke et all, 2011; Gutierrez et all, 2012; Lia et all, 2012; Mittal & Dorfman, 2012; Berman et all, 2013; West, Beh & Sabharwal, 2013; Owe et all, 2013; Torelli et all, 2014; Hagger, Rentzelas & Koch, 2014; Demes & Geeraert, 2014; Taras et all, 2014; Church et all, 2014; Jin, Chen, Fosh & Chen, 2014; Zhang & Zhou, 2014



Huang & Snell, 2003; Walumbwa et all, 2004; Spreitzer et all, 2005; Shaoa & Webber, 2006; Menguca & Auh, 2008; Liu, Zhu & Yang, 2010; Fu, Tsui & Liu, 2010; Lee, Cheng & Yeung, 2011; Zhang, Tsui & Wang, 2011; Chen, Lin & McDonough, 2012; Rockstuhl et all, 2012; Bai, Li & Xi, 2012; Hu, Wang, Liden & Sun, 2012; Uen et all, 2012; Aycan et all, 2013; Weng et all, 2013; Li et all, 2013; Dai et all, 2013; Wong, Wei & Tjosvold, 2014; Zhang et all, 2014; Wanga, Tsaia & Tsai, 2014; Engeleen et all, 2014; Wei, And & Yufan, 2014.

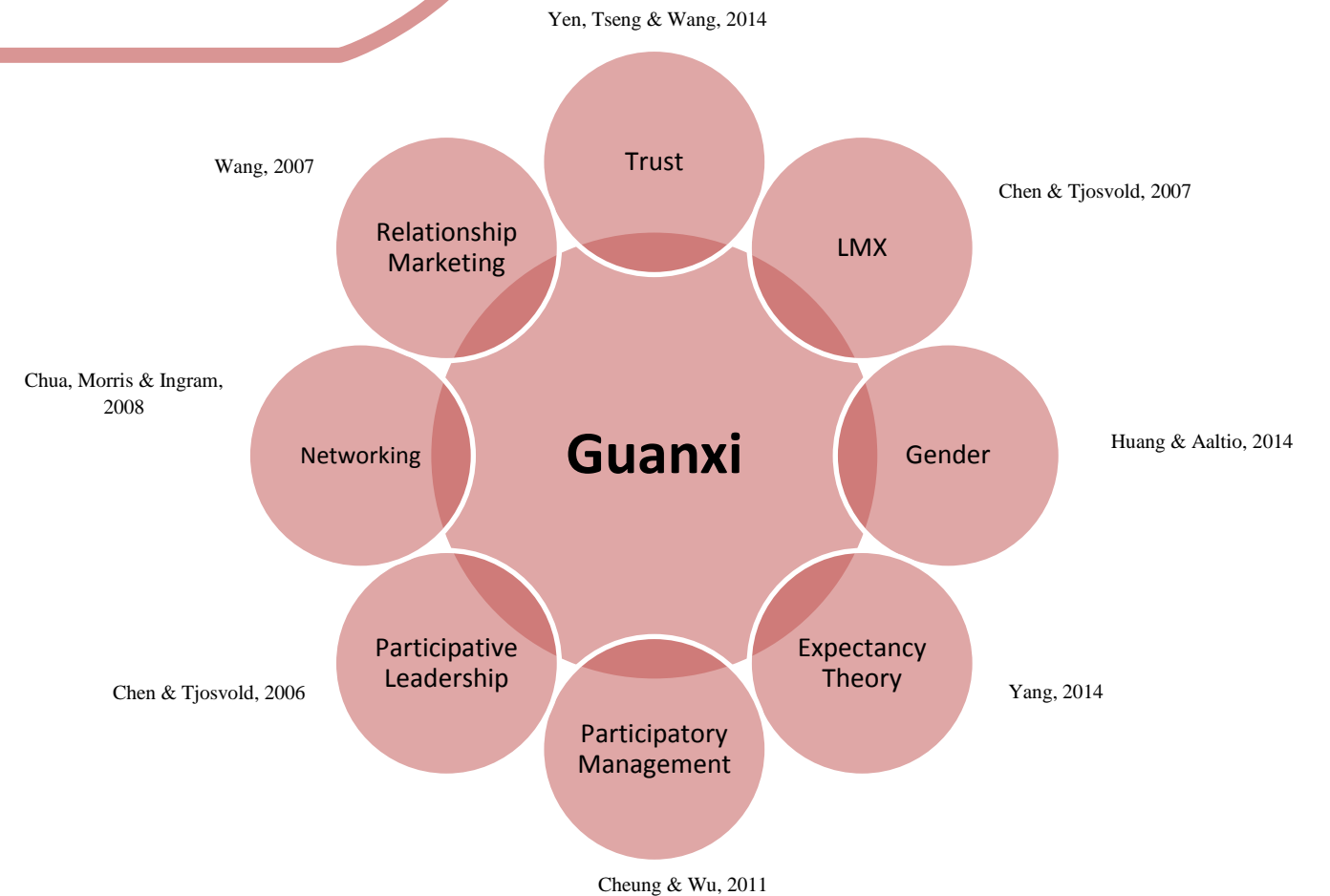
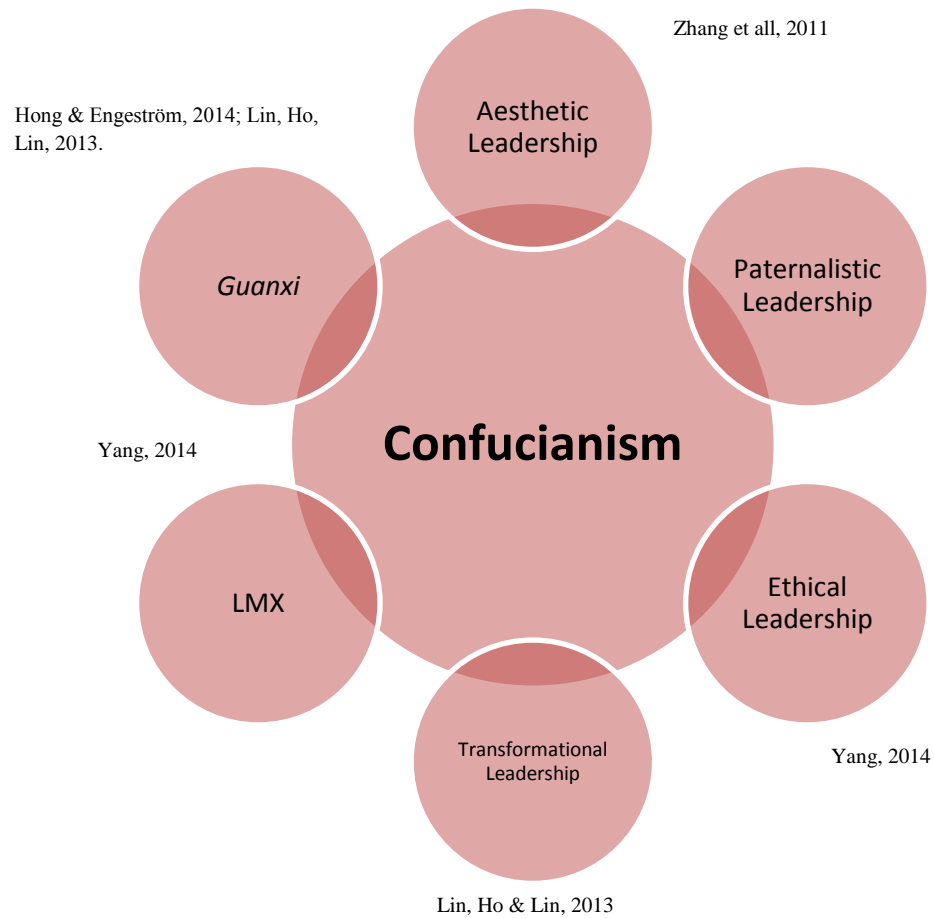
Chen & Tjosvold, 2005; Chen, Tjosvold & Su 2005; Wang & Clegg, 2007; Hui et all, 2008; Nahrgang et all, 2009; Walumbwa et all, 2011; Winkler, 2011; Loi et all, 2011; Chan & M, 2012; Rockstuhl et all, 2012; Meng & wu, 2012; Bai, Li & Xi, 2012; Li et all, 2013; Cheung & Wu, 2014; Yang et all, 2014; Xu et all, 2014.

Hong & Engeström, 2004; Chen & Tjosvold, 2007; Chen, Y. & Tjosvold, D. 2006 Wang, 2007; Chua et all, 2008; Leung et all, 211; Homa & Xiao, 2011; Cheung & Wu, 2011; Smith et all, 2012; Dou & Li, 2013; Smith et all, 2014; Yen et all, 2014; Huang & Aaltio, 2004; Yang, 2004.



Fu & Tsui, 2003; Hong & Engeström, 2004; Cheung & Chan, 2005; Yan & Ritch, 2006; Woods & Lamond, 2010; Zhang et all, 2011; Xu, 2011; Fang & Faure, 2011; Lin, Ho & Lin, 2013; Chen et all, 2014.

Blended Theories' Perspective



In this figure, the themes/theories are divided into the three groups and, in front of each theme/theory; there is the amount of times that it repeated in the sample. For example, the most researched theory, in the Western Theories' Perspective group, was Transformational Leadership with 27 articles addressing this theory. Also, in front of each theme/theory, there are the scholars which had their articles analyzed in this dissertation.

To deepen the analysis, it will be presented following how Chinese leadership is seen in each of the most relevant themes/theories and those topics will be divided by groups. The most relevant themes/theories were selected based on the repetition pattern of each group. Therefore, there is no single limitation of recurrence or a specific minimum value for all groups.

5.1 Western Theories' Perspective

As this was the most populate group, the cutoff for this group was 19 repeated times since the fourth theme/theory was cited only 9 times. Due to that it will be described the following themes/theories:

Theme/Theory	Number of articles
Cross-cultural perspectives	26
Transformational Leadership (TL)	23
Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX)	16

Table 5 – Western Theories' Perspective

5.1.1 Cross-cultural perspectives

As said in the Conceptual Issues' chapter, the basic assumption of the cross-cultural studies is that there is not a universal definition for how people behave in different countries, especially in case of leadership principles. Most of the articles on database followed the cross-culture approach to explore and explain leadership in China.

Before sharing the articles' perspectives, Individualism-Collectivism, Hofested's cultural dimensions and GLOBE study will be contextualized.

5.1.1.1 Individualism-Collectivism (I-C)

Coined by Triandis (1995), the cultural dimension of individualism –collectivism was a successful attempt to consider the social context on the nature of personhood. Recent research has focus on values and self-construals, leaving belief component aside. According to Owe et al (2012), Hofstede (1980) was responsible for highly disseminate I-C and the perspective of culture based on values. Further, this perspective was widely adopted for researches such as The Chinese Culture Connection (1987) and by Schwartz (1992).

5.1.1.2 Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

The Hofstede study analyzed, in total, more than 70 countries and 160.000 IBM employees from the 1967 to 1973². Hofstede started to catalogue all that gathered data and publish the study (1980) containing; initially four cultural dimensions but evolved, with time, for the following six dimensions:

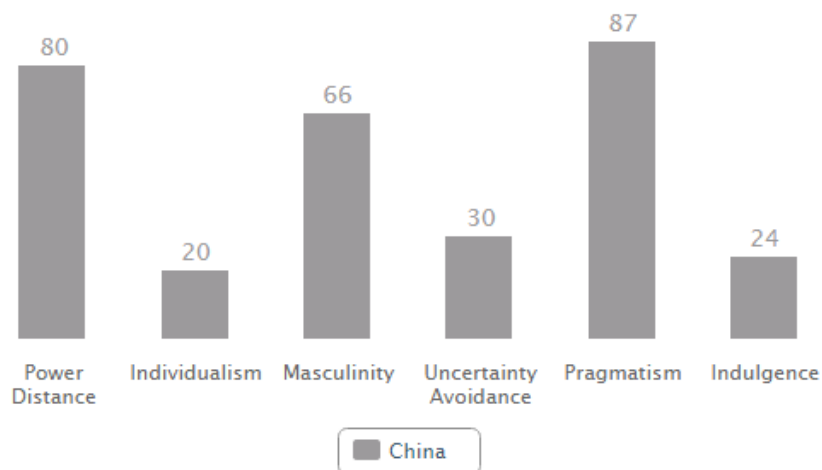
- *Individualism vs Collectivism*: According to a definition in Hofstede (n.d.), individualism can be defined as “a preference for a loosely-knit social framework in which individuals are expected to take care of only themselves and their immediate families” and collectivism are knit social ties in which individuals count each other to look after and think more in terms of “We” than “I”.
- *Power Distance Index*: it means “the degree to which the less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally” Hofstede (n.d.). According to Hofstede's reasoning, there are societies which accept high levels of inequality between its members;
- *Uncertainty Avoidance Index*: this dimension share how much open to risk a certain society is and how much it bother uncertainty and ambiguity;
- *Masculinity vs Femininity*: this dimension encompasses the difference between focus on competitiveness and rationally (masculinity values) *versus* cooperative and sensitive (feminine values), respectively;

² Source: The Hofstede Center – Dimensions: <http://geert-hofstede.com/dimensions.html>. Accessed in September 29th, 2014.

- *Long term orientation vs Short term orientation*: this dimension was added in 1984 in a partnership with Bond also known as Confucian Dynamism. It determines how much a society it's attached to its past and historical roots;
- Finally, in 2011, Hofstede came with the sixth dimension: *Indulgence vs Restraint*. He defined indulgence as a society “that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human drives” while restraint as a society “that suppresses gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms” (Hofstede, n.d.).

5.1.1.2.1 Chinese analysis by Hofstede

China has the following representation according to Hofstede’s cultural dimensions:



Graphic 4: China Portrait by Hofstede – Source: The Hofstede Center. Accessed in September 30th 2014 - <http://geert-hofstede.com/china.html>

According to Hofstede’s cultural dimensions analysis, China is a country in which there is a high distinction between people with and without power. Therefore, Chinese people have a high tolerance for inequalities inside society. In the opposite, Individualism has a very small incidence. Due to that, China is a collectivist country that prizes for interests of the group. Thirdly, it’s a masculine society, very much success oriented. Also, there is a low uncertainty avoidance which means that Chinese people are open to risk and have an entrepreneurial style.

The fifth dimension is the Pragmatism which is the highest one. After all, Chinese people “people believe that truth depends very much on situation, context and time” (Hofstede, n.d.). And, finally, Indulgence with 24 points which means a society tended to pessimist and with their actions focus on work and social norms.

5.1.1.3 GLOBE Study

According to House *et al* (2002, p. 3), GLOBE’s intent is “to explore the cultural values and practices in a wide variety of countries, and to identify their impact on organizational practices and leadership attributes”. And, to achieve this goal, 170 social scientists and management scholars from 61 different cultures get united to analyze the impact of specific cultural issues on leadership and organizational management.

The GLOBE believes that are nine cultural dimensions the first six dimensions are based on Hofstede’s (1980) dimensions:

- Uncertainty avoidance:
- Power distance:
- Collectivism I: Societal Collectivism:
- Collectivism II: In-Group Collectivism:
- Gender Equalitarianism:
- Assertiveness:
- Future Orientation:
- Performance Orientation:
- Humane Orientation:

These first three dimensions are “intended to reflect the same constructs as Hofstede’s dimensions labeled Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance and Individualism”, defends House *et al.* (2002, p. 6). In the same way, Hofstede’s dimension Masculinity is encompassed by Gender Egalitarianism and Assertiveness. While Future Orientation is based upon Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961) cultural dimension of Past, Present and Future Orientation in which is analyzed a society temporal orientation. In turn, the dimension Performance Orientation

originated in McClelland's work on need of achievement and Humane Orientation derived from Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck's (1961) work on the nature of people (Good or Evil).

Beyond studying only national and organizational cultures, the GLOBE study also attempted to identify the key dimensions of a global leader. And they have got the following points according to the Center for Creative Leadership (2012) and Grove (2005):

1. Charismatic/value based style: focus on decisiveness, integrity, performance-oriented, innovate, inspire a vision, create passion, visionary, inspirational and self-sacrificial;
2. Team-oriented style: fosters loyalty, collaboration among the team and the entire organization, enhance common goals and improves diplomacy;
3. Participative style: involve others in the decision making process, emphasize delegation and equality;
4. Humane style: "stress compassion and generosity, it's patient, supportive, and concerned about the other well-being" (Center for Creative Leadership, 2012, p. 4);
5. Self-protective: "style emphasizes procedural, status-conscious, and 'face-saving' behaviors; and focuses on the safety and security of the individual and the group" (Center for Creative Leadership, 2012, p. 5);
6. Autonomous style: "independent, individualistic and self-centric approach to leadership" (Hope and Eckert, 2007, p. 3). Really concerned about autonomy.

5.1.1.3.1 Chinese leadership analysis by GLOBE

According to the GLOBE statistic, China's has the following styles as contributing for outstanding leadership: Charismatic, Team-Oriented, Humane-Oriented and Participative. The Autonomous and Self-protective styles doesn't impact the outstanding leadership in the country. The following figure can exemplify this:

Country	Charismatic	Team-Oriented	Self-Protective	Participative	Humane-Oriented	Autonomous
Albania	5.70	5.87	4.55	4.51	5.15	3.81
Argentina	5.98	5.99	3.46	5.89	4.70	4.55
Australia	6.09	5.81	3.05	5.71	5.09	3.95
Austria	6.03	5.74	3.07	6.00	4.93	4.47
Bolivia	6.01	6.10	3.83	5.30	4.56	3.92
Brazil	6.01	6.17	3.50	6.06	4.84	2.27
Canada (English-speaking)	6.16	5.84	2.96	6.09	5.20	3.65
China	5.57	5.57	3.80	5.05	5.18	4.07
Colombia	6.04	6.07	3.37	5.51	5.05	3.34
Costa Rica	5.95	5.81	3.55	5.54	4.99	3.46
Denmark	6.01	5.70	2.82	5.80	4.23	3.79
Ecuador	6.46	6.21	3.63	5.51	5.13	3.53
Egypt	5.57	5.55	4.21	4.69	5.14	4.49
El Salvador	6.08	5.95	3.44	5.40	4.69	3.47
England	6.01	5.71	3.04	5.57	4.90	3.92
Finland	5.94	5.86	2.55	5.91	4.30	4.08
Georgia	5.65	5.86	3.90	4.89	5.61	4.57
Germany (West)	5.84	5.49	2.97	5.88	4.44	4.30

Table 6: Score for the six leader styles. Source: Center for Creative Leadership. Accessed in September 30th 2014. *Source: <http://www.ccl.org/leadership/pdf/assessments/GlobeStudy.pdf>*

According to the Center for Creative Leadership (2012, p. 5), here is the score rule: “scores between 1 and 3.5 indicate that a style is seen as inhibiting outstanding leadership, while scores from 4.5 to 7 indicate that a style is seen as contributing to outstanding leadership. Scores between 3.5 and 4.5 indicate that a style doesn’t much matter for outstanding leadership”.

5.1.1.3.1 Papers’ perspectives

Following, there is the cross-cultural articles’ list. All those articles on database explored the cross-cultural studies looking at a Chinese perspective:

Article Name	Authors	Year
Leadership effectiveness and personality: a cross cultural evaluation	Colin Silverthorne	2001
Research on leadership in a cross-cultural context: Making progress, and raising new questions	Dickson, Hartog & Mitchelson	2003
Cross-cultural leadership : Goal interdependence and leader–member relations in foreign ventures in China	Yi Feng Chen, Dean Tjosvold	2005
Cross-cultural influences on organizational learning in MNCS: The case of Japanese companies in China	Jacky F.L. Hong, Robin Stanley Snell, Mark Easterby-Smith	2006
Crossvergence and cultural tendencies: A longitudinal test of the Hong Kong, Taiwan and United States banking sectors	Lane Kelley, Brent MacNab, Reginald Worthley	2006
Implicit Theories and Self-Perceptions of Traitendness Across Cultures: Toward Integration of Cultural and Trait Psychology Perspectives	Church et all	2006
Individualism–collectivism and group creativity	Jack A. Goncalo, Barry M. Staw	2006
Transformational leadership : Its relationship to culture value dimensions	Azize Ergeneli, Raheel Gohar, Zhanar Temirbekova	2007
Honoring the Kun Lun Way: Cross-Cultural Organization Development Consulting to a Hospitality Company in Datong, China	Renée Smith Nyberg and Trine C. Jensen	2009
Managerial implications of the GLOBE project: A study of 62 societies	Mansour Javidan and Ali Dastmalchian	2009
A culturally sensitive framework for understanding knowledge workers from a non-western background	Tan Po Li	2010
The effects of sales supervisor relationships on work meaning: The case of Canadian and Chinese salespersons	Henry Fock, Frederick Yim, Michael Rodriguez	2010
Work meaning among mid-level professional employees: A study of the importance of work centrality and extrinsic and intrinsic work goals in eight countries	Kuchinke et all	2011
Thinking globally, leading locally: Chinese, Indian, and Western leadership	Betzaluz Gutierrez, Signe M. Spencer and Guorong Zhu	2012
Symbiotic ownership, cultural alignment, and firm performance: A test among international strategic alliances	Ji Lia, Chris W.L. Chub, Xinran Wangc, Hong Zhuc, Guiyao Tangd, , Yuanyi Chenc	2012
Servant leadership across cultures	Mittal & Dorfman	2012
Public Executive Leadership in East and West: An Examination of HRM Factors in Eight Countries	Berman et all	2013
Charting Ethics in Asia-Pacific HRM: Does East Meet West, Ethically?	Jonathan P. West, LooSee Beh, and Meghna Sabharwal	2013
Contextualism as an Important Facet of Individualism-Collectivism: Personhood Beliefs Across 37 National Groups	Owe et all	2013

Article Name	Authors	Year
Cultural determinants of status: Implications for workplace evaluations and behaviors	Carlos J. Torelli, Lisa M. Leslie, Jennifer L. Stoner, Raquel Puente	2014
Evaluating Group Member Behaviour Under Individualist and Collectivist Norms: A Cross-Cultural Comparison	Martin S. Hagger, Panagiotis Rentzelas, and Severine Koch	2014
Measures Matter: Scales for Adaptation, Cultural Distance, and Acculturation Orientation Revisited	Demes, Kali A., Geeraert, Nicolas	2014
Opposite Ends of the Same Stick? Multi-Method Test of the Dimensionality of Individualism and Collectivism	Taras et all	2014
Relating Self-Concept Consistency to Hedonic and Eudaimonic Well-Being in Eight Cultures	Church et all	2014
Understanding Chinese non-managerial employees' response to western HRM: changes in turnover intention	Jiafei Jin, Chih-Chieh Chen, Patricia Fosh and Yang Chen	2014
Empowering leadership, uncertainty avoidance, trust, and employee creativity: Interaction effects and a mediating mechanism	Zhang & Zhou	2014

Table 7: Cross-cultural perspective: list of articles

Some of the articles (Dickson, Hartog & Mitchelson, 2003) present a historical analysis of the cross-cultural studies throughout the years and reinforces the relevance of such perspective to leadership principles. Following the same overview approach, some articles focus on one research line, such as the GLOBE (Javidan & Dastmalchian, 2009) and how the five aspects of servant leadership behave in the GLOBE culture clusters (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012); others in the Individualism-Collectivism perspective (Owe et all, 2013); and others on Hofstede cultural dimensions such as uncertainty avoidance and its impact on empowering leadership and employee creativity (Zhang & Zhou, 2014). Whilst others scholars prefer to develop their own cultural measures (Demes & Geeraert, 2013; Taras et all, 2013).

Cross-cultural studies are also useful acting as a common language for understanding local companies' realities, independently of which national lenses anyone is looking from (Nyberg & Jensen, 2009). Some scholars also point out that there are differences within a country, like regional differences, that must be take into account (Kelley, MacNab & Worthley, 2006).

This research line is also considered responsible for misunderstood in case of management systems which can impair organizational learning in cross-cultural situations (Hong, Snell & Estærby-Smith, 2006). It also plays an important role on defining trait perspectives and implicit

theories. According to Church et al (2006), individualistic cultures value more traits believes and Silverthorne (2001) used the Five factor model to understand which are the relevant leadership traits for Taiwan. And also play a crucial role in understanding and correlating public executive leadership in both Western and Eastern Cultures (Berman et al, 2013).

Through those lenses, it is also observed the learning attributes of the knowledge employees (Li, 2010); the meaning of work for Chinese salesperson based on quality relationship with their supervisor (Fock, Yim & Rodriguez, 2010); the importance of work centrality and work goals (Kuckinke et al, 2011); and the cultural alignment been positive correlated to firm performance (Li, Chu, Wang, Zhu, Tang & Chen, 2012; Gutierrez et al, 2012). Cultural differences are also responsible for ethical awareness: depending on the country, perception of unethical behaviors will be different (West, Beh & Sabharwal, 2013). And also that is possible to resonate to western-style HRM practices with Chinese non-managerial employees' cultural values (Jin, Chen, Fosh & Chen, 2014).

Other articles emphasize the individualism-collectivism (I-C) dimension of the Chinese people. Some scholars (Chen & Tjosvold, 2005) propose that creating goal interdependence can improve LMX and increase leader effectiveness, employee's commitment and future collaboration. Others saw different reactions on group creativity according to the cultural dimension: more individualist, more creative (Goncalo & Staw, 2006). I-C perspective is also used to compare how cultures deal with status and which role it can play as a work valued resource (Torelli, Lesli, Stoner & Puente, 2014); and to understand how groups members behave in such different cultural contexts (Hagger, Rentzelas & Koch, 2014).

However, sometimes, scholars conclude that some theories and perspective can be universally applied, as was the case of Western theory regarding the importance of a consistent self-concept for well-being (Church et al, 2014).

5.1.2 Transformational Leadership (TL)

The Transformational Leadership is an exponent of the New-Genre Theories, developed in Western culture in the 1980s. It preached that leaders must be attentive to followers' wellness and the transformational leaders "are concerned about worries and development needs of each one of their followers; change the way their followers see things (...) and are capable of enthuse, incite and inspire people to give their personal best" (Robbins, 1999). Therefore, transformational leaders are those "seen as active transforming agents, changing the outlook and behavior of their followers" (Burns, 1978).

According to Bass & Avolio (1994), there are four dimensions into TL: inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), individualized consideration (IC), and charisma (CH). IM comprises the ability of a leader to provide a vision; IS comprehends the support leaders give to foster innovative solutions; IC embraces the leader's ability to provide personalized attention to employees; and CH captures the leader's capacity to instigate a mission and purpose (Menguc & Auh, 2008).

The papers which praised this theory were the following:

Article Name	Authors	Year
Turnaround, Corruption and Mediocrity: Leadership and Governance in Three State Owned Enterprises in Mainland China.	Huang, Linfen Jennifer Snell, Robin Stanley	2003
The role of collective efficacy in the relations between transformational leadership and work outcomes.	Walumbwa, Fred O.; Peng Wang; Lawler, John J.; Kan shi	2004
Traditionality matters: an examination of the effectiveness of transformational leadership in the United States and Taiwan.	Spreitzer, Gretchen M.; Perttula, Kimberly Hopkins; Xin, Katherine	2005
A cross-cultural test of the 'five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership'	Lian Shaoa; Sheila Webber	2006
Conflict, leadership, and market orientation	Bulent Menguca; Seigyoung Auh	2008
I warn you because I like you: Voice behavior, employee identifications, and transformational leadership.	Liu, Wu; Zhu, Renhong; Yang, Yongkang	2010
Pursuit of Whose Happiness? Executive Leaders' Transformational Behaviors and Personal Values.	Fu, Ping Ping; Tsui, Anne S.; Liu, Jun; Li, Lan.	2010
An empirical study of transformational leadership, team performance and service quality in retail banks	Peter K.C. Lee, T.C. Edwin Cheng, Andy C.L. Yeung, Kee- hung Lai	2011

Article Name	Authors	Year
Leadership behaviors and group creativity in Chinese organizations: The role of group processes.	Zhang, Ann Yan; Tsui, Anne S.; Wang, Duan Xu	2011
Does transformational leadership facilitate technological innovation? The moderating roles of innovative culture and incentive compensation.	Chen, Mavis; Lin, Carol; Lin, Hsing-Er; McDonough, Edward	2012
Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Culture: A Meta-Analysis of Correlates of LMX Across 23 Countries.	Rockstuhl, Thomas; Soon Ang; Dulebohn, James H.; Shore, Lynn M.	2012
The distinctive effects of dual-level leadership behaviors on employees' trust in leadership: An empirical study from China.	Bai, Yuntao; Li, Peter ; Xi, Youmin	2012
The influence of leader core self-evaluation on follower reports of transformational leadership.	Hu, Jia;; Wang, Zhen; Liden, Robert C.; Sun, Jianmin	2012
Transformational leadership and branding behavior in Taiwanese hotels	Jin-Feng Uen, Ting Wu, Huei-Chun Teng, Yu-Shuan Liu	2012
Convergence and divergence of paternalistic leadership: A cross-cultural investigation of prototypes	Zeynep Aycan, Birgit Schyns, Jian-Min Sun, Jörg Felfe, Noreen Saher	2013
Exploring the impact of transformational leadership on nurse innovation behaviour: a cross-sectional study	Rhay-Hung Weng, Ching-Yuan Huang, Li-Mei Chen and Li-Yu Chang	2013
Spotlight on the Followers: An Examination of Moderators of Relationships Between Transformational Leadership and Subordinates' Citizenship and Taking Charge.	LI, NING, CHIABURU, DAN S., KIRKMAN, BRADLEY L, XIE, ZHITAO	2013
Transformational vs transactional leadership : which is better?: A study on employees of international tourist hotels in Taipei City	You-De Dai, You-Yu Dai, Kuan-Yang Chen, Hui-Chun Wu	2013
Business and regulators partnerships: Government transformational leadership for constructive conflict management.	Wong, Alfred; Wei, Lu; Tjosvold, Dean	2014
Business Leadership in the Chinese Context: Trends, Findings, and Implications	Zhang, Zhi-Xue; Chen, (George) Zhen Xiong; Chen, Ya-Ru; Ang, Soon	2014
Linking transformational leadership and employee creativity in the hospitality industry: The influences of creative role identity, creative self-efficacy, and job complexity	Chung-Jen Wanga; Huei-Ting Tsaia, Ming-Tien T sai	2014
Top Management's Transformational Leader Behaviors and Innovation Orientation: A Cross-Cultural Perspective in Eight Countries	Andreas Engelen, Susanne Schmidt, Lis Strenger, Malte Brettel	2014
Transformational leadership, team climate, and team performance within the NPD team: Evidence from China.	Sun, Wei ; Xu, Ang Shang, Yufan	2014

Table 8: Transformational Leadership: list of papers

When analyzed all articles that addresses transformational leadership (TL), it's possible to see different perspectives over it. Most of the articles (Lee, Cheng & Lai, 2011; Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler & Shi, 2004; Meguc & Auh, 2008; Sun, Xu & Shang, 2012), through empirical researches, proved that TL impacts positively performance and effectiveness. While others authors (Liu, Zhu & Yang, 2010; Fu, Tsui, Liu & Li, 2010, Zhang, Tsui & Wang, 2011; Hu,

Wang, Liden & Sun, 2012; Uen, Wu, Teng & Liu, 2012; Li, Chiaburu, Kirkman & Xie, 2013; Wang, Tsai & Tsai, 2014) defended the positive influence of TL in employees' performance, voice behavior, group creativity, core-self evaluation (CSE), employees' branding behavior and leader-employee relationship. Also, some scholars (Dai, Dai Chen & Wu, 2013) founded that TL enhances trust and a sense of justice within the company and employees.

For some authors (Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Shore & Ang, 2012; Zeynep Aycan, Schyns, Jörg & Saher, 2013), TL can be applied whenever, independent of being into a Western or Eastern context. There were also those who believe that TL plays an important role in fostering innovation, with a direct (Chen, Lin, Lin & McDonough III, 2012; Engelen, Schmidt, Strenger & Brettel, 2014) or indirect impact (Weng, Huang, Chen & Chang, 2013). Most of times, all the previous' groups were correlated in some of the analysis. It means to say that, TL positive impact on employees' performance meant positive impact on company performance.

Some articles (Spreitzer, Perttula & Xin, 2005), not the majority, perceive the cultural values as more prominent than the leadership style or that TL (as a Western Theory) cannot be applied in the Chinese reality. And, to be applied must be adapted to the Chinese (or Eastern) reality and it will appear different aspects to be analyzed (Zhang, Chen, Chen & Ang, 2014).

Even in the public spheres, there were also proofs of TL's relevance and positive impact. Even though TL is still practice by few, those few transformational leaders reinforces the positive impact on effective performance (Huang & Snell, 2003). And that, governments, through TL behaviors, can promote cooperative approach with businesses (Wong, Wei & Tjosvold, 2012).

Another group (Shoa & Webber, 2006) would be those which perceive value on TL but realized that is hard for Chinese leaders to managerial apply it.

5.1.3 Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX)

The Leader–Member Exchange Theory is an exponent of the Transactional Theories approach (as explained in Chapter 3) which was originated in the end of the 1970s and was justified by the need of exchange between leaders and followers.

It proposes that leadership is a process establish in the relationship between subordinates and leaders (the dyad). For Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), the quality of the relationship between a leader and individual employees determines leader effectiveness. Therefore, LMX is a social exchange relationship between those two presented actors.

Following, there are all articles which encompass LMX to explain and define leadership in China:

Article Name	Authors	Year
Cross-cultural leadership: Goal interdependence and leader–member relations in foreign ventures in China	Yi Feng Chen, Dean Tjosvold	2005
Goal interdependence for working across cultural boundaries: employees with foreign managers	Yi-feng Chen, Dean Tjosvold, Sofia Fang Su	2005
Managing to Lead in Private Enterprises in China: Work Values, Demography and the Development of Trust	Karen Yuan Wang and Stewart Clegg	2007
The role of co-operation and competition on leader-member exchange and extra-role performance in China	Chun Hui, Kenneth S. Law, Nancy Yi Feng Chen and Dean Tjosvold	2008
The development of leader–member exchanges: Exploring how personality and performance influence leader and member relationships over time	Jennifer D. Nahrgang, Frederick P. Morgeson, Remus Ilies	2009
Linking ethical leadership to employee performance: The roles of leader–member exchange, self-efficacy, and organizational identification	Fred O. Walumbwa, David M. Mayer, Peng Wang, Hui Wang, Kristina Workman, Amanda L. Christensen	2011
Non-standard employment and leadership research: On consequences for conceptualizing the leader–follower relationship	Ingo Winkler	2011
The interaction between leader-member exchange and perceived job security in predicting employee altruism and work performance.	Loi, Raymond; Ngo, Hang-Yue; Zhang, Lingqing; Lau, Victor P.	2011
Benevolent leadership and follower performance: The mediating role of leader-member exchange (LMX).	Chan, Simon ak Mak, Wai-ming	2012
Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Culture: A Meta-Analysis of Correlates of LMX Across 23 Countries.	Rockstuhl, Thomas; Soon Ang; Dulebohn, James H.; Shore, Lynn M.	2012
Merit Pay Fairness, Leader-Member Exchange, and Job Engagement: Evidence From Mainland China	Fan ong Meng and Jiannan Wu	2012

Article Name	Authors	Year
The distinctive effects of dual-level leadership behaviors on employees' trust in leadership: An empirical study from China.	Bai, Yuntao; Li, Peter; Xi, Youmin	2012
Regional differences in a national culture and their effects on leadership effectiveness: A tale of two neighboring Chinese cities.	Li, Ji1; Tan, Yali; Cai, Zhenyao; Zhu, Hong; Wang, Xinran	2013
Leader–member exchange and industrial relations climate: mediating of participatory management in China	Millissa FY Cheung and Weiping Wu	2014
Paternalistic leadership and employee voice in China: A dual process model	Yan Zhanga; Ming-yun Huaib; Yun-hui Xie	2014
The role of subordinate emotional masking in leader–member exchange and outcomes: A two-sample investigation	Jun Xua; Yongmei Liub; Yi Guo	2014

Table 9: Leader-member Exchange Theory (LMX): list of papers

Most of the articles agree that an improvement in the LMX quality will impact leader effectiveness, work performance (Loi, Ngo, Zhang & Lau, 2011), employee commitment will directly and indirectly promote “a more harmonious and less hostile labour-management relations through effective employee participation” (Cheung & Wu, 2014). Some authors defend that LMX development is through leader performance and personality characteristics (Nahrgang, Morgeson & Ilies, 2009); others that LMX improvement is through cooperative goals’ sharing between foreign leaders and employees (Chen & Tjosvold, 2005; Chen, Tjosvold & Su, 2005; Law & Tjosvold, 2008).

There are some scholars which corroborate that trust can also be enhanced through the LMX, through group orientation and formalization’s work values (Wang & Clegg, 2007) and through transformational leadership behavior and employee’s trust in the supervisor (Bai, Li & Xi, 2012). LMX also intermediates other processes, such as employee performance and ethical leadership (Walumbwa, Mayer, Wang, Wang, Workman & Christensen, 2011); benevolent leadership and organizational citizen behavior towards the organization (OCBO) (Chan & Mak, 2011); and paternalistic leadership behaviors to employee voice (Zhang, Huai & Xie, 2014). However, for some scholars, the LMX mediation role will change depending on the national culture dimension (Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Shore & Ang, 2012) and on the regional characteristics inside the same country (Li, Tan, Cai, Zhu & Wang, 2013).

LMX also is impacted for several reasons; one identified was the perceived fairness of merit pay. How employee perceived the payment will impact leader-member relationship, which, in turn, reaches job engagement (Meng & Wu, 2012). Employee emotional behavior can also impact

LMX and other work-related outcomes, such as affective wellbeing, job satisfaction, and turnover intention (Xu, Liu & Guo, 2014).

But, not all employee-leader relationships behave the same. The non-standard employees (NSE) are not motivated by LMX, and, due to that, LMX loses its impact to this group. According to Winkler (2011, p. 503), “NSE-followers might not be interested in developing strong emotional bonds with their organization and their formal leader. Hence, the attempts by leaders to develop, for example, partnership relations that consist, for instance, of higher levels of trust, more loyalty and mutual influence may fall on deaf ears, as for NSEs these attempts simply make no sense”.

5.2 Eastern Theories’ Perspective

Theme/Theory	Number of articles
<i>Guanxi</i>	14
Confucianism	10

Table 10: Eastern Theories’ Perspective and number of articles

5.2.1 *Guanxi*

According to the Oxford Dictionaries, *guanxi*, in China, corresponds of “a system of social networks and influential relationships which facilitate business and other dealings”

Gold, Gunthrie & Wank (2002, p. 6) add to this definition and bring the etimological meaning of the word: “*Guanxi* (kuan-shi) literally means “relation” or “relationship”, as a noun, and “relate to” as a verb, though as commonly used in contemporary Chinese societies”. Davies et al (1995), considered *guanxi* as the lifeblood of the Chinese business and community without it nothing can be done.

There are two sides of *guanxi*, the bright and dark sides and some researches already defined as a person-to-person tie while other as a firm-to-firm linkage (Smith et all, 2014).

Therefore, *guanxi* is a philosophy lived by the Chinese people throughout the years, but only appeared in the Western a decade ago (Gold, Gunthrie & Wank, 2002, p. 1) amongst the non-Chinese speakers.

The database articles used the theory differs on which kind of impact the *guanxi* can generate in defining leadership and they will be explored below. Following, there is a table that contains all the articles that cited *guanxi* as a way of defining leadership in China:

Article Name	Authors	Year
Changing Principles of Communication Between Chinese Managers and Workers: Confucian Authority Chains and Guanxi as Social Networking	Jianzhong Hong and Yrjö Engeström	2004
Participative Leadership by American and Chinese Managers in China: The Role of Relationships	Yi Feng Chen and Dean Tjosvold	2006
Guanxi and leader member relationships between American managers and Chinese employees: open-minded dialogue as mediator.	Nancy Yi-feng Chen Tjosvold, Dean	2007
Guanxi vs. relationship marketing: Exploring underlying differences	Cheng Lu Wang	2007
Guanxi vs networking: Distinctive configurations of affect- and cognition-based trust in the networks of Chinese vs American managers	Roy Y J Chua, Michael W Morris, Paul Ingram	2008
An examination of the influence of guanxi and xinyong (utilization of personal trust) on negotiation outcome in China: An old friend approach	T.K.P. Leung, Ricky Yee-Kwong Chan, Kee-hung Lai, Eric W.T. Ngai	2011
Embedding social networks: How guanxi ties reinforce Chinese employees' retention	Peter W. Homa, Zhixing Xiao	2011
Participatory management and employee work outcomes: The moderating role of supervisor-subordinate guanxi	Millissa FY Cheung; Weiping Wu	2011
How Distinctive Are Indigenous Ways of Achieving Influence? A Comparative Study of Guanxi, Wasta, Jeitinho, and "Pulling Strings"	Smith, Peter B., Huang, Hai Juan, Harb, Charles, Torres, Claudio	2012
The succession process in Chinese family firms: A guanxi perspective.	Dou, Junsheng Li, Shengxiao	2013
Are Guanxi-Type Supervisor-Subordinate Relationships Culture-General? An Eight-Nation Test of Measurement Invariance	Smith et all	2014
Exploring the mediating role of trust on the relationship between guanxi and knowledge sharing: a social network perspective	Yu-Fang Yen, Jung-Feng Tseng and Hsing-Kuo Wang	2014
Guanxi and social capital: Networking among women managers in China and Finland	Jiehua Huang, Iiris Aaltio	2014
Guanxi human resource management practices as a double-edged sword: the moderating role of political skill	Fu Yang	2014

Table 11: *Guanxi*: list of papers

Some scholars defended that the *guanxi* model has a positive impact on negotiation, turning the process easier and quicker, guaranteeing better negotiation outcomes (Leung, Chan, Lai & Ngai, 2011). *Guanxi* is also relevant on the succession process in Chinese family firms to strengthen the existing network and to build the next solid one (Dou & Li, 2012).

Another impact of *guanxi* network is the positive impact on the three dimensions of the subordinate-supervisor relations, not only in China but also in non-Chinese cultures such as Saudi, Russia, Turkey, India, Brasil and United Kingdom (Smith et al, 2014). *Guanxi* has also a positive impact on affect and cognition-based trust for Chinese managers (Chua, Morris & Ingram, 2009); and has a positive relation with relationship marketing (Western perspective) fomenting trust between supervisor-subordinate as a mediator (Wang, 2007).

Other articles present that *guanxi* and Confucian authority chains are two interactive principles and used both to analyze information sharing and effective communication (Hong & Engeström, 2004; Yen, Tseng & Wang, 2012). There is also the *guanxi* network that allows constructive controversy and open dialogue to flow between Chinese employees and foreign managers (Chen & Tjosvold, 2006; Chen & Tjosvold, 2007).

As *guanxi*'s networks encompasses strong, dense and multiple ties, some authors also identify that specific network as responsible for employee's retention in China (Hom & Xiao, 2011); to promote Chinese women's career (Huang & Aaltio, 2014); and to improve the quality of the *guanxi* of supervisor-subordinate (Cheung & Wu, 2011). Other important characteristic of *guanxi* is its potential to achieve informal influence (Smith, Huang, Harb & Torres, 2010).

However, there are also researches that neglect *guanxi* positive impact into leadership practices. For Yang (2014), *guanxi* human resource management practices were negatively related to employee performance with low levels of political skill. Therefore, to properly explore *guanxi*'s potential, is important, in this case, to practice high levels of political skill.

5.2.2 Confucianism

The Confucianism is considered a complex ethical, philosophical, and sometimes, religious system developed by the Chinese philosopher Confucius. The Confucianism doctrines arrived in the West only in the 17th century, through an Italian Jesuit called Matteo Ricci (Yao, 2000). Its first appearance dates from the legendary ages and first official appearance was in Xia Dynasty from 2205 to 1600 BCE (Yao, 2000, p. xiv). It reinforces the family relevance, the focus on self-development and always based on ethics' maintenance.

There are five virtues or Wuchang (五常) which compose the Confucian ethics: benevolence to all other individuals (ren), righteousness or moral disposition for good (yi), ritual propriety as how a person must act properly daily (li), wisdom and sense of justice (zhi) and trustworthiness (xin). (Woods & Lamond, 2010). To Xu (2011), Ren (benevolence, kindness), yi (be righteous), and li (proper conduct code) are three of the most important Confucian principles. Therefore, it's possible to see that the concept of leadership coming from family, described in Chapter 3, constitutes the basis for this philosophical system since family is seen as the basic unit of the society.

Following, there are all articles which use Confucianism as background to understand Chinese leadership:

Article Name	Authors	Year
Utilizing Printed Media to Understand Desired Leadership Attributes in the People's Republic of China.	Ping Ping Fu Tsui, Anne S	2003
Changing Principles of Communication Between Chinese Managers and Workers: Confucian Authority Chains and Guanxi as Social Networking	Jianzhong Hong and Yrjö Engeström	2004
Philosophical Foundations of Eminent Hong Kong Chinese CEOs' Leadership.	Chau-Kiu Cheung Andrew Chi-Fai Chan	2005
The Effect of Confucian Values on Succession in Family Business	Jun Yan, ,Sorenson, Ritch	2006
A Confucian Approach To Developing Ethical Self-Regulation In Management	Woods, Peter R.; Lamond, David A.	2010
Aesthetic Leadership in Chinese Business: A Philosophical Perspective	Zhang, Haina; Cone, Malcolm; Everett, André Elkin, Graham	2011
An Empirical Study of Confucianism: Measuring Chinese Academic Leadership	Kaibin Xu	2011
Chinese communication characteristics: A Yin Yang perspective	Tony Fang, Guy Olivier Faure	2011
Confucian and Taoist Work Values: An Exploratory Study of the Chinese Transformational Leadership Behavior.	Lin, Liang-Hung Ho, Yu-Ling Lin, Wei-Hsin	2013
Affective Trust in Chinese Leaders: Linking Paternalistic Leadership to Employee Performance	Chen, Xiao-Ping, Eberly, Marion B., Chiang, Ting-Ju, Farh, Jiing-Lih, Cheng, Bor-Shiuan	2014

Table 12: Confucianism: list of papers

Some articles defended that, when publicizing leaders in the official media, the government emphasizes traditional communist values (including Confucianism values) or introduces Western management values due to the current social and economic needs (Fu & Tsui, 2003). Other articles present that the Confucian authority chain impacts effective communication and information sharing in Chinese companies (Hong & Engeström, 2004). Communication has been intensively analyzed through the Confucianism lenses, but the Ying Yang perspective was also adopted (Fang & Faure, 2011).

Some scholars preferred to present the philosophical foundations of eminent Chinese CEO's leadership and one of the doctrines was Confucianism (Cheung & Chan, 2005). As a cultural value, the Confucianism has also an impact on family business succession (Yan & Sorenson, 2006); and play a significant role on leader's self-regulation regarding ethical behavior (Woods & Lamond, 2010). Others prefer to relate this Chinese philosophical basis to aesthetic leadership (Zhang, Cone, Everett & Elkin, 2011).

Was also discovered, based on the opinion of faculty member's perception, that the contemporary Chinese view of leadership is aligned to Confucianism philosophy of leadership (Xu, 2011). Some authors went beyond and realized that Confucian work value is more consistent to predict transformational behavior and high performance expectations, while Taoist work value can better predict intellectual stimulation (Lin, Ho & Lin, 2013). And there was some authors that preferred to use Confucian values (hierarchy and relationism) to understand the mediating role of affective trust in a paternalistic leadership relationship (Chen et al, 2011).

5.3 Blended Theories' perspective

In the Blended Theories' perspective, emerged a pattern and the articles were divided in to groups: one in which Western approaches were analyzed bodily with Confucianism and a second where they were analyzed with *Guanxi* approach.

Even though most of the articles were already cited in the analysis before, following they will be detailed in order to guarantee an overview of the scholars' reasoning on mixing both perspectives.

Firstly, will start with the Confucianism group:

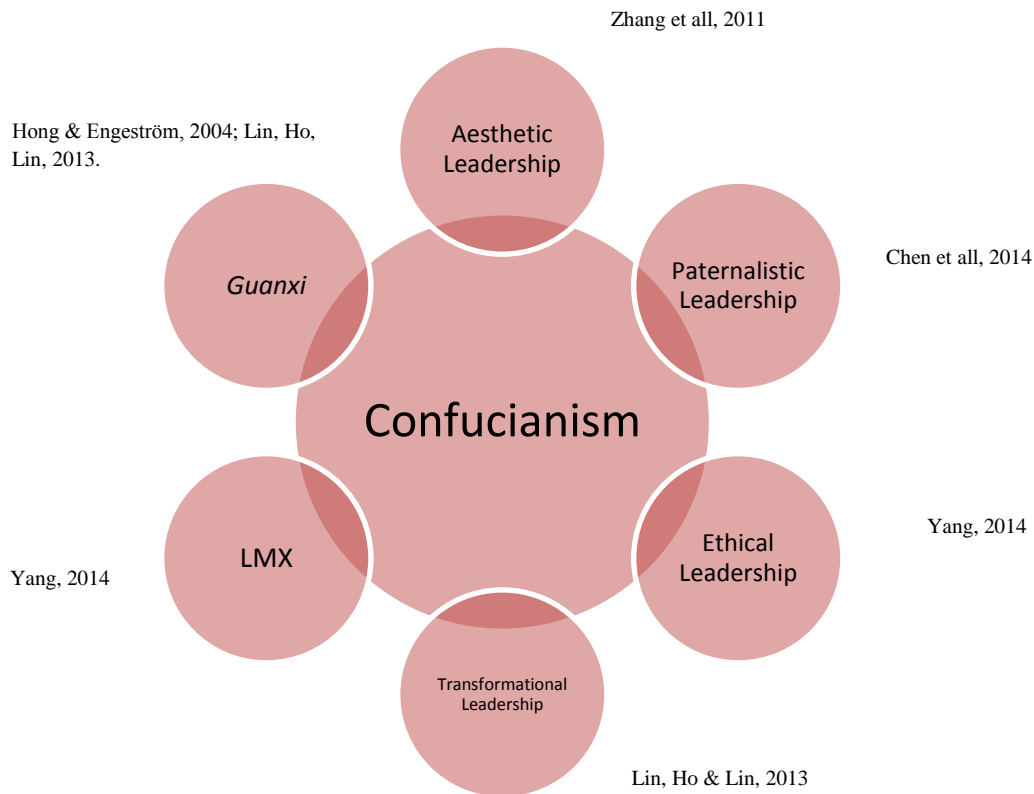


Figure 2: Blended Theories' Perspective: Confucianism group

According to Zhang et al (2011), Confucianism is the drive for Chinese thinking and behavior and Aesthetic Leadership is a trending research line. Therefore, Zhang et al (2011) decided to explore Aesthetic Leadership in Chinese organizations based on Confucian philosophy.

In the case of Chen et al (2014), the two Confucian values (hierarchy and relationism) were used as theoretical background to explore affective trust in the paternalistic leadership.

Combining with Ethical Leadership and LMX, the Confucianism was explored by Yang (2014) as a cultural background of how employees interact with each other and China revealed a country in which hierarchy relationships were strongly accepted and respected by subordinates. Lin, Ho & Lin (2013) also followed the assumption of Confucianism as the basis for Chinese culture, but they also analyzed Taoism to link to TL. For Hong & Engeström (2004), Confucianism chains are part of the supervisor-subordinate relationships and impacts *guanxi*'s quality.

Besides all the overview that this dissertation brings, for Xu (2011, p. 4), Confucian leadership practices are totally aligned to Western leadership theories:

For example, the three elements of *ren*, (a) self-oriented control and ethical standards; (b) expertise and willingness to serve; and (c) other-oriented caring and benevolence, are similar to what servant leadership theories advocated. The two elements *interpersonal relationships* and *fairness* in *li/harmony* have also been emphasized by Leader-Member Exchange Theory and the three elements of nurturing, (a) treating people as the most important resource; (b) trusting followers; and (c) developing followers, are also prevalent in contemporary leadership theories, such as *consideration* in the early Ohio State Studies' *consideration vs. initiating structure* model, *empowerment* in shared leadership theories, and *individualized attention* in transformational leadership theories.

According to this perspective, these Blended approach which focus on analyzing the Chinese leadership thorough both Western and Eastern perspectives are totally related and can, for sure, be related.

In the following figure, there are all concepts summarized:

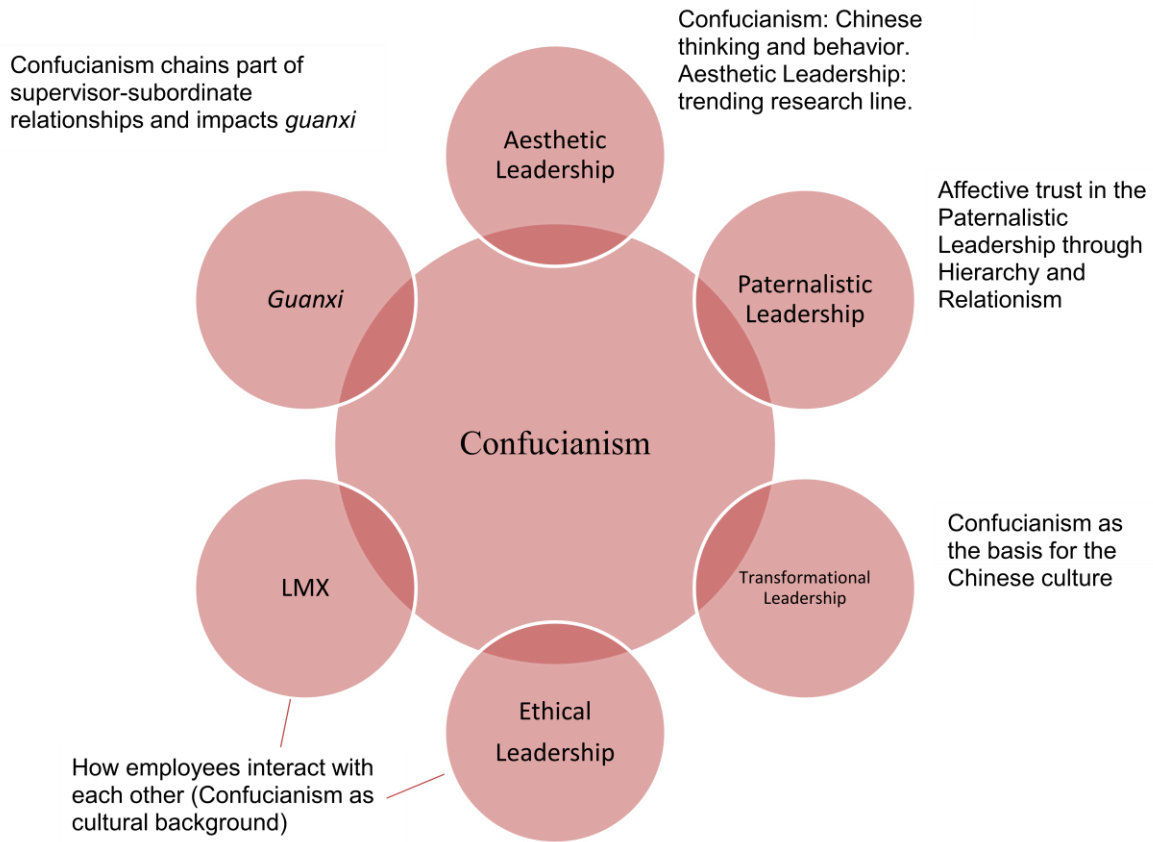


Figure 3: Blended Theories' Perspective: Confucianism group summarized concepts

Secondly, there is the *guanxi* conglomerate group, as following:

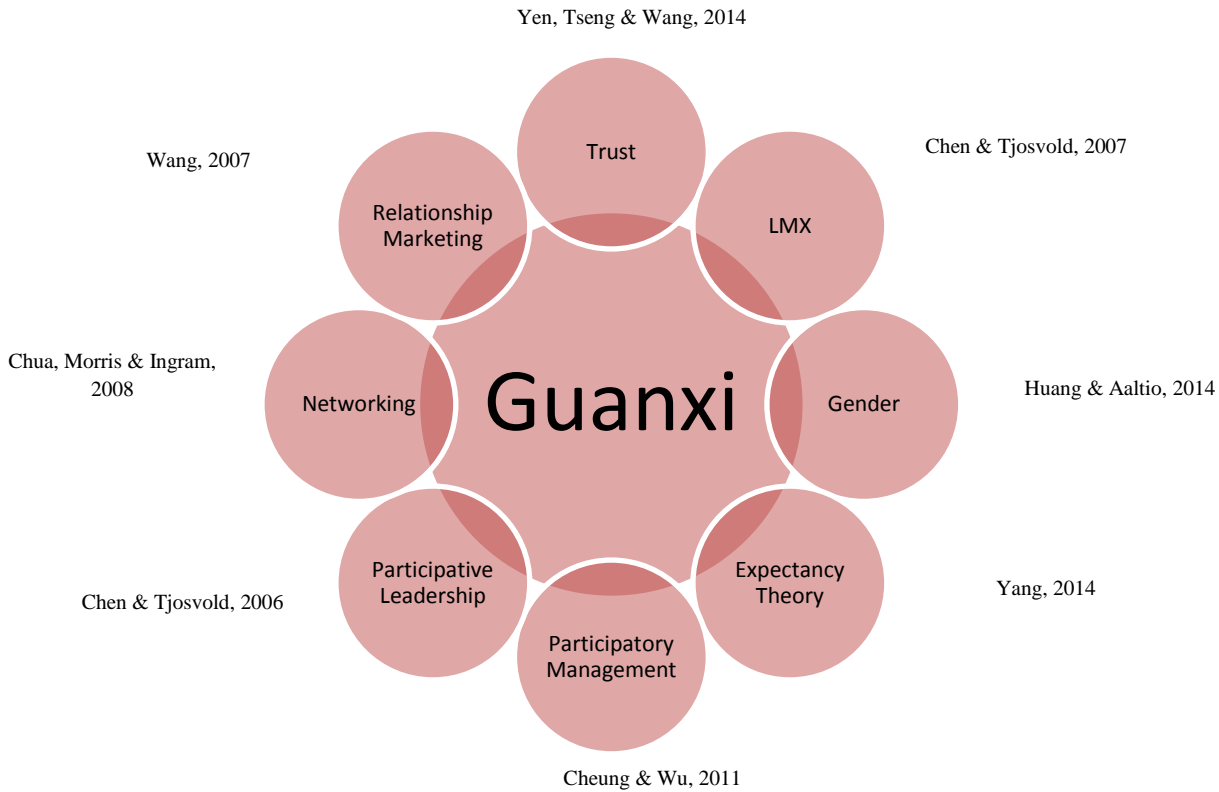


Figure 4: Blended Theories' Perspective: *Guanxi* group

Yen, Tsend & Wang (2014) used *guanxi* concept to examine how it impacts knowledge sharing using trust as mediation channel. Chen & Tjosvold (2007) preferred to use *guanxi* as the background to understand how LMX promotes constructive controversy enhancing challenges acceptance by employees. Cheung & Wu (2011) somehow also developed upon the supervisor-subordinate relationship but explored the impact on effective participatory management and employee work outcomes.

Huang & Aaltion (2014) used already published articles relating *guanxi* to career and gender, just updating its influence. Yang (2014) preferred to use *guanxi* reflected on the human resources management practices to relate to employee job performance. While Chen & Tjosvold (2006) decided to understand how *guanxi* ties can impact participative leadership both in American and Chinese managers in China. Those ties were also research focus of Chua, Morris & Ingram (2008) and Wang (2007) which analyzed the impact of *guanxi* on networking and on relationship marketing.

Following, a figure summarizing all concepts regarding this group:

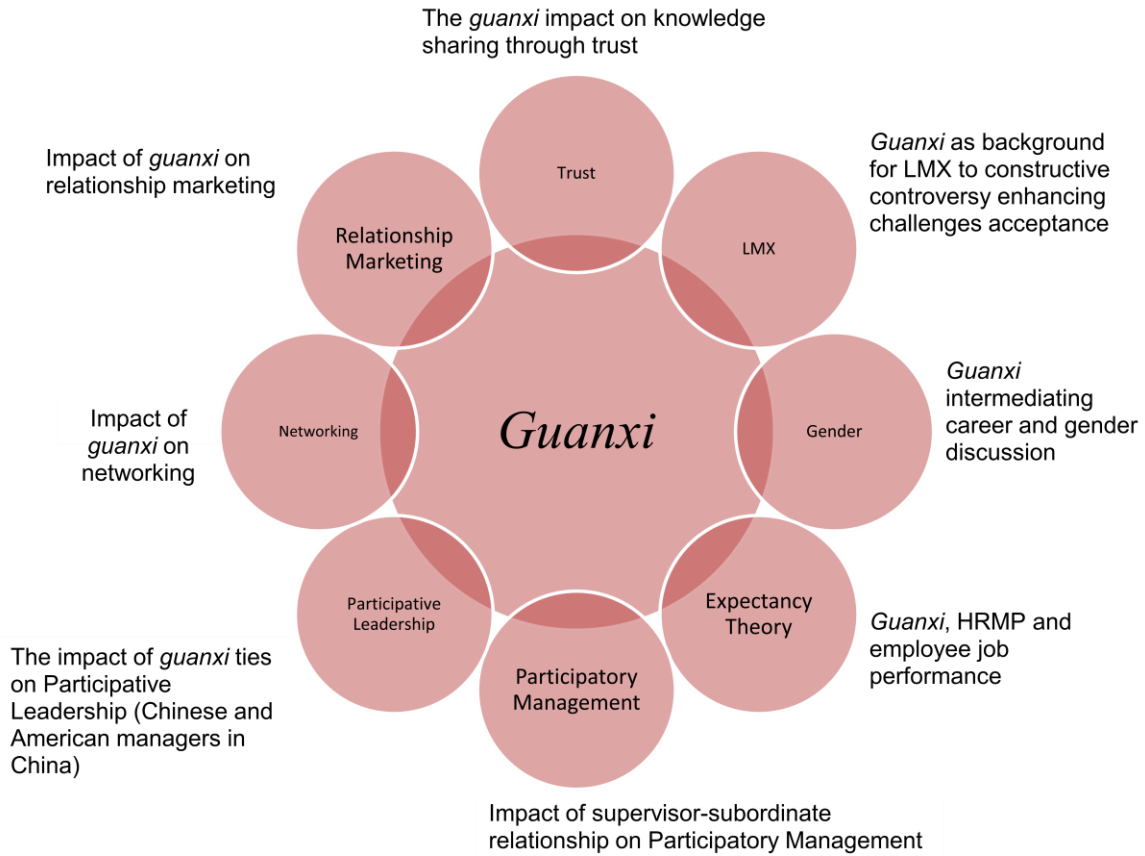


Figure 5: Blended Theories' Perspective: *Guanxi* group summarized concepts

6. CONCLUSIONS

The main findings were that leadership in China is not only a professional or a management concept, but goes beyond since is inherent to Chinese culture, especially in Confucianism and *Guanxi* basis. Even though there is this local culture, the most adopted perspective, by international journals and scholars, to look and analyze leadership in China is the cross-cultural studies' lenses and the transformational leadership approach.

Within the cross-cultural studies, the two most used were National Cultures (by Hofstede) and GLOBE. The perspective is that Western leadership practices can be adapted to each country culture and that cross-cultural studies act as a common language between different cultures.

While looking for Chinese leadership over the Transformational Leadership (TL) lenses, it's possible to sum up that Chinese leaders are focused on the followers as human beings, respecting their challenges and strengthens. Most of the articles reinforce the positive relation between TL and firm performance and the development of trustful relationship between leader and follower. And that this relationship between leader and follower is so relevant that was reinforced by the LMX approach as the third most cited theory.

From the Eastern Theories' Perspective, Confucianism and *guanxi* were the predominant. *Guanxi*'s perspective reinforces the respectful subordinate-supervisor relation, based on existing social ties which demonstrate respect. While Confucianism Theory as an ethical and philosophical system, reinforces the humane treatment proposed by TL.

Therefore, these dissertation's results impact Brazilian companies. Assuming that Western Theories' Perspectives (cross-cultural studies, TL and LMX) are the predominant way that leadership in China can be defined, it is easier for Brazilian companies to culturally adapt its leadership approaches to Chinese companies. After all, those Western concepts are well understood for Brazilian executives and largely applied in Brazil, especially within multinational companies.

With the current positive Chinese economic trend and the increase in Brazilian and China exchanges, being able to use the same approach to understand leadership practices is a great

advantage. As said in this thesis, it diminishes the hazardous' conflicts during a merger, acquisition or expansion process and can increase firm performance, as founded in this thesis' results.

The results are also in line with the conclusion reached by Fu & Tsui (2003) in which the Chinese government also reinforces Western management practices as a desirable leadership attribute. They do that through celebrating Confucianism values while introducing Western leadership practices due to China's expansion perspective (especially overseas).

However, this is a perspective brought by international journals written in English. Rescuing the Limitations of the Finding on chapter 4, those results can not directly reflect the reality in Chinese companies. It's just a perspective adopted by this thesis researcher to look to the subject.

Concluding, there is an international mask and biases when analyzing leadership through the international papers. After all, international universities and scholars are the public those journals attend and for whom the scholars write their researches.

There was no conclusion made based on the date the articles were published. The content was divided throughout the analyzed years and there was no pattern emerged from that perspective.

Since this research focus was articles written only in English due to the international perspective, there is a huge universe to be explored in the mandarin written articles. Local journals can translate a different perspective that is, definitely, a future research topic.

Another interesting way of deepening this dissertation is to explore the gender research in the Chinese society. There is still few publications on that (this dissertation only found one article), but in the local language and journals it might have other perspectives.

Least but not last, there is also the possibility to define leadership through a case study with either a multinational Chinese company or a multinational company based in China. This can bring a more realistic perspective of what kind of leadership Chinese executives have been practicing.

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7. ATTACHMENTS

7.1 Attachment 1

Definition of leader throughout the years (*in portuguese*):

LÍDER
<p>Bennis (1972)</p> <p>Inovação nas realizações</p> <p>Desenvolvimento nas pessoas</p> <p>Inspiração de confiança</p> <p>Tem perspectiva de longo prazo</p> <p>Perguntam o quê e por quê</p> <p>Centralização nas pessoas</p>
<p>Mintzberg (1975)</p> <p>Encorajar e estimular o pessoal</p> <p>Formação e Gerenciamento de Equipes</p> <p>Criação e manutenção da cultura</p>
<p>Hersey & Blanchard (1975)</p> <p>Influencia o comportamento de um indivíduo ou um grupo.</p>
<p>Zaleznick (1978), Bennis & Nanus (1985)</p> <p>Influenciam, guiam e orientam.</p> <p>Gerenciamento do trabalho de outras pessoas.</p>
<p>Bennis e Nanus (1988)</p> <p>Possui seguidores</p> <p>Resultados</p> <p>Servem de exemplo</p> <p>Responsabilidade</p>
<p>De Pree (1989)</p> <p>Visão de Futuro</p>

<p>Bennis (1991)</p> <p>Definição dos resultados, metas</p> <p>Alinhar a empresa a uma mensagem</p> <p>Gerenciar a auto-confiança</p> <p>Capacidade de aceitar riscos</p>
<p>Hickman (1991) e Bennis (1996)</p> <p>Visa o futuro</p> <p>Relaciona a empresa com o ambiente</p>
<p>Buono & Bowditch (1992)</p> <p>É uma parte do papel gerencial</p> <p>Desenvolver organizações e grupos mais produtivas e eficazes.</p>
<p>Bergamini (1994)</p> <p>Autoconhecimento</p> <p>Habilidade interpessoal</p> <p>Planejamento de estratégias conjuntas</p>
<p>Senge (1994)</p> <p>Domínio das disciplinas de aprendizagem</p> <p>Incentivar padrões sistêmicos de pensamento</p> <p>Ser criativo</p> <p>Concretizar visão de realidade</p>
<p>Covey (1994)</p> <p>Trabalha os sistemas</p> <p>Lida com o ativo</p> <p>Eficácia</p>
<p>De Vries (1995)</p> <p>Interessados no futuro</p> <p>Longo Prazo – mudanças.</p> <p>Inspiram os outros</p>

<p>Zaleznick e De Vries (1995)</p> <p>Atitudes ativas</p> <p>Posições de alto risco</p>
<p>Bryman (1996), Kotter (1997) e Goodwin (2000)</p> <p>Visa o futuro</p> <p>Carisma</p> <p>Por que</p>
<p>Gardner (1995)</p> <p>Influencia comportamentos</p> <p>É curioso</p>
<p>Bennis (1996)</p> <p>Inova</p> <p>É um original</p> <p>Desenvolve</p> <p>Prioriza as pessoas</p> <p>Inspira confiança</p> <p>Tem perspectiva de futuro</p> <p>Pergunta o que e por quê</p> <p>Com os olhos no horizonte</p> <p>Inventa</p> <p>Desafio o <i>status quo</i></p> <p>É seu próprio comandante</p> <p>Faz a coisa certa</p>
<p>Kotter (1997)</p> <p>Criar o processo de funcionamento</p> <p>Visão de futuro</p> <p>Aceitar idéias novas e implementá-las</p> <p>Quantidade de mudanças e ambiente externo</p>

<p>Kotter (1997)</p> <p>Enfrentamento da mudança</p> <p>Visão de futuro</p> <p>Inspiram confiança</p>
<p>Kouzes e Posner (1997)</p> <p>Visão de futuro</p> <p>Habilidade de mobilização de pessoal</p> <p>Motivação interna</p> <p>Aspiração</p> <p>Honestos</p> <p>Antecipam os acontecimentos</p> <p>Inspiradores</p> <p>Competentes</p>
<p>Robbins (1999)</p> <p>Influenciar um grupo</p>
<p>Ghoshal (2000)</p> <p>Principal influenciador da mudança</p>
<p>Urick, Zenger e Smallwood (2000)</p> <p>Definição da trajetória</p> <p>Mobilização do comprometimento pessoal</p> <p>Desenvolvimento de capacidades organizacionais</p> <p>Demonstração do caráter pessoal</p>
<p>Bennis (2000)</p> <p>Paixão</p> <p>Perspectiva</p> <p>Significado</p> <p>Capacidade de gerar confiança</p> <p>Otimismo</p> <p>Busca de resultados</p>

<p>Senge (2000)</p> <p>Configuração do futuro</p> <p>Sustentar processos de mudança</p>
<p>Bennis (2001) – Características inatas</p> <p>Fazem as coisas certas</p> <p>Atrair e gerenciar a atenção</p> <p>Dar significado as coisas</p> <p>Inspirar confiança</p> <p>Autocontrole</p>
<p>Covey (2002)</p> <p>Aprendizado contínuo</p> <p>Voltados para o serviço</p> <p>Energia Positiva</p> <p>Equilíbrio</p> <p>Aventura</p> <p>Sinergia</p> <p>Auto-renovação</p>
<p>Bergamini (2002)</p> <p>Influenciar</p>
<p>Spector (2002)</p> <p>Exercem mais influência do que aqueles que não são líderes.</p>
<p>Drucker (2002)</p> <p>Desempenho</p> <p>Identificação da missão</p> <p>Estabelecem metas, prioridades.</p> <p>Responsabilidade</p>
<p>Kouzes e Posner (2003)</p> <p>O líder nasce líder, mas deve ter a liderança desenvolvida, caso contrário, não será líder.</p>

Covey (2004)

Pessoas responsáveis pelas decisões

Inovar

Source: Campello, Rocha & Becker, 2006