

Cross-Cultural Management: An Examination of Task, Relationship and Work Overload Stress Orientations of Russians and Vietnamese

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As the world of business has become more globalized than ever, organizational leadership and workforce have also become more culturally diverse. Thus, understanding the leadership behaviors and work-related stress perception of employees in different cultures is strategically important for businesses in the 21st century. This paper specifically investigated the task and relationship behaviors as well as the work overload stress perception of working adults in Russia and Vietnam. Using Northouse's (2007) Style Questionnaire and the Overload Stress Inventory adapted from Hyde and Allen's conceptual analysis of overload (1996), this study provides a cross cultural analysis of 418 respondents including 230 Russians and 188 Vietnamese based on their place of birth and gender. Vietnamese respondents have significantly higher scores on task, relationship and stress orientations than Russians. However, gender is not a significant factor on task, relationship, and the stress perceptions of these respondents. In this paper, the history and culture of Russia and Vietnam, as well as literature review on the behavioral approaches to leadership and gender role are presented along with practical implications and suggestions for managers, practitioners and future studies.

Keywords: Cross-culture management; leadership; overload stress; relationships; Russia; tasks; Vietnam.

1. Introduction

The extraordinary work of Hofstede (1980a, 1984) and the GLOBE project have laid the foundation for cross cultural management research and indicated that management and leadership practices across cultures are indeed diverse. Leaders in different cultures have different core values and tacit beliefs (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002). Cultural values and norms are important to leadership and the understanding of different expectations of leader behaviors in different context (Mujtaba, 2010; Kuchinke, 1999; Lord et al., 2001). Hofstede (1980b) recognized that U.S. based management theories, including motivation and leadership, may not work well in other cultures.

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Nguyen, Ermasova, Pham & Mujtaba

Many studies have found various beliefs about leadership across cultures (Dickson et al., 2003; Giberson et al., 2009). Hofstede (1993) proposed that national culture plays a key role in enlightening local leadership practices. Gernstner and Day (1994) suggested leadership prototypes across Hofstede's cultural dimensions. In addition, Wendt, Euweman, and Emmerik (2009) exhibited that the degree of individualism is negatively related to leaders' directive and supportive behavior. It is beyond doubt that national culture has been considered as one of major factors explaining how local leaders behave, especially in a diverse workplace (Allahand & Mujtaba, 2016). In addition, Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) aims to investigate effective leadership practices across 61 countries (House et al., 2002; Javidan et al., 2006). Participants in GLOBE investigated leader behaviors and organizations in diverse countries and cultural zones. It has shown to explain various aspects of leadership practices, including paternalistic leadership (Pellegrini, Scandura, & Jayaraman, 2010), leaders' empathic emotion (Sadri, Weber, & Gentry, 2011), and ethical leadership (Resick et al., 2009).

Business culture, leadership, and context can be an important predictor of a manager's behavior and leadership orientation (Kaifi, 2014; Mujtaba, 2014). Therefore, there is an urgent need for cross-cultural comparative research on leadership styles that are culturally acceptable and sustainable over time (Cavico & Mujtaba, 2016) as it is important for managers, trainers and researchers to examine how differences in cultural background and context can lead to cultural misunderstanding that can potentially lead to organizational failure or perception of injustice (Huang, Ryan & Mujtaba, 2015).

The purpose of this cross-national study is to examine the similarities and dissimilarities in task, relationship and work overload stress orientations between Russian and Vietnamese respondents. Furthermore, we wanted to expand the body of knowledge of cross-cultural leadership and management, and provide implications for expatriates who work with these populations. More specifically, this paper addresses the following research questions: (1) Do Russian and Vietnamese differ in their task, relationship and stress orientations based on culture and gender? (2) What is the level of work overload stress perception of Russian and Vietnamese working adults?

We chose to compare Russia and Vietnam for several reasons, including the fact that no known studies using leadership orientations were found in recent academic literature. First of all, Vietnam is a strategic partner of Russia in Southeast Asia in many areas. The two countries have established diplomatic relationship for over 65 years since 1950. Forty four years later, they signed a treaty on the basic principles for Vietnam and Russia's friendship in 1994 which set a legal framework for bilateral relations during the new period of development (Vietnam Embassy, 2013). Russia is Vietnam's largest provider of military weapons. The relationship between Vietnam and Russia has been strengthened when high-ranking leaders annually maintained reciprocal visits (Vietnam Embassy, 2013). Russia became Vietnam's first strategic partner in 2001 as a result of the traditional friendship and strategic partnership between two countries (Vietnam Chamber of Commerce and Industry, 2013). The comprehensive strategic partnership has been further strengthened with the Decree on foreign policy signed by President V. Putin and the visit of President Truong Tan Sang to Russia in July 2012 (The Voice of Vietnam, 2013). The strategic partnership includes some major components: oil and gas cooperation, energy cooperation for hydro and nuclear power, military equipment and technology, and trade and investment. These are

accompanied by three other areas of importance: science and technology, education and training, as well as culture and tourism (Thayer, 2012). In addition, the multi-facet relation with Vietnam has been considered by Russia as a prioritized direction in its foreign policy in the Asia-Pacific region (The Voice of Vietnam, 2012).

In addition to a strong diplomatic and political tie, trade between Vietnam and Russia has been strengthened remarkably. Vietnam's main exports to Russia include telephones, garments, agricultural products and seafood while importing petrol, steel, fertilizer and machinery from the country (Vietnam Embassy, 2013). Russian investment in Vietnam has increased dramatically in recent years, mainly in mining, processing and manufacturing. Recent investment has been planned in banking and telecommunications with some large projects including the Vietnam-Russia Bank. Bilateral trade reached \$2 billion in 2011 and it is expected to grow to \$5 billion in 2015 and \$10 billion in 2020 (Thayer, 2012). Free trade agreement (FTA) between Vietnam and the customs alliance of Russia, Belarus, and Kazakhstan have been agreed to accelerate in 2012 by top Vietnamese and Russian leaders (Tran, 2013). The FTA is believed to open up big prospects for growth in economic, trade, investment and service cooperation between Vietnam and Russia (VietNamNet, 2012).

Moreover, both Russia and Vietnam are considered as high-context cultures with moderate to high power distance and high collectivism. It will be fascinating to see if Russian and Vietnamese working adults are similar or different on their orientations towards task, relationship and work overload stress. Finally, although there has been research on leadership styles and stress in many countries in Asia and Europe, comparative research on Russia and Vietnamese leadership and stress orientations has been very little or non-existent. Thus, this study is very unique and can shed light on the similarities and dissimilarities in leadership behaviors and stress perceptions of people between the two countries. The paper provides a literature review of content related to the Russian and Vietnamese cultures along with leadership and stress research citations. Then the methodology section is followed by a discussion of the results, implications and sources for the study.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The Russian Culture

Russia (officially, Russian Federation), which is considered a part of Eastern Europe, has a population of about 142.5 million (Goskomstat Russia, 2014). Previously a part of the Soviet Union, Russia now comprises the 83 subjects of the federation that includes: 21 republics, 46 *oblasts* (provinces), 9 *krais* (territories), 4 autonomous *okrugs* (areas), 1 autonomous *okrug*, and 2 federal cities of Moscow and St. Petersburg. There are more than 24,000 local governments, with dramatically different levels of economic strength, level of development, and institutional capacities. Russia is considered the largest country in the world according to its geographic territory. The median population age is 38.8 years and close to half of the population (almost 46 percent) is between the age of 25 and 54 years old (Central Intelligence Agency, 2013). Russia has undergone significant changes since the collapse of the Soviet Union, moving from an isolated, centrally-planned economy to a more market-based and globally-integrated economy that joined other emerging markets of Eastern Europe (Mujtaba, 2014).

Nguyen, Ermasova, Pham & Mujtaba

The enormous, dramatic changes, plus the embedded basic values of the traditional Russian culture, are coalescing to shape the business culture of modern Russia. Yiu, Bruton, and Lu (2005) argued that the early Russian transition experience provides uniquely important insights into the historic characteristics of business groups because it represents a case in which market failures were important, institutional transition was in place, and business groups were young and newly formed. Reforms to replace planning and state ownership with a market economy beginning in 1991 quickly led by the mid-90s to the formation of large, privately owned conglomerates owned by wealthy individuals ('oligarchs'). The importance of informal influence and personal connections for successfully conducting business in Russia has been pointed out by a number of scholars (Berliner, 1988; Lawrence and Vlachoutsicos, 1990; Puffer, 1994; Kuznetsov and Kuznetsova, 2005). Holt, Ralston, and Terpstra (1994) also suggested that Russian managers were more likely than their U.S. counterparts to use social power and informal influence. Elenkov (1995) found that the Russian culture proves to be characterized by higher machiavellism than the U.S. culture.

2.2 The Vietnamese Culture

The Socialist Republic of Vietnam, or Vietnam in short, is located in Southeastern Asia. With a population of about 90.5 million people, majority of Vietnamese people are in the age range of 15-64 years (almost 70%). Vietnam, whose capital city is Hanoi, has 58 provinces and 5 municipalities (major cities) including Ho Chi Minh City and Can Tho in the South, Hanoi and Hai Phong in the North, and Da Nang in the Central. Vietnamese is the official language, while English is increasingly referred to as the "second language." (Central Intelligence Agency, 2012).

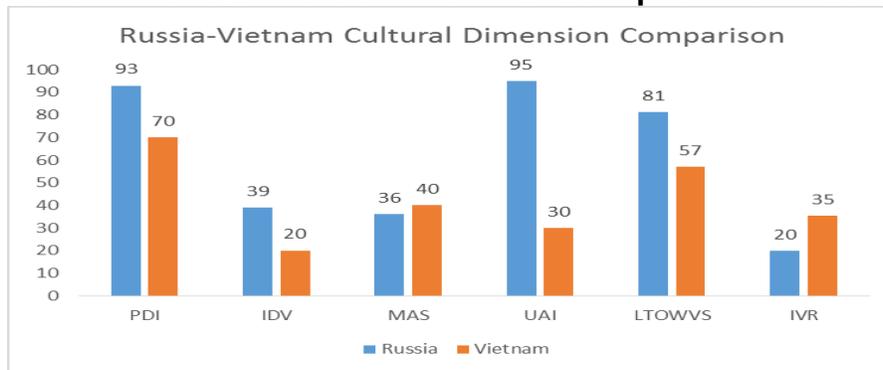
Vietnam has an extremely rich and diverse culture. Vietnamese local culture, really a fairly large cultural community, was formed thousands of years ago (Nguyen, Boehmer, & Mujtaba, 2012). Through its long history of being under the control of foreign countries, the culture of Vietnam has been strongly influenced by the Chinese culture as well as many other cultural features from countries in the region and from the Western cultures, especially from France.

The following section compares the cultural dimensions of Russia and Vietnam based on the six dimensions developed by Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) and Hofstede (2001). As can be seen from Figure 1, despite being considered as high-context cultures, it is very interesting to note that both Russia and Vietnam have quite different scores on the cultural dimensions, except for the Masculinity/Femininity (MAS). As Figure 1 shows, Russia has a higher score of *Power Distance* (93) than that of Vietnam (70). It indicates that Russian people are more acceptable to inequalities than Vietnamese people. It seems that both Russian and Vietnamese people respect hierarchical positions in the society but it is less hierarchical in Vietnam than in Russia. In the *Individualism/Collectivism* dimension, Vietnam has a lower score (20) than that of Russia (39). This represents that Vietnam and Russia are both demonstrating many of the characteristics of a collectivistic society such as "in-groups" thinking style, group activity preference and decision making that benefit the group instead of personal goals (Fan & Zigang, 2004; Parks & Vu, 1994; Scott, Bishop, & Chen, 2003). However, Russia is not as collectivistic as Vietnam. This may be because Russia does not have extended family system like Vietnam and other Asian countries. In the *Masculinity/Femininity* dimension, Russia has a similar score (36) as Vietnam (40). This indicates that Russian society and Vietnam society are considered a feminine society. In Vietnamese society, however, people tend to be sensitive and care more about other people's feelings and concerns. People work together to reach consensus, even they may have to sacrifice

Nguyen, Ermasova, Pham & Mujtaba

their own interests. Compromise is the most common negotiation technique to resolve conflicts. Russia was assigned a low score because of how people tend to understate their achievement and avoid outright (masculine) competition. This could be a remnant of the Soviet past where all people were equal and where standing out from the crowd was not admirable. In the *Uncertainty Avoidance* dimension, Russia has a much higher score (95) than that of Vietnam (30). This indicates that Russian society is one of the most uncertainty avoiding countries in the world while Vietnam has a low preference for avoiding uncertainty. Russian people are constantly facing drastic political, economic, social changes, high inflation, and financial crisis so they develop skills and learn how to deal with uncertainty. Vietnamese people tend to have more relaxed attitude and deviance from the norm is more easily tolerated. In the *Long Term Orientation* dimension, Russia has a high score of 81, which indicates that it has a long-term orientation culture. Vietnam, with a score of 57, also indicates a long-term orientation but not as significant as Russia. This is similar to most countries in South East Asia and the Far East. In Russia, because of a lack of stability and certainty in life, people tend to prepare for uncertain future by thinking ahead. They have a strong orientation to save and invest. Most post-Soviet type business relations are based on personal contacts and networking. Trust, based on good interpersonal relations, is a crucial element in business for this generation. In Vietnam, long-term relationship is the key to business success. In the *Indulgence/Restraint* dimension, Russia and Vietnam both have a low score of 20 and 35 respectively, which indicates a high level of restraint in their cultures. Russian people seem to have less control over their desires and impulses than Vietnamese people even though in both countries people tend to give up their individual drive to having fun and enjoying life in exchange for complying with strict social norms and government control.

Figure 1: Russian Cultural Dimensions in comparison with Vietnam.



3. Task and Relationship-Oriented Leadership

Leadership is about doing what is right in each situation. Leadership can be defined as the process of influencing an individual or a group of individuals while providing an environment where personal, professional, or organizational objectives can successfully be achieved (Mujtaba, 2014). Leadership, as a performance management vehicle, is the process by which one person exerts influence over one or more individuals and inspires, motivates, and directs their behaviors toward the achievement of individual, group and/or organizational objectives (Mujtaba, 2008). The individual or person who exerts any form of influence that guides behavior toward a predetermined objective is considered to be a leader. Effectiveness, in the context of leadership, is doing the right things for the right reasons at the right times. Effective leadership can greatly enhance and

Nguyen, Ermasova, Pham & Mujtaba

increase the ability of the individual, the group and the organization to successfully meet both its current and prospective challenges as well as opportunities in the areas of gaining a competitive advantage, fostering ethical behavior, providing a motivational work environment, and recruiting and retaining a diverse workforce.

Effective leadership requires diverse skills since people are diverse and each person may prefer to be coached differently for different tasks (Mujtaba, 2010). For example, some people want to be told what to do, when to do it and how do it. On the other side, some individuals prefer or would like development, guidance and direction from a coach. Bacon and Spear (2003, p. 88) call these two extremes as directive (telling others the what, when and how aspects) and nondirective (providing development, guidance and advice as needed); and claim that most coaches tend to use more directive approaches, regardless of whether or not this approach is preferred by the employee or follower.

In the behavioral perspective of leadership, there are two clusters of leadership behaviors discussed that focus on the people or tasks. First, people-oriented behaviors include showing mutual concern, trust and respect for subordinates. People-oriented leadership tends to result in higher job satisfaction among subordinates, as well as lower absenteeism, grievances, and turnover compared to using task-oriented style. Also, job performance tends to be lower than for employees with task-oriented leaders. Second, task-oriented leadership styles generally include behaviors that define and structure work roles to ensure that everyone follows company rules in order to reach performance capacity and meet the established standards. Task-oriented leadership can result in lower job satisfaction as well as higher absenteeism and turnover among subordinates. Behavioral leadership scholars conclude that some people are high or low on both styles, others are high on one style and low on the other, and most individuals are somewhere in between in the continuum.

Situational Leadership Theory, according to Hersey and Blanchard, proposes that individuals can change their leadership style (behavior) depending on the situation and the readiness of the follower (Mujtaba, 2008). Drs. Hersey and Blanchard are of the mindset that leaders can and do change their styles depending on with whom they are working. The situational leadership concept is based on the interactive interplay among direction (task behavior) provided by the leader, socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) provided by the leader and the readiness of the follower on the specific task that needs performing. With that in mind, the authors proposed the following hypotheses:

- **H1:** *Vietnamese respondents have task scores that are significantly different than Russian respondents.*
- **H2:** *There is significant difference in the task scores between male and female respondents.*
- **H3:** *There is significant interaction between gender and country in the task scores.*
- **H4:** *Vietnamese respondents have the relationship scores that are significantly different than Russian respondents.*
- **H5:** *There is significant difference in the relationship scores between male and female respondents.*
- **H6:** *There is significant interaction between gender and country in the relationship scores.*

4. Work Overload Stress Perception

Nguyen, Mujtaba and Boehmer (2012) state that “stress can be all those feelings and perceptions in lack of time, ability, skill, or resources to effectively deal with personal or professional demands in a given time” (p.13). Pearlin (1989) suggests that stress research tends to be concerned less with the origins of stressful life experience than with the consequences of such experiences for outcomes of illness, especially psychological disorder. Bolino, Mark, Turnley, and William (2005) find that that higher levels of individual initiative are associated with higher levels of employee role overload, job stress, and work-family conflict. Their findings also suggest that the relationship between individual initiative and work-family conflict is moderated by gender, such that the relationship is stronger among women than among men.

According to World Trade Organization (WTO) Report on stress at work in developing countries (2007), work-related stress is an issue of growing concern in developing countries due to important developments in the modern world; two of the most significant being globalization and the changing nature of work. Research has indicated that work-related stress is considered a disease or a cause of disease (Doublet, 2000; Kinman & Jones, 2005). Stress in the workplace not only impacts on individual performance but also on the organization’s effectiveness as a whole. Work-related stress may affect the organization’s effectiveness due to costs associated with increased absenteeism and staff turnover, reduced performance and productivity, increased unsafe working practices and accident rates, increased complaints from clients/customers, and replacement of absent workers.

Some authors analyze the differences on work overload stress perceptions of working adults in different countries. In a series of cross-cultural studies, Vietnamese working adults appear to experience more work overload stress than their German, Dutch, and Japanese counterparts (Nguyen, Mujtaba, & Boehmer, 2012; Nguyen, Lee, Mujtaba, & Ruijs, 2013; Nguyen, Mujtaba, & Pham, 2013). Nguyen et al. (2012) find that German working adults appear to experience more work overload stress than Dutch working adults. However, no significant difference in the stress scores is found between Dutch and Japanese or between German and Japanese working adults (Nguyen, Mujtaba, Tran, & Ruijs, 2013; Nguyen, Kass, Mujtaba, & Tran, 2015). Thus, the authors proposed the following hypotheses:

- **H7:** *Vietnamese respondents have the overload stress perception scores that are significantly different than Russian respondents.*
- **H8:** *There is a significant difference in the overload stress perception scores between male and female respondents.*
- **H9:** *There is significant interaction between gender and country in the overload stress perception scores.*

5. Methodology and Analysis

Northouse’s (2007) Style Questionnaire was used to obtain a general profile of a person’s leadership behaviors regarding task and relationship orientations. It includes 10 items for task scores and 10 items for relationship scores. A 5-Likert scale was adopted to examine the scores. A

Nguyen, Ermasova, Pham & Mujtaba

rating of 1 indicates “Strongly disagree” and a rating of 5 indicates “Strongly agree.” The scoring interpretation is presented in Table 1.

The Overload Stress Inventory, adapted from Hyde and Allen’s conceptual analysis of overload (1996, pp. 29-30), was used to assess the stress perception of respondents. It includes 10 items which were scored on a 5-Likert scale. A rating of 1 indicates “Strongly disagree” and a rating of 5 indicates “Strongly agree.” The responses were assessed according to the following general criteria (adapted from Hyde and Allen’s 1996 book):

- Scores in the range of 40 – 50 tend to mean *severe* stress from overload.
- Scores in the range of 30 – 39 tend to mean *high* stress from overload.
- Scores in the range of 20 – 29 tend to mean *moderate* stress from overload.
- Scores in the range of 19 and below tend to mean *low* stress from overload.

Table 1: Task and relationship score interpretations

Scores	Descriptions
45-50	Very high range
40-44	High range
35-39	Moderately high range
30-34	Moderately low range
25-29	Low range
10-24	Very low range

Convenient sampling procedure was used for data collection. The target respondents are Russian and Vietnamese who are 17 years of age or older. The questionnaires were made available in both webpage and hard copy formats. Informed consent, explanation of study, procedure of maintaining confidentiality, and detailed instructions on how to complete the questionnaire was included. Majority of respondents in Russia were from Moscow, Chelyabinsk, Saratov, and Ulyanovsk while majority of respondents in Vietnam were from Ho Chi Minh City. Overall, 230 complete questionnaires were received from Russian respondents and 188 complete questionnaires were received from Vietnamese respondents. Altogether, there were 418 complete surveys that were used for this study.

Table 2 shows that the Russian sample had 67 male respondents (29%) and 163 female respondents (71%) while the Vietnamese sample had an even number of male and female respondents (94 each).

Table 2: Gender

		Place of Birth		Total
		Russia	Vietnam	
Gender	Male	67	94	161
	Female	163	94	257
Total		230	188	418

Nguyen, Ermasova, Pham & Mujtaba

Table 3 shows that the Russian sample had 70 respondents who had 1 to 5 years of work experience (30.4%), 69 respondents who had 6 to 10 years of work experience (30%), 86 respondents who had 11 or more years of work experience (37.4%), and only 5 respondents who had no work experience (2.2%). The Vietnamese sample had 68 respondents who had 1 to 5 years of work experience (36%), 60 respondents who had 6 to 10 years of work experience (32%), 36 respondents who had 11 or more years of work experience (19%), and 24 respondents who had no work experience (13%).

Table 3: Work Experience

		Place of Birth		Total
		Russia	Vietnam	
Experience	None	5	24	29
	1-5 years	70	68	138
	6-10 years	69	60	129
	11 or more years	86	36	122
	Total	230	188	418

Table 4 shows that the Russian sample had 179 respondents who had no government/public sector work experience (78.8%), 32 respondents who had 1 to 5 years of experience (13.9%), 15 respondents who had 6 to 10 years of experience (6.5%), and only 4 respondents who had 11 or more years working in government/public sector (1.8%). The Vietnamese sample had 64 respondents who had 1 to 5 years of government/public sector work experience (34%), 25 respondents who had 6 to 10 years of experience (13.3%), 20 respondents who had 11 or more years of experience (10.6%), and 79 respondents who had no government/public sector work experience (42%).

Table 4: Government/Public Sector Experience

		Place of Birth		Total
		Russia	Vietnam	
Experience(Gov/Pub)	None	179	79	258
	1-5 years	32	64	96
	6-10 years	15	25	40
	11 or more years	4	20	24
	Total	230	188	418

Table 5 shows that the Russian sample had 48 respondents who had high school degree (21%), 132 respondents who had bachelor degree (57.3%), 46 respondents who had master degree (20%), and 4 respondents who had doctorate degree (1.7%). The Vietnamese sample had 22 respondents who had high school degree (12%), 119 respondents who had bachelor degree (63%), 42 respondents who had master degree (22%), and 5 respondents who had doctorate degree (3%).

Table 5: Education

		Place of Birth		Total
		Russia	Vietnam	
Education	High school	48	22	70
	Bachelor	132	119	251
	Master	46	42	88
	Doctorate	4	5	9
Total		230	188	418

Univariate analysis of variance (Two-way ANOVA) was used for hypotheses testing in this research. Two-way ANOVA is a commonly used statistical technique for finding significant relationships between groups or samples by comparing the means of those groups on two factors of interest.

5.1 Task Orientation Scores

As presented in Table 6-1, the average scores of Russian respondents for task orientation fell in “moderately high range” (M=35.78), while the average scores of Vietnamese respondents for task orientation fell in “high range” (M=41.79). This difference is statistically significant (F=42.430, p=.000), as shown in Table 6-2. Therefore, hypothesis 1 is supported. There is a statistically significant difference between the average task orientation scores of Russian and Vietnamese. Vietnamese respondents appeared to be more task-oriented than Russian respondents.

Also seen in Table 6-1, the average scores of both male and female respondents fell in “moderately high range” though male respondents scored higher (M=39.91) than female respondents (M=37.58). This difference is not statistically significant (F= 1.577, p= .210), as shown in Table 6-2. Therefore, hypothesis 2 is not supported. Male respondents did not score significantly different than female respondents on task scores.

Table 6-2 also shows no significant interaction between place of birth (Russia and Vietnam) and gender (F=2.670, p= .103). Therefore, hypothesis 3 is not supported. A helpful way to understand what it means when a difference between groups or an interaction between variables is not statistically significant is to check the observed power value. As Table 6-2 reported, there would be only 24% chance of finding a significant difference between the mean task scores of males and females and only 37.1% chance of finding a significant interaction between place of birth and gender on the mean task scores in this sample.

Nguyen, Ermasova, Pham & Mujtaba

Table 6.1: Descriptive statistics

Dependent Variable: Task_Scores

Place of Birth	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Russia	Male	37.5075	8.98378	67
	Female	35.0675	10.07756	163
	Total	35.7783	9.81526	230
Vietnam	Male	41.6277	5.69094	94
	Female	41.9468	5.76673	94
	Total	41.7872	5.71586	188
Total	Male	39.9130	7.50116	161
	Female	37.5837	9.34714	257
	Total	38.4809	8.74723	418

Table 6.2: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Task_Scores

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	4022.641 ^a	3	1340.880	19.909	.000	59.726	1.000
Intercept	575918.831	1	575918.831	8550.886	.000	8550.886	1.000
Place of Birth	2857.775	1	2857.775	42.430	.000	42.430	1.000
Gender	106.241	1	106.241	1.577	.210	1.577	.240
Place of Birth * Gender	179.814	1	179.814	2.670	.103	2.670	.371
Error	27883.706	414	67.352				
Total	650871.000	418					
Corrected Total	31906.347	417					

a. R Squared = .126 (Adjusted R Squared = .120)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

6. Relationship Orientation Scores

As presented in Table 7-1, the average scores of Russian respondents for relationship orientation (M=40.29) and the average scores of Vietnamese respondents for relationship orientation (M=41.39) both fell in “high range.” This difference is statistically significant (F=4.823, p= .029), as shown in Table 7-2. Therefore, hypothesis 4 is supported. There is a statistically significant difference between the average scores for relationship orientation of Russian and Vietnamese. Vietnamese respondents appeared to be more relationship-oriented than Russian respondents.

Also seen in Table 7-1, the average score of female respondents (M=41.02) is slightly higher than that of male respondents (M=40.40). This difference is not statistically significant (F= 2.547, p= .111), as shown in Table 7-2. Therefore, hypothesis 5 is not supported. Female respondents did not score significantly different than male respondents on relationship scores.

Nguyen, Ermasova, Pham & Mujtaba

Table 7-2 also shows no significant interaction between place of birth (Russia and Vietnam) and gender ($F=.147$, $p= .702$). Therefore, hypothesis 6 is not supported. As Table 7-2 reported, there would be only 35.7% chance of finding a significant difference between the mean relationship scores of males and females and only 6.7% chance of finding a significant interaction between place of birth and gender on the mean relationship scores in this sample.

Table 7.1: Descriptive statistics
Dependent Variable: Relationship Scores

Place of Birth	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Russia	Male	39.8060	6.16746	67
	Female	40.4908	6.16178	163
	Total	40.2913	6.15785	230
Vietnam	Male	40.8298	4.49046	94
	Female	41.9468	4.55638	94
	Total	41.3883	4.54605	188
Total	Male	40.4037	5.25997	161
	Female	41.0233	5.66233	257
	Total	40.7847	5.51271	418

Table 7.2: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects
Dependent Variable: Relationship Scores

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	205.398 ^a	3	68.466	2.274	.079	6.821	.573
Intercept	628125.769	1	628125.769	20858.217	.000	20858.217	1.000
Place of Birth	145.253	1	145.253	4.823	.029	4.823	.591
Gender	76.686	1	76.686	2.547	.111	2.547	.357
Place of Birth * Gender	4.412	1	4.412	.147	.702	.147	.067
Error	12467.224	414	30.114				
Total	707970.000	418					
Corrected Total	12672.622	417					

a. R Squared = .016 (Adjusted R Squared = .009)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

7. Work Overload Stress Perception Scores

As presented in Table 8-1, the average scores of Russian respondents for work overload stress perception ($M=26.75$) fell in the “moderate” range while the average scores of Vietnamese respondents for work overload stress perception fell in “high” range ($M=30.87$). This difference is statistically significant ($F=21.562$, $p= .000$), as shown in Table 8-2. Therefore, hypothesis 7 is supported. There is a statistically significant difference between the average scores for work overload stress perception of Russian and Vietnamese. Vietnamese respondents appeared to perceive more work overload stress than Russian respondents.

Nguyen, Ermasova, Pham & Mujtaba

Also seen in Table 8-1, the average stress scores of both male and female fell in the “moderate” range though male respondents scored higher (M=29.95) than female respondents (M=27.75). There is no statistically significant difference between these two mean scores (F= 2.597, p= .108), as shown in Table 8-2. Therefore, hypothesis 8 is not supported. Female respondents did not score significantly different than male respondents on work overload stress perception scores.

Table 8.1: Descriptive statistics
Dependent Variable: Stress Scores

Place of Birth	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Russia	Male	27.4179	8.57083	67
	Female	26.4724	8.44687	163
	Total	26.7478	8.47534	230
Vietnam	Male	31.7553	8.65179	94
	Female	29.9787	6.98228	94
	Total	30.8670	7.89086	188
Total	Male	29.9503	8.85494	161
	Female	27.7549	8.10709	257
	Total	28.6005	8.46041	418

Table 8-2 shows no significant interaction between place of birth (Russia and Vietnam) and gender (F=.242, p= .623). Therefore, hypothesis 9 is not supported. As Table 8-2 reported, there would be only 36.3% chance of finding a significant difference between the mean scores for work overload perception of males and females and only 7.8% chance of finding a significant interaction between place of birth and gender on the mean work overload perception scores in this sample.

Table 8.2: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects
Dependent Variable: Stress Scores

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	1946.026 ^a	3	648.675	9.625	.000	28.874	.998
Intercept	315776.007	1	315776.007	4685.330	.000	4685.330	1.000
Place of Birth	1453.205	1	1453.205	21.562	.000	21.562	.996
Gender	175.022	1	175.022	2.597	.108	2.597	.363
Place of Birth * Gender	16.314	1	16.314	.242	.623	.242	.078
Error	27902.254	414	67.397				
Total	371767.000	418					
Corrected Total	29848.280	417					

a. R Squared = .065 (Adjusted R Squared = .058)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

8. Implications, Limitations, and Recommendations

Since there has not been any known studies in English journals comparing the leadership and stress orientation of people in Russia and Vietnam, as an initial research, this study has paved the

Nguyen, Ermasova, Pham & Mujtaba

way for future researchers as they develop models for effective management and leadership practices across these two countries. It was hypothesized that Russian and Vietnamese respondents will have significantly different scores for relationship and task orientations, and the current study supported these hypotheses as respondents in Vietnam appeared to be more task-oriented and more relationship-oriented than respondents in Russia. Gender was not a factor in both the task and the relationship orientations of respondents. There was no significant difference in task orientation scores as well as in relationship scores based on gender. Similarly, there was no significant difference in the task orientation scores as well as in relationship scores based on gender between cultures.

Stress perceptions from work overload appeared to be significantly higher for Vietnamese respondents than for Russian counterparts. Perhaps Russian respondents expect a more balanced work/life than Vietnamese respondents. Gender was not a factor in the work overload stress perception of respondents as we found no significant difference based on gender in this category. No significant differences in stress perceptions were found based on gender between cultures. This study confirms some of the previous findings in regards to the Vietnamese culture when compared to other countries (Nguyen, Boehmer & Mujtaba, 2012; Nguyen, Mujtaba & Pham, 2013; Nguyen, Lee, Mujtaba & Ruijjs, 2013). This study and its findings are different from previous studies as it the only known study comparing respondents in Russia and Vietnam.

Previous researchers have not addressed the leadership and stress orientation of people in Vietnam and Russia collectively in one study perhaps due to funding or data collection limitations. Similarly, there are several limitations in this paper. First of all, this study was conducted with a general adult population from different universities and industries in Russia and in Vietnam. Future studies can extend the comparison to populations with similar working backgrounds and demographic variables such as government employees with the private sector, or employees with different levels of education. Secondly, the sample size is rather small. Thus, these results cannot be generalized to the larger population. Future studies can be conducted on larger sample size with similar population. In addition, this research only examined the work overload stress while there are other aspects of work and life that can cause stress to employees. Future research can examine other aspects of work and life that can cause stress. Finally, this study only focused on Russian and Vietnamese respondents. More studies in different countries from different continents should be done in order to have a better understanding of the task, relationship, and stress orientations of employees across the globe.

9. Conclusion

After reflecting on the behaviors of people from Russia and Vietnam, we can say for certain that Vietnamese respondents are definitely more task-oriented and relationship-oriented than their Russian counterparts. Vietnamese people also report a higher level of work overload stress perception as well.

There are significant implications for managers and cross-cultural researchers in this initial study between Vietnamese and Russian respondents. Russian management practices do not easily fit internationally recognized practices. The profile of effective business leader in Russia absorbs historical features of a nation, heritage of totalitarian system, and peculiarities of society-in transition. Older Russians who were born, educated and programmed during the Soviet era have

Nguyen, Ermasova, Pham & Mujtaba

an attitude and approach to life and business which is in sharp contrast to the younger generation who have been raised in a slightly freer, globally more liberal environment. These tensions can be seen in the macro-Russian issues such as politics and economics but also in more micro issues – such as internal and external relations within a business context. Many Russians view as important such fundamental issues as: survival, justice, goal achievement, self-actualization, self-respect, economic benefits of activities. Networking and extended interpersonal allegiances are essential to successful business and the importance of resource allocation to ensure the development of good quality relationships should not be underestimated. Russians must now confront the issues associated with the emergence of a new culture, a new national identity, and an absolutely new business culture. The enormous, dramatic changes, plus the embedded basic values of the traditional Russian culture, are coalescing to increase work-related stress in Russia.

Researchers and scholars can benefit from this study as it provides more empirical results regarding the stress orientation as well as relationship similarities and dissimilarities between adult Russian and Vietnamese based on gender and culture. Managers and practitioners, especially those from Russia and Vietnam, can also benefit from the study as it provides real-world implications in doing business or in dealing with these working adults.

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