COUNTRY'S PREFERRED LEADER BEHAVIOUR PROFILE: DOES CULTURAL HOMOGENEITY MATTER?*

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Abstract. *In a study of employed adult business people, comparisons of preferred leader behaviour prototypes (as defined by the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire XII) were carried out between Iceland, a culturally homogeneous nation, and Lithuania a culturally non-homogenous nation. The main aim of the study was to determine whether cultural homogeneity is a good indicator of uniform views of followers' towards preferred leader behaviour. Furthermore, the study aimed at contributing to leadership theory and research by providing empirical data from two under-researched countries. The third aim of the study was to provide expat managers working in Iceland or/and Lithuania insights into more effective leader behaviour in these countries. Results of the empirical research indicate that followers' attitudes towards preferred leaderships are different, with respondents from Iceland having very uniform views, while those from Lithuania have very diverse views when evaluating leader behaviour preferences. This can be due to the relative homogeneity of national cultures. Overall comparison of the two countries indicates that Iceland and Lithuania differ significantly in 7 out of 12 preferred leader behaviour dimensions, which confirm culture specific attitudes towards desired leader behaviour and hence is coherent with cross-cultural leadership literature. Managerial implications of these differences are discussed in length, which can serve as guidelines for expat managers of both countries in increasing business transactions between Iceland and Lithuania.*

Keywords: *leadership, cross-cultural management, follower, preferred leader behaviour, Iceland, Lithuania*

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1. INTRODUCTION

This research aims to extend the knowledge concerning the measurement of preferred leader behaviour and cultural value priorities, and to apply the results in facilitating transactions amongst business-people working in Iceland and Lithuania. This study is and expansion of the Global Preferred Leader Behaviour and Culture project (Littrell, 2013) focusing on northern and eastern European societies (see Littrell and Valentin, 2005). Two-country studies provide useful advancement of knowledge and in fact this is the most common design in cross-cultural research (Nath, 1968; Chidlow, Pervez, Ghauri, Yeniyurt & Cavusgil, 2015). Sekaran (1983) argues that these small studies are necessary. Furthermore, this study attempts to indicate whether homogenous societal culture (with less diversity in attitudes) is relevant indicator of uniform views of followers towards preferred leader behaviour.

Leadership has significant effect on societies (O'Reilly et al., 2010; Landau, 1984). Leaders and management teams influence on the degree of success of other people, organizations, and nations (Mills, 2005, Zubanov et al., 2017). According to Lord and Maher (1991), leader is more likely to be perceived as one if a follower evaluating him sees a good fit between expected and actual behaviour of the leader. Furthermore, the better the fit between these two categories of behaviour (expected and actual), the more influence leader will have on follower. However, leaders do not act in isolation. They act within cultures which are characterized by beliefs, attitudes, values, behaviours and actions (Hofstede, 1983, 2001). Cultures tend to have different beliefs as to what constitutes good or bad leadership model. The GLOBE project (House et al., 2004) identified a list of universal leader attributes (e.g. charismatic leadership), but also found that in some countries one attribute can be positively associated with good leaders, while they are considered negative in others. Therefore, it is evident that leadership is a culturally contingent collection of phenomena. Hence, it needs to be investigated within a cultural context.

Existing literature offers at least two different views on how societal development, from industrialization onwards, may have had an effect on culture and leadership. The hypothesis of convergence implies that as during the development process of nations, work-related managerial leader behaviour that is common to all industrialized countries is embraced (Ralston, Holt, Terpstra & Yu, 1997: 182). Accordingly, due to the industrialization process, organisations and leaders will become more alike and adopt universal practices about work and corporate culture as industrialisation progresses (Child & Keiser, 1979).

The opposing divergence hypothesis suggests that national cultural values are drivers within societies and they do not change regardless industrialized practices (Ralston et al., 1997). Therefore, even deeply-rooted cultural values will guide people behaviour even in the contexts where societal contingencies are alike, the application of similar management models will not give the same results(Child & Keiser, 1979). The main premise of divergence hypothesis propose that components of organisations in different societal contexts will vary, as result of influence by national culture. The research presented in this paper adopts the divergence perspective, although inquiring for evidence of convergence.

The bulk of research in the leadership area stems from the U.S. (Dorfman et al., 2012). Some research describes a region – e.g. Nordic countries (Smith et al., 2003). However evidence suggest, that each country in that Nordic region has a particular set of

characteristics (Oladottir & Johannesdottir, 2008). Furthermore, literature suggest that particular behaviour reflecting leadership is distinct in particular culture (Shahin & Wright, 2004). Some countries, e.g. Iceland, have been overlooked in large scale cross-cultural leadership research (e.g. GLOBE). Furthermore, it has not received enough attention among researchers in general, possibly due to the small size of the country, newness of business culture, or other reasons. However, the lack of data on leadership within the country can affect businesses by not providing them with necessary information for management training, development and effectiveness improvement, as well as expatriate management. Knowing the preferred leader profile is the first step in assessing initial perceptions of expectations of leader effectiveness.

A recent literature review (Snaebjornsson, 2016b) indicates that research on business leadership in Iceland and Lithuania is rare, insufficient, and does not provide necessary information for business practitioners. Hence, these two countries, Iceland and Lithuania, were chosen in this research project to contribute to the cross-cultural management body of research knowledge and theory.

1.1. Practical level of the problem

Empirical research data on leadership in Iceland and Lithuania is limited. Even though leadership is a global phenomenon, many aspects of leadership are culturally dependent (Steers et al., 2012). Hence, a lack of evidence on leadership hinders planning, development and improving of management performance. This lack of information hinders effective leader performance in the countries while failure to understand cross-cultural leadership differences reduces effectiveness in international commerce and competition. The main goal of the research

presented in this paper is to provide new empirical data and theoretical considerations about leader behaviour from two countries, namely Iceland and Lithuania, that have been greatly under-represented in leadership research and in this way to elaborate on our understanding of the practice and theory of leadership in cross-cultural settings. .

The two countries provide a comparison of a staunch capitalist European economy and a post-Soviet bloc economy. Iceland is described as a combination of welfare system and capitalist structure with free-market standards (C.I.A World Factbook, 2016). Icelandic economy is heavily dependent on the fishing industry, which accounts for 40% of export income, more than 12% of GDP with almost 5% of workforce employed in the industry. However, Iceland´s economy is effected by declining fish stocks and fluctuations in prices for its main exports: fish and fish products, aluminium, and ferro-silicon. Partially as a result of 2008 financial crises, tourism in Iceland became one of the main pillars of economic growth, with the number of tourists expected to reach 2.5 mln. in 2018 (Turisti, 2018). This is one of the evidence of diversification of Icelandic economy, along with developing industries such as software production and biotechnology. Abundancy of the geothermal and hydropower sources have attracted substantial foreign investment in the aluminium sector in Iceland, in this way increasing economic growth, and attracting interest from high-tech firms looking to establish data centres using cheap green energy, even though the 2008 financial crisis has put several investment projects on hold.

Probably the two most crucial developments in Lithuania since the restoration of the independence in 1990s, is gained membership in the World Trade Organization in2001 and joined the EU in 2004 (and Euro zone in 2015). Almost 88% of total trade of Lithuania is implemented with the EU and

CIS countries. EU funding, as well as foreign investment, have assisted in the transition from the former planned economy to a market economy in Lithuania. The 2008financial crisis somewhat effected Lithuania, however country rebounded and became one of the fastest growing economies in the EU. Lithuania's ongoing recovery hinges on export growth, which is being impeded by economic fluctuations in the EU and Russia. Lithuania is under review for membership in the OECD.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Culture

Culture is described as both: "here and now" phenomenon and a "coercive background structure" that influences people and societies in multiple ways (Schein, 2010: 3). Culture is created and re-enacted by one's interaction with others and shaped by one's own behaviour. Leadership is related with person's influence on behaviour of others. Research has shown that nationality of a leader has great impact on his or her value system that he or she applies when performing management and leadership practices within organizations (Laurent, 1987; Schmid, Wurster, & Dauth, 2015). National culture is most influential among the three levels of culture that influence organizations (Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 1993).

Culture effects the way people evaluate situations and events, and in this way members of same culture will be more alike than those from different cultures (Erez & Early, 1993). The national culture can be evaluated from a social perspective, a historical perspective and an individual perspective. The social perspective consideres culture from a social viewpoint,as a characteristics of social life (Geertz, 1973). The values that a particular nation inherits represent the historical perspective of national culture.

The individual perspective views culture in which the values and norms of individuals are highlighted. Culture is often defined as the collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes the members of one group from another; when you run the same program with the same or similar data, you expect to obtain the same or similar results (Hofstede, 1991).

2.2 Leadership in Lithuania and Iceland

A lack of consensus on the definition of leadership has been discussed widely in the literature, e.g., Nicholls (1988). Fleishman et al. (1991), Aycan (2008), Dorfman and House (2004) House et al. (2004), and Rønning, Espedal, & Jordahl (2013), though the lack of consensus on a definition has not slowed down research on the subject (Oyserman, Coon & Kemmelmeier, 2002; Smith, Bond, & Kagitcibasi, 2006). Even though leadership has been extensively studied in past decades, a recent literature review (Snaebjornsson & Edvardsson, 2013) shows gaps in our understanding. Osbourne et al. (2002) suggest that our knowledge is incomplete (when it comes to definitive, unequivocal research within cultural contexts. There is information vacuum in management research regarding the cultural context particularly relating to smaller countries (Snaebjornsson, 2016; Forster & Fenwick, 2015). We anticipate that the knowledge obtained within the frame of this study will be of importance for business researchers and practitioners, especially expatriate managers.

2.3. Preferred leader prototype and Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire XII (LBDQXII)

The instrument use in data collection in this research is the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire XII (LBDQXII), as introduced by Stogdill (1963 & 1974).

Cross-cultural validation of the instrument is discussed in Littrell (2013) and Littrell et al. (2018).

Research in leadership indicates that followers hold a certain prototype of an ideal or preferred leader. Literature indicates, that the follower creates and holds certain categories of leader, those categories areprototypes reflecting individual's ideal leader image (Goethals & Sorenson, 2007). Follower uses these categories when evaluating the leader. This a priori attitude held by follower about how a leader should behave in general and in specific situations (Fielding & Hogg, 1997; Hogg, 2001).

The importance of these prototypes of ideal leaders are rooted in their relation to leader effectiveness (Lord & Maher, 1991) as "a person is more likely to be accepted as a leader if the person who is evaluating sees a good fit between a leader's expected and actual behaviour" (Littrell & Cruz-Barba, 2013, p. 569). A leader's influence depends on the fit between the leader's actual behaviour and the explicit leader behaviour template. Therefore, preferred leader prototypes relate to the actual leader behaviour as a means to improve leadership effectiveness. Actual leader behaviour should reflect followers' preferences, in order for a leader to be effective (Schyns & Schilling, 2011). Therefore, the revelation of followers' expectations and needs regarding leader behaviour is a crucial component in increasing leadership effectiveness (Mockaitis, 2005).

The theoretical underpinning regarding follower's expectations towards leader behaviour, have been operationalised with the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire XII – the most widely used leadership questionnaires in the world

Table 1. Preferred leader behaviour dimensions defined by the LBDQ XII.

Factor 1: Representation. Measures to what degree the manager speaks as the representative of the group.	*Factor 7: Role Assumption.* Measures to what degree the manager actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others.
Factor 2: Demand Reconciliation. Reflects how well the manager reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to system.	*Factor 8: Consideration.* Depicts to what extent the manager regards the comfort, well-being, status and contributions of followers.
Factor 3: Tolerance of Uncertainty. Depicts to what extent the manager is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or getting upset.	*Factor 9: Production Emphasis.* Measures to what degree the manager applies pressure for productive output.
Factor 4: Persuasiveness. Measures to what extent the manager uses persuasion and argument effectively; exhibits strong convictions.	*Factor 10: Predictive Accuracy.* Measures to what extent the manager exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately.
Factor 5: Initiation of Structure. Measures to what degree the manager clearly defines own role, and lets followers know what is expected.	*Factor 11: Integration.* Reflects to what degree the manager maintains a closely-knit organization; resolves inter-member conflicts.
Factor 6: Tolerance of Freedom. Reflects to what extent the manager allows followers scope for initiative, decision and action.	*Factor 12: Superior Orientation.* Measures to what extent the manager maintains cordial relations with superiors; has influence with them; is striving for higher status.

Source: Summarised from Stogdill (1963)

(Northouse, 2013, p.76), which describes the behaviour of a leader, or somebody in leadership, management, or supervisory position. The questionnaire includes 100 items with Likert type response categories. It describes typical behaviours of preferred leaders. These 100 items were factor analysed to construct 12 dimensions of leader behaviour (see Table 1). The literature indicates that LBDQXII is a reliable (Stogdill, 1963) and valid (Halpin, 1957, Comrey, Pfiffner & High, 1954) instrument for the measurement of leader behaviour across industries and societal sectors, as well as for cross-cultural research (Black & Porter, 1991; Selmer, 1997). Moreover, the LBDQXII is described as "a useful, reliable, and valid survey instrument that can be employed to prepare, educate, and develop expatriates and local managers as to what behaviours are expected in business organizations in different cultures" (Littrell, 2013, p. 567).

2.4 Characteristics of follower and leader behaviour

Followers' views on leadership are important and evident (Shamir, 2007). However, as the literature indicates, followers' views towards leaders might differ, depending on sociodemographic characteristics of the followers, from the literature, those most effecting leader preferences are: gender, education level, and age.

Gender. Gender in leadership, particularly, business leadership continues to trigger passionate debate among academics (Adler & Osland, 2016) as well as in popular media. The gender roles and attributes are evidently changing with time and within societies (Twenge, 1997). In the long term, those shifts change the understanding of what is feminine, masculine or, possibly, neutral. However, the question remains, whether men and women view things differently in today's society? How does culture affect their views?

Gender behaviour seems to have changed in time. Evidence shows that women have changed, becoming more androgynous, whereas men have changed very little (Twenge, 2001; Konrad, Ritchie, Lieb, & Corrigall, 2000). This fact suggests the need for a continuous longitudinal approach regarding gender – leadership research, in order to grasp developments in this field.

When investigating leader behaviour preferences, as research indicates, gender differences exist (Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002). Furthermore, the literature indicates that gender effects could in some cases even have stronger influence on leader behaviour preferences, than race (Littrell & Nkomo, 2005).

To sum up, while the attention in leadership research and gender has mainly been devoted to gender differences, very few studies have used the Followercentric approach and investigated attitudes towards desired leadership. Accordingly, a gap in our understandings seems to be evident.

Education level. Limited attention has been previously paid to education level of a follower in leadership research. Education level is typically investigated among many characteristics that can affect follower's attitudes. The research in the field reports some differences regarding education level effects. Vecchio and Boatwright (2002) contest that employees with higher levels of education indicated lower preference for leader structuring. Level of education has been found as negatively correlated with workers' ideal preferences for worker-centred leadership behaviours, while positively correlated with ideal preferences for job-centred leadership behaviours (Boatwright and Forrest, 2000).

Some studies suggest that difference in education level can be due to different emphases on certain values or priorities among fields of social sciences. Littrell and Snaebjornsson (2016) suggest that studies in the social sciences investigate and reflect upon opinions, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours

of people engaged in social interaction. The experience such as education can be considered as antecedents of beliefs and experience that coalesce into personal beliefs as one grows older and more experienced. Beliefs are personal characteristics about what one regards as true and factual and can be influenced by the interactions during the course of life and as one gains experience, hence resulting in differences in preferences in leader evaluation.

Age. Generational differences is a typical context in leadership research in regard to. Literature confirms that generational differences in leadership style (Salahuddin, 2010), as well as its impact on leader behaviour preferences of the followers (Boatwright and Forrest, 2000). Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2008) suggested that societal values could change over time and form somewhat different values among different generations of the same country. Congruent with above mentioned, Inglehart (1997) found some differences among generations worldwide, particularly relating to priority given to materialist values of older people vs. post-material values of younger ones. Even though generational distinctions can be useful as a generalisation, Littrell (2010) suggested that generational cohorts might differ from country to country, as generations are defined by historic events, among other criteria, which tend not to be consistent across countries.

To sum up, sparse or contradicting evidence of effects of gender, education level, and age, suggests the need to investigate the possible influences on leader behaviour preferences among those above-mentioned characteristics in preferred leader behaviour research. Therefore, in this research, the diversity/uniformity of followers' attitudes towards preferred leader behaviour will be investigating using these above mentioned sociodemographic characteristics of followers in two countries: Iceland and Lithuania.

2.5. Leadership in Iceland

Icelanders are first of all characterised as islanders with the characteristics of so called islanders' mentality (Conkling, 2007). Iceland was under Danish and Norwegian rule from 1262 to 1944, when Iceland became an independent republic. The 20th century was a turning point in economic development for this island. It was achieved by modernising its fishing fleet. British and Americans were among those investing heavily in Iceland, hence played an important part in the country's modernization from the end of the Second World War onwards (Rostrup, 2010). The American, Norwegian and Danish cultures influenced Icelandic culture the most.

There are few published studies on Icelandic culture in the cross-cultural literature. Hofstede's (1984) and GLOBE's (House et al., 2004) research, that are considered the largest original cross-cultural studies, did not include Iceland. The fragmented information on Icelandic culture describe it as egalitarian (low on the masculinity dimension), characterised by low power distance, relatively high individualism, and average long-term orientation (Adalsteinsson et al., 2011). Icelandic business culture is characterised by low hierarchy. This, combined with low power distance, and small size of the companies in general, results in a direct communication style between manager and subordinates. Communication paths are much shorter than in more hierarchical business cultures. Icelandic managers are described as not afraid to take chances or risks (low Uncertainty Avoidance) and are thought to be unpredictable, improvising, and somewhat hesitant to value and follow formal rules. They rely more on informal rules, co-workers, and mostly their own experience (Davidsdottir, 2006). This style of business culture is more like that of the USA, than Scandinavian style. Icelanders have been characterized as employing different approaches of doing business than other countries (Davidsdottir, 2006).

It is difficult to determine whether Iceland's societal and business culture was influenced more by Americanisation or merely followed the pattern of normal modernisation of the Western world (Hannesson, 1964). It can also be argued that Icelandic business culture differs from Scandinavian business cultures and even though it is leaning more towards an American way of managing (Davidsdottir, 2006) it does not fully resemble US business culture either. Thus, it appears to have its own unique business culture.

A literature search on leadership in Iceland usually brings very few results. There are few studies available (Edvardsson and Oskarsson, 2009; Oladottir & Johannesdottir, 2008; Rostrup, 2010; Grendstad, 2001) that focus on leadership in business. The literature describes Icelandic leaders to be optimistic and showing initiative, and being risk takers who tend to improvise. They are also most likely to use democratic and "informal" leadership styles. However, the scarcity of studies available on leadership in Iceland clearly creates a gap in our understanding of the topic in the national context.

Snaebjornsson (2016a) described ideal leader profile in Icelandic with emphases on within culture analysis or emic approach, as well as uniformity of followers in regard to preferences towards ideal leader behaviour. Snaebjornsson (2016a) concluded that the most desired characteristics of an ideal leader among Icelandic business people are Integration, Demand reconciliation, Representation, and Initiation of structure. When describing the uniformity of followers' attitudes towards ideal leader preferences, Snaebjornsson (2016a) found no difference in regard to the follower's gender, education level or age. The research presented in this paper partially builds on the previous work, however focusing on comparison of two countries – Iceland and Lithuania – in

attempt to answer weather cultural homogeneity of the country matter in followers' preferences towards ideal leader profile.

2.6 Leadership in Lithuania

Polish, Russian, and German cultures were strongest influencers of Lithuanian culture. Lithuanian culture was also influenced from Jews, Swedes, Mongols, Italians, etc. (Teller, 2017; Stranga, Bater, et al., 2018; and Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2018). The most significantly influential events related to Lithuania's economic development are: (a) WWII and the Soviet occupation of Lithuania, which eventually led the country into a planned economy, and (b) restoration of independence (in 1990) which led to reorientation into a market economy and (c) joining the EU in 2004.

Societal cultures are described as stable structures with no or minor changes over time suggests that unless they are hit by extraordinary events e.g., wars or revolutions (Hofstede, 2001). In 1990 Lithuania went through a dramatic event – restoration of independence followed by a reorientation to a market economy, which is based on different attitudes and values than a planned economy (Diskiene et al., 2010). This transformation involved entangled set of principles, embodied in historical structuresand practices, and replaced by another unfamiliar assemblage , resulting in highly ambiguous period with high uncertainty for those involved (Tuulik & Alas, 2008; Diskiene et al., 2010).

Chart 1 depicts societal culture value dimension national average estimates using Hofstede 's 6D model. Lithuania today is more individualistic than collectivistic (https://www.hofstede-insights.com/product/compare-countries/). Lithuania has a high national average in uncertainty avoidance, hence Lithuanians have institutions, norms, and practices in place to minimize risk. This
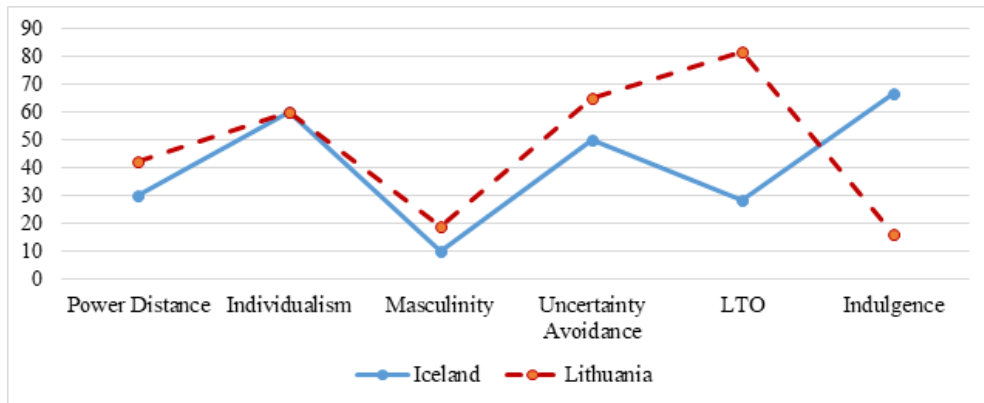
Chart 1. National Average Estimates for Dimensions in Hofstede's 6-Dimensional Model
Source: https://www.hofstede-insights.com/product/compare-countries/

could affect involvement in entrepreneurship associated with risk taking. Lithuanians are considered socially open and still holding on to the traditions, although being influenced by Western cultures. The culture of Lithuania can be stated to be reinventing itself as an independent country in the EU. Hence, Lithuanian business leaders work to minimize risks. In order to avoid uncertainty, rules to control social behaviour were created within the business culture of Lithuania, and extreme bureaucratic red tape followed to enforce protocols (Baltrimienė, 2005). Lithuanian leaders do not have a strong relationship with their superiors. Management style is often described as autocratic with employees usually avoiding to show disagreement and dissatisfaction. Little guidance is provided by the superior. The dominant values among Lithuanian managers are professionalism and responsibility, with corporate social responsibility and helpfulness being less important (Heuttinger, 2008).

Sparse literature suggests Lithuanian business culture being highly restrained, monochronic, oriented to the past and the present, resulting in focus on short-term planning,, and withlow context communication. Furthermore, the change in the name of progress prevails unpopular in an organizational environment, as suggested by Diskiene et

al.(2010). The dominant communication style in business culture is direct, formal, and rather reserved. is Emphasis on authority and hierarchy is felt. However, in recent years a slow shift towards democratic leadership style has been onbserved(Diskiene et al., 2010).

The literature on leadership in Lithuania is more extensive than in the case of Iceland. Nonetheless, it is still very limited. The literature (Stelmokiene, 2012; Mockaitis & Salciuviene, 2004; Matoniene, 2011) indicates that in Lithuania successful leadership is related to "soft leadership" attributes such as communication, attentiveness, and flexibility; leadership effects vary according to organisational outcomes and by business sector.

3. METHOD

3.1 Survey Instrument

The survey as the research method was used in order to investigate the preferred leader profile in Iceland and Lithuania. The Ohio State Theory of Leadership, (operationalised by the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire version XII,LBDQXII, see http://fisher.osu.edu/research/lbdq/) was adopted in this research study presented here.

3.2 Preparation of the Survey Instrument

The standard double-blind translation recommended by Brislin (1980), was implemented when preparing and adopting the questionnaires, along with guidelines formulated by Littrell for the international consortium of *A Study of Preferred Leader Behaviour and Values Project*,. 2 forth and 2 back translations, and 2 focus groups (cultural validation of the questionnaire) for each language of the questionnaire were performed. This procedure of preparation of survey instruments is aimed at assuring the quality of translation and adaptation of the instrument. See Littrell et al. (2018) for further details of translation. The surveys were administered in Lithuanian in Lithuania and Icelandic in Iceland. :.

3.3 Geography of the Research

Leadership situations in heterogeneous societies provide highly complex settings, less so in homogeneous culture societies (Chemers & Ayman, 1993). Therefore, two northern European countries, Iceland, with a homogeneous culture, and Lithuania, with a relatively heterogeneous culture, were chosen, ascomparison of these countries in leadership research is virtually non-existent. Neither of these two countries was included in the ground breaking (Hofstede, 1984; House et al., 2004) leadership and culture-related studies either. The countries represent two regions that are increasing their economic cooperation (Nordic, Baltic).

3.4 Religio-Ethno-Linguistic Fractionalization

Alesina, Devleeschauwer, Easterly, Kurlat, & Wacziarg (2003) propose that the measure of ethnic diversity used almost universally in the empirical literature is the index of ethno-linguistic fractionalization (ELF), or Religio-Ethno-Linguistic Fractionalization (RELF). The indices for Iceland and Lithuania and global statistics are in Table 2, from data Wacziarg (n.d.).

Effects of Fractionalization. Intra-country fractionalization can lead to differing leader prototypes being generated in religio-ethno-linguistic enclaves within a

Table 2. Religio-Ethno-Linguistic Fractionalization Indices for Iceland and Lithuania in Global Context.

Country	Source (Ethnicity Data)	Ethno- Fractionalization	Linguistic- Fractionalization	Religio- Fractionalization
		Source: see column 2. Date: see column 3.	Eb, 2001	Eb, 2001
Mean, 215 countries		0.4393	0.3860	0.4366
SD, 215 countries		0.2581	0.2788	0.2268
Iceland	Eb, 1995	0.0798	0.0820	0.1913
Lithuania	Eb, 1996	0.3223	0.3219	0.4141

Source Wacziard (n.d.): Key: eb=Encyclopaedia Brit., cia=CIA, sm=Scarritt and Mozaffar
lev=Levinson, wdm=World Directory of Minorities, census=national census data

country. This situation invalidates a national average for a leader behaviour dimension; see, for example Peterson & Søndergaard (2011), Littrell, Alon & Chan (2012), and Minkov & Hofstede (2012 & 2014). The findings in such studies lead to the expectation that fractionalized enclaves in a nation will lead to differing preferred leader prototypes in the enclaves.

3.5. Hypotheses

Based upon our literature review, hypotheses to be tested (non-null) are:

H1: The preferred leader profile in Iceland and Lithuania evaluated by 12 LBDQXII factors will be different..

H2: Gender does not affect LBDQXII preferences.

H3: Level of education does not affect LBDQXII preferences.

H4 Age of the respondent does not affect LBDQXII preferences.

3.6 Sampling Strategy and Recruitment of Participants

The populations of this study is employed business people in Iceland and Lithuania. As organizational structure can influence employees' preferences towards managerial leader behaviour, a specific segment, private companies, are the focus of this research.

Sampling strategy,

In this research project, subjects are systematic random samples (Tashakkori &Teddlie, 2003) of business people, drawn from Lithuania and Iceland.

Recruitment of Participants. Iceland.

Recruitment of participants for Icelandic sample is in detail described in Snaebjornsson (2016a). Suffice to mention, that SA, an association representing about 50% of Icelandic companies was a data collection partner in Iceland.. SA sent an invitation to all its member companies, encouraging them to distribute the online questionnaire among their employees.

Recruitment of participants: Lithuania. In Lithuania the questionnaire was distributed in cooperation with the Council of Small and Medium-sized Businesses - SVV, which comprises about 47 business associations (some of them representing large companies as well). SVV sent an invitation to all its partner associations, encouraging them to distribute the online questionnaire among their members.

Sample size. The Lithuanian sample of LBDQXII consists of consists 129 respondenses. The Icelandic sample of LBDQXII consists of 155respondenses. A minimum sample size of 50 per group is suggested for reliable estimates of statistical effects (Hair, Erson, Tatham & Black, 1998). Our samples exceed that threshold.

Demographics of Samples. The Icelandic sample consisted of 74% male and 26% female. This is in linewith the situation in Icelandic companies, where approximately 70% of managers are males (Statistics Iceland, 2015). 88% of Lithuanian participants had a university degree. This is again congruent with data, showing educational levels in Lithuania to be among the highest in Europe, and Lithuanian women being the most educated among all EU countries (The Baltic Course, 2015).

The religion of the participants corresponds to the largest religious groups in the two countries: Lutheran Protestants in Iceland (80%), and Catholics in Lithuania (69%). Data from official statistics states that 80% of the population in Iceland are Lutherans, and in Lithuania 77% are Catholics (Statistics Iceland, 2015; Statistics Lithuania, n.d.). To conclude, the sample of this research is representative in both countries.

In Iceland 67% of respondents work in SMEs (up to 250 employees), while the Lithuanian percentage is 66%. Data indicate that in Iceland 90% of companies are micro companies (Viðskiptaráð Íslands, Icelandic Chamber of Commerce, n.d.) and in Lithuania the number of micro companies is 78% of all companies (Statistics Lithuania, n.d.). Most of the respondents work in private companies (89% in Iceland and 75% in Lithuania). In some respects, comparable statistics cannot be provided from Lithuania, as Classification Statistics Lithuania includes large number of companies which fall in the "other" group. (Statistics Lithuania, n.d.). To conclude: The respondents participating in the surveys in Iceland and Lithuania represent a variety of companies of differing sizes and types of industry.

3.7 Validity and Reliability of the Surveys

Judge, Piccolo and Iles (2004) performed extensive meta-analysis of the survey instruments developed by the Ohio State studies and concluded that it had significant predictive validity for leader success. Furthermore, Littrell (2010) suggested that LBDQXII has "the highest validities averaged across the overarching dimensions of Consideration and Initiating Structure of their exhaustive array of studies reviewed" (p. 169). Vecchio (1987) and Kerr et al. (1974) concluded LBDQXII to be a widely accepted index of leader behaviour, based on its psychometric qualities (e.g. reliability, construct validity).

3.8 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations were adhered to as the electronic link of the survey was sent directly to the respondents, guaranteeing confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy. Respondents were informed that research results would be presented in summarized form, therefore no risk of associating surveys with individuals. The quantitative part of the research is not diagnostic; it focuses on a description of people's desires, their preferences.

Structure and internal validity (Cronbach) of LBDQXII factors of the research sample can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3. **Structure and internal validity of LBDQXII factors of the research sample**

Number of factor	Items	Cronbach α IS	Cronbach α LT	Cronbach α combined
Factor 1: Representation	5	0.685	0.764	0.754
Factor 2: Demand Reconciliation	5	0.516	0.697	0.618
Factor 3: Tolerance of Uncertainty	10	0.509	0.517	0.432*
Factor 4: Persuasiveness	10	0.817	0.813	0.806
Factor 5: Initiation of Structure	10	0.772	0.705	0.712
Factor 6: Tolerance of Freedom	5	0.712	0.686	0.699
Factor 7: Role Assumption	10	0.629	0.713	0.670
Factor 8: Consideration	10	0.757	0.705	0.711
Factor 9: Production Emphasis	10	0.527	0.634	0.537
Factor 10: Predictive Accuracy	5	0.759	0.717	0.742
Factor 11: Integration	5	0.787	0.804	0.780
Factor 12: Superior Orientation	10	0.670	0.727	0.695

* Exclusion of 62R (reverse) would result in α = 0.606
Source: Authors

3.9 Data Analysis Methods

3.9.1. Normality tests

In order to asses skewness and kurtosis, Shapiro-Wilk's and visual analyses were performed to identify the normality of distribution of the samples. Based on skewness and kurtosis analysis with z-values outside +/-1.96 interval range (Cramer, 1998), Shapiro-Wilk's test with p < 0.05 (Shapiro and Wilk, 1965; Razali and Wah, 2011) and visual examination of histograms, normal Q-Q plots and box plots supports conclusionregardingnot normal distribution of the samples. The LBDQXII consists of 80 statements about leader behaviour that are generally found to be positive across cultures, and 20 statements generally found to be negative. The negative statements are reverse-scored for analyses. With a range of 1= "a leader should never engage in a behaviour" to 5= "a leader should always engage in a behaviour", as the item design is for positive indications of leader behaviour, we would expect respondents to tend to select anchors tending towards 5; negatively skewing item responses in general.

Some literature suggests the use of non-parametric analysis methods in case of non-normally distributed samples (Kuzon et al., 1996; Jamieson, 2004). Nontheless, literature suggests that parametric methods can be adopted without concern for "getting the wrong answer", as "many studies, dating back to the 1930s consistently show that parametric statistics are robust with respect to violations of these assumptions" (Norman, 2010, p. 625). Littrell (2010) in his research calculated both parametric and non-parametric tests and identified the lack of differences in the results using both methods.

On the bases of the above outlined arguments, parametric analysis methods will be used for data analysis.

3.9.2. Homogeneity of variances

The two samples presented in this research satisfy the condition of being randomly drawn(a precondition for homogeneity tests). Levene's test for homogeneity of variances, resulted in p>0.05 for 11 out of 12 factors of LBDQXII, and verified the equality of variances in the samples (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012). LBDQXII dimensions were measured with a Likert type scale, which though often considered an ordinal type of scale, have been found amenable to analyses with parametric statistics.

4. RESULTS

This research focuses on followers' attitudes and perceptions regarding a leader and his or her behaviour. The overall question intended to be answered is "What is the preferred leader profile in Iceland and Lithuania from a follower's standpoint?"

4.1. Preferred leader behaviour profiles in Iceland and Lithuania

The findings show that the most preferred leader behaviours in Lithuania are the following: Integration, Representation, Persuasiveness, and Initiation of Structure (see Figure 1). This indicates that the ideal managerial leader must be able to maintain a closely-knit organization and resolve conflicts within organizations. This is an expected result in a relatively highly fractionalized society. The managerial leader in Lithuania is also expected to represent the group and speak on its behalf, to be a visible representative figure. Moreover, the ideal managerial leader is expected to be persuasive in his/her argumentation and convincing. In a fractionalized society the managerial leader needs to be a persuasive communicator across diverse employee. Finally, the managerial leader providing well-defined roles for him-/

herself, as well as clearly defining follow-ers' roles is among the most highly preferred leader behaviours in Lithuania.

In Iceland the most desirable charac-teristics of the ideal leader are: Integration, Demand Reconciliation, Representation and Initiation of Structure (as showed in Figure 2 and elaborated in Snaebjornsson, 2016a). Accordingly, the ideal managerial leader in Iceland is expected to maintain a closely-knit organization and resolve conflicts within the organization. Furthermore, theleader is ex-pected to speak on behalf of the group and represent it, , and be a visible figure while representing the group. The ideal managerial

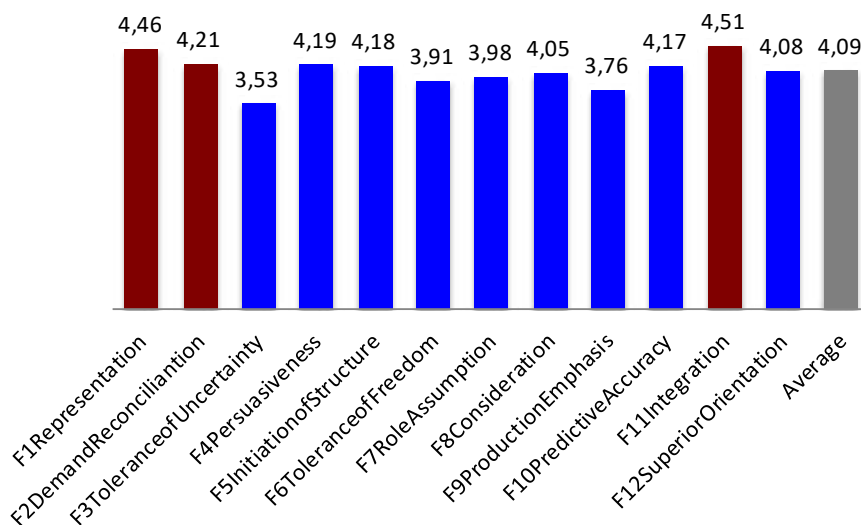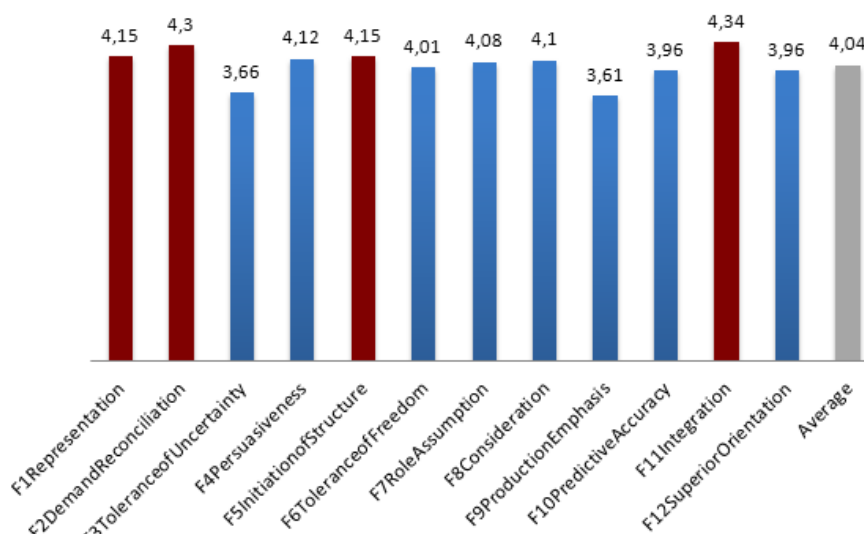*Figure 1. Preferred leader profiles in Lithuania*

Figure 2. Preferred leader profiles in Iceland

Source: Snaebjornsson (2016a)

Table 4. **A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA): LBDQXII factors**

		Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
F1 Representation	*Between Groups*	*6.719*	*1*	*6.719*	*28.71*	*.00*
	Within Groups	66.468	284	.234		
F2 Demand Reconciliation	Between Groups	.535	1	.535	1.60	.20
	Within Groups	95.064	284	.335		
F3 Tolerance of Uncertainty	**Between Groups**	**1.183**	**1**	**1.183**	**6.96**	**.00**
	Within Groups	48.300	284	.170		
F4 Persuasiveness	Between Groups	.373	1	.373	1.57	.21
	Within Groups	67.501	284	.238		
F5 Initiation of Structure	Between Groups	.081	1	.081	0.45	.50
	Within Groups	51.860	284	.183		
F6 Tolerance of Freedom	*Between Groups*	*.774*	*1*	*.774*	*4.91*	*.03*
	Within Groups	44.789	284	.158		
F7 Role Assumption	Between Groups	.633	1	.633	2.73	.10
	Within Groups	65.907	284	.232		
F8 Consideration	Between Groups	.186	1	.186	0.91	.34
	Within Groups	57.974	284	.204		
F9 Production Emphasis	*Between Groups*	*1.447*	*1*	*1.447*	*9.62*	*.00*
	Within Groups	42.741	284	.150		
F10 Predictive Accuracy	*Between Groups*	*3.305*	*1*	*3.305*	*15.19*	*.00*
	Within Groups	61.784	284	.218		
F11 Integration	*Between Groups*	*1.831*	*1*	*1.831*	*7.60*	*.00*
	Within Groups	68.414	284	.241		
F12 Superior Orientation	*Between Groups*	*.969*	*1*	*.969*	*5.93*	*.01*
	Within Groups	46.437	284	.164		

Total N=285, Source: Authors

leader is also expected to be persuasive and convincing in his argumentation. Finally, a well-defined leader's role, as well as clearly defining followers' roles is among the most desired leader behaviours in Iceland.

As above mentioned preliminary findings show somewhat similar preferences of leader behaviour in the two countries, statistical analysis was carried out via a one-way ANOVA analysis was performed to test the hypothesis (H1): The preferred leader profile in Iceland and Lithuania evaluated by 12 LBDQXII factors will be different . Levene's homogeneity of variance test was used and indicate p>0.05 for 11 out of 12 dimensions, giving confidence to ANOVA results. Table

4 shows the results of a one-way ANOVA test of the 12 leadership factors under consideration. The table indicates significant differences (p<0.05) for F1 Representation, F3 Tolerance of Uncertainty, F6 Tolerance of Freedom, F9 Production Emphasis, F10 Predictive Accuracy, F11 Integration, and F12 Superior Orientation. This means that there are national differences regarding these seven factors of preferred leader behaviour.

4.2. Differences in preferred leader behaviour

1. Representation. This dimension is significantly more desirable in Lithuania than in Iceland, even though it is among the most desired ideal leader behaviours in

both countries.. Particularly in Lithuania, followers expect a leader to speak on behalf of the group and successfully represent it to higher levels of authority.

2. Tolerance of Uncertainty. This dimension describes a managerial leader's ability to deal with uncertainties and delays without getting upset about it. This sort of behaviour is given a low preference in Iceland and Lithuania, however significantly lower in Lithuania. This implies that employees in both countries, more in Lithuania though, expect a leader to be somewhat upset or show relevant reaction when things go according to plan or as well as anticipated.

3. Tolerance of Freedom. Scoring below the country's grand average in both countries, this preference is significantly less important for Lithuania than Iceland. This factor reflects the scope of initiative, freedom in decision and action, given by a leader to followers. It implies that in Iceland and Lithuania followers expect more guidance and direction, rather than space for initiative and freedom of action, however more so in Lithuania.

4. Production Emphasis. This dimension describes the leader's focus on encouraging followers to surpass previous results. In Iceland this is the least desired leader behaviour (see Table 1).

5. Predictive Accuracy. Factor describes the leader's ability to accurately predict business outcomes. This dimension is given very low priority in Iceland. One might attempt to explain the results by by Iceland's Short-Term Orientation, however such an argument is nonwithstanding, as Lithuania, being also (Snaebjornsson, 2016; Littrell & Valentin, 2005). a Short-Term Orientation country (Snaebjornsson, 2016), gives much higher preference to this factor

6. Integration. For both countries this is the most important leader preference. Lithuania scores significantly higher though. This factor describes a leader's ability to keep a closely-knit organization and resolve inter-member conflicts (Littrell and Valentin, 2005). Hence, the leader is expected to exhibit good team management skills and keep a team united.

7. Superior Orientation. A significantly more important preference in Lithuania thanIceland, the factor describes the extent to which leaders maintain cordial relationships with superiors and gain influence with them, while striving for higher status. Lithuania and Iceland give low priority to this dimension. A possible explanation is provided by Littrell and Valentin (2005). They suggest that in some countries (e.g., Germany) a managerial leader is chosen (and is expected to be chosen) based on his competence, including job-task competence, not based on his relationship to superiors.

Below the testing of the hypothesis 2,3 and 4 are presented as means to describe influence of sociodemographic charaxteristics of followers' on desired leader preferences in Iceland and Lithuania, countries with different structure in regard to cultural homogeneity.

H2: Gender does not affect LBDQXII preferences.

Performed Box's test of equality of covariance matrices with $p<0.05$, satisfied the assumption that observed covariance of matrices of the dependent variables are equal across the two samples. Box's test gives confidence to continue interpretation of MANOVA results (Table 5).

Pillai's Trace test of gender combined with 12 LBDQXII factors with $p<0.05$ supports rejection of hypothesis that men

Table 5. Multivariate Test (MANOVA): Gender

Effect		Val-ue	F	Hypoth-esis DF	Error DF	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[c]
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.996	4942.802[b]	12.000	264.000	.000	.996	59313.629	1.000
SampleNr	Pillai's Trace	.246	7.159[b]	12.000	264.000	.000	.246	85.909	1.000
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.111	2.758[b]	12.000	264.000	.002	.111	33.099	.984
SampleNr * Gender	Pillai's Trace	.071	1.682[b]	12.000	264.000	.071	.071	20.185	.853

and women evaluated the 12 preferred leader behaviour dimensions in the same way in both countries. However, combined SampleNr*Gender and 12 factor MANOVA analysis (with p>0.05 in Pillai's Trace test) accepts the null hypothesis on equality of variances among SampleNr.*Gender in regard to 12 preferred leader behaviour factors. The null hypothesis of no difference among genders in ideal leader behaviour preferences (LBDQXII) in a 12-factor evaluation, is partially rejected based on p<0.05 for 7 (F1, F2, F3, F4, F8, F10, F12) out of 12 factors. The conclusion is, therefore that

women and men have different preferences regarding ideal leader behaviour.

To answer *how* different the leader behaviour preferences are in each country, one-way ANOVAs was performed for Lithuanian sample (Table 6) and compared with the results of Snaebjornsson (2016a) for Icelandic sample. Separate country analyses indicate that there are no gender differences (p>0.05) for all 12 factors among men and women in Iceland. However, in Lithuania there was a significant difference (p<0.05) among men and women for 9 factors (F1,

Table 6. A One-way ANOVA on Gender Differences. Lithuania

		Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
F1Representation	Between Groups	4.678	1	4.678	26.592	.000
F2Demand Reconciliation	Between Groups	2.666	1	2.666	8.785	.004
F3Toleranceof Uncertainty	Between Groups	1.502	1	1.502	8.338	.005
F4Persuasiveness	Between Groups	2.923	1	2.923	13.199	.000
F5Initiationof Structure	Between Groups	1.649	1	1.649	8.524	.004
F6Toleranceof Freedom	Between Groups	.536	1	.536	3.136	.079
F7Role Assumption	Between Groups	1.852	1	1.852	9.339	.003
F8Consideration	Between Groups	1.962	1	1.962	10.049	.002
F9Production Emphasis	Between Groups	.462	1	.462	3.437	.066
F10Predictive Accuracy	Between Groups	4.669	1	4.669	21.642	.000
F11Integration	Between Groups	.442	1	.442	1.809	.181
F12Superior Orientation	Between Groups	1.966	1	1.966	12.392	.001

F2, F3, F4, F5, F7, F8, F10, F12) out of 12. Moreover, women in the Lithuanian sample were on average rating all 12 factors higher than men; however, the ideal leader behaviour pattern is similar for both genders.

This finding supports the proposition that differences in homogeneity of culture, operationalized by the ELF/RELF national estimates, lead to differences in preferred leader behaviour prototypes, in this case likely to stem from the interaction of ethnic fractionalization and gender.

H3: Level of education does not affect LBDQXII preferences.

It can be argued years of education to be an indicator of a continuum of development of skills that can be practised in the business environment. Therefore, a correlation analysis was performed to Lithuanian sample

(Table 7) and compared with analogues correlation analysis for Icelandic sample by Snaebjornsson (2016a).

There were several significant positive correlations with education level in the Lithuanian sample (significance level 0.01) presented in Table 7: F1 (Representation), F4 (Persuasiveness), F5 (Initiation of Structure), F10 (Predictive Accuracy), and F11 (Integration). The first conclusion drawn from those results is that in Lithuania people working in the business sector are a more diverse group, as their preferences towards ideal leader behaviour differ depending on their level of education.

Further, a one-way ANOVA (Table 8) was performed and indicated ($p<0.05$) for above mentioned factors, suggesting that that preferred leader factors differ

Table 7. Correlation Analysis - Education and LBDQXII Dimensions. Lithuania

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12
Pearson Correlation	.355**	.161	.031	.270**	.230**	.187*	.171	.209*	.140	.260**	.243**	.212*
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.071	.728	.002	.009	.035	.055	.019	.117	.003	.006	.017
N	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127

Table 8. A One-way ANOVA Analysis. Education Level and F1, F4, F5, F10, F11

		Levene Statistic	DF1	DF2	Sig.
F1Representation		2.158[a]	5	119	.063
F4Persuasiveness		.330[b]	5	119	.894
F5InitiationofStructure		1.152[c]	5	119	.337
F10PredictiveAccuracy		.270[d]	5	119	.929
F11Integration		.162[e]	5	119	.976
		Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
F1Representation	Between Groups	5.807	7	.830	5.203	.000
F4Persuasiveness	Between Groups	5.190	7	.741	3.660	.001
F5InitiationofStructure	Between Groups	2.718	7	.388	2.124	.046
F10PredictiveAccuracy	Between Groups	4.558	7	.651	3.032	.006
F11Integration	Between Groups	4.471	7	.639	3.001	.006

significantly among levels of education in Lithuanian sample. The results indicate that the more educated a follower is in Lithuania, the more he prefers the ideal leader to represent the group and speak on its behalf, to be persuasive, to exhibit the ability to predict, and maintain a closely-knit organization. Opposite to Iceland (see Snaebjornsson, 2016a), in Lithuania F5 is positively correlated with education level. In Lithuania, the more educated the employee, the more important he finds the need for an ideal leader to clearly define the roles of employees and his or her own role. It was hypothesized that higher education levels might indicate higher job hierarchies, therefore a suggestion would be made to emphasize job levels (as this is easier operationalized), when adjusting more highly preferred leader behaviour.

As for Iceland, as indicated by Snaebjornsson (2016a), correlation analysis revealed that there is negative correlation (significance level 0.01) between education level and F5 (Initiation of Structure) . It suggests that the more educated the person is, the less importance he/she attaches to the

provided evidence failing to indicate a significant difference in preferences between different educational levels of the respondents in Iceland. Hence it might be concluded that the level of respondents' education did not influence LBDQXII preferences in the Icelandic sample.

To conclude: hypothesis regarding the effects of education level on LBDQXII preferences is partially rejected, as education levels had no significant effect in Iceland, but had a significant effect on some leader behaviour preferences in Lithuania.

H4: Age of the respondent does not affect LBDQXII preferences.

Correlation analysis Table 9 for Lithuania, compared with analogous for Iceland at Snaebjornsson, 2016awas used to investigate relations between age and LBDQXII preferences and confirm/reject the hypothesis regarding effects of age on LBDQXII preferences. The analyses indicated no effects on preferred leader behaviour dimension means in Iceland and Lithuania

Table 9. Correlation analysis:
Age (as a continuous variable) and LBDQXII dimensions, Lithuania

		F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12
Age	*P*	.005	.066	-.125	-.041	.076	-.057	.029	.016	.109	.111	.047	-.067
	Sig.	.956	.460	.164	.652	.396	.528	.746	.856	.226	.216	.601	.458
	N	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126

ideal leader's engagement in behaviours related to a clear definition of employees' roles and the role of manager in general. The explanation of such result might be rooted in the assumption that the more educated a person is, the better he/she understands his/her own role in the organization and does not relate it with a crucial feature of an ideal leader. However, with a one-way ANOVA test of variance Snaebjornsson (2016a)

due to age of participants. Therefore, H4 is accepted, by concluding that age does not affect leader behaviour preferences in Iceland and Lithuania.

To recapitulate on the findings: Very similar preferences towards preferred leader behaviour, independent of gender, their education level or age were suggested by the research data for Icelandic sample. Ideal leader behaviour preferences in Lithuania

differ between men and women and based on followers' education level but are not influenced by age of the followers.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The homogenous-non-homogeneous cultural structure appears from our analyses to influence preferred leader behaviour prototypes. Iceland, with a homogenous culture, showed uniform attitudes regardless of follower's gender, age and educational level. However, in Lithuanian sample there were differences observed that can be attributable to a non-homogeneous national culture.

The prototypes of preferred leader behaviour in both countries are similar in the most preferred dimensions, but less similar for those below:

1. The most desired leader behaviours in Iceland are relationship-orientated behaviours: Integration, Demand reconciliation, and Representation; and similarly, in Lithuania: Integration, Representation, and Demand reconciliation.

2. Followers' preferences regarding the most highly preferred ideal leader behaviours in Iceland and Lithuania show similarities; however, they differ significantly in 7 out of 12 leader behaviour dimensions.

3. Preferred leader profiles in business, in Iceland and Lithuania, are somewhat similar, however, differences should be considered in expat leader training and development.

Previous research (Mockaitis, 2005; Toleikiene & Rybakova, 2013, Simanskiene, 2005), indicates leader behaviour preferences in Lithuania include persuasiveness and consultative style of leadership where leader does not depend too much on subordinates, also a participative decision-making style with main initiative coming from the superior. Initiative of the leader corresponds with the Role Assumption dimension in the LBDQXII. Our findings do not support the previous finding, as Role Assumption in our research was evaluated below average among preferred leader behaviours. However, this behaviour is desired, even though it is not included among the most important. We conclude that more research with different methodologies is needed, to provide more coherent views on this aspect of preferred leader behaviour in both countries.

Previous research (Simanskiene, 2005) also indicates that preferred leader behaviour in Lithuania includes the ability to solve conflict situations. This is in line with our findings, as Demand Reconciliation and Integration were among most desired leader behaviours. Therefore, it can be concluded, that conflict solving behaviour is a very important characteristic of the preferred leader in Lithuania.

Charisma was identified as one of the most desired preferences of leader behaviour in Lithuania (Toleikiene & Rybakova, 2013). Persuasion in LBDQXII is a dimension of preferred leader behaviour, which indicates charismatic behaviour. This dimension in our research was indicated above average, suggesting high importance for the followers. However, previous research (House at al., 2004) regard charismatic leadership as a universally desired behaviour of leadership.

Previous research in Lithuania indicates, that the least desirable leader characteristics are obedience and conservativeness (Simanskiene, 2005). In the context of LBDQXII dimensions, these behaviours would correspond to the opposite end of

Role Assumption, Persuasiveness, and Superior Orientation. The comparison provides mixed, therefore inconclusive results, suggesting more research is needed.

Previous research in Lithuania also indicates, that complete freedom given to followers is a preferred behaviour of the leader (Mazonavisiene, 2008). Our findings do not support findings of previous research, as the Tolerance of Freedom dimension of the LBDQXII in our research was given low priority. This suggests, that followers do not consider complete freedom given to employees as a desired behaviour of a leader in the Lithuanian business sector.

The expat managerial leaders from Iceland will not experience major differences regarding follower expectations in Lithuania (and vice versa) as the three most desired leader behaviour preferences in both countries are the same: Integration, Representation, and Demand Reconciliation). Representation is similar to "charismatic leadership" in the GLOBE project research (House et al., 2004). The GLOBE findings indicate, that team orientation and charismatic leadership are highly desired in Nordic and Eastern Europe (with charismatic leadership being a universally desired leader behaviour (Dorfman et al., 2004). Our research findings are consistent with the GLOBE findings, indicating Integration and Representation as desired behaviours in both countries – Iceland and Lithuania. We add one more dimension – conflict solving behaviour. Based on these findings, we argue, given that the two countries have somewhat similar societal cultures, the preferred leadership behaviour template is very similar.

Based on the above, it is suggested that a preferred leader behaviour prototype can have universally desired characteristics across countries and cultures. However, the leader's ability to understand the combination of preferred leader behaviours in a particular country and the diversity of the followers will likely have an impact on the effectiveness of leadership in context.

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NACIONALNA PREFERENCIJA PROFILA PONAŠANJA LIDERA: JE LI KULTURNA HOMOGENOST ZNAČAJNA?

SAŽETAK

U studiji odraslih poslovnih ljudi, provedeno je istraživanje, kojim su se uspoređivale preferencije prototipa ponašanja lidera (definiranog u skladu s istraživačkim instrumentom Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire XII), između Islanda – kao kulturno homogene te Litve – kao kulturno nehomogene nacije. Glavni cilj studije je bio utvrditi je li kulturna homogenost dobar indikator jednakih pogleda sljedbenika na preferirano ponašanje lidera. Nadalje, studijom se željelo unaprijediti teoriju i empirijsko istraživanje vođenja, na temelju empirijskih podataka iz dvije države, u kojima do sada nije proveden veći broj empirijskih studija. Treći se cilj odnosio na razvoj praktičnih preporuka stranim menadžerima, zaposlenim na Islandu, i/ili u Litvi, a koje se odnose na učinkovito ponašanje lidera u navedenim zemljama. Rezultati empirijskog istraživanja ukazuje da su stavovi sljedbenika o preferiranom ponašanju lidera različiti, pri čemu ispitanici s Islanda imaju vrlo jednolike poglede, dok se ispitanici iz Litve međusobno razlikuju. Navedeno može biti rezultat relativne homogenosti nacionalnih kultura. Ukupna usporedba ukazuje se da promatrane zemlje razlikuju u 7 od 12 dimenzija preferiranog ponašanja lidera, što potvrđuje kulturalno specifične stavove prema ponašanju lidera, a što je u skladu s literaturom o međukulturalnom vođenju. Opširno se raspravlja i o menadžerskim implikacijama navedenih razlika, a što može poslužiti kao smjernica za strane menadžere u objema zemljama, kao i u povećanju poslovanja između Islanda i Litve.