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Comparison of Leadership Perceptions Across Cultures: An Exploratory Study

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Abstract

Despite the importance of leadership in the organizational context, few attempts have been made to extend the concept of leadership across cultures. The present exploratory study sought to compare leadership perceptions across cultures using a prototype-matching task. Subjects were asked to rate a list of 59 attributes according to how well they fit their prototype of a business leader. A 1-way ANOVA performed to identify differences in high, medium, and low prototypicality subsets of the attribute list among different countries revealed a significant difference only between the United States and India on the medium prototypicality subscale. A cluster analysis using country means from each of the 59 attributes revealed two clusters of countries with Japan forming a third cluster by itself. Based on this clustering of countries, cultural differences in leader perceptions are discussed in terms of implications for expatriate managers.

Comparison of Leadership Perceptions Across Cultures: An Exploratory Study

Leadership is one of the most important concepts in the study of organizational behavior (Lord & Maher, 1990). It is fundamental to the understanding of a people and their institutions (Adler, 1986). Operationalizing the concept of leadership in organizational contexts has been the focus of numerous research efforts in industrial/organizational psychology. However, with the internationalization of the business world comes the challenge of finding new and different approaches to the definition of leadership on a global basis. With the numbers of expatriate managers rising each year, it is becoming increasingly essential for managers to understand other cultures so that they may successfully interact with both employees and supervisors from the host country. It has been estimated that an expatriate manager who returns home prematurely costs an organization approximately $200,000 (Copeland & Griggs, 1985). An understanding of how leadership varies across cultures would facilitate a more effective method for selecting and training expatriate managers. The present research attempted to explore differences in leadership perceptions across cultures as an initial attempt to identify clusters of countries exhibiting similar trait-based perceptions of leadership.

Recent leadership theory has turned away from trying to identify objective qualities of leaders to advocating a perceiver-oriented approach (e.g., Lord, DeVader & Alliger, 1986; Lord, Foti

& DeVader, 1984; Lord & Maher, 1990). The primary question according to this perspective is, "Why do we perceive certain others as leaders?" The importance of perception in the leadership domain is two-fold. First of all, leadership perceptions may serve in allocating influence to certain individuals (Lord & Maher, 1990). Simply put, someone not perceived as a leader may be incapable of implementing effective ideas. Secondly, Lord (e.g., Lord et al., 1984) maintains that leadership perceptions serve a symbolic function in an organization by promoting the organization's goals and encouraging commitment and a general positive affect for subordinates. "Leadership perceptions are important in their own right, being a major component of the social fabric of many organizations" (Lord et al., 1986, p.408). Lord and Maher (1990) assert that the processing necessary to arrive at such perceptions may be strongly related to culture. In her discussion of cross-cultural misperception, Adler (1986) states that one of the important characteristics of perception is that it is culturally determined. According to her theory, perceptions are not innate; they are learned and learning is based on cultural background (Adler, 1986).

Leadership perceptions stem from four basic processes (Lord & Maher, 1990). These processes are described as recognition-based or inferential-based and within each category perceptions may be formed by an automatic or controlled cognitive process. Automatic processing refers to those instances in which stimuli are processed

unconsciously and with little cognitive effort. On the other hand, controlled processing is slower and requires greater effort and use of cognitive resources. Inferential-based perceptions depend on outcomes and environmental events. In a leadership context, this would involve the causal ascriptions to certain leaders in light of a successful/unsuccessful event. Therefore, a leader perceived as having been the cause of a successful outcome would be viewed as a good leader. The causal analysis involved in this type of perception may be automatic or controlled. Recognition based perceptions depend on everyday social interactions, traits and behaviors and are based on assimilation of experience with prior leaders in particular contexts. Since this type of perception depends on everyday occurrences, it is most likely to be an automatic process. However, it may also be a controlled process, as in the example of an open discussion of leadership qualities. Since this study focuses on leadership traits, we will be concerned chiefly with recognition based leadership perceptions.

Categorization Theory

Whether or not leadership perceptions are recognition based or inferential based, automatic or controlled, all involve categorization of relevant traits and or outcomes into a preexisting leader schema. According to Cantor and Mischel (1979), categorization is a fundamental component of person perception. The magnitude and variety of everyday stimuli necessitate a set of preexisting categories into which stimuli can be rapidly organized,

thereby enhancing a cognitive economy. According to this principle, categorization conserves cognitive resources by using only a few details to arrive at a complete object or person perception.

Cantor and Mischel (1979) outline two opposing views of categorization. The first view, referred to as the "traditional view" states that membership in a category is identified by possession of a small set of equally important crucial features possessed by all members. Therefore, a person or object not possessing all of these crucial features will not be seen as a member of the category. A person or object in possession of these crucial features will automatically be a member of the category regardless of additional features. In this traditional view, category boundaries are clear and distinct. The second, or "fuzzy sets" view, proposes a theory of categorization in terms of prototypical features. Since members and their characteristics can vary in degree of prototypicality, this view allows for ambiguous borderline cases. According to Cantor and Mischel, this is especially applicable in the categorization of persons since their behavior will often vary according to the situational context.

Within this prototypical categorization schema exists a three-level vertical hierarchy for classifying objects as well as persons (Cantor & Mischel, 1979). At the top level are the most abstract inclusive superordinate categories. The next level consists of middle-level or basic categories which are less inclusive, but are

richest in detail. Finally, the lowest level subordinate categories contain the most specific, yet less distinct categories. Cantor and Mischel have found the basic level to be the optimal level of categorization since the categories at this level are broad and inclusive, yet still rich and distinctive. It seems that this level provides the best balance between distinct, non-overlapping superordinate categories and rich, vivid subordinate categories. This same concept holds true when applied to person categorization. "The kinds of person categories illustrated by the middle level in our taxonomies appear to have much utility, maximizing the intersection of richness, differentiation, and vividness, while reducing the cognitive load entailed in distinguishing too many categories (such as occurs at the subordinate level)" (Cantor & Mischel, p.25).

In addition to this vertical dimension, there is also a horizontal dimension which differentiates categories at the same level of inclusiveness (Lord et al., 1982). Since the prototype model does not adhere to a critical features approach, there will often be overlapping traits among categories at the same vertical level. This pattern of overlapping similarities is referred to as family resemblance. Another related concept is that of cue validity which refers to the probability of accessing a particular category given a certain attribute. Therefore, a trait found only in one basic level category would be said to possess high cue validity.

One successful application of the prototype model of categorization has been in the area of psychiatric diagnoses (Cantor, French, Smith & Mezzich, 1980). In the past, diagnoses were arrived at using the classical crucial features approach to categorization. While this approach may be effective in terms of abstract, logical constructs, the ambiguity often related to clinical diagnoses could not be accounted for using this approach. Consequently, diagnostic judgments were often found to be unreliable and a very heterogenous group of patients would be given the same diagnosis. Recently, changes have been made in the DSM-IIIR to accommodate the prototype view whereby a diagnosis is reached according to the degree of prototypicality of the symptoms. Accuracy and confidence of the diagnosis increase as a function of the typicality of the symptoms. Defining features of a category are no longer necessary and sufficient for a diagnosis to be made. In this clinical context, the prototype view has proven to be effective in explaining heterogeneity among group members as well as borderline cases (Cantor et al., 1980).

More central to the present research, Lord, Foti and Philipps (1982) adopted a prototype model of categorization in the field of leadership. Consistent with the hierarchical structure of the model, the general categories of leader/non-leader would constitute the superordinate or most inclusive level. At the basic level we would find different types of leaders (e.g., political, military, religious). Finally, specific exemplars or more fine-grained

distinctions of leaders (e.g., liberal versus conservative) would be found at the subordinate level. Given the lack of knowledge pertaining to the subordinate level and the optimal characteristics of the basic level, Lord's research focused on superordinate and basic level leadership categories. Prior research has found that given limited information about a stimulus person, subjects are still able to label the person as a leader or non-leader, suggesting the role of prototypical information in preexisting categorical schemata (Lord et al., 1982).

Lord, Foti, and Phillips (1982) conducted two preliminary studies to assess the role of prototypes in leadership categorization. In the first study, behavioral information from brief exposures to videotapes containing either high or low leadership structures were found to be predictive of leadership ratings by subjects. The second study used data from a Gallup poll of ratings of current political leaders. Given a list of traits for each leader presented in pairs of opposites (e.g., bright/not too bright), subjects were instructed to choose the trait most characteristic of a leader. Prototypicality scores for each of the 34 items were obtained by averaging a separate group of subjects' responses to the question, "Determine how well it [the trait] fits your image of an ideal effective (ineffective) political leader." Since the Gallup poll was conducted four times between 1977 and 1979, longitudinal data were available in addition to cross-sectional data. Results showed that only those traits shown to be

prototypical of leaders covaried with leadership ratings. Hence, the prototype model of information processing was upheld in the domain of leadership.

In order to empirically test this categorization model of leadership perceptions, Lord, Foti and DeVader (1984) conducted a series of three studies to assess the internal structure of leadership categories. The first study supported Cantor and Mischel's (1979) hierarchy of person categories when applied to leadership by showing that leader family resemblance, cue validity, diagnosticity and prototypicality were all strongly correlated. Likewise, non-leader family resemblance was negatively correlated with leader cue validity and diagnosticity. The second study showed a moderate ($\underline{r}$ = -.42) negative correlation between prototypicality of the item and reaction time. This finding suggests that an item's fit with the existing leadership category increased accessibility of prototypical items in memory. Study 3 assessed subjects' leadership expectancy and responsibility ratings after reading a short vignette of a manager which included either prototypical, antiprototypical or neutral events. Subjects were then asked to complete a series of Likert scales assessing leadership ratings, behavioral expectations and causal ascriptions of the manager. All of these dependent measures were shown to be significantly affected by the stimulus prototypicality which points to the role of prototypicality of stimulus behavior in forming leadership perceptions.

One of the most significant factors in the formation of leadership perceptions is personality traits. According to categorization theory, the characteristics of a stimulus person are matched to the prototype of a leader. The definition of a prototype as an abstract representation of common attributes of category members gives value to the investigation of traits in relation to leadership prototypes. Current research on Implicit Leadership Theories (Lord et al., 1986) also points to the significance of cognitive schema composed primarily of traits in predicting leadership perceptions. In one such study, Lord et al. (1984) found several traits to be consistently linked to leadership across situations. Among the attributes judged to be highest in leader family resemblance were intelligent, honest, outgoing, understanding, verbal skills, aggressive, determined and industrious.

In another study addressing the relationship between personality traits and leadership perceptions, Lord, DeVader, and Alliger (1986) re-examined results from 27 previous studies. Lord et al. argued that much of the empirical evidence previously thought to discredit the role of traits in leadership perception had actually been misinterpreted, thus underestimating the importance of traits in various social perceptions. The findings, aggregated across the 27 studies indicated a strong positive correlation (+.78) between intelligence and leadership perceptions. Other traits, such as dominance and masculinity/femininity were

also shown to be significantly correlated with leadership perceptions.

In discussing the importance of leadership prototypes, Lord et al. (1986) suggested that prototypes are consistent within a culture. Assuming that this is true, an important question arises with respect to other cultures. Are leadership perceptions consistent across cultures? If not, which cultures are most similar (different)? Several researchers have suggested the notion of cross-cultural variance in leadership perceptions. According to Lord, Foti and Phillips (1982), culture plays an important role in abstract categorization such as leadership where distinct boundaries are non-existent. As stated earlier, Lord and Maher (1990) also suggest the importance of culture in the cognitive processing of leadership perceptions.

Leadership Perceptions and Intercultural Management

In a recent attempt to illustrate the importance of cognitive categorization to intercultural management, Shaw (1990) claimed that it is the inherent difference in the way people from different cultures collect, process, and store information about behavior that leads to misunderstanding and difficulties between expatriate managers and host-country subordinates. Consistent with Lord's theory, Shaw noted that it is critical that an expatriate manager be perceived as a leader in the host country in order to gain respect and power. Shaw also reiterates Lord's point that cognitive categorization can either be due to an automatic process

whereby traits and behaviors match a preexisting prototype or more controlled processing in the absence of well-developed cognitive representations. However, in cross-cultural contexts, processing is more likely to be controlled since leadership prototypes may not be consistent across cultures. He also expands this model to include employees' perceptions of situations in terms of leader/non-leader categorization. Culturally appropriate behavior will vary with situations. According to Shaw's model, perceptions of behaviors as well as situations are affected by present information processing demands, motivation, and match with preexisting prototypes.

Given the ambiguity inherent in cross-cultural contexts, Shaw hypothesizes that stable categorization will occur more slowly and recategorization will occur more frequently than in same-culture interactions. It should be noted that under normal circumstances, categories are fairly stable (Adler, 1986; Shaw, 1990). Once someone is perceived as belonging to a certain category, it is unlikely that this perception will quickly change, except in the presence of highly salient, category-incongruent information. However, the confusing nature of intercultural relations may compel host-country employees as well as expatriate managers to continually re-evaluate their former leadership perceptions. Categorization is no longer an automatic process, instead a slower, more controlled inferential process requiring careful thought and evaluation of stimuli. A greater sensitivity to this incongruence

in leadership perceptions may be the logical first step in the acculturation process.

According to Shaw (1990), elements of cultural variance may affect the content, structure and processing (automatic vs. controlled) of leadership categorization. For example, the accepted leadership prototype of an individualistic society will differ substantially from that of a collectivistic society. In terms of the differences in basic structure and organization of leader and employee related categories, Shaw proposes the complexity of the given society as a possible factor. He differentiates between field-articulated people who view themselves within a multidimensional environment with dimensions that are distinct from one another and field-global individuals who view themselves rather as part of a unidimensional, highly interrelated whole. Although these two types may coexist within a given society, individuals from poor, underdeveloped countries are more likely to be field-global, whereas persons from more wealthy, developed societies are more likely to be field-articulated.

Another factor related to cross-cultural differences in perception is the idea or construal of self (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). In a recent article addressing cross-cultural differences in self perception, the authors compared the so-called Western concept of the self as independent to the Japanese interdependent self. They suggested that relations with others are strongly affected by the way in which an individual views him/herself. The

interdependent self is dependent on relationships with others for his/her own identity whereas an independent person is a complete, autonomous entity without the roles of others. Other areas affected by this difference in self construal include cognition, emotion and motivation. One aspect of cognition particularly affected by the self construal is that of perception. They also suggested that perception is not a "hard-wired" physiological function of the brain, but rather a subjective, personal process reflecting the self, including its cultural orientation.

Given this impact of culture on cognitive processing, Shaw advocates familiarity with other cultures as an essential tool in the acculturation process. "If sufficient information about the cognitive structure of employees in the host country is known, selection of expatriate managers with structures similar to the host country or whose structures are highly flexible may enhance expatriate adjustment and effectiveness." (Shaw, 1990, p.642)

A recent empirical study conducted by O'Connell, Lord and O'Connell (1990) attempted to identify the specific differences in leader cognitive structures between Japanese and American university students. They compared data from an earlier study of leadership prototypes in American students to the lists of prototypical leader attributes generated by a sample of 120 Japanese undergraduate students for five different leadership categories (business, finance, education, political and mass media). Correlations suggest a strong relation between family

resemblance scores in the business context to those in the other three contexts for the American sample. However, the correlation between leader prototype for the U.S. subjects and any of the Japanese prototypes was very low, thus suggesting a strong cultural component in leadership prototypes. Analysis of the traits using cluster analysis resulted in two distinct clusters corresponding to the American and Japanese samples.

In the present study, data were collected on a global basis using a sample of international university students from China (P.R.C.), France, Germany, Honduras, India, Japan, and Taiwan (R.O.C.). A comparison sample of American graduate students was also included. The primary goal of this research was to identify clusters of countries based on similarity of business leader prototypes. Given the methodological constraints of cross-cultural research in any context, this study does not purport to be conclusive, but rather to encourage future research focusing on specific countries of interest. With a more limited scope, specific concerns such as language translation and randomness of sample may be addressed using a more scientific approach.

Method

Subjects

Subjects consisted of 107 international students and 35 American students, all of whom were graduate students during the 1991-92 academic year. Students came from a variety of different academic and cultural backgrounds. The international sample

consisted of students from China, France, Germany, Honduras, India, Japan and Taiwan. International students were contacted through their respective student organizations and American students were contacted through their graduate departments. All subjects participated on a strictly voluntary basis.

Procedure

Subjects were presented with a list of 59 attributes relevant to leadership based on a previous study (Lord et al., 1984) performed using an American sample (refer to Appendix). For each attribute, subjects were asked to assign a prototypicality rating for a business leader based on a 5-point scale from "fits my image very well" (1) to "does not fit my image at all" (5). The context of business leader was chosen because of its properties as a basic level category as well as its pertinence to organizational research. In terms of the acculturation process, we felt that the success of an expatriate manager would be most contingent upon a proper understanding of the business leader prototype in the host country. Demographic information, such as age, sex, nationality and field of study was also collected.

Results

Based on the prototypicality ratings from the Lord et al. (1984) sample, the list of 59 attributes was divided into 3 subscales. High prototypicality was defined by the items (n = 9) with ratings greater than one standard deviation above the mean. Low prototypicality items (n = 10) had ratings less than one

standard deviation below the mean. Neutral, or medium, prototypicality was defined by the 10 items falling closest to the mean. Means and standard deviations of prototypicality scores on each of these subscales were calculated (see Table 1). The relative ordering of high, medium and low prototypicality scores was the same for every country. The actual numbers differed slightly, with some countries (e.g., Germany) assigning more extreme scores. For the German sample, items on the high prototypicality scale received an average rating of 1.71 whereas items on the low prototypicality scale received an average rating of 3.19. The smallest range of high to low prototypicality scores was found in the American sample which had an average high prototypicality rating of 1.91 and an average low prototypicality rating of 2.80.

Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) were performed to identify differences in prototypicality ratings among countries on these three subscales. For the high and low prototypicality subscales, no significant differences were found among countries. However, there was a significant overall F value (2.94), $p < .01$ for the neutral/medium prototypicality subscale. The Tukey's HSD post-hoc test revealed the only significant comparison at the 0.05 alpha level to be between the American sample ($M = 2.37$) and the Indian sample ($M = 1.92$).

An average prototypicality rating on each of the 59 attributes was calculated for each of the 8 countries. These means were then

used in the Average Linkage Cluster Analysis procedure. This procedure derived a Normalized Root Means Square (RMS) Distance between each cluster (see Table 2). The RMS indicates the degree of similarity within clusters. As it increases, dissimilar units are being grouped together. Since there was a large break in these RMS indices moving from three clusters to two clusters (0.82 to 0.94), we decided that three clusters was probably the best solution. France, Germany and the United States formed one cluster and India, China (P.R.C.), Honduras and Taiwan (R.O.C.) formed the second cluster. Japan did not join either cluster until the distance measure reached 0.94, therefore it was left as an independent cluster.

Discussion

In some ways, the results of the analyses may seem contradictory. Based on the ANOVA, we are led to believe that leader perceptions do not differ significantly among countries. Since the relative ordering of prototypicality ratings is the same for every country in the analysis, these countries may be more similar in terms of leader perceptions than one might expect. This consistent ordering of ratings also suggests some degree of cross-cultural validity of the measurement instrument.

The only significant difference found by the ANOVA procedure was between the U.S. and India on the neutral/medium prototypicality subscale. The Indian sample gave high prototypicality ratings to those items considered high as well as

those considered neutral in leader prototypicality by the American sample in Lord et al. (1984). However, this did not represent a general tendency to give higher ratings since the average low prototypicality score was not significantly higher than that of any of the other countries and was only 0.08 points higher than the average low prototypicality score for the American sample. Although this finding may shed some light on the differences in leadership between these two countries, the lack of significant differences on the high and low prototypicality subscales may be more informative, suggesting some universality in leader perception. In his chapter on cross-cultural leadership, Bass (1990) states that in exploring the differences in leadership across countries and cultures, one should not overlook the possibility of some universal tendencies. The prevalence of these universal tendencies would certainly be a boon to multinational corporations. It is also possible, however, that collapsing over several attributes in forming the relevant subscales washed out any cross-cultural differences on individual attributes.

Taking into account the means and variances of the prototypicality ratings of these individual attributes, the Average Linkage Measures cluster analysis procedure was able to identify countries with similar trait-based perceptions of leadership. The fact that three clusters emerged from this analysis reveals some differences among the countries. The first two clusters to emerge were France and Germany followed by India and China P.R.C.

Honduras was then added to the second cluster and the United States was added to the first cluster. Japan remained an independent country in a cluster by itself.

Although the small number of countries surveyed limit the complexity and descriptiveness of this clustering, one general tendency does emerge. Highly-developed, westernized, wealthy countries tended to cluster together whereas developing, eastern countries (with the exception of Honduras) tended to cluster together. In the context of business leadership, this difference is easily comprehended since a nation's business interests and practices vary greatly according to its wealth. Webber (cited in Ronen & Shenkar, 1985) found that the level of technology and development affected managerial syle and attitudes. The East/West distinction is also important since perceptions are contingent upon attitudes and cultural norms which are vastly different in these 2 regions of the world. It is interesting that the two countries closest together in terms of Normalized RMS Distance (France and Germany) are also the two which are closest together geographically. In a review of cross-cultural clustering procedures, Ronen and Shenkar (1985) cite geography as the first dimension on which countries tend to cluster. The independence of Japan is consistent with Ronen and Shenkar's (1985) findings in five of the six studies which included Japan. They cite Japan's unique "combination of culture and development" (p.452) as an explanation for this result. In this case, the effects of

technology may outweigh the cultural dimensions.

These results do have implications for the field of international management. According to this cluster analysis, Americans' leader perceptions are most similar to those of the French and Germans. Therefore, a U.S. expatriate manager should have less difficulty adapting to these cultures. Likewise, countries falling in other clusters (e.g., India and Japan) should pose more of a challenge in terms of cultural adaptation for the U.S. expatriate.

In a survey of 105 U.S. multinational firms, Tung (cited in Bass, 1990) cited the inability to adapt to a different cultural environment as one of the most important reasons for the failure of an expatriate manager. Adapting to a different cultural environment is a complex issue which involves both awareness of home culture as well the knowledge and appreciation of potential differences in the host culture. An understanding of cultural differences, especially in the domain of leadership would facilitate a more effective means of selecting and training expatriate managers and would consequently increase the profit and productivity of multinational firms.

Limitations and Future Directions

Since this study was strictly exploratory and no initial hypotheses were made, it is difficult to draw generalizable conclusions from it. A larger sample size including more countries would certainly have yielded more statistically robust findings.

Also, there was no translation or cultural validation of the measurement instrument used. Many subjects had difficulty conceptualizing some of the attributes and this may have added more error variance to the results. Since these attributes were derived and validated using an American sample, it is possible that some of the ideas operationalized in these attributes reflect aspects of American culture and buisness which do not even exist in other cultures.

This study may also be limited in generalizability given the subject pool sampled. All international students had been living in the United States for at least six months at the time of the study. Therefore, there is a high probability that these people have somewhat different attitudes and experiences than those of their compatriots who live and work in their native lands. However, the fact that some differences were identified in spite of the American environment bias leads us to speculate that actual differences are even greater than they appear in our results.

The preceding points are just a sampling of issues which arise in any type of cross-cultural research. These limitations, coupled with the exploratory nature of this research preclude conclusiveness of the results. However, by showing some preliminary categorization of countries based on leader perceptions, this study hopes to encourage more extensive, rigorous research aimed at indentifying specific differences between and among countries.

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Appendix

Stimuli for leadership prototype rating task

Intelligent	Unemotional	Wants peace
Honest	Athletic	Persistent
Outgoing	Believable	Manipulative
Understanding	Charismatic	Courageous
Verbal skills	Competitive	Disciplined
Aggressive	Conservative	Forceful
Determined	Concerned	Generous
Industrious	Cooperative	Healthy
Caring	Demanding	Kind
Decisive	Directing	Loyal
Dedicated	Flexible	Minority
Educated	Goal oriented	Organized
Well dressed	Good administrator	Outspoken
Authoritarian	Humanitarian	Patriotic
Dishonest	Insightful	Responsible
Fair	Interested	Trustworthy
Informed	Likable	Tough
Open minded	Persuasive	Strong
Strict	Strong convictions	Well groomed
Strong character	Unselfish	

Table 1

Means and (Standard Deviations) of Subscale Scores by Country

	Prototypicality Subscale		
Country	High	Medium	Low
China	1.72 (0.59)	2.11 (0.58)	2.81 (0.36)
France	1.92 (0.64)	2.29 (0.53)	2.99 (0.68)
Germany	1.71 (0.35)	2.43 (0.52)	3.19 (0.52)
Honduras	1.69 (0.42)	1.98 (0.39)	2.76 (0.45)
India	1.79 (0.51)	1.92 (0.65)	2.88 (0.37)
Japan	2.18 (0.61)	2.51 (0.41)	3.09 (0.46)
Taiwan	1.61 (0.23)	2.23 (0.54)	2.88 (0.62)
United States	1.91 (0.59)	2.37 (0.40)	2.80 (0.64)

Table 2

Results of Clustering Procedure with Normalized RMS Distance Scores

Cluster Number	Clusters Joined	Normalized RMS Distance
8	France & Germany	0.58
7	India & China	0.60
6	Honduras & CL7	0.72
5	United States & CL8	0.81
4	Taiwan & CL6	0.82
3	Japan & CL5	0.94
2	CL3 & CL4	1.05
1	CL2	1.15

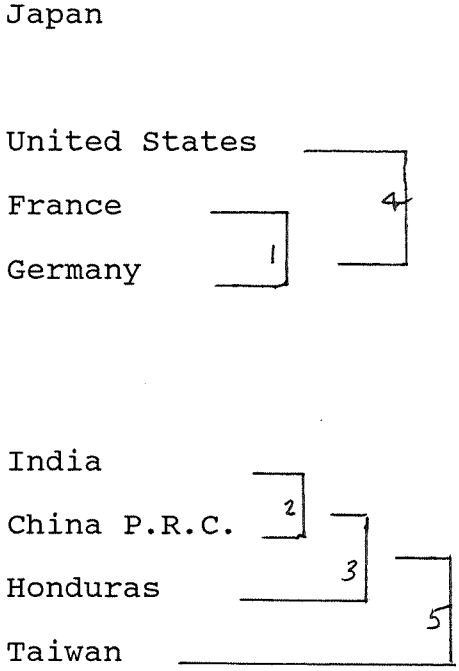

Figure 1. Dendogram Showing Cluster Analysis Results.