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MANAGEMENT OF MULTICULTURAL TEAMS

PRACTICAL LESSONS LEARNED
FROM UNIVERSITY STUDENTS



 Politechnika
Białostocka

BIAŁYSTOK – CLUJ NAPOCA 2020

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Practical lessons learned from university students

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OFICyna WYDAWNICZA POLITECHNIKI BIAŁOSTOCKIEJ
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Introduction

Culture shapes the way of thinking about humankind and sets the framework for what is considered to be the means of achieving humanity. It is always “someone else’s” culture because it is made up of specific people who express themselves by its means. The richness of humanity lies in the diversity of cultures. However, an effective dialogue between representatives of different cultures is not possible without shared knowledge. Knowledge of cultural aspects makes it possible to understand differences that exist in interacting cultures.

This book features the competences and skills that university students as future leaders should acquire in order to work in multicultural teams. Multicultural teams have become the basic unit for many organizations. Combined work using different technology, places, time zones, persons of different cultures require knowledge and skills to lead this team. Unreflective teaching methods can cause a lower level of efficiency and effectiveness. The gap knowledge in the current students’ skills of multicultural work may be interesting for university lecturers to improve quality of a university leadership program, and also for HR practitioners to develop managerial competences.

This book focuses on leading and developing multicultural teams in the process of shaping their competence for the new (prospects) organizational requirements. Effective strategies and clever techniques to improve leadership and management skills are needed in the multicultural environment. The premise of this book is to pay attention on how to lead and develop multicultural teams by providing more directed tips to improve the quality of a university program and thereby develop effective leaders within their organization. The better the leadership, the better the multicultural teams.

The book consists of three chapters. The first chapter presents the cultural context of management. It shows the genesis and development of the cultural trend in management and presents paradigms, definitions, functions, determinants and typologies of cultures. It reflects on the complexity of the relationship between national and organizational culture. The review of definitions and key concepts by Polish and foreign researchers was used to establish the criteria on the basis of which it is possible to compare the characteristics of Polish and Romanian culture. The second chapter focuses on working in traditional and multicultural teams. Much attention was paid to leadership in multicultural teams. Challenges and benefits resulting from the cooperation of representatives of different cultures are also presented. The last

chapter focused on the processes of creating a multicultural team and the effectiveness of intercultural cooperation.

The book was written as part of the project titled „International Academic Partnerships” (No. PPI/APM/2018/1/0003) funded from the Polish National Agency for Academic Exchange (NAWA). The aim of NAWA is to foster the development of Poland in the area of science and higher education. The project “Cross-cultural teamwork” under „International Academic Partnerships” was carried out by Bialystok University of Technology (Poland) in cooperation with Babes Bolyai University (Romania). The aim of the research due to this project was to identify the readiness, requirements and motivation to work in traditional and multicultural teams by university students and academic teachers.

Three-stage, quantitative and qualitative, research was conducted in this study. The quantitative survey involved 2,100 students (1,121 from Poland and 979 from Romania) and 119 teachers (62 from Poland and 57 from Romania). At the first stage, a questionnaire was addressed to students, at the second – to academic teachers. The study adopted a questionnaire administered online in order to reach the largest possible group of respondents. The results obtained in this way allow us to know the opinion of a given group of respondents on the research topic and to use them to form certain generalizations. An invitation email containing a link to an online survey was sent to all classes from the bachelor and the master programs of all specializations and academic teachers.

The questionnaire addressed to students referred to issues related to working, motivation and involvement in multicultural teams. The respondents were asked about their experience and the level of satisfaction associated with such activities. Later, the researchers focused on the necessary competences that determine the success of a multicultural team. Another important issue entailed benefits that can result from such cooperation and barriers that the participants of a given team must overcome. The second part of the questionnaire covered the issue of working in virtual teams. Apart from issues related to experience, motivation and benefits, students were asked about their knowledge of particular programs and technical solutions. The third part concerned cultural intelligence, trust in technology and leadership. An important element was to determine language skills of the respondents.

The questionnaire addressed to academic teachers concerned the role of teaching and methodology used in shaping competences necessary to work in multicultural and virtual teams. The respondents were requested to refer to the issue of usefulness of applying these skills in professional life. An important element of the research was also the comparison of work in traditional teams with work in multicultural teams and in virtual teams with a focus on the respondents’ experience in this area. The researchers as well referred to the challenges related to the management of such groups of people and the role of a leader in achieving team success.

The last stage of the research was devoted to initiating work in virtual and multicultural teams. The workshops were held in Cluj-Napoca (Romania) in September

of 2019 with selected students from both focus groups (12 from Poland and 11 from Romania). Participants of different nationality, genders, ages, years of study, different faculties (Faculty of Engineering Management, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration) and specializations (management, logistics, service management and engineering, production management and engineering, economy, administration) took part in the workshop. In the course of workshops, students gained knowledge on issues related to culture, leadership, values and personality traits. Both lecturers from Poland and Romania shared their knowledge and experience related to this issue. Subsequently, students in multicultural teams worked on the spot and virtually. In performing tasks, they articulated their thoughts on the quality of cooperation. During workshops, the participants completed numerous questionnaires. Additionally, apart from quantitative studies, the researchers conducted a non-participatory observation of the work of the created teams.

The specific chapters present detailed information about the results of project activities. Attachments include all the applied research tools.

1. Cultural context of management

Following the development of management theories that make culture an object of interest is a cognitively complex process. Interest in this subject emerged together with the development of the *Human Relations* faculty that emphasized the importance of people's cooperation towards efficient functioning of an organization. The term *organizational culture* appeared in English literature in the 1960s as a colloquialism, being a synonym of organizational climate (Stańczyk, 2008, p. 1). Jacques (1951) used this term to refer to the analysis of the atmosphere at a workplace. The 1970s brought the start in the development of intercultural research. Culture became an important and often analysed construct in the science of organization and management. In 1980 Hofstede published a book that contained the results of comparative cultural research. According to many management experts, culture seemed to be a remedy for the problems of management theory and practice. This approach brought the publication of works by Schein (1985), Deal & Kennedy (1988), Bate (1984), Pettigrew (1979), Peters & Waterman (1982). A dominating functionalist stance towards culture assumed that it could be radically changed by means of organizational techniques. However, over time it turned out that culture is too amorphous and poorly known to form a basis for the creation of a neo-positivist approach towards management theory (Sułkowski, 2012, p. 27). At that time there developed an interpretative and symbolic perspective which focused on looking at an organization through the prism of subjectively understood culture. This approach was based on other fields of science, such as sociology or cultural anthropology. In order to capture the meaning of an organization, researchers focused on non-generalized case studies. The main representatives of this trend were: Smircich (1989), Van Maanen (1988), Morgan (1997) and Hatch (2002). Postmodernism was the next cultural trend that emerged from inspiration with the humanities. Management was influenced by such ideas as: deconstruction, simulacra and meta-narrations. Inspirations came from the works of such philosophers as: Derrida (2002), Foucault (1993), Rorty (1999) and Lyotard (1997). Nonetheless, postmodernism was still criticized by the scientific community due to epistemological relativism, irrationalism and vague concepts. This gave an impulse for a renewed growth of realistic approaches. The youngest trend that emerged as a reaction to the previously formulated trends was Critical Management Studies (CMS). Its roots can be traced much earlier times, as already Marx's works referred to the abuse of workers in capitalist factories. The representatives of CMS draw on neo-Marxism, achievements of the Frankfurt School and radical feminism. Culture, as understood by the radical movement, is a tool for exercising power. Willmott (1993) was the author who brought an organization under critical analysis. He described organizational culture as a kind of psychomanipulation, a sociotechnology aimed at exploiting employees. This thought was continued by: Alvesson (2002), Brewis & Gavin (2009).

In generalizing and disregarding all differences in the presented concepts, researchers put more attention to the so-called “soft” areas of an organization. This allowed researchers to see many phenomena which, on the one hand, are difficult to measure, but, on the other, can be described, explained and understood.

1.1. Cultural paradigms in management

A paradigm is a widely accepted theory of the highest order in the scientific community, coordinating hypotheses in the field of a given science (Kuhn, 2001, p. 303). It is a set of views shared by scientists, a set of agreements on the manner in which issues are understood (Szydło, 2014).

Paradigms indicate different orientations in science, providing an ideological basis for scientific concepts, laying the foundation for the functioning of scientific communities (Moczydłowska, 2014). At the same time they constitute a methodological basis of sciences, addressing the most general level of their methodology known as philosophy (Jaki, 2014).

In studying cultures, scientists deal with a large number of paradigms (Acedo & Casillas, 2005). For this reason, Burrell & Morgan (1979) propose a paradigm matrix (Figure 1.1). Criteria determining them are:

- social orientation (regulation vs. change);
- cognitive assumptions (objective and subjective).

As a result of the intersection of these dimensions four paradigms emerge:

- functionalistic;
- radical structuralism;
- interpretative;
- radical humanism.

While seeking paradigms for understanding culture in an organizational aspect, it is necessary to indicate at least three cultural orientations, covering the following trends: functionalist-structuralist, interpretative-symbolic and postmodern-post-structural. Functionalism is considered a classical approach in cultural studies, having emerged in the first half of the 20th century and consequently leading to structuralism. The development of hermeneutics as well as humanistic sociology and cultural anthropology became the basis for the emergence of a symbolic-interpretative paradigm (Mazur, 2012, p. 15). The 1980s and 1990s brought an increase in interest in critical philosophy and postmodernism.

The functionalist paradigm focuses on the pursuit of maintaining equilibrium by a social community in the process of exchanging elements of the social system. A function is a contribution of a partial activity to the activities of the whole (Davis, 1959). A social system in a state of unity means a harmonious interaction of subsystems.

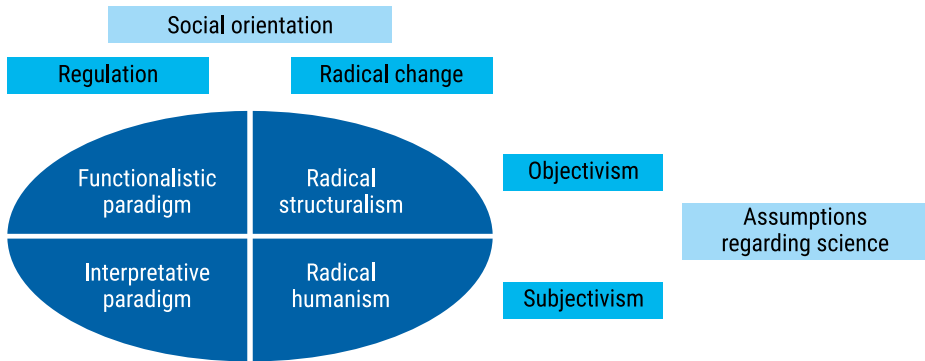


FIGURE 1.1. Paradigms in social sciences

SOURCE: (Kostera, 1996, p. 33; Szydło, 2014a, p. 86; Szydło, 2014b, p. 412).

It is important to view culture as one of external or internal variables that can be controlled and managed. Its characteristic feature is striving for coherence of different elements of an organizational system. Among various interpretations of culture, some view it as homogeneous, integrated and coherent with other subsystems such as strategy or structure. The methodology of cultural research postulates objectivity and quantification. However, a dominating method is the survey method, which is exemplified by research on cultural dimensions performed by Hofstede or Hampden-Turner. According to functionalistic assumptions, organizational culture can be improved from the point of view of organizational needs. Functionalism is criticized for creating a static image of an organization and a lack of autonomy of entities – human individuals. Homeostatic harmony is not very common in an organization. Operations in conditions of imbalance or conflict are much more frequent. A comprehensive vision of organizational order may obscure the elements of sense constitution that occur at the level of behavior and interaction (Sułkowski, 2012, p. 33).

The interpretative-symbolic paradigm was created in opposition to functionalism. The most important sources of inspiration in this paradigm are social sciences and humanities: sociology, psychology and cultural anthropology. Interpretative theories focus on describing interdependencies in complex social structures and organizations (Babones, 2015). A key to creating a scientific theory is to capture and understand sense from the point of view of the involved observer or member of an organization (Sułkowski, 2009). Theories should therefore reveal intersubjective diversification of sense and interpretations of different entities within an organization. Organizational order does not exist objectively; it is continuously reconstructed and modified by individuals and groups operating within and around an organization. A human in an organization is a meaning-seeker, value-oriented and engaged in a research situation. Emphasis is placed on creating communities based on mutual identification. The key components of organizational culture emphasized by this trend

are subcultures and organizational identity. This can be exemplified by an analysis of an organization's identity proposed by Albert & Whetten (Sułkowski, 2012, p.33; 2020, p.34). A dominant approach to the organization is multiculturalism associated with a complex network of many identities based on ethnic and national differences, language, religion, profession, gender, work experience and position in the structure (Glinka, 2010, p. 58). According to the representatives of the interpretative trend, culture is an amorphous entity, thus difficult to control. Research methodology is dominated by field research and text analysis (Romani, et al., 2018), including in-depth interviews, case studies, observation and reflective text analysis. The result of the research is not quantification, but understanding. A dominant belief is that cultures are specific and should be studied individually. This approach frequently uses a philosophical concept of a "language game" by Wittgenstein (2008). Among researchers applying this approach, the following should be distinguished: Morgan (1997), Smircich (1989), Van Maanen (1988), Hatch (2002). Nonetheless, the interpretative paradigm is criticized for the lack of generalized scientific theory. Individual descriptions call into question the development of science, which should, above all, be characterized by a considerable degree of objectivity.

The radical structuralism paradigm, also called Critical Management Studies, focuses on the problems of the cultural sphere of an organization. This paradigm assumes the existence of an objective social reality that requires reconstruction. It reaches out to philosophical sources that adopt a radical vision of the development of organization and management, which are considered to be sources of domination and power. It seeks inspiration in Bentham's panopticon metaphor, the concept of Marx's class struggle, Bourdieu's symbolic violence (1991) and the assumptions of radical feminism. Critical theory of communication by Habermas (1985) is also an important point of reference. Research issues include the mechanisms of power, oppression, instrumentalism, domination. Critical researchers use such methods as: in-depth interviews, discourse analyses, comparative analyses, observations. In the description of organizational culture they refer to many metaphors which are to reflect the oppressive face of culture in management. They take the side of oppressed groups, draw attention to the possibility of changing unfair and often camouflaged social order and reject "false consciousness". This paradigm is controversial since its assumptions are ideological in nature. It is also negated for its tendency for unilateral and biased perception of organizational phenomena.

The radical humanism paradigm seems to be closest to postmodernism. It is the least homogeneous cognitive approach of all paradigms. It is characterized by subjectivism, cognitive relativism and scientific inconsistency. It is based on philosophical concepts of Derrida (2002), Foucault (1993; Kapusta, 2002), Lyotard (1997), Rorty (1999), Deleuze (1988). The key issue of reflection is metaphorically described culture. It can be identified with discourse – if so, it exists only within the language. Therefore, in postmodernism it is difficult to talk about a research method, because it is a thought-based formation which is by definition anti-systemic, anti-theoretical,

negating all concepts of truth. Postmodernism criticizes the philosophy of science. Freeing oneself from the need for objectivity is supposed to force people to take responsibility for their beliefs. The postmodern thought is expressed in the works by Morgan (1997), Hatch (2002), Kostera (1996), Krzyżanowski (1999). It is an intellectual provocation that uses deconstruction to draw attention to epistemological and ethical problems, but does not provide a recipe for solving them.

The cultural trend belongs to pluralist discourses developing in management sciences. Even the nomenclature for paradigms is not clear. Sułkowski (2012, p. 30) modifies these terms, suggesting the following names:

- functionalist paradigm – a neo-positivist-functionalist-systemic paradigm – NFS;
- radical structuralism – a critical paradigm – CMS;
- interpretative paradigm – interpretative-symbolic paradigm – IS;
- radical humanism – postmodern paradigm – POST.

The supporters of the functionalist-structuralist trend tend to treat culture as a measurable and meaningful phenomenon (Mazur, 2012, p. 16). Therefore, it is dominated by quantitative methods. Researchers focus mainly on external, visible manifestations of culture. The main advantage of the functional perspective is pragmatism and objectivity. In the interpretative-symbolic perspective, qualitative research methods dominate. Researchers try to explain and interpret given phenomena. Both perspectives give rise to many methodological dilemmas (Barmeyer, Bausch & Moncayo, 2019). A solution can be an integrated approach, combining the functionalist and interpretative paradigm (Szydło, 2018).

It is important to focus on the issue of paradigms before commencing to study culture. Without solving the problem at a general level, it is difficult to proceed to a detailed level.

1.2. Typology of cultures

Culture is a multi-dimensional concept (Szydło & Grześ-Bukłaho, 2020; Low, Abdul-Rahman & Zakaria 2020; Lim & António, 2020). This was evidenced over half a century ago by Kroeber & Kluckhohn, who put under analysis over 160 definitions. They show culture as a set of man-made values. Social sciences have given a broad meaning to this concept: everything that does not come by itself from nature, but is created by means of human work, is the product of deliberate reflection and human activity (Szczepański, 1970, p. 73). Based on the definition of culture, there are definitions of organizational culture that are difficult to systematize. Kostera emphasizes that all attempts at systematization teach us, above all, humility in our attempts to organize the world or even its fragment (1996, p. 72). Sułkowski points out that among various definitions of culture, from the point of view of management, there are terms:

- numeric – enumerating cultural processes in organizations;
- historical – focusing on continuity and accumulation of cultural achievements in organizations;
- normative – concerning the creation of norms and rules of behavior for members of organizations;
- psychological – focusing on adaptation and learning processes of organization members;
- structural – emphasizing the importance of integration of organizational culture, its holistic, systemic character;
- genetic – seeking the sources of culture and incorporating organizational culture as a product of the cultural context (social or national culture) (Sufkowski, 2012, p. 48).

Definitions of organizational culture vary depending on whether they concern a way of thinking or a way of acting. Table 1 presents examples of definitions.

TABLE 1.1. Selected definitions of organizational culture

Author	Definitions of organizational culture
Jacques	A customary or traditional way of thinking and acting which is to some extent shared by members of an organization and which new employees must at least partly accept (1952, p. 251)
Likert & Likert	A dominating pattern of values, myths, beliefs, assumptions, norms, their personification in a language, symbols, artefacts, as well as technologies, management objectives and practices, feelings, attitudes, actions and interactions (1976)
Geertz	Culture is a network of meanings hung by man. Studying it is not an experimental science that seeks rights, but an interpretive science that seeks meaning (1979, p. 5)
Deal & Kennedy	Corporate culture is the cohesion of values, myths, heroes and symbols that gives a large number of meanings and interpretations according to people working in the company (1988)
Peters & Waterman	Organizational culture is primarily made up of norms and values accepted by its participants. It constitutes a specific core of the organization's activities that is the source of almost all strategic moves (1982, p. 75)
Schein	A model of shared, fundamental assumptions that a given group has created by solving problems of adaptation to the environment and internal integration. The pattern can be considered effective. It is taught to new members of the organization as a correct way of solving problems (1985, p. 6)
Schenplein	Values, standards and beliefs commonly accepted in an organization and constituting a system (1988)

Author	Definitions of organizational culture
Sikorski	A set of norms and values that determine the specific behavior of the members of an institution and differentiate it from others (1986, p. 17)
Koźmiński	Organizational culture is the genetic code of a given community, written in the social consciousness, causing the repetition of both individual and collective behaviors, images, emotions and attitudes (1982, p. 1)
Hofstede & Hofstede	"Programming the minds" of the members of the organization, i.e. a set of values, standards and organizational rules effectively instilled by the group (2007, pp. 16-17)
Siehl & Martin	Organizational culture can be treated as glue that joins an organization together by sharing meaning patterns. The culture focuses on values, beliefs and expectations that are shared by members of the organization (1984)
Blau	Specific, unwritten social "rules of the game" in an organization that allow participants of the social life to understand the organization and identify themselves with it (2003, p. 298)
Pettigrew	Culture is a system of publicly and collectively accepted meanings for a given group at a given time. This system of concepts, forms, categories and images allows people to interpret their own situation (1979)
Van Maanen	Culture refers to the knowledge that is passed on to the members of a group in order to share it; such knowledge is used to inform, embed, shape and account for routine and non-routine activities of the members of a culture. Culture is expressed (or constituted) only by the actions or words of its members and must be interpreted by the employees of the organization. Culture as such is not visible, it becomes visible only through its representation (1988)
Smircich	Networks of meanings woven by people in the organization process of organizing (1983, p. 39)
Louis	Organizations are culturally burdened environments, i.e. distinct social groups with a set of common agreements on the organization of activities, languages and other symbolic carriers of common meanings (1980)
Morgan	Organizational culture usually refers to a pattern of development reflected by social systems of knowledge, ideology, values, laws and daily rituals (1997)
Denison	Culture refers to the deep structures of an organization that are rooted in the values, beliefs and assumptions of its members. Meaning is established by socialization with different groups in the workplace. Interaction reproduces a symbolic world that gives cultures both a high degree of stability and a certain nature of uncertainty and fragility rooted in the system, depending on individual activities (1996)
Kobi & Wüthrich	Organizations not only have a culture, but also are a culture (1991)
Goffee & Jones	Culture means values shared by the community, the main identity element of a company. Without cultural patterns, a company lacks sustainable values, direction and purpose. Culture is a kind of community. A cultural pattern depends on people and the relationships they have with each other (1996)

SOURCE: own study.

The concept of organizational culture is also defined in various ways, depending on the discipline of science in which it is analysed. In sociology, social psychology, cultural anthropology, and cultural studies, organizational culture is treated as a set of norms and values that determine specific behavior of members of a given institution and differentiate it from the other ones. As a descriptive category, it is not subject to valuation due to the functioning efficiency of an organization. Therefore, it cannot be described as good, bad, high or low. It can only be determined in terms of being more or less visible. The theory of organization and management, on the other hand, is dominated by an approach that appraises the cultures and activities of an organization (Sikorski, 1986, p. 17). Organizational culture, understood as a system of values and norms on rational behavior is here identified with the effectiveness of organizational solutions (Stańczyk, 2008, p. 21). Theoreticians will adopt different definitions, depending on the paradigm on which they are based. Practitioners will have a tendency to take an operational and instrumental approach to organizational culture (Sułkowski, 2012, p. 51).

It is also not surprising that many attempts have been made to systematize this amorphous issue. Zbiegień-Maciąg (1999) suggests the following typology:

1. Positive culture and negative culture

Positive culture motivates people to work, promotes development, promotes cooperation and is invaluable in achieving the goals set. Negative culture can cause organizational problems. Signals that allow for identifying the problem, e.g. lack of commitment, decrease of motivation to work, are as follows:

- significant number of employees do not know what they should do, how they should do it and why they should do it;
- highly qualified employees are told what they should do and how they should do their job, while they know it well;
- very good employees are not adequately rewarded;
- leaders are distracted from the right jobs, which significantly delays task execution.

The verdict of whether a culture is positive or negative must be preceded by research, preferably conducted by external, independent consultants.

2. Introvert and extrovert culture

An organization with introvert culture is focused on its interior, i.e. its internal resources. It may show reluctance to communicate with its surroundings, which results in isolation towards external contacts. Such an organization is characterized by an aversion to take risks and a tendency to be self-sufficient based on internal forces. In this culture, people do not imagine changes of workplace, new members of the organization are treated with suspicion, there is also little tolerance towards

different values and views. An organization characterized by extrovert culture is open to participation in its environment and is open to take risks. Employees focus mainly on performing tasks, they are not afraid of change, and their position in the organization depends on professional competence. However, they do not feel tied to the company – they are there to perform specific tasks.

3. Conservative and innovative culture

Conservative culture prioritizes values, norms, symbols, traditions praised and cultivated by the participants of the organization. An enterprise is oriented towards the past. This is manifested by: exposing portraits of the founders, titling, ceremonies, rituals, attaching importance to law and order. Formal rules and regulations are respected, they give a sense of certainty and security. People have a strong need for stability. In the case of innovative culture, the organization is perfectly capable of dealing with an unstable, restless environment. It is willing to take risks due to its interest in development and change. It also places an emphasis on the future. This is accompanied by favoring young, talented, dynamic people.

4. Male and female culture

Male culture is strong, aggressive and full of domination. People in the organization are firm, energetic, particularly when dealing with competitors. The most exposed values are: competition, rivalry and fight. Female culture is friendly, gentle, caring. The organization supports its employees and they, in turn, are loyal to it.

5. Bureaucratic and pragmatic culture

In bureaucratic culture there exist rules that limit the freedom of behavior. Everything is regulated by the principles which concern: ways of introducing and training new employees for work, ways of holding councils and meetings, ways of promotion and rewarding. Employees behave in a predictable manner. Violations of regulations are subject to sanctions. In pragmatic (useful) culture, less attention is paid to detailed operating rules. People are more likely to take risky actions. Pragmatic cultures are also called professional cultures. They are focused on the work of task-oriented experts.

6. Elite and egalitarian culture

Elite culture is formed by top intellectuals or graduates of renowned universities. It is characterized by great respect for qualifications obtained in prestigious schools. Potential employees are subject to meticulous selection during recruitment. Corporate culture is recognizable by its rich symbolism: clothing, interior design, badges, identifiers, rituals, etc. Alternatively, egalitarian culture is characterized by broadly defined equality. Titling practices are non-existent, everyone is on first name terms. A manager is called a coordinator and employees are called assistants.

7. Strong culture and weak culture

In strong cultures, great importance is attached to the socialization processes. The established type of organizational culture then becomes a world of unchanging values and norms assimilated by employees. Cultural models are characterized by universality – they are considered good, desirable and giving permanent support in action regardless of organizational conditions (Sikorski, 2008, p. 41). On the other hand, weak cultures are the ones that are divided or broken up. Factors such as common values and symbols do not matter. The impact of culture on businesses can be twofold: positive and negative. Strong culture is characterized by efficient communication, an ability to make quick decisions, a sense of security, community, and small expenditures on control. Its negative aspects include isolation, no need for change, or even a fear of change. The stronger the attachment of employees to specific cultural patterns that sanction the existing organizational solutions, the stronger their resistance to change these solutions (Zbiegień-Maciąg, 1999; Kuc & Moczyłowska, 2009).

Literature mentions other examples of the division of organizational cultures. Table 1.2 shows proposals presented by Harrison (1994), Handy (1993), Deal & Kennedy (1982), Hofstede (1980) and Peters (1993).

TABLE 1.2. Selected typologies of organizational cultures

Typologies of organizational cultures	
R. Harrison	
Power orientation	An organization is competitive, defends its territory, uses weaker organizations as an easy prey. Internal control and hierarchy is important.
Role orientation	An organization is orderly and stable. The most important values are: striving for agreement, observing rules, legality, responsibility. It contrasts with a power-focused organization. These types of organizations are changing slowly. Their rights and privileges are strictly defined.
Task orientation	An organization is focused on achieving its objective. Employees are professionals and are required to develop quickly. Knowledge and competence are particularly praised. Inside the organization there is an atmosphere of cooperation.
Personal orientation	An organization focuses on good interpersonal contacts, cooperation, assistance. The desire to dominate is not welcome.
Ch. Handy	
Power culture	The symbol of power culture is a spider web. The central place in the organization is occupied by power, whose distribution is determined by the distance from the center of the network. The closer a worker is to power, the stronger his position. A power-oriented organization strives to dominate its environment, and competition with others is ruthless.

Typologies of organizational cultures	
Role culture	The symbol of role culture is a Greek temple because it reflects the strength of an organization based on pillars. The power is at the top of the temple. An organization with such a culture seeks rationality, stability and bureaucratic order. In a role-oriented company there is a high predictability of behavior. Order and stability are also very important. Procedures for implementing changes are slow.
Task culture	It is symbolized by a network. People are at different points in this network, depending on the performed tasks. Its priority is to achieve a specific goal, to perform a task. Power is considered legitimate if it is based on specific knowledge. When employees are not competent to perform a task, they are replaced. Development in the company is successive and planned.
Personal culture	The graphic symbol is a bunch. The company's goal is to satisfy human needs. The organization is managed in such a way as to obtain effects sufficient to survive and to provide employees with a reasonable standard of living.
T.E. Deal and A.A. Kennedy	
Hard culture	Employees of an organization with hard culture are young, dynamic people with a focus on success. The determinants of success are: power, respect, prosperity. The language in this type of organization is often vulgar, it is also characterized by a common use of English phrases. There are no forms of courtesy towards women. Only a tough person will survive and reach the top.
Hard work and good fun culture	The motto is: work hard, persistently and intensively, but when the time comes, have fun and enjoy life. It appreciates activity and non-conflicting cooperation.
Culture of calm	It is characterized by trust in rationality and order. An ideal employee is the one with a stable, mature and rational personality. Career is gradual, planned, runs at organizational levels, takes place in accordance with a schedule. Older people prepare younger workers for the job when the time comes to do so.
Culture of duration, stability	The team is thoroughly informed on what is expected of them. Tasks are precisely separated. Each employee has thorough understanding of the hierarchy. Once created, the culture is not susceptible to change.
G. Hofstede	
Culture of stability and safety	An important requirement is to follow formal rules. This culture occurs in organizations with a rigid structure.
Culture with a focus on structure and procedures	People calculate what their involvement in common tasks is to be. Relationships between people in the hierarchy are less formalized. Co-operation and a good working atmosphere are important.

Typologies of organizational cultures	
Culture that supports individuals and small groups	Basic requirements are commitment and the ability to approach problems creatively. In organizations with this type of culture, employees compete with each other.
Task-oriented culture	Professional standards and values govern the relationship between people in an organization. Achieving a goal is the most important. An organization is characterized by a decentralized organizational structure and a tendency to change.
J. Peters	
Innovative culture	Employees in a company with such a culture feel attached to it. They are not afraid of risk. Most of them declare that they want to work after hours. There is no strict hierarchy in the organization. Neither formal instructions for organizing work nor formal assessments play a role in its internal policy. Informal, eye-to-eye contacts prevail. Employee training is carried out at the workplace. Great importance is attached to charisma and ability.
Culture of operation	A company with such a culture is characterized by a belief that only an expansive entrepreneur will survive on the market. Employees' initiative is welcome, but mistakes can be severely punished. Those with achievements are rewarded and promoted. Employees are evaluated according to their proportional share that contributes to the achievement of the intended goal.
Control-based culture	It is a bureaucratic culture in which employees may feel safe but are in some way limited. Structures in the company are highly hierarchical. Communication within the company is very formal, numerous official meetings take place. Importance is attached to meticulous recording of working hours. Exits and arrivals are recorded with the help of clock cards and employment sheets. The organization appreciates loyal employees.
Harmonious culture	In this culture, much attention is paid to the welfare of a person. The motto of companies characterized by harmonious culture is that people are the most important. Most decisions are made in teams. It is accepted to gain ideas from the outside provided that they do not deviate from the cultural values and standards of the company. However, if there are significant differences, such ideas are rejected. "The company's operations are therefore most influenced by cultural values, to an extent greater than plans, internal policies or the nature of the market". This means that areas of strategic decisions are shaped and guided by cultural values. When it comes to internal policy, availability and loyalty are appreciated and rewarded accordingly.

SOURCE: own study based on: (Harrison, 1994; Handy, 1993; Deal & Kennedy, 1988; Hofstede, 1980; Peters, 1993).

Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner (2000), on the basis of the dimensions: egalitarianism – hierarchy and person-orientation – task-orientation also distinguished four basic types of organizational cultures.

1. Family culture

It is characterized by a person-oriented approach. Relationships between members are close but hierarchical. The leader is compared to a caring parent. People who occupy a higher position in the hierarchy are treated with great respect. A positive relationship with the superior is perceived as a reward by the subordinate. Loyalty to the organization is valued. The company cares for the welfare of its employees and is interested in their extra-professional life. Kinship bonds play an important role in hiring new employees (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2000, pp. 190-198).

2. Eiffel Tower culture

It is characterized by a task-oriented approach and a large power distance. It exists in organizations of a bureaucratic type, where tasks are precisely defined. They are executed under the supervision of a manager. The status of a superior is limited to the workplace and results from the assigned function. The manager's authority has a formal character. Career depends on professional qualifications, therefore employees are evaluated for results. Members of an organization are guided by strict rules and procedures which involve planning the recruitment procedure, the evaluation system and training programs (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2000, pp. 198-202).

3. Guided missile culture

It's a task-oriented egalitarian culture with clearly defined duties. Operations are based on working groups that have a goal to achieve. Teams are composed of specialists from respective fields, forming an interdisciplinary team. The variability of projects makes it difficult to create bonds between employees. The source of satisfaction is the final result, because only results are rewarded (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2000, pp. 204-207).

4. Incubator culture

It is characterized by personal orientation and egalitarianism. The aim of an organization is to enable its members to fulfil themselves. Employees are characterized by individualism, passion for creation and emotional involvement in work. It is a highly innovative culture. Power is based on informal authority (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2000, pp. 207-210).

Organizations that use the family model are characterized by collectivism, expressed in caring for group harmony. In the case of Eiffel Tower organizations, rules and procedures are important. A universalistic approach is used. The rules allow for achieving the set goals. The same is true for companies that opt for a guided missile

culture. Here, however, universalism results from the conviction on the unquestionability of the principles of science and the resulting knowledge of the professionals involved in a specific task. On the other hand, incubator-type organizations are of secondary importance in relation to the individual who strives for self-fulfillment. They operate in innovative, risky industries.

Gesteland (1999) analyzing business behavior models, suggests the following typology of cultures:

1. Pro-transaction and pro-partner cultures

Pro-transactional culture is focused on the performance of a task, favoring behavior based on the “business first” principle. At the same time, it is open to doing business with strangers, using a complex network of personal contacts, being outspoken. It functions within low-contexts.

Pro-partner culture, on the other hand, focuses on people. It is important to maintain good interpersonal relations, avoiding conflicts and confrontation. Great importance is attached to taking care of the “saving one’s face” and dignity, therefore it is preferred to speak indirectly. Such an organization is characterized by a highly contextualized style – not to offend anyone. Business relations require face-to-face contacts, it is important to establish a thread of understanding and create an atmosphere of mutual trust, which at the same time means that the transition to discussing “business” requires much more time than in pro-transactional cultures.

2. Ceremonial and non-ceremonial cultures

Ceremonial culture is characterized by extensive protocol rituals and a strong emphasis on differences in the social and professional status as well as a frequent use of titles. Non-ceremonial culture, on the other hand, is characterized by limited protocol rituals, avoidance of highlighting differences in the professional and social status as well as smaller attachment to tradition.

3. Monochronic and polychronic cultures

Monochronic culture focuses on the completion of a specific task within a given deadline, it attaches great importance to time organization and punctuality. It is significant to follow schedules and rigid deadlines. Meetings are interrupted only occasionally. In polychronic cultures many things are done at the same time, less importance is attached to time organization and punctuality. Deadlines are treated flexibly, meetings are seldom held on time and are often interrupted, which implies that partners from these cultures are considered as negligent, careless and unreliable.

4. Expressive and restrained cultures

Expressive culture is characterized by intense gestures, a relatively loud way of expressing views, expressive mimicry. Restrained culture favors physical distance between

interlocutors, absence of vivid gesticulation and limited facial expressions (Gesteland, 999, pp. 16-17).

Researchers made several attempts aimed at establishing a typology of organizational culture. Zbiegień-Maciąg (1999), referring to model types of cultures by Peters, claims that in reality these divisions are more complicated. He compares companies to complex human beings. Cultural profiles in organizations resemble psychological characteristics of human personalities. According to Masłyk-Musiał (1997), who presents the typology of Deal & Kennedy:

- hard culture is dubbed individualist culture;
- hard work and good fun culture is termed gamblers culture;
- culture of calm is associated with sustainable culture;
- culture of duration and stability is called routinist culture;
- Typically human terms are attributed to the characteristics of culture.

While comparing typologies common in source literature, it can be observed that despite the use of different terminology by authors, features attributed to particular types of cultures are repetitive. There appears a complex picture of a network of frequently overlapping cultures with analogous features and behaviors of their members. Finding and compiling the characteristics of a given culture, and thus correctly determining the type of cultural organization, constitutes necessary knowledge for culture-based management.

1.3. National culture and management culture

Culture as a concept and phenomenon belongs to the area of humanities and social sciences and, as a subject of various scientific disciplines, is defined in many ways. Human sciences mainly focus on historical overview in culture, and by the same token in national culture, identifying national culture with national heritage and tradition. Meanwhile, the achievements of management sciences usually emphasize the socio-psychological aspect in national culture.

There are many definitions of culture, but scientists adopt the one which combines and integrates various concepts. Culture is a set of products of human activity, both tangible and intangible, values and practices recognized in a given group of conduct. Communities may differ in cultural aspects, i.e. in the scope of products of thoughts and actions, values and ways of conduct that were recognized and accepted by the community and became valid for its members, designating behaviors considered as mandatory, and thus following certain standards (Szczepeński, 1970, pp. 78-83). Each nation, being a cultural community, will therefore have its own national culture (Konecki, 2002, p. 113). Culture, in its four dimensions: material, behavioral, symbolic and axionormative, is the basic bond

of a national group. Without common material and non-material memorabilia, customs, symbols, it is difficult to imagine the existence of nations. A nation is a community expressed in culture and through culture (Budyta-Budzyńska, 2010, p. 41). Culture reveals the experiences of a nation to the fullest extent possible, and that is why the leaders of individual nations paid great attention to the development of national culture. Culture is a fundamental factor in the creation of a nation. Kłoskowska emphasizes that national culture is a broad and complex set of ways, norms, values, beliefs, knowledge and symbolic works, which by some social group is considered as its own, in particular the one to which it is entitled, which has grown out of its traditions and historical experience as well as functions within its framework (1991, p. 51).

Hofstede points out that in the historical process nations were shaped as forms of social organization, therefore the concept of culture is literally more related to the nation than the state. This does not change the fact that many states have formed a coherent whole, despite the sometimes great diversity of their constituent groups or assimilated national minorities. In countries with a particular historical heritage, there are many factors that favor further integration. Official language (mostly one), the media, the state education system, the army, the political system or the representation of a country are of great symbolic significance and carry a high emotional load. Modern states are not internally as homogeneous as isolated, illiterate societies studied by anthropologists, but a sense of belonging to a given state has a very strong influence on the programming of the common mind for all citizens (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2007, p. 31).

National culture, understood as one of the dimensions of the environment, influences the way in which entities function internally. This is particularly visible nowadays, when companies engaged in business activities on international markets are confronted with many different national cultures. These cultures shape the values, norms, behavior of employees and business partners of international companies (Rozkwitalska, 2008, p. 241). According to Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, “culture is the context in which everything happens – even legal issues devoid of context lose their meaning” (2002, p. 20). The culture of a nation can be defined as values, expectations and behaviors learned, and – shared by a group of people – handed down from generation to generation (Graham, 2003, p. 505).

Identifying cultural patterns is a complex process. The characteristics of national cultures are shaped in the context of historical, geographical and economic conditions, and the sources of shared values should be found in tradition, religion and language. The knowledge of cultural patterns facilitates movement in a given community. The most frequently indicated and analyzed external factor determining the values of organizational culture is its national culture.

The study of “external” manifestations of culture allows for reaching key “internal” elements, i.e. values. It is also possible to choose another way, which disregards external elements. It is based on direct access to the values whose carriers are

people functioning in the organizational culture. One of the applied research tools is Rokeach's Value Scale.

Rokeach's value theory is based on an assumption on the nature of a person who strives to organize the world of ideas, people and authorities into full, harmonious relations. The result of such efforts is the formation of a system of beliefs that serves a point of reference to oneself, other important people and physical objects. Values occupy focal positions in the system of beliefs which determines their broadly understood regulatory potential. They are identified with cognitive representations of internal needs. They guide self-presentation, evaluation, judgments about themselves and others. They are used as standards governing the processes of conscious and unconscious excuses as well as rationalization of action, thinking and judgments (Czerniawska, 2010, pp. 39-40).

Rokeach identifies "value" as an abstract concept and characterizes it as a central, resistant to modification, relatively unchangeable conviction during life: value is a permanent conviction that a certain mode of conduct or ultimate purpose of existence is personally or socially preferred to alternative modes of conduct or ultimate purposes of existence (1973, p. 5). It constitutes a general criterion of preference that allows an entity to develop an attitude towards reality and own experiences.

Values are strongly illustrated in formulated considerations (Czerniawska, 2010, p. 40). Rokeach distinguishes two types of values: those that determine the final state of existence (terminal) and those that determine behavior (instrumental). Among terminal values one can distinguish: intrapersonal – focused on an individual, and interpersonal – focused on society. Among instrumental values, there are moral, interpersonal and competence values which are more personal than social, related to self-acceptance. Values are explicitly understood as what is desirable. An important element of the researcher's proposal is his search for a relatively complete catalogue of values. According to Rokeach, the collection of values appreciated by people is not too numerous. People rather differ in the hierarchy of values than in their collections. In other words, most of us appreciate similar values, although we distribute our preferences differently (Ciecuch, 2013, p. 29). Rokeach placed terminal and instrumental values on two separate scales. The researcher noticed intuitiveness in distinguishing these values, nevertheless, he claimed that they constitute their proper representation. He believed that the evaluation of values evokes certain thought processes, consisting of a relative perception rather than the formulation of absolute categories of isolation. The author of the tool also stated that it is ipsative in nature, which limits the possibilities of statistical analysis, yet faithfully reflects the way values exist. He performs measurement based on a ranking procedure (rank "1" means the highest preferred value and rank "18" means the lowest preferred value). A respondent must then choose and prioritize what is more important over what is less important.

Terminal values include: "national security" (protection from attack), "family security" (taking care of loved ones), "mature love" (sexual and spiritual intimacy), "a comfortable life" (a prosperous life), "wisdom" (mature understanding

of life), “a sense of accomplishment” (lasting contribution), “self-respect” (self-esteem), “a world at peace” (free of war and conflict), “true friendship” (close companionship), “pleasure” (nice feelings, no excessive haste), “internal harmony” (no internal conflicts), “equality” (brotherhood, equal opportunities for all), “happiness” (joy, contentedness), “a world of beauty” (beauty of nature and the arts), “social recognition” (respect, admiration), “freedom” (personal independence, freedom of choice), “salvation” (salvation of the soul, eternal life), “an exciting life” (stimulating, active) (Cieciuch, 2013, p. 29).

In case of terminal values, one can talk of intrapersonal values – focused on the individual, such as: “prosperity”, “exciting life”, “social recognition”, “dignity”, “freedom”, “comfortable life”, and interpersonal values – concentrated on society, such as: “mature love”, “friendship”, “wisdom”, “equality”, “world at peace”.

In turn, instrumental values are: “ambitious” (hard-working, aspiring), “pure” (neat, tidy), “intellectual” (intelligent, reflective), “loving” (affectionate, tender), “logical” (consistent, rational), “independent” (unsubordinated to anyone, independent), “imaginative” (bold, creative), “responsible” (self-reliant, self-sufficient), “courageous” (standing up for one’s beliefs), “self-controlled” (restrained, self-disciplined), “broad-minded” (open-minded), “cheerful” (light-hearted, joyful), “helpful” (helping, assisting), “obedient” (dutiful, respectful), “honest” (incapable of cheating, sincere, truthful), “polite” (courteous, well-mannered), “capable” (with great skill), “forgiving” (ready to forgive others) (Brzozowski, 1989, p. 105; 2007).

In terms of instrumental values, one can speak of moral values, such as: “honest”, “helpful”, “tolerant”, “responsible”, “forgiving”, “obedient” and competence values such as: “intelligent”, “ambitious”, “courageous”, “capable”.

Organizational culture is shaped by a number of values that fall within one of two orientations – task orientation or relationship orientation. Harrison (1995) proposes the concept of task culture and person culture. The concept of task-oriented culture is intended to express the goals of an organization, which, with the support of its members, are present in all its activities. The concept of person-oriented culture refers to harmonious human relations within an organization. Schein (1985) also uses a division between task orientation and relationship orientation. He calls them “being” and “doing” orientations.

The ground-breaking event that shaped the interpretation of the meaning of culture in management was the intercultural research conducted by Hofstede. The researcher addressed a survey questionnaire to several dozen thousand employees of IBM branches located in different countries. He described mental differences of workers and arranged them in the following dimensions of cultural variability:

- Power Distance Index (PDI)
- Individualism (IDV)
- Masculinity (MAS)
- Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI).

The diversification of national cultures leads to an assumption about the diversity of organizational cultures that – to some extent – are a reflection of social cultures in which these organizations operate. It was claimed that these dimensions are useful for studying the organizational cultures of companies based in different countries. Despite significant changes taking place in practice, the fundamental values in a society show exceptional stability (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2007, p. 25).

Power distance reflects the dominant cultural approach to inequality, expressed in the relationship between subordinates and superiors (Moczyłowska & Widelska, 2014). Some people make decisions and control others, the so-called subordinates. Nevertheless, the degree of hierarchy (multiple levels of power), or asymmetry between the positions of superiors and subordinates, or between the privileges of the former and the duties of the latter, varies greatly from country to country. In cultures with high power distance, the hierarchical vision of the world is represented by everyone: from unskilled workers to highly educated staff. In cultures with low power distance, however, egalitarianism increases with education and status (Boski, 2009, p. 93). In cultures that treat inequality as a natural feature, power distance is large. People grow up with the conviction that hierarchical organization of work and an authoritarian way of exercising power is a normal environment for everyone. Therefore, they accept inequality. They consider it normal that superiors and subordinates are at two different ends of power. For communities representing low power distance, it is typical to believe that legal power is the legitimate one. Exercising it is connected with the competence of those in power. Human relations are based on respect for people. Manifestations of inequality in relations between the superior and the subordinate are often misunderstood (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2007, pp. 35-37).

Power distance has a huge impact on the organizational structure, work organization, control, as well as wages policy.

Individualism and collectivism are two different kinds of interpretation of the world. The former is characterized by putting the good of an individual above the good of a group, while the latter is characterized by putting the good of a group above the good of an individual (Moczyłowska & Widelska, 2014). Individualism is characteristic of cultures where individual goals of its members are equally important or even sometimes more important than group goals. Human relationships are not burdened with the obligation to cooperate. Collectivism, on the other hand, is a characteristic of those groups in which individual goals are dominated by group goals, and people show interest in forming compact groups from the beginning (Mazur, 2012, p. 58). Hofstede defines these terms as follows: individualism refers to a society in which bonds between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to take care of himself and his close family. Collectivism refers to a society where individuals, starting from birth and throughout their lives, are integrated into their own strong, cohesive groups which provide permanent protection in exchange for unconditional loyalty (2007, p. 88).

With regard to the dimension of individualism-collectivism, organizational cultures differ in the degree to which they shape mutual relations and relationships between people. Cultural individualism means a situation in which the freedom of an individual is a superior value. The interest of an individual is more important than the interest of a group. An organization is seen as a collection of creative, talented individuals. An organization characterized by collectivism is a different case. The value of group solidarity manifests itself in the execution of group goals, even against the interests of individuals. Preferred attitudes include conformism and cooperation. An organization is seen as a team that achieves success through cooperation and unanimity (Mikułowski & Pomorski, 1999, p. 113). The sources of diversity of individualism and collectivism are considered to be: the wealth of the country (the greater the wealth, the greater individualism), the latitude of the country (the greater the latitude, the greater individualism), population growth (the greater the growth, the greater collectivism), and historical factors.

Masculinity-femininity is another dimension of culture and, similar to the previous one, is bipolar. Hofstede believes that cultural programming requires either a harder, more competitive approach to the world or a more humane, caring and forgiving (Moczydłowska & Widelska, 2014). Masculinity refers to a society in which social roles are clearly distinct. Men are expected to be assertive, tough and materially successful, while women are expected to be modest, gentle and focused on quality of life. Femininity refers to a society in which generic roles overlap, which may mean that both men and women are expected to be modest, tender and focused on quality of life (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2007, p. 133). Men's cultures are characterized by "hard", instrumental values, while women's cultures are characterized by "soft" values, whose core is the quality of human relations (Boski, 2009, p. 102). Societies defined as feminine are those in which the social roles of the two genders intersect and can be interchangeable (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2007, p. 133).

The so-called male cultures are affected by such values as: success, ambition, assertiveness, self-confidence, competition. Femininity, in turn, is defined by care, security and emotional support. In culturally male societies there is a clear division between male and female roles. It is accepted to express overt ambitions. Women's cultures allow for assuming female and male roles interchangeably and emphasize the interdependence of both genders. They are more tolerant and friendly to social minorities than male cultures. The norms and values that make up this dimension have an impact primarily on the way employees are motivated and, in addition, on the organizational culture and management style (Mazur, 2012, p. 67).

Uncertainty avoidance concerns the degree of risk that members of a given culture feel as a result of uncertain or unchanging situations (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2007, p. 181). A sense of uncertainty is not just an individual feature of an individual – it is shared by all members of a community, allowing cultures to be grouped according to a degree of intolerance (or avoidance) of uncertainty (Moczydłowska & Widelska, 2014). The past, both individual and collective, is subject to changes in interpretation.

History is constantly rewritten, while the future always remains uncertain. Predictions, forecasts, prophecies are burdened with the possibility of error, therefore uncertainty accompanies human actions. This is a cultural problem that people have to deal with. While it is impossible to guarantee conditions of full predictability, it is as well impossible to live in conditions of full unpredictability, either individually or collectively. To some extent, the aim is to reduce the uncertainty of the future time (Boski, 2009, p. 108-109), using various tools, such as foresight (Ejdys et al., 2017, 2019; Nazarko, 2013; Nazarko et al., 2017; Kononiuk & Nazarko, 2014; Kononiuk & Pająk, 2019). Representatives of cultures with a high degree of uncertainty avoidance expect clear rules of conduct and detailed operating instructions. They also show a great need for formal regulations, provisions and established standards of behavior. They are reluctant to accept even the smallest changes. In most cases, they are also unwilling to take risks. Among cultures with a low level of uncertainty avoidance, unpredictability is quite well tolerated. In unusual situations their representatives improvise creatively, show initiative and inventiveness. They also openly tolerate differences of opinion and are show a relatively high tendency to take risky actions (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2007, p. 181).

Uncertainty avoidance manifests itself in the drive to ensure job stability, emphasizing the formalization of social life, beliefs in universal truths and the need for unquestionable authorities. This is linked to decision-making, employee motivation and work planning (Moczydłowska & Kowalewski, 2014, p. 147). Employees treat changes in the organization as a major threat. High tolerance of uncertainty, on the other hand, involves readiness to act in a situation where information is scant. For the organization this means a propensity to take risks and an orientation towards change (Sułkowski, 2001, p. 22). Employees do not treat change as a threatening factor.

The last two dimensions were discovered later. They appeared in Minkov's book *Why we are different and similar*, published in 2007. One of them refers to long- and short-term orientation (LTO). Long-term orientation focuses on the future and short-term orientation on the present and past. Another dimension refers to consent and restrictiveness (IND). Consent means consenting to an individual's basic and natural desire to enjoy life and play, and restrictiveness, in turn, goes towards a belief that enjoyment should be supervised and strictly regulated.

Hofstede showed that the cultures of specific countries differ in the arrangement of these factors, and this in turn can lead to conflicts between workers from different countries (especially managers) if not enough attention is paid to understanding these differences and drawing conclusions on their basis.

1.4. Cultural differences – case study

Culture governs the way of thinking about a person and sets the framework for what is considered to be a means of achieving humanity. It is always “someone else’s” culture because it is made up of specific people and expressed by them. The richness of humanity lies in the diversity of cultures. However, an effective dialogue between the representatives of different cultures is not possible without mutual knowledge. Knowledge of cultural aspects makes it possible to understand differences that exist in interacting cultures.

Mikulowski Pomorski, using Hofstede’s classification, shows differences in national cultures of European countries. The list includes Poland and Romania (Table 1.3).

TABLE 1.3. Cultural dimensions of European nations

Rank	Large power distance	Individualism	Masculinity	Strong avoiding uncertainty
1	Ukraine	Great Britain	Albania	Greece
2	Russia	Holland	Austria	Portugal
3	Romania	Italy	Hungary	Serbia
4	Albania	Belgium	Poland	Belgium
5	Serbia	Denmark	Italy	Slovenia
6	Bulgaria	Sweden	Switzerland	France
7	Croatia	France	Ireland	Spain
8	Slovenia	Latvia	Great Britain	Turkey
9	France	Ireland	Germany	Hungary
10	Turkey	Norway	Greece	Bulgaria
11	Belgium	Switzerland	Latvia	Croatia
12	Portugal	Germany	Belgium	Russia
13	Greece	Finland	Bulgaria	Ukraine
14	Spain	Poland	Turkey	Romania
15	Poland	Czech Republic	Croatia	Italy
16	Italy	Hungary	Russia	Albania
17	Czech Republic	Austria	Ukraine	Austria
18	Latvia	Spain	Romania	Germany
19	Holland	Russia	Czech Republic	Czech Republic
20	Great Britain	Ukraine	Serbia	Finland
21	Germany	Turkey	France	Switzerland
22	Switzerland	Croatia	Spain	Latvia

Rank	Large power distance	Individualism	Masculinity	Strong avoiding uncertainty
23	Finland	Greece	Portugal	Holland
24	Norway	Portugal	Finland	Poland
25	Sweden	Slovenia	Slovenia	Norway
26	Ireland	Serbia	Denmark	Great Britain
27	Hungary	Bulgaria	Holland	Ireland
28	Denmark	Albania	Norway	Sweden
29	Austria	Romania	Sweden	Denmark
	Small power distance	Collectivism	Femininity	Weak avoiding uncertainty

SOURCE: (Mikułowski Pomorski, 2012, pp. 435-436).

In terms of power distance, Romania ranks third and Poland occupies the fifteenth place. It follows that Romanian culture is characterized by a large and Polish culture by moderate power distance. Romanians are culturally more collective than Poles, who are characterized by stronger individualism. Romanian culture is more feminine than Polish culture. Romanians are more likely to avoid uncertainty than Poles.

Undoubtedly, one of the most important differentiating factors between the two cultures is religion although both countries are Christian. In Romania the dominant religion is Orthodoxy and in Poland Catholicism. Based on a literature review devoted to the cultural features of Orthodoxy and Catholicism, it can be concluded that the representatives of the Orthodox faith exhibit the characteristics of collectiveness to a greater extent than Roman Catholics, who favor individualism. They are also characterized by greater power distance than the representatives of the Roman Catholic religion. They display more female traits, while Roman Catholics male ones.

Hofstede defined the values of indicators for individualism, power distance, masculinity, avoidance of uncertainty, long-term orientation and indulgence for Poland and Romania. Table 1.4 presents the results of this comparison.

TABLE 1.4. Values of indicators for individualism, power distance, masculinity and avoiding uncertainty for Poland and Romania

Country	Individualism	Power Distance	Masculinity	Uncertainty Avoidance	Long-Term Orientation	Indulgence
Poland	60	68	64	93	38	29
Romania	30	90	42	90	52	20

SOURCE: own study based on: <http://geert-hofstede.com/countries.html> [26.01.2020].

In the light of these results, it can be observed that for Polish culture the individualism indicator is much higher than in Romanian culture. Hierarchical structure in both countries is relatively high in comparison to other European countries. However, within the comparison Poland – Romania, in Poland it can be considered moderately high, in Romania – very high. The level of uncertainty avoidance is relatively high in both cultures. Still, the Polish culture shows more male characteristics, and the Romanian one – female. The other two dimensions, where long-term orientation focuses on the future and short-term orientation on the present and past, lead to the following conclusions. Romanians are less focused on the present than Poles, but they are slightly more restrictive than the Polish representatives. Conclusions from literature analyses confirm the existence of cultural differences between these two compared countries.

This prompted the authors of the book to conduct research among the representatives of the Polish and Romanian groups. The questionnaire was based on the Rokeach Value Scale and an author’s tool based on Hofstede’s four cultural dimensions.

The first part of the research presents preference indicators of terminal values in the Polish and Romanian research groups. Table 1.5 and Figure 1.2 illustrate preference indicators for these values in a manner that best shows their inter-group differentiation. For this reason they were organized in line with the difference in average ranks for both research groups.

TABLE 1.5. Preferences for terminal values in groups of Polish and Romanian students

Value	Average		Ranking	
	Poland	Romania	Poland	Romania
True Friendship	6,667	8,545	5.5	9
Mature Love	3,500	6,909	1.5	5
Self-Respect	6,667	7,000	5.5	6
Happiness	4,917	4,727	3	2
Inner Harmony	7,000	5,818	7	4
Equality	11,500	10,091	13	10
Freedom	6,417	4,545	4	1
Pleasure	11,250	7,545	10	8
Social Recognition	13,083	13,909	16	15.5
Wisdom	9,833	5,091	8	3
Salvation	14,333	13,909	18	15.5
Family Security	3,500	7,455	1.5	7
National Security	12,833	14,727	15	17
Sense of Accomplishment	11,000	10,182	9	11
World of Beauty	14,083	16,636	17	18

Value	Average		Ranking	
	Poland	Romania	Poland	Romania
World at Peace	11,417	11,909	11.5	14
Comfortable Life	11,417	11,455	11.5	13
Exciting Life	11,583	10,545	14	12

SOURCE: own study.

Polish respondents provided the following ranking: mature love, family security, happiness, freedom, true friendship, self-respect, inner harmony, wisdom, sense of accomplishment, pleasure, world at peace, comfortable life, equality, exciting life, national security, social recognition, world of beauty and salvation.

Romanian respondents made different choices: freedom, happiness, wisdom, inner harmony, mature love, self-respect, family security, pleasure, true friendship, equality, sense of accomplishment, exciting life, comfortable life, world at peace, social recognition, salvation, national security, world of beauty.

Polish students appreciated more: mature love, family security, true friendship than Romanian students. However, freedom and wisdom appeared more significant to respondents from Romania rather than Poland.

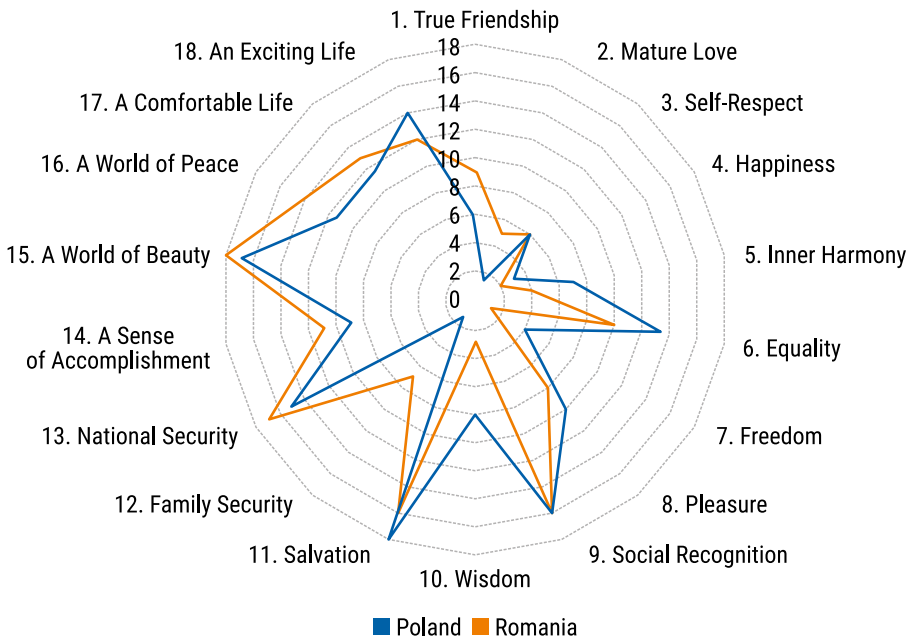


FIGURE 1.2. Differentiation of preference indicators for terminal values among Polish and Romanian respondents

SOURCE: own study.

Terminal values, due to specific motivational features, can be oriented at task execution and have an intrapersonal character or at human relationships and have an interpersonal character (Tab. 1.6).

TABLE 1.6. List of terminal values: intrapersonal and interpersonal

Terminal values oriented at task execution (intrapersonal)	Terminal values oriented at human relationships (interpersonal)
comfortable life	national security
sense of accomplishment	family security
self-respect	mature love
pleasure	wisdom
world of beauty	world at peace
happiness	true friendship
social recognition	equality
freedom	inner harmony
exciting life	salvation

SOURCE: own study based on: (Rokeach, 1973).

With regard to both students from Poland and Romania, the aggregated indicators show whether the selections incline towards task or relationship orientation (Fig. 1.3).

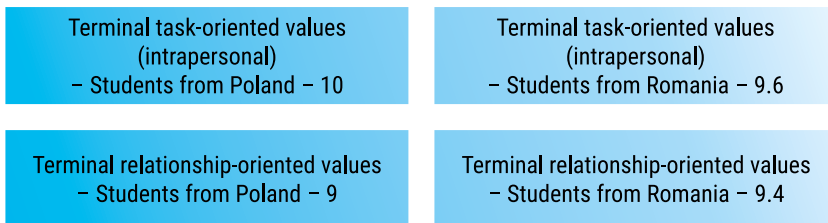


FIGURE 1.3. Aggregated intrapersonal and interpersonal value indicators (comprising the terminal value scale) in the Polish and Romanian groups

SOURCE: own study.

Both students from Poland and Romania appreciated more interpersonal values oriented at relationships than intrapersonal ones oriented at task execution. Nonetheless, the difference was larger in the case of Polish respondents.

In the second part of the study, the Polish and Romanian respondents ranked instrumental values. The following table and figure (Table 1.7 and Figure 1.4) present preference indicators for instrumental values in the Polish and Romanian research groups.

TABLE 1.7. Preferences for instrumental values in the groups of Polish and Romanian students

Value	Average		Ranking	
	Poland	Romania	Poland	Romania
Cheerful	7,833	9,636	6	9
Ambitious	9,083	7,636	11	6
Loving	3,167	6,364	1	2
Pure	13,583	11,727	16	16
Self-controlled	8,750	8,636	8.5	8
Capable	13,167	11,273	15	14.5
Courageous	10,583	8,273	12	7
Polite	14,167	11,273	17	14.5
Honest	3,583	4,182	2	1
Imaginative	12,667	13,182	14	17
Independent	7,917	10,636	7	12
Intellectual	5,667	7,091	3	4
Broad-minded	8,750	10,364	8.5	10.5
Logical	7,583	6,545	5	3
Obedient	16,583	15,545	18	18
Helpful	8,917	10,364	10	10.5
Responsible	6,250	7,545	4	5
Forgiving	11,667	10,727	13	13

SOURCE: own study.

The Polish respondents made the following ranking: loving, honest, intellectual, responsible, logical, cheerful, independent, self-controlled, broad-minded, helpful, ambitious, courageous, forgiving, imaginative, capable, pure, polite and obedient.

The Romanian respondents made similar choices: honest, loving, logical, intellectual, responsible, ambitious, courageous, self-controlled, cheerful, broad-minded, helpful, independent, forgiving, capable, polite, pure, imaginative and obedient.

The Polish students appreciated being cheerful, independent and imaginative more than students from Romania. Alternatively, being ambitious and courageous turned out to be more significant for Romanian than Polish respondents.

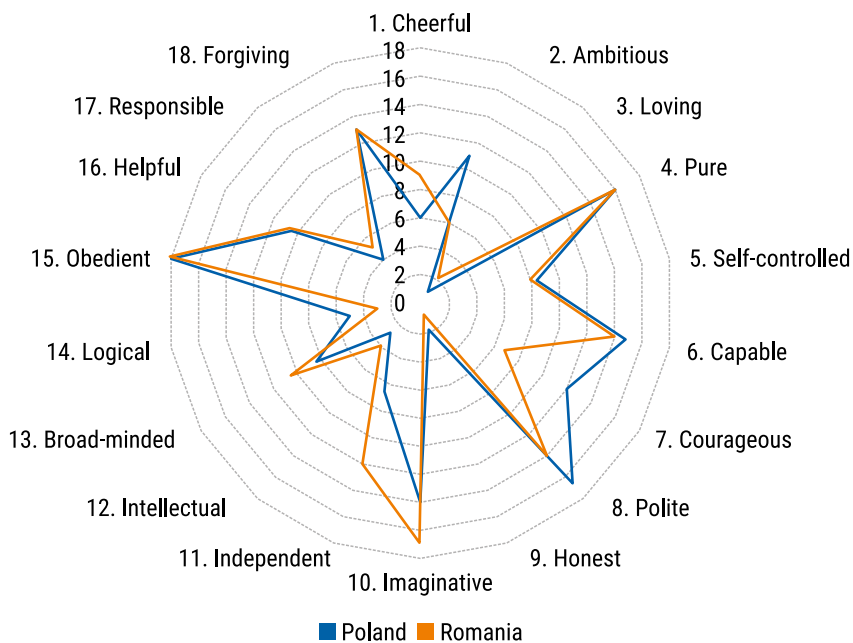


FIGURE 1.4. Differentiation of preference indicators for instrumental values among Polish and Romanian respondents

SOURCE: own study.

TABLE 1.8. List of instrumental values: competency and moral

Instrumental task-oriented values (competency)	Instrumental relationship-oriented values (moral)
ambitious	pure
intellectual	loving
logical	responsible
independent	self-controlled
imaginative	helpful
courageous	obedient
broad-minded	honest
cheerful	polite
capable	forgiving

SOURCE: own study based on: (Rokeach, 1973).

Instrumental values, similarly to terminal values – due to specific motivational features – can as well be oriented at task execution and have a competency character, or at relationships and have a moral character (Table 1.8).

As above, with regard to the students from Poland and Romania the aggregated indicators show whether the selections incline towards task or relationship orientation (Fig. 1.5).

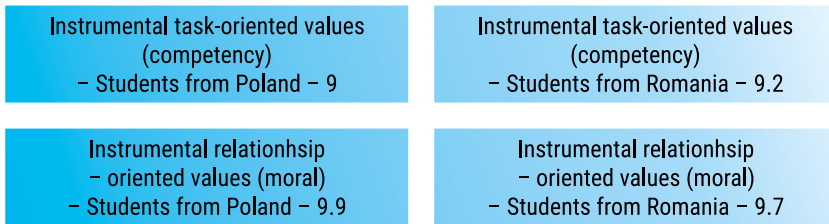


FIGURE 1.5. Aggregated intrapersonal and interpersonal value indicators (comprising the instrumental value scale) in the Polish and Romanian groups

SOURCE: own study.

In this case, both Polish and Romanian students appreciated more competence values oriented at task execution than moral ones that are relationship-oriented. A reverse situation took place in case of terminal values.

It can be observed that the differences are small. The results suggest that respondents focus both on establishing relationships and performing tasks.

The students were as well requested to define what is significant in intercultural cooperation. The Romanian students emphasized fun, good atmosphere, trust, necessary authority, approaching a problem from different angles. Figure 1.6 illustrates their responses.

The Polish students appreciated open-mindedness, communication, fun and experience. They attached significance to the possibility to meet representatives of a different culture, shared work. Figure 1.7 illustrates their responses.

The Polish respondents emphasized the role of experience, open-mindedness and communication, whereas the Romanian respondents focused on the need for trust and acceptance of other opinions.

Another tool referred to cultural dimensions described by Hofstede. The table presents contrasting statements. If the surveyed person identified himself/herself with the statement on the left-hand side, he/she could choose from 1 (higher identification degree) to 2 (lower identification degree with a given statement). If the person identified himself/herself with the statement on the right-hand side, he/she could choose from 4 (lower identification degree) to 5 (higher identification degree with a given statement), depending on the degree of identification. Those respondents for whom both statements were identically close, ticked the fields in the middle of the scale. The results are presented in Figure 1.8.

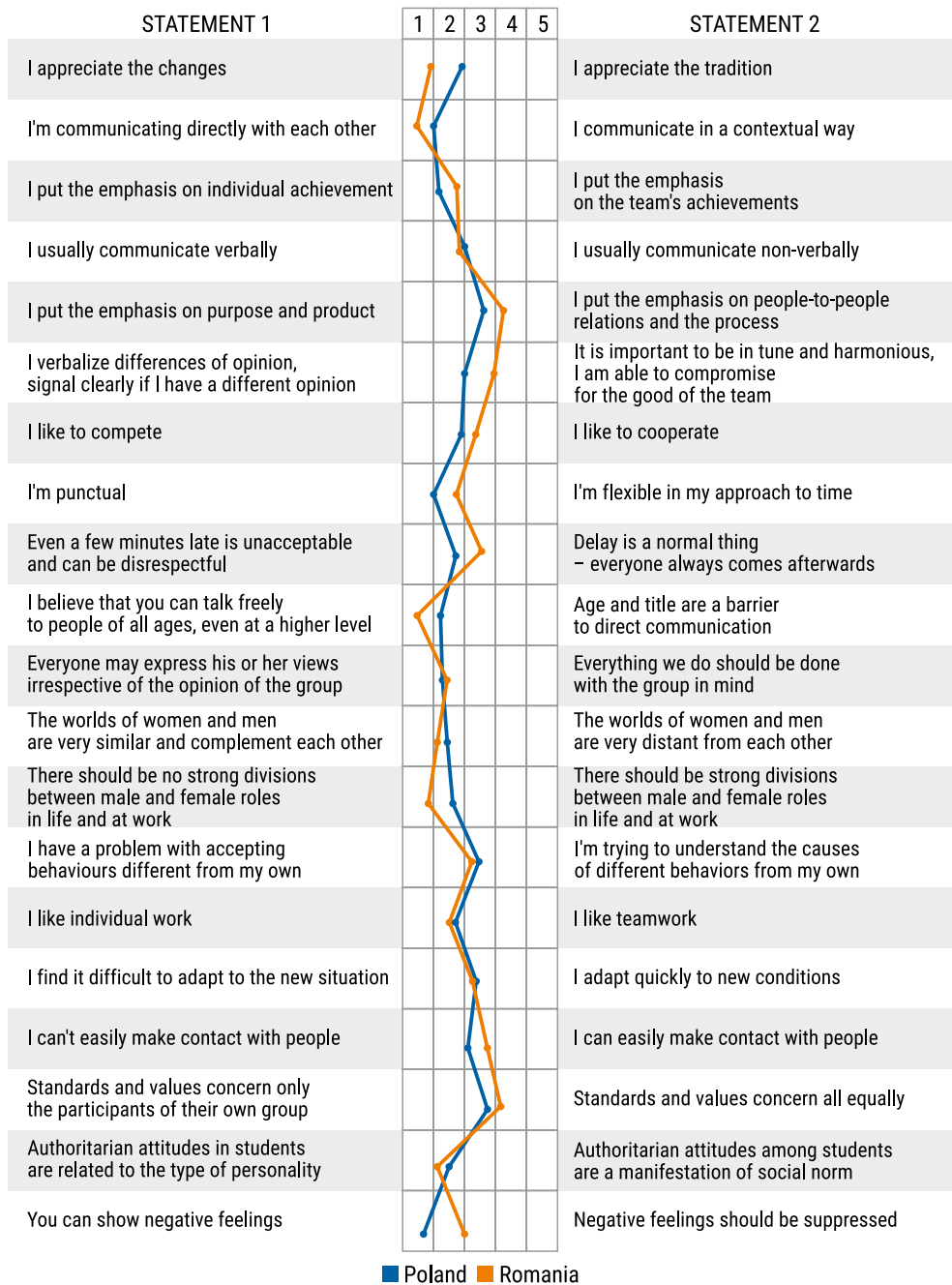


FIGURE 1.8. Preferences among students with regard to cultural dimensions

SOURCE: own study.

With regard to power distance, Romanian students appreciated direct, independent of the context communication slightly more than students from Poland. They decided that age, title and position do not constitute a considerable barrier in communication. Additionally, norms of conduct should concern everyone rather than govern only a given group. Authoritarian approaches depend more on the type of personality than social norms. Nevertheless, they failed to provide a unanimous statement whether negative feelings should be expressed or suppressed. The Polish students, on the other hand, claimed that one should not hide negative feelings.

With regard to the individualism-collectivism dimension, students from Romania attached greater importance to maintaining order and harmony than students from Poland, In other matters both groups were rather unanimous. They similarly evaluated preferences with respect to individual and group work as well as expressing a different opinion.

Interesting choices concerned the masculinity-femininity dimension. Romanian students were slightly more inclined towards shaping interpersonal relationships than students from Poland. Moreover, they decided that no strong divisions into male and female roles in life and work should exist. Students from Poland failed to make a precise statement with that regard.

Within the uncertainty avoidance dimension Romanian respondents were much more inclined towards accepting changes than students from Poland. They as well exhibited greater flexibility towards punctuality. For the Polish respondents respect for tradition was as important as the need for change. Additionally, they appreciated punctuality in a similar manner. For both groups adaptation to new conditions meant a challenge.

In conclusion, it can be claimed that students from Romania were inclined towards smaller power distance than students from Poland, similar individualism and collectivism degrees, greater femininity and smaller uncertainty avoidance. However, the differences were insignificant. Both groups under study made similar choices. This can pose a starting point to conduct research on a larger scale and compare outcomes with the ones developed by the team headed by Hofstede.

It can be claimed that in a situation where cultural beliefs of the members of intercultural teams are in agreement, it is highly likely that the cooperation of such teams will be fruitful. Team members have a sense of control over their behavior, aptly react to various pieces of information and events, are able to predict and plan their activity.

2. Cultural aspect in team management

2.1. Managing a traditional versus multicultural team

The subject of teamwork has been of great interest for several decades. Katzembach & Smith (1992) defined a team as a set of people who interact regularly in pursuit of common objectives. Teamwork enables exceptional results and the performance of even most difficult tasks. This is especially true nowadays in an environment that is changing at a rapid pace and requires analysing a huge amount of data coming from different sources. Well-functioning teams achieve much better results than people working individually. This is possible, among other things, through knowledge sharing and cooperation (Kopertyńska, 2018). According to Donnellon (2006), the results can be astonishing. Different skills and experiences combined with strong motivation of individual team members give a synergistic effect, thanks to which the team can react faster to market, economic and technological changes. Therefore, working teams become a key element of the organisational structures of companies, not only multinational corporations, but also small and medium-sized enterprises and any other type of organisations.

The manager's task is to build a successful team by selecting the right members. This pre-conditions the effectiveness of the tasks, as the team has more capacity than the sum of its components (Jay, 1995). It is important that the recruitment and task allocation is carried out properly. The concept of Belbin, who identified nine key team roles based on his own research, can be quoted here. The researcher defined them as tendencies to cooperate, exhibit specific behaviours and show ways of establishing and maintaining contacts. Within the framework of these roles, three groups were distinguished: task-based (action): Shaper, Implementer, Completer Finisher; social (people): Coordinator, Team Worker, Resource Investigator; intellectual (thinking): Plant, Monitor Evaluator, Specialist (Table 2.1).

Conducting the popular Belbin test or any other similar test that allows for defining roles that individual team members assume, allows for an appropriate division of work within the group. Each of these roles characterises individuals in terms of strengths and weaknesses. Knowing strengths and weaknesses can facilitate using these strengths in action and working on areas that need improvement (Kromer & Jackiewicz, 2015). A manager with such data is able to optimally allocate tasks to individual employees. Figure 2.1 illustrates features of an efficient team.

TABLE 2.1. Team roles according to R.M. Belbin

Role	Characteristics	Weaknesses
Plant	Dominating, intelligent, creative, seeks non-standard solutions, can engage others with his/her enthusiasm	Has problems with communicating with other team members and accepting criticism, often disregards reality
Resource Investigator	Extravert with interpersonal capacity, good negotiator and team ambassador to the outside	Over-optimistic, often loses interest with problems once the initial enthusiasm has passed
Coordinator	Dominating, organises objectives, can effectively utilise the team's resources, careful listener, can motivate others to work	Can be seen as manipulative
Shaper	Action-man, strategist, ambitious with a high need for achievements, dynamic, likes working under pressure, courageous in overcoming obstacles	Easily offends other people, seen as over-dominating, tends to be impulsive and impatient
Monitor Evaluator	Critical and objective, inquisitive, highly intelligent, can carefully evaluate solutions	Low level of empathy, lacking emotional engagement
Team Worker	Creates atmosphere in the team, sensitive to the needs of others, loyal towards the group	Cannot make a decision in difficult situations, prone to the influence of others
Implementer	Perfect executor of projects developed by others, practical, operative, good work organiser	Of rigid views, slowly reacts to new opportunities and situations, can have problems with accepting changes
Completer Finisher	Focused on a specific result, observes deadlines, scrupulous, applies to provisions and procedures	Unwilling to delegate work to others, over-sensitive towards details
Specialist	Professional, independent, having initiative, great knowledge and skills	Lacks a wider perspective to things, of little interest into other people

SOURCE: (Belbin, 2003).

It should be stressed that the expectations towards the team leader greatly vary, ranging from developing a strategic plan, setting objectives and defining plans for their implementation, organising and allocating resources, coordinating work to motivating team members to get involved in the achievement of objectives and controlling the course of activities.

Modern conditions in which organisations operate result in redefining the roles of managers and emphasising the importance of certain competences. Attracting,

maintaining and developing the best people, maintaining high efficiency, stimulating innovation, mutual adjustment of visions, strategies and behaviours, maintaining a work-life balance are becoming key issues. Additionally, other important aspects are: ability to act in a multicultural environment, readiness to continuous learning, high standards of behaviour, creativity and flexibility, aptitude to take risks.

co-responsibility	sincere exchange of views	allocation of powers and authority	monitoring progress with all available tools
flexibility, adaptability, respect for diversity	mutual trust	commitment to common objectives and solutions	respect
thinking in terms of "We" instead of "I"	compromise decision making	a broad-based role rotation	constructive conflict resolution
emphasis on adapting services to the needs of the client	proper size and composition	use of group problem solving tools and strategies	wisdom and consideration of all team members

FIGURE 2.1. Features of an effective team

SOURCE: (Mackin, 2011, p. 88).

In a traditional team consisting of people of the same nationality, the dynamics is largely obvious. Managers focus on types of personalities and temperaments of team members, reacting to such business challenges as: errors and mistakes, excess work, conflicts or dealing with non-standard situations. Working in a multicultural team requires much more knowledge of cultural codes. Multicultural teams that bring together representatives of different nationalities are in many ways different from mono-cultural teams. The type and scale of problems are different, and thus other ways prove to be effective in solving them. This draws particular attention to the dominant system of values, the nature and type of defined objectives and the way they are communicated. The key factor becomes the role of the leader (Gadomska-Lila, Rudawska & Moszoro, 2011). After all, the ability to exert influence does not guarantee that management’s intentions will be understood or that they will affect other members. An important aspect is to pay attention to the role of cultural dimensions. For example, employee selection processes are not the same in specific countries. Among cultural dimensions, the dimension of individualism and collectivism seems to be particularly important in this matter. The same is true for employees taking a specific career path (Table 2.2).

TABLE 2.2. Impact of culture on selected elements of the HR process in terms of individualism and collectivism

	Collectivism	Individualism
Work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • human relations are more important than tasks and responsibilities • decisions on employment and promotion depend on group affiliation of employees • group decisions are treated as better than the individual ones 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • relations between the subordinate and the employer are based on the calculation model • decisions on employment and promotion depend on skills and achievements of employees • individual decisions are treated as better than the group ones
Organisation strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • organisation strategy is based on an employee's loyalty and duty towards the group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • organisation strategy is based on individual initiatives of employees and their creativity
Career path	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • accountability rests in the entire group, group goals are the most significant • less concern is given to individual success and own career • employees expect that the organisation will protect their interests • perceivable permeation of the professional and private life 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • accountability solely rests in on the employee • the employee designates his/her goals and is focused on the development of his/her career • employees must care for their interests, they rarely rely on the organisation with this respect • perceivable distinction of the professional and private life
Relationship/objective-driven management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • management is group management • a crucial element is the preservation of social harmony which is more important than formal effectiveness • directing criticism towards a specific person can require the application of indirect ways of communicating critical remarks • the relationship between the individual and the organisation is seen as moral commitment; frequent staff rotation is seen as something indecent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • management is individual management • priority is given to effectiveness that is seen as a crucial goal of both parties • the subordinate is sufficiently independent to conduct dialogue with the superior; both parties are ready to accept an occasional ambiguous and vague situation • cool calculation is made both by the employer and the employee; their relations are based on rational calculation of profits and losses

SOURCE: own elaboration on the basis of: (Andrałojć, 2010, p. 263; Moczydłowska & Widelska, 2014, Szydło, 2018).

Efficient management in organisations operating in a cultural environment with a high level of individualism means managing an entity with specific needs. Managerial functions, such as organising or motivating, should be directed towards

the individual. The most appropriate methods in teams operating in a cultural environment with individualistic features are management by objectives, talent management, management by motivation and by inspiration. It has the following course: objectives are set in advance, their execution can be measured, the manager and the subordinate can engage in a two-way dialogue and agree on what is to be done, when and how, the subordinate takes responsibility for meeting the agreed objectives, the reward is set and conditioned by means of the evaluation of the achieved result (Mazur, 2015, p. 54). On the other hand, if there is a relatively high level of collectivism in the culture, the employer should perceive his employee primarily as a member of a specific group. Research shows that representatives of collectivist cultures achieve the best results at work when they work in groups anonymously, while the worst results are achieved when they work individually and have to sign off the results of their work. Managers of collectivist organisations should place great emphasis on integration processes. Effective management methods in relation to such organisations include management by self-control groups. An autonomous group of people selects a manager from among themselves, sets short-term objectives to be achieved and the way in which they will be executed. Employees in organisations with a collectivist culture are more motivated by being rewarded as the whole group more than receiving individual awards because rewarding one person destroys harmony. It may be more important for an employee to be judged by other employees than his or her superiors.

Another dimension under study is power distance. In a cultural environment with lower power distance, horizontal organisational structures, decentralised power and a democratic rather than autocratic management style are in force. A superior can be expected to consult employees before making a decision. Also, privileges for higher-level employees may be negatively perceived and assessed as unauthorised. Management methods based on cooperation between the subordinate and the superior will generate desired results in such organisations. In cultures with high power distance, vertical organisational structures may dominate, as it is believed that superiors and subordinates have unequal rights. Power should remain centralized, and the ideal superior will be a sympathetic autocrat or “a good father” (Mazur, 2012, pp. 136-137). Management methods based on cooperation between subordinates and supervisors will not be effective in the case of organisations with high power distance (Table 2.3).

The hierarchical degree of cultures also has an impact on the recruitment process. The higher the level of hierarchy, the higher the level at which the decision to recruit a candidate will be made (Ryan, McFarland, Baron & Page, 1999, p. 364). In countries with a high level of hierarchy, cultures are characterised by a centralised way of decision-making.

Another dimension of culture (masculinity-femininity) primarily reflects the division of social roles between genders, the way conflicts are resolved and the type of valued achievements (Table 2.4).

TABLE 2.3. Impact of culture on selected elements of the HR process in terms of power distance

	Low power distance	High power distance
Work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● hierarchy means inequality of roles set for comfort ● subordinates expect that they will be consulted ● the superior expects subordinates to take initiative ● elimination of differences in communication, dominance of informal style ● low context in communication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● hierarchy means existential inequality accepted a priori ● subordinates expect to be told what to do ● the superior expects subordination ● employees do not take initiative, dominance of a formal communication style ● high context in communication
Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● management by objectives (MBO) is an effective method ● the superior and the subordinate see themselves as equal ● subordinates are trusted ● power and decision-making entitlements are decentralised ● flat hierarchical structures dominate ● privileges and statuses raise doubts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● management by objectives is inefficient method ● the superior and the subordinate do not see themselves as equal ● subordinates are not trusted ● power and decision-making entitlements are centralised ● complex hierarchical structures dominate ● the superior's authority is emphasised as a visible sign of status

SOURCE: own elaboration on the basis of: (Andrałojć, 2010, p. 261; Białas, 2010, p. 217).

In cultures with a higher level of femininity, the superior should take care of a good atmosphere at work, eliminating any conflicts that may arise. In selecting the management method, this dimension becomes very important as it refers to management by communication. The superior appreciates the employees' opinion, and success can be measured through good relations in the organisation and effective cooperation. In cultures with a high level of masculinity, the superior should be expected to be firm and decisive and to make decisions on his own. In this position, a person who is able to make an independent decision on the basis of facts would be more welcome than a person who organizes group discussions to consult other employees before making a decision. Conflicts should be resolved by confrontation, clash or dominance rather than by giving in and seeking compromises. For employees it will be more important to receive financial rewards than a good atmosphere (Szydło, 2018).

The next dimension of culture – uncertainty avoidance – refers to the degree of danger felt by members of a given community in the face of new, uncertain situations. Due to the high level of uncertainty avoidance, there may be a number of formal legal provisions, as well as informal rules that define in detail the duties and rights of superiors and subordinates. Representatives of these cultures live from an early

age with the conviction that an environment that is strongly formalised and structured, lacking random and unknown situations, is a natural environment (Szydło, 2018). The influence of culture on management in terms of uncertainty avoidance is presented in Table 2.5.

TABLE 2.4. Impact of culture on selected elements of the HR process in terms of masculinity and femininity

	Femininity	Masculinity
Work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • you work in order to live • good relations between the superior and the subordinate is important • success is achieved by means of cooperation • need for affiliation • stability and sense of safety are important • good relations, nice atmosphere at work, safety are praised values • the possibility to combine professional work with family life is important • trust towards leaders who show humility and modesty 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • you live only to work • the possibility to arrive at high salary is important • success is achieved by means of competition and rivalry • need for acclaim and achievements • challenges are important, motivating and ambitious work give a sense of personal satisfaction • continuous development, achievements, revenues are praised values • professional work, even at the expense of family, is the most important • trust towards leaders who are strong and consistently pursue their objectives
Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • democratic management style • the organisation should not interfere with private life • attaching smaller importance to measuring results • managers should be driven by intuition and pursue agreement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • autocratic management style • the organisation's interest justifies its interference with private life • attaching great importance to measuring results • managers should be firm and aggressive

SOURCE: own elaboration on the basis of: (Andrałojć, 2010, p. 264; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2007, pp. 159, 270).

Organisations with a high degree of uncertainty avoidance should be guided by the principle that most companies function better when all conflicts are resolved. It is important that the supervisor is always ready to answer subordinates' questions about work. For this purpose, accurate job descriptions should be drawn up and it should be remembered that organisational structures should be created in such a way that the employee has only one direct superior. However, representatives of cultures with low uncertainty avoidance are more open to innovation. Rules for achieving objectives do not have to be described in detail as they do not guarantee safety in a manner typical of cultures with a high degree of uncertainty avoidance.

TABLE 2.5. Impact of culture on selected elements of the HR process in terms of uncertainty avoidance

	Weak uncertainty avoidance	Strong uncertainty avoidance
Work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • accepting divergent and innovative actions and ideas • strong development of entrepreneurship • dominance of long-term, strategic planning • high liquidity of employment, smaller stress on loyalty towards the employer • chief drives are achievements and acclaim • great importance of individual achievements in motivation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • unwillingness towards divergent conduct and ideas as well as innovations • weak development of entrepreneurship • dominance of short- and medium-term planning • low liquidity of employment, greater stress on loyalty towards the employer • chief drives are sense of security and affiliation • smaller importance of individual achievements in motivation
Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • acceptance towards differing opinions between the superior and the subordinate • superiors are engaged in strategic issues • acceptance towards ambiguous, vague situations • aptitude towards risk taking • detailed planning is not so significant • each employee can contribute to planning the development of the organisation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lack of acceptance towards differing opinions, the subordinate accepts the opinion of the superior • superiors are engaged in supervising daily dealings • no acceptance towards ambiguous, vague situations • predictability and sense of safety are important • detailed planning is significant • planning is entrusted to specialists

SOURCE: own elaboration on the basis of: (Andrałojć, 2010, p. 262; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2007, pp. 159, 270).

Of the above discussed four dimensions of culture, the dimensions of power distance and uncertainty avoidance seem to be of particular importance in thinking about the organisation. Organising requires answers to two questions: (1) who decides about what? and (2) what rules and procedures should be followed to achieve the desired results? The answer to the first question is conditioned by cultural norms on power distance and the second is related to uncertainty avoidance. The other two dimensions, individualism and masculinity, influence our thinking not so much about organisations as about the people in organisations (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2007, p. 256).

Taking up the issue of cultural management involves the use of cultural awareness. To do this, it is important to skilfully “unpack culture” (Boski, 2009, p.45). Matsumoto defines this term as follows: “Unpacking refers to the identification of specific, psychological dimensions of a culture that are able to explain differences between countries in a variable that constitutes the subject of research interest. [...] With these dimensions, the researcher no longer has to rely on impression, anecdote or stereotype to interpret differences, as measurement provides a methodological test for complex cultural influences” (Matsumoto, 2001, p. 184). Bond & Tedeschi characterise

the concept of unpacking with these words: “Intercultural research starts with observing differences in frequency of a given type of behaviour between cultural groups. Inspired researchers therefore try to discover a property of the analysed cultures that may be responsible for the differences in behaviour observed at the beginning. This process of explaining the observed differences in behaviour between cultural groups is called culture unpacking” (2001, pp. 310-311).

In breaking down culture, values play an integral part. Employees who prioritise intersubjective values over intrasubjective ones will shape more relationship-oriented cultures, which are of great importance in achieving the organisation’s goals. Therefore, attention should be paid to the characteristics of interpersonally oriented teams. Firstly, employees know each other well, help each other in professional matters and know about their private matters as well as their extra-professional interests. Secondly, if they make a mistake, they are embarrassed in relation to others. Thirdly, in difficult situations, they show solidarity with each other. They also have a relatively strong sense of community and the resulting homogeneous way of communication, especially with regard to all important issues. On the other hand, employees who focus on competences and attach great importance to intellectual and cognitive values, will create more dynamic, task-oriented cultures. Task orientation of the team is characterised by the fact that employees are rewarded for a well-done job and have a greater freedom of action. They rarely fear making mistakes and strive for development, which results in frequent changes. Differences between subordinates and superiors are not clearly visible.

It can be stated that the superior may have a different attitude towards subordinates and their achieved objectives. The leadership style may be people- or task-oriented. The first orientation directs leaders’ actions towards social interaction. They should perceive interpersonal relationships as an internal bond that increases trust between team members, which contributes to mutual support in achieving their goals. The second orientation directs leaders to task execution. In pursuit of goals, superiors leave their employees a certain degree of freedom, appreciating creativity and non-standard problem solving. Hofstede claims that managerial behaviour that does not take into account the expectations of subordinates is inherently flawed (2007, p. 282).

2.2. Leadership in multicultural teams

Leaders of multicultural teams must have, in addition to performing planning, organising, controlling and motivating functions, a certain set of qualities necessary to lead people, such as: tolerance, respect, empathy, openness, goal-orientation (Kožusznik, 2005). It is also important to know the values and needs of employees, create an atmosphere fostering cooperation, be able to see culturally conditioned problems and re-evaluate one’s own cultural stereotypes. Moreover, promoting cooperation based on mutual respect of team members and shaping the communication process

with an account to the need for feedback, as well as developing knowledge about cultural differences (Higgs, 1996) is, as well, essential. Additionally, other important aspects are language skills and curiosity about other cultures as motivators to live beyond the borders of one's own country (Matveev, 2017), which is strongly linked to cultural intelligence. The level of cultural intelligence increases with international experience, but can also be improved through training. Cultural intelligence is the ability of an individual to correctly interpret signals coming from a culturally different environment. For this to be possible, a properly developed repertoire of cognitive abilities is required. Being equipped with a high level of cultural intelligence, it is easier to cope with emerging communication difficulties, where the other side of the interaction feels respected and it becomes possible to build mutual trust (Burakova & Filbien, 2020). Cultural intelligence allows for better understanding of representatives of other groups and for a meaningful dialogue aimed at achieving the intended objectives (Piotrowski & Świątkowski, 2020).

Therefore, students were asked about their experience in participating in multicultural teams. The disproportion between the answers of Polish and Romanian respondents was high. 64% of students from Romania and only 37% of students from Poland gave a positive answer. Those who stated that they previously had the opportunity to work in multicultural teams were asked a question concerning the evaluation of the results of this work. The non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test was used in the statistical analysis (Table 2.6).

TABLE 2.6. Significant differences in the qualitative performance of a multicultural team

Variable	U statistics	Z statistics	p level
overall level of achieving the team's objectives	184444.5	-0.99681	0.318857
qualitative results of the team's work	164570.5	-3.76127	0.000169
quantitative results of the team's work	187335.0	0.14912	0.881457
indicator of new ideas, solutions, innovations	180223.0	-1.12663	0.259900

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Statistically significant differences were observed in only one case. They were related to the evaluation of the quality of teamwork. It was valued slightly higher by respondents from Romania than from Poland.

Figures 2.2-2.5 show distributions comparing the indications of respondents from both countries.

Students from the surveyed countries considered that the planned goal was achieved in a good or very good way. Respondents from Romania were slightly more satisfied than those from Poland. Only a small percentage of respondents were dissatisfied with the course of cooperation.

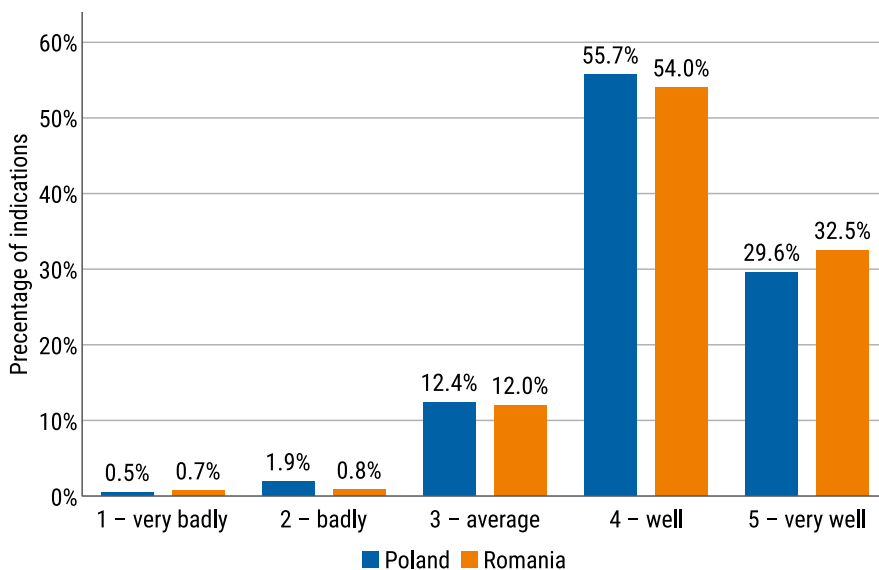


FIGURE 2.2. Comparison of the distribution of the assessment of the overall level of achievement of the team's objectives

SOURCE: own elaboration.

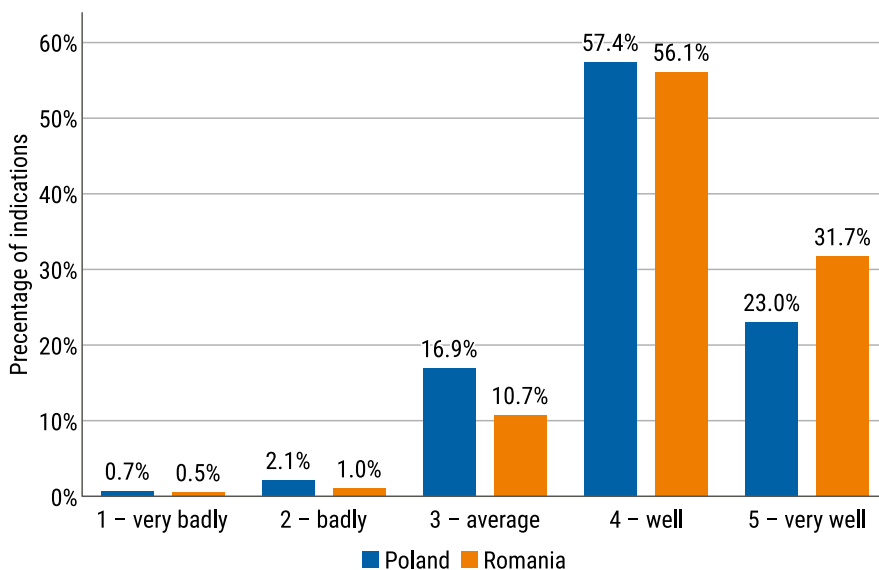


FIGURE 2.3. Comparison of the distributions of the qualitative assessment of the team performance

SOURCE: own elaboration.

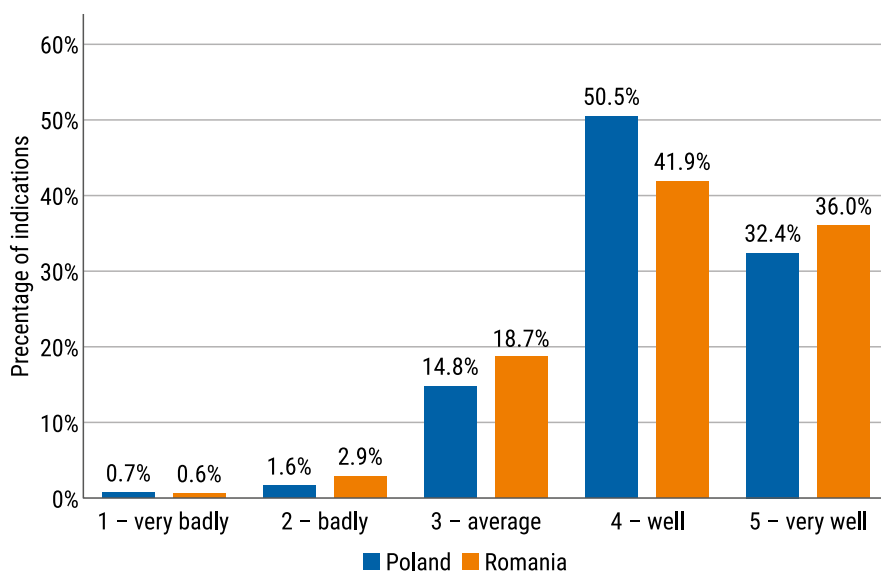


FIGURE 2.4. Comparison of the distributions of the quantitative evaluation of the team performance

SOURCE: own elaboration.

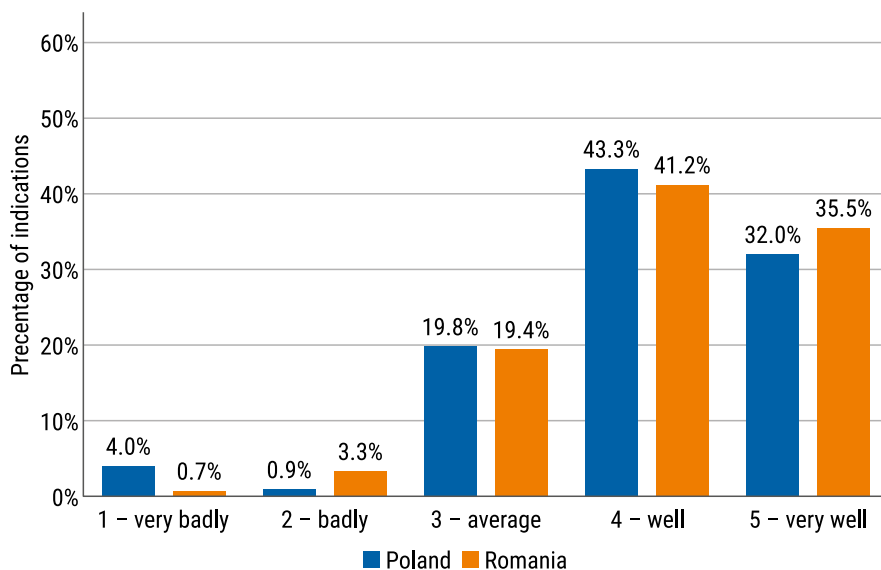


FIGURE 2.5. Comparison of the distributions of indications for evaluating new ideas, solutions, innovations

SOURCE: own elaboration.

In general, the quality of work of the multicultural team was well appreciated by respondents from both groups. Almost 32% of students from Romania considered it very good, 56% considered it good. Similar answers were given by Polish students: 23% described the qualitative results as very good and 57% considered them as good. Slightly more students from Poland than from Romania valued them as average.

Another issue related to the quantitative results of cooperation. Similarly to the qualitative results of the teamwork, the students were satisfied with the achieved results. Almost 78% Romanian students and 83% of students from Poland rated them above the average.

The next question concerned the evaluation of the indicator of generated ideas, solutions, innovations. Most respondents considered it satisfactory or average. Only less than 5% of students from Poland and 4% of students from Romania did not share the opinion of the majority.

As the survey results show, half of the respondents have experience in working in multicultural teams. Therefore, one of the questions concerned the knowledge of foreign languages which are essential in intercultural communication. The results are presented in Figure 2.6.

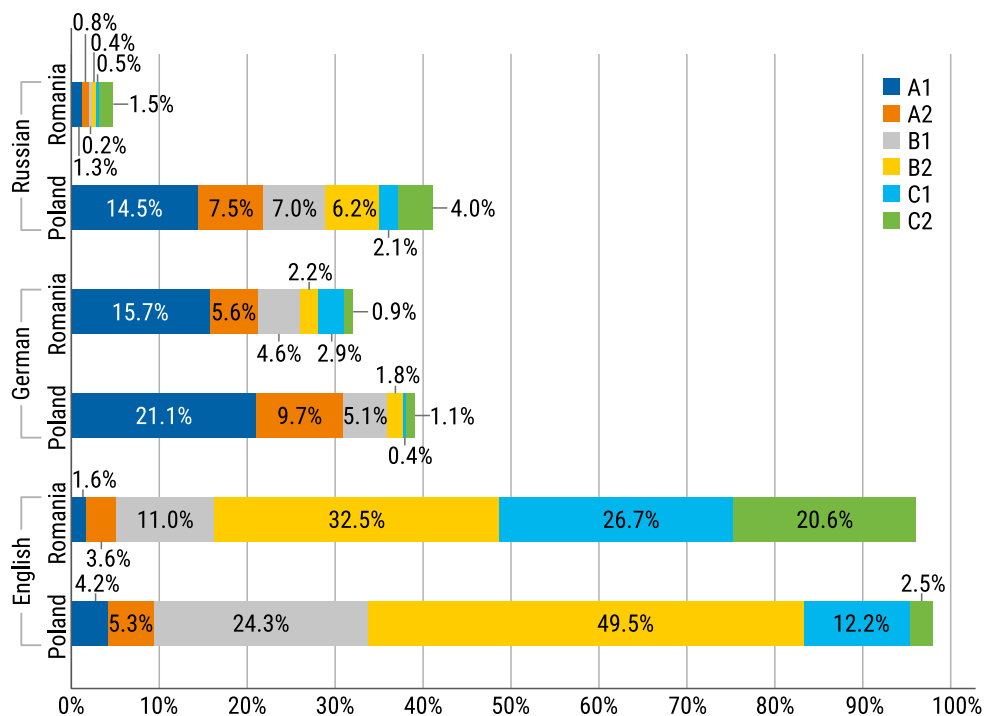


FIGURE 2.6. Assessment of language skills

SOURCE: own elaboration.

The comparison shows that students from Romania speak English slightly better than students from Poland. Almost 21% of respondents speak it at C2 level, almost 27% – at C1 level, and more than 32% – at B2 level. In the case of respondents from Poland only slightly more than 2% speak English at C2 level and 12% at C1 level. Almost half of the respondents assess their skills at B2 level and a little over 24% at B1 level. Both groups speak German to a similar degree, while Russian is more popular among Polish than Romanian students.

Students were also asked to what extent they agree with statements on leadership. They assessed fifteen statements. Table 2.7 presents statistically significant differences and Table 2.8 – percentage breakdown.

TABLE 2.7. Statistically significant differences in leadership qualities

Variable	U statistics	Z statistics	p level
I set specific objectives in the context of my own achievements	491413.0	-2.3962	0.016567
I work on specific objectives that I have set myself	457425.5	-4.8576	0.000001
I think about the objectives I intend to achieve in the future	474774.5	-3.5211	0.000430
I try to judge the correctness of my own beliefs about situations I have problems with	454892.0	-4.9710	0.000001
I openly express and evaluate my assumptions when I disagree with someone else	510504.0	-0.6816	0.495507
I think about my beliefs and assumptions and I judge them	480019.5	-3.0495	0.002293
I make a point to keep track of how well I'm doing at work (school)	504533.0	1.3758	0.168874
I usually am aware of how well I'm doing as I perform an activity	512236.5	0.5515	0.581281
I keep track of my progress on projects I'm working on	459916.0	4.2468	0.000022
When I do my job successfully, I reward myself with something I like	332630.0	-13.9726	0.000000
I focus on the pleasant, not the unpleasant aspects of my work (in school)	450574.5	-5.1044	0.000000
When I have a choice, I try to do my job the way I like it	436543.0	6.1967	0.000000
I look for activities in my work that I like to do	502624.0	1.3142	0.188783
I use written notes to remember what I need to achieve	514059.0	-0.2891	0.772472
I use specific reminders (e.g. notes and letters) to focus on what I need to achieve	509663.0	-0.5782	0.563120

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Statistically significant differences were observed in relation to the nine statements. These included goal-setting in terms of achievements, work on their implementation, analysis, evaluation of the correctness of beliefs, progress, rewards related to the achievement of objectives, positive aspects of work and freedom to perform tasks. However, no differences were found in the case of having a different opinion from the rest of the team, attaching importance to achievements, self-awareness of the quality of work, searching for activities adequate to the possibilities and tastes, taking notes related to plans and achievements.

TABLE 2.8. Percentage breakdown of leadership qualities

Variable	Country	1 - strongly disagree	2 - I rather disagree	3 - I have no opinion	4 - I rather agree	5 - I strongly agree
I set specific objectives in the context of my own achievements	Poland	2.3%	4.5%	16.2%	45.4%	31.5%
	Romania	0.3%	1.2%	13.8%	53.1%	31.6%
I work on specific objectives that I have set myself	Poland	0.8%	5.0%	14.3%	45.0%	35.0%
	Romania	0.3%	0.8%	9.0%	48.0%	42.0%
I think about the objectives I intend to achieve in the future	Poland	1.2%	3.9%	12.8%	38.2%	43.8%
	Romania	0.1%	0.9%	7.3%	43.9%	47.8%
I try to judge the correctness of my own beliefs about situations I have problems with	Poland	1.5%	2.9%	15.7%	51.5%	28.4%
	Romania	0.1%	1.7%	12.4%	47.2%	38.6%
I openly express and evaluate my assumptions when I disagree with someone else	Poland	1.1%	52%	19.0%	47.7%	27.0%
	Romania	0.4%	1.6%	22.3%	48.4%	27.2%
I think about my beliefs and assumptions and I judge them	Poland	1.2%	2.9%	17.6%	51.6%	26.7%
	Romania	0.2%	1.6%	15.4%	50.8%	32.0%
I make a point to keep track of how well I'm doing at work (school)	Poland	1.4%	1.9%	13.8%	42.2%	40.7%
	Romania	0.5%	1.7%	16.8%	43.4%	37.5%
I am usually aware of how well I'm doing as I perform an activity	Poland	0.9%	2.9%	12.4%	46.3%	37.5%
	Romania	0.0%	1.4%	14.3%	49.3%	35.0%
I keep track of my progress on projects I'm working on	Poland	1.6%	2.5%	14.0%	44.5%	37.4%
	Romania	0.2%	3.4%	20.3%	48.1%	28.0%

Variable	Country	1- strongly disagree	2 - I rather disagree	3 - I have no opinion	4 - I rather agree	5 - I strongly agree
When I do my job successfully, I reward myself with something I like	Poland	4.5%	18.6%	22.6%	33.7%	20.5%
	Romania	0.4%	5.2%	14.5%	35.0%	44.9%
I focus on the pleasant, not the unpleasant aspects of my work (in school)	Poland	3.0%	12.5%	28.1%	36.7%	19.7%
	Romania	1.1%	6.3%	26.6%	40.6%	25.4%
When I have a choice, I try to do my job the way I like it	Poland	1.1%	3.1%	12.4%	43.3%	40.1%
	Romania	0.2%	3.7%	21.7%	47.4%	27.0%
I look for activities in my work that I like to do	Poland	0.8%	3.3%	15.0%	40.2%	40.7%
	Romania	1.1%	2.4%	14.4%	46.6%	35.6%
I use written notes to remember what I need to achieve	Poland	5.5%	10.3%	14.4%	33.2%	36.7%
	Romania	3.1%	9.0%	18.7%	32.8%	36.4%
I use specific reminders (e.g. notes and letters) to focus on what I need to achieve	Poland	6.1%	11.2%	15.2%	34.3%	33.3%
	Romania	3.6%	9.6%	22.1%	29.4%	35.3%

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Both students from Poland and Romania considered it important to set goals in the context of their achievements. Only 16% of Poles and about 14% of Romanians had no opinion. The same was the case with the statement concerning work on achieving a given objective. Still, respondents from Romania – 92% – more than the Polish respondents – 82% – stated that they spend relatively a lot of time thinking about the goals they intend to achieve in the future. They analogously referred to the assessment of the correctness of beliefs about problematic issues. The same percentage of Poles as well as Romanians admitted to openly expressing and evaluating their own assumptions regardless of the opinions of others – 75%, while 19% of Poles and 22% of Romanians had no opinion, and about 6% of Poles and only 2% of Romanians considered that this should not be done. The representatives of both groups leaned towards reflective thinking and paying attention to the effects of work. A slightly higher percentage of Poles – 82% – than Romanians – 76% – considered that they followed the progress of the projects they were working on. The opposite situation occurred in the case of rewarding for successful completion of a task. Almost 80% of respondents from Romania and slightly more than 50% of respondents from Poland considered that they do it. Students

from Romania also had a greater ability to focus on the pleasant aspects of their work. As many as 17% of Poles stressed that they were not able to do so and 28% had no opinion. In the case of respondents from Romania, only 7% had a negative opinion. Both Polish and Romanian students showed great freedom in choosing how to perform a given task. No special differences were also observed in the case of taking notes and using different ways of being reminded about the performance of specific tasks that bring the goal closer.

The survey involved not only students, but teachers as well. Their observations concerning predispositions and experiences related to work in multicultural teams are presented in Tables 2.9 – 2.12.

TABLE 2.9. Statistically significant differences in the experience of academics working in multicultural teams

Variable	U statistics	Z statistics	p level
I believe that my contribution to the team's success was very important	891.000	4.65718	0.000003
Other members of my team/from my university asked me for advice when task specific problems occurred	1249.500	2.75016	0.005957
In difficult situations, the success of my team depended especially on my contribution	1549.500	-1.15432	0.248370
I felt capable to accomplish my tasks within my team work	1027.500	3.93107	0.000085
For each problem that arouse out of my teamwork, I could find a solution	1248.000	2.75813	0.005814
If a new task arises from my teamwork, I know how to handle it	853.500	4.85666	0.000001
I can discuss task-related difficulties with each of the other members of my team	918.000	4.51355	0.000006
I can share my ideas, feelings, and expectations with each of the other members of my team	873.000	4.75293	0.000002
The members of my team fulfilled their tasks at a high competence level	1135.500	3.35657	0.000789

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Academic teachers from Poland and Romania differed in their opinions on the experience of working in multicultural teams. Only in the case of one statement referring to decisions made by respondents in difficult situations, which later translated into the success of the team, no statistically significant differences were observed. Table 2.10 presents detailed percentage indications.

TABLE 2.10. Percentages of academic teachers' experience in working in multicultural teams

Variable	Country	1 – strongly disagree	2 – I rather disagree	3 – I have no opinion	4 – I rather agree	5 – strongly agree
I believe that my contribution to the team's success was very important	Poland	0.0%	6.5%	17.7%	58.1%	17.7%
	Romania	5.3%	10.5%	68.4%	0.0%	15.8%
Other members of my team/from my university asked me for advice when task specific problems occurred	Poland	3.2%	9.7%	21.0%	45.2%	21.0%
	Romania	5.3%	5.3%	68.4%	0.0%	21.1%
In difficult situations, the success of my team depended especially on my contribution	Poland	9.7%	25.8%	46.8%	9.7%	8.1%
	Romania	5.3%	15.8%	63.2%	0.0%	15.8%
I felt capable to accomplish my tasks within my team work	Poland	0.0%	1.6%	4.8%	61.3%	32.3%
	Romania	0.0%	5.3%	63.2%	0.0%	31.6%
For each problem that arouse out of my teamwork, I could find a solution	Poland	0.0%	3.2%	38.7%	45.2%	12.9%
	Romania	0.0%	10.5%	68.4%	0.0%	21.1%
If a new task arises from my teamwork, I know how to handle it	Poland	0.0%	0.0%	14.5%	67.7%	17.7%
	Romania	5.3%	5.3%	68.4%	0.0%	21.1%
I can discuss task-related difficulties with each of the other members of my team	Poland	0.0%	3.2%	14.5%	64.5%	17.7%
	Romania	5.3%	10.5%	63.2%	0.0%	21.1%
I can share my ideas, feelings, and expectations with each of the other members of my team	Poland	0.0%	6.5%	19.4%	51.6%	22.6%
	Romania	5.3%	15.8%	63.2%	0.0%	15.8%
The members of my team fulfilled their tasks on a high competence level	Poland	0.0%	4.8%	25.8%	58.1%	11.3%
	Romania	5.3%	5.3%	68.4%	0.0%	21.1%

SOURCE: own elaboration.

The research shows that teachers from Poland in the vast majority – 76% – compared to teachers from Romania – 16% – were convinced of their own influence on the success of the team. In the case of respondents from Romania, for each question, 60% – 70% could not give a definite answer. The majority of Poles stressed – 65% – that they were asked for advice on issues that caused complications. Only 21% of Romanians were of the same opinion. Respondents from both countries did not attribute the success of the whole team to themselves. Still, 94% of respondents from Poland and 32% from Romania considered that they were doing well with the execution of entrusted tasks and similarly, with finding a solution in a new or problematic situation. The respondents’ answers show that cooperation in multicultural teams was more satisfactory in case of Polish lecturers. Respondents from Poland rated the competence of their team much better than respondents from Romania. They much more appreciated the level of communication and relationship building.

Another issue concerned the assessment of teachers’ predisposition to work in multicultural teams and to act as leaders. The results are shown in Tables 2.11 and 2.12.

TABLE 2.11. Statistically significant differences in the predisposition of academic teachers to work in multicultural teams

Variable	U statistics	Z statistics	p level
I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures	768.000	5.311471	0.000000
I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me	1213.500	2.941656	0.003265
I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me	1293.000	2.518760	0.011777
I establish specific goals for my own performance	1275.000	2.205633	0.027410
I work toward specific goals I have set for myself	1626.000	-0.747383	0.454833
I think about the goals that I intend to achieve in the future	1474.500	1.553279	0.120357
I make a point to keep track of how well I’m doing at work (school)	1414.500	1.872446	0.061146
I usually am aware of how well I’m doing as I perform an activity	1596.000	-0.906966	0.364425
I keep track of my progress on projects I’m working on	1200.000	2.620746	0.008774

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Five out of nine statements found statistically significant differences. These concerned relational, adaptive, communicative aspects, setting targets and monitoring the progress in achieving them.

TABLE 2.12. Percentages of the predisposition of academic teachers to work in multicultural teams

Variable	Country	1 – I strongly disagree	2 – I rather disagree	3 – I have no opinion	4 – I rather agree	5 – I strongly agree
I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures	Poland	0.0%	6.5%	6.5%	32.3%	54.8%
	Romania	5.3%	10.5%	63.2%	0.0%	21.1%
I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me	Poland	0.0%	9.7%	11.3%	37.1%	41.9%
	Romania	0.0%	10.5%	57.9%	0.0%	31.6%
I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.	Poland	0.0%	0.0%	19.4%	51.6%	29.0%
	Romania	0.0%	10.5%	52.6%	0.0%	36.8%
I establish specific goals for my own performance	Poland	0.0%	4.8%	21.0%	50.0%	24.2%
	Romania	0.0%	11.1%	55.6%	0.0%	33.3%
I work toward specific goals I have set for myself	Poland	0.0%	8.1%	9.7%	51.6%	30.6%
	Romania	0.0%	5.3%	36.8%	0.0%	57.9%
I think about the goals that I intend to achieve in the future	Poland	0.0%	3.2%	4.8%	56.5%	35.5%
	Romania	0.0%	5.3%	47.4%	0.0%	47.4%
I make a point to keep track of how well I'm doing at work (school)	Poland	0.0%	1.6%	1.6%	61.3%	35.5%
	Romania	5.3%	5.3%	42.1%	0.0%	47.4%
I usually am aware of how well I'm doing as I perform an activity	Poland	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%	58.1%	40.3%
	Romania	0.0%	5.3%	26.3%	0.0%	68.4%
I keep track of my progress on projects I'm working on	Poland	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	61.3%	38.7%
	Romania	0.0%	11.1%	44.4%	0.0%	44.4%

SOURCE: own elaboration.

As regards the first statement concerning the sense of having contact with people from other cultures, 87% of Poles and only 21% of Romanians described it as positive. Respondents also differed significantly in their assessment of their ability to establish contacts and adapt to the realities of other cultures. Polish lecturers were optimistic about this issue. However, most respondents from Romania had no opinion. In general, both research groups considered that they rather set themselves goals they

intend to achieve. In the case of declarations about focusing on the effects of work in the course of performing tasks, teachers from Romania were divided – 47% considered that they were doing it, and almost the second group had no opinion. Teachers from Poland were unanimous – 97% were positive. Most of the surveyed people were aware of the quality of work done. Teachers from Poland were more inclined to monitor the effects than those from Romania.

According to the Social Identity Theory (SIT), attitudes towards strangers are influenced by the very classification of a person to their own group (in-group) or to a foreign group (out-group) (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). This dichotomous division between own and foreign leads to numerous cognitive distortions, such as: extreme attribution error (Pettigrew, 2001) and, above all, favouring members of his/her own group and depreciating members of a foreign group (Brewer & Miller, 1996). That is why a leader's attitude is very important. It is a model for addressing diversity; whether it is an open approach, aimed at getting to know each other and seeking advantage on the basis of the observed differences, or rather distrustful, or even emphasising the dominance of a group, or perhaps disregarding the problem of cultural heterogeneity. The leader should advocate development, have a prospective attitude to the future, encourage team members to work together, adopt a task-based attitude, focus on goals that eliminate differences and barriers (Stańda, 2003).

2.3. Team management in learning and work structures

In the latest approaches of education management, there is a strong emphasize on the idea that groups, and not individuals, lie at the foundation of teaching and learning. Most often, the learning processes and work in organizations are not carried out in isolation, but within a collaborative environment, where members have to adjust to their colleagues' learning and working style or requirements. This requires more than just exploring and understanding their perspective, given that group work entails a two-sided change in behaviors to achieve success in the teamwork process.

Features such as common goals, direct or mediated interaction among members, membership to the group and recognition of the group by others are elements which turn a mere crowd of people into a social group. On the background of group dynamics and interactions relations of influence and mutual attraction develop, which leave a mark on the group results. The group's psychological and social power reflects on the pressure and influence it exercises on group members, in the reward and penalty schemes established formally or informally in the group. The group becomes a social entity which stimulates or discourages individual behaviors (Millon & Lerner, 2003).

In a labor environment, a group of two or more individuals who share a goal and support each other to fulfill a task in their own responsibility area, can form the learning group or the work group. These are sub-divisions of the social groups.

Both learning and work groups can be created at the initiative of the teaching coordinator or management, as part of the formal organizational structure, or they can emerge naturally and informally at the initiative of its future members. Work group members work individually, not together, so that the group performance can match the individual performances of its members (Robbins 2005, p. 273).

To increase work efficiency, teams gained ground in the organization of the work in contemporary enterprises (McGreevy, 2006; O'Neill & Salas, 2018; Akan et al., 2020). Moreover, teams are an integral element of effective organizations (Mathieu et al., 2017) due to their flexible, interactive and dynamic characteristics (Richter et al., 2006). A team is a task- and action-oriented group, with interdependent relations between its members with complementary skills, which self-manages the work activity in order to pursue and meet objectives together (Jha, 2019). In general, teams perform better due to team interaction and synergy (group dynamics, members' combined forces).

Formal and informal groups

People are simultaneously part of several groups, which can be work groups, various associations, parent committees, sport teams, and minority groups.

As for group categories, we can distinguish between formal groups and informal groups (Hussein, 1990). At the organizational structure level, *formal groups* are created to serve specific organizational objectives. Individuals' membership to groups is made based on pre-defined roles within the organizational structure, objectives are prevalently defined by management and the group's activity is guided by a set of organizational rules and regulations. Although the membership of a formal group changes from time to time, and sometimes it is created only temporarily, they generally tend to have stability. The difference between formal groups is given by the nature of the work task, methods and technological equipment, and members' position in the organization.

At the level of the informal structure of the organization, *informal groups* emerge without management intervention. They rely mainly on interpersonal relationships and members' mutual agreement, being aimed first and foremost to satisfy members' social needs. and not necessarily the work tasks to be completed.

Generally, informal and formal groups do not overlap within an organization, and they can include individuals from different departments or from different hierarchical levels. Shared interests, passions and affinities make individuals gather in informal groups. Since informal groups could impact heavily on work outcomes, consideration should be given to their fitness or unfitness for the organization objectives.

Group values and rules

Working together, individuals tend to adjust their work style to the others, developing a set of norms and values embraced by everybody. All organizations develop sets of norms which are carried forward by the group, in relation to dress code, loyalty, and manner.

Group norms are shared perceptions and expectations about the manner in which work should be carried out, work methods, workload to be completed or attitude towards work. Shaping expectancy about how individuals should behave, norms are paramount for determining each member's commitment, performances and attitude to change. Norms are formed only for matters which are of certain significance to the group and differ in the degree to which the group members support them (Johnson & Johnson, 2002).

The importance and influence exercised by the group on individuals were highlighted as early as 1924, when Elton Mayo proved in a study at an electric power company from Hawthorne that group work managed to offset and even overcome the hardships caused by poor work conditions. At the same time, group cohesion may come into conflict with management interests. As such, in the first experiment, although work conditions were worsened, the work group members had better performances. In the second experiment, the group of workers exercised strong pressure on its members, leading to the implementation of workload relief measures, despite the financial incentives offered by management.

Once the workgroup framework is created, it behaves in a certain manner, which varies to a certain extent from the individual behavior of its members: the group develops a social system and habits; it establishes a series of restrictions; members behave consistent with the group expectations; there is pressure for the individuals to conform to the group norms; a gap appears between group members and outsiders; the group tends to perpetuate its values and group practices; group leaders emerge.

The second Hawthorne experiment revealed that the group developed its own model of informal relationships, norms and practices, which delimitate what is accepted as group behavior: at individual level, group members should not be much more productive than others, but at the same time should not be quite unproductive, and to refrain from offering insight to the management which may adversely impact on the other group members. Moreover, the group develops its own penalties for members who fail to observe the norms. As such, the importance of these shared norms on the group performance is self-evident.

Beside these norms, the group also develops a set of roles expected from each member. A *role* is a sum of behaviors and attitudes expected by the group from each member, according to his/her position in the organizational structure (Mullins, 2006, p. 279). In fact, roles correspond to positions to which are attached a behavioral model expected from the person who fulfills the respective role. For example, the person who serves as chairperson is expected to chair a meeting, to sign records, to take active part in decision-making. Depending on the group to which an individual belongs inside or outside the organization, he/she can play several roles simultaneously: head of department, colleague, trade union member, subordinate.

The roles fulfilled by individuals within the organization are influenced both by situational factors (job duties, leadership style, type of communication network),

and personal factors (personal values, attitudes, motivation, personality traits). Beside the formal roles existing in an organization, which are generated by the division of work, an organizational environment also features roles which satisfy social and emotional needs., such as the clown, gossip, sportsperson, etc.

There is a set of attitudes and behaviors consistent with a given role, which forms the *role identity*, and individuals can switch from one role to another according to the situation. The same individual, when fulfilling a certain team role, can display a different attitude in the negotiations between the leaders and the former colleagues.

Role expectancies represent what others consider to be situation-appropriate behavior. The manner in which people behave in a certain context depends greatly on the role attached to the respective situation. The matter of expectancy is closely related with that of psychological contract. It consists of an unwritten agreement between the individual and the group and entails mutual expectations as to each one's behavior. For example, the members are expected to observe the instructions from the leader, to engage actively in his/her activity, to be loyal to the team, while the instructor is expected to reward performance fairly, to be understanding of members' personal issues, to communicate requirements clearly.

The fact that an individual can fulfill several roles increases the likelihood of role conflict. If an individual faces role expectancies which are different or incompatible with his/her role, he/she is in a *role conflict*: a team leader is both the representative of each member's interests in the negotiations with management, and at the same time, as subordinate to the head of department, he/she must assume the interests related to the performance of the organization.

Another issue related to organizational roles is *role ambiguity*. It occurs in situations where individuals are in doubt about the objectives of their role, work methods are unclear, work responsibilities are poorly defined, the limits of authority for their positions are unclear, there is uncertainty about the manner in which they should act.

Starting from group roles, in the following sub-chapters we will detail the importance of roles that can be assumed by a team member.

Group vs teams

While all teams are groups, not all work groups are or evolve into genuine teams. A number of individuals who work together are not necessarily a team. The literature reveals numerous definitions of groups, teams and other forms of collectivity, developed over time. These definitions suggest a distinction between what a group and a team . The concept of "group" is considered as being more inclusive than the term of "team". While groups may include a large number of people, even hundreds., teams include a smaller number of members (Levi, 2001). However, a team is not just a simple juxtaposition of individuals belonging to one group or acting together in one place. A number of individuals who share the same workspace do not necessarily form a team. In this line, other authors considered that a team is a group category with a series of distinguishing features.

Although a clear distinction between groups and teams is not always straightforward, in his attempt to define the team, Holpp (1997, p. 47) raises a series of questions: “Are teams natural work groups or certain task oriented groups?”, “Are they self-managing or managed from outside?”, “How many persons can be part of a team?”, “How do teams integrate into the organizational structure?”, “Why do we need teams?”

The main elements which transform a work group into a team are:

- Team synergy: unlike groups, in teams work productivity is enhanced by the interaction, interdependence and mutual help between members. Team members cooperate, channel their efforts voluntarily to meet the agreed objectives, and each member’s results depend on the results of the others;
- Objectives: although group members can have common goals arising from similar interests, in pursuing such goals the group simply shares information, each member following its own “work agenda”. Conversely, in a team the pursuit of a goal is doubled by the common vision on objectives, and by collective performance;
- Members’ competences: teams involve complementary competences, aimed to enhance each other’s skills, acknowledging that team performance depends on the performance of each member.
- Adair’s (2002) statement summarizes very well these elements: “a team is made up, like a jig saw puzzle, of complementary parts fitting perfectly together” (McGreevy, 2006).
- Other differences between groups and teams are highlighted by Belbin, a renowned theoretician of group work, who lists a series of factors which distinguish teams from groups (Mullins, 2006):
- Number of members: groups can include an unlimited number of members, while teams are generally smaller in size. If the group of all individuals from an entity can include a high number of individuals, a team is regularly smaller. This enables smooth coordination and efficient interaction across the team;
- Leadership: while groups are generally led by a single and stable leader (either formal or informal), within a team leadership is assumed by the whole team and shared among members, depending on the work task to be completed. As such, depending on members’ skills and the requirements of the task, any team member can become leader at some point during the activity;
- Membership and selection of new members: the selection of team members is much more important, while with groups selection is not paramount for its existence. Knowing the requirements of the project to be completed, the selection of a work team will include members with complementary skills;
- Vision: teams share a common perception of things, a common vision and a clear sense of direction and purpose. Conversely, groups are leader-oriented most often. Although group identity exists, and group members define themselves as belonging to the group, that common vision of the goals to be attained is missing in groups;

- Style of action and interrelations: teams are action-oriented and coordination roles are distributed among members, team members have a greater degree of independence and interdependence. On the other hand, in groups there is a stronger convergence to conformity, submission to the group norms. The dynamic team interaction and stimulation of member initiatives are counterbalanced in group by the penalties applied to non-conformity;
- Moreover, team members do not compete against each other. The goal of the team is to obtain the expected results, without crediting the results to a single member: the entire team assumes success or failure. The idea of team is undermined if members pursue their own interests to the detriment of others (for example, the heads of department in a business unit do not form a team if they are only interested in the success of its own team/department). A team acts coherently, overlooking the position filled by each of the individuals within the team and the interests that these individuals are defending, pursuing the ultimate objectives.

If we consider teams as mere groups subordinated to a manager, then the difference between teams and groups is negligible; however, if teams manage to empower themselves and share knowledge while supporting each other to complete a task, then teams are key structures for an organization.

The relation between team members is of interdependence, each of them playing roles which are interchangeable and assumed depending on the others' activity and the nature of the task to be completed. In a team, member cohesion is high, with solid interaction, mutual support and common vision. In fact, recent conceptualizations on what a team is highlight better the interdependence of work teams and the existence of the teams in an organizational context that influence their effectiveness (Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp & Gilson, 2008). For instance, Kozlowski & Bell (2003, p. 334) defined work teams as "collectives who exist to perform organizationally relevant tasks, share one or more common goals, interact socially, exhibit task interdependencies, maintain and manage boundaries, and are embedded in an organizational context that sets boundaries, constrains the team, and influences exchanges with other units in the broader entity". Similarly, Kozlowski & Ilgen (2006) define a team as "(a) two or more individuals who (b) socially interact (face-to-face or, increasingly, virtually); (c) possess one or more common goals; (d) are brought together to perform organizationally relevant tasks; (e) exhibit interdependencies with respect to workflow, goals, and outcomes; (f) have different roles and responsibilities; and (g) are together embedded in an encompassing organizational system, with boundaries and linkages to the broader system context and task environment". Furthermore, to better delimitate work groups from teams, some authors highlighted certain differences between these forms of organization. For instance, Arthur Pell (1999) provided the following differences between traditional work groups and an efficient team:

TABLE 2.13. Differences between traditional work groups and an efficient team

Traditional work groups	Efficient teams
The supervisor dominates and controls the group	The leader takes the role of facilitator and coach
Objectives are defined by the organization	Objectives are defined by team members
Supervisors assign and distribute tasks	The teams plan and distribute tasks
Focus on individual performance	Focus on team performance
Group members compete with each other	Team members cooperate to complete tasks
Communication is mostly unidirectional, from the supervisor to group members	Communication is bidirectional, from and towards the leader
Decisions are mainly made by the supervisor or the informal group leader	Decisions are made in consultation with the entire team
Each member thinks individually, without sharing a common perception of things	The team shares a vision and a common set of values (openness, honesty, mutual respect, trust, equal participation)

SOURCE: (Pell, 1999).

Importance of teams

The evolution of organizations over time has shown evidence that the competitive edge is given not only by state-of-the-art logistics, but also by an efficient management of teamwork and a team mindset of labor. If three decades ago the introduction of team-based production was considered an unexpected decision, nowadays the oddity is the organization which does not operate with team structures.

The flattening trend of organizational structures enhances more and more the interdependence between various departments. This phenomenon compels more efficient collaboration between the members of an organization, a goal which can be attained by means of improving teamwork.

The reasons which require the formation of team structures lie both at organization and individual level.

At the organizational level, the most frequent explanation for the rapid escalation of teamwork refers to the fact that in most circumstances, team performance is better than the sum of performances of team members, especially when performance requires multiple competences, expertise and different perspectives. In many contemporary organizations, work has become complex enough to generate the shift from the traditional forms of work organization focused on individuals to those that imply the use of teams at all hierarchical levels (DeChurch & Mesmer-Magnus, 2010; Knapp, 2010; Salas, Cooke & Rosen, 2008; Zaccaro, Marks & DeChurch, 2012). The successful accomplishment of complex work tasks requires an individual to have a large knowledge and different skills. Thus, team members become more dependent on others

and the context where they work (Cummings & Ancona, 2005). Literature suggests that work teams can effectively respond to the pressures generated by the work environment. The ever-changing external circumstances urge the formation of as flexible as possible organizational structures. Organizations concluded that teams are more flexible and open to organizational change than traditional departments or other permanent forms of groups. As opposed to the rigidity of organizational departments, team-based structures provide a higher degree of adaptability to new tasks. Moreover, external demands require the execution of complex tasks, which need teams formed of diversely qualified members, who can gather quickly to solve a factual problem, and then re-group as quickly to form other project teams.

The labor force competition between organizations to recruit and retain the best applicants increased the importance of teams. From this point of view, teams represent an efficient way to motivate individuals and contribute to the creation of harmonious learning and work environments. The formation of groups and teams is in the first place a result of the division of work and a way to meet individuals' social needs. In this manner, teams become a structure with a motivating role, as well as a means of democratization in the organization. A team represents a motivational stimulus for participants with membership to a team smoothing individual participation to the decision-making process.

Teams have a lot of benefits for the organizations in which they are embedded (Chirică, 1996; Gil, Alcover, & Peiró, 2005; Piña, Martínez & Martínez, 2008; Wiedow & Konradt, 2011) and to their individual members (Levi, 2001). A survey conducted of 230 human resource managers showed that following implementation of teamwork, productivity increased in 77% of the companies, 72% reported quality improvement, work satisfaction improved in 65% and customer satisfaction in 55% of the companies (Eales-White, 2004).

When it comes to the individual, there are several reasons why individuals adhere to a group. The fact that each individual is a part, or a member of several groups at the same time shows that they benefit the individual in different ways. The main benefits derived by individuals' membership to various groups are:

- Security – membership to a group can relieve individuals' sense of insecurity, they feel stronger and more resistant to threats. Moreover, psychological safety, defined as a shared belief that members are safe to take interpersonal risk (Edmondson, 1999) creates a lever through which team members can openly discuss task problems and concerns, share opinions, exchange information and problem solutions;
- Status – membership of a group can confer social status or recognition for its members;
- Self-confidence – recognition of each member's personal value by the group can increase an individual's self-esteem;
- Affiliation – through the social system they create, groups can satisfy the individual's sense of belonging. These feelings of team members belonging to a greater

whole, provide internal feedback and motivation to develop skills that are needed in enlarged tasks (Huusko, 2006);

- Power – membership of a group offers an individual the support of the other members, which is associated with a deeper sense of power;
- Goal achievement – in circumstances where completion of a task requires the participation of several persons or the expertise of the group, it can speed up the achievement of the targeted objective.
- Other authors stated that the main benefits of teamwork relate to:
- Synergy: members' interaction generates better results than the sum of members' individual results;
- Creativity boost: a single individual can hardly compete against the host of original ideas that can be generated by a goal-oriented group; also, the implementation of work teams is expected to contribute to a greater adaptability, efficiency and innovation compared to what individual employees can deliver (Savelsbergh et al., 2010);
- Channels several members' efforts: since many activities are too complex to be performed by a single person, the coordination of a higher number of individuals' activity can be more easily coordinated if they are organized in teams;
- Team members get to know each other.

However, teams are not always the solution to the issues faced by an organization. Although teams and teamwork add value in general, they also entail a series of limitations, and their formation and efficient operation can encounter many obstacles. For example, Chang, Bordia & Duck (2003) stated in their study that teams tend to procrastinate more on tasks than do individuals. Furthermore, teams and groups are not a panacea and risk free (Chirică, 1996; Paulus & Vam der Zee, 2004; Recardo, Wade, Mention III & Jolly, 1996). They can generate negative consequences (Chirică, 1999). There are entities which need a strong leader, or where the individuals are not prepared to be part of a work team, hence the transformation of a group into a team could lead to adverse consequences on members' performance. Consequently, according to the nature of the task to be completed and the particularities of the available human resources, it is necessary to resort to team-based structures especially when:

- A new approach to objectives is in order;
- The task to be completed requires human resources with heterogeneous qualifications and expertise;
- The organizational culture requires individuals' commitment and involvement;
- The management assumes the values of a team-based culture;
- The task to be completed is complex and entails a diverse assembly of subtasks and requirements;
- To be successfully completed, tasks require performers' interaction (communication, cooperation, exchange of information).

2.4. Challenges in managing and operating a multicultural team

The main challenges in managing a multicultural team include: communication problems, language barriers, hypothetical lack of acceptance (e.g. resulting from the gender of the manager – lack of tolerance for women as superiors), attitude towards working time (clear reluctance to all kinds of shifts or excessive acceptance of delays). It is also a serious mistake to assume that everyone is similar enough to communicate with one another without difficulty. Communication is a cultural product and is shaped by the society in which we were brought up. Hall made a distinction between high and low-context cultures. Cultures differ in the way in which they concretise the object of cognition. A high contextual character means that in cultures of that type, particular attention is paid to issues related to professional or social position. There is a high degree of ritualization of human relations, it is important to use academic titles and focus on performed functions. It is even tempting to state that these cultures are characterized by a certain degree of conservatism in interpersonal interactions. On the other hand, cultures with a low level of contextuality are characterized by much less ceremonialism and ritualization. Social and professional positions are not so clearly emphasised. Representatives of these cultures move quite quickly to “you” terms with their business partners, which can sometimes be perceived as excessive familiarity (Hall, 2001). The process of communication in high-context cultures refers to the environment, tradition. Allusions, overtones and indirect messages play an important role. In low-context cultures, the message itself, its directness and freedom of interpretation are more important.

Different expectations may also reduce the effectiveness of meetings. This applies to another division into monochronic and polychronic cultures proposed by Hall. The representatives of the monochronous culture prefer to follow the previously adopted plan. They strive for its execution step by step. On the other hand, representatives of polychronic cultures believe that the plan kills creativity (Hall, 2003).

Cultural differences make it difficult to see the ambiguity of some messages, and even often cause some of them to be ignored. Another difficulty is misinterpretation of non-verbal signals which constitute a significant part of conveyed messages. Stereotypes and unavoidable prejudices also have a negative impact on the correct reception of co-respondents. In addition, they encourage the formulation of evaluating judgments, unfavourable assessments, which results in a lack of trust. Therefore, the selection of people for the team should be based on the candidate’s adequately educated cultural competences (Fig. 2.7).



FIGURE 2.7. Competences necessary for cooperation in multicultural teams
SOURCE: own elaboration.

The competences necessary for cooperation in multicultural teams consist of three components: motivation, knowledge and communication skills. The motivation sphere concerns the willingness and readiness to cooperate with representatives of other cultures. Knowledge refers to such areas as: behavioural, language, physical artefacts, values, basic assumptions, tradition. Many problems in multicultural teams result not so much from the existence of differences, but from their insufficient consideration. Team members need to reflect on the emergence of these problems in order to work out how to deal with them. It is necessary to be able to translate the aforementioned knowledge into appropriate behaviour. In a broader context, intercultural relations enrich and expand cultures that communicate with each other. This is a mutually beneficial phenomenon and its positive effect is, among other things, the creation of a new territory of reciprocity (Rozkwitalska, 2012). Therefore, one of the questions addressed to the students referred to the above issues (Table 2.14).

TABLE 2.14. Statistically significant differences in skills and predispositions for working in multicultural teams

Variable	U statistics	Z statistics	p level
language skills	530233.5	0.37051	0.711003
knowledge of other cultures	414214.0	-8.51231	0.000000
openness	522808.5	0.63112	0.527964
freedom in establishing relations	380403.5	10.81815	0.000000
use of web-based ICT tools	497525.5	-2.26052	0.023790

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Statistically significant differences were found in three aspects. They concerned knowledge of other cultures, freedom in establishing contacts and using ICT tools.

Figure 2.8 illustrates percentage breakdown with regard to the role of language skills in the work of a multicultural team.

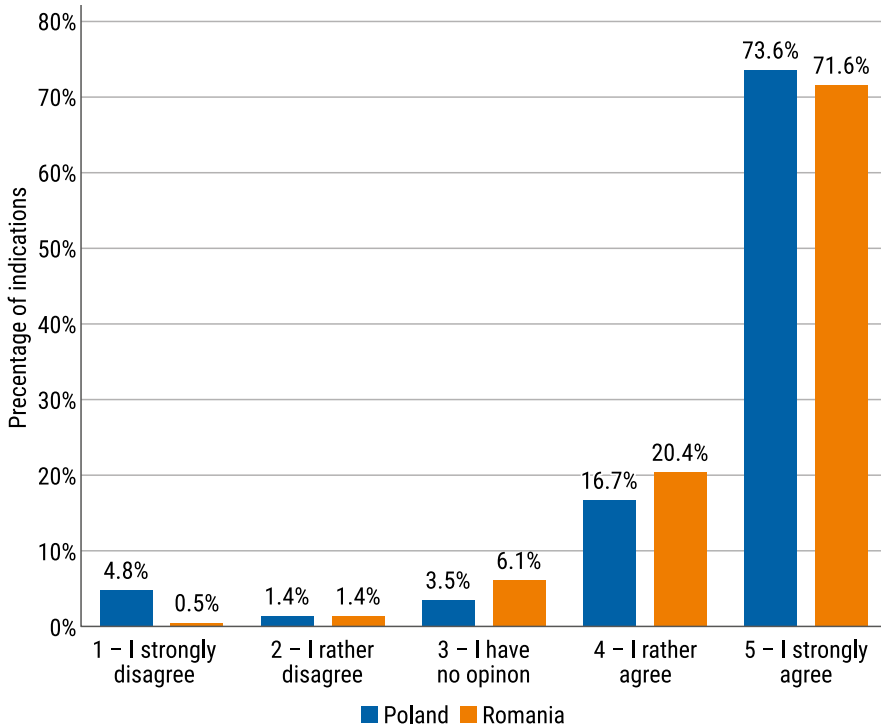


FIGURE 2.8. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that knowledge of foreign languages facilitates communication in a multicultural team

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Students from both countries agreed that knowledge of foreign languages definitely facilitates cooperation in a multicultural team. Only about 6% of Poles and 2% of Romanians were of a different opinion. Another issue related to the knowledge of other cultures (Figure 2.9).

In this case, students from Romania valued the importance of knowledge higher than students from Poland. More than 37% admitted that it definitely facilitates communication in a multicultural team, 40% said it tends to facilitate, about 19% had no opinion and slightly over 3% were negative. In the case of respondents from Poland, slightly more than 22% considered that such knowledge definitely has an important function, about 42% were of the opinion that it tends to, while 22% had no opinion and 14% underestimated its importance. The next issue concerned openness (Figure 2.10).

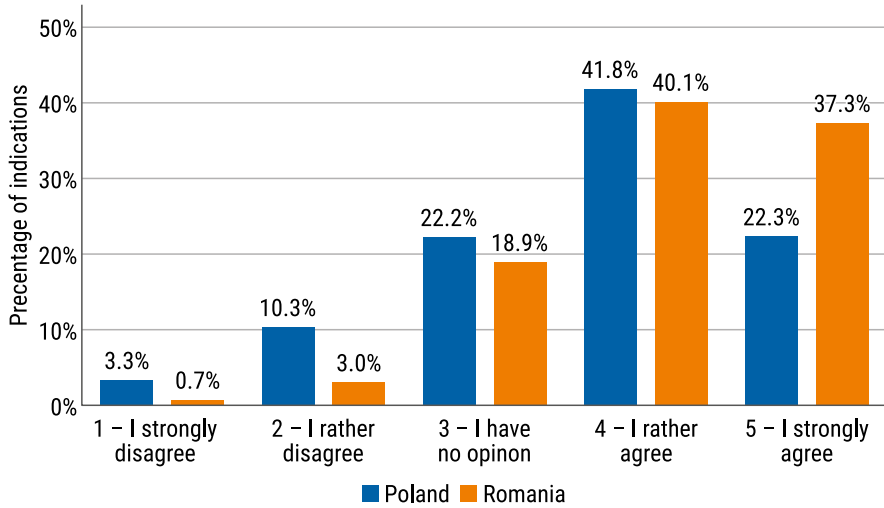


FIGURE 2.9. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that knowledge of other cultures facilitates communication in a multicultural team

SOURCE: own elaboration.

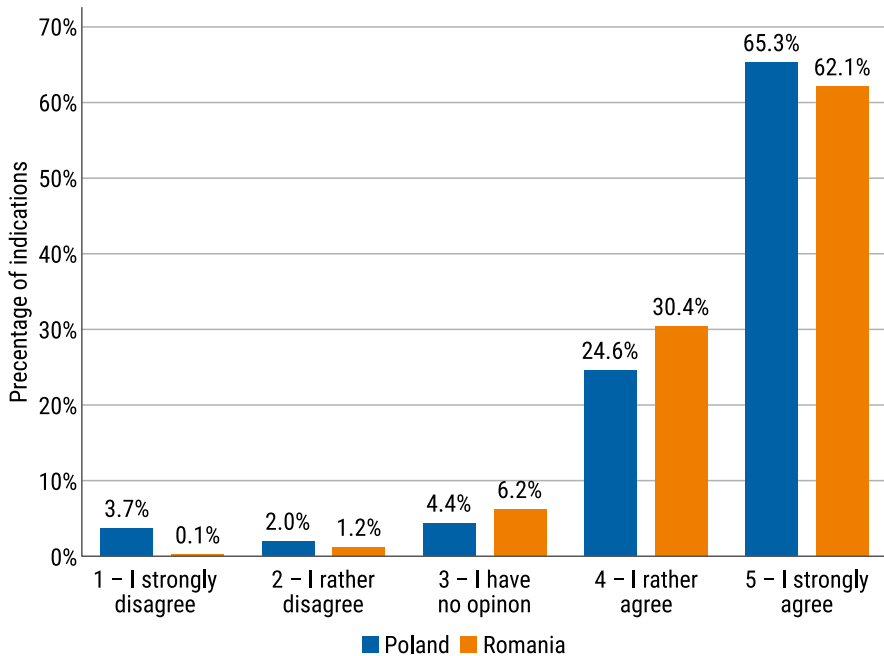


FIGURE 2.10. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that openness facilitates communication within a multicultural team

SOURCE: own elaboration.

In this case, the vast majority of respondents from both countries stated that openness facilitates communication in a multicultural team. Only a small percentage was against it. Differences appeared, however, with regard to the freedom to establish contacts (Figure 2.11).

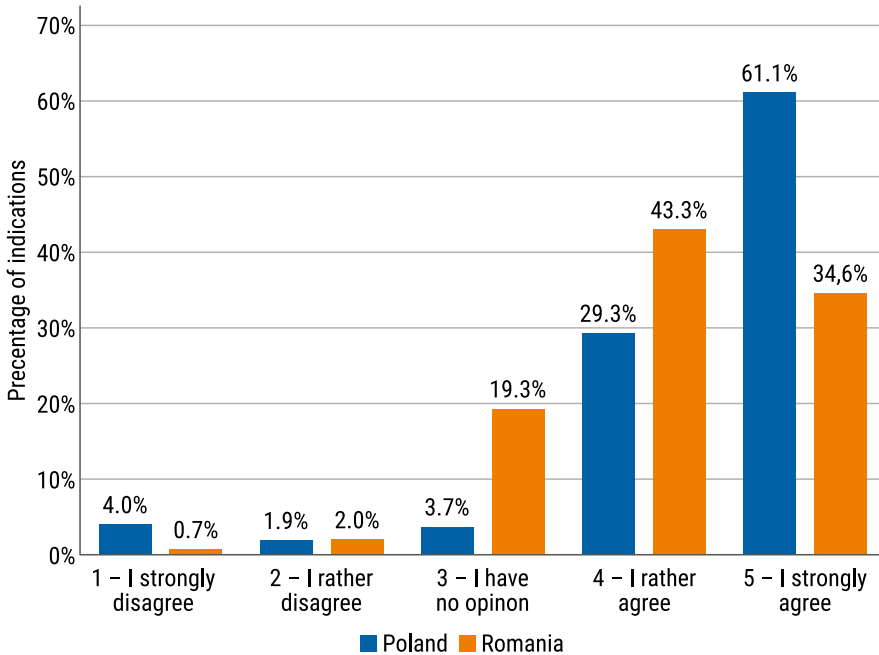


FIGURE 2.11. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that freedom to establish contacts facilitates communication within a multicultural team

SOURCE: own elaboration.

This issue proved to be much more important for respondents from Poland than from Romania. More than 90% of Polish students considered it important. About 78% of students from Romania were of the same opinion, 19% were not able to clearly define it and only a small percentage of respondents were against it.

Lastly, Figure 2.12 illustrates the issue which concerned the use of Internet tools to facilitate communication in a multicultural team.

A slightly higher percentage of respondents from Romania – 69% – than from Poland – 65% – considered it important to use ICT tools in multicultural cooperation. In both cases about 25% of students did not have an opinion. Other respondents were against it.

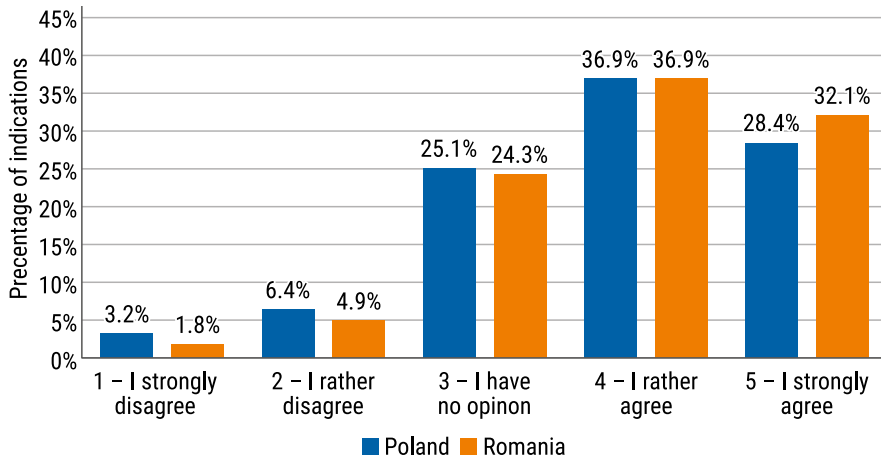


FIGURE 2.12. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that the use of web-based ICT tools facilitates communication in a multicultural team

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Another issue concerned difficulties in multicultural cooperation. In the case of seven out of twelve variables, statistically significant differences were observed and shown in Table 2.15.

TABLE 2.15. Statistically significant differences in the difficulty of working in multicultural teams

Variable	U statistics	Z statistics	p level
stereotypes and prejudices	505709.5	1.77392	0.076077
intolerance towards differences, xenophobia	472964.5	4.00598	0.000062
ethnocentrism (elevation of own culture)	449891.0	5.49632	0.000000
language barrier	473903.0	4.16680	0.000031
prior negative experience	443590.0	5.78003	0.000000
distrust towards others	434942.5	6.50206	0.000000
lack of awareness of own cultural identity	520494.5	0.18318	0.854659
lack of experience with this respect	507981.5	1.36307	0.172860
lack of competences	509935.0	1.01328	0.310926
lack of motivation	523838.0	0.26673	0.789674
differences in values, opinions, standards	492030.5	-2.39007	0.016846
time zones	469510.5	-3.52313	0.000427

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Respondents differed in their attitudes towards otherness, ethnocentrism, language barriers, the impact of previous experiences on the present, distrust, values and time zones. No discrepancies were observed in the case of stereotypes, cultural identity, competence and motivation. Table 2.16 presents detailed information.

TABLE 2.16. Percentages of difficulties in working in multicultural teams

Variable	Country	1 - I strongly disagree	2 - I rather disagree	3 - I have no opinion	4 - I rather agree	5 - I strongly agree
stereotypes and prejudices	Poland	6.0%	6.3%	14.4%	36.3%	37.0%
	Romania	2.8%	7.1%	19.2%	39.8%	31.2%
intolerance towards differences, xenophobia	Poland	4.2%	6.4%	13.7%	34.5%	41.1%
	Romania	3.7%	9.4%	20.1%	33.0%	33.8%
ethnocentrism (elevation of own culture)	Poland	4.9%	7.9%	17.9%	30.1%	39.2%
	Romania	4.7%	10.5%	23.8%	35.7%	25.4%
language barrier	Poland	3.6%	6.2%	11.4%	32.6%	46.2%
	Romania	1.9%	5.6%	22.3%	33.4%	36.8%
prior negative experience	Poland	3.2%	10.3%	26.0%	38.5%	21.9%
	Romania	4.3%	13.7%	34.2%	33.9%	13.9%
distrust towards others	Poland	2.8%	8.2%	20.1%	42.9%	26.0%
	Romania	3.2%	9.5%	33.1%	38.1%	16.1%
lack of awareness of own cultural identity	Poland	7.1%	18.2%	34.2%	26.5%	14.0%
	Romania	5.9%	18.3%	35.5%	29.4%	10.9%
lack of experience with this respect	Poland	5.4%	14.8%	27.3%	35.2%	17.3%
	Romania	4.6%	14.9%	33.1%	31.4%	16.0%
lack of competences	Poland	4.6%	14.7%	26.9%	32.3%	21.5%
	Romania	3.7%	14.8%	29.7%	33.9%	17.9%
lack of motivation	Poland	3.9%	10.3%	18.7%	36.6%	30.5%
	Romania	3.6%	9.4%	21.9%	34.6%	30.5%
differences in values, opinions, standards	Poland	5.2%	12.9%	25.6%	36.8%	19.5%
	Romania	2.7%	11.1%	25.6%	38.8%	21.8%
time zones	Poland	22.0%	29.3%	25.1%	14.7%	8.9%
	Romania	18.9%	23.1%	28.9%	19.2%	9.9%

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Students from both countries were of the opinion that stereotypes and prejudices are a big barrier in the work of a multicultural team. Slightly more Poles – about 76% – as compared to Romanians – about 67% – considered xenophobia to be a serious obstacle in contacts with people of other nationalities. The situation was similar in the case of ethnocentrism – 70% of students from Poland and a lot less, 51% of students from Romania, said it was a barrier. The lack of language skills also proved to be a greater problem for Poles than Romanians in establishing relations. As far as projecting the past into the present is concerned, slightly more than 60% of respondents from Poland considered it to be important, 26% did not have an opinion and about 13% gave negative opinions. Respondents from Romania, on the other hand, considered that pejorative experiences from the past are not so important in building multicultural relations. Less than half of the respondents attached importance to what had happened before. The lack of own cultural identity and experience was not such a big obstacle for both groups, unlike in case of lack of motivation, as 67% of Poles and 65% of Romanians considered it important. Differences in values and views evoked ambivalent feelings. About 56% of respondents from Poland and 61% of respondents from Romania considered them as significant obstacles, about 25% of both groups did not have an opinion and the rest did not attach importance to them. Different time zones proved to be the smallest barrier for both Polish and Romanian representatives.

Another question addressed to students concerned cultural knowledge and the ability to apply it (Table 2.17).

TABLE 2.17. Statistically significant differences in knowledge and skills in cooperation with representatives of other cultures

Variable	U statistics	Z statistics	p level
I am aware of the cultural knowledge I use in dealing with people from different cultural backgrounds	481941.5	-3.2606	0.001112
I adapt my cultural knowledge when I interact with people from an unknown culture	436871.0	-6.5786	0.000000
I check my cultural knowledge when I interact with people from different cultures	441516.5	-6.1956	0.000000
I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures	471360.5	3.9321	0.000084
I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures	457136.5	4.7263	0.000002
I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in other cultures	439290.5	6.2878	0.000000
I like contact with people from different cultures	379143.0	-10.6106	0.000000

Variable	U statistics	Z statistics	p level
I am convinced that I can establish contacts with representatives of a culture that is unknown to me	458897.5	-4.7093	0.000002
I am sure I can deal with the stress of adapting to a culture that is new to me	429939.0	-6.9496	0.000000
I change my verbal behaviour (e.g. accent, tone) when intercultural interaction requires it	408143.5	-8.5781	0.000000
I change the pace of my speech when the intercultural situation requires it	521768.5	-0.1715	0.863848
I change my non-verbal behaviour when the intercultural situation requires it	467974.0	-4.1075	0.000040

SOURCE: own elaboration.

The question required a response to twelve statements. Only one statement concerning the adjustment of the pace of speech to interlocutors did not show any statistically significant differences. In the remaining eleven cases, differences were observed. They concerned awareness of cultural knowledge, legal and economic issues, religion, values, non-verbal communication, skills related to establishing and maintaining intercultural contacts. Detailed information is presented in Table 2.18.

TABLE 2.18. Percentages of knowledge and skills in cooperation with representatives of other cultures

Variable	Country	1 - I strongly disagree	2 - I rather disagree	3 - I have no opinion	4 - I rather agree	5 - I strongly agree
I am aware of the cultural knowledge I use in dealing with people from different cultural backgrounds	Poland	2.9%	6.6%	28.3%	44.2%	18.0%
	Romania	0.4%	3.5%	25.9%	51.4%	18.8%
I adapt my cultural knowledge when I interact with people from an unknown culture	Poland	2.2%	7.2%	27.1%	43.3%	20.2%
	Romania	0.3%	2.2%	18.5%	53.6%	25.4%
I check my cultural knowledge when I interact with people from different cultures	Poland	2.6%	9.7%	27.8%	41.2%	18.6%
	Romania	0.9%	3.4%	22.6%	48.3%	24.7%

Variable	Country	1 - I strongly disagree	2 - I rather disagree	3 - I have no opinion	4 - I rather agree	5 - I strongly agree
I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures	Poland	10.2%	25.6%	35.3%	22.0%	6.9%
	Romania	9.6%	28.0%	47.5%	11.7%	3.2%
I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures	Poland	3.8%	10.9%	30.6%	44.3%	10.3%
	Romania	3.6%	9.3%	48.0%	31.4%	7.9%
I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviour in other cultures	Poland	7.0%	16.8%	38.4%	29.5%	8.3%
	Romania	4.9%	24.9%	49.9%	15.4%	4.8%
I like contact with people from different cultures	Poland	2.3%	6.2%	26.6%	40.0%	24.9%
	Romania	0.6%	1.4%	14.9%	38.5%	44.6%
I am convinced that I can establish contacts with representatives of a culture that is unknown to me	Poland	2.1%	7.9%	29.2%	41.7%	19.0%
	Romania	1.1%	4.1%	25.3%	44.0%	25.5%
I am sure I can deal with the stress of adapting to a culture that is new to me	Poland	2.8%	7.9%	32.6%	38.4%	18.4%
	Romania	1.6%	2.9%	22.9%	47.3%	25.3%
I change my verbal behaviour (e.g. accent, tone) when intercultural interaction requires it	Poland	5.7%	11.0%	31.8%	35.1%	16.4%
	Romania	1.2%	6.1%	23.5%	42.6%	26.7%
I change the pace of my speech when the intercultural situation requires it	Poland	3.0%	7.0%	32.2%	39.1%	18.6%
	Romania	1.7%	9.6%	31.4%	36.6%	20.6%
I change my non-verbal behaviour when the intercultural situation requires it	Poland	3.6%	6.7%	35.1%	37.6%	16.9%
	Romania	1.8%	6.2%	28.3%	41.6%	22.1%

SOURCE: own elaboration.

The majority of respondents from Romania – 70% – agreed that they were aware of the cultural knowledge they use when dealing with people from different backgrounds. The same was answered by 62% of respondents from Poland. Romanian students also mostly stated that they adapt their cultural knowledge when they interact with people from different cultures. 79% of the respondents gave a positive answer. Slightly fewer students from Poland – 63% – were of the same opinion. A similar percentage distribution of answers concerned checking the correctness of knowledge when interacting with people from different cultures. However, it was different in the case of knowledge of legal and economic systems which occur in other countries. Less than

29% of Poles and 15% of Romanians considered that they had such knowledge. Almost half of the respondents from Romania and 35% of the respondents from Poland were not able to provide a precise response. On the other hand, 38% of respondents from Romania and 36% of respondents from Poland considered that they did not know these systems. The knowledge of religious values and beliefs turned out to be slightly bigger, as 55% of the respondents from Poland and 39% of the respondents from Romania stated that they had such knowledge. Half of the respondents from Romania were not able to provide a precise response. Most of the respondents from both countries stressed that they rather like and are able to establish contacts with foreigners, but do not know their habits related to using non-verbal communication. Only 38% of Poles and 20% of Romanians considered that non-verbal communication used by representatives of other cultures is not strange to them. Stress related to adapting to a culture other than the native one was expressed by a small percentage of respondents. The majority considered that they were coping with it. A positive answer was given by 73% of Romanians and 57% of Poles. A very similar percentage distribution concerned statements on changes in verbal and non-verbal behaviour when required by intercultural interaction.

Students expressed an open attitude towards cooperation in multicultural teams. One could notice the enthusiasm and willingness to overcome emerging adversities. In order to gain in-depth knowledge of the obstacles, academic teachers were additionally asked about the difficulties they encountered when cooperating in such teams (Table 2.19).

TABLE 2.19. Statistically significant differences in the difficulty with working in multicultural teams based on teachers' experience

Variable	U statistics	Z statistics	p level
coordination problems	1123.500	-3.42041	0.000625
lack of involvement, motivation and commitment of team members	1372.500	-2.09586	0.036095
decision-making problems	912.000	-4.54547	0.000005
leadership problems (e.g. delegating, monitoring and providing feedback)	708.000	-5.63064	0.000000
team role problems (unclear tasks/roles of each member)	795.000	-5.16785	0.000000
not meeting deadlines	928.500	-4.45770	0.000008
skill-level differences between members	1170.000	-3.17305	0.001509
personality differences between members	1065.000	-3.73159	0.000190
language proficiency difficulties of the members	1392.000	-1.99213	0.046357

Variable	U statistics	Z statistics	p level
communication problems	921.000	-4.49759	0.000007
insufficient knowledge of ICT tools by team members	1488.000	-1.48147	0.138483
hardware difficulties (software, computer, internet access)	847.500	-4.88857	0.000001

SOURCE: own elaboration.

The above question enumerates twelve difficulties that the respondents may hypothetically have encountered. Eleven of them showed statistically significant differences. They concerned: coordination, lack of involvement, motivation, decision making, leadership, team roles, failure to meet deadlines, skills, personality traits, communication, equipment. A detailed breakdown of responses is shown in Table 2.20.

TABLE 2.20. Percentages of difficulties in working in multicultural teams based on teachers' experience

Variable	Country	1 – I strongly disagree	2 – I rather disagree	3 – I have no opinion	4 – I rather agree	5 – I strongly agree
coordination problems	Poland	4.8%	19.4%	50.0%	25.8%	0.0%
	Romania	5.3%	5.3%	31.6%	47.4%	10.5%
lack of involvement, motivation and commitment of team members	Poland	4.8%	19.4%	40.3%	32.3%	3.2%
	Romania	5.3%	15.8%	31.6%	10.5%	36.8%
decision making problems	Poland	6.5%	35.5%	33.9%	21.0%	3.2%
	Romania	0.0%	5.3%	36.8%	47.4%	10.5%
leadership problems (e.g. delegating, monitoring and providing feedback)	Poland	3.2%	45.2%	25.8%	22.6%	3.2%
	Romania	0.0%	5.3%	21.1%	52.6%	21.1%
team roles problems (unclear tasks/roles of each member)	Poland	1.6%	46.8%	24.2%	22.6%	4.8%
	Romania	0.0%	5.3%	26.3%	47.4%	21.1%
not meeting deadlines	Poland	6.5%	25.8%	27.4%	30.6%	9.7%
	Romania	0.0%	0.0%	26.3%	42.1%	31.6%
skill-level differences between members	Poland	0.0%	11.3%	35.5%	41.9%	11.3%
	Romania	0.0%	5.3%	26.3%	21.1%	47.4%

Variable	Country	1 – I strongly disagree	2 – I rather disagree	3 – I have no opinion	4 – I rather agree	5 – I strongly agree
personality differences between members	Poland	3.2%	11.3%	21.0%	45.2%	19.4%
	Romania	0.0%	0.0%	10.5%	42.1%	47.4%
language proficiency difficulties of the members	Poland	8.1%	17.7%	38.7%	27.4%	8.1%
	Romania	5.3%	15.8%	26.3%	26.3%	26.3%
communication problems	Poland	6.5%	32.3%	33.9%	21.0%	6.5%
	Romania	5.3%	10.5%	15.8%	26.3%	42.1%
insufficient knowledge of ICT tools by team members	Poland	6.5%	33.9%	38.7%	17.7%	3.2%
	Romania	15.8%	10.5%	36.8%	31.6%	5.3%
hardware difficulties (software, computer, internet access)	Poland	17.7%	45.2%	30.6%	4.8%	1.6%
	Romania	15.8%	0.0%	36.8%	36.8%	10.5%

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Research shows that academic teachers from Romania – 50% – had much greater problems with coordinating the work of the team than teachers from Poland – 26%. Apart from leadership skills, computer systems failed. Almost half of the respondents from Romania complained about technical problems, while a vast majority of Polish respondents did not observe them. The lack of involvement was noticed by 47% of respondents from Romania and slightly more than 35% of respondents from Poland. 58% of lecturers from Romania and 24% of lecturers from Poland experienced unpleasant experiences related to making wrong decisions. Even greater proportion concerned leadership issues since as many as 74% of scientists from Romania and only 26% of scientists from Poland noticed difficulties in delegating, motivating and enforcing the effects of teamwork. An analogous case concerned roles performed in the team. The teams in which the respondents from Romania participated had problems with failed deadlines, which was stressed by as many as 74% of respondents. A similar opinion was shared by slightly more than 40% of respondents from Poland. Respondents from Romania also appeared to be more critical than those from Poland in assessing the skills of team members. This concerned substantive, language and communication issues. It can be noted that teachers from Romania have much worse experience in working in multicultural teams than teachers from Poland.

After analysing the responses provided by students and teachers, it can be concluded that one of the tools to increase the effectiveness of a culturally diverse team is training on cultural awareness aimed at developing intercultural competences.

Training can help to make team members aware of differences and similarities between them and prevent misunderstandings in the future. It is important, in the process of team building, to build trust between team members, as well as between the leader and the rest of the employees. Such trust leads to an open and free atmosphere within the group in which ideas can be presented without fear of ridicule, which at the same time encourages the expression of different opinions and creativity. It is important to have a common experience and set goals that are shared by the whole team. For the team to work efficiently, all its members must express the will to cooperate, communicate well and have a clear division of tasks. In addition, a good team should be characterised by good relations and openness to other cultures (Szydło & Widel-ska, 2018). It is essential to be self-motivated, trust other people, be flexible and open to change, observe common rules of conduct and be able to draw inspiration from differences (Koheler, 2016).

When selecting people for the team, attention should be paid to an even cultural distribution in order to prevent cultural domination. Then the team is more likely to succeed. It is also important to skilfully set an objective that gives proper direction and justifies the sense of the team. In order for the group to fully exploit its capacity, it is important to create a flat, flexible structure and a participatory form of management.

2.5. Benefits of working in a multicultural team

Working in a multicultural team has many advantages, such as the possibility of gaining knowledge about other cultures, customs or traditions, the possibility of exchanging experiences, mobilisation to improve individual performance, a variety of views on a given issue, a wider spectrum of ideas and solutions as well as the possibility of complementarity. Therefore, students were asked to comment on twelve statements about the benefits of working in such teams (Table 2.21).

TABLE 2.21. Statistically significant differences connected with the benefits of working in multicultural teams

Variable	U statistics	Z statistics	p level
gaining experience	449205.5	-6.21378	0.000000
overcoming cultural differences	500288.0	-2.13542	0.032727
learning to cooperate and communicate with people different from each other	461885.0	-5.28017	0.000000
learning different opinions and views	487809.0	-3.21612	0.001300

Variable	U statistics	Z statistics	p level
broadening horizons of thinking	443287.5	-6.54076	0.000000
learning virtual/remote cooperation	485826.5	-3.24584	0.001171
learning to be open and not to be driven by stereotypes	435913.5	-7.01302	0.000000
improving language skills	519288.0	-0.97244	0.330835
overcoming communication barriers	529821.5	0.15443	0.877271
gathering unique experiences	438474.5	-6.75126	0.000000
learning new methods of conduct	445669.5	-6.14511	0.000000
solving problems creatively	506025.5	-1.62982	0.103141

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Statistically significant differences were observed in relation to nine statements. They concerned: gaining experience, learning to cooperate, increasing knowledge, openness and broadening horizons, facing stereotypical thinking and working at a distance. No discrepancies were noted in terms of creativity, breaking down communication barriers, deepening language skills. Detailed results are presented in Figures 2.13 – 2.24.

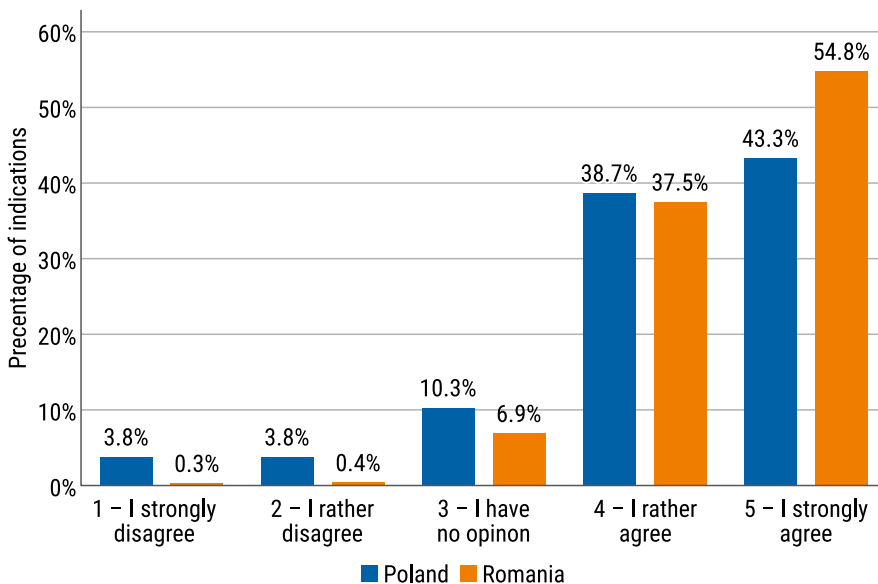


FIGURE 2.13. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that the benefit of cooperation in multicultural teams is to gain experience

SOURCE: own elaboration.

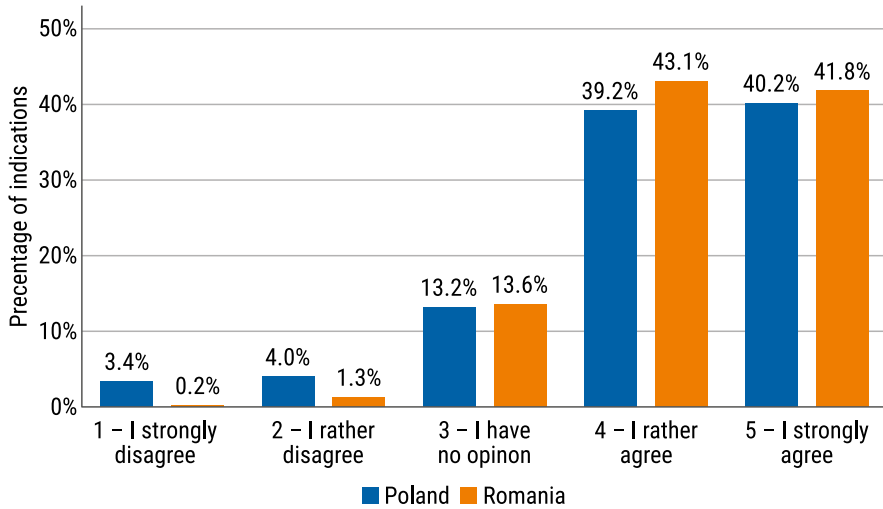


FIGURE 2.14. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that the benefit of cooperation in multicultural teams is to overcome cultural differences

SOURCE: own elaboration.

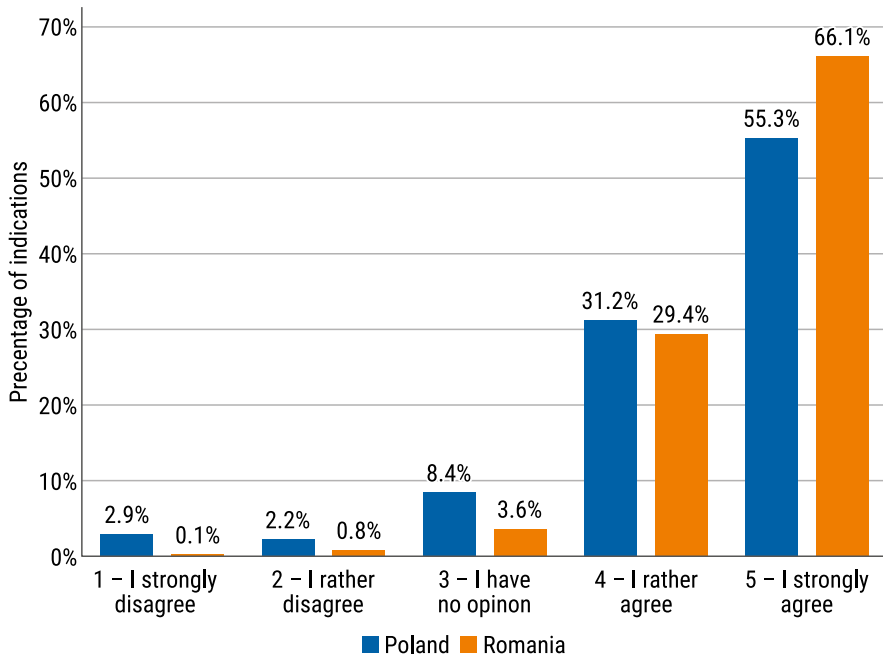


FIGURE 2.15. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that the benefit of cooperation in multicultural teams is to learn to communicate with different people

SOURCE: own elaboration.

More than 92% of students from Romania considered that working in multicultural teams translates into gaining experience in this area. Polish students were of a similar opinion. 82% of the respondents provided affirmative responses. On the other hand, almost 8% of respondents from Poland and only less than 1% of respondents from Romania expressed a negative opinion.

Research shows that working in multicultural teams helps to eliminate differences. Almost 85% of students from Romania and over 79% of students from Poland were of this opinion. Almost 14% of Romanians and 13% of Poles evaded the affirmative or negative answer. Over 7% of respondents from Poland and 1.5% of respondents from Romania had a negative attitude.

Students considered learning to communicate with people who are different from each other an unarguable advantage. Almost all respondents from Romania and over 86% of respondents from Poland were of this opinion.

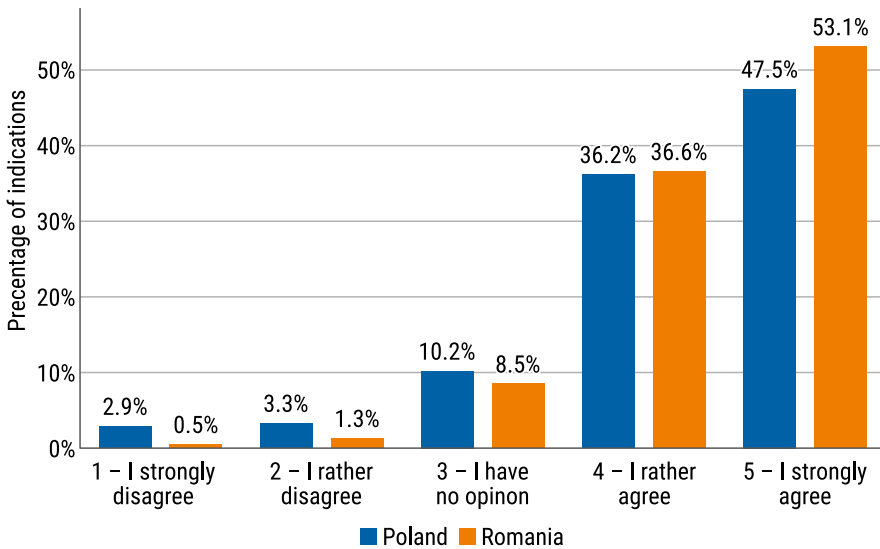


FIGURE 2.16. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that the benefit of cooperation in multicultural teams is to become familiar with differing opinions and views
SOURCE: own elaboration.

Becoming familiar with differing opinions and views proved to be an added value of cooperation in multicultural teams. Nearly 90% of students from Romania and less than 84% of students from Poland provided positive answers.

The same was true for broadening horizons. A vast majority of respondents – almost 91% of students from Romania and 79% of students from Poland considered that working in a multicultural team changes the perspective of thinking. The world is not only seen through the prism of one’s own culture. With time, he or she starts to notice and appreciate other points of view.

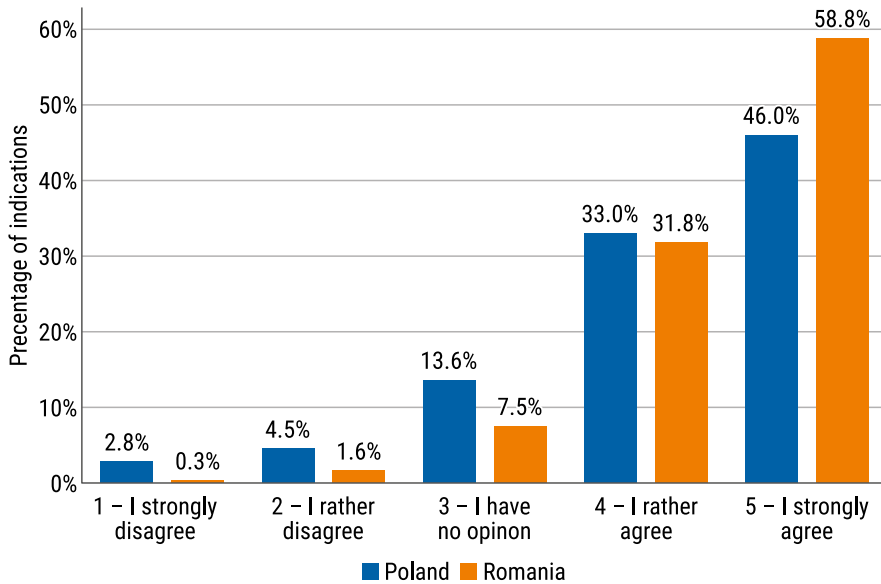


FIGURE 2.17. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that the benefit of cooperation in multicultural teams is to broaden thinking horizons

SOURCE: own elaboration.

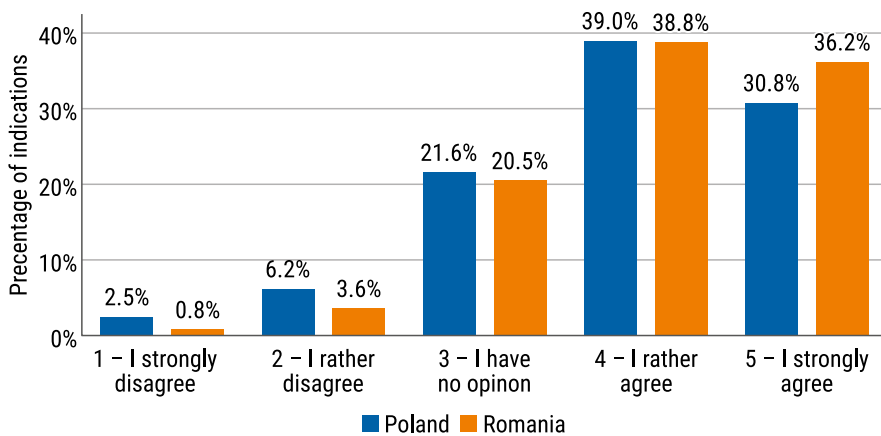


FIGURE 2.18. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that the benefit of cooperation in multicultural teams is to learn about virtual/remote cooperation

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Another benefit of working in such a team is associated with a more frequent use of remote communication tools. This was admitted by 75% of respondents from Romania and 70% of respondents from Poland. About 20% of both groups did not

have an opinion, while about 9% of students from Poland and slightly more than 4% of students from Romania stated that learning to work in a virtual team is not related to being a member of a multicultural team.

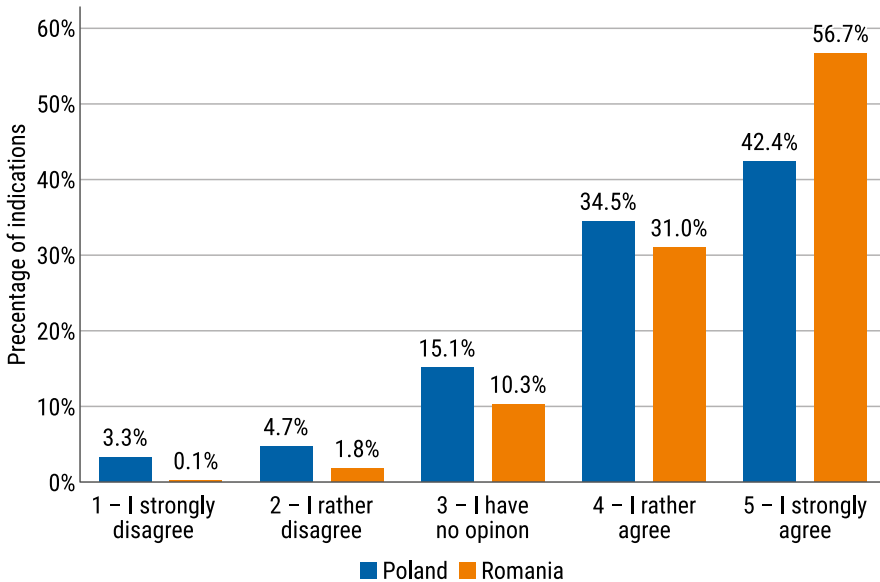


FIGURE 2.19. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that the benefit of cooperation in multicultural teams is to learn openness and not to be driven by stereotypes
SOURCE: own elaboration.

A stereotype is a kind of mental image of the outside world, what our culture has already defined and interpreted. Thus, in his thinking, a person is not independent. He or she perceives the social reality around him or her through the prism of already ready-made and well-established beliefs in the collective consciousness. A stereotype is not free from evaluating and thus not only serves to organize our thinking about reality, but also to defend the values we follow. This results in a selective reception of information that functions in the social environment and simplifies world views (Sasińska-Klas, 2010, p. 8). Working in multicultural teams fosters independent thinking, allows for verifying beliefs about other people. As many as 88% of students from Romania and 77% of students from Poland were of this opinion. Negative opinions were expressed by 8% of Poles and 2% of Romanians. Other respondents were unable to provide an answer.

A vast majority of respondents considered that one of the many benefits of working in a multicultural team is the improvement of language skills. Students were particularly unanimous on this issue. This was confirmed by 91% of respondents from Romania and almost 88% of respondents from Poland.

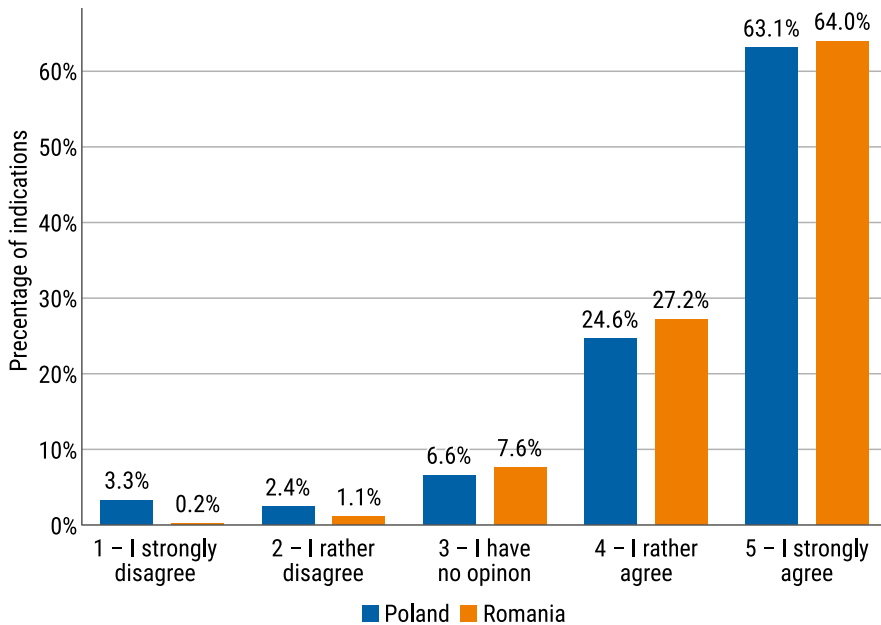


FIGURE 2.20. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that the benefit of cooperation in multicultural teams is to improve language skills

SOURCE: own elaboration.

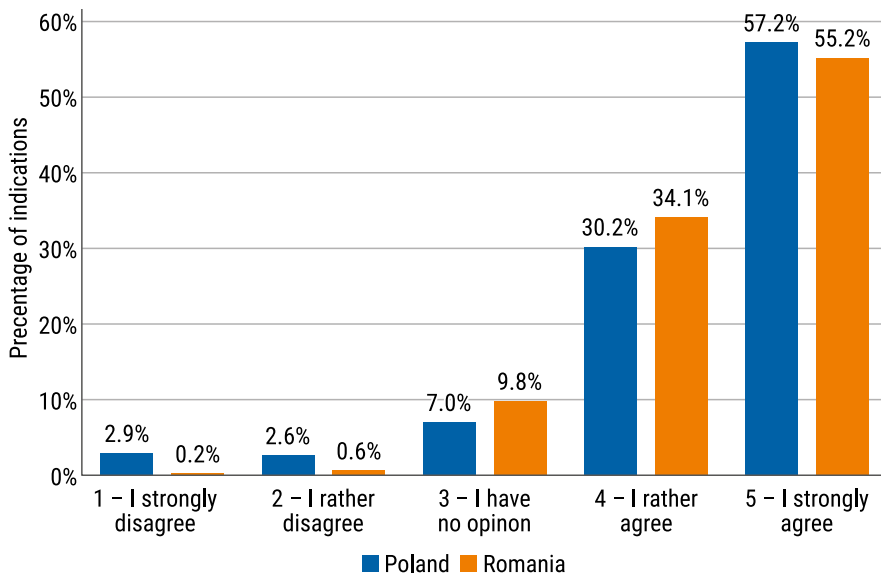


FIGURE 2.21. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that the benefit of cooperation in multicultural teams is to overcome communication barriers

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Living in a monocultural society, we often do not realise that the same message can have different meanings depending on cultural circumstances. For a message to be properly understood, words must mean the same for both the sender and the recipient. However, this is not always the case. It also happens that a cultural shock and the clash of values lead to a conflict between people from different cultures. Therefore, working together in a multicultural team brings the effect of being open to different customs, having a positive attitude towards other cultures and understanding different experiences. Communication barriers are broken down. A vast majority of students from both surveyed countries – 89% of Romanians and 87% of Poles – had a positive attitude to this issue.

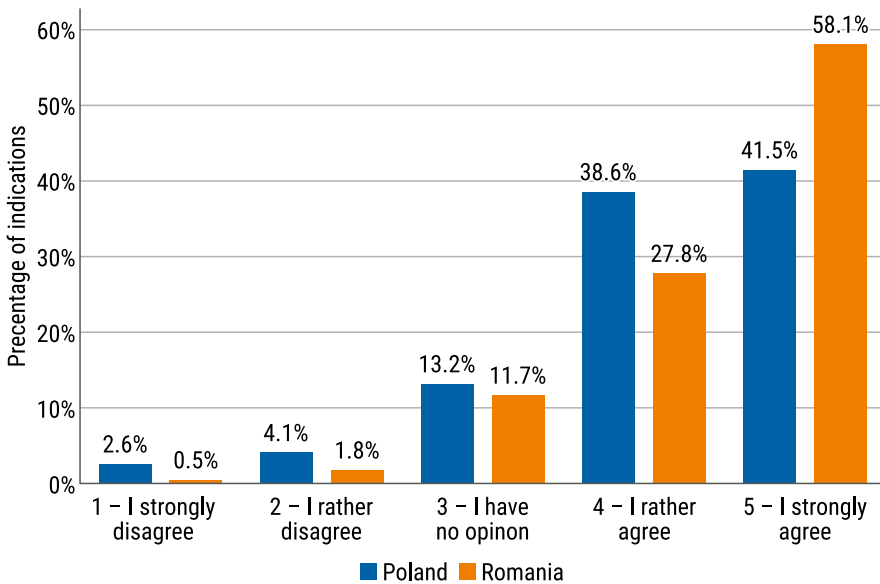


FIGURE 2.22. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that the benefit of cooperation in multicultural teams is the collection of unique experiences

SOURCE: own elaboration.

An important benefit of cooperation in cultural teams is the collection of unique experiences. 86% of students from Romania and 80% of students from Poland were of this opinion. Such work allows for overcoming stereotyped thinking and acting, transferring knowledge between employees. It can also influence greater creativity and productivity of the teams by creating their own culture, which is characterized by a desire to learn new things and openness, and thus conducive to the development of more alternative solutions.

This statement was confirmed by a higher percentage of students from Romania – 82% than Poland – 69%. A relatively large number of respondents from Poland – 22%

– had no opinion. The advantage of teams with a diversified culture is that in their decision-making processes, as well as when solving emerging problems, they benefit from a broader perspective. Due to their different approaches to issues and different understanding of the situation that arises because of them. Critical analysis of the issues under consideration, as well as flexibility and the ability to solve disputed issues, supported by international knowledge and experience, facilitates fast and effective solution development.

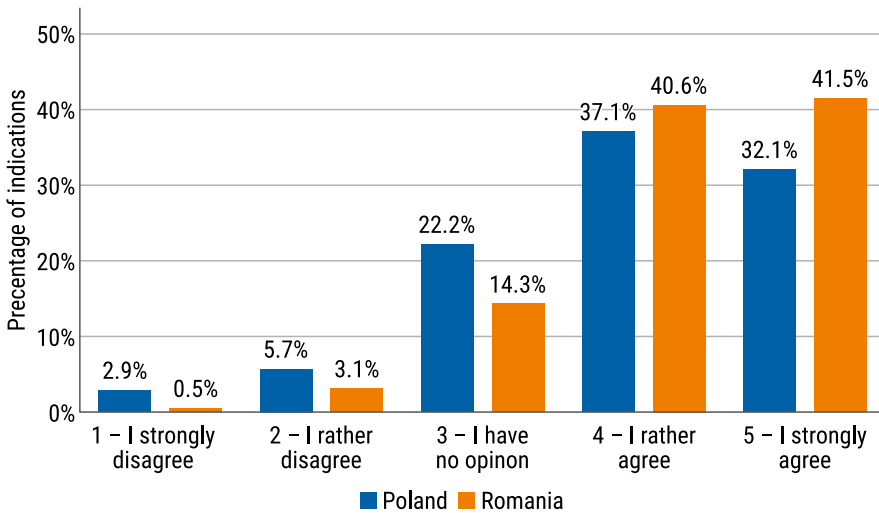


FIGURE 2.23. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that the benefit of cooperation in multicultural teams is to learn new ways of acting

SOURCE: own elaboration.

Most of the surveyed students stated that cooperation in multicultural teams stimulates creativity. This was confirmed by almost 73% of respondents from Romania and 69% of respondents from Poland. A relatively large percentage of respondents were not able to express an unambiguous opinion on this issue. About 23% of the respondents from Romania and 22% of the respondents from Poland had no opinion.

People from different countries and cultures often have a different perspective on particular topics. Therefore, different ideas are generated in a team, which has an impact on the development of creativity, broadening horizons and developing non-standard solutions. Another benefit is the knowledge of other cultures, which leads to increased tolerance, empathy and understanding of the needs of others. In a team composed of employees from different geographical regions it is possible to be better-prepared for the needs of different regions of the world.

Creativity is one of the most valuable advantages of a multicultural team. With different perspectives, these teams are able to generate many more solutions to a given

problem. In addition, multicultural teams concentrate on what is important in their work. Usually, the language they speak is not equally mastered by all team members. This often leads to simplified content and focus on the substance of the matter.

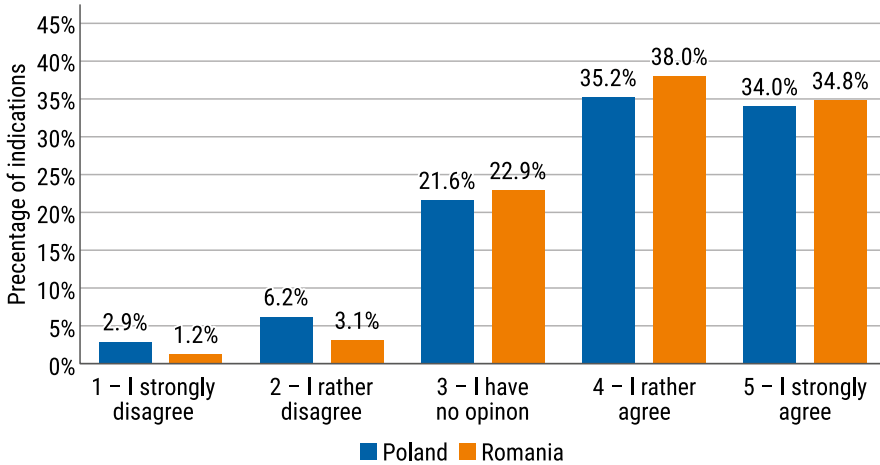


FIGURE 2.24. Comparison of response distribution with regard to the statement that the benefit of cooperation in multicultural teams is to solve problems in a creative way

SOURCE: own elaboration.

The phenomenon of multiculturalism is associated with a number of problems, the source of which lies in different ways of perceiving reality. At the same time, as some authors indicate, the ability to manage cultural diversity can become a source of new values for an organisation (Giedraitis, Stašys & Skirpstaitė, 2017). Companies in which multiculturalism is accepted and present have easy access to extensive knowledge of foreign markets and the preferences as well as the needs of recipients from many countries. Teams composed of multicultural workers have a huge advantage over monocultural groups, whose members have similar experiences, beliefs and worldviews, which translates into generating a limited number of solutions to specific problems (Kuc & Żemigala, 2010).

3. Multicultural team effectiveness

3.1. Multicultural teams models

Team management is a key area in the management of both learning teams and working teams. Alongside individuals, work groups and teams are core units of the organizational structures.

Teamwork practices are connected to a series of studies and surveys related to this area of study. The classical theoretical perspectives which contributed to the study of team management are Belbin's model (1993), John Adair's (1973) action-centered leadership model, the social identity theory and Tuckman's (1977) team development theory.

Belbin's model

Based on the studies conducted on 200 business management teams in 1970's, Meredith Belbin advanced a theory according to which certain types of persons can perform well while others cannot, in the same team. Relying on this hypothesis, Belbin proposed a model which identifies 9 *necessary roles* within a well-balanced and successful team. His model is useful in the process of team selection and formation, to ease the understanding of group dynamics and to boost team performance. If in the past recruiters sought to select the most skillful and talented people, lately it has been proved that this is even detrimental to the team success. Although some teams have less than 9 members, most tasks require certain types of personalities. This model identifies each member's strengths and weaknesses (according to his/her prevailing role), so that the team knows when and in what circumstances it can rely on the member in question. With this model in mind, team members can understand more easily that the factors which generate some conflicts are related to these natural tendencies rather than personal reasons.

A team member can fulfill simultaneously several of such roles. However, most often one role is prevailing and more poignant, while others only run in the background.

Each role is identified by means of a questionnaire, following which each member is profiled based on his/her scores for each of the nine roles. The roles proposed by Belbin are:

- The plant/innovator is a creative and imaginative person, non-conforming, who can find ingenious solutions to the team's difficult problems. On the other hand, he/she can be rather shallow, sometimes more idea-oriented than people-oriented, highly sensitive to the team's refusal to implement his/her ideas. This person

discovers many solutions, but he/she pays little attention to the practical aspects of implementation.

- The resource investigator is extrovert, enthusiast, communicative, exploring opportunities and the social network and can be relied on in difficult situations. He/she is a dynamic person always on the look of new ideas, cheerful, yet sometimes impulsive. They may be too optimistic and can lose interest in the task quickly in favor of a new task. He/she is in constant need of variety, stimulation, and requires greater attention in order to focus on the task and not waste time on too many activities.
- The coordinator is a mature and self-confident person, with natural leadership skills. He/she contributes actively to objective setting and decision-making, delegating tasks efficiently. The coordinator can be perceived by others as manipulating and controlling, and sometimes delegates to reduce his/her own workload.
- The shaper is a driven person who seeks challenges, complex tasks and pressure. He/she owns the task, full of determination and courage. However, the shaper can be easily challenged, ignoring the others' feelings.
- The monitor is a temperate, strategic and critical person, who can spot alternative options and judge soundly. He/she is both self-critical and critical to others. On the other hand, the monitor can lack initiative and leadership skills, sometimes displaying a condescending attitude. He/she identifies quickly aspects of work which can escalate into conflicts.
- The teamworker is a willing and team-oriented person, sensitive, diplomatic and empathic. He/she is a good listener, relationship builder, and dislikes confrontation in favor harmony and cooperation. The teamworker can maintain team unity through the attention paid to others. However, in critical situations he/she can be perceived as hesitant and wavering.
- The implementer is a disciplined, trustworthy, conservative and efficient person, who abides by the rules. He/she is practical, ready to implement others' ideas and prefers action to theory. Although highly efficient with tasks which compel logical approaches, he/she can be inflexible and slower in seizing opportunities in unstable situations which require vision.
- The completer finisher is diligent and determined to carry thorough an assignment timely, paying attention to details and careful to spot any possible mistakes. He/she can be too apprehensive and ready to assume all tasks, without delegating. The completer finisher contributes the urge to expedite tasks, he/she is objective-oriented, self-controlled, and mindful of each and every detail.
- The specialist is a committed person who contributes the technical know-how and skills required in the completion of a task. He/she may be too focused on the niche of his/her own interests, on technicalities, ignoring people and sometimes even the reality outside the task.

John Adair's action-centered leadership model

Efficient team management entails the management and coordination of a team's activity. A core element of team management is leadership. Although the leading role in a team is transferred from one member to another according to the assignment on hand, usually there is one person in charge with the team's results, usually appointed by the organization.

Unlike traditional leadership models, Adair (2004, p.35) proposes a fresh approach showing that leadership skills are transferable competences which can be learned.

The functions to be fulfilled by team leaders to facilitate team success are:

- Activity planning, by defining clear tasks and SMART (specific, measurable, attainable, realistic, timely) objectives, obtaining necessary information and openness to new resolution alternatives;
- Presentation of the action plan, explaining the importance of the task to new members, allocating tasks to each team member and setting work standards;
- Activity control by monitoring progress, maintaining the agreed standards, channeling team resources on the task and boosting team efforts;
- Supporting the team by recognizing individual merits, encouraging and motivating members, applying sanctions, monitoring and learning from team conflicts, offering moral support to team members;
- Informing others on the progress of the activity, clarifying any ambiguities, listening to members' input, debating ideas and suggestions from the group;
- Activity evaluation by assessing the practicality of ideas, testing their consequences and solutions proposed, evaluating team performance and offering feedback against the defined standards.

The efficiency of team leaders' depends on meeting at least three categories of needs., which influence one another: task-, individual- and team-related needs. If the needs. on any of these levels are overlooked, consequences will also reflect on the other levels. Accomplishment of a task creates a sense of unity across the team, which has a great impact on the individual. If the individual is motivated, he/she will impact more powerfully on the team and implicitly on the task to be completed.

Tajfel's social identity theory

The social identity theory formulated by Tajfel in early 1970's holds that an individual's membership to a group influences his/her mode of action in the organization. An individual's sense of belonging to the group depends on the organizational culture policy. Given the above, team management should give careful attention to the extent to which each member perceives himself/herself as belonging to that team. From the formation of the team, and later during team development the aim is to build and strengthen group identity.

The sense of team, the level of understanding of the others and differences among members can be measured with the Myers Briggs Type Indicator, designed by Isabel Briggs-Myers (1897-1979, Kummerov Barger & Kirby, 2002, pp.18-25). This questionnaire is an instrument used to describe each member on four dimensions:

- The first one shows an individual's preference for the type of interaction, extraversion-introversion (initiative, active involvement, need and tendency of exteriorization, enthusiasm vs. reservation, interiorization, reflectivity, focus on tasks, not people).
- The second one identifies the manner of obtaining and processing information: sensing-intuition (the need to have access to actual, real and practical information from the outer environment, such as data, facts, step-by-step decoding of the general picture vs. the needs. to have the overview of the situation, originality, theorization, without need for accuracy).
- The third one identifies the decision-making type thinking-feeling (logical analysis of the situation, without making decision before reviewing all available data, rational, critical, intransigent style vs. emotional analysis of the situation through personal values, kindness, gentleness, compromising style).
- The fourth one identifies the attitude towards the external world judging vs perceiving (precaution, planning, preciseness and structure in the day-to-day life vs. easy-going style, spontaneity, optimism, flexibility in action).

Knowing each member's type on the continuum of the four dimensions, one can understand the style of their colleagues. Starting from here, the work style of the entire team can be determined based on traits such as communication, time management, decision-making. The efficiency of a team is boosted if task allocation within the team is made to match the team members' profile.

Tuckman's team development model

To reach maturity, any team needs. to undergo some (trans)formation stages. Knowing a team's development stage is a prerequisite for an efficient team management, since its performance depends on the relations among members.

In the 1970's Bass identified four stages in group development: mutual acceptance and membership to the group, communication and decision-making, motivation and productivity, control and organization.

An alternative theoretical model, much more famous, is that proposed by Tuckman (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977), which comprises five successive stages in group development. Teams follow the same stages whose length and intensity depend on the particularities of the team. These stages are the following: forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning or transforming. In the following, we briefly describe each of these stages.

Forming is the stage when members are allocated to the group, they familiarize with each other in a cordial atmosphere, and they clarify goals and tasks. Attention

is given to the hierarchical structure of the group, leadership, individual roles and responsibilities. During this stage members attempt to discover the types of behaviors accepted by the group, each striving to understand who and how their colleagues are, to identify similarities and the others' roles. The group atmosphere is marked by the tendency to act independently, underpinned by some tension, since members attempt to impress each other, to test the others' potential, defining their own identity in the group. Time is invested in planning, obtaining information and building group relationships.

Storming implies that as members know each other better and better, they express opposing ideas and opinions more openly, are more focused on the task, generating a confrontation of ideas and opinions. In this stage, poor conflict management can damage greatly the development of the team and given the difficulty of this stage, many teams fail to overcome it. On the other hand, if the team is too consensus-oriented, it can implement inefficient solutions for the success of the team. Unanimous consensus can be of little benefit to team decision-making, because it can mask the members' diverse perspectives (Kiernan et al., 2019).

Norming involves that after conflicts get under control, the group begins to define the values, norms and performance standards. This stage is important to determine the need of cooperation for the purpose of fulfilling objectives. The team leader role is no longer critical since team members take on greater and greater responsibilities. Organizational success depends heavily on the extent to which the team norms are in line with the objectives of the organization.

Performing implies that well-performing teams are characterized by a high degree of independence, motivation, knowledge and competency, they have a clear structure and good cohesion. Decision-making is collaborative, respect is mutual, while disagreements are approached with maturity in order to lead to the best solutions.

Adjourning / transforming is the final stage when the team breaks up, which can be associated with the completion of the work task/project or other events which caused the termination of the team.

Although most authors consider that teams become more efficient as they go through these development phases, the factors which determine a team's effectiveness are marked by a higher level of complexity. In certain circumstances, more poignant conflicts can lead to better team efficiency, so that the team is more efficient in stage two (storming) than another team in norming mode. It is also possible for certain stages to overlap, teams exhibiting features specific to different stages at the same time. Teams may go through these development stages to be performing, but relapse to any of the previous stages is possible in the case of changes in the external environment, such as change of objectives, arrival of new members, etc.

Efficient fulfillment of team roles

For work to be performed to the agreed standards and lead to successful results, the team's activity must observe the role structure. To fulfill the role of an efficient

team member, it does not suffice to perform each his/her own tasks at high standards, but must display the following proactive behaviors specific to group work (Pell, 1996, p. 12):

- Active engagement in group meetings and discussions: contribute new solutions, debate on ideas, support feasible solutions, active listening (which means that listening is more than formal, and the decision is not taken before hearing out the interlocutor). There are several reasons why listening is difficult: it is generally thought that chatterers are more competent and more likely to become leaders; they become to consider their own ideas more important than the others', and to think themselves experts. Moreover, relying on their own preconceived ideas, they tend to refuse to review others' ideas, being overly critical or even denying them. In all these cases listening is ineffective and team communication is poor, with negative consequences on the team results;
- Self-motivation: setting individual goals consistent with the team's mission, participation in goal setting. Pursuit a certain goal is motivating for team members;
- Experimenting and creative thinking, assuming risks, since progress means overcoming one's own limits and searching innovative solutions. The possibility to think outside the box is a paramount factor for team success. For this reason, brainstorming is highly recommended, since it eliminates critical review of the brainstormed ideas, which gives way to an impressive number of innovative ideas, which can be assessed to a later point in time;
- Integration in the organizational culture: a team member should know the entire organization, its mission, so that he/she can appreciate to what extent his/her and the team's performance is consistent with the values and objectives of the organization (Nowak & Vallacher, 2001);
- Openness to others' points of view: listening actively to understand a point of view, supporting one's own point of view, making compromises;
- Cooperating with the team, resolving conflicts, avoiding excessively competitive behaviors, supporting colleagues, sharing information, appreciating others' merits, expressing gratitude for the support received;
- Know yourself and your colleagues' strengths and weaknesses, work style, so that cooperation with the rest of the team is easy. Knowing the other team members' tasks enables one to understand each team role and to take over a task in case of absence or work overload;
- Evaluating one's own work and performance against defined standards and objectives;
- Sharing success, rewarding performance through team events or other ways to motivate team members.

Being an active part of a team contributes not only to increasing an individual's work satisfaction, but also personal development.

Group and team dynamics

Group dynamics embodies the interactions and processes which take place among members and lead to increased group performance compared to the sum of individual performances in the context of individual work. This means that a team has a life of its own, becomes a self-contained entity, characterized by team identity, specific processes and behaviors, team effectiveness.

A team displays at least six manifestations of group dynamics:

- **Confusion:** in particular, during team formation or at the beginning of a new task, teams experience uncertainty generated by the poor familiarization with the new context requirements. Team members are focused more on satisfying their own certainty needs, rather than on the others. The behaviors displayed in such circumstances are either timidity or avoidance, reluctance to express favorable or opposing opinions, excessive manifestation of one's own needs and desires, poor communication, marked politeness and conformity to others' opinions in the context of uncertainty or lack of self-confidence, or on the contrary, hostility;
- **Conflict:** states of conflict lead to emergence of sub-groups around power centers, revolt against certain members' or sub-group's opinions, a sense of exclusion from the rest of the team, intrigue across the team, secretiveness and preferential information sharing, undermining the leader's or other members' authority, disparaging of ideas and solutions, failure to observe group decisions, tasks or deadlines;
- **Control:** where the power is held by a sub-group or the leader is an authoritative figure, it exercises a powerful influence and control over members, decision-making or the team's activities. Interactions and innovation are scarce, initiative is discouraged, as team members subsume to the leader's plan and desires. Control may be necessary for short periods, in crisis situations or when the team is insufficiently developed and expects the leader to satisfy their need of certainty;
- **Cooperation:** cooperative behavior is built along with group identity. Team members understand that by helping and offering assistance to their colleagues they support in fact their own performance and team success, they are prepared to learn from and teach each other. Knowing each other and feedback are elements which facilitate understanding and sensing the others' needs, so that each team member is aware about the support needed by his/her colleagues;
- **Consensus:** it reflects in team members' mutual agreement on the resolution strategies to be pursued by the team, on the perception of reality, the team's defined objectives, values and standards. The team operates in synergy, with focus on then human relations and team harmony. However, too strong a consensus can be detrimental to the team, as individual contribution, as well as challenge, innovation and discovery fade away, since individuals avoid conflict. Uncritical acceptance of solutions from the desire to maintain group harmony compels the group to support enthusiastically any idea that is proposed, showing excessive trust in its success, which can lead to lack of work motivation;

- Commitment: it emerges in the maturity stages of a team's formation and is marked by increased attachment to the team, effort channeling towards task completion, assuming responsibility and the role held in the team. Information sharing, efforts channeling in the same direction enhance team performance.

All these processes can be identified in any team, sometimes simultaneously or at different times. Team management involves the review of all these group processes in order to spot the drivers which can maximize and leverage group dynamics for team success.

3.2. Team effectiveness and multicultural teams

Teams are essential to the functioning of organizations and societies (Benishek & Lazzara, 2019; Salas, Rico & Passmore, 2017). They are all around us performing various tasks from running critical day-to-day processes (Dinh & Salas, 2017) to performing human space exploration such as exploring planet Mars in the next decades (Mesmer-Magnus, Carter, Asencio & DeChurch, 2016; Salas, Tannenbaum, Kozlowski, Miller, Mathieu & Vessey, 2015). Teams are the basic building blocks of present day organizational designs (Mathieu, Hollenbeck, van Knippenberg & Ilgen, 2017; Mathieu, Gallagher, Domingo & Klock, 2018; O'Neill & Salas, 2018). There are several definitions of teams but one that is largely invoked when discussing or investigating teams is the definition proposed by Kozlowski & Ilgen (2006). A team comprises "(a) two or more individuals who (b) socially interact (face-to-face or, increasingly, virtually); (c) possess one or more common goals; (d) are brought together to perform organizationally relevant tasks; (e) exhibit interdependencies with respect to workflow, goals, and outcomes; (f) have different roles and responsibilities; and (g) are together embedded in an encompassing organizational system, with boundaries and linkages to the broader system context and task environment" (p. 79). A real team is characterized by six dimensions: tightly coupled interdependence, agreed upon objectives, systematic reflex or review of performance, clear boundaries, high autonomy, and specified roles (Richardson, 2010; West & Lyubovnikova, 2012). These characteristics of real teams permit the delineation from other collective entities such as pseudo teams. According to a seminal work in this area (West & Lyubovnikova, 2012), a pseudo-team is "a group of people working in an organization who call themselves or are called by others a team; who have differing accounts of team objectives; whose typical tasks require team members to work alone or in separate dyads towards disparate goals; whose team boundaries are highly permeable with individuals being uncertain over who is a team member, and who is not; and/or who, when they meet, may exchange information but without consequent shared efforts towards innovation" (p. 26). Recent works (Benishek & Lazzara, 2019; Kerrissey, Satterstrom & Edmondson,

2020) suggest that the archetype of team is changing by including elements of teaming (i.e., continual process where teams are constituted and reconstituted and leads to a newly formed temporary group, with fluid membership, which needed to develop rapidly into a high-performing unit to take on an unfamiliar project; Edmondson, 2012; Edmondson & Harvey, 2017) and fluidity (changes in team membership, interdependence, goals/shared responsibility for outcomes, dynamics, and boundaries; Benishek & Lazzara, 2019; Chiu, Khan, Mirzaei & Caudwell, 2019; Dibble & Gilson, 2018; Mortensen & Haas, 2018). New forms of teamwork are the results of rapid change and growing diversity among collaborators (Kerrissey et al., 2020).

As with the accelerating pace of globalization of business, cultural diversity in the workplace in many regions of the world has increased (Wang, Cheng, Chen & Leung, 2019). In consequence, many contemporary organizations adopt as a basic unit the cross-cultural team (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011; Leung & Wang, 2015; Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt & Jonsen, 2010; Verhoeven, Cooper, Flynn & Shuffler, 2017). The cross-cultural team is “a specific type of team in which has much as members must come from two or more different national or cultural backgrounds” (Earley & Gibson, 2002, p. 3). Members of multicultural teams come from different countries or ethnic groups but bring with them differences in mental models, modes of perception, and approaches to problems (Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt & Jonsen, 2010). Culturally diverse teams are those whose members exhibit a variety of attitudes, preferences, and values that are often learned and shared by individuals socialized in a particular cultural setting (typically defined by national boundaries, but not always) (Gibson, Huang, Kirkman & Shapiro, 2014).

Literature reveals that there are several taxonomies of cross-cultural teams (Tang & Wang, 2017). Cross-cultural teams can be categorized according to task differences, team management style, geographical distribution, and cultural composition. The focus of the present chapter in what regards empirical findings from our data collection will be on one type of cross-cultural team such as a multicultural team. Thus, we will discuss and present some empirical findings on effectiveness of multicultural teams. Specifically, in this chapter we will consider a multicultural team based on Chen’s (2005) categorization of cross-cultural teams based on cultural composition as including team members that are mainly from two different cultural backgrounds (i.e., bi-cultural team) or from more than two different cultural backgrounds (i.e., multicultural team). We will not consider the token group or team in which only one or two members are from a different cultural background.

In the last decade, the prevalence of being a member in multicultural teams has increased. More organizations rely on using multicultural teams to carry on their activities and require their members to have competences in multicultural teamwork (Wang et al., 2019). As a consequence, universities are concerned in developing and increasing the competences of their internal stakeholders (students, administrative and teaching staff) in what is regarded as multicultural work. Thus, being a “good player” in a multicultural team is becoming and should be one of the main

competences developed by modern universities. Additionally, in different countries, organizations can create and put a different emphasis on the quality of being a member in a multicultural team. In this sense, the findings of one survey we conducted in 2019 on 2098 Polish and Romanian students revealed that almost half of them (49.57%, 1040 participants) had the chance to participate as a member (to work or to be participate during student life) in multicultural teams. Thereof, 628 were Romanian students (29.93%) and 412 Polish students (19.64%). It is important to notice that more than half of the surveyed students were not involved in multicultural teams (50.43%, 1058 participants). Also, there were significant differences between Romanian and Polish students. Specifically, Romanian students reported that they had more chance to participate or to work in multicultural teams compared to Polish students ($\chi^2(1) = 158.22, p < .001$). These differences are included in Table 3.1 and graphically illustrated in Figure 3.1.

TABLE 3.1. The chance to participate/ work in multicultural teams by country and in the total sample (cross-tabulation; N = 2098 students)

			Chance to participate/ work in multicultural teams		Total
			No	Yes	
Country	Romanian students	Count	349	628	977
		% within country	35.72	64.28	100
		% within chance to participate/ work in multicultural teams	32.99	60.38	46.57
		% of Total	16.63	29.93	46.57
	Polish students	Count	709	412	1121
		% within country	63.25	36.75	100
		% within chance to participate/ work in multicultural teams	67.01	39.62	53.43
		% of Total	33.79	19.64	53.43
Total	Count	1058	1040	2098	
	% within country	50.43	49.57	100.00	
	% within chance to participate/ work in multicultural teams	100.00	100.00	100.00	
	% of Total	50.43	49.57	100.00	

SOURCE: own study.

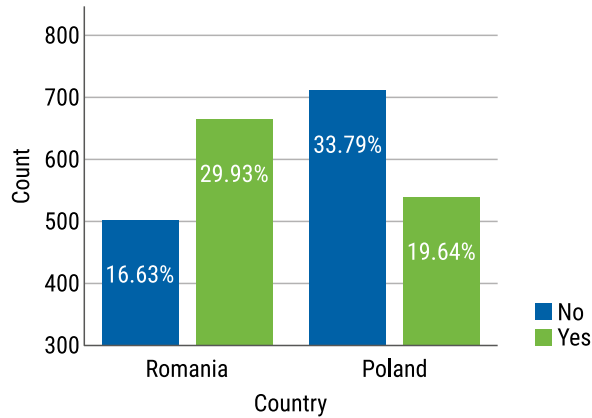


FIGURE 3.1. Distribution of the participants in terms of the chance to participate/ work in multicultural teams by country (N = 2098)

SOURCE: own study.

Researching team effectiveness of multicultural teams becomes more important as teams are the building block of contemporary organizations (Maloney, Bresman, Zellmer-Bruhn & Beaver, 2016). Literature comprises several major perspectives and frameworks relevant to the study of groups and teams in general (Poole & Hollingshead, 2004; Poole, Hollingshead, McGrath, Moreland & Rohrbaugh, 2004), such as: the functional perspective (McGrath, 1964, 1984; Hackman & Morris 1975; Wittenbaum et al., 2004), the psycho-dynamic perspective (Bion, 1961; Geller, 2005; McLeod & Kettner-Polley, 2004), the social identity perspective (Abrams, Hogg, Hinkle & Olten, 2005; Hogg, 2005; Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher & Wethrell, 1987), the conflict, power and status perspective (Lovaglia, Mannix, Samuelson, Sell, & Wilson, 2005), the symbolic-interpretative or communication perspective (Frey & Sunwolf, 2005a, b), the feminist perspective (Meyers et al., 2005), the social network perspective (Katz, Lazer, Arrow & Contractor, 2005), the evolutionist perspective (Caporael, Wilson, Hemelrijk & Seldon, 2005), the systemic perspective (Agazarian & Gantt, 2005), the chaos, complexity and non-linearity perspective (Arrow, 2005; Arrow, McGrath & Berdahl, 2000; Ramos-Villagrasa, Marques-Quinteiro, Navarro & Rico, 2018), the temporal evolution perspective (Arrow, Henry, Poole, Wheelan & Moreland, 2005) that includes the developmental models and the cyclic and episodic models of work team effectiveness. Although most theoretical perspectives on work teams and groups overlap, each of them has its own disciplinary niche (Berdahl & Henry, 2005), advantages and limitations in the study of work team effectiveness.

Combining the advantages and limitations of these theoretical perspectives provides a complementary framework for understanding the effectiveness of work teams that constitutes the basis for developing integrative-systemic perspectives of this concept. This integration reveals the complexity of causal patterns that characterize a team

(Berdahl & Henry, 2005). The analysis of these perspectives indicated that work team effectiveness is central to research on teams. In all these perspectives, this concept results in a constellation of complex interrelationships and interactions between multiple demands of performance and diverse factors located in the team members, team as a whole, organizational environment where the work team is embedded and, not at last, in the national and international context in which the organizations operate. There are many models and frameworks relevant to the study of multicultural teams as shown by Connaughton and Shuffler (2007, multinational and multicultural distributed teams), Han & Beyerlein (2016, multinational virtual teams), Tang & Wang (2017; cross-cultural teams) and Verhoeven, Cooper, Flynn & Shuffler (2017; transnational teams).

Most of the research on teams and groups was guided for several decades by the input-process-output (IPO) framework developed in the functional perspective on teams (McGrath, 1964; Hackman & Morris, 1975). It provides a way to understand how teams perform and how to maximize their performance (Conte & Landy, 2019). In this framework, team effectiveness is the result of three major elements linked through one-dimensional relationships: inputs, processes and outputs. Called also antecedents, inputs refer to the composition of the team in terms of the constellation of individual characteristics and resources existing at multiple levels (individual, team, organization) (Kozlovski & Ilgen, 2006). The second major element of team effectiveness consists in team processes. These processes describe how team inputs are transformed into outcomes. Thus, they act as mediators between inputs and outputs. They refer to members' interactions directed toward task accomplishment or activities that team members engage in, combining their resources to accomplish team tasks. Outputs can be described in terms of: (a) performance judged by relevant others external to the team; (b) meeting of team-member needs; and (c) viability, or the willingness of members to remain in the team (Hackman, 1987).

Relatively recent works extended the knowledge on teams by building on shortcomings of the I-P-O framework. This framework, despite implying team interaction, fails to take into account that all mediational factors that are not necessarily processes (Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, & Jundt, 2005). In this sense, Marks, Mathieu & Zaccaro (2001) and Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson & Jundt (2005) proposed that mediational factors should also include emergent collective and cognitive effects and not only behavioral processes. In consequence, the term processes in I-P-O framework was replaced by the term mediating mechanisms (M). Furthermore, the classic I-P-O model limited the research of teams by imposing a single linear cycle from inputs to outputs, despite the fact that some of the authors who adopted this model stipulated the existence of potential feedback loops and recognized its limitations (Hackman, 1987; McGrath, Arrow & Berdahl, 2000). Other works considered that the outputs, such as team performance, serve as inputs to future processes and emerging group states (Ilgen et al., 2005). In addition, the I-P-O model suggests a linear progression of the influence of one category on the other (I, P or O). Recent studies have highlighted the existence

of interactions between inputs and processes (I x P), between different processes (P x P) and between inputs or processes and emerging group states (I / P x ES) (Ilgen et al., 2005; McGrath et al., 2001). The shortcomings of the I-P-O framework were overcome by new models of team effectiveness that rely simultaneously on multiple perspectives on team effectiveness. Examples of such frameworks are the Input-Mediator-Outcome-Input model (Ilgen et al., 2005) or Mathieu, Gallagher, Domingo & Klock's (2018) framework in which team inputs, mediating mechanisms, and structural features are conceived as overlapping coevolving facets of teams that collectively combine to generate team effectiveness.

Although some of these perspectives and frameworks have been largely used to investigate teams, the focus was on identifying a number of important drivers of team effectiveness and various mechanisms through which they exert such influence rather than on understanding team outcomes (Mathieu et al., 2008; Mathieu & Gilson, 2012). Team outcomes as a criteria domain of team effectiveness were considered as the least well defined of all the team constructs (Salas, Nichols & Driskell, 2007).

Over the years, team outcomes have been considered in a variety of ways. In this sense, in a review on team effectiveness models, Salas, Stagl, Burke & Goodwin (2007) identified more than 130 models and theoretical approaches on team effectiveness or its components. Some of these models are parsimonious and generalizable (e.g., Salas, Sims & Burke, 2005), while others are more focused on a specific team task (e.g., Xiao, Hunter, Mackenzie, Jeffries & Horts, 1996), process or function (e.g., Entin & Serfaty, 1999). However, many of these models have their own unique conceptualization as to what teamwork outcomes really include.

In recent years, there was a shift in how the domain criteria of (work) team effectiveness was conceptualized. While past research considered this construct as either a one-dimensional or multidimensional complex construct (Delgado Piña, María Romero Martínez & Gómez Martínez, 2008), in recent years, there is a commonly agreed tendency that it incorporates multiple dimensions or criteria (Mathieu & Gilson, 2012; Mathieu, Gallagher, Domingo & Klock, 2019; Singh & Muncherji, 2007). Relatively recent conceptualizations (Mathieu et al., 2008; Mathieu & Gilson, 2012, Mathieu et al., 2018) proposed that team outcomes can be broadly characterized in terms of two general types: (a) tangible outputs or products of team interaction and (b) influences on team members. Tangible outcomes can include: (a) productivity (i.e., the quantitative counts of some unit that a team produces); (b) efficiency (the quantitative counts of units produced relative to some standard or benchmark); and (c) quality (i.e., the assessment of the value or worth of the outputs delivered by the team). The influences on members as criteria of team effectiveness include collective and individual level outcomes. The collective outcomes can be shared experiences between all team members (i.e., emergent states or similar collective concepts) or descriptive characteristics of the whole team as entity that are not necessarily shared by all members but are also not reducible to individual member attributes or reactions (e.g., diversity, fault lines). The individual level outcomes can include attitudes,

reactions, degree of personal development or learning, and behaviors of individuals as team members, that may vary not only between teams, but also within teams (Mathieu, Luciano, D’Innocenzo, Klock, & LePine, 2019). Each of these criteria taps a different aspect of work team effectiveness. Overall, team outcomes provide a means for capturing how well – or how poorly – teams are interacting behaviorally, affectively, and cognitively (Hackman & Wageman, 2005). However, empirical research reveals that the most-used work team effectiveness criteria are those related to performance outcomes or tangible outputs, followed by satisfaction toward team and team viability (Gil, Alcover & Peiró, 2005; Verhoeven et al., 2017).

This gap is also highlighted by the very few reviews of empirical work on effectiveness of cross-cultural and trans-national teams (Tang & Wang, 2017; Verhoeven et al., 2017). Team level outcomes, mainly team performance and collective affective outcomes, were more frequently considered as an indicator of the team success compared to individual level outcomes.

In consequence, this chapter provides information about some of the less studied criteria of team effectiveness, such as the individual level outcomes. Specifically, our survey focused on satisfaction toward the team and individual benefits or team member’s personal development as results of collaborating in multicultural teams.

Satisfaction toward a team was considered both as a global score and in terms of the satisfaction towards team outputs such as the overall degree how well the team had accomplished its goals in general, the quality of the team results, the quantity of the team results (e.g. finish the task in deadline, do all tasks), and the initiative of the team as indicator of new ideas, solutions, and innovation.

In regards to global satisfaction toward various team outputs, our findings revealed that the 1344 surveyed students who provided data for this variable tend to agree that they are satisfied with the outputs of the multicultural teams they were part of ($M = 4.10$, $SD = .64$) on a scale ranging from 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree. Furthermore, this perception was similar among Romanian and Polish students (915 students, $M = 4.13$, and $SD = .64$ vs. 429 students, $M = 4.06$, and $SD = .64$). There were no significant differences between the two groups of students level as revealed by the results of the t independent test ($t(1342) = 1.60$, $p > .05$).

Furthermore, findings from a Friedman test revealed that students reported different levels of satisfaction toward the four different dimensions of team performance ($\chi^2(3) = 27.15$, $p < .001$). The highest level of satisfaction was toward the overall degree how well the team had accomplished its goals in general (mean rank = 2.61), followed by satisfaction toward the quantity and quality of team results (mean rank = 2.52, mean rank = 2.48), while the lowest was toward the initiative of the team as indicator of new ideas, solutions, and innovations (mean rank = 2.39).

Romanian and Polish students have similar levels of satisfaction toward the overall degree how well the team had accomplished its goals in general ($U = 118120$, $p > .05$), the quantity of the team results (e.g. finish the task in deadline, do all tasks) ($U = 121217$, $p > .05$), and the initiative of the team as indicator of new ideas, solutions,

and innovation ($U = 119507.50$, $p > .05$). But they differ in what regards the level of satisfaction toward the quality of the team results ($U = 106458$, $p < .001$). Romanian students reported higher levels of these criteria of team effectiveness results compared to Polish students.

TABLE 3.2. Means, standard deviations, and results of the independent group comparison tests testing for significant differences between level of global satisfaction towards team outcomes

Variable	N total	Romanian students				Polish students				Comparison test
		N	M	SD	Mean rank	N	M	SD	Mean rank	
Global satisfaction toward team outcomes	1344	915	4.12	.64	-	429	4.06	.64	-	$t(1342) = 1.60$
Satisfaction toward the overall degree how well the team had accomplished its goals in general	1016	604	4.21	.69	518.94	412	4.14	.72	493.20	$U = 118120$
Satisfaction toward the quality of the team results	1004	592	4.20	.67	528.67	412	4.01	.74	464.89	$U = 106458^{***}$
Satisfaction toward the quantity of the team results (e.g. finish the task in deadline, do all tasks)	1004	592	4.13	.82	503.74	412	4.13	.77	500.72	$U = 121217$
Satisfaction toward the initiative of the team as indicator of new ideas, solutions, and innovation	1002	590	4.05	.86	504.94	412	4.02	.88	496.57	$U = 119507.50$

SOURCE: own study.

In regards to the global score of the benefits resulted from collaborating in multicultural teams, our findings revealed that the 2079 surveyed students agreed that collaboration in multicultural teams has benefits for team members ($M = 4.26$, $SD = .64$, on a scale ranging from 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree). In addition, Romanian students perceived these benefits significantly differently compared to Polish students (958 students, $M = 4.39$, and $SD = .48$ vs. 1121 students, $M = 4.16$, and $SD = .77$).

Romanian students agreed more strongly than Polish students that collaboration in multicultural teams has benefits ($t(1895.33) = 8.34, p < .001$).

Findings from the Friedman test revealed that the 2026 students included in our sample reported different perceptions regarding the benefits provided by collaborating in multicultural teams ($\chi^2(11) = 1660.53, p < .001$). The strongest benefits provided consist in enhancing language skills (mean rank = 7.54) followed closely by learning how to cooperate and communicate with people different from each other (mean rank = 7.48). The weakest benefits reported by the participants were solving problems in a creative way (mean rank = 5.36) and learning distanced cooperation (mean rank = 5.34). The other benefits evaluated by the participants were in the following order: breaking communication barriers (mean rank = 7.18), exchanging of diverse views and opinions (mean rank = 6.79), broadening the horizons of thinking (mean rank = 6.79), gaining experience in various cultural areas (mean rank = 6.69), gathering unique experiences (mean rank = 6.58), learning to be open and not to be stereotyped (mean rank = 6.52), overcoming cultural differences (mean rank = 6.13), and learning new methods of operation (mean rank = 5.62).

TABLE 3.3. Means, standard deviations, and results of the independent group comparison tests testing for significant differences between benefits provided by the collaboration in multicultural teams

Variable	N	Romanian students				Polish students				Comparison test
		N	M	SD	Mean rank	N	M	SD	Mean rank	
Benefits provided by the collaboration in multicultural teams – Global scores	2079	958	4.39	.47		1121	4.16	.77		$t(1342) = 1.60$
Gaining experience in various cultural areas	2073	952	4.46	.67	1125.65	1121	4.14	1.01	961.72	$U = 449205.50^{***}$
Overcoming cultural differences	2065	944	4.25	.75	1063.53	1121	4.09	1.00	1007.29	$U = 500288.00^*$
Learning how to cooperate and communicate with people different from each other	2073	952	4.61	.61	1112.33	1121	4.34	.93	973.03	$U = 461885.00^{***}$
Exchanging diverse views and opinions	2069	948	4.40	.74	1080.93	1121	4.22	.96	996.16	$U = 487809.00^{***}$

	N	Romanian students				Polish students				Comparison test
Broadening the horizons of thinking	2070	949	4.47	.73	1128.89	1121	4.15	1.00	956.44	U = 443287.50***
Learning distanced cooperation	2066	945	4.06	.89	1079.90	1121	3.89	.99	994.39	U = 485826.50***
Learning to be open and not to be stereotyped	2068	947	4.42	.76	1134.69	1121	4.08	1.02	949.86	U = 435913.50***
Enhancing language skills	2071	950	4.54	.70	1049.88	1121	4.42	.96	1024.24	U = 519288.00
Breaking communication barriers	2070	949	4.44	.71	1033.29	1121	4.36	.94	1037.37	U = 529821.50
Gathering unique experiences	2066	945	4.41	.81	1130.01	1121	4.12	.96	952.15	U = 438474.50***
Learning new methods of operation	2064	943	4.19	.83	1120.39	1121	3.90	1.01	958.56	U = 445669.50***
Solving problems in a creative way	2063	942	4.02	.90	1055.32	1121	3.91	1.03	1012.41	U = 506025.50

SOURCE: own study.

Further analyses show that Romanian and Polish students have similar perceptions on enhancing language skills ($U = 519288.00$, $p > .05$), breaking communication barriers ($U = 529821.50$, $p > .05$), and solving problems in creative ways as benefits of collaboration in multicultural teams ($U = U = 506025.50$, $p > .05$) (see Table 3). In regards to the other types of benefits investigated, Romanian students reported more benefits compared to Polish students in terms of gaining experience in various cultural areas ($U = 449205.50$, $p < .001$), overcoming cultural differences ($U = 500288.00$, $p > .05$), learning how to cooperate and communicate with people different from each other ($U = 461885.00$, $p < .001$), exchanging diverse views and opinions ($U = 487809.00$, $p < .001$), broadening the horizons of thinking ($U = 443287.50$, $p < .001$), learning distanced cooperation ($U = 485826.50$, $p < .001$), learning to be open and not to be stereotyped ($U = 435913.50$, $p < .001$), gathering unique experiences ($U = 438474.50$, $p < .001$), learning new methods of operation ($U = 445669.50$, $p < .001$).

3.3. Design and composition in multicultural teams

A lot of research was devoted to identifying what specific characteristics, mainly what inputs, actually lead to the most successful team outcomes (Humphrey & Aime, 2014). The input portion of the team effectiveness model has frequently been documented by multiple levels of input including individual input, team input, organizational input, and task input. Individual inputs are characteristic of the individuals in a team, team inputs are applicable to the overall team, organizational inputs relate to differences in the overall organization, and task inputs relate to facets of the task. Individual, team, and organizational inputs all relate to each other in a hierarchical order and interact. Specifically, individuals are nested within a team and a team is in an organization. Therefore, any input at one given level could interact and partially affect the other levels (Verhoeven et al., 2017).

Elements of design and composition in teams are considered inputs to team effectiveness. Unsurprisingly, composition has been one of the most heavily researched areas in the teamwork literature, having been related to team effectiveness for over 50 years.

Team composition refers to the attributes of team members, including skills, abilities, experiences, and personality characteristics (Guzzo & Dickson, 1996; Dinh & Salas, 2017) and the configuration of member attributes and characteristics within a team (Levine & Moreland, 1990; Wolfson & Mathieu, 2017). This involves understanding several component parts, including: individual factors relevant to team performance; what constitutes a good team member; what the best configuration of team member knowledge, skills, abilities (KSAs), and other characteristics is; fault lines (i.e., refer to the overlap of the demographic characteristics and potential to split into subgroups, Lau & Murnighan, 1998), and the role that diversity plays in team effectiveness (Cannon-Bowers & Bowers, 2011; Dinh & Salas, 2017).

Team diversity refers to differences among team members, including function/role, occupation/discipline, culture, race/ethnicity, and gender. Two main types of diversity can be distinguished (Conte & Landy, 2019). The first one is demographic diversity or diversity in surface-level attributes (McGrath, Berdahl & Arrow, 1995; Manix & Neale, 2005), the second one is psychological diversity or diversity in deep-level attributes (Conte & Landy, 2019). Demographic diversity refers to differences in observable attributes or demographic characteristics such as age, gender, and ethnicity (Conte & Landy, 2019). Psychological diversity refers to differences in underlying attributes, such as skills, abilities, personality characteristics, attitudes, beliefs, and values, and may include functional, occupational, and educational backgrounds; Harrison, Price, Gavin & Florey, 2002; Valls, Gonzáles-Romá & Tomás, 2016; Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). These distinctions in types of diversity have been determined and explored by prior research. There is a great body of research on diversity and its effects within teams (Dinh & Salas, 2017). Overall, diversity within teams appears

to be a double-edged sword, with benefits and challenges unique to specific forms and types thereof (Jackson & Joshi, 2004; Milliken & Martins, 1996).

Globalization is a reality in the 21st century workplace (Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyne & Annen, 2011). Given that economies and organizations are becoming increasingly globalized, research has begun to tease apart the effects of various cultural differences on team processes and outcomes (Boyratz, 2019). Cultural input plays a complex role in team effectiveness (Verhoeven et al., 2017).

There are several definitions of culture. For instance, culture may be defined as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another” (Hofstede, 1980, p. 25; Cordery & Tian, 2017) or “a system in which individuals share meanings and common ways of viewing events and objects” (Conte & Landy, 2019). Other definitions defined culture as comprising the assumptions people hold about relationships with each other and the environment that are shared among an identifiable group of people (e.g., team, organization, nation; Gibson, Maznevski & Kirkman, 2009; Dinh & Salas, 2017).

Culture is a driving force for member values, norms, and behaviors (Erez & Gati, 2004), which can originate from any level of group (including teams, an organization as a whole, a field or discipline, at the national level, or across other fault lines; Salas et al., 2015). In particular, the cultural values of the organization, team, and members within a team can have great impact on teamwork. Cultural values shape the way that individuals view themselves in relation to the team, thereby trickling down into teamwork attitudes (e.g., trust and collective efficacy), cognition (e.g., shared mental models), and behaviors (e.g., information exchange and backup behavior; Shuffler, Diaz Granados & Salas, 2011), including communication and conflict management (Taras, Kirkman & Steel, 2010; Dinh & Salas, 2017). The evidence regarding cultural diversity in teams is mixed (Gibson et al., 2014). A 2010 meta-analysis by Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt, and Jonsen found a number of advantages associated with culturally diverse teams, including higher levels of creativity and satisfaction. Conversely, heterogeneity in cultural values and norms can also be a source of conflict and process loss, particularly in that it can lead to a lack of social integration (i.e., cohesion, identity, and commitment), communication, and shared meaning (Salas et al., 2015). Cultural diversity inherently can entail a number of other barriers preventing effective team processes, such as language and miscommunication and norms regarding punctuality and work habits.

Another aspect related to cultural diversity in teams regards the hybrid cultures. In these cultures, the similarities among team members are acknowledged (Earley & Mosakowski, 2000). A hybrid team culture is defined as an emergent set of norms, rules, expectations, and behaviors that individuals within a team create themselves after a period of interaction (Salas et al., 2015). Fleischmann, Folter, and Aritz (2017) found that the adequate language skills lead not only to an efficient task solution but are also an important factor in creating interpersonal relationships and building a shared culture. Perceived language proficiency within a team had a significant effect

on both the affectively (procedural and innovative dimensions that include communication, reciprocity, and shared identity) and the cognitively (i.e., reflective and synergistic dimensions that include mutual learning, (self-) feedback, and performance) oriented dimensions of hybrid culture building. The effect on the cognitively oriented dimensions was larger than the effect on the affective dimensions.

When addressing teams and, particularly multicultural teams, culture is considered not only as input (i.e., team composition) for team mediators and outcomes, but also as an element of the environmental context in which teams operate. Teams do not perform in a vacuum, however; in considering teamwork and performance, it is essential to take into account the surrounding environment (Dinh & Salas, 2017). Mathieu et al. (2008, p. 454) define environmental contextual variables as “sources of influence that emanate from outside of the organization yet influence team functioning.” The sparse literature dedicated to the influence of environmental context on team effectiveness reveals that cultural context is one of the environmental contextual variables that is most investigated (Gibson & Dibble, 2013; Cordery & Tian, 2017).

National culture has an impact on teamwork (Gelfand, Erez & Aycan, 2007; Taras, Kirkman & Steel, 2010). Literature portrays national cultural diversity in teamwork, mainly in traditional face-to-face teams, as a double-edged sword (Han & Beyerlein, 2016). National cultural values are a highly salient source of individuals' identity and hence exert a fairly constant influence on their behavior in organizational settings (Gibson & Dibble, 2013). They may have a profound impact on how individuals perceive information and work with their team members because they will tend to filter information through their cultural lenses, which creates potential for misinterpretations (Dreo, Kunkel & Mitchell, 2002). But also, national cultural diversity can have positive team outcomes (Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2000; Joshi & Roh, 2009, Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt & Jonsen, 2010; Shachaf, 2008).

A number of studies suggest that national culture is likely to be an important influence on the successful design, deployment and functioning of teams (Kirkman et al., 2006; Taras, Kirkman & Steel, 2010). For example, collectivistic cultural orientations have been associated with more cooperation and positive attitudes towards teams, whereas individualistic cultural orientation are linked to the potential for increased conflict within and between teams (Bell, 2007). Different levels of acceptance of teams across collectivistic and individualistic cultural value systems „may help to explain why team efforts often fail in highly individualistic countries such as the US” (Kirkman et al., 2006, p. 308). Gibson's (2003) study of 71 US and Indonesian nursing teams demonstrated that collectivistic national cultural values influence nursing team's performance in terms of quality of service, such that Indonesian teams exhibited significantly higher quality of service as compared with US teams.

Researchers have also theorized that specific cultural values may foster employee opposition into particular features of team designs (Gibson & Gibbs, 2006; Kirkman & Shapiro, 1997, 2001). For example, it has been suggested that teams in high-power

distance cultures, which are characterized by hierarchical structures and clear lines of authority, are less likely to feel comfortable working in highly autonomous or loosely structured teams (Kirkman et al., 2006; Kirkman & Shapiro, 1997, 2001). Cheng, Chua, Morris & Lee (2012) argue that employees from cultures with low uncertainty avoidance tend to be more comfortable in the absence of clear structures and a formal leader... Such individuals are better able to meet the demands of interdependence, coordination, and trust among culturally different team members in self-managing teams (p. 393). They also suggest that employees from high relationship orientation cultures may also have a culture linked preference for working in teams.

Research suggests that culture, mainly cultural values, have a predictive power significantly lower than that of personality traits and demographics for certain outcomes (e.g., job performance, absenteeism, turnover) but significantly higher for others (e.g., organizational commitment, identification, citizenship behavior, team-related attitudes, feedback seeking). Cultural values were most strongly related to emotions, followed by attitudes, then behaviors, and finally job performance (Taras et al., 2010; Verhoeven, Cooper, Flynn & Shuffler, 2017).

Studies show that team members cultural intelligence have an influence on teamwork (Ang et al., 2007). Introduced by Earley & Ang (2003), cultural intelligence is defined as an individual's capability to function effectively in situations characterized by cultural diversity (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Ang et al., 2007). This type of intelligence is a multidimensional concept comprising metacognitive (i.e., an individual's level of conscious cultural awareness during intercultural interactions), cognitive (i.e., knowledge of norms, practices, and conventions in different cultures acquired from education and personal experience), motivational (i.e., the capability to direct attention and energy toward learning about and operating in culturally diverse situations), and behavioural (i.e., the capability to exhibit culturally appropriate verbal and nonverbal actions when interacting with people from other cultures) dimensions (Rockstuhl et al., 2011). Each dimension has several subdimensions (Van Dyne, Ang, Ng, Rockstuhl, Tan & Koh, 2012) and they represent qualitatively different facets of overall cultural intelligence (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Ang et al., 2007). Cultural intelligence is related to individual-level behaviours relevant for teams and organizations, such as speaking out and speaking up in multicultural settings. For instance, Ng, Van Dyne, and Ang (2019) found in two studies that individuals with low CQ engage in less voice to culturally distant voice targets than those with high CQ. In addition, results of Study 2 support mediated moderation and demonstrate that cultural distance has a negative indirect relationship with voice, via perceived voice instrumentality, only for individuals with low CQ.

In this chapter we investigated whether an individual's cultural intelligence and participation to multicultural teams as elements of team composition have greater predictive power than personality traits, self-leadership, and motivation on satisfaction toward team outcomes and perceived benefits provided by the collaboration in multicultural teams.

To empirically evidence this, we conducted hierarchical regression analysis having the following steps: (1). demographic variables: age, gender, years of enrollment in faculty, residency; (2). personality traits: extraversion, agreeability, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experiences; (3). motivational aspects: self-goal setting, self-observation, self-reward, evaluating and challenging the irrational beliefs and assumptions, focusing on natural rewards, self-cueing, trust in other team members or interpersonal trust, instrumentality and self-efficacy in team context, and (4). cultural intelligence (metacognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioral) and change to participate in multicultural teams.

Regarding satisfaction toward team outcomes, hierarchical regression analysis reveals that components of cultural intelligence and the chance to participate in multicultural teams do not have a greater predictive power than personality traits and motivational variables ($F_{ch}(5, 812) = 1.16, p > .05$). In fact, satisfaction towards team outcomes is not significantly related to metacognitive ($\beta = .08, p > .05$), cognitive ($\beta = .00, p > .05$), motivational ($\beta = -.03, p > .05$) and behavioral ($\beta = .02, p > .05$) cultural intelligence and chance to participate in multicultural teams ($\beta = .02, p > .05$). In addition, the sole factors that are related to satisfaction towards team outcomes are age ($\beta = .09, p < .05$), self-efficacy ($\beta = .17, p < .001$), and interpersonal trust ($\beta = .13, p < .001$). Thus, a high level of satisfaction towards team outcomes is associated with an increase in age, a stronger perceived capability to show the required activities for the team tasks; or the perceived contingency that one's own high effort leads to own high performance and a strong expectancy of team members that their efforts will be reciprocated and not exploited by other team members.

TABLE 3.4. Results of hierarchical linear regression analysis – Satisfaction towards team outcomes (N = 836)

Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Variables	β	β	β	β
1. Age	.09*	.09*	.09*	.09*
2. Gender	.06	.05	.05	.05
3. Education (years in university studies)	.00	-.01	-.02	-.02
4. Place of residence	.04	.03	.02	.01
5. Personality – Extraversion		.00	-.02	-.02
6. Personality – Agreeability		.05	.02	.03
7. Personality – Conscientiousness		.03	.00	.00
8. Personality – Emotional stability		.02	-.01	-.01
9. Personality – Openness		.12***	.07*	.07
10. Self-leadership – Self goal setting			-.02	-.03

Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Variables	β	β	β	β
11. Self-leadership – Evaluating beliefs and assumptions			.06	.04
12. Self-leadership – Self observation			.03	.02
13. Self-leadership – Self reward			.02*	.02
14. Self-leadership – Focus on natural rewards			.04	.04
15. Self-leadership – Self cueing			-.03	-.03
16. Motivation – Instrumentality			-.01	-.01
17. Motivation – Self efficacy			.18***	.17***
18. Motivation – Interpersonal trust			.13***	.12***
19. Cultural intelligence – Metacognitive				.08
20. Cultural intelligence – Cognitive				.00
21. Cultural intelligence – Motivational				-.03
22. Cultural intelligence – Behavioral				.02
23. Chance to participate/work in multicultural teams				.03
F	2.91*	3.41***	5.78***	4.78***
R ²	.01	.04	.11	.12
F change	2.91*	3.77***	7.89***	1.16
ΔR^2	.01	.02	.08	.01

SOURCE: own study.

Results of the hierarchical analysis including as an outcome the perceived benefits provided by collaboration in multicultural teams revealed that considered together the components of cultural intelligence and chance to participate in multicultural teams do have a greater predictive power than personality traits and motivational variables ($F_{ch}(5, 837) = 5.14, p < .001$). Metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral component of cultural intelligence and the chance to participate in multicultural teams together explained additionally (R^2_{ch}) 2.5% of the variance of the perceived benefits provided by collaboration in multicultural teams variable. Thereof, only the metacognitive component of cultural intelligence was significantly associated with the outcome variable ($\beta = .16, p < .001$). In other words, the intense use of mental processes that an individual use to acquire and understand cultural knowledge, including knowledge of and control over his/her thought processes relating to culture is associated to a high level of the benefits provided by collaboration in multicultural teams. Other individual differences or individual level inputs significantly related to the perceived benefits provided by collaboration in multicultural teams are the following: gender ($\beta = .15, p < .001$), emotional stability ($\beta = -.08, p < .05$),

evaluating and challenging the irrational beliefs and assumptions ($\beta = .17, p < .001$), focus on natural rewards ($\beta = .08, p < .05$), and interpersonal trust ($\beta = .09, p < .05$). In other words, the students who perceived more benefits provided by collaboration in multicultural teams are females, those who use more intensively a process of self-analysis that permits them to identify, confront, and replace dysfunctional beliefs and assumptions with more rational ones, emphasize more the enjoyable aspects of a given task or activity, and have stronger expectancy that in a team, their efforts will be reciprocated and not exploited by other team members. Surprisingly, there was also a weak association between perceived extra benefits from collaboration in multicultural teams and low emotional stability.

TABLE 3.5. Results of hierarchical linear regression analysis – Benefits provided by collaboration in multicultural teams (N = 861)

Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Variables	β	β	β	β
1. Age	-.07	-.07	-.06	-.06
2. Gender	.17***	.15***	.16***	.15***
3. Education (years in university studies)	.02	.01	-.02	-.03
4. Place of residence	.05	.03	.03	.02
5. Personality – Extraversion		.08*	.06	.05
6. Personality – Agreeability		.04	.02	.02
7. Personality – Consciousness		.06	-.03	-.03
8. Personality – Emotional stability		-.04	-.09*	-.08*
9. Personality – Openness		.14***	.07	.05
10. Self-leadership – Self goal setting			.08	.06
11. Self-leadership – Evaluating beliefs and assumptions			.21***	.17***
12. Self-leadership – Self observation			.07	.05
13. Self-leadership – Self reward			.01	-.01
14. Self-leadership – Focus on natural rewards			.08*	.08*
15. Self-leadership – Self cueing			-.01	.00
16. Motivation – Instrumentality			.01	.03
17. Motivation – Self efficacy			.00	-.02
18. Motivation – Interpersonal trust			.10**	.09*
19. Cultural intelligence – Metacognitive				.16***

Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Variables	β	β	β	β
20. Cultural intelligence – Cognitive				-.05
21. Cultural intelligence – Motivational				.06
22. Cultural intelligence – Behavioral				.01
23. Chance to participate/work in multicultural teams				-.05
F	7.52***	7.42***	10.74***	9.80***
R ²	.03	.07	.19	.21
F change	7.52***	7.12***	13.11***	5.41***
ΔR^2	.03	.04	.11	.03

SOURCE: own study.

3.4. Team processes and emergent states in multicultural teams

Understanding the processes and mediators that individuals utilize in team-based work is vital to interpreting how inputs and outputs are related. Specifically, these aspects of the team effectiveness model will aim to explore why some teams are more or less effective than others within the context of international and culturally diverse teams. To address this issue, the following sections will cover various processes and emergent states that intervene between the inputs and outputs of teams. The roles of processes and mediators are dynamic and nonlinear.

In order to achieve success and to be effective, teams must successfully engage in both taskwork and teamwork (Burke, Wilson & Salas, 2003). These are considered two distinctly different dimensions of team dynamics but related. Taskwork refers to the performance of specific tasks needed to achieve team goals. Tasks are those work-related activities that individuals or teams engage in as an essential function of their organizational role (Wildman et al., 2012). Taskwork typically becomes the key focus as teams work towards their goals but is significantly aided by teamwork. This adaptive, dynamic, and episodic process can make the difference between success and failure, regardless of team members' task-relevant expertise (Salas, Shuffler, Thayer, Bedwell & Lazzara, 2015). Failing to value and invest in teamwork can have catastrophic consequences (Salas, Rico & Passmore, 2017).

Teamwork implies attitudes, behaviors, and cognition (Cannon-Bowers & Bowers, 2011; Salas, Cooke & Rosen, 2008). Team-level attitudes are those internal states which affect interactions, such as mutual trust, cohesion, and collective efficacy. Team cognition describes the structure and representation of knowledge among

members, allowing teams to plan and execute actions efficiently. Team-level attitudes and team cognition are considered as resultant properties of a team (Marks et al., 2001) or emergent states. Team behaviors refer to the processes necessary to engage in teamwork or the conversion of inputs to outcomes through the affective, behavioral, and cognitive (Marks et al., 2001). Clearly, behaviors are vital for successful outcomes, or performance, in a variety of domains (Mathieu et al., 2008). Furthermore, recent team research has revealed that team members' interaction patterns rather than the frequencies of their individual actions are what discriminates higher- from lower-performing teams (Kim et al., 2012; Zijlstra et al., 2012; Kolbe et al., 2014; Lei et al., 2016; apud. Kolbe & Boos, 2019). Given the shift to team-based structures in today's organizations, it is becoming more important to understand team processes.

Marks, Mathieu, and Zaccaro (2001) advanced a theory and framework of team processes that has garnered much attention and guided numerous investigations on teams. In this framework, team processes were considered as "members' interdependent acts that convert inputs to outcomes through cognitive, verbal and behavioral activities directed toward organizing taskwork to achieve collective goals... Centrally, team process involves members interacting with other members and their task. They are the means by which members work interdependently to utilize various resources such as expertise, equipment, money, to yield meaningful outcomes (e.g., product development, rate of work, team commitment, satisfaction)" (p. 357). In other words, processes are actions that unfold over time that explain the relationship between an input and an output (Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas & Cohen, 2012; Marks et al., 2001). They are three distinct phases when a team tries to complete goals, including the transition phase, action phase, and interpersonal phase. Whereas transition and action processes cyclically follow one another over time, Marks and colleagues (2001) argued that managing the interpersonal dynamics among members is an ongoing activity over time. Team processes are inherently dynamic, emerge over time, and change their pattern (Kolbe & Boos, 2019; Kozlowski & Chao, 2018).

During the transition phase team processes are preliminary in nature and oriented around evaluation or planning to meet team goals (Marks et al., 2001). Specifically, processes such as mission analysis typically occur in this phase (i.e., the identification and evaluation of team tasks, challenges, environmental conditions, and resources available for performing the team's work), goal specification (i.e., activities centered on the identification and prioritization of team goals), and strategy formation and planning (i.e., developing courses of action and contingency plans as well as making adjustments to plans in light of changes or expected changes in the team's environment) (Mathieu et al., 2019).

The action phase includes processes focused on activities that move the team toward goal completion (Marks et al., 2001), including monitoring progress toward goals (i.e., members paying attention to, interpreting, and communicating information

necessary for the team to gauge its progress toward its goals), systems monitoring (i.e., activities such as tracking team resources and factors in the team environment to ensure that the team has what it needs. to accomplish its goals and objectives), team monitoring and backup responses (i.e., members assisting others in the performance of their tasks (by providing feedback or coaching or assisting with the task itself), and coordination activities (i.e., synchronizing or aligning the members' actions) (Mathieu et al., 2019).

Interpersonal processes aim to monitor team relationships and occur throughout the duration of both the action and transition phases (Marks et al., 2001). These processes include conflict management (i.e., activities that develop and maintain members' motivation and confidence while working towards the team goal), motivation and confidence building (activities that develop and maintain members' motivation and confidence while working toward team goals), and affect management (activities that foster emotional balance, togetherness, and effective coping with stressful demands and frustration) (Mathieu et al., 2019).

Emergent states are dynamic properties that vary due to the context of the team, processes, and outcomes (Marks et al., 2001) and they form in response to experiences and observations of team member interactions, and these experiences and observations both shape, and are shaped by, the accumulating beliefs (Harvey, Leblanc & Cronin, 2019). They are defined in terms of beliefs that team members hold about the team's goals, team member abilities, and interpersonal norms (Harvey et al., 2019). They refer to the cognitive, motivational, and affective states of teams.

Cognitive emergent states can include (team and task) shared mental models (i.e., team members' shared understandings or representations of knowledge within their team (Mathieu, Heffner, Goodwin, Cannon-Bowers & Salas, 2005), strategic consensus (i.e., managers at the top, middle, and lower levels of an organization having shared strategic priorities; Kellermanns, Walter, Lechner & Floyd, 2005), team learning (as an outcome that consists in the change in knowledge due to experiences, Ellis et al., 2003), and team transactive memory systems (i.e., "collection of knowledge possessed by each team member and a collective awareness of who knows what" (Mathieu et al., 2008, p. 431).

Team motivational states enable a team to achieve goals by enhancing the team's desire and enthusiasm for completing work. The motivational emergent states can include team confidence in terms of team efficacy (i.e., shared belief in the group's collective ability to execute goal-oriented actions to complete tasks, Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006) and potency (i.e., the team's collective belief that they will be successful, Guzzo, Yost, Campbell & Shea, 1993) and team empowerment in terms of both structural and psychological aspects (Mathieu, Gilson & Ruddy, 2006). Structural empowerment examines the impact that authority delegation and responsibility can have on performance, while psychological empowerment is the individual team members' collective belief that they are responsible for their team's actions and have the authority to control their work environment (Mathieu et al., 2006).

Team effect examines the feelings (i.e., moods and emotions) within and among team members. These emergent states can include: *cohesion* (i.e., the shared belief or commitment from team members to the task, or to each other; Beal et al., 2003), *trust* (i.e., the willingness of an individual to believe that another person's actions will be beneficial or non-detrimental to their own, or the team's, best interest without monitoring or regulating the other party, Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995), various types of climate (i.e., the shared perceptions of both informal and formal policies, practices, and procedures of an organization (Schneider, White & Paul, 1998) including an organization's safety climate (employees shared perceptions of the organization's attitudes toward safety and their overall work environment), service climate (i.e., employees' shared perception of the organization's expected behaviors in regards to customer wellbeing and customer service, Schneider et al., 1998), and justice climate (team's perception of how they are treated as a whole within their organization, Greenberg, 1990); team psychological safety – the shared belief that a team is a safe place to take interpersonal risks (Edmondson, 1999).

Conclusions

Looking at culture nationally and internationally, the literature is insufficient concerning the relationship between cultural diversity and team effectiveness. While research has emphasized culture at an individual level of analysis, this cannot be aggregated to generalize culture at other levels (e.g., national level). Rather, a multilevel approach is necessary to integrate micro-level and macro-level findings (Fischer, Ferreira, Assmar, Redford & Harb, 2005; Verhoeven, Cooper, Flynn & Shuffler, 2017).

Most recently, Ramos-Villagrasa et al. (2018) conducted a systematic review of the science of teams, under the logic that teams operate as CAS. As CASs, teams constantly adapt to tackle environmental occurrences, and make decisions based on the team's history and expected outcomes of the future (Arrow et al., 2000). In examining teams through this lens, researchers are given the opportunity to view teams in a non-linear, more dynamic way. Such a method has been seen as crucial to teams research because in adapting a non-traditional lens to study teams, researchers are better able to deal with temporal issues and provide insight for better practical application (McGrath et al., 2000; Navarro et al., 2015).

Team composition is thought to have powerful influences on team processes and outcomes (Kozlowski & Bell, 2003; Wolfson & Mathieu, 2017). Composition can be influenced, and in turn influence, a number of team-level factors. In practice, organizations should approach composition holistically, understanding the characteristics of the individual and group in composition, in addition to the demands of the performance episode at hand. Effective teamwork goes beyond assembling a team of experts with the needed taskwork knowledge (Salas et al., 2005); members must also be well versed in teamwork generic skills. As such, organizations may seek to measure and select team members based on both task-specific knowledge and more generic teamwork-related capabilities. Following the selection stage, organizations can foster healthy team composition through careful strategizing (Dinh & Salas, 2017). Indeed, the study of composition entails a major area of interest in industrial/organizational psychology: the selection of individuals who can best contribute to the team. Many studies have indicated that the cognitive ability and personality traits of individuals can predict team performance, thereby emphasizing the importance of selecting appropriate team members. By exploring how composition influences effectiveness, organizations can develop selection systems that aid managerial decisions when forming teams (Dinh & Salas, 2017).

As such, organizations with diverse individuals and groups should actively develop climates that emphasize overarching and uniting norms and values. They may also emphasize effective teamwork processes regardless of status. For example, airline industries have implemented crew resource management protocols that focus on effective coordination and communication among team members, which can strengthen rapport in spite of discrepant cultural backgrounds (Salas et al., 2015).

Furthermore, highly heterogeneous groups that set norms for appreciating differences can contribute to the overall goal of the team and maximize team performance (Mannix & Neale, 2005). Fostering the development of a team identity and culture can build up other critical considerations (such as cooperation and coordination), helping overcome individual differences between team members.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Dear Colleagues,

The Bialystok University of Technology in cooperation with Babes Bolyai University carries out a research aimed at exploring the academic staff's experiences about the students' teamwork skills for virtual and multicultural teams. The research is carried out as part of the NAWA program.

In this study, a **multicultural team** is understood as a team of people working on the implementation of a common goal in which there are representatives of at least two national cultures/countries. **Virtual teams** – as a team of people working on the implementation of a common goal, in which team members are spatially dispersed, and communication takes place through modern information technologies (messenger, skype).

The research is anonymous and the results will be used only for collective scientific studies. The estimated time to complete the survey is 15 minutes.

Thank you for participating.

1. To what extent do you agree with these statements about multicultural and virtual teams?

	Very rare	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often
a) My teaching is focused on developing students skills for working in multicultural teams	1	2	3	4	5
b) My teaching is focused on developing students skills for working in virtual teams	1	2	3	4	5
c) University teaching prepares students to work in multicultural teams	1	2	3	4	5
d) University teaching prepares students to work in virtual teams	1	2	3	4	5

e) Employers appreciates the ability to work in multicultural teams	1	2	3	4	5
f) Employers appreciates the ability to work in virtual teams	1	2	3	4	5
g) Traditional teams are more effective and efficient than virtual teams	1	2	3	4	5
h) Traditional teams are more effective and efficient than multicultural teams	1	2	3	4	5

2. What methods for multicultural and virtual teamwork do you use when teaching and trying to develop students' multicultural and virtual teamwork skills?

Methods	Very rare	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often
a) Academic games or contests between groups of students	1	2	3	4	5
b) Class tasks that require work in groups/teams	1	2	3	4	5
c) Brainstorming tasks in groups	1	2	3	4	5
d) Field trips/group visits/going out with the students	1	2	3	4	5
e) Role plays in groups	1	2	3	4	5
f) Case studies to be solved in groups	1	2	3	4	5
g) Thematic student clubs/centres of interest	1	2	3	4	5
h) Group projects (all members receive the same grade)	1	2	3	4	5
i) Presentations in groups (all members receive the same grade)	1	2	3	4	5
j) Debates in groups/teams	1	2	3	4	5
k) Feedback/debriefing for the entire groups	1	2	3	4	5
l) Tasks that includes the use of technology for multicultural and virtual team working	1	2	3	4	5
m) E-learning	1	2	3	4	5
n) Assigning students to groups according to some specific criteria	1	2	3	4	5
o) Encouraging students to use online tools when working in teams (for example: google docs, dropbox, Skype)	1	2	3	4	5

p) Other methods, which?	1	2	3	4	5
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3. When you give tasks/project to be solved by students in groups, how often do you get involved in the following aspects of the student team work?

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often
a) Participating to the formulation of the teams objectives and strategy	1	2	3	4	5
b) Monitoring the progress of the teams towards goals	1	2	3	4	5
c) Keeping track of the resources available for the teams (room, databases, software, virtual disk, teleconferencing tools)	1	2	3	4	5
d) Assisting the team members to perform their tasks	1	2	3	4	5
e) Coordinating the actions and timing of the teams	1	2	3	4	5
f) Assisting the members in conflict management situations	1	2	3	4	5
g) Motivating and building the confidence of the team members	1	2	3	4	5
h) Assisting members when facing individual emotional difficulties (frustration, cohesion)	1	2	3	4	5
i) Assisting members of the team to exchange the knowledge in groups and between groups	1	2	3	4	5
j) Assisting members of the team to be active in work by self evaluating in the end	1	2	3	4	5
k) Others, which?.....	1	2	3	4	5

4. How strong do the following factors influence you to use methods focused on developing students' skills for working in virtual and multicultural teams?

	Low influence		Average		Very high influence
1. A clear university strategy on the role of multicultural team working	1	2	3	4	5

	Low influence		Average		Very high influence
2. Standards and evaluation criteria for adopting & developing virtual teamwork	1	2	3	4	5
3. Access to resources and tools	1	2	3	4	5
4. Training/ support for teaching skills for multicultural team working	1	2	3	4	5
5. Other colleagues' teaching methods and achievements in teaching virtual and multicultural team working	1	2	3	4	5
6. Size of the class	1	2	3	4	5
7. Heavy workload	1	2	3	4	5
8. Students quality and interest	1	2	3	4	5
9. The level of your technical skills	1	2	3	4	5
10. Your pedagogical skills	1	2	3	4	5
11. Your knowledge and experience in virtual and multicultural team working	1	2	3	4	5
12. Your age	1	2	3	4	5
13. Your career trajectory	1	2	3	4	5

14. Do you agree with the following statements about the methods to improve students' skills for working in multicultural teams?

	Totally disagree	Partially disagree	So and so	Partially agree	Totally agree
a) Teaching methods for multicultural teams are compatible with our existing faculty culture	1	2	3	4	5
b) Teaching methods for multicultural teams are challenging to understand, learn and use effectively	1	2	3	4	5
c) It is easy to experiment or try teaching methods for multicultural teams and then decide if they fit the lecturer	1	2	3	4	5
d) The results of using teaching methods for multicultural teams are clearly visible to you and the others (students, colleagues, faculty management)	1	2	3	4	5

15. What were the main challenges you encountered when working in multicultural and virtual teams?

	Very rarely	Rarely	Average	Often	Very often
a) coordination problems	1	2	3	4	5
b) lack of involvement, motivation and commitment of team members	1	2	3	4	5
c) decision making problems	1	2	3	4	5
d) leadership problems (eg delegating, monitoring and providing feedback)	1	2	3	4	5
e) team roles problems (unclear tasks/roles of each member)	1	2	3	4	5
f) not meeting the deadlines	1	2	3	4	5
g) skill-level differences between members	1	2	3	4	5
h) personality differences between members	1	2	3	4	5
i) language proficiency difficulties of the members	1	2	3	4	5
j) communication problems	1	2	3	4	5
k) insufficient knowledge of IT tools by team members	1	2	3	4	5
l) hardware difficulties (software, computer, internet access)	1	2	3	4	5

16. Thinking about your experience of working in teams, to what extent do you agree with these statements?

	Totally disagree	Partially disagree	So and so	Partially agree	Totally agree
a) I believe that my contribution to the team's success was very important.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Other members of my team/from my university asked me for advice when task specific problems occur.	1	2	3	4	5
c) In difficult situations, the success of my team depended especially on my contribution.	1	2	3	4	5
d) I felt capable to accomplish my tasks within my team work.	1	2	3	4	5

	Totally disagree	Partially disagree	So and so	Partially agree	Totally agree
e) For each problem that arouse out of my team work, I could find a solution.	1	2	3	4	5
f) If a new task arises from my team work, I know how to handle it.	1	2	3	4	5
g) I can discuss task-related difficulties with each of the other members of my team.	1	2	3	4	5
h) I can share my ideas, feelings, and expectations with each of the other members of my team.	1	2	3	4	5
i) The members of my team fulfilled their tasks on a high competence level.	1	2	3	4	5

17. To what extent do you agree with these statements?

	Totally disagree	Partially disagree	So and so	Partially agree	Totally agree
a) I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.	1	2	3	4	5
b) I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me	1	2	3	4	5
c) I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.	1	2	3	4	5
d) I establish specific goals for my own performance	1	2	3	4	5
e) I work toward specific goals I have set for myself	1	2	3	4	5
f) I think about the goals that I intend to achieve in the future	1	2	3	4	5
g) I make a point to keep track of how well I'm doing at work (school)	1	2	3	4	5
h) I usually am aware of how well I'm doing as I perform an activity	1	2	3	4	5
i) I keep track of my progress on projects I'm working on	1	2	3	4	5

18. I see myself as:

	Totally disagree	Partially disagree	So and so	Partially agree	Totally agree
a) Extraverted, enthusiastic.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Critical, quarrelsome.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Dependable, self-disciplined.	1	2	3	4	5
d) Anxious, easily upset.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Open to new experiences, complex.	1	2	3	4	5
f) Reserved, quiet.	1	2	3	4	5
g) Sympathetic, warm.	1	2	3	4	5
h) Disorganized, careless.	1	2	3	4	5
i) Calm, emotionally stable.	1	2	3	4	5
j) Conventional, uncreative.	1	2	3	4	5

19. What are the main challenges you face in your attempts to develop students' skills for working in multicultural and virtual teams?

In multicultural teams:

In virtual teams:

20. What are the main things that could be done to support you to improve student's teamwork skills for multicultural and virtual teams?

In multicultural teams:

In virtual teams:

Additional information

1. Faculty:
2. Job title:
3. Number of years of experience in teaching:
4. Did you teach classes to international students at your university? Yes No
5. Did you teach classes at other universities abroad? Yes No
6. Did you teach online courses/modules? Yes No
7. Teaching load: How many classes do you teach per week (on average)?
8. Sex: male female
9. If you have experience abroad, what type of experience do you have?
 - long term studies (longer than 1 month): bachelor, master, doctorate programs
 - short term trainings, courses
 - other scientific events (conferences, research meetings)
 - tourism trips
 - work
 - other reasons, i.e.
 - in the last years I have not been abroa

Appendix 2

Dear Students,

The Faculty of Management Engineering at the Bialystok University of Technology in cooperation with Babes Bolyai University carries out research aimed at diagnosing the readiness, requirements and motivation of students to work in traditional and virtual multicultural teams. Research is carried out as part of the NAWA program.

In this study, a **multicultural team** is understood as a team of people working on the implementation of a common goal in which there are representatives of at least two national cultures/countries. **Virtual teams** – as a team of people working on the implementation of a common goal, in which team members are spatially dispersed, and communication takes place through modern information technologies (messenger, skype).

The research is anonymous and the results will be used only for collective scientific studies. The estimated time to complete the survey is 20 minutes.

Thank you for participating in the study.

Part I. Multicultural team

1. Did you have the chance to participate/work (e.g. at work or in college) in multicultural teams (differentiated e.g. in terms of nationality, religion)?

yes

no (*go to question 2*)

1a. Describe activities you had the opportunity to cooperate in multicultural teams.....

1b. On average, how satisfied are you with the outcomes achieved by the multicultural teams you were part of? (**scale 1-5**)

the overall degree how well the team had accomplished their goals in general

the quality of the team results

the quantity of the team results (e.g. finish the task in deadline, do all tasks)

the initiative of the team as indicator of new ideas, solutions, innovation.

2. Motivation for working in teams. To what extent do you agree with these statements? (**scale 1-5**)

Instrumentality

I believe that my contribution to the team's success is very important.

Other members of my team ask me for advice when task specific problems occur.

In difficult situations, the success of my team depends especially on my contribution. *Self-efficacy*

I feel capable to accomplish my tasks within my team work.

- For each problem that arises out of my team work, I can find a solution.
- If a new task arises from my team work, I know how to handle it.

Trust in other team members

- I can discuss task-related difficulties with each of the other members of my team.
- I can share my ideas, feelings, and expectations with each of the other members of my team.
- The members of my team fulfill their tasks on a high competence level.

3. What skills and competences do you think make working in a multicultural team easier? **(scale 1-5)**

- knowledge of languages
- knowledge about other cultures
- openness
- easy in making contacts
- ability to use online IT tools that enable working in a group
- other, what?

.....

4. What benefits can cooperation in multicultural teams bring? **(scale 1-5)**

- gaining experience in various cultural areas
- overcoming cultural differences
- learning how to cooperate and communicate with people different from each other
- exchange of diverse views and opinions
- broadening the horizons of thinking
- learning distance cooperation
- learning to be open and not to be stereotyped
- deepening language skills
- breaking communication barriers
- gathering unique experiences
- learning new methods of operation
- problem solving in a creative way
- other, which?
- any benefits.

5. What makes multicultural cooperation difficult? **(scale 1-5)**

- stereotypes and prejudices
- closure for dissimilarity, xenophobia
- ethnicity (exaltation of one's own culture)
- language barrier
- negative previous experience
- distrust in relation to others

- lack of awareness of one's cultural identity
- lack of experience in this area
- lack of competence
- lack of motivation
- differences in values, views, norms
- time zones
- other, which?

Part II. Virtual teams

6. Did you have the chance to participate/work (e.g. at work or in college) in virtual teams (using modern information tools, e.g. facebook, messenger, skype)?

- yes
- no (*go to question 8*)

6a. Describe activities you had the opportunity to cooperate in virtual teams.

.....

6b. On average, how satisfied are you with the outcomes achieved by the virtual teams you were part of? (scale 1-5)

- the overall degree how well the team had accomplished their goals in general
- the quality of the team results
- the quantity of the team results (e.g. finish the task in deadline, do all tasks)
- the initiative of the team as indicator of new ideas, solutions, innovation

7. What were the main challenges you encountered when working in virtual teams?

	Very rarely	Rarely	Average	Often	Very often
coordination problems	1	2	3	4	5
lack of involvement, motivation and commitment of team members	1	2	3	4	5
decision making problems	1	2	3	4	5
leadership problems (eg delegating, monitoring and providing feedback)	1	2	3	4	5
team roles problems (unclear tasks/ roles of each member)	1	2	3	4	5
not meeting the deadlines	1	2	3	4	5
skill-level differences between members	1	2	3	4	5

	Very rarely	Rarely	Average	Often	Very often
personality differences between members	1	2	3	4	5
language proficiency difficulties of the members	1	2	3	4	5
communication problems	1	2	3	4	5
insufficient knowledge of IT tools by team members	1	2	3	4	5
hardware difficulties (software, computer, internet access)	1	2	3	4	5

8. To what extent do you agree with these statements?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
When I have a choice, I would rather work in virtual teams than by myself	1	2	3	4	5
I prefer to work on a virtual team task than on individual tasks	1	2	3	4	5
Working in a virtual group is better than working alone	1	2	3	4	5
If given the appropriate technology, I can be just as effective working on a virtual team as I can on a face-to-face team	1	2	3	4	5
I could very well feel a part of a team that did not meet face-to-face	1	2	3	4	5
I would participate as easily on a team that used chat rooms, e-mail and conference calls to communicate with my fellow team members as I could in face-to-face discussions	1	2	3	4	5

9. What methods / tools for virtual teamwork do you know and use?

Methods/tools	I don't know	I know, but I don't use	I use
mobile phone			
e-mail			
skype meetings			
Messenger tools (Facebook Messenger, whatsapp)			
Telephoneconferences			
Video-conferences			
discussion forums			
virtual meeting rooms			
google drive			
cloud computing			
3D tools (Second Life, World of Warcraft, Interior Space Design programs)			
Collaboration tools (e.g., Huddle, Blackboard Collaborate),			
Document sharing (sharepoint, Dropbox)			
Document cocreation (e.g., Scribblar, Google Docs)			
Meeting tools (Google hangouts, GoToMeeting)			
Social media (Facebook, LinkedIn)			
Social networking (Yammer, Jive)			
Project management tools (Microsiot project, Basecamp)			
other, which?.....			

Part III. Working in multicultural and/or virtual teams

10. Did you have the chance to participate/work (e.g. at work or in college) in multicultural virtual teams (differentiated e.g. in terms of nationality, religion, using modern information tools, e.g. facebook, messenger, skype)?

yes

no (*go to question 11*)

10a. Describe activities you had the opportunity to cooperate in multicultural virtual teams

.....

11. To what extent do you agree with these statements about multicultural and virtual bands?

	Very bad	Bad	Neither good nor bad	Good	Very good
I would like to cooperate in multicultural teams	1	2	3	4	5
I would like to cooperate in virtual teams	1	2	3	4	5
activities carried out as part of the studies prepare to work in multicultural teams	1	2	3	4	5
activities carried out as part of the studies prepare to work in virtual teams	1	2	3	4	5
employers appreciates the ability to cooperate in multicultural teams	1	2	3	4	5
employers appreciates the ability to cooperate in virtual teams	1	2	3	4	5

12. What activities should be undertaken in class to prepare students for multicultural or virtual cooperation?

.....

Part IV. Willingness to cooperate

13. To what extent do you agree with these statements about your cultural intelligence? (1-5 scale)

Metacognitive CQ

- I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.
- I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
- I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.

Cognitive CQ

- I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.
- I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.
- I know the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviors in other cultures.

Motivational CQ

- I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.
- I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
- I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.

Behavioral CQ

- I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.
- I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
- I change my nonverbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it.

14. To what extent do you agree with these statements concerning the trust in the students, with whom you had the opportunity to cooperate in the team?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
I can rely on the students I interact with in this school.	1	2	3	4	5
Students in this school are usually considerate of one another's feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
Students have confidence in one another in this school.	1	2	3	4	5
Students in this school show a great deal of integrity.	1	2	3	4	5
There is high "team spirit" among students in this school.	1	2	3	4	5
Overall, students at this school are trustworthy.	1	2	3	4	5

15. To what extent do you agree with these statements on self-leadership? (1-5 scale)

Self-goal setting

- I establish specific goals for my own performance
- I work toward specific goals I have set for myself
- I think about the goals that I intend to achieve in the future

Evaluating beliefs and assumptions

- I try to mentally evaluate the accuracy of my own beliefs about situations I am having problems with
- I openly articulate and evaluate my own assumptions when I have a disagreement with someone else
- I think about and evaluate the beliefs and assumptions I hold

Self-observation

- I make a point to keep track of how well I'm doing at work (school)
- I usually am aware of how well I'm doing as I perform an activity
- I keep track of my progress on projects I'm working on

Focusing on natural rewards

- When I have successfully completed a task, I often reward myself with something I like
- I focus my thinking on the pleasant rather than the unpleasant aspects of my job (school) activities
- When I have a choice, I try to do my work in ways that I enjoy rather than just trying to get it over with
- I seek out activities in my work that I enjoy doing

Self-cueing

- I use written notes to remind myself of what I need to accomplish
- I use concrete reminders (e.g. notes and lists) to help me focus on the things I need to accomplish

16. Personality (1-5 scale)

I see myself as:

1. Extraverted, enthusiastic.
2. Critical, quarrelsome.
3. Dependable, self-disciplined.
4. Anxious, easily upset.
5. Open to new experiences, complex.
6. Reserved, quiet.
7. Sympathetic, warm.
8. Disorganized, careless.
9. Calm, emotionally stable.
10. Conventional, uncreative.

Additional information

1. Sex: male female
2. Year of study:
 - first-cycle studies (Bachelor) – 1 year
 - first-cycle studies (Bachelor) – 2 year
 - first-cycle studies (Bachelor)- 3 year
 - second-cycle studies (MA) – 1 year
 - second-cycle studies (MA) – 2 year
3. Faculty:
4. Field of study:
5. Place of residence:
 - village
 - small city (less than 20,000 inhabitants)
 - medium-sized city (21-150 thousand inhabitants)

a large city (over 150,000 inhabitants)

6. What is the level of your foreign language skills? (if the case)

Language	Not applicable	A1 (beginner)	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2 (advanced)
English							
German							
Russian							
other, which?							
other, which?							

7. For which purposes have you been abroad in the last 5 years?

work

studies, training, courses

tourist trips

other, which?

in the last 5 years I have not been abroad.

Appendix 3

Dear Students,

The Faculty of Management Engineering at the Bialystok University of Technology in cooperation with Babes Bolyai University carries out research aimed at diagnosing the readiness, requirements and motivation of students to work in traditional and virtual multicultural teams. Research is carried out as part of the NAWA program.

The table below contains the opposite statements concerning the examined issues. If you identify with the statement on the left, insert the X sign close enough to this page. If you agree with the statement on the right, please insert X closer to the right depending on the degree of identification. If both are equally close, insert X in the middle 3.

Statement 1	1	2	3	4	5	Statement 2
I appreciate the changes						I appreciate the tradition
I'm communicating directly with each other						I communicate in a contextual way
I put the emphasis on individual achievement						I put the emphasis on the team's achievements

Statement 1	1	2	3	4	5	Statement 2
I usually communicate verbally						I mostly use non-verbal communication
I put the emphasis on purpose and product						I put the emphasis on people-to-people relations and the process
I verbalize differences of opinion, signal clearly if I have a different opinion						It is important to be in tune and harmonious, I am able to compromise for the good of the team
I like to compete						I like to cooperate
I'm punctual						I'm flexible in my approach to time
Even a few minutes late is unacceptable and can be disrespectful						Delay is a normal thing – everyone always comes afterwards
I believe that you can talk freely to people of all ages, even at a higher level						Age and title are a barrier to direct communication
Everyone may express his or her views irrespective of the opinion of the group						Everything we do should be done with the group in mind
The worlds of women and men are very similar and complement each other						The worlds of women and men are very distant from each other
There should be no strong divisions between male and female roles in life and at work						There should be strong divisions between male and female roles in life and at work
I have a problem with accepting behaviours different from my own						I'm trying to understand the causes of different behaviors from my own
I like individual work						I like teamwork
I find it difficult to adapt to the new situation						I adapt quickly to new conditions
I can't easily make contact with people						I can easily make contact with people
Standards and values concern only the participants of their own group						Standards and values concern all equally
Authoritarian attitudes in students are related to the type of personality						Authoritarian attitudes among students are a manifestation of social norm
You can show negative feelings						Negative feelings should be suppressed

Appendix 4

Rokeach Value Survey

The Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) is a classification system of values. Developed by social psychologist Milton Rokeach, the system consists of two sets of values, 18 individual value items in each. One set is called terminal values the other instrumental values.

RVS is based on a 1968 volume (Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values) which presented the philosophical basis for the association of fundamental values with beliefs and attitudes. His value system was instrumentalised into the Rokeach Value Survey in his 1973 book *The Nature of Human Values*.

Terminal Values refer to desirable end-states of existence. These are the goals that a person would like to achieve during his or her lifetime. These values vary among different groups of people in different cultures.

Please number the value from 1 to 18. Rank “1” is the highest preferred value and rank “18” the lowest preferred value.

The terminal values in RVS are:

- True Friendship
- Mature Love
- Self-Respect
- Happiness
- Inner Harmony
- Equality
- Freedom
- Pleasure
- Social Recognition
- Wisdom
- Salvation
- Family Security
- National Security
- A Sense of Accomplishment
- A World of Beauty
- A World at Peace
- A Comfortable Life
- An Exciting Life

Instrumental Values refer to preferable modes of behavior. These are preferable modes of behavior, or means of achieving the terminal values.

Please number the value from 1 to 18. Rank “1” is the highest preferred value and rank “18” the lowest preferred value.

The Instrumental Values are:

- Cheerful
- Ambitious
- Loving
- Pure
- Self-Controlled
- Capable
- Courageous
- Polite
- Honest
- Imaginative
- Independent
- Intellectual
- Broad-Mindedness
- Logical
- Obedient
- Helpful
- Responsible
- Forgiving

The task for participants in the survey is to arrange the 18 terminal values, followed by the 18 instrumental values, into an order “of importance to YOU, as guiding principles in YOUR life” (Rokeach, 1973, p. 27).

The Rokeach Value Survey has been extensively used in empirical work by psychologists, sociologists and marketers. There have been a number of attempts to reduce the 18 instrumental values and 18 terminal values into a set of underlying factors (see for example Feather and Peay, 1975; Johnston, 1995) but without consistent success.

