An Investigation of Convergence and Divergence of Values and Type A Stress Behaviors among Respondents from the US, UK, Belize, and the Bahamas: What are the Implications for Multinational Entrepreneurs?

Bahaudin G. Mujtaba, Nova Southeastern University
H. Wayne Huizenga School of Business and Entrepreneurship
3301 College Avenue; Fort Lauderdale, FL. 33314-7796. USA.
Phone: (954) 262-5045; Email: mujtaba@nova.edu

Edward F. Murphy, Jr., Embry Riddle Aeronautical University
Email: Murphe23@erau.edu,

Timothy McCartney, Nova Southeastern University
Email: mccartne@nova.edu

Albert Williams, Nova Southeastern University
Email: albert05@bellsouth.net

Andrew Trumbach, Nova Southeastern University
Email: trumbach@ammi.net

Juliett Reid, Nova Southeastern University
Email: jvreid@nova.edu

Regina Greenwood, Nova Southeastern University
Email: rgreenwo@huizenga.nova.edu

William Teeple, Embry Riddle Aeronautical University
Email: teepl44e@erau.edu

Mark D. Woodhull, Schreiner University
Kerrville, Texas 78028
Email: mdwoodhull@schreiner.edu

Publication reference:
Mujtaba, B.G., Murphy Jr., E.F., McCartney, T., Williams, A., Trumbach, A., Reid, J., Greenwood, R., Teeple, W., and Woodhull, M.D. (April 2009). An Investigation of Convergence and Divergence of Values and Type A Stress Behaviors among Respondents from the US, UK, Belize, and the Bahamas: What are the Implications for Multinational Entrepreneurs? *The Icfai University Journal of Organizational Behavior,* VIII (2), pp. 6-34. Available at: http://www.iupindia.org/409/IJOB_Convergence_and_Divergence_6.html and/or: http://www.iupindia.org/Organizational_Behavior.asp

JOB Journal
at the Institute of Chartered and Financial Analysts of India (ICFAI) University Press.
Website: www.iupindia.org

An Investigation of Convergence and Divergence of Values and Type A Stress Behaviors among Respondents from the US, UK, Belize, and the Bahamas: What are the Implications for Multinational Entrepreneurs?

Bahaudin G. Mujtaba, Nova Southeastern University
Edward F. Murphy, Jr., Embry Riddle Aeronautical University
Timothy McCartney, Nova Southeastern University
Albert Williams, Nova Southeastern University
Andrew Trumbach, Nova Southeastern University
Juliett Reid, Nova Southeastern University
Regina Greenwood, Nova Southeastern University
William Teeple, Embry Riddle Aeronautical University
Mark D. Woodhull, Schreiner University

Abstract:
With relative few studies exploring values in the Caribbean, the present study examines similarities in the values and Type A stress behaviors of working adults in the developing countries of Belize and the Bahamas, and the developed countries of the United Kingdom and the United States. For value convergence, 30 of the 36 values of the developed and developing countries were similarly ranked most important, important or unimportant. For value divergence, the developed countries placed higher importance on the achievement and competition values freedom and independence and the developing countries placed higher importance on the safety and security values a world at peace, national security, forgiving, helpful, wisdom, health, and broadminded.

On the other hand, the developing countries placed equal importance on the achievement and competition value a sense of accomplishment, and higher importance on self-respect and ambition, and the developed countries placed higher importance on the safety and security value family security. The value system in Belize and The Bahamas were more similar (convergence) with the US as compared to the UK. Finally, Type A stress behaviors were higher in Belize and The Bahamas as compared to the US. Finally, we discuss the meaning and implications of these findings for international business entrepreneurs, the limitations of the study and make recommendations for further research.

Key Words: Rokeach Value Survey, Type A stress behavior; Developed versus developing countries; Belize; The Bahamas; the United States (US); the United Kingdom (UK); Cross-cultural values.

INTRODUCTION

The globalization of the marketplace mandates that managers of companies operating around the world understand the values, attitudes and behaviors of their employees, managers, customers, and competitors (Cavico and Mujtaba, 2009; Cavico and Mujtaba, 2008). Deeply-held values tend to influence or drive ethical decision-making and ethical judgment of employees and managers across cultures and countries. As managers and employees throughout the world

increasingly work with people from different cultures, do they modify their values, attitudes and behaviors so they are more similar? Are values converging by becoming more similar? While Bailey and Spicer (2007) argue that "the identification of cultural similarities may be just as important as that of differences, since members of different societies need to build on common moralities and beliefs (values) when working together to meet common goals" (p. 1462), a vast number of research studies have a primary focus on differences across the cultures. A relatively neglected region in the cross-cultural literature is Belize and The Bahamas. The researchers could find no studies that focused on the values, attitudes and behaviors of working adults in Belize and The Caribbean. We filled this research gap by exploring whether there were cross-cultural value and Type A stress behavior similarities and differences between the developing countries of Belize and the Bahamas, and the developed countries of the UK (United Kingdom) and the US (the United States).

The paper is laid out in five sections. First we present theory and hypotheses. Next we explain our research methodology and finish with a discussion of our main findings, followed by limitations and implications for management and future research.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Are cross-cultural values and Type A stress behaviors more similar or different between the two developing countries of Belize and the Bahamas, and two developed countries of the UK and US? These topics are of extreme importance as companies develop global production processes, hire employees in the global marketplace, make ethical judgments, coach and motivate employee, and market their products globally (Bigoness and Blakely, 1996; Elkhouly and Buda, 1997; Neelankavil, Mathur and Zhang, 2000; Lenartowicz and Johnson, 2002;

Lenartowicz and Roth, 2001; Triandis and Suh, 2002; Ryckman and Houston, 2003; Gustavo, 2004; McGuire et al., 2006; Mujtaba, 2008; Cavico and Mujtaba, 2008; Cavico and Mujtaba, 2009). Our study expands the work of Murphy et al. (2007a) which explored values and Type A behaviors in the developed countries of the US, Hong Kong and Singapore as compared to the developing countries of Afghanistan, China, Colombia, Mexico, Philippines, and Thailand. We updated that research study with a new US population sample. Our study will add to the cross-cultural and practitioner literature concerning developing and developed countries because it will serve as a second study of similarities and differences between countries using the developed versus developing country constructs. Our study also contributes to the literature because no known studies have explored cross-cultural similarities and differences in values and Type A stress behaviors in Belize and The Bahamas, and even fewer have done so comparing the UK, US, Belize, and the Bahamas. Our group addressed this research gap. The present study examines the values and Type A stress behaviors of working adults in two Caribbean developing countries (Belize and Bahamas) as compared to two western developed countries (US and UK).

How is culture defined? Based upon the early research of Rokeach, Hofstede, and more recently by Schwartz, Connor and Becker and Leung et al., we define culture as an interrelated set of values, attitudes and behaviors that form a sub-group, group, organization or nation's value system. Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) related that values, norms and institutions create a profile that allows the group, organization or society to be differentiated from other groups, organizations or societies. Schwartz (1999) stated that "culture at the national level attempts to capture the typical individual value priorities in a society" (p. 26). While Hofstede (2001) explained culture as the "software of the mind" (p. 2), Leung et al. (2005) explained culture as "values, beliefs, norms and behavioral patterns of a national group" (p. 357), and

Jameson (2007) indicates that "culture transmits and inculcates knowledge, beliefs, values, attitudes, traditions and ways of life" (p. 199). Rokeach (1968, 1979), Connor and Becker (2003), Connor et al. (2006), Khilji et al. (2008a, b), Limthanakom et al. (2008), Mujtaba et al. (2008), and Murphy et al. (2007a, 2008a) related to us that culture consists of an interrelated set of values, attitudes and behaviors that are socialized early in life and form a value system.

Where does culture come from? Early research by Kluckhohn and Kohlberg suggests values and culture are socialized from the moment of conception, with socialization continuing until death. Children are socialized through their interaction in the environment, through the influence of families, friends, significant others, teachers, and organizations, as socialization teaches each offspring how to operate and succeed in society (Kluckhohn, 1951, 1962; Kohlberg, 1970). Rokeach indicated that we must infer people's values through their attitudes and behaviors and that all three form a culture, sub-culture, value system, personality, or value orientation type. What are values?

Rokeach (1986) defined a value as "a type of belief, centrally located within one's belief system, about how one ought or ought not to behave, or about some end stated of existence worth or not worth attaining" (p. 125). Rokeach's early research on values, attitudes and behaviors suggests that values are differentiated from attitudes and behaviors, because while we may have hundreds of thousands of behaviors, we only have several thousand attitudes, and only several dozen values. Rokeach defined attitudes as "a relatively enduring organization of beliefs around an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner" (Rokeach, 1986, p. 112). Values are important because we can explore them in order to see how people might behave. Values form value schemas, value systems or value orientations and "are

simultaneously components of psychological processes, of social interaction, and of cultural patterning and storage" (Rokeach, 1986, p. 17).

Rokeach related that values were the most important construct to study because first, "value seems to be a more dynamic concept since it has a strong motivation component as well as cognitive, affective and behavioral components." Second, while values and attitudes have been shown to impact behavior, attitudes only impact behavior, and values impact both attitudes and behavior. Finally, "the value concept provides us with a more economical analytic tool for describing and explaining similarities and differences between persons, groups, nations and cultures" (1986, pp. 157-158).

The instrument we have chosen to use in our research study is the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS). The RVS consists of 36 values which Rokeach stated were present in most societies. Although some societies will possess more values and some less than the 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values of the RVS, Rokeach felt that most societies will possess the values in the RVS, and as such, they can be used to explore similarities and differences across cultures and across most demographic sub-groups. While the terminal values are end-state of existence values are the most important goals in the lives of respondents, the instrumental values are the means-based values or the behavioral means respondents might use to obtain their terminal value goals (Murphy, Gordon and Anderson, 2004). The terminal and then instrumental values are rank ordered in a hierarchy of importance separately from (1) most important to (18) least important, leading to what Rokeach called a value schema, value system or value orientation. Cross cultural research has shown that values and value systems differ in their hierarchy of importance in each society, and as previously mentioned, values have been shown to impact behavior.

Cross-cultural Research

As goods and services, capital, and know-how flow across borders (Leung et al., 2005) practitioners, managers and HRM managers must understand the values, attitudes, behaviors and culture of countries that they are doing business with. The global marketplace in the 21st century makes it imperative that we study cross-cultural similarities and differences in values, because values influence attitudes and Type A stress behaviors. An understanding of the values and Type A stress behaviors of employees, managers, practitioners, customers, and competitors in countries businesses are operating in throughout the world can give them an insight into how they can develop better world-wide customer relationships, develop better human resources programs, including stress reduction programs for their employees throughout the world, and how they can develop closer relationships and predict the behaviors of customers, competitors and employees operating in the global marketplace (Neelankavil, Mathur and Zhang, 2000; Hofstede, 2001; Lenartowicz and Johnson, 2002; Lyons, Duxbury and Higgins, 2005; Leung et al., 2005; Murphy et al., 2006; McGuire et al., 2006).

Culture and business environment of The Bahamas. It's better in the Bahamas" is a slogan adopted some years ago by the Bahamas Ministry of Tourism to advertise the cultural uniqueness of the beautiful, stable, history-rich, and productive small island-nation. The Bahamas is an archipelago of more than 700 islands and 2,400 cays that stretches 50 miles southeast from the tip of Florida to the southwestern coasts of Cuba and Hispaniola (Haiti and Dominican Republic). Each of these islands has a distinct character and unique qualities that appeal to a variety of people, such as tourists, developers, entrepreneurs, bankers, environmentalists, to name a few. It is also the "playground" of the "rich and famous," and it is

alleged that between the months of November to April of any given year, the Bahamas has one of the highest concentration of wealth and celebrity in the world.

The original inhabitants of these islands were the gentle Arawaks (Luycan) Indians who migrated from Central America and other Caribbean islands, fleeing from the war-like, cannibalistic, Carib Indians, to find a simple way of life of peace and harmony. The American War of Independence had a profound effect on the Bahamas, as many Loyalists with their allegiance to the British Crown and grants of money and land in the Bahamas, moved to these islands with their trusted slaves. By 1789, the population of the Bahamas was nearly 12,000 people scattered among the various islands, with the population changing dramatically to a black majority. It is important to chart the development of the Bahamas in order to understand its present state by explaining the progression of the psycho-social stratification of the peoples of the Bahamas and the impact of the location, soil, water, and the political and economical factors that have played a role in its national determination. The proximity to the United States, the institution of slavery, and British colonialism were the "fuels" that propelled the development of the Bahamas. The system of slavery, which became very important economically to the colonizers of the Caribbean, was also established in the Bahamas, although it differed somewhat from U.S. and Caribbean slavery.

The socio-ethnic configuration of the Bahamas has played a significant role in the economic development of the Bahamas. It is this progression of cultures and world events that have shaped the political and economic decisions that have placed the country in an enviable position today. Although there may be traces of Arawak or Seminole Indian in the Bahamian population, the ethnic configuration used to be traditionally black (majority), white, and the "in betweens." The emancipation of the slaves in the Bahamas was the beginning of social, racial,

and class differences of a British colonial system. At that time, over ninety percent of the Bahamian people were of African extraction. From a socio-economic viewpoint, class structures used to be: 1) foreign and local whites = upper class; 2) mixed race people = middle class (different shades of "high yellow" to browns); 3) black and poor white = lower class. At present, the ethnic population in the Bahamas is: 1) Black = 85%; 2) White = 12%; and 3) Asian and Hispanic = 3%. There have been significant increases in the population (contractors, workers, doctors, accountants, bankers, etc.) of East Indian, West Indian, Haitian, and Filipino descent. The literacy rate is 98.2%.

The Bahamas plays host to more than 41/2 million visitors each year, largely U.S. citizens since the Bahamas is very close geographically to the U.S., and Bahamians are very comfortable with U.S. culture and customs. Over the years, the Bahamas has projected stable government which is structured very much like Great Britain but with Bahamian "overtones." With the "number one" industry tourism, the need for modern accommodation and infrastructure has attracted developers and entrepreneurs from around the world. The encouraging laws, tax structure, and the potential of the "family islands," especially Grand Bahamas, Abaco, Eleuthera, Exuma, Andros, and others, provide an exciting climate for investment.

The Bahamas offers attractive features to the potential investor: a stable democratic environment, relief from personal and corporate income taxes, timely repatriation of corporate profits, proximity to the United States with extensive air and telecommunication links, and a good "pool" of skilled professional workers. The Government of the Bahamas welcomes foreign investment in tourism and banking, and has declared an interest in agricultural and industrial investments to generate local employment, particularly in white-collar or skilled jobs. Despite its interest in foreign investment to diversify the economy, the Bahamian government responds to

local concerns about foreign competition and tends to protect Bahamian business and labor interests. As a result of domestic resistance to foreign investment and high labor costs, growth can stagnate in sectors which the government wishes to diversify. The country's infrastructure is best developed in the principal cities of Nassau and Freeport, where there are relatively good paved roads and international airports. Electricity is generally reliable, although many businesses have their own backup generators. In Nassau, there are two daily newspapers, three "weeklies," and several international newspapers available for sale. There are also six radio stations. Both Nassau and Freeport have a television station. Cable TV and satellite also are available locally and provide most U.S. programs.

The Bahamas has strong bilateral relationships with the United States and the United Kingdom, represented by an ambassador in Washington and High Commissioner in London. The Bahamas also associates closely with other nations of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM). The Bahamas has an ambassador to Haiti and works closely with the United States and CARICOM on political and migration issues related to Haiti. The Bahamas has diplomatic relations with Cuba, hosting a Cuban Ambassador and recently opening a Bahamian Consulate in Cuba. A repatriation agreement was signed with Cuba in 1996, and there are commercial and cultural contacts between the two countries. The Bahamas also enjoys a strengthening relationship with China and many other countries in Asia. However, the United States historically has had close economic and commercial relations with the Bahamas. The U.S. shares ethnic, cultural, and historical ties with Bahamians. The Bahamas is home to more than 30,000 American residents. In addition, there are about 110 U.S. related businesses in the Bahamas. In 2004, about 87% of the 5 million tourists visiting the country were Americans. As a neighbor,

the Bahamas and its political stability are especially important to the United States. The U.S. and the Bahamian governments have worked together on reducing crime and reforming the judiciary.

Culture and business environment of Belize. Belize is a small democratic country (8,867 square miles) in Central America. It is bordered to the south and west by Guatemala, to the north by Mexico, and to the east by the Caribbean Sea. It got its independence from Great Britain in 1981. Belize's main industries are agriculture, light manufacturing, and tourism. The main exports are citrus concentrate, bananas, sugar, and sea foods. The tourism industry has grown considerably. Many tourists, especially Americans and Canadians, visit its barrier reef (the longest in the Americas and the second longest in the world), its tropical rain forests, and its many Mayan archeological sites. According to the most recent vegetation surveys, about sixty percent (60%) of Belize is forested, with only about twenty percent (20%) of the country's land subject to human uses (such as agricultural land and human settlements). Savanna, scrubland and wetland constitute extensive parts of the land. As a result, Belize's biodiversity is rich, both marine and terrestrial, with a host of flora and fauna. About thirty-seven percent (37%) of Belize's land territory falls under some form of official protected status. Although a number of economically important minerals exist in Belize, none has been found in quantities large enough to warrant their mining. These minerals include dolomite, barite (source of barium), bauxite (source of aluminum), cassite (source of tin), and gold.

As of July 2008, its population was estimated at 301,270 people (Belize: People, 2008). Belize is a multiracial country. About 34% of the population is of mixed Maya and European descent (Mestizo), 25% are Kriols (a mixture of European and African descendants), 15% are Spanish, about 10.6% are Mayan, and about 6.1% are Afro-Amerindian (Garifuna). The remaining population includes European, East Indian, Chinese, Middle Eastern, and North

American groups, including Mennonites (Belize, 2000). Belize has a young population with 38.4 percent 14 years of age or less. It has 58.1 percent between the ages of 15 and 65, and 3.5 percent beyond 65 years. Its median age is 20 years. It birth rate is 27.84 births per 1000 and its death rate is 5.77 deaths per 1000. The population growth rate, estimated in 2008, was 2.207 percent per year. Most Belizeans are Christian (Roman Catholic 49.6%, Protestant 27% (Pentecostal 7.4%, Anglican 5.3%, Seventh-day Adventist 5.2%, Mennonite 4.1%, Methodist 3.5%, Jehovah's Witnesses 1.5%), other 14%, and none 9.4%) (Belize, 2000). This Christian background influences the population's value systems for business. English is the official language in Belize, but 43 percent of the population speaks Spanish at home. (Belize: Language and Religion -*MSN Encarta Encyclopedia*). The literacy rate, defined as those 15 years and over who can read and write, was 76.9%.

Belize is a small, essentially private-enterprise economy. Tourism is the number one foreign exchange earner. This is followed by exports of marine products, citrus, cane sugar, bananas, and garments. Due to the government's expansionary monetary and fiscal policies, initiated in September 1998, GDP grew at an annual rate of 4% in 1999-2007. Economic growth was further stimulated with oil discoveries in 2006. Belize's major concerns continue to be the sizable trade deficit and unsustainable foreign debt. In February 2007, the government restructured nearly all of its public external commercial debt. This reduced interest payments and liquidity concerns. Poverty reduction continues to be a key concern. (CIA World Factbook, 2008). Belize's gross domestic product was $1.3 billion U.S. in 2007, or $3, 950 U.S. per capita. Its economic growth rate is 2.2 percent in 2007. Its exports in 2007 were $ 215 million U.S. f.o.b. and consisted of sugar, bananas, citrus, clothing, fish products, molasses, and wood. Its imports in 2007 was $321 million U.S. f.o.b and consisted of machinery and transport

equipment, manufactured goods; fuels, chemicals, pharmaceuticals; food, beverages, and tobacco.

Belize also has strong bilateral relationships with the United States and the United Kingdom, represented by an ambassador in Washington and High Commissioner in London. Belize also associates closely with other nations of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM). Belize is a parliamentary democracy. Its laws are based on English laws. Its government has three branches, the Executive Branch, the Legislative Branch, and the Judiciary Branch. There are two main political parties, the People's United Party (PUP) and the United Democratic Party (UDP).

Research Hypotheses

Murphy et al. (2007a, b) investigated cross-cultural differences in values between developed and developing nations. The research results indicated many similarities or a convergence of values between the developed and developing countries as 14 of 18 terminal and 16 of 18 instrumental values were ranked similarly as most important, important or unimportant. This led to the development of the following research hypotheses:

Hypothesis One (H1): There are more similarities in the terminal values ranked most important, important or unimportant between developed and developing countries.

Hypothesis Two (H2): There are more similarities in the instrumental values ranked most important, important or unimportant between developed and developing countries.

Research has shown that developed countries will rank achievement, independence and competition values (*accomplishment, freedom, independent, responsible, self-respect* and *ambitious*) higher than developing countries; and developing countries will more highly value safety, tradition and conformity values (*a world at peace, national security, wisdom, self-*

controlled family security, health, broadminded, forgiving, helpful and *loving*). Murphy et al.'s (2007a, b) findings were mixed, and indicated that working adults in developed nations like the US and UK more highly valued the terminal values *accomplishment, freedom*, and instrumental values *independent, responsible, forgiving, helpful* and *loving* as compared to developing nations. Their research results also indicated that respondents from developing nations will more highly value the terminal values *family security, health, a world at peace, national security, wisdom* and *self-respect* and instrumental values *ambition, broadminded, obedient* and *self-controlled*. We labeled the US and UK as developed countries as they had GDPs per capita of US ($45,800) and UK ($35,000), and The Bahamas and Belize as developing countries as they had GDPs per capita of Belize ($7,900) and The Bahamas ($25,000) (Country Facts, 2008). As a result of the literature review we developed the following research hypotheses:

Hypothesis Three (H3): Working adults in developed nations like the US and UK more highly values the terminal values accomplishment, freedom, and instrumental values independent, responsible, forgiving, helpful and loving as compared to developing nations.

Hypothesis Four (H4): Working adults in the developing nations will more highly value the terminal values family security, health, a world at peace, national security, wisdom and self-respect and instrumental values ambition, broadminded, obedient and self-controlled.

Hypothesis Five (H5): Respondents from the US will place higher importance on the terminal values accomplishment, freedom, and instrumental values independent, responsible, forgiving, helpful and loving as compared to Belize.

Hypothesis Six (H6): Respondents from the US will place higher importance on the terminal values accomplishment, freedom, and instrumental values independent, responsible, forgiving, helpful and loving as compared to the Bahamas.

Hypothesis Seven (H7): Respondents from the UK will place higher importance on the terminal values accomplishment, freedom, and instrumental values independent, responsible, forgiving, helpful and loving as compared to Belize.

Hypothesis Eight (H8): Respondents from the UK will place higher importance on the terminal values accomplishment, freedom, and instrumental values independent, responsible, forgiving, helpful and loving as compared to the Bahamas.

Hypothesis Nine (H9): Belize will place higher value importance on the terminal values family security, health, a world at peace, national security, wisdom and self-respect and instrumental values ambition, broadminded, obedient and self-controlled as compared to the US.

Hypothesis Ten (H10): The Bahamas will place higher value importance on the terminal values family security, health, a world at peace, national security, wisdom and self-respect and instrumental values ambition, broadminded, obedient and self-controlled as compared to the US.

Hypothesis Eleven (H11): Belize will place higher value importance on the terminal values family security, health, a world at peace, national security, wisdom and self-respect and instrumental values ambition, broadminded, obedient and self-controlled as compared to the UK.

Hypothesis Twelve (H12): The Bahamas will place higher value importance on the terminal values family security, health, a world at peace, national security, wisdom and self-respect and instrumental values ambition, broadminded, obedient and self-controlled as compared to the UK.

What is Type A Behavior and TABP?

According to Murphy et al. (2007a), the beginning of early research on Type A Behavior Pattern (TABP) was by Friedman and Rosenman (1974) who indicated that TABP is the behavior of a person that has an aggressive and untiringly demand to succeed on the job. This means they place higher importance on this desire to succeed than they do to their friends and families. It is the "work before all" attitude and its subsequent behavior. Type A behavior pattern is a form of work stress that can lead to what Menon and Akhilesh (1994) related can lead to "decreased motivation, lowered performance levels and mental and physical ailments" (1994, p. 13). More recently, Turnipseed and Turnipseed (1997) relate that TABP has shown relationships with physical and emotional exhaustion, depression, insomnia, and sometimes drug or alcohol abuse, and TABP can lead to job dissatisfaction and turnover (p. 180). Some of the characteristics of TABP include a time urgency, competitiveness, and ability to get more done in a short time than another employee or manager. Another interesting finding by Friedman and Rosenman is that people with TABP cannot stand to lose, and sometimes, they will compete to

win games with young children and they might become very critical and impatient with their supervisors, employees and other managers (Bradstatter and Eliasz, 2001, p. 5). One of the most serious problems with the Type A personality is that some individuals develop coronary heart disease (CHD). For instance, Bradstatter and Eliasz (2001) reported that when Type A person cannot achieve their goals, they might display signs of frustration, anger, hostility and sometimes outright violence (p. 59), and Geen (1990) stated that TABP behavior respondents concealed their anger, and this pent up anger could lead to CHD (p. 193).

Not all TABP behavior is negative though. Many of the drive and competitiveness skills demonstrated by people with TABP are highly desired in managers and employees. What seems to happen is that some employees and managers use stress management techniques to control the negative behaviors, and they harness their TABP for success on the job (Mudrack, 2004).

In research exploring the characteristics of individuals classified as having TABP in the U.S., Type A behavior has been linked to higher levels of stress in blue collar workers (Evans, Palsane and Carrere, 1987), higher levels of occupational stress, job dissatisfaction and turnover (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1984), lower job performance (Jamal, 1985), and other negative health outcomes like CHD (Matteson and Ivancevich, 1982).

In cross cultural research, Kouichi et al. (2000, pp. 77-83) explored the relationship between TAFP and CHD indicators in a sample of 197 Japanese males. Their research results suggested that Type A and job strain together might induce coronary heart problems. In studies of Type A respondents and their children, Keltikangas-Jarvinen and Heinonen's (2003) studies suggested that children of parents with Type A behavior patterns were more likely to have TABP as adults, than the children of non-type A parents.

In Type A research studies on Canada, MacLennan and Peebles (1996) explored Type A stress behavior and health-related problems of 217 Canadian air traffic controllers, finding that Type A subcategories of time urgency, job dissatisfaction, and volatility were related to elevated health problems. Lavanco (1997) studied the relationship between TABP and burnout in Sicilian teachers and nurses, finding that the nurses' Type A behavior patterns were related to burnout and negatively related to their job satisfaction. Similarly, Catipovic-Veselica (2003) explored Type A behaviors in 1,084 Spanish workers, and suggested that health indicators implied numerous more health problems for Type A classified respondents as compared to those not classified as Type A personalities.

More recently, Murphy et al. (2007a, b) explored value and Type A behavior differences between developed and developing countries, finding that developing countries demonstrated higher levels of Type A behaviors as compared to developed countries. Their study suggested that developing countries do not have the banking, work and other associated support programs that are normally available in developed countries, and this contributed to the higher Type A stress behaviors of developing country respondents as compared to developed country respondents. As a result, we developed the following research hypothesis:

Hypothesis Thirteen (H13): Working adults in Belize will have higher Type A behavior scores as compared to working adults in the US.

Hypothesis Fourteen (H14): Working adults in the Bahamas will have higher Type A behavior scores as compared to working adults in the US.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study expands the research literature by exploring cross-cultural similarities and differences in RVS terminal and instrument values and Type A stress behaviors, using adult

respondents from two Caribbean nations (Belize and the Bahamas) as compared to two western nations (US and UK).

Survey Instrument

We investigated cross-cultural similarities and differences in values using the RVS and in Type A stress behaviors using the Friedman and Rosenman (1974) Type A Personality Scale. We chose to use the RVS to measure values, because it is one of the easiest and most common instruments to use in value research (Rokeach and Ball Rokeach, 1989; Connor and Becker, 2003; Connor et al., 2006; Murphy et al., 2007a, b; Khilji, 2008a, b; Ruiz-Gutierez et al., 2008; Uy et al., 2008a, b). Our research has shown as compared to other value instruments, the RVS is much simpler and easier to use, is easier to statistically analyze, is a much shorter instrument, is easier to translate, and has shown its reliability and validity in a large number of cross-cultural research studies in the past 30 years (Connor and Becker, 2003; Murphy et al., 2007a, b; Khilji, 2008a, b; Ruiz-Gutierez et al., 2008; Uy et al., 2008a, b). Rokeach (1973, 1979) and Rokeach and Ball-Rokeach (1989) established reliability for the RVS using the test-retest reliability method, finding that for each of the 18 terminal values considered separately, from seven weeks to eighteen months later, test-retest reliability scores ranged from a low of .51 for *a sense of accomplishment* to a high of .88 for *salvation*. Comparable test-retest reliability scores for instrumental values ranged from .45 for *responsible* to .70 for *ambitious*. Employing a 14-16 month test interval, median reliability was .69 for terminal values and .61 for instrumental values.

We chose the Type A Scale because it has proven its validity and test-retest reliability in identifying individuals with High Type A personalities (Kunnanatt, 2003; Cunningham et al.,

2004). Murphy et al. (2007a) explain that the Friedman and Rosenman scale asks a series of 24 questions that respondents rank as very typical of me (3), the statement is somewhat typical of me (2), and/or the statement is not at all typical of me (1). The scale allows us to produce mean scores for Type A Competitiveness, Life Imbalance/Work Involvement, Hostility/Anger, and Impatience/Urgency, and these are summed to produce a total Type A behavior score, with scores ranging from 0 to 72. Murphy et al. (2007a) and Whetten and Cameron (1998) explain that scores of 12 in Type A Competitiveness, Life Imbalance/Work Involvement, Hostility/Anger, and Impatience/Urgency, indicates high for that area. As such, we classified any individual who scored 48 for the sum of all four areas as high Type A, and individuals who scored below 48 were classified as low Type B.

Research Population

As part of larger studies exploring values, attitudes and behaviors in 17 countries, we administered the surveys in 2008 in the US and to working adults in Belize and the Bahamas. The UK sample was a sample we collected in 2006 and did not include the Type A behavior scale. We elected to use the UK sample because Belize and The Bahamas were prior colonies of the UK. The researchers chose adults who were working full or part-time because their values represent the values of working professionals in those countries.

As shown in Table 1a, the final sample consisted of 2,344 working adult respondents., 131 from Belize, 161 from the Bahamas, 1,052 from the UK and 1,000 from the US. The final sample consisted of 1,091 males (490 from UK, 39 from Bahamas, 62 from Belize and 500 from the US) and 1,253 females (562 from the UK, 122 from the Bahamas, 69 from Belize, and 500 from the US.

Table 1a – Demographic Information

	UK	Bahamas	Belize	US	Total
Male	490	39	62	500	1,091
Female	562	122	69	500	1,253
18-25 YOA	117	96	19	100	332
26-29	156	23	21	150	350
30-39	296	24	24	140	484
40-45	96	13	19	160	288
46-49	78	5	10	210	303
50+	309	0	38	240	587
Total	1,052	161	131	1,000	2,344

Statistical Analysis Techniques

Rokeach and Ball-Rokeach (1989), Connor and Becker (2003), Connor et al. (2006), Murphy et al. (2007a, b), Khilji (2008a, b), Ruiz-Gutierez et al. (2008), and Uy et al. (2008a) explain that the Rokeach Value Survey is a ranking instrument that produces non-normative data, data which must be analyzed first using non-parametric statistical techniques like the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Two-Sample Test for differences between the developed and developing countries and Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA median test for differences between the countries. Recent research by Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, 1990), Kamakura and Novak (1992), Lenartowicz and Johnson (2002, 2003), Murphy, Gordon and Anderson (2004), Connor and Becker (1994, 2003) and Connor et al. (2006), Murphy et al., (2007a, b, 2008a, b), Khilji (2008a, b), Ruiz-Gutierez et al. (2008), and Uy et al. (2008a) supports Rokeach's findings for statistical analysis of the RVS as ways to evaluate value systems

RESEARCH RESULTS

We first explored whether there were cross-cultural developed versus developing country similarities in values. The developed countries (US, UK) were coded as one and the developing countries (Belize, Bahamas) were coded as two. The developed versus developing countries served as the independent variables and values as the dependent variables. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov Two-Sample Test indicated statistically significant differences for 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values. Table 1 shows the means and rankings and standard deviations for the developed versus developing countries combined.

Working adults in the developed nations (US, UK) ranked as most important, important or unimportant 14 of 18 instrumental values as compared to the developing countries of Belize and The Bahamas, showing a convergence of values and allowing us to accept the hypothesis (**H2**) and reject the null.

Working adults in developed nations (US, UK) more highly valued the instrumental value *independent* but *accomplishment, freedom, responsible* and *loving* were ranked equally by developed and developing countries, and *forgiving* and *helpful* were ranked more important by developing countries. As such, we could only partially accept **H3**.

Working adults in the developing nations (Belize, The Bahamas) more highly valued the terminal values *health, a world at peace, national security, wisdom* and *self-respect* and instrumental value *broadminded*. The developed countries ranked *family security, ambition* and *self-controlled* higher in importance, and both ranked *obedient* equally. As a result of these findings, we could only partially accept **H4**.

Table 1 Developed versus developing country cross cultural differences in values AND Type A Behavior

	Max Neg Differnc	Max Pos Differnc	Developed Mean(Rank)	Developing Mean(Rank)	S.Dev. Gp 1	S.Dev. Gp 2	Sign
COMFORT	-.071149	.035898	7.81(4)	8.22(7)	5.21	5.19	***
EXCITING	-.045693	.057596	10.53(13)	10.33(12)	4.41	4.68	***
ACCOMPL	-.076251	.038033	8.92(8)	9.05(8)	4.47	4.02	***
WP	0.000000	.165728	11.53(16)	9.27(9)	4.96	5.55	***
WB	-.005945	.280655	13.86(18)	11.93(16)	3.96	4.14	***
EQUALITY	-.102885	.012213	10.95(14)	11.65(15)	4.72	4.68	***
FAMSEC	-.105986	.058665	5.38(1)	5.39(2)	4.80	3.98	***
FREEDOM	-.085877	.063498	7.42(3)	7.58(3)	4.36	4.34	***
HEALTH	-.024393	.177604	5.76(2)	4.90(1)	3.95	4.26	***
INHARM	-.006234	.132628	10.15(11)	9.44(10)	4.77	4.61	***
MATLOVE	-.132557	.017545	9.31(9)	10.49(13)	4.89	6.11	***
NATNLSEC	-.062636	.056601	11.46(15)	11.44(14)	4.68	4.96	***
PLEASURE	-.037464	.098302	10.30(12)	9.96(11)	4.69	4.92	***
SALVAT	-.356735	0.000000	9.80(10)	14.20(18)	6.57	5.69	***
SELFRESP	-.040925	.072012	7.84(5)	7.69(4)	3.93	3.81	***
SOCREC	-.089117	.007892	12.68(17)	13.43(17)	4.56	4.00	***
TFRIEND	-.041517	.107979	8.16(6)	7.76(5)	4.51	4.16	***
WISDOM	-.017610	.125972	8.75(7)	7.94(6)	4.52	4.49	***
ABITIOUS	-.115008	.009522	8.68(7)	9.85(11)	5.08	5.22	***
BMINDED	-.040699	.115377	9.65(9)	8.72(7)	4.78	4.43	***
CAPABLE	-.027717	.047038	8.62(6)	8.24(4)	4.45	4.20	*
CLEAN	-.129728	0.000000	11.19(16)	12.41(17)	5.26	4.73	***
COURAGE	-.039873	.090382	9.86(12)	9.60(10)	4.86	4.64	***
FORGIVE	-.070759	.115999	10.45(14)	9.88(12)	5.31	4.79	***
HELPFUL	0.000000	.203207	10.00(13)	8.45(5)	4.88	4.52	***
HONEST	0.000000	.085062	5.12(1)	4.51(1)	4.52	3.90	***
IMAGINAT	-.022719	.089720	12.67(17)	11.94(16)	4.65	5.04	***
INDEPENT	-.113803	.027710	8.29(5)	8.87(8)	5.09	5.01	***
INTELLEC	-.127597	.049000	9.85(11)	10.47(13)	4.90	4.64	***
LOGICAL	-.202171	0.000000	9.73(10)	11.35(15)	4.58	4.85	***
LOVING	-.047047	.131794	8.02(3)	7.26(3)	5.28	5.16	***
LOYAL	-.140420	0.000000	8.24(4)	9.02(9)	4.78	4.87	***
OBEDIENT	-.130618	.002976	12.77(18)	14.02(18)	4.82	4.38	***
POLITE	-.015656	.265900	10.73(15)	8.53(6)	4.34	4.93	***
RESP	-.104668	.032308	6.82(2)	6.98(2)	4.17	4.21	***
SELFCONT	-.129401	.002955	9.56(8)	10.75(14)	5.05	5.12	***
TYPATOTA	-.286860	.010274	42.53	47.16	6.72	8.87	***
COMPTOTL	-.309422	0.000000	10.12	11.97	2.34	2.81	***
LIFIMTOT	-.096783	.028937	11.63	11.87	2.24	2.66	*
HOTILTOT	-.387501	0.000000	8.86	11.80	2.35	3.88	***
IMPATOTA	-.003711	.069812	11.78	11.51	2.69	2.64	n/s

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test (us uk belize bahamas 10 25 08.sta)

Working adults in the developed nations (US, UK) ranked as most important, important or unimportant 16 of 18 terminal values as compared to the developing countries of Belize and The Bahamas, showing a convergence of values and allowing us to accept the hypothesis (**H1**) and reject the null.

We then conducted Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA median tests with culture and the independent variable and values as the dependent variables between the UK, Belize and Bahamas, US, Belize and Bahamas, and Belize and Bahamas (Tables 2 + 3 show the ANOVA H and significance values).

Table 2 *Cross-cultural differences in terminal value rankings*

Terminal Values	US N=1,000	Belize N=131	Bahamas N=161	UK N=1,052	Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA H & Sign Belize/Bahamas	Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA H & Sign US/Belize/Bahamas	Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA H & Sign UK/Belize/Baha	Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA H & Sign All 4 Countries
Comfort	4	5	6	7				11.4 ***
Exciting	13	12	13	12	6.14 **	6.9 *	6.5*	9.6 ***
Accomplish	8	4	8	9	6.67 **	9.3 **	14 ***	14 ***
WP	16	13	9	8		28.9 ***		202 ***
WB	18	14	18	15	17.30 ***	48.8 ***	30 ***	341 ***
Equality	10	10	12	16	5.33 **	13.5 **	44 ***	72 ***
Fam Security	1	1	4	2	12.07 **	53.2 **	21 ***	65 ***
Freedom	3	6	7	4		23.1 ***	20 ***	37 ***
Health	2	2	2	1			78 ***	179 ***
Inn Harmony	16	7	10	10	12.14 ***	12.4 **	13 **	30 ***
Mature Love	9	11	14	13	5.01 *	19.2 ***	7.1 **	60 ***
Nat Security	15	18	15	14	19.57 ***	41.8 ***	46***	48 ***
Pleasure	12	16	16	11		34.3 ***	59 ***	68 ***
Salvation	10	15	1	18	67.7 ***	99.8 ***	444 ***	1,043 ***
Self-Respect	5	3	3	6	5.7 **	24.5 ***	27 ***	25 ***
Soc Recogn	17	17	17	17			7.0 **	29 ***
True Friend	6	8	11	3	6.75 **	47.1 ***	126 ***	102 ***
Wisdom	7	9	5	5	7.74 ***	18.4 ***	14.1 ***	54 ***

*= p<.05; **=p<.001; ***=p<.001

Respondents from the US did place higher value importance as compared to Belize on the terminal value *freedom* and instrumental values *independent, responsible* and *loving*, but they did not for *accomplishment, forgiving* and *helpful*, allowing us to only partially accept **H5**.

Respondents from the US did place higher value importance as compared to the Bahamas for the terminal value *freedom* and instrumental values responsible and *loving*, but not for *accomplishment, independent, forgiving* and *helpful*, allowing us to only partially accept **H6**.

Respondents from the UK did place higher value importance as compared to Belize on the terminal values *freedom* and instrumental values *responsible, helpful* and *loving*, but not for *accomplishment, forgiving*, and *independent*, allowing us to only partially accept **H7**.

Respondents from the UK did place higher value importance as compared to the Bahamas on the terminal values *freedom* and instrumental values *responsible, forgiving, helpful* and *loving*, but not for *accomplishment* and *independent*, allowing us to only partially accept **H8**.

Belize did place higher value importance as compared to the US on the terminal value *a world at peace* and *self-respect* and instrumental values *ambition* and *broadminded*, but not for *family security, health, national security, wisdom,* and *self-controlled*, allowing us to only partially accept **H9**.

Table 3 *Cross-cultural differences in instrumental value rankings*

Instrumental Values	US N=1,000	Belize N=131	Bahamas N=161	UK N=1,052	Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA H & Sign Belize/Bahamas	Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA H & Sign US/Belize/Bahamas	Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA H & Sign UK/Belize/Baha	Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA H & Sign All 4 Countries
Ambitious	7	2	1	12		28.2 ***	96 ***	164 ***
Broadminded	9	4	14	7	16.1 ***	14.2 ***	22 ***	68 ***
Capable	6	5	15	6	14.3 ***	26.2 ***	42 ***	47 ***
Clean	16	17	9	17	18.4 ***	20.6 ***	75 ***	115 ***
Courage	12	9	16	10	8.25 **	7.5 **	19 ***	20 ***
Forgiving	14	13	8	11	4.5 *	6.9 **	8.1 **	56 ***
Helpful	13	11	13	5			32 ***	157 ***
Honest	1	1	2	1	6.6 **	24.4 ***	56 ***	67 ***
Imaginative	17	15	18	16	18.2 ***	18.2 ***	21 ***	40 ***
Independent	5	7	3	9			17 ***	34 ***
Intellectual	11	6	11	13	6.35 **	9.6 **	38 ***	103 ***
Logical	10	12	17	15	17.4 ***	44.5 ***	20 ***	147 ***
Loving	3	8	5	3			29 **	121 ***
Loyal	4	10	7	8		14.1 **		40 ***
Obedient	18	18	12	18	39.9 ***	56.1 ***	142 ***	215 ***
Polite	15	14	10	4	8.1 **	26.3 ***	51 ***	275 ***
Responsible	2	3	4	2		18.7 ***	26 ***	26 ***
Self-control	8	16	6	14	13.1 **	16.1 ***	23 ***	83 ***

*= p<.05; **=p<.001; ***=p<.001

Respondents from the Bahamas did place higher value importance as compared to the US on the terminal values *a world at peace, wisdom* and *self-respect* and instrumental values *ambition, obedient* and *self-controlled*, but not for *family security, health, national security*, and *broadminded*, allowing us to only partially accept **H10**.

Belize did place higher value importance as compared to the UK for the terminal values *family security*, and *self-respect* and instrumental values *ambition* and *broadminded*, but not for

health, a world at peace, national security, wisdom, obedient, and *self-controlled*, allowing us to only partially accept **H11**.

The Bahamas did place higher value importance as compared to the UK for the terminal value *self-respect* and instrumental value *ambition*, but not for *family security, health, a world at peace, national security, wisdom, broadminded, obedient,* and *self-controlled*, allowing us to only accept **H12**.

Belize did have higher Type A behavior scores as compared to working adults from the US, allowing us to accept **H13** (Table 4).

The Bahamas did have higher Type A behavior scores as compared to working adults from the US, allowing us to accept **H14** (Table 4).

Table 4 - Cross-cultural differences in Type A behavior

	US N=1,000	Belize N=131	Bahamas N=161	Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA H & Sign Belize/Bahamas	Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA H & Sign US/Belize/Bahamas
Type A Total	42.534	***52.038***	43.204	70.9***	158.0 ***
High Competitiveness	10.122	***12.763***	11.335	19.6 ***	140.0 ***
High Life Imbalance (Work Involvement)	11.634	11.793	***11.937***		
High Hostility or Anger	8.864	***15.221***	9.024	178.3***	324.0 ***
High Impatience or Urgency	11.789	***12.259***	10.906	18.2***	19.7 ***

*= p<.05; **=p<.001; ***=p<.001

DISCUSSION

The researchers could find very little cross-cultural value research concerning Belize and The Bahamas, in fact, the researchers found no studies that explored values and Type A stress behaviors in Belize and The Bahamas. Hofstede (1980, 2001) surveyed respondents in The Bahamas, but did not discuss his research results in any known published documents. Since the majority of the research literature on cross-cultural values, attitudes and behaviors has focused

on the differences with little attention paid to similarities between national cultures, we first explored developed versus developing country similarities in values, followed by explorations of the differences. This allowed us to extend the research results of Murphy et al. (2007a).

As shown in Table One, value convergence is suggested by the result for the most important, important and least important values, and those whose rankings are equal. The values ranked one through five are considered the most important values, those ranked six through thirteen are considered important and those ranked fourteen to eighteen are considered unimportant. A total of 16 of the 18 terminal values were ranked most important, important or unimportant by both groups. For example, a comfortable life was ranked as most important four by the developed countries, but was also ranked an important seven by the developing countries. Other terminal values ranked slightly higher in importance by developed countries but slightly less important by developing countries were: *family security* (ranked 1 by developed and 2 by developing), *mature love* (ranked 9 by developed and 13 by developing). Other values were ranked slightly higher in importance by developing countries: *an exciting life* (ranked 12 by developing and 13 by developed), health (ranked 1 by developing and 2 by developed), *inner harmony* (ranked 10 by developing and 11 by developed), *pleasure* (ranked 11 by developing and 12 by developed), *self-respect* (ranked 4 by developing and 5 by developed), *true friendship* (ranked 5 by developing and 6 by developed), and *wisdom* (ranked 6 by developing and 7 by developed). Further, *a sense of accomplishment* was ranked equally (8) by both groups, freedom was ranked (3) by both groups, and *social recognition* ranked equally unimportant (17) by both groups. Finally, *a world at peace* (18 developed and 16 developing), and *national security* (15 developed and 14 developing) were ranked unimportant by both groups.

As shown in Table 2, value convergence is suggested by the result for the most important, important, and least important values, and those whose rankings are equal. A total of 14 of the 18 instrumental values were ranked most important, important or unimportant by both groups. First, there were some values that were ranked slightly more important by developed countries, but only slightly less important by developing countries: *ambitious* (ranked 7 by developed and 11 by developing), *independent* (ranked 5 by developed and 8 by developing), *intellectual* (ranked 11 by developed and 13 by developing), and *loyal* (ranked 4 by developed and 9 by developing). *Broadminded* (ranked seven by developing and 9 by developed), *capable* (ranked 4 by developing and 6 by developed), *courage* (ranked 10 by developing and 12 by developed), *helpful* (ranked 5 by developing and 13 by developed) were ranked slightly more important by developing countries, but only slightly less important by developed countries. Finally, *honest* was equally ranked most important (1) by both groups, *loving* (3), and *responsible* (2), and *obedient* was ranked equally unimportant (18) by both groups.

Working adults in the developed nations more highly valued the instrumental value *independent* but *accomplishment, freedom, responsible* and *loving* were ranked equally by developed and developing countries, and *forgiving* and *helpful* were ranked more important by developing countries (**H3**). This seems to indicate a convergence of values between the developed and developing countries, because *accomplishment, freedom, independent* and *responsible* are achievement, independence and competition values and *loving* is a safety, tradition and conformity value (Murphy et al., 2007a). We explored for difference between the two developed countries, the US and UK. The US ranked accomplishment, freedom, independent, much higher in importance than the UK, and responsible was equally ranked by the US and UK. This suggests that the US is more achievement oriented than the UK. Although the

developing countries have colonial ties to the UK, we suspect the greater influence by the US because of its closer proximity and greater import/export ties. For instance, the CIA's (Central Intelligence Agency) country studies reports indicate that the US is a major import and export partner of Belize and The Bahamas, while the UK is only a major export partner of Belize, and is not a major import or export partner of The Bahamas (CIA, 2008).

Working adults in the developing nations more highly valued the terminal values *health, a world at peace, national security, wisdom* and *self-respect* and instrumental value *broadminded*. The developed countries ranked *family security, ambition* and *self-controlled* higher in importance, and both groups ranked *obedient* equally unimportant (**H4**). Once again, this seems to indicate a convergence of values between the developed and developing countries, because *ambition* is an achievement, independence and competition values and *family security* and *self-controlled* are safety, tradition and conformity values (Murphy et al., 2007a).

For value divergence between developed and developing countries in our study, the only real differences in rankings were for *a world at peace* which was an unimportant sixteen for developed countries and an important nine for the developing countries; *polite* which was an unimportant fifteen for developed and an important six for developing countries, *forgiving* which was an unimportant fourteen for developed an important twelve for developing countries; *salvation*, which was an important ten for developed and unimportant eighteen for the developing countries; *logical* was an important ten for developed and an unimportant fifteen for developing countries; and *self-controlled*, which was an important eight for developed and an unimportant fourteen for developing countries.

Table One further suggests differences between the developed and developing countries. The developed countries ranked the terminal values *a comfortable life, equality, family security,*

mature love, and *salvation* and instrumental values *ambition, clean, independent, intellectual, logical, loyal,* and *self-controlled* higher in importance than the developing countries. The developing countries ranked the terminal values *an exciting life, a world at peace, a world of beauty, inner harmony, national security, pleasure, self-respect, true friendship,* and *wisdom* and instrumental values *broadminded, capable, courage, forgiving, helpful* and *polite* much higher in importance.

We expected the US and UK to place higher importance than Belize and the Bahamas on the terminal values *accomplishment* and *freedom* and instrumental values *independent, responsible, forgiving, helpful* and *loving* (**H5-H12**). The US and UK did rank *freedom, responsible,* and *loving* higher in importance than Belize and the Bahamas; the US ranked *independent* higher than Belize, but not higher than the Bahamas, and the UK ranked *independent* lower in importance as compared to Belize and the Bahamas; Belize and the Bahamas ranked *forgiving* and *helpful* higher than the US, the UK ranked *forgiving* and *helpful* higher in importance as compared to Belize and the UK ranked *helpful* higher in importance than the Bahamas. *Accomplishment* was ranked higher by Belize and the Bahamas. *Accomplishment* is an achievement, independent and competition value normally valued higher in importance by developed countries. In this case, respondents from Belize and the Bahamas ranked this achievement value higher in importance than the US and UK. Respondents from the Bahamas ranked another achievement, independent and competition value *independent* higher in importance than the US and UK. *Forgiving, helpful* and *loving* are safety, tradition and conformity values. The US and UK ranked the safety, tradition and conformity value *loving* higher in importance as compared to Belize and the Bahamas. Belize and the Bahamas ranked the safety, tradition and conformity values *forgiving* and *loving* higher in importance than the

US, but the UK ranked *forgiving* and *loving* higher in importance than Belize and *forgiving* higher in importance than the Bahamas.

We predicted that working adults in Belize would have higher Type A stress behavior scores as compared to the US. The results (Table 4) indicated that working adults in Belize had Type A total scores of 52.038 compared to the US score of 42.534. Their scores for Type A competitiveness, life imbalance, hostility/anger and impatience/urgency were also higher than the US. Respondents from The Bahamas had a higher Type A stress behavior score of 43.204 as compared to the US score of 42.354. Working adults in The Bahamas had higher Type A competitiveness, life imbalance and hostility/anger, but US working adults had higher scores for Type A impatience (Table 4). Our results replicate Murphy et al.'s (2007a), as developing countries had high Type A total scores as compared to developed countries. Murphy et al. explain that working adults in developing countries don't have the training, health, education, banking, and other entrepreneurial and economic support systems available in developed countries, leading to their high stress in the workplace.

In order to add more meaning to the research results, we explored value differences between the US, UK, Belize, and the Bahamas, followed by a discussion of the similarities. We explored differences in country pairs in order to fully explore the value similarities and differences.

There were cross cultural difference in values for 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values. In order to highlight these differences we will explore the differences by which values were more important for each country. For terminal values, the US ranked *a comfortable life, freedom,* and *mature love* as significantly more important; Belize ranked *a sense of accomplishment, a world of beauty,* and *inner harmony* as more important; The Bahamas ranked *salvation* as more

important, and respondents from the UK ranked *a world at peace, health, national security, pleasure,* and *true friendship* as more important. *An exciting life* was ranked and equally important twelve by respondents from Belize and the UK; *equality* was ranked an equally important ten and *family security* an equally most important one by respondents from the US and Belize; *self-respect* was ranked an equally most important three by respondents form Belize and The Bahamas; *social recognition* was ranked an equally unimportant seventeen by respondents from all four countries, and *wisdom* was ranked an equally most important five by respondents from the UK and Bahamas.

There were cross cultural differences for 18 of 18 instrumental values. US respondents ranked *logical* and *loyal* as more important; Belize respondents ranked *broadminded, capable, courage, imaginative,* and *intellectual* as more important; respondents from The Bahamas ranked *ambitious, clean, forgiving, independent, obedient* and *self-controlled* higher in importance, and UK respondents ranked *polite* and *helpful* as more important. *Honest* was equally ranked as one for US, Belize and UK respondents, *loving* was equally ranked three by US and UK respondents, and *responsible* was equally ranked two by respondents form the US and UK.

Value convergence was demonstrated for values that were ranked most important or important across the four cultures. First, the terminal values *family security* and *health* and instrumental values *honest* and *responsible* were ranked most important (1 through 5) across the cultures and the terminal values *a world of beauty, national security* and *social recognition* and instrumental value *imaginative* was ranked unimportant (14 to 18) across the cultures. Next, the terminal values *a comfortable life, an exciting life, a sense of accomplishment, freedom, true friendship,* and *wisdom* and instrumental values *ambition, helpful, independent, intellectual, loving* and *loyal* were ranked most important (1 to 5) or important (6 to 13) across the cultures.

The divergence or major differences across the cultures for terminal values were that *a world at peace* and *inner harmony* were ranked unimportant by the US and important by Belize, The Bahamas and the UK; *mature love* was ranked unimportant by respondents from The Bahamas and it was important for the US, Belize and UK; *pleasure* was important for the US and UK but unimportant for Belize and The Bahamas, and *salvation* was unimportant for Belize and the UK and important for the US and The Bahamas. For major differences in instrumental values across the cultures, respondents from The Bahamas ranked *broadminded, capable* and *courage* as unimportant, but it was important for respondents from Belize, the US and UK; *clean* and *obedient* were only important for respondents from The Bahamas – this is understanding for the value of cleanliness related to the environment since the Bahamian government has been promoting the slogan of 'A clean, green and pristine Bahamas' over the past few years; *forgiving* was unimportant for respondents from the US and was important for respondents from Belize, The Bahamas and the UK; *logical* was unimportant for respondents from The Bahamas and UK, but important for Belize and the US; *polite* was not important for respondents from the US and Belize, and *self-controlled* was only important for respondents from the US and The Bahamas.

CONCLUSIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The major contribution of our study is that it indicates that exploring similarities across cultures is just as important as exploring differences. For example, our study suggests a convergence of values across the developed and developing country cultural groups, in that, 30 of the 36 values were ranked most important, important, least important or were ranked equally between the developed and developing countries. Both groups ranked the terminal values *family security, freedom, health,* and *self-respect* and instrumental values *honest, loving* and *responsible*

in their top five most important values. Both groups ranked the terminal values *a comfortable life, an exciting life, inner harmony, mature live, pleasure, true friendshi*p and *wisdom,* and the instrumental values *ambitious, broadminded, capable, courage, helpful, independent, intellectual, loyal,* and *polite* as important. Further, both groups ranked the terminal values *a world of beauty, equality, national security,* and *social recognition,* and instrumental values *clean, imaginative* and *obedient* as unimportant values. Both groups equally ranked *a sense of accomplishment, freedom, social recognition, honest, loving, obedient*, and *responsible*.

Further convergence is demonstrated when we compared our results to Murphy et al. (2007a). The terminal values *family security, health,* and *self-respect* and instrumental values *honest* and *responsible* were ranked most important and the terminal values *a world of beauty, national security* and *social recognition,* and instrumental values *imaginative* and *obedient* were ranked unimportant by working adults in the 7 developed and 7 developing countries of the Murphy et al. study and the 2 developed and 2 developing countries in our study. Similarly, the terminal value *a comfortable life* and instrumental values *independent, logical, loyal,* and *self-controlled* were ranked more important by developed countries in our study and the Murphy et al. study, and the terminal values *inner harmony,* and *wisdom* were ranked more important by developing countries in our study and the Murphy et al. study.

Managers and practitioners need to understand these similarities and differences because this knowledge will help them develop human resource management (HRM) policies that meet the needs of employees, will help them develop products that meet the needs of the different cultures in the global marketplace, will allow them to lead their employees in interactions with customers, and will allow them to develop marketing campaigns that emphasize the similarities across the cultures, but have a locally-developed cultural focus.

Our study confirmed Murphy et al.'s (2007a) findings that developing countries have higher Type A stress behavior scores as compared to developed countries. The developing countries face a higher risk for CHD because they must not only industrialize and compete in the global marketplace, but they must also bring their health, training and education systems into the 21st century. For instance, the World Health Organization (WHO) reports that "More than 60 percent of the global burden of coronary heart disease occurs in developing countries" (Who Surf 2, 2006: 46). Lifestyle and behavioral patterns (Type A behaviors), lack of access to health care and chronic stress lead to CHD and Type A stress behaviors (Murphy et al., 2007a; WHO, 2006; Who Surf 2, 2006). Our research results seem to support the WHO's findings because Type A stress behaviors were significantly higher in the developing nations as compared to the developed nations.

Our findings are important because they support the World Health Organization's data which indicates that developing nations have higher incidences of death due to stress, lack of proper nutrition, and lack of education and training concerning the causes of chronic diseases like coronary heart disease. The developing countries must understand these finding so they can develop programs that provide government support, access to health care systems, and access to education and training programs and other macro institutions that allow respondents to decrease the quantity of Type A stress behaviors they possess.

As Murphy et al. (2007a) explain, "being able to identify the values, traits and characteristics exhibited by people with Type A behavior patterns are important for practitioners and managers to understand because research has shown that understanding the components of Type A behavior patterns can lead to positive behavioral and lifestyle changes, significantly reducing the risk for CHD" (p. 28). For example, developed countries have successfully reduced

Type A stress behaviors through massive public educaAtion, training and public media programs to decrease deaths from chronic diseases like coronary heart disease by 70 percent from 1979 to the present (WHO, 2006; Murphy et al., 2007a). Developing countries need to develop similar programs in order to decrease Type A stress behaviors.

Rokeach (1973), Feather (1979), Triandis (1994) and Hofstede's (1980) early cross cultural studies indicated that Western nations placed higher importance on achievement-oriented, materialistic and competitive values like *a sense of accomplishment, a comfortable life, social recognition*, and *ambition*, while Latin American nations placed higher importance on the group-oriented or collectivist values *helpful, clean, polite, obedient*, and *self controlled*, and *capable.* More recent research by Neelankavil, Mathur, and Zhang (2000) indicated that American managers highly valued individualism, an achievement orientation and material prosperity, while Latin American nations valued group goals, interdependence, social hierarchies and cooperation, and Hofstede's research confirmed the higher individualism of western nations and more collectivist nature of Latin American and Caribbean countries.

Our findings are important to understand, because they immediately give the practitioner, manager or marketer a point from which to start their relationship with Caribbean nations. For example, the terminal values *family security* and *health*, and instrumental values *honest* and *responsible* were in the top five values of importance (most important) across the sexes and cultures, and *a world of beauty* and *obedient* were ranked unimportant across the sexes and cultures. These results were very similar to Murphy et al.'s (2007a, b; 2008) studies of 7 developed and 7 developing nations. These values could serve as universal means that practitioners, managers and marketers can bring to the sub-cultural level in order to target the local culture and their values of importance. While managers and practitioners can use an

understanding of these values to lead and motivate their employees and develop relationship with their trading partners, marketing managers can use these values as major themes for marketing or advertising campaigns, companies could be more effective with their marketing expenditures (DeMooij, 1998, 2004).

Practitioners, managers and marketers need to be aware of the fact that all the cultures felt having a prosperous life, making a lasting contribution at home and at work, having independence and free choice, having inner peace, having self-esteem, and close companionship were important goals in the lives of respondents and they would pursue those goals by being sincere and truthful, being self-reliant and self-sufficient and by being dependable and reliable. Practitioners and managers leading their employees and developing relationships with trading partners and marketers developing advertising campaigns would easily be able to develop international relationships by emphasizing how they and their companies will contribute to their trading partners or the cultures prosperity, making a difference or contribution at work, providing independence and free choice, freedom from inner conflict, will increase their self-esteem, and will provide companionship, and that they or their products are sincere and truthful, will provide self-sufficiency, dependability and reliability. Each of these goals or techniques can be used as broad areas of focus while still tailoring the relationship to the culture and situation and in the case of an advertising campaign, to the target market based on the psychographics, demographics, peculiarities of the culture involved and the situation (DeMooij, 1998, 2004; Triandis, 1994).

This study will also help practitioners and managers who supervise foreign nationals understand what motivates them (Mujtaba, 2008) and will help companies operating globally develop international human resources management strategies that not only meet company needs

but also the cultural needs of their organizational members. Finally, by understanding values and culture companies should be able to achieve better performance outcomes and these outcomes should positively impact their profitability.

The limitations of this study include the research populations we used, as they were generally convenience samples of working adults from the capitals or major cities in each country. One of the major limitations of our study was the use of a two years old UK sample. Our US, Belize and The Bahamas samples were collected this for this study. We were forced to use a previous UK sample (Murphy et al., 2007a, b), and it did not include Type A behaviors. We presently have a fellow researcher in the UK collecting data using the RVS and Type A instrument to solve this limitation. Future research needs to compare our results to other studies of working adults throughout the world. Other studies of working adults need to be explored by public versus private occupation, by government versus military occupations, and further cross cultural research with college age respondents need to be conducted with this value orientation typology.

Another limitation is trying to compare our results to other studies published in the research literature. Many studies use the RVS but do not report the means and rankings for their populations, possibly due to the publishing constraints imposed by many journals. This makes comparison difficult. Further, many researchers are using only the terminal or instrumental values portions of the RVS, which does not allow for comparison studies using the entire RVS. We recommend that researchers using the RVS report the means, medians and rankings for each value and for each demographic variable studied, as they would allow future researchers to compare their results across the globe.

References

Adler, N. (1983). A typology of management studies involving culture. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 14: 29-47.

Ahmed, S. A., and Rojas, J. (1998). *A comparative study of job values of North and South American business students*. Downloaded from the web on January 22, 2003, from http://ww.sbaer.uca.edu/Research/1998/SRIBR/98sri230.txt.

Allport, G. W., Vernon, P. E., and Lindzey, G. (1960). *Study of values* (3rd ed.). Boston: Boston University Press.

Arango, L., Viveros, M. and Bernal, R. (1995), *Mujeres ejecutivas. Dilemas comunes, alternativas individuales*. Ediciones Uniandes, Ecoe Ediciones. Bogotá.

Arena, M. F. (2007) Los argentinos somos grandes fiesteros. http://www.minutouno.com/1/hoy/article/Los-argentinos-somos-fiesteros%5Eid_18690.htm, accessed September 28th., 2008

Arias-Galicia, F. (2005), Human resource management in Mexico. In M. Elvira and A. Davila, (Eds.), *Managing Human Resources in Latin America*. London: Routledge. 179-190.

Ariail, D. L. (2007). *Gender differences associated with the moral development and personal values of certified public accountants*. American Accounting Association, Research Conference, October 19-20, 2007, Philadelphia, PA.

Aygun, Z. K., and Imamoglu, E. O. (2002). Value domains of Turkish adults and university students. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 142(3): 333-351.

Bailey, W., and Spicer, A. (2007). When does national identity matter? Convergence and divergence in international business ethics. *Academy of Management Journal,* 50(6): 1462-1480.

Becker, B. W., and Connor, P. E. (1982). The influence of personal values on attitude and store choice behavior. In B. J. Walker, et al. (Eds.). *Educators' proceedings* (21-24). Chicago: American Marketing Association.

Belize People, 2008. Belize: People. *The World Factbook*. Central Intelligence Agency. Retrieved on 10, 09, 2008.

Belize, 2000. Housing and Population Census. Belize Central Statistical Office (2000).

Bigoness, W. J., and Blakley, G. L. (1996). A cross-national study of managerial values. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 27(4): 739-752.

Bond, M. H. (1994). Finding universal dimensions of individual variation in multicultural studies of values: The Rokeach and Chinese value surveys. In B. Apuka (Ed.),*New research on oral development: Moral development a compendium* (385-391). NY: Garland Publishing.

Bond, M. H. and Smith, P. B. (1996). Cross-cultural social and organizational psychology. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 47: 205-220.

Bradstatter, H. and Eliasz, A. (2001). *Persons, situations, and emotions: An ecological approach*. Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press.

Braithwaite, V., and Law, H.G., (1985). Goal, mode and social value inventories. *Personality and Individual Differences.*

Bruschini, A. (2007), Trabalho e gênero no Brasil nos últimos dez anos, available at: http://www.fcc.org.br/seminario/BRUSCHINI.pdf, (accessed October 21, 2007).

Buela, A. (1990), *El Sentido de América*, Buenos Aires, Ed. Theoría, 1990, 56.

Catipovic-Veselica, K., Amidzic, V., and Buric, D. (1995). Type A/B behavior and eight basic emotions in 1084 employees. *Psychological Reports*, 76: pp. 1019-1024.

Cavico, F. J. & Mujtaba, B. G. (2009). *Business Ethics: The Moral Foundation of Leadership, Management, and Entrepreneurship (2nd edition).* Pearson Custom Publications. Boston, United States.

Cavico, F. & Mujtaba, B. G., (2008). *Legal Challenges for the Global Manager and Entrepreneur.* Kendal Hunt Publishing Company. United States.

Chhokar, J. S., Brodbeck, G. C., & House, R. J. (2007). *Culture and leadership across the world: The GLOBE book of in-depth studies of 25 societies*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Chusmir, L. H. Koberg, C. S., and Mills, J. (1989). Male-female differences in the association of managerial style and personal values. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 129, 65-78.

Chumsir, L. H., and Parker, B. (1991). Gender and situational differences in manager's values: A look at work and home lives. *Journal of Business Research*, 23, 325-335.

CIA (2008). *Country studies*. www.cia.gov.

CIA World Factbook, 2008. Retrieved on November 27, 2008 from: https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/bh.html).

Cileli, M., and Tezer, E. (1998). Life and value orientations of Turkish university students. *Adolescence*, 33(129), 219-228.

Connor, P. E., and Becker, B. W. (1994). Personal values and management: What do we know and why don't we know more? *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 3(1), 67- 73.

Connor, P. E., and Becker, B. W. (2003). Personal values and decision-making styles of public managers. *Public Personnel Management, 32*, 155-181.

Connor, P., Becker, R., Moore, L., & Okubo, Y. (2006). Public-sector managerial values: United States, Canada and Japan. *International Journal of Organization Theory and Behavior*, 9(2): 147-173.

Country Facts (2008). *Country facts*. November 15, 2008, from www.cia.gov

Cunningham, J. B., Lischeron, J., Koh, H. C. and Farrier, M. (2004). A cybernetic Framework linking personality and other variables in understanding general Health. *Personnel Review*, 33(1): 55-80.

Davis S.M. (1970), U.S. Versus Latin America business and culture, *Harvard Business Review*, page. 88

DeMooij, M. (1998). *Global marketing and advertising: Understanding cultural paradoxes*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

DeMooij, M. (2004). *Consumer behavior and culture: Consequences for global marketing and advertising*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

deVaus, D. and McAllister, I. (1991). Gender and work orientation: Values and satisfaction in Western Europe. *Work and Occupation*, 18, 72-93.

Dio, D. L., Saragovi, C., Koestner, R. M., and Aube, J. (1996). Linking personal values to gender. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 34(9-10): 621-630.

Duffy, J. A., Fox, S., Punnett, B. J., Gregory, A., Lituchy, T., Monserat, S. I., Olivas-Lujan, M. R., Santso, N. M. B. F., and Miller, J. (2006). Successful women of the Americas: The same or different? *Management Research News*, 29(9): 552-572.

Eaton, T. V. and Giacomino, D. E. (2000). Personal values of business students: Differences by gender and discipline. In B. Schwartz (Ed.), *Research on Accounting Ethics*, (7): 83-102. Oxford, UK: Elsevier Science, Ltd.

Eaton, T. V. and Giacomino, D. E. (2001). Personal values of business students: Differences by gender and discipline. *Research on Accounting Ethics*, 7: 83-102.

Elkhouly, S. M. E., and Buda, R. (1997). A cross-cultural comparison of value systems of Egyptians, Americans, Africans and Arab executives. *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, 7: 102-199.

England, G. W. (1974). *The manager and the man*. University of Minnesota Press.

England, C. W. (1975). *The manager and his values: An international perspective from the U.S., Japan, Korea, India and Australia*. Ballinger, Cambridge, MA.

Evans, G., Palsane, M. and Carrere, S. (1987). Type A behavior and occupational stress: A cross cultural study of blue collar workers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(5): 1002-1007.

Fawcett, C. (2008). *Latin American youth in transition: A policy paper on youth unemployment in Latin America and the Caribbean*. Labor Markets Policy Briefs Series, Social Development Division, Inter-American Development Bank.

Feather, N. T. (1979). Values, expectancy, and action. *Australian Psychologist*, 14, 243-260.

Feather, N. T. (1982). Reasons for entering medical school in relation to value priorities and sex of student. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 55, 119-128.

Feather, N. T. (1984). Masculinity, femininity, psychological androgyny, and the structure of values. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 47(3): 604-620.

Feather, N. T. (1999). *Values, achievement and justice: Studies in the Psychology of Deservingness*. New York: Academic/.Plenum Publishers.

Fujita, A. (1999). *Personal values of Japanese business managers*. Business Forum, 1/1/1999. Downloaded June 26, 2006, from www.highbeamresearch.com.

Fitzpatrick, J., Liang, S., Feng, E., Crawford, D., Sorell, G., and Morgan-Fleming, B. (2006). Social values and self-discourse: A comparison of Chinese native, Chinese resident (in U.S.) and North American spouses. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 37(1): 113-121.

Friedman, M., and Rosenman, R. H. (1974). Type A *behavior and your heart*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

Frydenberg, E. Lewis, R., Kennedy, G., Ardila, R., Frindte, W., Hannoun, R. (2005). *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 32(1): 59-67.

Garcia-Gonzalez, J. (2002). Latin American youth. *Advertising and Marketing to Children*, Jan-Mar 2002. 17-24.

Geen, R. G. (1990). *Human aggression* (Mapping Social Psychology Series), Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Gustavo, C. (2004). Religiosity, values and horizontal and vertical individualism-collectivism: A study of Turkey, the U.S. and the Philippines. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 12/1: 1-25.

Hoeken, H., Brandt, C. V. D., Crijns, R., Dominguez, N., Hendriks, B., Planken, B., and Starren, M. (2003). International advertising in Western Europe: Should differences in uncertainty avoidance be considered when advertising in Belgium, France, the Netherlands, and Spain? *Journal of Business Communication*, 40(3): 195-205.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Hofstede, G. (1997). *Cultures and organizations. The software of the mind*. New York: McGraw;Hill.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Cultures consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations* (2nd Ed). London, Sage Publications.

Inglehart, R. and Carballo, M (1997), *Does Latin American exist*? (And is there a Confucian Culture?): A global analysis of cross-cultural differences. *Political Science and Politics*, 30 (1), 34-47: 127-138.

Ivancevich, J. M., and Matteson, M. (1984). A Type A-B person-work environment interaction model for examining occupational stress and consequences. *Human Relations,* 37: 491-513.

Jamal, M. (1985). Type A behavior and job performance: Some suggestive findings. *Journal of Human Stress,* 11*(*2): 60-68.

Jameson, D. A. (2007). Reconceptualizing cultural identity and its role in intercultural business communication. *The Journal of Business Communication*, 44(3): 199-221.

Johnson, T. M. (1999). Are the effects of age and gender changing the personal values of Japanese executives. *Business Forum*, January 1, 1999. Downloaded from the web on September 27, 2005, from www.highbeamresearch.com

Johnston, C. S. (1995). The Rokeach Value Survey: Underlying structure and multidimensional scaling. *The Journal of Psychology*, 129(5): 583-597.

Kahle, L. R. (1983). *Social values and social change: Adaptation to life in America*. New York: Praeger.

Kahle, L. R., Beatty, S. E., and Homer, P. (1986). Alternative measurement approaches to consumer values: The List of Values (LOV) and Values and Life Style (VALS). *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 13(3), 405-409

Kamakura, WE. A., and Novak, T. P. (1992). Value-system segmentation: Exploring the meaning of LOV. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 19(1): 119-132.

Kawasaki, K. (1994). Youth culture in Japan. *Social Justice*, 21(2): 185-205.

Keltikangas-Jarvinen, L., and Heinonen, K. (2003). Childhood roots of adulthood hostility: family factors as predictors of cognitive and affective hostility. *Child Development,* 74(6): pp. 1751-1768.

Khilji, S. E., Mujtaba, B., Greenwood, R. A., Murphy E. F. Jr., Chaturvedi, S., Christoforou, P. T., Ruiz,-Gutierrez, J. A., Olivas-Lujan, M. R., Luk, D. M., Madero, S., Monserrat, S. I. L., Santos, N. M. B. F., Teeple, W., Uy, A. O. O., and Woodhull, M. D., and. (2008a). *A cross-cultural investigation of religious affiliation differences in personal values across 11 countries and six regions.* AIB 2008 Annual Meeting, June 30-July 3, 2008, Milan, Italy. *Selected as one of Best Papers in Proceedings.*

Khilji, S. E., Murphy E. F. Jr., Mujtaba, B., Greenwood, R. A., Ruiz,-Gutierrez, J.A., Olivas-Lujan, M. R., Luk, D. M., Madero, S., Monserrat, S. I. L., Santos, N.M. B. F., Uy, A. O. O, Woodhull, M. D., and Teeple, W. (2008b). *Intergenerational value change: A Cross cultural empirical test*. Eastern Academy of Management Meeting, May 14-17, 2008, Washington, D.C.

Kluckhohn, C. (1951). The study of values. In D. N. Barrett (Ed.), *Values in transition.* Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.

Kohlberg, L. (1970). *Stages in the development of moral thought and action*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Kouichi, Y., Liu, Y., Kodama, H., Sasazuki S., Washio, M., Tanaka, K., Tokunaga, S.,
Kono, S., Arai, H., Koyanagi, S., Hiyamuta, K., Doi, Y., Kawano, T., Nakagaki, O., Takada, K., Nii, T., Shirai, K., Ideishi, M., Arakawa, K., Mohri, M., and Takeshita, A. (2000). Job

strain, Type A behavior pattern, and the prevalence of coronary heart disease in Japanese working men. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 49(1): 77-83.

Kunnanatt, J. T. (2003). Type A behavior pattern and managerial performance: A study among bank executives in India. *International Journal of Manpower*, 24(6): 720-734.

Lavanco, G. (1997). Burnout syndrome and Type A behavior in nurses and teachers in Sicily. *Psychological Reports*, 81, pp. 523-528.

Lenartowicz, T., and Johnson., J.(2002). Comparing managerial values in twelve Latin American Countries: An exploratory study. *Management International Review*, 42(3): 279-307.

Lenartowicz, T. and Johnson, J. P. (2003). A cross-national assessment of the values of Latin America managers: Contrasting hues or shades of gray. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 34: 266-281.

Lenartowicz, T., and Roth, K. (2001). Does subculture within a country matter? A cross-cultural study of motivational domains and business performance in Brazil. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32(2): 305-320.

Leung, K., Bhagat, R. S., Buchan, N. R., Erez, M., and Gibson, C. B. (2005). Culture and international business: Recent advances and their implications for future research. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 36(4): 357-380.

Levine, J. W., Ranelli, C. J., and Vale, R. S. (1974). Self-evaluation and reaction to a shifting other. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 29, 637-643.

Limthanakom, N., Lauffer, W., Mujtaba, B. G., and Murphy, Jr. E. F. (2008). The Ranking of Terminal and Instrumental Values by Working Professionals in Thailand, Singapore and the United States: What is Important and How Do They Impact Decision-Making? *International Business and Economics Research Journal*, 7(4): 45-60.

Lirio, P, Lituchy, T., Monserrat, S., Olivas Lujan, M.R, Duffy, J.A, Fox, S., Gregory, A Punnett, B.J.,.Santos, N.M.B. (2007), Exploring career-life success and family social support of successful women in Canada, Argentina and Mexico, *Career Development International* Vol. 12 (1): 28-50.

Lovell, P.A. (1994), Race, Gender and Development in Brazil. *Latin American Research Review*, 29(3): 7-35.

Lyons, S., Duxbury, L., and Higgins, C. (2005). Are gender differences in basic human values a generational phenomenon? *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 53(9-10), 763-775.

MacLennan, R. N, and Peebles, J W E. (1996). Survey of health problems and personality in air traffic controllers. *International Journal of Aviation Psychology*, 6(1), pp. 43-55.

Matteson, M., and Ivancevich, J. (1982). Type A and B behavior patterns and health symptoms: Examining individual and organizational fit. *Journal of Organizational Medicine*, 24, 585-589.

Maxfield, S. (2004), Modifying best practices in women's advancement for the Latin American context, *Women in Management Review*, Vol. 20, No.4, 2005 249-261

McGuire, D., Garavan, T. N., Saha, S. K., and O'Donnell, D. (2006). The impact of individual values on human resource decision-making by line managers. *International Journal of Manpower*, 27(3): 251-273.

Meglino, B. M. (1998). Individual values in organizations: Concepts, controversies and research. *Journal of Management*, May-June 1998. Downloaded from the web on December 22, 2002, from www.findarticles.com.

Menon, N. and Akhilesh, K. B. (1994). Functionally dependent stress among managers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 9(3): 13-22.

Mudrack, P. E. (2004). Job involvement, obsessive-compulsive personality traits and workaholic behavioral tendencies. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 17(5): 490-508.

Mujtaba, B. G. (2008). *Coaching and Performance Management: Developing and Inspiring Leaders*. ILEAD Academy Publications; Davie, Florida, USA.

Murphy, E. F. Jr., and Anderson, T. (2003). A longitudinal study exploring value changes during the cultural assimilation of Japanese student pilot sojourners in the United States. *International Journal of Value Based Management*, May 2003, 16(2), 111-129.

Murphy, E. F. Jr., Gordon, J. D., and Anderson, T. (2004). An examination of cross- cultural age or generation-based value differences between the United States and Japanese. *Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship*, 9(1), 21-48.

Murphy, E. F. Jr., Gordon, J. D., and Mullen, A. (2004). A preliminary study exploring the value changes taking place in the US since the September 11, 2001 terrorist attack on the World Trade Center in New York. *Journal of Business Ethics, 50* (1), March 2004, pp. 81-96.

Murphy, E. F., Jr., Greenwood, R. and Lawn-Neiborer, L. J. (2004). *Sex differences and similarities in cross-cultural values and internet marketing attitudes between the United States, Japan and United Kingdom*. Paper presented at Southern Academy of Management Meeting, Dallas Texas.

Murphy, E. F. Jr., Greenwood, R. A., Ruiz-Gutierez, J. A., Manyak, T. G., Mujtaba, B., and Uy, O. O. A. (2006). *Generational value changes: Their history and a cross-cultural empirical test*. Presented at National Academy of Management Meeting August 11-17, 2006, Atlanta, Georgia.

Murphy, E. F. Jr., Chaturvedi, S., Greenwood, R. A., Ruiz-Gutierez, J. A., Khilji, S. E., Olivas-Lujan, M. R., Luk, D. M., Manyak, T. G., Mujtaba, B., Madero, S., Santos, N. M. B. F., Uy, A. O., and Woodhull, M D. (2007a). *An investigation of Type A behavior pattern and personal values: A cross-cultural study between developed and developing countries*. Academy of Management Meeting, Philadelphia, PA, August 3-8, 2007.

Murphy, E. F. Jr., Chaturvedi, S., Greenwood, R. A., Ruiz-Gutierez, J. A., Khilji, S. E.,Olivas-Lujan, M. R., Luk, D. M., Manyak, T. G., Mujtaba, B., Madero, S., Santos, N. M. B. F., Uy, A. O., and Woodhull, M D. (2007b). *The values of males and females in the east and west: Are they diverging or converging?* Academy of Management Meeting, Philadelphia, PA, August 3-8, 2007.

Murphy, E. F. Jr., Greenwood, R. A. Chaturvedi, S., Ruiz-Gutierrez, J. A., Khilji, S. E., Olivas-Lujan, M. R., Luk, D. M., Manyak, T. G., Mujtaba, B., Madero, S., Santos, N. M. B. V. F., Uy, A. O. O. Monserrat, S. I., Wodhull, M. D., Christoforou, P. T., and Teeple, W. (2008). *The values of males and females in the east and west: Are they becoming more similar or different*? Academy of Management, August, 2007, Philadelphia, PA. (In Press) Journal of Sex Roles.

Murphy, E. F. Jr., Greenwood, R. A., Ruiz-Gutierez, J. A., Manyak, T. G., Mujtaba, B., and Uy, O. O. A. (2006a). *Generational value changes: Their history and a cross-cultural empirical test*. Presented at National Academy of Management Meeting, Atlanta, Georgia.

Murphy, E. F. Jr., Greenwood, R. A., Ruiz-Gutierez, J. A., Manyak, T. G., Mujtaba, B.and Uy, Ol. O. A. (2006b). *Work and family: An exploration of work-family conflict and family-work conflict in work and home roles*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Meeting Atlanta, Georgia.

Murphy, E., Jr., Snow, W., Carson, P., and Zigarmi, D. (1997). Values, sex differences and psychological androgyny. *International Journal of Value-Based Management*, 10, 69-99.

Monserrat S.I.- Lluna H.E. (2000). Argentina's Development: democracy, economy and system law. *International Newsletter*, California State University, San Bernardino.

Monserrat, S., Lassaga, G., and Dannunzio, D. (2006), Argentina: returning to its glorious past. In B. J. Punnett; J. A., Duffy; S., Fox; A. Gregory;T. R. Lituchy; S. I. Monserrat; M. R. Olivas-Luján; and N. M. B. F. Santos (Eds). *Successful Professional Women of the Americas: From Polar Winds to Tropical Breezes.* Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Musser, S. J., and Orke, R. A. (1992). Ethical value systems: A typology. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 28(3): 348-362.

Neelankavil, J. P. Mathur, A., and Zhang, Y. (2000). Determinants of managerial performance: A cross-cultural comparison of the perceptions of middle-level managers in four countries. *International Business Studies*, 31(1): 121-130.

Obot, I.(1988). Value systems and cross-cultural contact: The effect of perceived similarity and stability on social evaluations. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 12, 363-379.

Phalet, K., and Schonpflug, U. (2001). Intergenerational transmission in Turkish immigrant families: Parental collectivism, achievement values and gender differences. Journal of Comparative Family Studies, 32(4): 489-499.

PNUD (2003). Informe sobre desarrollo humano. Ediciones Mundi- Prensa. New York. *Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.*

Political Database of Americas available on line (2008). http://pdba.georgetown.edu/Elecdata/Arg/pres07.html, Accessed September 28th., 2008

Ralston, D., Gustafson, D., Elsas, P., Cheung, F. and Terpstra, R. (1992). Eastern values: A comparison of managers in the U.S., Hong Kong and PRC. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77: 664-671.

Ralston, D., Thang, N., and Napier, N. (1999). A comparative study of the work values of North and South Vietnamese managers. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 30(4): 655-670.

Rokeach, M. (1968a). *Beliefs, attitudes, and values: A theory of organization and change*. San Francisco: Jossey- Bass Inc.

Rokeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values*. New York: Free Press.

Rokeach, M. (1979). *Understanding human values: Individual and societal*. NY: Free Press.

Rokeach, M. (1983). *Rokeach value survey*: Form G. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Rokeach, M. (1986). *Beliefs, attitudes and values: A theory of organization and change*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Rokeach, M., and Ball-Rokeach, S. J. (1989). Stability and change in American value priorities.*American Psychologist*, 44, 775-784.

Ruiz-Gutierrez, J. (2005). *Change and organizational demography: The case of 30 Colombian companies*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Management, HI.

Ruiz-Gutierez, J. A., Monserrat, S. I., Olivas-Lujan, M. R., Madero, S., Greenwood, R. A., Murphy, E. F. Jr., and Santos, N. M. B. F. (2008). *Personal values and attitudes towards women in Argentina, Brazil, Colombia an Mexico: A cross-cultural investigation.* The Business Association of Latin American Studies (BALAS) Conferences, April 23-25, 2008. University of Los Andes, Bogota, Colombia.

Ryckman, R. M. and Houston, D. M. (2003). Value priorities in American and British female and male university students. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 143(1): 127-138.

Schooler, C. (1996). Cultural and social structural explanations of cross-national psychological differences. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 22: 323-350.

Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical Advances and Empirical Tests in 20 Countries. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 25, 1-65.

Schwartz, S. (1999) A theory of cultural values and some implications for work. An *International Review, Applied Psychology, Special Review*. The International Association of Applied Psychology.

Schwartz, S. H. and Bilsky, W. (1987). Toward a universal psychological structure of human values. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 58: 878-891.

Schwartz, S. H., and Bilsky, W. (1990). Toward a theory of the universal content and structure of values: Extensions and cross-cultural replications. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 58: 878-891.

Sekaran, U. (1983). Methodological and theoretical issues and advances in cross-cultural research. *Journal of International Business Studies,* 14: 61-73.

Sikula, A. F. (1973). The values and value systems of governmental executives. *Public Personnel Management,* January-February 1973: 16-22.

Stone D.; Johnson R., Stone-Romero F., Hartman M. (2005) A comparative study of Hispanic-American and Anglo-American cultural values and job Choice preferences. Management research. *The Journal of the Iberoamerican Academy of Management*. Vol 4, No1 Winter.

Tihanyl, L., Griffith, D. A., and Russell, C. J. (2005). The effect of cultural distance on entry Mode choice, international diversification, and MNE performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 36(3): 270-280.

Triandis, H. C. (1994). Theoretical and methodological approaches to the study of collectivism and individualism. In U. Kim, H. C. Triandis, C. Kagitcibasi, S-C.Choi, and G. Yoon (Eds) (1994). *Individualism and collectivism: Theory, methods and applications*. Cross-cultural Research and Methodology Series, Volume 18, Sage Publications.

Triandis, H.. C. and Suh, E. M. (2002). Cultural influences on personality. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 2002, pp. 133-150.

Trompenaars, F. and Hampden-Turner, C. (1998). *Riding the waves of culture*, 2nd ed, McGraw-Hill.

Turnipseed, D. S., and Turnipseed, D. L. (1997). A bi-cultural analysis of the cost of caring: Nursing burnout in the U.S. and Philippines. *Career Development International,* 2(4): 180-188.

Uehara, A. (1986). The nature of American re-entry adjustment and the perception of the sojourn experience. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 10, 415-438.

Ward, C., and Searle, W. (1991). The impact of value discrepancies and cultural identity on psychological and socio-cultural adjustment of sojourners. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 15, 209-225.

Weber, J. (1990). Managerial value orientations: A typology and assessment. *International Journal of Value Based Management*, 3(2): 37-54.

Weber, J. (1993). Exploring the relationships between personal value and moral reasoning. *Human Relations*, 36: 435-364.

Whetten, D. A., and Cameron, K. S. (1998). *Developing management skills* (4th Ed). Addison-Wesley Educational Publishers (pp. 84-85).

WHO (2006). *Core health indicators*. WHO Statistical Information System. Retrieved August 8, 2006, from http://www3.who.int/ whosis/ corcore. selectprocess.cfm?strISO3_select=SGP&strIndicat…

WHO Surf 2 (2006). Surf 2: Country profiles. World Health Organization. Retrieved November 12, 2006 from http://www.who.int/ncd_surveillance/infobase/ web/surf2/ontry_list.html

Wolin, L. D. (2003). Gender issues in advertising: An oversight synthesis of research: 1970-2002. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 43(1): 111-125.