

**WHAT DRIVES CHINESE TOWARD TEAMWORK?  
A STUDY OF U.S.-INVESTED COMPANIES IN CHINA\***

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# **WHAT DRIVES CHINESE TOWARD TEAMWORK?**

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### **Introduction**

Are Chinese people willing to work in teams? What factors will motivate them to or inhibit them from doing so? These questions have become increasingly significant as China's management practices and employee relations are changing considerably at the end of the 20th century. At the core of these transformations is the extent to which Chinese companies have absorbed and adopted Western management principles and practices. Since teamwork has been widely practiced and found to be generally effective in Western companies, especially U.S. companies, many Western companies hope to use teamwork in China. Motorola has taken a lead in introducing teamwork in China by putting 80% to 90% of the employees at its Tianjin plant on teams; the plant also fielded four entries among the 24 finalist teams at the worldwide finals of Motorola's Total Customer Satisfaction (TCS) competition in 1998 (Sheridan, 1998). However, there is little evidence on how well teams will be widely received in China, given its very different cultural traditions.

To fill this void in the literature, we conducted a teamwork study in several U.S.-invested enterprises (USICs) in China. In this paper, we begin by discussing the increasing importance of teamwork for Chinese management and its relationship to the changing Chinese cultural and economic environments. Then we present a conceptual model of how employee work attitudes and cultural values influence the willingness to work in teams. This is followed by the development of several preliminary hypotheses, which are tested with data on two USICs using

structural equation modeling. We conclude by discussing the results and implications for further research.

### **Teamwork in China**

The People's Republic of China presents a timely, complex, and instructional case for the study of teamwork. First of all, traditional Chinese culture may well have competing influences on teamwork today. On the one hand, the collectivist orientation of Chinese culture may promote such crucial aspects of teamwork as a common purpose, task interdependence, and group orientation. The importance of relationships in this collectivist society would also suppress individual interests for the good of work groups (teams). Moreover, traditional Chinese culture and society feature strong vertical relationships of filial piety, paternalism, and hierarchy, and strong pressures for conformity, maintenance of face, and social control (Redding, 1990). These vertical relationships would promote teamwork if teams are formed by managerial authority and have strong appointed leaders. Thus, traditional Chinese values may facilitate teamwork.

On the other hand, the rigid social hierarchy emphasized by Confucianist principles could prevent fully autonomous and flexible teamwork, so that the very elements of Chinese culture that create and sustain group attachment and group conformity also maintain top-down control, which contravenes the principle and practice of true teamwork. During Maoist China, these Confucian cultural and social traditions were reinforced by the Communist ideology and politicized system of workplace control, which also made workers politically, economically, and socially dependent on the state-owned enterprise (Walder, 1986). These factors led to risk aversion, factionalization of the workforce, mistrust for co-workers, and personalized favoritism,

which contradict Western teamwork norms of risk-taking and responsibility. Therefore, if these Confucianist and Communist ideologies persist, they will create strong barriers to teamwork.

However, the current economic and organizational changes associated with China's opening to foreign investment are creating a new environment where these traditional values may play a less important role. Approximately 150,000 Chinese enterprises employing 17.5 million workers now have foreign involvement (*People's Daily*, 1/26/98, p. 2). Although approximately 70% of these enterprises are financed by overseas Chinese capital, especially from Hong Kong and Taiwan, a large number of them are joint ventures with large Western multinational corporations or wholly owned by the latter. There are close to 20,000 Chinese-U.S. joint ventures or wholly U.S.-owned companies, many of which employ thousands of local Chinese staff.

The introduction of Western management styles and practices to China through these Western-invested enterprises may be having a cumulative effect on the traditional Chinese management system and employee orientation. John Child (1996) found that Western partners are at least somewhat successful introducing technology, technical management, and standardized techniques and procedures such as marketing techniques and formal systems for assigning managerial responsibility and for reporting, but human resource management practices may be more difficult to introduce. This could reflect a general rejection of Western human resource practices, which will spill over to teamwork. Thus it is difficult to predict how much Western management practices have affected attitudes towards teams.

But China is also changing in other ways that make acceptance of Western practice more likely in the future. With the loosening of state control over the daily lives of the Chinese people, the move toward a more market-driven economy, and the success of the one-child policy,

new attitudes are developing. Young employees are generally more self-centered, more individualistic, and less political than the older generation of employees, and tend to be more receptive and adaptive to Western management. This is especially true because jobs in foreign firms pay well and provide opportunities for career advancement. One goal for our research is to examine how differences in the acceptance of traditional Chinese values influence the acceptance of teamwork in Western-invested companies.

### **Teamwork in a Cross-Cultural Perspective**

Cross-cultural research suggests that cultural values will influence the willingness and ability to work in teams. Hofstede's (1980) individualism-collectivism dimension refers to the degree to which people in a country prefer to act as individuals vs. as members of groups. Because teams are collective entities, this dimension is important to any study of how cultural values influence employees' orientation toward teamwork. Hofstede's power distance dimension may also be important. Power distance refers to the acceptance of uneven distribution of power within organizations. Variations along power distance are reflected in how employees differ in their acceptance of job titles, status, hierarchy and appropriate behavior toward supervision, responsibility, and decision-making. Power distance may interfere with teamwork.

Using alternative conceptual frameworks and individual level data, scholars have identified subdimensions to Hofstede's main dimensions and demonstrated subtle variations along these dimensions. For example, Triandis (1995) argued that culture as reflected in individualism vs. collectivism has temporal, geographic, and situational variations. Triandis, Chen, and Chan (1998) drew the conceptual distinctions between the horizontal and vertical types of collectivism and individualism and developed a method for measuring them. Chen,

Chen, and Meindl (1998) developed a culturally contingent model of cooperation which specifies variations between and within collectivist and individualist cultures in terms of such cooperation mechanisms as group identity, trust, accountability, and reward distribution.

Furthermore, the individualist-collectivist distinction has been used broadly to study various teamwork-related attitudes and behaviors. Boyacigiller and Adler (1991) argued that the level of commitment of employees in a collectivist society may arise from their ties with managers, owners, and co-workers, while commitment of employees in an individualist society may be due to the job itself or the compensation system. The empirical studies by Earley (1989, 1993) showed that collectivist and individualist cultural values have differential effects on social loafing and performance, but these effects vary between in-group and outgroup members and are moderated and mediated by such variables as accountability, perception of individual and group efficacy, and anticipated performance outcomes. Thus, these studies based on theories of cultural differences suggest that although the impact of cultural values on employee attitude and behavior varies between and within societies in important ways, the within-cultural differences have been understudied and thus deserve special attention.

### **U.S.-based research and the Chinese context**

U.S.-based research has often focused on commitment to teams and organizations. Commitment is a multidimensional phenomenon and the dimension of commitment under examination is an important distinction when assessing worker attachment (Reicher, 1985). Using this perspective, Becker and Billings (1993) showed that an individual's level of commitment to a work team and to the global organization can vary substantially. Furthermore, valued organizational outcomes such as job performance, intention to quit, and willingness to

engage in helping behavior have been associated with varying and differential levels of organizational and team commitment (Bishop & Scott, 1997). The established antecedents of team and organizational commitment include satisfaction with supervision and co-workers (Brief & Aldag, 1980), different role conflicts (Morris & Snyder, 1979), task interdependence (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Morris & Steers, 1980), perceived team support, perceived organizational support, and leader-member exchange (Eisenberger, et al., 1986; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).

Although existing research in the United States has identified clear determinants of commitment to teams, we should not assume that these same relationships will hold in China. Through interviews with managers in three USICs in China, we have found that they don't have work teams that function as they do in their operations in the US. Chinese employees in these USICs, however, have been introduced to the concept and certain practices of teamwork, and these employees generally identify with their functional department (e.g., manufacturing, marketing, or sales) or their work section in the factory as their primary work group. Thus, the Chinese working in USICs are at the beginning stage of a teaming process and as a result, we factors that influence team orientation or willingness to work in teams can be assessed.

## **A Conceptual Model and Preliminary Hypotheses**

### **Figure 1 about here**

The conceptual model relating employee attitudes and individual values to team orientation is shown in Figure 1. Box A contains constructs that have been clearly identified as determinants of team and organizational commitment in U.S. companies. We expect these attitudes to be important predictors for Chinese employees too. However, their effects may be influenced by the individual values shown in Box B. As we explained before, although China

has traditionally had a collectivist culture, with an authoritarian political ideology based on rigid hierarchy, and strong risk aversion, economic and social transformations over the last two decades have created an increasingly individualist culture among the younger generation, who are also less receptive to hierarchy, and less risk averse. Because USICs generally appeal to and hire younger employees, employees in USICs could be more accepting of teamwork. Thus we treat these variables as individual differences--values that individuals within one culture may hold to varying degrees--and explore their effects in the model. Box C shows the dependent variable of team orientation, which is measured by preference for teamwork.

Based on this model, we developed several tentative hypotheses. In our U.S.-based research, Bishop and Scott (1996) reported that although satisfaction with supervision is not related to team commitment, satisfaction with co-workers and task interdependence are positively and significantly related team commitment. Other researchers (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Morris & Steers, 1980) also found that the more that employees perceive that the tasks are interdependent, the more likely that they will engage in teamwork. Based on field theory (Lewin, 1943), social exchange theory, and the norm of reciprocity, we expect that, because the team constitutes the more salient element, perceived team (group) support will be positively related to team orientation in USICs. These U.S.-based research findings give us a strong rationale to test several hypotheses in USICs, which approximate an U.S. corporate setting but in a Chinese context.

Hypothesis 1: Perceived group support will be positively related to preference for teamwork.

Hypothesis 2: Satisfaction with co-workers will be positively related to preference for teamwork.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived task interdependence will be positively related to preference for teamwork.

These hypotheses, especially 1 and 3, however, may be complicated by the Chinese workplace culture, which features a strong group orientation based on individual satisfaction with co-workers. This is to suggest that work attitude toward group support and task interdependence, which have a direct effect on teamwork in U.S. companies, may not contribute directly toward teamwork in China unless they are filtered through satisfaction with co-workers. Therefore, we propose two other hypotheses stating indirect relationships.

Hypothesis 4: Perceived group support will be positively related to preference for teamwork through satisfaction with co-workers.

Hypothesis 5: Perceived task interdependence will be positively related to preference for teamwork through satisfaction with co-workers.

Additional hypotheses concern the effects of individual values on team orientation. The most important cultural value is collectivism-individualism. Although collectivism may be a critical moderating variable (see Figure 1), in this paper we examine this construct as a predictor of preference for teamwork. However, we question Hofstede's (1980, 1997) approach that dichotomizes national cultures into generally collectivist (including China) and individualist (e.g., the U.S.). We are more interested in uncovering variation *within* one culture rather than variation *across* cultures. Although collectivism may vary substantially between cultures, it also varies within cultures over time. In China significant within country variation is expected given the society-wide cultural change and expected individual-level variation in collectivism, especially among employees in USICs. Furthermore, we assume that the traditional, normative value of collectivism in China has waned to such an extent since the late 1970s that its influence

on teamwork orientation is likely to be mediated by more concrete and pragmatic tendencies that embody such collectivist values as cooperation. The effect of the more general work attitude (i.e., task interdependence) on teamwork may also be transmitted through the collectivist value of cooperation. Therefore, we advance the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 6: Collectivism will be positively related to preference for teamwork.

Hypothesis 7: Collectivism will be positively related to cooperation, which will be positively related to preference for teamwork.

Hypothesis 8: The positive effect of perceived task interdependence on preference for teamwork will also be contingent on cooperation.

## **Methods**

### **Research site**

This study uses survey data collected in two U.S.-invested enterprises in Guangdong Province of the People's Republic of China. The sample had slightly more men (52.9%) than women, was relatively young (54.5% were under the age of 25), and relatively well educated (89% had finished high school and 13.7% had finished college). Twenty-two percent of the respondents were clerical or other staff, 7 percent engineers, 14.1 percent management, 11 percent technical, and 46 percent manufacturing employees.

### **Participants and survey procedure**

Questionnaires, coded to ensure confidentiality, were distributed to approximately 500 employees at these two USICs. At one USIC, the questionnaires were given to all employees who were present on the day the survey was administered, covering about 85% of the company's total. At the other USIC, the questionnaires were distributed to all the office staff including

managers and supervisors on the day the survey was conducted, and also included one-fifth of all operators of the company who could be rotated off shift. Management reported no unusual absence patterns during the time of the survey. The surveys were filled out on company time. Participation was voluntary but no one refused to participate. The researchers' presence and monitoring ensured that all the questionnaires distributed were collected on site. Of all the questionnaires returned, only a couple was discarded due to the respondent being unwilling or unable to respond. Our sample size was 510, with 284 from one USIC and 226 from the other USIC.

### **Measures**

Six 5-point Likert scales were used to measure attitudinal variables for this study. Response options ranged from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" except for the satisfaction with co-workers scale where response options ranged from "extremely dissatisfied" to "extremely satisfied." Scale development was a five-step process. First, existing scales measuring constructs of interest were examined. Second, interviews with plant employees and managers were conducted in order to understand the nature of the organization and the work being performed. During separate interviews, employees and plant management were asked to describe the work environment, nature of employees' tasks, interactions that were required, conditions leading to satisfaction or dissatisfaction on the job, events and conditions influencing productivity or job difficulty, and individuals' impressions of co-workers and their impressions of working closely with others in a team environment. Time was allowed during the interviews for participants to make comments, observations, suggestions, and ask questions.

Third, based on literature review and interview results, an instrument was developed. Since most of the existing scales that were used had been developed and published in English, care had

to be taken to ensure that the items were translated correctly. Preparing survey scales for use in a different culture with a different language requires special considerations. Even if an English-to-Chinese translation followed by a Chinese-to-English achieves linguistic equivalence, it does not mean the translated items have cultural and psychometric equivalence (Hulin & Mayer, 1986). Cross-cultural or within-foreign-culture research involving the translation of measurement scales requires sensitivity to the *emic-etic* distinction. *Etic* refers to a phenomenon which has a common (core) meaning across the cultures under study, while *emic* aspects are different between the cultures (Brislin, 1986:140). This could present a problem even if an well-translated instrument is administered to monolinguals (Hulin & Mayer, 1986). Since most of the rank-and-file Chinese employees in the studied USICs speak very little English, we attached top priority to developing linguistically, culturally, and psychometrically equivalent scales.

We started with modifying and developing items in translatable English by following some of Brislin's (1986) guidelines such as using short simple sentences, avoiding metaphors and colloquialisms, and adding sentences to provide contexts and illustrations. The initial translated instrument was administered in a pilot survey to 30 MBA students from China newly arrived in the U.S. Members of the pilot sample were able to speak English however they had not been in the U.S. so long that their understanding of subtleties and nuances that might compromise their ability to "see the items as a native Chinese would see them."

Fourth, following the pilot survey administration, participants were debriefed and asked to comment on the readability and clarity of survey items and instructions, item wording, translation issues, and layout and attractiveness of the instrument. The graduate students were candid, forthcoming, and helpful during all interactions. Results of the pilot survey were

analyzed for internal reliability. Finally, based on our analyses and suggestions from our pilot sample, several items were reworded or dropped from use in the final survey.

Perceived group support. Perceived group support is the extent that individuals perceive that the work group values their contribution and cares about their well being. Perceived group support was measured by a shortened version of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS; Eisenberger, et al., 1986). Seven items were selected from the SPOS that loaded among the highest in Eisenberger, et al.'s (1986) factor analysis. Short forms of the survey have been used in previous research (Eisenberger, et al., 1986; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). The short form was modified to refer to the work group rather than the organization. Similar modifications have been successfully used in previous research and have been shown to measure support constructs (e.g., perceived supervisory support) distinct from organizational support (cf. Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). The coefficient alpha for this scale was .85.

Perceived task interdependence. Perceived task interdependence is the extent to which employees perceive their tasks depend upon interaction with others and depend upon others' tasks being completed (Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993). It was measured by five-items ( $\alpha = .75$ ) from Pearce and Gregersen (1991).

Satisfaction co-workers. The satisfaction with co-workers was measured by the corresponding three-item subscales from the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS; Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Based on interviews in our pilot survey, two items was added ( $\alpha = .78$ ): "How satisfied are you with the decisions made by other employees " and "How you and other employees work together."

Collectivism and cooperation. Seven items were used to measure collectivism ( $\alpha = .66$ ) (Wagner, 1995). An example of the items: "Working with a group is better than working alone."

Cooperation was measured by five items ( $\alpha = .85$ ), three from Campion, et al. (1993) and two developed for this study: “I am willing to cooperate with other employees to get the work done.” and “Cooperation is the key to company success.”

Preference for teamwork. Seven items were used to measure preference for teamwork ( $\alpha = .79$ ). Five came from Kirkman and Shapiro (1997) and two were developed for this study, “If given a choice, I would prefer to work as pt of a team” and “I find that working as a member of a team increases my ability to perform effectively.”

## **Results and Discussion**

Prior to testing our hypotheses a confirmatory factor analysis CFA was performed on the 41 items attitudinal scales. The model fit the data moderately well:  $\chi^2 = 1228.285$ ,  $df = 579$ ; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .047; comparative fit index (CFI) = .89; Tucker-Lewis fit index (TLI) (also called the non-normed fit index, NNFI) = .88. These fit indices are recommended based on sample size and number of parameters estimated (Medsker, Williams, and Holahan, 1994). All items load significantly on their intended factors. Table 1 reports means, standard deviations, and correlations among the variables and the coefficient alphas of the scales.

### **Table 1 about here**

The fit indices for the hypothesized model shown in Figure 2 below are  $\chi^2 = 1252.800$  ( $df = 583$ ), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .048, comparative fit index (CFI) = .93, and the Tucker-Lewis fit index (TLI) = .92. Again, these results indicate that the model fit the data moderately well (Medsker, Williams, & Holahan, 1994).

The hypothesized model was tested with structural equation modeling using an item model. This model accounts for 28% of the variance in satisfaction with co-workers, 40% of the variance in cooperation, and 65% in preference for teamwork. Figure 2 shows the completely standardized path coefficients for the relationships in the model. Completely standardized path coefficients are reported because of their suitability in comparing the relative contributions to the variance of the dependent variables by the independent variables within a sample.

**Figure 2 about here**

As Figure 2 shows, there is no direct relationship between perceived group support and preference for teamwork (path omitted), which provides no support for Hypothesis 1. Both satisfaction with co-workers and perceived task interdependence are positively related to preference for teamwork, supporting Hypotheses 2 and 3. That perceived group support is indirectly related to preference for teamwork through satisfaction with co-workers supports Hypothesis 4. The same is true of perceived task interdependence, lending support to Hypothesis 5. The absence of a direct relationship between collectivism and preference for teamwork (path omitted) contradicts Hypothesis 6. Like perceived group support, collectivism is indirectly related to preference for teamwork through cooperation, providing support to Hypothesis 7. Finally, besides a direct relationship with preference for teamwork, perceived task interdependence is positively related to preference for teamwork through cooperation, supporting Hypothesis 8.

While most of the hypotheses have been confirmed in this analysis, the results offer mixed evidence concerning the effects of the predictors in the Chinese context with reference to those in U.S.-based research. First of all, perceived group support, which leads to teamwork in U.S. companies, does not facilitate teamwork orientation directly or by itself, even though it generates

satisfaction with co-workers, which leads to teamwork orientation. On the other hand, perceived task interdependence, which contributes strongly to teamwork in the U.S., makes employees in USICs willing to engage in teamwork. Moreover, perceived task interdependence not only contributes directly to teamwork orientation, but also induces both satisfaction with co-workers and cooperation, which in turn lead to teamwork orientation. The difference between perceived group support and task interdependence suggests that the latter scale, which taps individual assessment of actual work relations among co-workers, is a more powerful predictor of teamwork that appears to transcend cultural contexts. Like their U.S. counterparts, the more Chinese employees in USICs perceive their tasks are interdependent, the more willing they are to work in teams. Furthermore, this perception leads to Chinese employees to be more satisfied with the skills, diligence, and general tenor of their co-workers, and makes them more willing to cooperate. These factors combine and interact to drive Chinese to prefer teamwork. Perceived group support, which measures one's perception of one's group's attitude and treatment, is more naturally and logically linked with one's satisfaction with co-workers than with one's willingness to actually work in teams. The direct and indirect effects of perceived task interdependence reveal a pragmatic attitude of Chinese employees toward teamwork based on their integrated assessment of work-related conditions.

The second set of findings reflects the current individual value of collectivism in China that challenges the prevailing view (represented by Hofstede and others) that a collectivist orientation would necessarily lead to group formation and activity in terms of teamwork. As we have shown, just being collectivist is not sufficient to induce preference for teamwork, as those who label China collectivist might expect. Chinese employees' belief in and understanding of collectivism might have weakened or changed to such an extent that they do not view it in direct

relationship with preference for teamwork. The results suggest that Chinese associate the collectivist value with the more pragmatic importance of cooperation in the workplace such as sharing information and maintaining communication. It is only until they are willing to cooperate that they prefer to work in teams. Cultural value has become less important than critical work-related attitudes in fostering teamwork orientation in USICs in China.

### **Tentative Conclusion and Implications for Future Research**

This paper warrants two tentative conclusions. First, some of crucial determinants of teamwork such as perceived group support, perceived task interdependence, and satisfaction with co-workers shown in U.S.-based research have turned out to be important direct or indirect predictors of teamwork orientation in USICs in China. We have focused on teamwork orientation (measured in preference for teamwork) since there are no formal teams in the USICs we studied, whereas team commitment is usually the dependent variable in U.S.-based research on teamwork. However, we tentatively conclude that what contributes to teamwork orientation in USICs in China today may partially overlap with the base for team commitment in U.S. companies at home. In light of the first conclusion, we also conclude that the long-held role of cultural values in shaping attitude toward group formation and activity has attenuated, but remains important in inducing more pragmatic attitude toward cooperative behavior, which facilitates teamwork orientation. In other words, the traditional influence of cultural values on group formation has become less predictable and more intertwined with other factors.

This study, like all field research, has limitations. One limitation is that this study was based on cross-sectional data. Therefore, causal inferences must be made with caution and with the consideration of relevant theory and the results of previous research. Given the dynamic

changes at the societal and individual levels, a follow-up study on this topic is not only more appropriate but necessary for capturing the true antecedents of teamwork in China. And we have constructed an valuable baseline from which a longitudinal study could be conducted.

With regards to future research, this model could form the base for further development in this area for several reasons. First, to the extent that preference for teamwork predicts the likely acceptance of teams in the future, this model could be used by managers to examine the correlates of preference for teamwork in order to determine how to prepare their subordinates for the introduction of teams. For example, if it was found that preference for teamwork was low in a particular organization. Then managers may train employees to cooperate more with their co-workers, recognize the way their tasks are interdependent, and employ team building to increase their satisfaction with and support for each other. Second, this model should be tested in a variety of cultural settings. As “American style” teamwork is exported across the globe, its veracity in other countries and cultures is of vital importance to both researchers and practitioners.

Third, we will be interested in whether factors influencing orientation also influence commitment to the organization. This different focus is important for two reasons. While U.S.-based research has shown that team commitment and organizational commitment are closely related, they are subject to differential determinants. In addition, organizational commitment is a critical human resource management issue for USICs. Unlike state-owned enterprises (SOEs) which severely restrict labor mobility but have little corporate identity to generate employee commitment, USICs are sufficiently different from one another and recruit on a relatively open and free labor market so that commitment to them could vary considerably. Therefore, employee

commitment could play an important role in a USIC. In our study, we have included the necessary variables to undertake this analysis.

Finally, this paper points to the importance of examining whether and how an emerging teamwork orientation may affect performance and other organizational outcomes. Previous research in the United States links high levels of commitment to the group and the organization to such desirable organizational outcomes as job performance, organizational citizenship (OCB), and intention to remain with the organization (Becker, 1992; Bishop & Scott, 1997). The direction and strength of these relationships could be quite different in the Chinese context, and definitely need to be examined in the future.

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Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Measures of Reliability among the Variables (N = 510)

| Construct                         | mean | SD  | 1     | 2     | 3     | 4     | 5     | 6     |
|-----------------------------------|------|-----|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. Preference for teamwork        | 3.67 | .52 | (.79) |       |       |       |       |       |
| 2. Satisfaction with co-workers   | 3.57 | .51 | .42** | (.78) |       |       |       |       |
| 3. Perceived group support        | 3.28 | .69 | .26** | .37** | (.85) |       |       |       |
| 4. Perceived task interdependence | 3.48 | .72 | .54** | .30** | .41** | (.75) |       |       |
| 5. Collectivism                   | 3.66 | .53 | .43** | .31** | .32** | .44** | (.66) |       |
| 6. Cooperation                    | 4.03 | .57 | .60** | .39** | .18** | .48** | .42** | (.85) |

Note. \* -  $p < .05$ ; \*\* -  $p < .01$ ; Coefficient Alphas are on the diagonal.

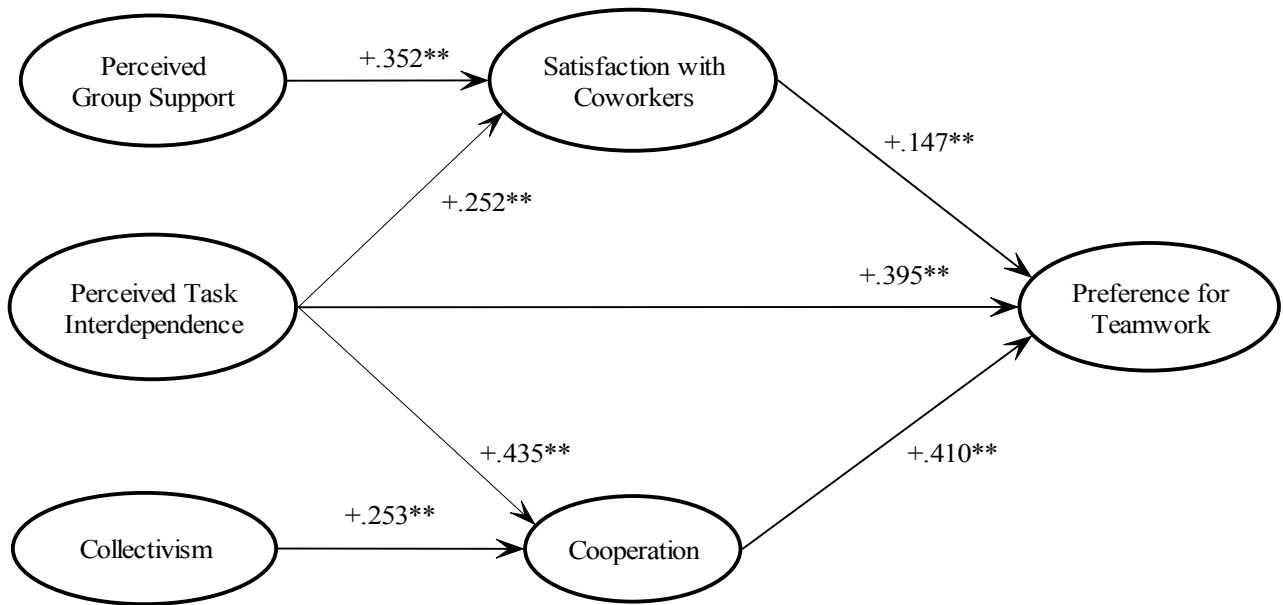


Figure 1

Structural Model Showing the Relationships Among Work Attitudes,  
Cultural Values, and Preference for Teamwork

\*\*  $p < .01$