

# The Filipino and Latino Managers: A Comparative Study of their Value Orientations

**Arnel Onesimo O. Uy**

De La Salle University, Manila, Philippines  
arnel.uy@dlsu.edu.ph

**Regina A. Greenwood**

Nova Southeastern University, Florida,  
United States of America  
rgreenwo@huizenga.nova.edu/rgreenwo@  
nova.edu

**Edward F. Murphy**

Embry Riddle Aeronautical University,  
United States of America  
efmurphy@msn.com / murphe23@erau.edu

**Jaime Alberto Ruiz Gutierrez**

University de los Andes, Bogota, Colombia  
jar@adm.uniandes.edu.co

**Miguel R. Olivas-Lujan**

Clarion University of Pennsylvania,  
United States of America  
molivas@clarion.edu / droivaslujan@gmail.  
com

**Sergio Madero**

Tecnologico de Monterrey, Nuevo Leon, Mexico  
smadero@itesm.mx

**Neusa Maria Bastos F. Santos**

Pontificia University Catolica de Sao Paulo,  
Sao Paulo, Brazil  
admneusa@pucsp.br

**Silvia Ines Monserrat**

Centro de Estudios en Administración,  
Unicen, Argentina  
monserrat@econ.unicen.edu.ar

**William Teeple**

Embry Riddle Aeronautical University,  
United States of America  
wteeple@erau.edu

**Julia Teahen**

Baker College, United States of America  
julia@baker.edu / julia.teahen@baker.edu

Few studies have explored value similarities and differences between private sector managers in Latin countries like Argentina, Colombia, Mexico, and Brazil and the Philippines. These countries were former colonies of either Spain or Portugal or both. In our study, we found that managers from the Philippines, Argentina, and Brazil were more alike as they were classified as possessing High Personal and High Moral value orientations, while managers from Colombia and Mexico were most alike as they possessed a High Personal and High Competence value orientations. We discuss the implications of these findings, limitations of the study, and make recommendations for further research.

*Keywords:* Value orientation types; private sector managers; cross-cultural; colonial values

## BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Increased trade and its inherent flow of goods and services, communication, capital, and know-how across borders make it imperative that companies understand the values, attitudes, and behaviors of managers in countries with which they do business. In this age of globalized trade, cross-cultural similarities and differences in values and value orientations are important because values influence attitudes and intended behavior. An understanding of value orientation similarities and differences can give businesses insights into how they can better meet the needs of customers no matter their location, develop better world-wide customer relationships, develop better human resources programs for their employees throughout the world, and how they can develop closer relationships and predict the behaviors of other companies or competitors and their employees operating in the global marketplace (Neelankavil, Mathur, & Zhang, 2000; Hofstede, 2001; Lenartowicz & Johnson, 2002; Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2005; Leung, Bhagat, Buchan, Erez, & Gibson, 2005; McGuire, Garavan, Saha & O'Donnell, 2006; Elkhoully & Buda, 1997; Lenartowicz & Roth, 2001).






A question of significant importance to managers and organizations throughout the world is: Are managerial values and value orientations becoming more similar or different because of increased trade and communication between eastern and western countries? While there is much managerial value research in the west, there is scant research on Latin American countries (Santos et al 2009) and scant research on the Philippines (Uy et al., 2008; Uy, 2009).

In this study, we aim to examine and explore the values and value orientation of Latino and Filipino managers. In particular, we want to ascertain whether the managerial values of these former Spanish colonies are more similar or different.

Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, and the Philippines are among some of the emerging countries in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. They have developed trading partnerships, and have increased trade and communications that will allow them to collaborate and compete in the global marketplace. Table 1 shows a comparative economic performance and competitive rankings of these countries.

All these countries were former Spanish colonies. Brazil was also a former Portuguese colony. The Philippines was also a former American and, briefly, a Japanese colony.

**Table 1**  
*Comparative Competitiveness Ranking and Economic Data*

Country	GCR (2010-11) <sup>1</sup>		GDP (2010) <sup>2</sup>		Real GDP Growth <sup>3</sup>	
	Rank	Score	Rank	Value (US\$Bn)	Yr 2011	Yr 2012
Argentina 	87	3.95	28	370	9.10%	3.80%
Brazil 	58	4.28	7	2,090	2.90%	3.30%
Colombia 	68	4.14	35	289	5.80%	4.90%
Mexico 	66	4.19	14	1,034	3.90%	3.30%
Philippines 	85	3.96	45	200	3.70%	3.40%

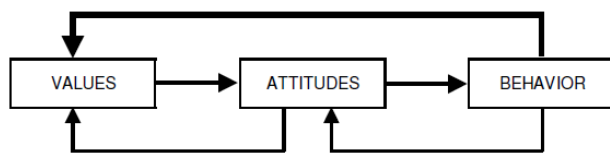
1 World Economic Forum Report (2011)

2 International Monetary Fund Report (2010). Accessed December 20, 2011.

3 The Economists forecast. Accessed March 2012.

## THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Personal values are considered important to understanding how individuals, organizations, and societies behave. A fundamental assumption underpinning the concept of values is that values will affect the attitude and behavior of individuals, which in turn may affect the decisions those individuals make. Indeed, most researchers conclude that values are predictors or at least antecedents of actual behavior. Research has shown that the most important indicator of attitudes and behavior is value structure since values are the underlying structures that affect attitude and subsequently behavior (Murphy, Gordon & Anderson, 2004; Rokeach, 1979). In this study, we adopt this Rokeachian view, which argues that behaviors and decisions are affected by the values of individuals as shown in Figure 1 below.



*Figure 1.* Values, attitude, and behavior framework (Rokeach, 1979).

This relationship between values, attitudes, and behavior has been validated in numerous studies. For instance, Connor and Becker (2003) found out that values of public managers in the United States are significantly related to their decision making styles (behavior/pattern of behavior).

### National Culture

While we see the remnants of Spanish culture in the music, food, dress, customs, traditions, behavior, and gender roles, which are similar across Latin America and in other former Spanish colonies like the Philippines, no known studies have explored whether what we see in these cultural

artifacts and behaviors might have their roots in the underlying values and value orientations of private sector managers of each country. Values and value orientations are important as they are the basic underlying assumptions of attitudes and behavior, and all three form each nation's unique culture, commonly called societal culture (Rokeach, 1973; Kluckhohn, 1951; Kohlberg, 1970; Hofstede, 2001).

Researchers generally agree that culture is a socialized set of values, attitudes, and behaviors of a particular society, organization, group, or sub-group (Rokeach, 1973; Kluckhohn, 1951; Hofstede, 2001; Triandis, 1994; Inglehart & Welzel, 2006). Connor and Becker (2003) explained that the interrelated set of values, attitudes, and behaviors of a culture form a value schema, value system, or value orientation. While Hofstede (2001) called culture the "collective programming of the mind" (p. 1), Ralston, Holt, Terpstra, & Chen (2007, p. 2) pointed out that culture consists of values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors that are based on the religion, proximity, history, and education of a particular society at a specific point in time.

Research indicates that from the moment of birth, values and culture are socialized, with socialization continuing until death. Children are socialized through the influence of families, friends, significant others, teachers, and organizations, as socialization teaches each person how to behave and succeed in society (Kluckhohn, 1951; Kohlberg, 1970). For example, Kim, Triandis, Kagitcibasi, Choi, & Yoon (1994) explained that "in every society, institutions (both formal and informal) have been erected to maintain and propagate particular constellations of values, norms and skills" (p. 6). While we feel attitudes and see behavior, we only infer the values that underlie attitudes and behavior.

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). While people possess only several dozen values, each

person might possess thousands of attitudes and even more behaviors, meaning that “the value concept provides us with a more economical analytic tool for describing and explaining similarities and differences between persons, groups, nations and cultures” (pp. 157-158).

Hofstede (1980, 1997, 2001) included all five countries in his studies of world-wide values and culture. The Philippines has the highest power distance ranking of (4), followed by a (5/6) for Mexico, compared to Brazil (14), Colombian (17), Argentina (35/36), and U.S. (30). This acceptance of high power distance comes from colonialism and many authoritarian leaders throughout the history of Mexico. For uncertainty avoidance, Argentina leads the Latin American countries with (10/15), Mexico (18), Colombia (20), Brazil (21/22), and finally, the U.S. (43), and the Philippines (44) (Hofstede, 2001). This shows that Latin Americans want certainty in their lives. For individualism/collectivism, the U.S. has an individualism ranking of (1), Argentina (22/23), Brazil (26/27), the Philippines (31), Mexico (32), and Colombia (49). This suggests that Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines are more collectivist as compared to Mexico and Colombia (Hofstede, 2001). On the Masculinity/Femininity scale, Mexico has a ranking of (6), Colombia and the Philippines (11/12), U.S. (15), Argentina (20/21), and Brazil (27) (Hofstede, 2001). This suggests there is more gender equalitarianism in Mexico, Colombia, and the Philippines as compared to Argentina and Brazil.

Despite Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, and the Philippines having 100-400 years of Spanish rule, and their historical and linguistic similarities, each country has its own unique history, geography, and culture. These cultural differences should lead to statistically significant cross-cultural value differences. These cultural differences led to the development of the following research hypothesis:

*H1. Managers from Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, and the Philippines will possess statistically significant value differences.*

## Cultural Groupings

Some research has shown that certain countries in Latin America can be considered as culturally homogenous groups, based on their similar colonial histories and Catholic religion, which manifests itself in the similarities in their values and value orientations. For example, Rivera (1978) explained that Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, and Chile can be considered a southern culturally homogenous group of countries, while Olien (1973) stated that Argentina, Chile, Uruguay, and Southern Brazil make up a southern culturally homogenous group of countries. Rivera also related that Colombia is in the northern culturally homogenous group of countries, and Brazil and Mexico are separate culturally homogenous groups. Lenartowicz and Johnson's (2003) research indicated that Argentina is in the southern culturally homogenous group, and Colombia, Brazil, and Mexico are in separate culturally homogenous group. More recently, Uy et al.'s (2008), Monserrat et al.'s (2009) and Santos et al.'s (2009) researches on cross-cultural values and value orientations indicated that Argentina and Brazil can be considered a southern culturally homogenous group and Colombia and Mexico a northern culturally homogenous group. Such research has led us to develop the following hypothesis:

*H2. Managers from Argentina and Brazil will possess more similar value rankings as a southern culturally homogenous group that will differentiate them from managers from Colombia and Mexico in a northern culturally homogenous group.*

The Philippines was a Spanish colony for almost 400 years, a Japanese occupied territory for four years, and a U.S. commonwealth for about 40 years. Colombia was a Spanish colony for 311 years, Argentina and Mexico were Spanish colonies for 300 years, and Brazil was a Portuguese colony for 345 years and Spanish/

Portuguese colony for 60 years. In addition to their Spanish colonial histories, the major religion in each of these countries is Catholic. Because Brazil and the Philippines were under colonial rule for almost 100 years longer than Argentina, Colombia and Mexico, we propose the following hypothesis:

*H3. Managers from the Philippines will possess more similar value rankings to Brazil as compared to Argentina, Colombia and Mexico.*

### **Cross-cultural Managerial Value Research**

There are volumes of cross-cultural studies exploring value differences and a myriad of other topics. Examples of the most comprehensive cross-cultural studies include Inglehart's (2003) and Inglehart & Welzel (2006) studies of modernization, post modernization, and social change (Inglehart, 2003; Kim et al.'s (1994) global studies of individualism and collectivism, and the GLOBE research project led by Robert J. House and his associates (Chhokar, Brodbeck, & House, 2007). In cross-cultural value research, Geert Hofstede (1980, 1997, 2001) studied the values of IBM employees world-wide; Bond (1994) studied values in eastern countries with a specific focus on China; Schwartz (1992, 1999) and his associates (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987, 1990; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005) studied global values and ; Feather (1979, 1986) studied values in Australia, Papua New Guinea, and other countries; Ralston and associates (Ralston, Gustafson, Elsas, Cheung, & Terpstra, 1992; Ralston, Gustafson, Cheung, & Terpstra, 1993; Ralston, Thang, & Napier, 1999; Ralston et al., 2006, 2007) studied values in eastern and western countries; and Connor and associates studied value systems in the US, Canada, and Japan (Connor & Becker, 1994, 2003; Connor, Becker, Moore, & Okubo, 2006; Stackman, Conner, & Becker, 2005).

While there has been a wealth of value research in the West, there is much less cross-cultural value research with a specific focus on

managers. England's (1975) study indicated that Japanese, Korean, U.S. and Australian managers show differences in value patterns. On the whole, managers around the globe had primary pragmatic orientations, in which organizational and individualism values were more important than moral or social values.

In more recent studies of cross-cultural values, Elkhouly and Buda (1997) explored value differences between Egyptians, Americans, Africans, and Arab executives using the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS). Ralston et al. (1992, 1993) explored value similarities and differences between managers in the U.S., Hong Kong, and China, finding both similarities across the managerial groups and differences across the cultures. Connor et al. (2006) explored public sector managerial values and public and private sector managers (Stackman et al., 2005) in the U.S., Canada, and Japan, finding distinct managerial value systems, regardless of culture and differences in managerial values across the cultures. Ralston et al. (2006) explored the stability and change in managerial values in China, Hong Kong, and U.S., finding that the values of managers in Hong Kong and China were becoming more similar, but they were also becoming more different than U.S. managers. Ralston et al. (2007) explored managerial values in the U.S., Russia, Japan, and China, finding not only cross-cultural differences but also similarities across the managerial groups.

In research on Latin America managerial values, Lenartowicz and Roth (2001) explored whether there were sub-cultures in managerial values in Brazil, finding that regional variation in value orientations existed in Brazil. Lenartowicz and Johnson (2002) used the RVS to explore managerial value similarities and differences in 12 Latin American countries. Their study suggested both managerial value similarities and cross-cultural differences across the managerial groups. Lenartowicz and Johnson (2003) used the RVS to explore managerial/entrepreneur value similarities in 12 Latin American countries. Their study was of manager/entrepreneurs in each country. Their research results suggested

that similarities in the values of managers formed distinct cultural groups. Managers from Argentina, Chile, Paraguay, and Venezuela formed a southern cultural grouping of countries; Bolivia, Ecuador, and Peru formed the Andean group; Colombia and Venezuela formed a third group, and Brazil, Mexico, and Puerto Rico formed a northern cultural grouping of countries. Their findings also showed that Brazilian managers were the most different. Further, managers as a group placed higher importance on values serving group interests over individual interests.

Uy et al. (2008) explored the cross-cultural values of managers (entrepreneurs) from developing countries (Argentina, Colombia, Mexico, and the Philippines) as compared to a developed country (the U.S.). Their research results found significant cross-cultural differences among terminal and instrumental values, attitudes towards women, and Type A behaviors of entrepreneurs in each country. Olivas-Lujan et al.'s (2009) study of values and attitudes towards women in Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, and Mexico indicted that *a comfortable life*, *family security*, and *health* were ranked most important and *an exciting life* and *a world of beauty* were unimportant for all four countries.

More recently, Monserrat et al. (2009) and Santos et al. (2009) used the value orientation typology to explore cross-cultural and generational value orientations in the U.S. as compared to Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, and Mexico. Their research results suggested that males and females (Monserrat et al., 2009) and all generations (Santos et al., 2009) from Argentina, Brazil, and the U.S. had high personal and moral value orientation types; those from Colombia and Mexico had high personal and competence value orientation types, suggesting that Argentina and Brazil might occupy a southern cultural cluster and Colombia and Mexico a northern cultural cluster. Since the Philippines were under 400 years of Spanish colonial rule and a U.S. commonwealth for 40 years, we propose their value orientation will be similar to Brazil (377 years of colonial rule), Argentina, and the U.S.' value orientations.

*H4. Managers from Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines will possess high personal and high moral value orientation types and managers from Colombia and Mexico will possess high personal and high competence values orientation types.*

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### Survey Instrument

We explored cross-cultural similarities and differences in managerial values using the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) which is "the most commonly used instrument for the measurement of values" (Kamakura & Novak, 1992, p. 120). RVS is shorter, was found to be easier to translate, and has shown its reliability and validity in numerous cross-cultural research studies in the past 30 years (Connor & Becker, 2003).

Since Filipinos speak English as their primary language, no translation was necessary. A native speaker in each Latin American country in this study translated the RVS into the local language and another native speaker translated the instrument back to English, making an independent confirmation of the translation. For clarification, the English version was left in place beside the translated version (Adler, 1983; Sekaran, 1983). Instructions to those taking the survey are standard: rank the values "in order of importance to you, as guiding principles in your life" (Obot, 1988, p. 367), from one (most important) to 18 (least important).

We used a Value Orientation Typology originally developed by Rokeach, modified further by Weber (1990, 1993) and Musser and Orke (1992), to explore cross-cultural similarities and differences in value orientations among managers from the Philippines and four Latin American nations (Argentina, Brazil, Colombia and Mexico).

**Value Orientation Typology.** The value orientation typology was originally developed by Rokeach and modified further by Weber (1990,

1993) and Musser and Orke (1992). By exploring value orientations, we reduce the analysis from 180 values (36 values X 5 countries) to four value orientation types for each country.

To create a value orientation topology, the terminal and instrumental values in the RVS are each subdivided into two value orientation types (refer to Table 2). Terminal value orientation types can be personal or social values. Personal values are self-centered and intrapersonal (individualism) whereas social values are society-centered and interpersonal (collectivism). Instrumental values are subdivided into two value orientation types: moral (interpersonal or collectivism) and competence values (intrapersonal or individualism).

Weber's (1990, 1993) research indicated that people could be classified by their preference for either personal or social terminal values and either moral or competence instrumental value

types. For example, a person could prefer: (1) personal terminal and competence instrumental values, or (2) personal terminal and moral instrumental values, or (3) social terminal and competence instrumental values, or (4) social terminal and moral instrumental values. Weber (1990) validated this typology for the RVS in the U.S. and in several cross-cultural studies. Musser and Orke (1992) extended Weber's personal value orientation typologies by developing a two by two matrix that classified each person's value orientation type. We have combined them to form the Rokeach Value Orientation Typology (Table 3).

### Research Population

As part of larger studies exploring values, attitudes, and behaviors in 15 countries, we administered the surveys from 2004 to 2010 to

**Table 2**

***Social and Personal Terminal Values and Moral and Self-Actualization Instrumental Values***

<b>Social Terminal Values</b>	<b>Personal Terminal Values</b>
<i>World at Peace</i>	<i>Comfortable Life</i>
<i>World of Beauty</i>	<i>An exciting life</i>
<i>Equality</i>	<i>Accomplishment</i>
<i>Family Security</i>	<i>Health</i>
<i>Freedom</i>	<i>Inner harmony</i>
<i>Mature love</i>	<i>Pleasure</i>
<i>National security</i>	<i>Salvation</i>
<i>Social recognition</i>	<i>Self-respect</i>
<i>True friendship</i>	<i>Wisdom</i>
<b>Moral Instrumental Values</b>	<b>Competence or self-actualization Instrumental Values</b>
<i>Broadminded</i>	<i>Ambitious</i>
<i>Forgiving</i>	<i>Capable</i>
<i>Helpful</i>	<i>Clean</i>
<i>Honest</i>	<i>Courage</i>
<i>Loving</i>	<i>Imaginative</i>
<i>Loyal</i>	<i>Independent</i>
<i>Obedient</i>	<i>Intellectual</i>
<i>Polite</i>	<i>Logical</i>
<i>Responsible</i>	<i>Self-controlled</i>

convenience samples of working adults living in major cities in Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, and Mexico and in the National Capital Region of the Philippines. From this larger population, adult respondents were divided into private and public sector managers or non-managers based on their answers to demographic occupational questions.

The respondents who identified themselves as private sector managers were used for this research study. Our final sample consisted of 405 private sector managers from Argentina, 368 from Brazil, 381 from Colombia, 159 from Mexico, and 147 from the Philippines (Table 4).

**Table 3**  
*Rockeach Value Orientation Typology (Weber, 1993)*

		Terminal Values	
		Personal	Social
Instrumental Values	Competence	Preference for Personal-Competence Values	Preference for Social – Competence Values
	Moral	Preference for Personal-Moral Values	Preference for Social-Moral Values

**Table 4**  
*Survey Sample Demographics*

	Combined Sample	Argentina	Brazil	Colombia	Mexico	Philippines
<b>Sex</b>						
Male	735	176	221	194	98	46
Female	725	229	147	187	61	101
<b>Age</b>						
18-25	321	29	109	60	95	28
26-30	201	48	60	42	21	30
31-39	254	87	81	35	18	33
40-45	213	78	52	44	11	28
46-50	213	67	43	75	7	21
51+	258	96	23	125	7	7
<b>Education</b>						
No HS	43	39	0	0	2	2
HS	94	55	3	2	20	14
Work AS	49	15	1	31	2	0
AS	116	101	0	12	3	0
Work BA	234	40	110	19	65	0
BA	448	90	83	140	27	108
Work MA	284	38	97	119	30	0
MA	142	15	68	31	10	18
Work PhD	24	7	0	17	0	0
PhD	26	5	6	10	0	5
<b>Occupation</b>						
Manager	1,460	405	368	381	159	147



### Statistical Analysis Techniques

Since the RVS is a ranking instrument that produces non-normative data, we evaluated for differences in values using the Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA median test non-parametric statistical analysis technique (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987, 1990; Murphy, Snow, Carson, & Zigarmi, 1997; Murphy et al., 2007; Connor & Becker, 1994, 2003; Connor et al., 2006; Rokeach, 1973, 1979).

### RESEARCH RESULTS

We first explored whether there were cross-cultural differences in managerial values and then cross-cultural managerial differences in value orientation types, with culture as the independent

variable and values and value orientations as the dependent variables. The Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA result showed statistically significant cross-cultural managerial differences for all 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values, allowing us to accept H1 that managers from Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, and the Philippines have statistically significant value differences. Table 5 shows the result for terminal values while Table 6 for instrumental values.

We next compared the value rankings across the cross-cultural managerial groups. Values ranked 1 to 5 are most important, 6 to 13 are ranked important and 14-18 are considered unimportant. Table 7 shows the results of this ranking. H2 could only partially be accepted as Colombia and Mexico had similar

**Table 5**

#### *Cross-Cultural Differences in Managerial Terminal Values*

Values	Argentina N=405	Brazil N=368	Philippines N=147	Columbia N=381	Mexico N=159	X <sup>2</sup>	P<.05
A comfortable life	3	6	6	3	4	206	***
An exciting life	14	15	16	16	15	194	***
A sense of accomplishment	12	14	10	7	9	165	***
A world at peace	10	9	11	12	11	121	***
A world of beauty	18	18	18	15	18	88	**
Equality	11	10	12	14	14	294	***
Family security	2	2	1	2	2	170	***
Freedom	7	8	9	8	12	54	*
Health	1	1	2	1	1	56	*
Inner harmony	6	11	8	4	6	115	***
Mature love	9	7	14	6	7	147	***
National security	15	17	15	13	17	242	***
Pleasure	13	13	17	11	13	298	***
Salvation	17	16	5	18	10	627	***
Self-respect	8	4	3	5	3	33	*
Social recognition	16	12	13	17	16	246	***
True friendship	4	5	7	10	8	139	***
Wisdom	5	3	4	9	5	141	***

*Note.* Kruskal-Wallis One-Way ANOVA for each value had 4 df and was performed on the entire sample of N = 1,460; \* = p < .05; \*\* = p < .01; \*\*\* = p < .001.

**Table 6**  
*Cross-Cultural Differences in Managerial Instrumental Values*

Values	Argentina N=405	Brazil N=368	Philippines N=147	Colombia N=381	Mexico N=159	X <sup>2</sup>	P < .05
Ambitious	4	16	8	5	1	319	***
Broadminded	5	9	5	8	12	68	*
Capable	7	4	12	4	5	154	***
Clean	10	18	16	11	6	275	***
Courageous	9	10	15	7	11	149	***
Forgiving	18	12	9	16	18	220	***
Helpful	13	17	14	15	14	41	*
Honest	1	1	1	3	4	174	***
Imaginative	15	13	18	10	16	333	***
Independent	11	11	10	6	9	117	***
Intellectual	3	8	6	2	3	130	***
Logical	14	14	17	9	10	109	***
Loving	6	6	3	14	13	257	***
Loyal	8	3	7	13	7	165	***
Obedient	17	15	13	18	15	619	***
Polite	12	5	11	17	17	672	***
Responsible	2	2	2	1	2	58	*
Self-controlled	16	7	4	12	8	249	***

Note. Kruskal-Wallis One-Way ANOVA for each value had 4 df and was performed on the entire sample of N=1,460; \* = p < .05; \*\* = p < .01; \*\*\* = p < .001.

value rankings for 32 values (16 terminal and 16 instrumental values), Argentina and Brazil similarly ranked 16 terminal and 12 instrumental values for a total of 28 values; but Argentina and Mexico shared 16 terminal and 14 instrumental values for a total of 30 values. We next made the same comparison between Brazil and the Philippines. Brazil and the Philippines possessed similar values rankings for 14 terminal and 14 instrumental values for a total of 28 value similarities, as compared to 26 for the Philippines and Argentina and the Philippines and Mexico, and 22 for the Philippines and Colombia, allowing us to accept H3.

We next explored for differences in the value orientation types with managerial culture as the independent variable and value orientation types as the dependent variables (Table 8 & 9), which indicated that there were statistically significant cross-cultural managerial differences across all four value orientation types. As predicted, respondents from the Philippines, Argentina, and Brazil were more similar (high personal and high moral primary value orientations types) and respondents from Colombia and Mexico were more similar (high personal and high competence primary value orientation types), allowing us to accept H4.

**Table 7**  
***Cross-Cultural Differences in Managerial Values***

Values	Argentina N=405	Brazil N=368	Philippines N=147	Colombia N=381	Mexico N=159
A comfortable life	MI	I	I	MI	MI
An exciting life	U	U	U	U	U
A sense of accomplishment	I	U	I	I	I
A world at peace	I	I	I	I	I
A world of beauty	U	U	U	U	U
Equality	I	I	I	U	U
Family security	MI	MI	MI	MI	MI
Freedom	I	I	I	I	I
Health	MI	MI	MI	MI	MI
Inner harmony	I	I	I	MI	I
Mature love	I	I	U	I	I
National security	U	U	U	I	U
Pleasure	I	I	U	I	I
Salvation	U	U	MI	U	I
Self-respect	I	MI	MI	MI	MI
Social recognition	U	I	I	U	U
True friendship	MI	MI	I	I	I
Wisdom	MI	MI	MI	I	MI
Ambitious	MI	U	I	MI	MI
Broadminded	MI	I	MI	I	I
Capable	I	MI	I	MI	MI
Clean	I	U	U	I	I
Courageous	I	I	U	I	I
Forgiving	U	I	I	U	U
Helpful	I	U	U	U	U
Honest	MI	MI	MI	MI	MI
Imaginative	U	I	U	I	U
Independent	I	I	I	I	I
Intellectual	MI	I	I	MI	MI
Logical	U	U	U	I	I
Loving	I	I	MI	U	I
Loyal	I	MI	I	I	I
Obedient	U	U	I	U	U
Polite	I	MI	I	U	U
Responsible	MI	MI	MI	MI	MI
Self-controlled	U	I	MI	I	I

Note: MI = most important; I = important; U = unimportant.

**Table 8*****Cross-Cultural Terminal and Instrumental Value Orientations of Managers***

<b>Value Orientation</b>	<b>Argentina N=405</b>	<b>Brazil N=368</b>	<b>Philippines N=147</b>	<b>Colombia N=381</b>	<b>Mexico N=159</b>
<b>Terminal Values</b>					
<b>Social Values</b> interpersonal focus	9.759	9.486	10.269	10.018	10.166
<b>Personal Values</b> intrapersonal focus	9.207	8.843	8.730	8.964	8.824
<b>Instrumental Values</b>					
<b>Moral Values</b> interpersonal focus	9.249	8.682	8.649	10.548	9.993
<b>Competence Values</b> intrapersonal focus	9.691	9.641	10.350	8.407	9.000

**Table 9*****Cross-Cultural Primary Value Orientation Type Classifications***

<b>Managers</b>	<b>Primary Value Orientation Type</b>
Argentina n=405	High Personal + High Moral
Brazil n=368	High Personal + High Moral
Philippines n=147	High Personal + High Moral
Colombia n=381	High Personal + High Competence
Mexico n=159	High Personal + High Competence

**DISCUSSION**

Our purpose was to explore similarities and differences in the cross-cultural values and value orientations of former Spanish and Portuguese colonies in Latin America as compared to another former Spanish colony in the East, the Philippines. First, we found cross-cultural differences in value rankings for all 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values (H1). Although all the values were statistically significant for cross-cultural managerial differences, we will explore those values that were ranked unimportant by at least one managerial country and ranked important or most important by the other managerial country groups. There were seven terminal and 11 instrumental values that were ranked differently in this manner across the cross-cultural

managerial groups. For example, *salvation* was ranked unimportant by Argentinean, Brazilian, and Colombian managers, but most important by Filipino managers and important for Mexican managers (Table 7).

For instrumental values, *ambitious* was unimportant for Brazilian managers; *clean* was unimportant for Brazilians and Filipinos; *courageous* was unimportant for Filipinos; *forgiving* was unimportant for managers from Argentina, Colombia, and Mexico; *imaginative* was unimportant for managers from Argentina, Mexico, and the Philippines; *logical* was unimportant for managers from Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines; *loving* was unimportant for Colombian managers; *obedient* was unimportant for all managerial groups except for Filipinos; *polite* was unimportant for Colombian and

Mexican managers, and *self-controlled* was unimportant for Argentinean managers (Table 7).

Despite these statistically significant differences in rankings, a total of 11 of 18 terminal value goals were ranked similarly (either important, most important or unimportant across the cross-cultural managerial groups). The terminal values *family security* and *health* were ranked in the top five values of importance, *a comfortable life*, *freedom*, *inner harmony*, *self-respect*, *true friendship* and *wisdom* were ranked important and *an exciting life* and *a world of beauty* were ranked unimportant across the cross-cultural managerial groups (Table 7). A total of 7 of 18 instrumental values were ranked similarly across the cross-cultural managerial groups. *Honest* and *responsible* were ranked in the top five values of importance, *broadminded*, *capable*, *independent*, *intellectual* and *loyal* were ranked important across the cross-cultural managerial groups (Table 7).

H2 predicted that Argentina and Brazil would share more value rankings in common and Colombia and Brazil would share more value rankings in common. Argentina and Brazil shared 28 values, but Argentina also shared 30 values with Mexico and 28 with Colombia. On the other hand Colombia shared 32 values with Mexico. Thus, we could only partially accept H2.

In H3 we predicted that the that managers from Philippines would have more similar value rankings to Brazil in comparison to Argentina, Colombia, and Mexico, because both the Philippines and Brazil each endured almost 400 years as colonies. The Philippines and Brazil shared 28 values (14 terminal and 14 instrumental values) in common as compared to 26 for the Philippines and Argentina and the Philippines and Mexico, and 22 for the Philippines and Colombia. The almost 400 years of colonial rule might have impacted their values more strongly than the countries with 100 years less colonial rule. In addition, the increased trade between Brazil and the Philippines might have also impacted their values.

We accepted H4 because respondents from Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines were similar as they possessed personal-moral primary value orientation types and social-moral secondary value orientations types. This suggests that respondents from Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines are a mix of individualism (personal terminal values) and collectivism (moral instrumental values), but they retain a collectivism (social terminal values and moral instrumental values) secondary value orientation. Conversely, respondents from Colombia and Mexico had primary high personal and high competence value orientation types and high social and high competence secondary value orientation types (Table 6). Why?

First, Brazil and the Philippines have almost 100 years more of colonization. Both were colonies of Spain, but Brazil had 300 years as a Portuguese colony and the Philippines had 40 years as a U.S. commonwealth. Second, all of the countries in our study were predominantly Catholic. Finally, we examined if such similarities were related to trade patterns. We compared imports and exports and found that Mexico has most of its imports from the U.S. (55.9%), followed by Colombia (27.2%), Brazil (19.9%), and Argentina (14.2%). The same is true for exports: Mexico exports (75.9%) to the U.S., followed by Colombia (28.5%), Brazil (14.1%), and Argentina (7.1%) (Central Intelligence Agency [CIA], 2010). The one aspect that Argentina and Brazil have in common economically is their extensive imports and exports to each other: they are one of each other's major trading partners, after the U.S. (CIA, 2010). Mexico and Colombia are not major trading partners with each other or with Argentina and Brazil. But another possible answer is the increased trade between the Philippines and Brazil and Argentina, Colombia, and Mexico as part of the CAIRNS group of agricultural exporting nations and G20, G24, and G77 groups of developing countries. The CAIRNS group and G20, G24 and G77 groups of developing nations were formed by this loosely knit group of countries to lobby at the World Trade Organization (WTO) talks in order to free up trade in member

countries. Another possible answer is the fact that the Philippines doubled its trade with Brazil, increasing from \$730 million in 2007 to \$1.3 billion in 2008 (Javier, 2009).

While the GLOBE project (Chhokar et al., 2007) clustered all four countries into a Latin American cluster, our results indicate a Southern cluster (Argentina and Brazil) and a Northern cluster (Colombia and Mexico), with the Philippines similar to the Southern cluster of former colonial countries. Our results were identical to Santos et al.'s (2009) study of generational differences which also found that the generations in Argentina and Brazil formed a southern cluster and Colombia and Mexico a northern cluster.

Argentineans, Brazilians, and Filipinos were motivated primarily by personal-moral value orientations. This classification implies that their self-centered, intrapersonal focus is tempered with a moral instrumental value orientation focus. They will use other-centered values to obtain their goals. This is good news for organizations because they are morally focused on society and their organizations, supervisors, co-workers and customers as means to obtain those goals. Such personal-moral focus for the Argentineans, Filipinos, and Brazilians is similar to findings by Murphy et al. (2007) for Eastern and Western countries, and Santos et al. (2009) and Monserrat et al. (2009). This suggests that values are becoming more similar between many Western, Eastern, and Latin American countries like Argentina and Brazil.

Hofstede's (2001) research indicated that Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines had individualism country score rankings of 22/23 (Argentina), 26/27 (Brazil) and 31 (the Philippines) compared to the rankings of 49 for Colombia and 32 for Mexico and 1 for the U.S.. Our research results seem to confirm Hofstede's findings of stronger individualism scores for Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines as compared to Colombia and Mexico. Managers in our study from Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines had primary personal terminal value orientation types which have an intrapersonal or individualism focus

but these are tempered with an emphasis of moral instrumental values, which have an interpersonal focus or collectivism focus. The Colombians and Mexicans were less individualistic as compared to respondents from Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines. The respondents from Colombia and Mexico more highly valued high personal (intrapersonal focus; individualistic) and high competence (intrapersonal; individualistic) value orientation types. Since the primary value orientations in Colombia and Mexico were high personal (individualistic) and high competence (individualistic), this suggests these respondents have moved away from primary collectivistic orientations to where they are now individualistic like many Western countries, but they are still less individualistic than Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines. Since the studies reported by Hofstede (2001) were completed more than 10 years ago, we suspect that all the Latin American countries have become more individualistic as they compete in the global marketplace. Our results suggest a Northern (Colombia and Mexico) and Southern cluster (Argentina and Brazil) for Latin America, with the Philippines more similar to the Southern one, possibly indicating the impact of colonialism on value orientations of managers.

This knowledge will help managers and practitioners lead their employees in interactions with customers. Managers would know that private sector managers in Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines primarily focus on their own (intrapersonal) goals but they will temper that with a focus on moral (interpersonal) goals. On the other hand, private sector managers from Colombia and Mexico will focus on themselves in personal (intrapersonal) goals and the competence (intrapersonal) means to obtain them and, if this is not understood, they could work against organizational goals.

## **CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

Our research indicates that exploring private sector manager's similarities and differences

across the cultures using a value orientation typology is a worthwhile endeavor. The typology lends itself to explorations of similarities across cultures. Research results indicate that private sector managers in Argentina, Brazil, the Philippines, Colombia, and Mexico have similarities in their value orientations. The majority of private sector managers have a personal focus (intrapersonal) for goals and either have moral (interpersonal) moral or competence (intrapersonal) focus for instrumental means to obtain those goals. Managers from Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines have a personal focus and interpersonal moral means focus, while those in Colombia and Mexico have a personal focus for goals and a personal focus for means to obtain them. This shows a shift of some collectivism to individualism that is possibly influenced by colonial history as well as increased trade across the countries. In addition, Latin American and Filipino managers have adopted more Western oriented value orientations. Further, the importance of studying these value orientations below the national level is highlighted by the fact that private sector managers from Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines have a personal-moral value orientation type, while managers from Colombia and Mexico have a primary personal-competence value orientation type.

Our study indicated that many achievement-oriented or individualism values were ranked important or most important across the cross-cultural managerial groups. However, one achievement-oriented value, *ambitious*, was unimportant for Brazilian managers. The collectivist and group-oriented values indicated some similarities and differences also. For example, *true friendship*, *broadminded*, and *loyal* were important across all the managerial groups. This finding is important because Lenartowicz and Johnson (2003) indicated that *intellectual* and *broadminded* are two values that are important in cross-cultural negotiations.

Our findings indicate that all five countries remain collectivist, but they have become more individualistic although individualism in Colombia

and Mexico is lower than in Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines. These results support Ralston et al.'s (2006, 2007) cross-vergence hypothesis that increased trade and communication between countries leads to a convergence of values, but the most important values in each country become stronger (divergence).

Our research results also support Inglehart's (2003) hypothesis that as countries move toward becoming developed countries, their values shift from survival and secular-rational values to self-expression and traditional values. Our results support Inglehart and Welzel's (2006) study that suggested Argentina, Brazil, and the Philippines are closer in the self-expression and traditional values as compared to Mexico and Colombia. The Philippines is also closer to Brazil in the survival versus self-expression and postindustrial shift from industry to services dimensions. The Philippines, Brazil, and Argentina are closer in cultural heritage and interpersonal trust dimensions while controlling for purchasing power parity. The Philippines, Brazil, and Argentina are closer in self-expression values and effective democracy; and the Philippines, Brazil, and Argentina are closer in effective democracy and self-expression values and effective democracy and democratic tradition values.

Understanding values and value orientation types allows managers to gain insight into what is important to their employees, trading partners, and customers. Our RVS value rankings suggest that the terminal values *a comfortable life*, *a world at peace*, *family security*, *freedom*, *health*, *self-respect*, and *true friendship* and instrumental values *broadminded*, *capable*, *honest*, *independent*, *intellectual*, *loyal*, and *responsible* were ranked most important or important for managers from all five countries. These similarities in values across the cultures and managerial groups immediately give organizations, managers, and marketers a point from which to start or enhance their relationships with customers, managers, and organizations in these Latin American nations and the Philippines. These findings will also help managers who supervise foreign nationals

understand what employees value and, thus, will help companies operating globally to develop better international human resources management strategies that not only meet company needs but also the cultural needs of their organizational members and customers. Marketing managers can also use these values as major themes for more effective marketing campaigns (DeMooij, 2004). Thus, by understanding values and culture, managers should be able to achieve better performance outcomes that positively impact their profitability.

The major limitation was using convenience samples of private sector managers working in the capitals or major cities in each country as our research population. Another limitation concerns the number of managers in the Philippines and Mexico, which were significantly less than those in Argentina, Brazil, and Colombia.

Future research needs to compare our results to that of other studies of managers throughout the world. Additionally, studies comparing private versus public sector managers is needed as well as studies comparing managers and non-managers and gender differences. 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, making comparison difficult. Further, many researchers examine only terminal or instrumental values portions of the RVS, not the entire RVS or use only 28 of the RVS values (Schwartz, 1994). We recommend that researchers using the RVS report the means, medians, and rankings for each value and for each demographic variable studied, thereby allowing future researchers to compare their results across the globe. Finally, further cross-cultural research is needed with the Rokeach, Weber and Musser, and Orke value orientation typology.

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