

Stereotypes in bicultural global teams



Nurit Zaidman^{a,*}, Ayala Malach-Pines^{b,1}

^a Department of Business Administration, Faculty of Management, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, P.O. Box 653, Beer-Sheva 84105, Israel

^b Faculty of Management, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, P.O. Box 653, Beer-Sheva 84105, Israel

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 23 August 2012

Received in revised form

19 December 2013

Accepted 29 December 2013

Keywords:

Stereotypes

Global teams

Bi-cultural teams

Convergence

Divergence

Crossvergence

ABSTRACT

Multicultural teams are task-oriented groups from different national cultures that are often involved in dynamic, project based arrangements. They are fast becoming the norm in businesses and NGOs worldwide. The study examined team member's stereotypes as embedded in the complex environment that characterizes global teams. It contributes to the scarce research on stereotypes as embedded in contexts. The study explored the stereotypes of 120 Israelis and 80 Indians working in the high-tech industry.

The conceptual frameworks of convergence, divergence and crossvergence and social identity theory provided the backdrop for the study's hypotheses.

The quantitative findings documented the existence of crossvergence in global and national stereotypes and of in-group favoritism. The qualitative findings revealed that Israelis and Indians created mirror pictures of two basic stereotype categories: work related and personal characteristic.

© 2014 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Multicultural teams are task-oriented groups from different national cultures that are often involved in dynamic, project based arrangements (Marquardt & Horvath, 2001). They are fast becoming the norm in businesses and NGOs as a result of today's global economy, which increasingly requires workers to collaborate in work groups that cross cultural and geographic boundaries (Distefano & Maznevski, 2000). Multicultural global teams are a fertile ground for the investigation of stereotypes. Yet little research has addressed the content of stereotypes in global teams. In fact, little research has addressed stereotypes, in general, as embedded in contexts.

The study described in this paper investigated the stereotypes of Israeli and Indian team members working in the high-tech industry. These stereotypes were examined as embedded in a complex global environment that includes global work culture, the culture of the high-technology (high-tech) industry and the cultural characteristics of team members from a Western culture (Israel) and an Eastern culture (India).

The study is based on the integration of two theoretical perspectives explaining stereotype formation and stereotype content in global teams. The conflicting perspectives of convergence, divergence, and crossvergence in cultural values provided the conceptual background for the questions that address the cultural context of stereotypes: Do stereotypes in bicultural teams reflect the global culture (convergence of values)? Do they reflect specific cultural aspects (divergence of values)? Do they reflect both (crossvergence)? Social identity theory provided the conceptual grounding for questions and hypotheses regarding group boundaries and distinctiveness within teams. Specifically, we investigated how group distinctiveness

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +972 8 6472105; fax: +972 8 6477691.

E-mail address: zeidman@bgu.ac.il (N. Zaidman).

¹ Deceased.

manifests in team member's stereotypes and whether there is evidence of in-group favoritism (Ralston, 2008; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Finally, the qualitative part of the paper focuses on the question What stereotypes do team members working in bicultural global teams construct and how do those stereotypes relate to convergence, divergence, and crossvergence?

Stereotypes and multicultural global teams

Stereotypes are commonly held public beliefs or generalizations about specific social groups or types of individuals (Brigham, 1971). Surprisingly, little research attention has focused on the role of stereotypes in bicultural global teams, which is the focus of the current study. Examining stereotypes in multinational teams is especially important today since much of existing business interactions are conducted in distributed work groups in which members invariably construct generalizations about their in-group and out-group.

Research on both self-stereotype activation and other-stereotype activation has tended to show that people behave in ways that are consistent with stereotypes (Wheeler & Petty, 2001). In consequence, the content and the degree to which national stereotypes predominant in teams can lead to self-fulfilling prophecies (Jussim & Fleming, 1996) which potentially keep team members from appreciating individual attributes. It can lead to polarization among team members and to low levels of group cohesion, two possible outcomes with critical implications for team performance (Knouse, 2006), and it can also jeopardize members' ability to fully draw upon the team resources (e.g., ideas and social networks). On the other hand, a strong team identity increases team members' mutual trust and motivates members to contribute their knowledge to the team. It also moderates the effect of geographic distribution on interpersonal conflicts (Fulk, Monge, & Hollingshead, 2005; Maznevski & Athanassiou, 2006; Cramton, 2001).

Research shows that in transnational virtual teams, nationality characteristics are likely to be the salient attributes that act as a basis of subgroup identities (Gibson & Grubb, 2005; Zimmermann, 2011). Transnational team members are likely to categorize members of other nationalities as part of 'outgroups' and to evaluate them less positively than members of their own national in-group (Gibson & Grubb, 2005). Such subgroup divides tend to form more strongly in teams composed of only two nationalities (Hajro, 2009) compared with highly heterogeneous teams. However, when a moderate number of characteristics were shared within the subgroup, but a number of other characteristics were shared with members of other subgroups, then the team maintained an 'inclusive atmosphere' and subgroups stimulated team learning (Gibson & Vermeulen, 2003; Zimmermann, 2011).

Drawing on this research as well as on other research, e.g., a study showing that stereotypes accurately reflect the reality of differences between groups (e.g., Le Pelley et al., 2010), the current study examined if and how stereotypes reflect not only the reality of differences between group members, but also the various contexts of the teams. By doing so, we do not take for granted existing stereotype content models (e.g., the Stereotype Content Model that posits stereotyping along perceived warmth and competence dimensions; see Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002), but rather, we investigate the relevant contextual values and perceptions to stereotype formation in teams (Coutant, Worchel, Bar-Tal, & van Raalten, 2011; Guan, Deng, & Bond, 2010).

Stereotypes develop as the result of a number of different and intertwining processes: cognitive, affective, socio-motivational and cultural (Mackie, Hamilton, Susskind, & Rosselli, 1996). In this paper we examine two key processes that affect group member's stereotypes: the socio-motivational process as it is enacted in intergroup relations and the cultural process as it is conceptualized in the convergence perspective. Our intention is not to focus on the dynamics of these processes in stereotype formation, but rather to show their impact on the content of team members' stereotypes.

In the following section we introduce the conceptual foundation of the study in terms of the cultural context of stereotypes and the social context of the teams. Next, we outline the method study, which is based on a combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies. Following the method section, we independently present and discuss the quantitative and the qualitative results. The last part of the paper contains conclusions based on the qualitative and quantitative findings.

2. Conceptual foundation of the study

2.1. Cultural context of stereotypes

Lippmann (1933) described stereotypes as emerging from specific cultural contexts and historical locations. Later research documented stereotypes as deeply embedded in the fabric of a group culture (Mackie et al., 1996). What are, then, the relevant cultural contexts in our case? Culture, as a set of shared meaning systems (Schweder & LeVine, 1984), can be formed at different levels: the micro level of the team, the meso level of organizations, and the macro level of nations and the global work culture (Shokef & Erez, 2006). Since the cultures of multinational corporations (MNCs) tend to be similar (Shokef & Erez, 2006), and that is especially true for MNCs in the high-tech industry, the current study addressed the culture of the high-tech industry rather than the specific organizational culture of MNCs. Based on this approach, the study focused on the global culture, the culture of the high-tech industry, and two national cultures representing the West and the East (Israel and India).

Global culture

Recent studies have started to identify global work values endorsed by individuals across multiple nations and cultures (Rosenblatt, 2011). A leading perspective is the one introduced by Erez and Drori (2009), who discuss three major global cultural processes (rationalization, professionalization and actorhood) and their impact on global work. Rationalization (formalization, standardization) impacts the centrality of values such as competitive performance, quality assurance, innovation and customer orientation. Professionalization (authority drawn from certified knowledge) enhances the sense of task interdependence and trust. Actorhood (control, agency, and empowerment) impacts personal growth, acceptance of cultural diversity and social responsibility.

Culture of the high-tech industry

Work in the high-tech industry is characterized by long work-hours and the awareness that time is money. It is propelled by marketplace demands for increasingly innovative tools and by competition for the production of the best and most cost effective products (Kunda, 1992). As a result, high-tech organizations and employees work under huge pressures to perform well and within short time-tables (Pines & Zaidman, 2010).

Knowledge, constant learning and open communication are prerequisites for the creation of new, complex and sophisticated products (Drucker, 1993). However, open communication is not simple in multicultural teams as a result of cultural differences (e.g., Shamir & Melnik, 2002; Zaidman, 2001; Zaidman & Brock, 2009). The cultural differences between Israelis and Indians are a case in point.

Cultural characteristics of Israelis and Indians

Research demonstrated several cultural differences between Indians and Israelis that may be reflected in stereotypes. Schwartz (2003), who surveyed Israeli and Indian teachers and students, showed that Israelis score higher than Indians in traits such as autonomy, creativity, freedom and equality while Indians score higher in collectivism as expressed in harmony and conservatism. It was also found that compared to Indians, Israelis tended to have higher motivation for success, ambition, personal goals and daring while Indians tended to be more conservative and value more authority and harmony. Research also demonstrated that the Israeli culture is characterized by very low power distance (Gardiner, 1994; Hofstede, 2001) and high assertiveness (Den Hartog, 2004). Israeli employees in high-tech organizations have been portrayed as disregarding departmental and hierarchical boundaries and as unconfined by the formal bureaucratic structure of the organization. They are expected to take responsibility and have a tendency to improvise in their work (Shamir & Melnik, 2002), qualities that represent the antithesis of the Indian employee, who is characterized by high power distance (Carl, Gupta, & Javidan, 2004; Hofstede, 2001; Sinha, 1990), low assertiveness (Den Hartog, 2004) and a tendency to go “by the book” in their day to day work (Zaidman & Brock, 2009). Furthermore, research focusing on intercultural communication between Israeli and Indian businesspeople shows that the directness and task-oriented approach of the Israelis generated negative feelings among their Indian partners. Communication problems emerged when there were major differences between the participants in simplicity, directness and perceptions of social relationships (Zaidman, 2001).

Convergence, divergence, and crossvergence

Based on the notion that stereotypes emerge from a specific cultural context and the contexts of multicultural global teams include cultural characteristics (e.g., of Israelis and Indians), the culture of the high-tech industry and the global culture, the theoretical perspectives of convergence, divergence, and crossvergence of values were chosen as the conceptual foundation for the first hypothesis.

According to the convergence (becoming similar) perspective, a combination of cultural influences and business ideology influences is the driving force that precipitates the development of new and unique value systems among individuals (Ralston, 2008). Advocates of this perspective argue that technological influences, such as the demand for increasingly innovative tools, constitute the catalyst that motivates individuals to develop a value system that is consistent with the technology of their society, regardless of other cultural influences (Khilji, 2002; Ralston, Holt, Terpstra, & Kai-Cheng, 1997). Looking at it from this perspective, the overlap between the global culture and the high tech culture is likely to expedite value convergence processes that are likely to be reflected in team members' stereotypes.

More specifically, the stereotypes of Israeli team members who have been working in the high-tech industry for 10 years on average and those of the Indian team members who have been working in the same industry for five years can be expected to reflect their common experience. This reasoning leads to the first assumption: Based on the convergence perspective, the shared exposure of Israelis and Indians working in global teams to the values of the global culture and the high-tech culture will result in convergence in their stereotypes. That is, both Israeli and Indian team members will attribute high value to the stereotype characteristics associated with their work culture.

The divergence (becoming dissimilar) perspective in international management research takes the opposite view, arguing that cultural influences are the driving force that causes individuals to retain specific value systems regardless of other possible influences, such as a specific business ideology (Ralston, 2008).

National culture is a product of primary socialization (Hofstede, 1991), which is likely to influence stereotypes of individuals in global teams with team members' national culture acting as the primary social entity and as a basis for self-evaluation and enhancement (Erez & Earley, 1993). Indeed, research shows that in transnational, virtual teams, nationality

characteristics are likely to be the salient attributes that act as a basis of subgroup identities (Gibson & Grubb, 2005). Such subgroup divides tend to form more strongly in teams composed of only two nationalities (Hajro, 2009).

This reasoning leads to the second assumption that cultural differences between Israelis and Indians will result in divergent stereotypes of “Indians” and “Israelis” in Indian/Israeli bi-cultural teams.

According to the crossvergence perspective, both divergence and convergence are important, and complete divergence or complete convergence may never occur (Khilji, 2002; Ralston et al., 1997). Evidence for crossvergence was found in a study of stereotypes held by Israeli and Indian international managers that showed a common core in their stereotypes reflecting the participants’ common experience: trust, negotiation technique and friendliness. Yet, managers also constructed particular stereotypes reflecting specific historical circumstances and specific encounters between the groups (Zaidman, 2000). Evidence for crossvergence was also found in a study about impression management of Israeli and Indian employees working in a variety of organizations (Khilji, Zaidman, Drory, Tirmizi, & Srinivas, 2010). Collectively, these results lead to the first hypothesis of the study:

Hypothesis 1. Based on the crossvergence perspective, evidence for both divergence and convergence will be found in stereotypes of “Indians” and “Israelis” working in Indian/Israeli bicultural global teams. Both Indian and Israeli team members will attribute high value to the stereotype characteristics associated with their work culture (convergence) and, national cultural differences between Israelis and Indians will result in divergent stereotypes of “Indians” and “Israelis”.

2.2. *The social context of teams*

Research has shown that subgroup identities are more likely to prevail in bi-cultural teams than in multicultural teams (Earley & Mosakowski, 2000), and thus, stereotyping processes are likely to be more pronounced in bi-cultural teams. Social identity theory provides a conceptual background for the study of the processes of stereotyping in bi-cultural teams.

Social identity theory

According to social identity theory, people categorize themselves into one or more in-groups, building part of their identity on the basis of membership in these groups and enforcing boundaries with other groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), which helps build group distinctiveness (Jetten & Spears, 2004; Van Knippenberg & Ellemers, 1990). A key assumption of the theory is that people are motivated to evaluate their own group positively (in-group favoritism) in order to achieve a positive group identity. In-group favoritism is a function of normative beliefs about group differences, perceived group threats, and the status positions of the groups concerned (Verkuyten & De Wolf, 2007). In support of social identity theory, studies have shown that individuals perceive their own group relative to an out-group as more variable (e.g., Rayan & Bogart, 1997), more positive (e.g., Brewer, 1993; Tajfel, 1969), and more competent (Bettencourt, Dorr, Charlton, & Hume, 2001; Leach, Ellemers, & Barreto, 2007).

Research conducted in transnational, virtual teams shows similar results (Gibson & Grubb, 2005). Specifically, subgroup divides tend to form more strongly in teams composed of only two nationalities (Hajro, 2009).

Research on Israeli and Indian businessmen demonstrated in-group favoritism (Snir, 2009). For example, both Israeli and Indian businessmen attributed to themselves higher levels of cooperation, open communication and willingness to take risks in cross-cultural negotiation compared to what they ascribed to their colleagues; and both Israelis and Indians attributed to themselves higher levels of purposefulness compared to the others’ attribution of them. This research evidence leads to the second hypothesis of the study:

Hypothesis 2. Based on social identity theory and on the research showing that individuals are motivated to evaluate their own group positively (in-group favoritism), Israelis will tend to view “Israelis” more positively than Indians and Indians will tend to view “Indians” more positively than Israelis in work related characteristics.

3. Method

Overview

The study employed both quantitative (self-report questionnaire) and qualitative (semi structured interview) methodologies. Applying “mixed methods” (Plowright, 2011) enables triangulation and complementarities of the data and a reliable, comprehensive and in-depth qualitative analysis. A “triangulation design” was used in the study with equal importance attributed to both methodologies.

Exploratory research in the form of a pilot study was used to build the quantitative tool (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). This procedure was utilized in response to the criticism of many studies of stereotypes that provide respondents with lists of adjectives, on the grounds that it may force participants into thinking in terms of a given set of categories that they themselves may find irrelevant (e.g., Brigham, 1971; Zaidman, 2000) and in response to the criticism that Western researchers can do nothing else but describe the other from their own perspective (Westwood, 2006).

The first methodological step was to develop the quantitative tool based on stereotype categories as indicated by 22 participants. We then created a questionnaire that included (a) the quantitative tool in the form of self-reported questions and (b) three open questions that provided a basis for a semi-structured interview (see Appendix).

3.1. Pilot study

Twelve Israeli and 10 Indian members of multinational Israeli/Indian virtual teams participated in the pilot study. They were asked to respond to two open questions: “Please describe your Indian team members” and: “Please describe your Israeli team members”. The responses to the two open questions were analyzed and the 10 most frequent responses were used to build a 10-item measure of stereotypes that was used in the actual study. Interviewing stopped once reiterative responses were given (after 22 interviews).

3.2. A study of stereotypes in bi-cultural global teams

Participants: One hundred twenty Israeli high-tech employees working in virtual teams with Indians (81% men, mean age: 36, average years of education: 16, average time in high-tech: 10 years, average time in the organization: 6 years) and 80 Indian high-tech employees working in virtual teams with Israelis (83% men, mean age: 28, average years of education: 16, average time in high-tech: 5 years, average time in the organization: 3 years). The male dominance in the Indian and Israeli sample is a result of the employment patterns in the high-tech industry in Israel and India. In addition, while Israelis were older than their Indian team members and had been in the high-tech industry and in the particular organization for longer periods of time, Israelis and Indians had similar levels of education. The criteria for inclusion in the study included daily contact with team members overseas and the employment of workers in these teams for between one and five years.

Participating organizations: Participants were employed by 43 Israeli and Israeli based companies, two Indian subsidiaries of Israeli multinational companies, and one Indian subsidiary of a German multinational company. The companies represent different domains of the high-tech industry such as communication, defense, semi-conductors, information technology and medicine. The number of participants interviewed in each Israeli or Israeli based organization varied from one organization in which 27 employees were interviewed, through 6 organizations in which 5–10 employees were interviewed to 38 organizations in which 1–4 employees were interviewed. Most organizations have a branch in India or outsource their activities offshore. Several offshore organizations outsource their activities and also work with their Indian subsidiaries. Others have a more complex structure: an example is an Israeli subsidiary working jointly with the Indian subsidiary of a global company and an Israeli company that works jointly with a group of international companies for an Indian customer.

In India, 34 employees were interviewed in each of the two subsidiaries of the Israeli companies and 12 employees working for a German company.

The teams: The size of a typical team was between three to eight people. In most teams, the number of team members from both Israel and India changed constantly.

Team members worked in research and development, testing, integration, and customer services on a variety of high-tech products and services at their local offices either in India or in Israel. They worked in a virtual environment and communicated using technological tools. Face to face interaction took place when team members traveled abroad for training.

Procedure: Israeli participants were interviewed individually in their places of employment in Israel by 20 specially trained graduate students of psychology and management. Each student interviewed 6 employees whom they either knew from their own network or who were employees of organizations that agreed to participate in the study. Indian participants were interviewed individually in their places of employment, both in the Bangalore and New Delhi areas, by three specially trained graduate students of communication and management. Two of the organizations that agreed to participate in the study received in exchange for their participation a report based on the data collected. The students used semi-structured interview questions as well as a structured self-report questionnaire.

Instrument

Quantitative instrument: A self-report questionnaire that included two parts: 1. Demographics: age, gender, education, time in high-tech, time in the organization and time on the job. 2. Ten stereotypes elicited by the pilot study: “quiet/shy/modest”; “polite/eager to please”; “organized/keeps procedures”; “friendly/nice”; and six were mentioned most often as characterizing Israeli team members: “takes responsibility”; “quick/punctual”; “creative/improvises”; “professional”; “stressed” (see Appendix).

The participants were asked to characterize Israeli and the Indian team members on a seven point scale (from 1 – not at all, to 7 – very true). Two principal component analyses with oblique rotation revealed three factors for both Israelis and Indians. 64.36% of the variance was explained for Indians and 59.02% for Israelis. Table 1 presents factor loadings for each of the three factors for both Indian and Israeli team members.

As can be seen from the table, there is a similarity in the pattern of the three factors among Israeli and Indian team members. In both, the first factor contains “professional” characteristics (e.g., takes responsibility), the second factor contains “social” characteristics (e.g., polite) and the third contains only the “stressed” characteristics. Since the “stressed” factor includes only one item, we decided to drop it out due to problems with reliability. In accordance with these analyses, four

Table 1

Factor loadings of Israeli and Indian stereotype characteristics.

Characteristics	Israelis			Indians		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
Takes responsibility	.86	–.23	.09	.86	–.13	.16
Quick/punctual	.78	.07	–.07	.78	.19	.09
Creative/improvises	.78	–.25	–.13	.81	–.11	–.07
Hard working	.77	.11	.14	.75	.18	.29
Professional	.77	.05	–.11	.77	.17	.04
Organized	.55	.35	–.12	.53	.44	.08
Polite	.04	.82	–.04	–.04	.81	.21
Shy	–.33	.62	.37	–.42	.48	.47
Friendly/nice	.28	.59	–.38	.26	.68	–.13
Stressed	.49	.08	.73	.41	–.01	.79
% Explained variance	32.96	15.28	10.78	38.78	16.66	8.90

scales were calculated for each object: two for the Israeli object and two for the Indian object. For each participant, four scores were calculated by averaging their item's evaluation of each factor.

The qualitative methodology consisted of a semi structured interview that included the following questions: "Please describe your work with your Israeli (or Indian) team members"; "What aspects of this work are easy for you?"; "What aspects of this work are difficult for you" (see Appendix). Interviews were recorded and transcribed and then reviewed and coded by two independent coders using Atlas.ti computer software. The main code used was "stereotype" in references to stereotypes of "Israeli" and "Indian" team members. Quotes were given short titles based on terms used by the participants (e.g., polite). Next, the quotes that applied to this code were collected (75 referred to "Indians" and 97 to "Israelis"). When a number of quotes seemed identical or very similar, they were grouped together to create a "stereotype element" and were counted.

The quotes were then classified into two major content categories that seemed the most relevant: work behavior and personal aspects. The stereotype elements in each category were ranked and their titles were modified to a general term. Only those elements that had more than five quotes were included, and a representative quote was chosen for each. The final analysis includes (a) searching for structure in the stereotypes as constructed by each group as well as an attempt to discover relationships between these stereotypes and (b) analyzing the content of stereotype characteristics as embedded in the cultural and social contexts and examining the results in light of the paper's conceptual framework.

4. Results

4.1. Quantitative results

To analyze the differences between Israeli and Indian respondents regarding their perceptions of Israeli and Indian characteristics, we conducted a 2×2 MANOVA (country of respondent $\times$ object characteristics) with repeated measures for object characteristics. The dependent variables in this analysis were the two characteristic factors: professional and social.

The analysis revealed significant differences for object's characteristics, $F(2,184) = 136.22$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .59$, and significant interaction effect of country $\times$ object, $F(2,184) = 57.44$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .48$. It seems that the 'country' variable also had a main effect.

Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations of the two characteristics' factors according to the respondent's country and object's characteristics.

As can be seen from Table 2, a univariate ANOVA revealed significant differences in the objects characteristics on the 'professional' and 'social' factors. According to the means, Israelis are perceived as more professional and less social than Indians. The ANOVA also revealed significant interaction effects of country $\times$ object for the two factors.

Table 2

Means and standard deviations of the two characteristics' factors according to respondent's country and object's characteristics.

Characteristics		Country							
		Israelis		Indians		Object		Country $\times$ Object	
		On Israelis	On Indians	On Israelis	On Indians	$F(1,185)$	η_p^2	$F(1,185)$	η_p^2
Professional	M	5.49	5.65	4.17	5.73	65.83 ^{***}	.26	82.65 ^{***}	.31
	SD	.83	.95	1.19	.81				
Social	M	4.13	4.65	6.09	5.48	211.45 ^{***}	.53	34.38 ^{***}	.16
	SD	.95	1.16	.86	.82				

*** $p < 0.001$.

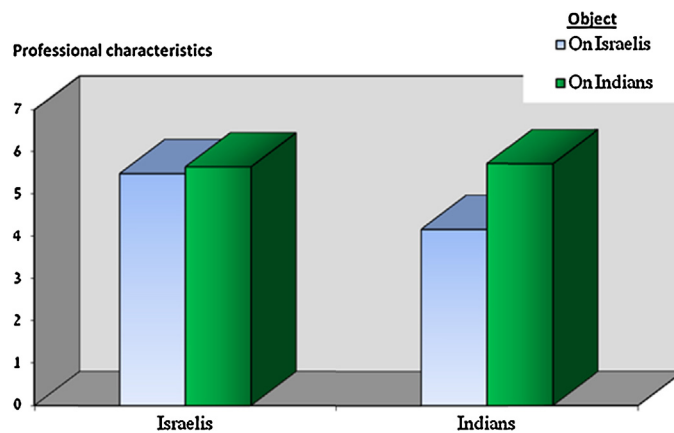


Fig. 1. Means of professional characteristics.

Figs. 1 and 2 present these interactions. Fig. 1 presents the means of the object 'professional factor' as perceived by Israelis and Indians. While Indian team members rated Indians and Israelis almost equally in professionalism, Israeli team members viewed themselves as more professional. Simple effect tests revealed significant differences among Israelis, $F(1,106) = 127.34$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .55$, but not among Indians, $F(1,79) = .80$, $p > 0.373$.

The means of the 'social factor' are presented in Fig. 2. Both Israeli and Indian team members viewed the Indians as more social, but the difference is bigger for the Israelis, $F(1,106) = 255.27$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .71$, than for Indians, $F(1,79) = 30.96$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .28$.

To examine whether both Indian and Israeli team members attribute higher value to the stereotype characteristics associated with their work culture (i.e., professional) compared with the cultural stereotype elements (i.e., social), we conducted a paired-samples t -test comparing the difference between "professional" and "social ratings" for each group of participants separately. The results show that both Israelis and Indians rated the professional stereotype characteristics higher than the social stereotype characteristics. For Israelis (rating themselves), professionalism was rated higher ($M = 5.49$) than social ($M = 4.13$) significantly ($t = 9.90$, $p < 0.001$). For Indians (rating themselves), professionalism was rated higher ($M = 5.72$) than social ($M = 5.48$) significantly ($t = 2.40$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, while both populations attributed higher value to professionalism, the gap between "social" and "professional" stereotype elements is higher among the Israelis.

Discussion of the quantitative results

Our results support the two hypotheses of the study. In support of the first hypothesis, the findings documented the existence of crossvergence in the stereotypes of "Indians" and "Israelis" working in bicultural global teams. The data revealed evidence for both convergence (in work values) and divergence (in cultural values).

Both Indian and Israeli team members rated themselves higher on 'professional' characteristics compared to the way they rated themselves on 'social' characteristics. These findings support the convergence perspective and its notion that the shared exposure of the Indian and Israeli teams to the values of both the global culture and the high-tech culture result in

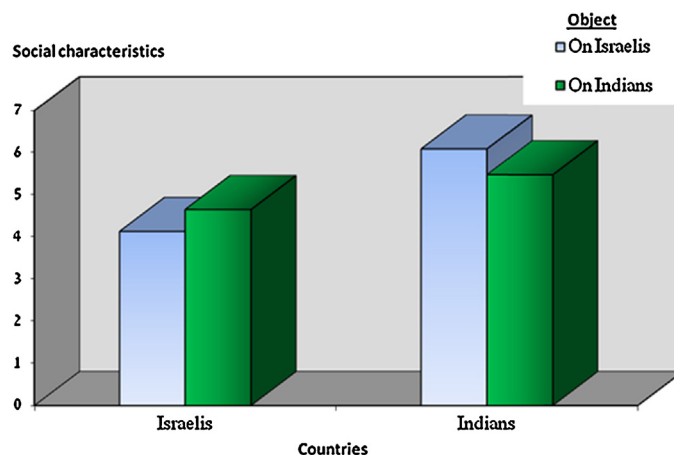


Fig. 2. Means of social characteristics.

Table 3

Stereotypes of Israeli team members as constructed by Indian participants.

Work related characteristics		
"They had immense technical knowledge and it was a learning experience for me"	25	Knowledgeable, good technically
"They don't believe in wasting time"	8	Punctual, concerned about time
"They are stubborn and convincing them to imply our point of view is very very difficult"	6	Stubborn, "head strong"
"They are hardworking"	5	Hard working
Personal characteristics		
"They have helping tendency, they help even if it is not their job"	16	Helpful, supportive
"They are very friendly"	15	Friendly
"They are good people"	6	Good
"They are very hospitable, they took care of us at all the times when we were in their country"	5	Hospitable

convergences of stereotypes. Global demands for advanced technological tools and services may indeed be the catalyst that motivates Indian and Israeli workers to adapt a shared value system that is consistent with the global high-tech culture (Khilji, 2002; Ralston et al., 1997). Specifically, the stereotype elements 'task responsibility' and 'professionalism' may reflect global culture values (Erez & Drori, 2009) while the stereotype elements hard working, quick/punctual, and creative/improvises may reflect the values of the high-tech culture, but we believe that overall these values overlap.

In addition, the findings documented the existence of divergence in the stereotypes of "Israelis" and "Indians" among Israelis and Indians working in bicultural global teams. Specifically, nationality characteristics – in our case, 'social characteristics' (e.g., the stereotype element 'polite') – were found to be a noticeable attribute that acts as a basis of subgroup identities (Gibson & Grubb, 2005). We found significant differences in the rates that Israelis attributed to Indian social characteristics compared to the rates they attributed to themselves. Similarly, we found significant differences in the rates that Indian attributed to Israeli social characteristics compared to the rates they attributed to themselves.

These findings confirm research that documented national stereotypes in international management (e.g., Zaidman, 2000) and support the divergence perspective and its notion that cultural influences are the driving force behind peoples' value systems (Ralston, 2008). Specifically, cultural differences found between Indians and Israelis [e.g., Indians having high power distance, low assertiveness and a higher tendency to strive for harmony compared to Israelis (Carl et al., 2004; Den Hartog, 2004; Hofstede, 2001; Schwartz, 2003; Sinha, 1990; Zaidman, 2001; Zaidman & Brock, 2009)] explain these results.

Combined, these findings support the key notion of the crossvergence perspective, that both divergence and convergence are important and complete divergence or complete convergence may never occur (Khilji, 2002; Ralston et al., 1997).

The findings that supported the second hypothesis documented in-group favoritism in showing that Israelis tended to view "Israelis" more positively than Indians while Indians tended to view "Indians" more positively than Israelis. This tendency was pronounced in the interaction effects, where Israelis rated "Israelis" higher in professional stereotype characteristics than "Indians" whereas Indians rated "Indians" as slightly more so than Israelis.

These findings support social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and the research that documented in-group favoritism (e.g., Bettencourt et al., 2001; Brewer, 1993; Leach et al., 2007; Snir, 2009; Tajfel, 1969; Verkuyten & De Wolf, 2007).

4.2. Qualitative results

What stereotypes or stereotype categories do Indian and Israeli team members working in bicultural global teams construct? The qualitative data showed that when respondents discussed their team members, both Indian and Israeli, they constructed the same two basic categories: "work related characteristics" and "personal characteristics." Yet, as Tables 3 and 4 show, there were both similarities and differences between Indians and Israelis in the stereotypes that composed each category.

The stereotype of "Israeli team members", as composed by the Indian team members, included the following "work related characteristics": (a) knowledgeable, good technically; (b) punctual; (c) stubborn and (d) hard working. The category "personal characteristics" included the following items: (a) helpful, supportive; (b) friendly; (c) good and (d) hospitable.

The stereotype of "Indian team members", as composed by the Israeli team members, included the following "work related characteristics": (a) obedient, (b) professional, (c) hard working, (d) responsible (negative), (e) slow, (f) dependent and (g) devoted to work. The category "personal characteristics" included the items: (a) nice, warm, friendly, pleasant; (b) polite/courteous; (c) calm; (d) and trustworthy (positive and negative).

These similarities and differences in stereotype construction reflect the cultural contexts of team members as well as the gaps between them.

Table 4

Stereotypes of Indian team members as constructed by the Israeli participants.

Work related characteristics		
"He is obedient, you can tell them what to do"; "they can accept any Sisyphus work with no complaints"	14	Obedient
"I enjoy working with them, they are professional, we have learned from them"; "I don't trust their capabilities to provide whatever is needed in the best way, I need to follow their work constantly"	+7 to 6	Professional
"He works many hours, he is connected in Sundays also"; "they are willing to work at any time"	12	Hard working
"There are people who don't take any responsibility on their work. I need to sit with them and to correct what they do"	–7	Responsible
"They work slowly. . .you send them to check a problem, they say in ten minutes, they finish their tea and get to it after two hours."	7	Slow
"They don't think outside the box"; "You need to make sure that you told everything and not to forget any detail"	5	Dependent
"They do whatever is needed, they take very difficult tasks and they do it"	5	Devoted to work
Personal characteristics		
"In the essence of their being, in their culture, they are very nice, very friendly"	20	Nice, warm, friendly, pleasant
"They are very polite, when you talk with them you don't feel in the battlefield"	18	Polite/courteous
"I can trust . . ."; "They provide inaccurate information, they don't say the truth and I cannot trust them"	+5 to 3	Trustworthy
"They never lose their temper"	7	Calm

Work-related characteristics

Both Indians and Israelis referred to three main stereotypes: "professionalism", "hard work" and "working within time limits." These elements reflect the culture of the high-tech industry, which is characterized by long work days and hard work (Kunda, 1992). It also reflects global cultural processes such as professionalization, in which authority is drawn from certified knowledge and which enhances task interdependence (Erez & Drori, 2009).

Yet the meaning and value that participants attributed to professionalism and to time reflect gaps between the two cultures. "Israelis" were described using positive values regarding their professionalism while "Indians" were described using both positive and negative values, the latter of which reflected knowledge gaps (Israelis had twice as many years of experiences in the high-tech industry).

Similarly, participants' accounts regarding time reflect their shared experience of time related stress as part of their daily work, but they also reflect cultural differences. Specifically, "Israelis" were described as expressing deep concern about time ("They are rather strict about timing, which sometimes makes it difficult for us"), whereas "Indians" were perceived by the Israelis as "slow." Israelis, like Americans and employees from other Western cultures, perceive time as an asset with perishable value that, when utilized improperly or inefficiently, is wasted. Indian time orientation seems to be different, as Indian employees did not view it as a commodity with perishable value. Correspondingly, they are characterized by a more relaxed and reflective attitude toward time (Gopalan & Stahl, 2006; Sinha, 1990).

Participants also applied 'particular elements,' i.e., elements that are particular to one group, in the "work related characteristics" of their stereotypes. From the perspective of the Indian team members, one particular element was the most pertinent: "Israelis" being stubborn and not accepting that there are alternative ways of doing things (e.g., "they are rather head-strong and they don't take general recommendations"). Israelis, on the other hand, described "Indian" team members as "obedient" ("they don't ask too many questions when I ask them to do something"); "dependent" ("I need to sit with them, and fix the work for them"); and "devoted." Both the Indian and Israeli characterizations probably reflect the reality of a specific work context in which the Israelis are often in charge of Indian team members. They also reflect a difference between Indians and Israelis in assertiveness and in power distance, with Indians low in assertiveness and high in power distance vs. the high assertiveness and low power distances characteristic of Israelis (Carl et al., 2004; Den Hartog, 2004; Hofstede, 1991, 2001).

As one expression of the greater power distance, relationships in Indian organizations are characterized by a hierarchy saturated with 'affective reciprocity.' Superiors are expected to extend warmth to their subordinates who are expected to

reciprocate by being loyal, respectful and dependent. As a result, Indians seek attention, support, advice and help even when they are fully capable of making the decisions on their own (Sinha, 1990). Israelis in the high-tech industry, on the other hand, are expected to take initiative and think independently (Shamir & Melnik, 2002). This cultural gap is expressed in the particular element that Israeli team members construct that is reflected in their complaint about Indian team members who “don’t search for alternative ways to solve a problem”.

Personal characteristics

Both Indian and Israeli participants constructed the stereotype “friendly” when talking about the out-group, although Israelis used a variety of synonyms such as “nice” and “pleasant” when referring to their Indian team members. Support for the centrality of “friendliness” as a key element of the global culture was found in a study of Indian and Israeli businessmen (Zaidman, 2000) and in a study of British and German managers (Cooper & Kirkcaldy, 1995).

Similar to the construction of global and particular elements in work related characteristics, in addition to common personal characteristics, participants applied particular stereotypes that reflect differences in their national culture. Specifically, Israeli team members described Indian team members as “polite” and “calm”. A possible explanation for the construction of these two stereotypes is a communication gap between Israelis and Indians: Israelis tend to be direct, expressive and confrontational, while Indians follow an indirect code of communication that emphasizes harmony and politeness (Storti, 2007; Zaidman, 2001). Support for this explanation can be found in a study that documented how Polish managers view their German partners. The authors argued that human beings have a tendency to characterize themselves in relation to what they are not (Gajewska-De Mattos et al., 2004). When talking about their Indian colleagues, Israelis also mentioned that they are “trustworthy” (or untrustworthy). “Trust” was related to the quality of the Indian team members’ work and seems to reflect, once again, the knowledge gap between Israelis and Indians.

Indians said that Israelis were “helpful” (supportive), “good” and “hospitable.” The first characteristic was mentioned in the context of work (“They help and also try to solve our problems”) and seems to reflect both cultural elements and the context of the work: in most teams Israelis are located at the headquarters and are in charge of the work and of the Indian team members. Israelis also have more experience and knowledge and are expected to provide project related support. Yet the expectation for support may also reflect Indians’ culture related expectations that their superiors provide paternal leadership (Sinha, 1990).

Israelis were portrayed by the Indians as “good people.” This general statement probably reflects the importance Indians attribute to harmony in communication, which is manifested in a tendency to avoid being openly critical (Storti, 2007). None of the Indians provided a concrete example for the “goodness” of Israelis, they just said that the Israelis are “good people.” The references Indian team members made to the hospitality of the Israelis may reflect the impressions they carry from their visits to the Israeli headquarters, which for many of them was their first visit outside India.

In summary, the results of the qualitative part of the study showed that:

- (a) Team members constructed similar schemata of stereotypes composed of two basic categories: work characteristics and personal characteristics that cut across cultures.
- (b) There was evidence for the influence of the global culture and the high-tech culture on the construction of stereotypes by both Israeli and Indian team members.
- (c) Specific differences in the construction of the stereotypes represent major differences between the two national culture groups.

These differences often appear as a mirror manifestation of the cultural gap as it is perceived by each group (particular elements). For example, “supportive” vs. “dependent”/“obedient” are expressions of the core of superior/subordinate of a large power distance (the Indian culture) and a small power distance (the Israeli culture). Similarly, the Israelis described “Indians” as “polite”, whereas several remarks made by Indians referred to “Israelis” as rude (e.g. “They say what they think and don’t think twice what will the other person thinks. That is when we find them rude”). The tendency of Indians to seek harmony in communication (Storti, 2007) can explain the small number of such quotes.

These findings support the crossvergence perspective in demonstrating both convergence and divergence: convergence in the findings that Indians and Israelis working in multicultural global teams share key values of the global culture (e.g., professionalism and hard work) and the high-tech culture (e.g., new technologies and demanding market conditions); divergence in showing that Israelis and Indians working in multicultural global teams retain culture specific values, regardless of the influences of the global culture and the specific context of work (e.g., values related to hierarchy).

(d) Team members’ stereotypes were composed of two similar basic categories as well as specific stereotype elements representing major differences between the two national groups and appear as a mirror manifestation of the cultural gap as it is perceived by each group. These findings support social identity theory’s notion that people categorize themselves into one or more in-groups, building part of their identity (the shared stereotype categories) and enforcing boundaries with other groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), which builds group distinctiveness (Jetten & Spears, 2004; Van Knippenberg & Ellemers, 1990). It contributes to this research by revealing how group distinctiveness is formed in stereotype construction, namely, the formation of particular stereotype elements as a mirror manifestation of the perceived cultural gap between group members.

5. Summary and conclusions

Taken together, the qualitative and quantitative findings suggest that stereotypes that emerge in bi-cultural global groups reflect the global work culture, the culture of the high-tech industry and the cultural differences between the national cultures that are part of a particular team. As such, the findings support the culture-context approach, stereotype theory and research on global multicultural teams.

The culture-context approach helps understand how individuals and groups function in the complex and culturally diverse reality of globalization (Zaidman & Brock, 2009). Specifically, in this study it contributes to our understanding of the socio-cultural “building blocks” of distinctiveness in multicultural teams by analyzing universal and particular elements in the construction of stereotypes. It also shows the impact of specific contextual factors on stereotype formation, such as the roles that team members from one group (i.e., Israelis) take in teams and the locations of team members in the organization (i.e., headquarters or subsidiaries) and its impact on stereotype formation. In this respect, the study supports the perspective that stereotypes are sensitive to the realities of group life (e.g., Oakes, Haslam, & Turner, 1994).

The main theoretical contributions of the study, however, involve its support for the conceptual frameworks of convergence, divergence, and crossvergence and social identity theory in the complex and multi-layered context of global multicultural teams.

The study shows that individuals from different national cultures, working together in bi-cultural teams and exposed to the values of the global culture and the high-tech culture, show evidence for both convergences in their global stereotypes (as it appears in the “professional” and in “work characteristics” components of the stereotypes) and divergence in their culture related stereotypes (as it appears in the “social” and “personal characteristics” components of the stereotypes). The combined evidence for convergence and divergence can be interpreted as evidence for crossvergence. Support for the “crossvergence perspective” was offered by the combination of, on the one hand, evidence showing that rapid technological developments and competitive global markets constitute the catalyst that motivates the convergence to values such as professionalism and hard work, and on the other hand, evidence showing that individuals retain specific values such as those associated with different levels of power distance.

In support of social identity theory, members of bicultural teams were shown to evaluate their own cultural group more positively than members of the other cultural group (in-group favoritism).

The qualitative data suggest that stereotypes contain two basic components: the first is a generic component that can be found in every global work environment and is composed of work related characteristics that reflect the culture of the high-tech industry and universal personal characteristics. The second component reflects differences between the national groups in work related characteristics and in personal characteristics. These two basic stereotype components emerged independently of the quantitative data demonstrating that both aspects are important in team members' perceptions of themselves and the others. The findings further suggest that out-group stereotypes are constructed within a specific structure as a mirror image. The mirror structure can manifest itself in both negative and positive values.

The qualitative findings contribute to research on group distinctiveness by providing context specific explanations for the structure of stereotypes and mainly by revealing the “mirror principle” which forms the basis of group distinctiveness.

Taken together, the findings suggest that a combination of sociocultural influences and global business culture influences is the driving force that precipitates the development of the value system of global teams.

These findings carry important practical implications. They can assist in mapping those values that exist despite members' exposure to the global work culture and thus can help managers in the global work place to set realistic expectations in terms of enhancing new work norms and procedures. It is further suggested that bi-cultural global team leaders would attribute special importance to enhancing shared values among team members to develop strong group identity and high levels of trust. These leaders should enhance practices that develop strong team identity and team cohesion.

The main limitation of the study is its reliance on self-reported data and its cross-sectional design. Other limitations are the lack of a control group, which could support the claim that these stereotypes typify high-tech employees, and the uneven number of Israeli based and Indian based participating organizations or subsidiaries, which may have an effect on the findings.

Future research should replicate the findings of the current study in other cultural contexts and geographical locations. It can also focus on the dynamics of the processes of stereotype formation and the potential effects of such processes, specifically, the links between personal characteristics and divergence and the links between work characteristics and convergence, and the development of new stereotype characteristics.

Acknowledgements

The research on which the paper is based was supported by the Israel Science Foundation (grant no. 764/08). The funding source had no involvement in study design, in the collection, analysis and interpretation of data, in the writing of the report, or in the decision to submit the article for publication. Thanks to Dov Har-even, Dina Van-Dijk, IJIR Editor and anonymous reviewers for their assistance in this paper.

Global Team Questionnaire

The following questionnaire is part of an international study about multinational teams. There are no right or wrong answers, but it is important that you respond to all questions. Your responses will remain strictly confidential and will only be used for purpose of the study. Thank you, in advance, for your help.

A. Open questions

1. Please describe your work with Israeli and Indian team members
2. What aspects of this work are easy for you? Please explain
3. What aspects of this work are difficult for you? Please explain

B. Self-report questionnaire

Using a seven point scale (from 1= not at all to 7=very true) please rate the following characteristics of your Israeli and Indian team members

1. Friendly/Nice	The Israeli_____	The Indian_____
2. Quiet/Shy/Modest	The Israeli_____	The Indian_____
3. Polite/Eager to please	The Israeli_____	The Indian_____
4. Professional	The Israeli_____	The Indian_____
5. Quick/Punctual	The Israeli_____	The Indian_____
6. Creative/Improvises	The Israeli_____	The Indian_____
7. Takes responsibility	The Israeli_____	The Indian_____
8. Hard working	The Israeli_____	The Indian_____
9. Organized with work procedures	The Israeli_____	The Indian_____
10. Stressed/Intense	The Israeli_____	The Indian_____

C. Biographical information

1. Nationality: Are you Indian/Israeli (circle one)
Sex: 1=male 2=female _____
3. Age: _____
4. Years of Education_____
5. Years in high-tech _____
6. Type of organization in which you work (what does it do primarily)_____
7. Your job in it _____
8. Time in the organization _____
9. Time on the job _____

References

- Bettencourt, B. A., Dorr, N., Charlton, K., & Hume, D. L. (2001). *Status differences and in-group bias: A meta-analytic examination of the effects of status stability, status legitimacy, and group permeability. Psychological Bulletin, 127*(4), 520–542.

- Brewer, M. B. (1993). The role of distinctiveness in social identity and group behavior. In M. Hogg, & D. Abrams (Eds.), *Group motivation: Social psychological perspectives* (pp. 1–16). London: Harvester Wheatsheaf.
- Brigham, A. (1971). Ethnic stereotypes. *Psychological Bulletin*, 76, 15–38.
- Carl, D., Gupta, V., & Javidan, M. (2004). Power distance. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Leadership, culture, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 513–563). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Cooper, C. L., & Kirkcaldy, B. D. (1995). Executive stereotyping between cultures: The British vs. German manager. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 10, 3–6.
- Coutant, D., Worcheil, S., Bar-Tal, D., & van Raalten, J. (2011). A multidimensional examination of the "Stereotype" concept: A developmental approach. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 35, 92–110.
- Cramton, C. D. (2001). The mutual knowledge problem and its consequences for dispersed collaboration. *Organization Science*, 12, 346–371.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2007). *Designing and conducting mix methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Den Hartog, D. N. (2004). Assertiveness. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Leadership, culture, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 396–436). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Distefano, J., & Maznevski, M. (2000). Creating value with diverse teams in global management. *Organizational Dynamics*, 29, 45–63.
- Drucker, P. F. (1993). *Post-capitalist society*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Earley, C., & Mosakowski, E. (2000). Creating hybrid team cultures: An empirical test of transnational team functioning. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 43, 26–50.
- Erez, M., & Drori, G. S. (2009). Global culture and organizational processes. In R. S. Bhagat, & R. M. Steers (Eds.), *Cambridge handbook of culture organizations and work* (pp. 148–173). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Erez, M., & Earley, P. C. (1993). *Culture, self-identity, and work*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Fiske, S. T., Cuddy, A. J. C., Glick, P., & Xu, J. (2002). A model of (often mixed) stereotype content: Competence and warmth respectively follow from perceived status and competition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82, 878–902.
- Fulk, J., Monge, P., & Hollingshead, A. B. (2005). Knowledge resource sharing in dispersed multinational teams: Three theoretical lenses. In D. L. Shapiro, M. A. Von Glinow, & J. L. Cheng (Eds.), *Managing multinational teams: Global perspectives* (pp. 155–188). Oxford: Elsevier/JAI Press.
- Gajewska-De Mattos, A., Chapman, M., & Clegg, J. (2004). Poles and Germans: An international business relationship. *Human Relations*, 57, 983–1015.
- Gardiner, M. (1994). Thoughts toward the formulation of an Israeli management model. In A. Shenhar, & A. Yarkoni (Eds.), *Israeli management culture* (pp. 99–108). Tel Aviv: Gome (Hebrew).
- Gibson, C. B., & Grubb, A. R. (2005). Turning the tide in multinational teams. In D. L. Shapiro, M. A. Von Glinow, & J. L. Cheng (Eds.), *Managing multinational teams: Global perspectives* (pp. 69–96). Oxford: Elsevier/JAI Press.
- Gibson, C. B., & Vermeulen, F. (2003). A healthy divide: Subgroups as a stimulus for team learning behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 48, 202–239.
- Gopalan, S., & Stahl, A. (2006). Application of American management theories and practices to the Indian business environment: Understanding the impact of national culture. In H. J. Davis, S. R. Chatterjee, & M. Heuer (Eds.), *Management in India, trends and transition* (pp. 376–398). London: Response Books.
- Guan, Y., Deng, H., & Bond, M. H. (2010). Examining stereotype content model in a Chinese context: Inter-group structural relations and mainland Chinese's stereotypes towards Hong Kong Chinese. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 34, 393–399.
- Hajro, A. (2009). Contextual influences on multinational teams: Empirical evidence from an Austrian company. *European Journal of International Management*, 3, 111–129.
- Hofstede, G. (1991). *Culture and organizations: Software of the mind*. London: McGraw-Hill.
- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations* (2nd ed.). Sage: Thousand Oaks, London.
- Jetten, J., & Spears, R. (2004). Intergroup distinctiveness and differentiation: A meta-analytic integration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 86, 862–879.
- Jussim, L., & Fleming, C. (1996). Self-fulfilling prophecies and the maintenance of social stereotypes: The role of dyadic interactions and social forces. In C. N. Macrae, C. Stangor, & M. Hewstone (Eds.), *Stereotypes and stereotyping*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Khilji, S. E. (2002). Modes of convergence and divergence: An integrative view of multinationals in Pakistan. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13, 232–253.
- Khilji, S., Zaidman, N., Drory, A., Tirmizi, A., & Srinivas, E. S. (2010). Crossvergence of values: An analysis of the use of impression management strategies in India, Israel and Pakistan. *International Business Review*, 19, 419–431.
- Knouse, S. (2006). Task cohesion: A mechanism for bringing together diverse teams. *International Journal of Management*, 23, 588–598.
- Kunda, G. (1992). *Engineering culture control and commitment in a High-Tech Corporation*. Philadelphia: Temple University.
- Le Pelley, M. E., Reimers, S. J., Calvini, G., Spears, R., Beesley, T., & Murphy, R. A. (2010). Stereotype formation: Biased by association. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 139, 138–161.
- Leach, C. W., Ellemers, N., & Barreto, M. (2007). Group virtue: The importance of Morality (vs. competence and sociability) in the positive evaluation of in-groups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 93, 234–249.
- Lippmann, W. (1933). *Public opinion*. New York: Macmillan Company.
- Mackie, M., Hamilton, D., Susskind, J., & Rosselli, F. (1996). Social psychological foundations of stereotype formation. In C. N. Macrae, C. Stangor, & M. Hewstone (Eds.), *Stereotypes and stereotyping* (pp. 41–78). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Marquardt, M. J., & Horvath, L. (2001). *Global teams: How top global span boundaries and cultures with high-speed teamwork*. Palo Alto, CA: Davies-Black.
- Maznevski, M. L., & Athanassiou, N. A. (2006). Guest editors' introduction to the focussed issue: A new direction for global teams research. *Management International Review*, 46, 631–646.
- Oakes, P. J., Haslam, S. A., & Turner, J. C. (1994). *Stereotyping and social reality*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Pines, A. M., & Zaidman, N. (2010). Israel-Indian teams in Israeli High Tech Organizations: A diversity perspective. In M. Özbilgin, & J. Syed (Eds.), *Diversity management in Asia: A research companion* (pp. 504–520). Cheltenham and New York: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Plowright, D. (2011). *Using mixed methods: Frameworks for an integrated methodology*. London: Sage.
- Ralston, D. A. (2008). The crossvergence perspective: Reflections and projections crossvergence theory. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 39, 27–40.
- Ralston, D. A., Holt, D. H., Terpstra, E. R. H., & Kai-Cheng, Y. (1997). The impact of national culture and economic ideology on managerial work values: A study of the US, Russia, Japan and China. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 28(1), 177–207.
- Rayan, C., & Bogart, L. M. (1997). Development of new group members' in-group and out-group stereotypes: Changes in perceived group variability and ethnocentrism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73, 719–732.
- Rosenblatt, V. (2011). The impact of institutional processes, social networks, and culture on diffusion of global work values in multinational organizations. *Cross-Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 18, 105–121.
- Schwartz, S. (2003). Mapping and interpreting cultural differences around the world. In H. Vinken, J. Soeteres, & P. Ester (Eds.), *Comparing cultures dimensions in a comparative perspective* (pp. 43–73). The Netherlands: Leiden.
- Schweder, R. A., & LeVine, R. A. (1984). *Cultural theory: Essays on mind, self and emotion*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Shamir, B., & Melnik, Y. (2002). Boundary permeability as a cultural dimension, a study of cross cultural working relations between American and Israelis in high-tech organizations. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 2, 219–238.
- Shokef, E., & Erez, M. (2006). Global work culture and global identity, as a platform for a shared understanding in multicultural teams. In Y. R. Chen (Ed.), *National culture and groups: Research on managing groups and teams* (Vol. 19) (pp. 325–352). Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Sinha, J. B. P. (1990). *Work culture in the Indian context*. New Delhi: Sage.
- Snir, G. (2009). *Effects of cultural differences on business negotiation: India-Israel* (Ph.D. thesis submitted to the Senat). Ramat-Gan, Israel: Bar-Ilan University.
- Storti, C. (2007). *Speaking of India bridging the communication gap when working with Indians*. Boston: Intercultural Press.

- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1986). The social identity theory of inter-group behavior. In S. Worchel, & L. W. Austin (Eds.), *Psychology of intergroup relations*. Chicago: Nelson-Hall.
- Tajfel, H. (1969). Cognitive aspects of prejudice. *Journal of Social Issues*, 25, 79–97.
- Van Knippenberg, A., & Ellemers, N. (1990). Social identity and intergroup differentiation processes. In W. Stroebe, & M. Hewstone (Eds.), *European review of social psychology* (Vol. 1) (pp. 137–169). Chichester, UK: Wiley.
- Verkuyten, M., & De Wolf, A. (2007). The Development of in-group favoritism: Between social reality and group identity. *Developmental Psychology*, 43, 901–911.
- Westwood, R. (2006). International business and management studies as an orientalist discourse, a postcolonial critique. *Critical Perspectives on International Business*, 2, 91–113.
- Wheeler, S. C., & Petty, R. E. (2001). The effects of stereotype activation on behavior: A review of possible mechanisms. *Psychological Bulletin*, 127, 797–826.
- Zaidman, N. (2000). Stereotypes of international managers, contact and impact on business interactions. *Group & Organization Management*, 25, 44–65.
- Zaidman, N. (2001). Cultural codes and language strategies in business communication: Interactions between Israeli and Indian businesspeople. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 14, 408–441.
- Zaidman, N., & Brock, D. (2009). Knowledge transfer within and among multinational subsidiaries: A cultural-context approach. *Group & Organizational Management*, 3, 1–32.
- Zimmermann, A. (2011). Interpersonal relationships in transnational, virtual teams: Towards a configurational perspective. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 13, 59–78.