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Article

Cultural values in Colombia and Chile: The role of sex

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Abstract: Culture is a cohesive system of values, meanings, and behaviors. This study follows Hofstede's framework of cultural dimensions, which is widely studied in different contexts. Although culture is a subject of extensive research, few recent studies evaluate culture between countries. This study analyzed the cultural dimensions identified in two Latin American countries: Colombia and Chile. In addition, it evaluated differences in both countries by sex. The study was conducted with 382 workers from Chile and 617 from Colombia. Significant differences were found between Colombia and Chile in power distance, paternalism, and masculinity-femininity. This exploratory study may contribute to discussing the role of culture and sex in organizations operating in different countries.

Keywords: cultural values; Colombia; Chile; Hofstede; sex

1. Introduction

Culture is understood as a cohesive system of meanings and symbols in which social interactions occur (Alvesson, 2012). Deal and Kennedy (1983) characterized culture as how things are done in an environment. Chevrier (2003) stated that people in a particular culture share their world views. Culture is formed by opinions, beliefs, expectations, and regulations that connect the individual with the organization (Traczyńska and Kunecka, 2018). It is expressed through ceremonies, myths, rituals, language, and stories, which affect people's behavior and influence how they can be managed to achieve objectives (Brown and Osborne, 2005; Suvaci, 2018). In a complementary way, Swidler (1986) defined culture as symbolic values of shared beliefs, rituals, practices, and language.

Hartnell et al. (2011) described culture as values and beliefs representing normative expectations. Culture informs how individuals will behave. Awadh and Saad (2013) included the communication patterns and explanations of behaviors that guide people in defining culture. Culture is a research focus because it influences how decisions are made, rewards are distributed, and how a group responds to its environment.

1.1. The role of culture in the workplace

Culture has a powerful effect on performance and effectiveness (Davis and Cates, 2018), and on a wide array of employees' attitudes and behaviors (Taras et al., 2010; Odor, 2018). Culture is a framework that allows an individual to internalize the expected values, beliefs, and behaviors of a group, organization, or society. Culture forms attitudes and guides behavior (Coman and Bonciu, 2016). Schein (1984) defined culture as a pattern of shared basic assumptions a group has learned. Culture contributes to solving its problems of external adaptation and internal integration.

Shared values dictate how people act and perform their duties (Odor, 2018).

One of the best-known analyses of culture is that developed by Hofstede (1980). Hofstede's work is one of the most significant cross-cultural studies and one of the main frameworks in cultural research. He defined culture as the collective programming of each individual's mind (Hofstede, 1984). The original formulation of Hofstede's cultural dimensions was based on aggregating individual-level perceptions of cultural dimensions at a country level among workers from a single global corporation (Hofstede, 2010).

The initial analysis of Hofstede (1980) considered four dimensions of culture. The first, power distance, was defined as the extent to which a society accepts unequal power distribution in organizations. Individualism-collectivism is related to the preference to take care of themselves or others. Uncertainty avoidance is associated with the extent to which people feel threatened by ambiguous situations and try to avoid them. Finally, masculinity-femininity indicates the dominant values of a society. Dorfman and Howell (1988), who measured Hofstede's values, included in their instrument a new scale called paternalism, which assesses the appropriateness of managers taking a personal interest in workers' lives and taking care of them.

There are studies about cultural dimensions based on Hofstede's approach, but none that compare Colombia and Chile and none that investigates the role of sex in explaining cultural differences between these two countries.

Martins et al. (2021) concluded that Colombia and Chile are on a similar level of development. In a study in Colombia and Chile, Idrovo and Bosch (2019) showed a negative relationship between family-supportive supervisor behavior and turnover intention. There were no significant differences between the two countries. Littrell and Cruz (2013) compared cultural values between Chile and Mexico societies, finding a preference in both samples for a parental leader, and sex differences were observed.

About the cultural dimensions proposed by Hofstede et al. (2012) found that Romanian students are collectivist and femininity-oriented, belong to a high-power distance culture, and avoid uncertainty. Švarc et al. (2019) found no relationship between Hofstede' cultural dimensions and innovation in Croatia. Chen et al. (2009) stated that employees with high scores in power distance tend to have unquestioning respect for authority. People with high power distance undervalue participation in decision-making processes (Kirkman et al., 2006). Individuals in lower power distance countries take on more risks because they are more trusting (Mihet, 2013). Huang and Crotts (2019), using data from Australia and Hong Kong, found a negative correlation between power distance and visitor satisfaction.

Besides, it has been found that individualistic people depend more on autonomy (Triandis, 1995) and focus their interests on the decision-making process (Sagie and Aycan, 2003). There is evidence of a relationship between collectivism and innovativeness (Yaveroglu and Donthu, 2002). Kirkman and Shapiro (1997) found that the more collectivist a culture is, the more likely people are to accept teamwork arrangements. Huang and Crotts (2019), using data from Australia and Hong Kong, found a positive correlation between individualism and visitor satisfaction.

There is a negative correlation between uncertainty avoidance and firm risk-taking (Kreiser et al., 2010). Uncertainty avoidance influences information exchange behavior (Dawar et al., 1996) and promotes limited choices and smaller amounts of

information (Marcus, 2001). Merkin (2006), based on a sample from Chile, Hong Kong, Israel, Japan, Sweden, and the United States, concluded that uncertainty avoidance influences work communication strategies.

Feminine cultures do not emphasize sex role differences and value cooperation (Basabe et al., 2022). Some components are common in masculinity: high power, status, dominance, emotional, physical, and mental toughness, and distance from all that is unmanly (Vescio et al., 2021). Men are treated as having higher status and more competent than women in several workplaces (Correll and Ridgeway, 2006). Risky behaviors when engaging in physical activities are prevalent among male and female firefighters with a higher masculine perception of their occupation (Bel-Latour and Granié, 2022).

Paternalism requires treating people as members of an extended family (Mussolino and Calabrò, 2014). Paternalism is prevalent in cultures that value collectivism (Gelfand et al., 2007). Aycan (2015) suggests that while authoritarian leaders primarily rely on control and exploitation to make subordinates dependent and compliant, paternalistic leaders use their control coupled with care and nurturance, getting loyalty and deference in return. Schroeder (2011) found a negative relation between paternalistic leadership and education level in Turkey.

1.2. The role of sex in the workplace

The role of sex in different cultures and its link with sustainability is almost unexplored. Bazel-Shoham et al. (2023) found that the presence of women on a company's board positively impacts environmental sustainability. There are no previous studies that compare the role of sex between Colombia and Chile. However, some studies analyzed the role of sex in cultural dimensions. AlAnezi and Alansari (2016) in Kuwait revealed significant sex differences, where the males obtained a higher score than females on individualism and masculinity. Kincaid (2022) found that females obtained a higher score on power distance. Cuddy et al. (2015) found that Americans rated men as less collectivistic than women, whereas Koreans rated men as more collectivistic than women. Littrell and Cruz (2013) compared cultural values between Chile and Mexico and found sex differences.

Governments in masculine cultures prioritize growth over the environment, while those in feminine cultures are likelier to do the opposite (Hofstede, 2001). Husted (2005) concluded that feminine cultures favor sustainable values. Gallén and Peraita (2017) argue that countries with more feminine cultures have a higher attitude toward providing sustainability reports than those with masculine cultures.

Miska et al. (2018) found that future orientation, gender egalitarianism, uncertainty avoidance, and power distance practices positively predict corporate sustainability practices. However, these results are not conclusive. In their review, Miska et al. (2018) found inconsistencies in the sense that some studies reported positive and others negative relationships between the masculinity-femininity dimension of culture and sustainability. Findings suggest that these effects vary according to the country. The role of culture can be interpreted differently according to country boundaries and groups of multiple countries (Peterson and Søndergaard, 2014). This statement suggests new comparative studies that help to understand the

characteristics of countries in terms of cultural dimensions.

Given the relevance of the issue of cultural values, the lack of studies that compare this topic in Colombia and Chile, and the role of sex, the purpose of this research was to analyze the cultural values identified by Hofstede in these two Latin American countries. In addition, the study evaluated the role of sex in explaining the differences in the cultural values of Colombia and Chile.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Participants

Participants were selected by non-probabilistic convenience and snowball sampling. Working graduate students at universities in Colombia and Chile were recruited, who in turn recruited and took the study to their respective workplaces. Companies where former graduates of the graduate programs of the selected universities were working were also contacted.

The sample was intended to include technical, advisory, professional, and executive-level people from companies in the education, hospital, banking, security, entertainment, commercial services, and sales sectors so that the sample would be diverse and as representative as possible. Companies in the food sector were not considered due to the difficulty in contacting them.

Excluding criteria were not considered, so the sample includes people with different lengths of service both in the company and in the position, as well as different levels of education (technical, professional, and postgraduate).

2.2. Instrument

Hofstede's cultural values were measured by the Spanish version of the instrument of Dorfman and Howell (Castaneda et al., 2022). The questionnaire has five dimensions with 29 items distributed in this way: uncertainty avoidance five questions, individualism-collectivism six questions, power distance six questions, paternalism seven questions, and masculinity-femininity five questions. Each item corresponds to a statement. The instrument uses a Likert scale of five levels of answers for each item to evaluate how much the participant agrees or disagrees with each of them, with 1 being "totally disagree" to 5 being "totally agree". For each dimension, a composite variable was calculated with the average Likert scale score of all participants for each item. Finally, the cultural values variable was calculated with the average of the 29 items.

Culpepper and Watts (1999) analyzed four Dorfman and Howell scales (power distance, collectivism, masculinity, and uncertain avoidance) using principal components analysis. Their study supported these four scales one-dimensionality, convergent validity, and discriminant validity.

The instrument asked participants to share their position level, age, sex, educational level, time in the organization, and time in the actual position.

2.3. Statistical analysis

For the statistical analyses, the first step was to compare the results of the five

dimensions and total culture between Chile and Colombia. Then, a comparison of sex differences in all dimensions and total culture in each country was attempted. Then, a correlation between all the dimensions of cultural values was proposed. With these results, a model was intended to generate a model that could relate the dimensions between the two countries.

For this purpose, the data were tested to see if they met the criterion of statistical normality, using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test to determine whether to perform a student's *T*-test or Mann-Whitney *U* test to make comparisons between countries and sex in each country as well as to establish the type of correlation, Pearson or Spearman. It was found that the data were not normally distributed, so nonparametric tests were chosen.

2.4. Ethical considerations

The authors declare that they followed all the ethical standards in this research and that they have no financial or personal interest that may affect the objectivity of the article.

The study subjects were informed about the research aim, and they approved their participation in answering the survey.

Due to the nature of the questions in Dorfman and Howell's instrument, the study was not considered to generate any harm or risk to any of the participants. No vulnerable or exposed populations were involved. The research data were handled only by the study investigators. The final version of the instrument was reviewed and approved by the Ethical Research Committee of the university faculty. In addition, the participants answered the questionnaire after signing the consent form to participate in the research.

3. Results

The study was exploratory and conducted with 382 workers from Chile and 617 from Colombia. In the Chilean sample, 194 were male and 188 females. In the Colombian sample, 342 were male and 275 females. Some demographic and organizational characteristics are presented in **Table 1**.

Table 1. Descriptive characteristics of the sample.

Characteristics	Chilean sample	Colombian sample
	Number (%)	Number (%)
Sex		
Male	194 (50.8%)	342 (55.4%)
Female	188 (49.2%)	275 (44.6%)
Position level		
Adviser	25 (6.5%)	57 (9.2%)
Executive	102 (26.7%)	73 (11.8%)
Professional	237 (62.0%)	307 (49.8%)
Technician	18 (4.7%)	180 (29.2%)

Table 1. (*Continued*).

Characteristics	Chilean sample	Colombian sample
	Number (%)	**Number (%)**
Age (years)		
20–25	2 (0.5%)	78 (12.6%)
26–30	78 (20.4%)	126 (20.4%)
31–35	36 (9.4%)	130 (21.1%)
36–40	29 (7.61%)	115 (18.6%)
41–45	22 (5.8%)	55 (8.9%)
46–50	45 (11.8%)	48 (7.8%)
Over 51	170 (44.5%)	65 (10.5%)
Time in the organization (years)		
0–3	152 (39.8%)	329 (53.3%)
4–7	64 (16.8%)	124 (20.1%)
8–11	44 (11.5%)	69 (11.2%)
12–15	31 (8.1%)	39 (6.3%)
16–19	20 (5.2%)	24 (3.9%)
20 or more	71 (18.6%)	32 (5.2%)
Time in the position (years)		
0–3	185 (48.4%)	419 (67.9%)
4–7	74 (19.4%)	121 (19.6%)
8–11	45 (11.8%)	43 (7.0%)
12–15	27 (7.1%)	20 (3.2%)
16–19	10 (2.6%)	6 (1.0%)
20 or more	41 (10.7%)	8 (1.3%)
Educative level		
Post grade	99 (25.9%)	252 (40.9%)
Professional	242 (63.4%)	282 (45.7%)
Technician	41 (10.7%)	83 (13.5%)
Total	382	617

First, it was determined whether the data were normally distributed. With a result of $p = 0.000$ in the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, it was determined that the distribution was not normal, so nonparametric statistics were performed.

A Mann-Whitney *U* test assessed the differences between the Colombian and Chilean samples. There were found statistically significant differences in cultural dimensions, where Colombia's scores (Mdn = 3.03, Range = 2.62) were higher than those of Chile (Mdn = 3.00, Range = 2.14), $U = 102372$, $z = -3.49$, $p < 0.001$).

Specifically, differences were found in three dimensions. The first dimension with differences was Individualism-Collectivism, where Colombian scores (Mdn = 3.50, Range = 3.67) were higher than those of Chile (Mdn = 3.50, Range = 3.50), $U = 105588$, $z = -2.77$, $p = 0.006$. The second dimension with statistical differences was power distance, where Colombia's scores (Mdn = 2.33, Range = 3.83) were also higher than those of Chile (Mdn = 2.16, Range = 3.50), $U = 90888$, $z = -6.10$, $p < 0.001$.

Finally, the third dimension with differences was Paternalism, where Colombia's scores (Mdn = 3.43, Range = 3.57) were again higher than those of Chile (Mdn = 3.29, Range = 3.43), $U = 96766$, $z = -476$, $p < 0.001$. Results are presented in **Table 2**.

Table 2. Differences in cultural values between Colombia and Chile.

	Chile (n = 382)	**Colombia (n = 617)**	***U***	***p***	***g***
	Mdn (Range)	**Mdn (Range)**			
Cultural values	3.00 (2.14)	3.03 (2.62)	102,372	0.000	0.280
Uncertainty avoidance	4.40 (3.60)	4.40 (4.00)	114,314	0.422	0.056
Individualism-Collectivism	3.50 (3.50)	3.50 (3.67)	105,588	0.006	−0.172
Power distance	2.17 (3.50)	2.33 (3.83)	90,888	0.000	0.398
Paternalism	3.29 (3.43)	3.43 (3.57)	96,766	0.000	0.313
Masculinity-Femininity	1.60 (4.00)	1.80 (4.00)	110,046	0.076	0.135

Significant differences when $p < 0.05$. Mdn stands for median. *U* stands for *U* Mann-Whitney. *G* stands for Hedges' *g*.

On the website of Hofstede Insights (2022), the scores of the cultural values in many countries are found. **Figure 1** presents the results of Colombia and Chile. It does not include the paternalism dimension proposed by Dorfman and Howell (1988). Although the platform processes information on countries separately, presenting them together allows for comparisons. This figure only allows us to perceive visual differences, not statistical ones.

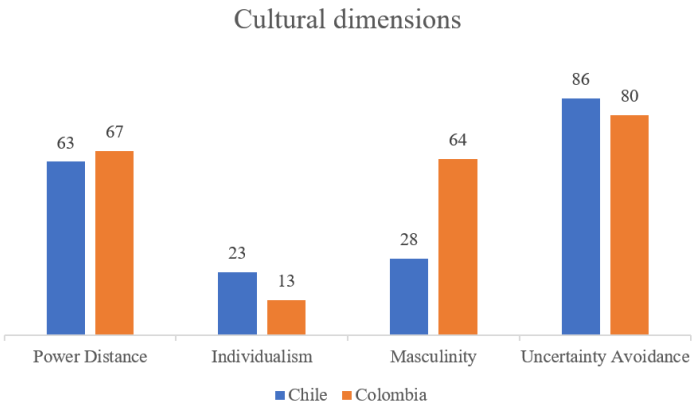

Figure 1. Comparison of cultural values between Colombia and Chile (Note: adapted from compare countries, Hofstede Insights (2022)).

In addition, an analysis was performed on the demographic variable of sex. To determine if there were differences between sex, an MW*U*-test was run. In the case of the Chilean sample, statistically significant differences were found in uncertainty avoidance, where women's scores (Mdn = 4.40, Range = 3.00) were higher than those of men (Mdn = 4.20, Range = 3.602), $U = 15490$, $z = -2.84$, $p = 0.004$. Also, in masculinity-femininity, where women's scores (Mdn = 1.40, Range = 4.00) were lower than those of men (Mdn = 1.80, Range = 2.80), $U = 13185$, $z = -4.73$, $p \leq 0.001$. In the Colombian sample, no statistically significant differences associated with sex were found ($p > 0.05$). Results from the Chilean sample are presented in **Table 3**, and the Colombian sample is presented in **Table 4**.

Table 3. Differences in sex in cultural values in Chile.

	Women (*n* = 188)	**Men (*n* = 194)**	***U***	***p***	***g***
	Mdn (Range)	**Mdn (Range)**			
Cultural values	3.00 (2.14)	3.03 (1.38)	17,060.5	0.276	−0.111
Uncertainty avoidance	4.40 (3.00)	4.20 (3.60)	15,190.5	0.004	0.295
Individualism-Collectivism	3.50 (3.50)	3.67 (3.17)	17,060	0.274	−0.128
Power distance	2.17 (3.50)	2.17 (3.00)	18,146.5	0.934	−0.014
Paternalism	3.29 (2.71)	3.21 (3.43)	17,696.5	0.616	0.055
Masculinity-Femininity	1.40 (4.00)	1.80 (2.80)	13,185.5	0.000	−0.447

Significant differences when $p < 0.05$. Mdn stands for median. *U* stands for *U* Mann-Whitney. *G* stands for Hedges' *g*.

Table 4. Differences in sex in cultural values in Colombia.

	Women (*n* = 275)	**Men (*n* = 342)**	***U***	***p***	***g***
	Mdn (Range)	**Mdn (Range)**			
Cultural values	3.03 (2.62)	3.07 (2.45)	44,615	0.273	−0.070
Uncertainty avoidance	4.20 (4.00)	4.40 (3.00)	45,830.5	0.584	−0.054
Individualism-Collectivism	3.33 (3.67)	3.50 (3.33)	45,527	0.494	−0.005
Power distance	2.33 (3.83)	2.33 (3.83)	45,959.5	0.627	−0.040
Paternalism	3.29 (3.57)	3.43 (3.43)	44,296.5	0.214	−0.119
Masculinity-Femininity	1.80 (4.00)	1.80 (4.00)	46,275.5	0.731	0.019

Significant differences when $p < 0.05$. Mdn stands for median. *U* stands for *U* Mann-Whitney. *G* stands for Hedges' *g*.

A Spearman correlation test was performed on the data from the two countries to determine the interdependence and association level. No relationship was found between uncertainty avoidance and power distance. A negative relationship was found between uncertainty avoidance and masculinity-femininity. The results are summarized in **Table 5**.

Table 5. Spearman correlation between cultural values.

	Cultural values	**Uncertainty avoidance**	**Individualism-Collectivism**	**Power distance**	**Paternalism**	**Masculinity -Femininity**
Cultural values	1					
Uncertainty avoidance	0.330**	1				
Individualism-Collectivism	0.536**	0.227**	1			
Power distance	0.568**	0.025	0.058	1		
Paternalism	0.573**	0.063*	0.190**	0.081*	1	
Masculinity-Femininity	0.511**	−0.116**	0.043	0.392**	0.055	1

* Correlation is significant at $p < 0.05$ (two-tailed). ** Correlation is significant at the level $p < 0.01$ (two-tailed).

With these results, the question arose whether it was possible to generate a model that could relate the dimensions in Chile and Colombia. Considering the variables

measurement level, a simple linear regression model was made for each of the cultural dimensions as the dependent variable and the country as the independent variable. Considering all cultures, the simple linear regression model with Enter input method, showed a statistically significant equation $F(1.997) = 19.321$, $p = < 0.001$, and the R^2 value was 0.019, which indicated that the regression model including countries can explain 1.9% of the score change in the cultural dimensions. Regarding power distance, the Enter input method showed a statistically significant equation $F(1.997) = 37.444$, $p \leq 0.001$, with an R^2 value of 0.036. With the enter input method, paternalism showed a statistically significant equation $F(1.997) = 23.174$, $p \leq 0.001$, with R^2 value of 0.023. Finally, in the case of masculinity-femininity, with Enter input method, it also showed a statistically significant equation $F(1.997) = 4.304$, $p = 0.038$, with an R^2 value of 0.004. Thus, the country could explain 3.6% of power distance, 2.3% of paternalism, and 0.4% of masculinity-femininity. The results of the simple regressions are summarized in **Table 6**.

Table 6. Relation between country and cultural values.

Effect country over:	***F*(1.997)**	**R^2**	***β***	**SE**	***p***
Cultural values	19.321	0.019	−0.101	0.023	<0.001
Constant			3.188	0.034	
Uncertainty avoidance	0.754	0.001	−0.031	0.036	0.385
Constant			4.302	0.052	
Individualism-Collectivism	3.254	0.003	0.084	0.046	0.072
Constant			3.375	0.062	
Power distance	37.444	0.036	−0.244	0.04	<0.001
Constant			2.646	0.058	
Paternalism	23.174	0.023	−0.183	0.038	<0.001
Constant			3.569	0.056	
Masculinity-Femininity	4.304	0.004	−0.103	0.05	0.038
Constant			1.966	0.073	

Significant differences when $p < 0.05$.

Next, the simple linear regression model was run on the cultural dimensions considering sex. The model, with the Enter input method, showed a statistically significant equation for masculinity-femininity, $F(1.997) = 5.665$, $p = 0.017$, with an R^2 value of 0.006. This indicated that 0.6% of the change in the score of that dimension could be explained by the regression model including sex. The other dimensions do not present significant values. The results of the simple regressions are summarized in **Table 7**.

Table 7. Relation between sex and cultural values.

Effect sex over:	***F*(1.997)**	**R^2**	***β***	**SE**	***P***
Cultural values	1.572	0.002	0.028	0.022	0.210
Constant			3.006	0.036	
Uncertainty avoidance	1.561	0.002	−0.043	0.035	0.212
Constant			4.325	0.056	

Table 7. (*Continued*).

Effect sex over:	***F*(1.997)**	R^2	***β***	**SE**	***P***
Individualism-Collectivism	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.045	0.975
Constant			3.488	0.073	
Power distance	0.55	0.001	0.029	0.04	0.459
Constant			2.263	0.064	
Paternalism	1.074	0.001	0.039	0.037	0.300
Constant			3.257	0.061	
Masculinity-Femininity	5.665	0.006	0.115	0.048	0.017
Constant			1.646	0.078	

Note: Significant differences when $p < 0.05$.

Tables 8 and **9** show the results of the linear regressions in the Chilean and Colombian samples. In the Chilean sample, the model, with Enter input method, shows a statistically significant equation for Uncertainty avoidance, $F(1.380) = 8.632$, $p = 0.004$, with an R^2 value of 0.002. Also, with Masculinity-Femininity, $F(1.380) = 19.158$, $p < 0.017$, with R^2 value of 0.048. The other dimensions do not present significant values. In the Colombian sample, no dimensions present significant values.

Table 8. Relation between sex and cultural values in the Chilean sample.

Effect sex over:	***F*(1.380)**	R^2	***β***	**SE**	***P***
Cultural values	1.187	0.003	0.036	0.033	0.277
Constant			2.933	0.052	
Uncertainty avoidance	8.362	0.022	−0.163	0.056	0.004
Constant			4.485	0.089	
Individualism-Collectivism	1.566	0.004	0.076	0.061	0.212
Constant			3.427	0.097	
Power distance	0.018	0.000	0.008	0.06	0.893
Constant			2.145	0.096	
Paternalism	0.289	0.001	−0.032	0.059	0.591
Constant			3.251	0.094	
Masculinity-Femininity	19.158	0.048	0.312	0.071	<0.001
Constant			1.289	0.113	

Table 9. Relation between sex and cultural values in the Colombian sample.

Effect sex over:	***F*(1.615)**	R^2	***β***	**SE**	***P***
Cultural values	0.300	0.000	0.016	0.03	0.584
Constant			3.062	0.049	
Uncertainty avoidance	0.44	0.001	0.029	0.044	0.507
Constant			4.225	0.072	
Individualism-Collectivism	0.393	0.001	−0.039	0.063	0.531
Constant			3.52	0.103	
Power distance	0.246	0.000	0.025	0.051	0.620
Constant			2.363	0.083	

Table 9. (*Continued*).

Effect sex over:	$F(1.615)$	R^2	β	SE	P
Paternalism	2.17	0.004	0.070	0.048	0.141
Constant			3.278	0.078	
Masculinity-Femininity	0.055	0.000	−0.015	0.064	0.814
Constant			1.886	0.105	

4. Discussion

This study aimed to analyze and compare the cultural values identified by Hofstede in two Latin American countries: Colombia and Chile. It also evaluated whether there were differences by sex. Significant differences between Colombia and Chile were found in power distance, paternalism, and masculinity-femininity. These results go in the same direction as that proposed by Vescio et al. (2021), who found a relationship between masculinity and power. Besides, no differences by sex were found between these two countries.

Political factors may explain power distance differences between Colombia and Chile. Chile has been ruled by left governments that criticize the inequality among people; Colombia has been ruled by right and center parties that do not emphasize social differences between citizens and are more accepting that those who have the power have the right to control the others. In organizational contexts, in Colombia broad salary differences between bosses and collaborators are accepted.

A possible explanation of differences in paternalism is that social governments, like in Chile, programs are more protectionists, and citizens are expected to cover their basic needs. In organizations, unions are strong and fight for better salaries and benefits for workers. This approach is stronger in Chile than in Colombia.

Differences between Colombia and Chile in masculinity-femininity may be partially explained by differences in results by sex. While in Colombia there were no differences in results by sex, in Chile there were. In organizational contexts in Colombia, it is compulsory that in first public sector positions, there must be at least a woman between the three final candidates.

On Hofstede' website, a large difference is shown in the masculinity dimension between the two countries (28 in Chile and 64 in Colombia); however, whether those differences are statistically significant is not. These results are consistent with the findings of this study, where differences were found based on data. However, additional research it is recommended about why there are no sex differences in the Colombian sample, while there are differences in the Chilean one.

On the mentioned website, the differences in power distance are small (Chile 63 and Colombia 67), while in this study, they were significant. It is suggested that the managers of the website data analyze and evaluate the significance of the differences between the two countries.

Strengths and limitations

No previous studies have compared these two countries following Hofstede's cultural dimensions making this study a pioneer. This exploratory study may contribute to discussing the role of culture and sex of workers in multinational

contexts. The results may interest organizations that have operations in Colombia and Chile. Management and programs in each country may be adjusted according to perceptions of power distance, paternalism, and masculinity-femininity.

Because this research is pioneering, a limitation is that it is difficult to contrast results with those of other studies. Another limitation is that the research followed Hofstede's approach to cultural dimensions which may not be relevant for some organizations. Finally, this instrument version did not include indulgence, a cultural dimension that was included more recently.

5. Conclusions

In conclusion, although Colombia and Chile are two Latin American countries with the same language and affinities in some public policies and the level of development, there are cultural differences, specifically in power distance, masculinity, and paternalism. Future studies are recommended to measure sustainability indicators between countries with different levels of cultural dimensions and the role of sex in explaining results.

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