Contents

2 Organisational context of structured on-the-job training
   Bert M Versloot, Jan A de Jong and Jo GL Thijsen

23 Developing managerial learning styles in the context of the strategic application of
   information and communications technologies
   Clive Holtham and Nigel Courtney

34 Transnational worker representation and transnational training needs: the case of European works
   councils
   Doug Miller

52 Supervisory support as a major condition to enhance transfer
   Marcel van der Klink, Esther Gielen and Corine Nauta

64 Comparative study of cognitive styles in Egypt, Greece, Hong Kong and the UK
   Michael Savvas, Ghada El-Kot and Eugene Sadler-Smith

74 Computer-assisted learning design for reflective practice supporting multiple learning
   styles for education and training in pre-hospital emergency care
   Indra Jones and John Cockson

81 International briefing 8
   Training and development in France
   Jean-Paul Géhin and Annette Jobert

ISSN 1360-3736
Comparative study of
cognitive styles in Egypt,
Greece, Hong Kong and the
UK

Michael Savvas, Ghada El-Kot and
Eugene Sadler-Smith

Cognitive style has been described as consistent individual
differences in the organising and processing of information. It
is has been argued that it is an important factor in managerial
learning and cognition. A number of authors have suggested
that groups from different national cultures are likely to exhibit style differences and that this has important implications
for management training and development. In the present
study, which employed closely matched samples of business
and management undergraduates from Egypt, Greece and the
UK, there were no statistically significant differences in style.
However, in post-graduate samples from Egypt, Hong Kong
and the UK that were less closely matched, statistically signi-
nificant differences were observed. Comparison of these data
with those from other studies suggests that amongst undergraduates from a variety of national cultures there do not
appear to be significant differences in style. Among post-
graduates and managers the picture that emerges was more
equivocal and the extent to which any observed differences
are artefacts of sampling and method remains unclear. The
implications of the findings for style theory and management
education, training and development are discussed.
Introduction

A number of authors have argued that national culture may be related to individual differences in cognitive style (Abramson et al., 1996) and that such differences may be important in a business environment in which managers are required to communicate and operate globally and in a management education environment that is becoming increasingly internationalised (Allinson and Hayes, 2000). If such differences do exist, they may be one factor that impinges upon the effectiveness of interactions between managers from different national cultures in both work and educational settings. For example, Adler et al. (1986) argued that problems of understanding and predicting behaviour might arise from a lack of appreciation of the thought processes of managers from different national cultures. Abramson et al. (1993) noted the need for cross-cultural research that compares cognitive styles. Using a sample of business and management post-graduates and undergraduates, this study aimed to explore cross-national differences in style in Egypt, Greece, Hong Kong and the UK. It aimed to test the assertion, made by a number of researchers, that there are likely to be cross-national differences in preferred ways of organising and processing information (cognitive styles) and wanted to consider the implications for style theory and management education, training and development.

Cognitive style

Cognitive style may be described as consistent individual differences in preferred ways of organising and processing information (Messick, 1984: 143) and is usually considered to be the antecedent of learning style (Curry, 1983; Riding, 1997). There are a variety of theories of cognitive style (Hayes and Allinson, 1994; Riding and Cheema, 1991). For example, Riding (1997) argued that there are two orthogonal style constructs that he termed the verbaliser-imager and wholist-analytical dimensions and which may be assessed using a computer-administered direct test of cognitive processing (the Cognitive Styles Analysis, CSA). Allinson and Hayes (1996) argued in favour of a single style dimension, which they termed intuition-analysis that affects how individuals organise and process information in a range of learning, problem-solving and decision-making situations. Within this theory analysts prefer to pay attention to detail, focus on 'hard data' and adopt sequential, step-by-step approaches that depend on systematic methods of investigation. Intuitives, on the other hand, are less concerned with detail, adopt a global perspective and an open-ended approach to problem solving, they emphasise synthesis and the simultaneous integration of many inputs at the same time and pay more attention to feelings. Allinson and Hayes (1996) reported the development of a measure – the Cognitive Style Index (CSI) – a 38-item self-report inventory. CSI scores have been shown to correlate with a variety of learning and workplace behaviours (see, for example, Armstrong et al., 1997; Sadler-Smith et al., 2000a). The instrument's authors also asserted that style is related to gender, with females (contrary to the stereotype of 'female intuition') being more analytical than males (Allinson and Hayes, 1996). A comparison by Sadler-Smith, Spicer and Tsang (2000b) of scores on the CSA and CSI revealed a Pearson Product Moment correlation of virtually zero ($r = 0.05$) between analysis-intuition and wholist-analytical styles.

Cognitive style and national culture

Sternberg (1997: 99) argued that national culture might be one of several variables (the others include gender, age, parenting, schooling and occupation) that are likely to affect the development of thinking styles. Allinson and Hayes (2000), in support of this notion, argued that there are cross-cultural differences in cognitive style and that these may be fundamental obstacles to productive working relationships.
between managers of different national cultures. They used Hickson and Pugh’s model of national culture which comprises a series of groupings, for example, North Europeans (Germany, Sweden, Finland, etc.), Anglos (UK, USA, Canada, etc.) and Latins (France, Italy, Portugal, etc.). Their study employed a sample, which comprised 394 managers and 360 undergraduate management students. Among managers they found that UK respondents were more analytical (higher CSI scores) than their counterparts in India, Jordan, Nepal, Russia and Singapore. For the management students sub-sample they conducted separate one-way analyses of variance for males and females. For the males they found that German respondents (Northern European) were more analytical than their UK counterparts, while for the females they found that UK respondents were more analytical than their French (Latin) or Australian (Anglo) counterparts ($F = 2.24$, df = 3, 161, $p < 0.05$ and $F = 2.76$, df = 4, 190, $p < 0.05$, respectively). Overall, they concluded that the most analytical groups were located in what they termed the ‘Developing Countries and Arab categories’ (Allinson and Hayes, 2000: 161), while the most intuitive were in the Anglo, North European and European Latin groups. Greek national culture is not discussed explicitly in the model presented by Hickson and Pugh, but we suggest it would perhaps be somewhere in between the East-Central European and the Latin groups and hence may indicate that Greek and UK management students are likely to differ in their cognitive styles. In later research using the CSI Sadler-Smith, Spicer and Tsang (2000b) observed statistically significant differences in styles between owner managers from Hong Kong and the UK (the Hong Kong sample were more analytical than their UK counterparts).

An alternative to Hickson and Pugh’s framework is the model of national culture proposed by Hofstede (1980, 1991). Hofstede (1980) operationalised culture and its associated values into four dimensions based upon research among employees of IBM in various countries throughout the world. The four dimensions that he identified were power distance, collectivism-individualism, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity–femininity. Power distance refers to the extent to which members of a national cultural group are willing to accept unequal distribution of power. Collectivism is the tendency of people to belong to groups or collectives to look after each other in exchange for loyalty. Individualism is the predisposition to look after oneself and immediate family only. Accordingly:

relationships between members of individualistic cultures are loose and individuals are expected to take care of themselves. By contrast, in collectivist cultures, cohesive groups give individuals their sense of identity and belonging, demanding considerable loyalty in return for the sense of security that they impart. (Hatch, 1997: 207)

Uncertainty avoidance is the extent to which people feel themselves threatened by ambiguous situations. Hofstede (1980) argued that different societies have different levels of tolerance for uncertainty, ambiguity and unfamiliar risks, and that these differences can be defined as the degree to which members of a culture feel threatened by uncertainty, ambiguity and risk.

Masculinity–femininity, according to Hofstede, refers to the distribution of roles between the genders. Masculinity is associated with assertiveness and competitiveness, whereas femininity is associated with modesty and a caring disposition. Clear differences emerged between the UK and Greece, particularly on the collectivist–individualist, uncertainty avoidance and power distance dimension (see Table 1).

Tixier (1996) argued that in Southern Europe (including Portugal, Spain, Italy and Greece) hierarchical distances are greater because authority is more centralised and management more autocratic. Calori and de Woot (1994) have argued that in the Latin or Southern European countries the management system is seen as ‘chaotic’, paternalistic and collectivist, and that this is particularly so in Greece. The differences described by Hofstede would lead one to speculate that managers from the UK and Greece are likely to differ in terms of style since: (i) individuals with an analytical style typically will seek certainty and avoid ambiguity; (ii) individuals with an intuit-
Table 1: Comparison of Greece, the UK, Hong Kong and Arab-speaking countries along Hofstede’s four dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hofstede’s (1980) dimensions</th>
<th>Arab-speaking</th>
<th>Greece</th>
<th>Hong Kong</th>
<th>UK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Power distance</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectivism–individualism</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculinity–femininity</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty avoidance</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


...ive style are more likely to question norms and assumptions and hence may transgress the power-distance divide. Kirton (1994) drew a distinction between managers in general and innovators and entrepreneurs (who are presumed to differ in terms of their adaptor-innovator style) and linked this to societal or cultural norms:

Where clear boundaries exist in a culture pattern, in the form of expectations that impose a limit on the behaviour of the individuals in that culture, then those people who show by their actions that they are prepared to cross those boundaries are more likely to be shown to be innovative. The more boundaries involved, and the more rigidly they are held in the society concerned, the higher the innovative score will be of those who cross. (ibid: 57)

Atiya (1992) and Parnell and Hatem (1999) noted that there is a lack of empirical research into Arab management practices generally and Egyptian management in particular. Mezal (1988) observed that managers in the Middle East have tended to be older than their Western counterparts and a respect for seniority has been a feature of the organisational culture in this region. This suggests that Egyptian managers would have a high power distance based on Hofstede’s analysis. Hofstede (1980: 44) grouped Arab-speaking countries together (Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates) and indeed the Arab-speaking culture is characterised by high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance (however, it should be noted that Greece scored higher on uncertainty avoidance than Arab-speaking countries, see Hofstede, 1980). In Parnell and Hatem’s (1999) study of senior executives in large organisations in Egypt it was found that: (i) solicitation of participation is viewed negatively, perhaps because it is interpreted as a sign of weakness in a high power-distance culture; (ii) there was a strong negative association between job satisfaction and loyalty, perhaps due to employees acting in accordance with the needs of the group even if this does not coincide with their own interests. Participation and consultation are preferred values in the Middle East and, furthermore, autocratic and authoritarian management structures are not perceived as desirable per se in the Arab world of organisations (Mezal, 1988).

In terms of Hofstede’s research, Hong Kong has a low figure for uncertainty avoidance, and indeed this is lower than for any of the other national cultures addressed by this study. In terms of power distance the figure of 68 is relatively high, but is not as high as that for other Asian countries such as Malaysia (which has a score of 100). Hong Kong is the most collective of all of the cultures with a score of 25. This is interesting given that Britain ceded Hong Kong in 1842 and influenced its educational system, and may suggest that Hong Kong is likely to have been influenced by the British values, however, Britain is placed much more towards the individualistic end of the dimension according to Hofstede’s research. Finally, in terms of masculinity and femininity, Hong Kong had a similar score to Greece and Britain, namely more towards the masculinity end of the dimension.
Since cognitive style is concerned with the fundamental management behaviour of organising and processing information (Allinson and Hayes, 2000: 169), it is not unreasonable to propose that the cultural differences between Egypt, Greece, Hong Kong and the UK may be associated with differences in cognitive style. Indeed, Allinson and Hayes noted a statistically significant difference between UK managers and their Jordanian counterparts ($p < 0.05$) with the UK managers being more intuitive (lower CSI score). As has been noted, Sadler-Smith et al. (2000b) studied the cognitive styles of owner managers in the UK and in Hong Kong and found that the Hong Kong owner managers were much more analytical (higher CSI score) than their UK counterparts.

The picture painted so far of a simple and straightforward association between national culture and cognitive style is, however, problematical given that some authors have presented evidence in support of greater degrees of similarity than difference between different national cultures in terms of their cognitive styles. Kirton (1994) reported a study by Thompson (1980) in which a sample of English-speaking managers from Singapore and Malaysia had a mean Kirton Adaptor-Innovator (KAI) (Kirton, 1976) score of 97.6 ‘close to that of their English counterparts’ (Kirton, 1994: 56). Similarly, Kirton reported a number of other studies from which he concluded that ‘when groups of different nationalities share a broadly similar culture their mean AI scores show very little variation’. Furthermore, building upon the work of Prato Previde (1991), in a detailed study of the psychometric properties of the KAI for three different cultures (English, Slovak and Italian) and through a comparison with previously published norms, Kubes came to the opinion that:

Remarking, the cultural effects, though important and interesting were limited. Therefore the Slovak data, in our view, provide further support for the hypothesis raised by Prato Previde (1991) that cognitive style, as measured by the KAI, is almost wholly unaffected by cultural variations … and supports the notion that cognitive style is deeply embedded in personality. (Kubes, 1998: 196, italics added)

Predicated upon the assumption that the style theories of Kirton and Allinson and Hayes are broadly similar, there appear to be conflicting perspectives with regard to cross-national differences in cognitive style. One perspective based on Kirton’s theory and supported by the work of Kubes (1998) and Prato Previde (1991) using KAI data, maintains that style is independent of culture. In the other view, supported by the work of Abramson and his co-workers and Allinson and Hayes, cognitive style is seen as being related at least to some extent to national culture. Using Hickson and Pugh’s model, Allinson and Hayes’ research found that there were ‘no significant cognitive style variations between nations within culture slices [groups]’ (Allinson and Hayes, 2000) which appears to suggest that there will be intra-group similarities but inter-group differences. Furthermore, they argue that on the basis of their findings it may be ‘more fruitful to classify nations in terms of their stage of industrial development rather than the hemisphere in which they are located’ (ibid: 161). If style is related to national culture, this leads us to the prediction that, since Egypt, Greece, Hong Kong and the UK occupy different cultural groupings in the Hickson and Pugh and Hofstede models, the differences between the mean CSI scores for Egyptian, Greek, Hong Kong and UK participants are likely to be statistically significant. We aimed to test this assertion using two studies that were cross-sectional in nature and employed a convenience sample of undergraduate and post-graduate management students as participants. Locke (1986) and Abramson et al. (1993) justified the use of student samples in management research by saying that they may give more homogeneous groups and better-balanced samples. It should be noted, however, that while matching of samples could help to improve the rigour of cross-cultural research (Sekaran, 1983), there might be a concomitant lowering of the external validity of any findings (Abramson et al., 1996).
Method

Data collection

Instruments
For both Study 1 and Study 2 the measure of cognitive style used was the Allinson-Hayes' (1996) Cognitive Style Index (CSI). The CSI consists of 38 trichotomously scored items (true; uncertain; false). Twenty-one of the items are worded in such a way as to indicate an analysis orientation (e.g., 'I am most effective when my work involves a clear sequence of tasks to be performed'). The analysis items are scored positively (i.e., true, 2; uncertain, 1; false, 0). Seventeen of the items indicate an intuitive orientation (e.g., 'Formal plans are more of a hindrance than a help in my work'). The intuition items are reverse scored. The theoretical maximum score is 76 and the theoretical minimum is zero. The higher the score, the more analytical a person's style; the lower the score, the more intuitive they are. Items are ordered randomly on the final form (Allinson and Hayes, 1996: 124). Test-re-test reliability has ranged from 0.78 to 0.90 (Allinson and Hayes, 1996: 126; Armstrong et al., 1997: 214; Murphy et al., 1998: 598). Construct validity has previously been claimed through maximum likelihood factor analysis and correlational studies (see Allinson and Hayes, 1996; Sadler-Smith et al., 2000b).

Procedure
Data were collected from convenience samples during the course of normal classes and participation in the research was voluntary.

Study 1: Results

Sample characteristics
The sample consisted of second year undergraduates who were following degree programmes in Business and Management Studies at higher education institutions in Greece, Egypt and the UK. The samples were closely matched in terms of characteristics such as age, gender balance and educational background and programmes of study. The sample consisted of 48 Greek respondents (56.3 per cent females and 43.7 per cent males), 45 Egyptian respondents (53.3 per cent females and 46.7 per cent males) and 52 UK respondents (38.5 per cent females and 61.5 per cent males). The vast majority of the sample (90.1 per cent) were under 24 years of age.

Descriptive statistics and reliabilities
The means and standard deviations are shown in Table 2. Inspection of the histograms of CSI scores for each sample revealed their distributions to be approximately normal. The internal reliability of the CSI for the UK sample was satisfactory (Cronbach's α > 0.70) and compared well with those for other studies, for example, Armstrong et al. (1997). The internal reliabilities for the Greek and Egyptian samples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: Sample characteristics and descriptive statistics for Study 1 (business and management undergraduates)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

were less than the generally accepted salient value of 0.70. Previous research with non-UK samples has demonstrated acceptable internal reliabilities, for example, Murphy et al. (1998) reported an internal reliability of 0.83 for a Canadian sample of business and management students.

**Effect of nationality and gender**
The effects of nationality and gender on CSI scores were tested by means of a two-way analysis of variance (nationality by gender). There were no statistically significant effects (main or interactive) of nationality and gender on CSI scores. Overall scores are comparable with the mean of 42.5 (SD = 11.8) reported by Murphy et al. (1998) for a Canadian sample of business and management students. In the same study a marginal effect of gender upon style was reported ($F = 3.87$, df = 1, 87; $p = 0.05$). In the present study the mean scores for males was lower than that for females (as observed in other studies, for example, Allinson and Hayes, 1996 and Murphy et al., 1998), however, the differences were non-significant. The null hypothesis that the Egyptian, Greek and UK business and management students would have mean scores which were not significantly different was not rejected and does not support the assertion that subjects from different national cultural groups will have different cognitive style preferences. Furthermore, the means described here are comparable with a mean CSI score of 43.71 (SD = 13.37) for 284 Canadian law students reported by Doucette et al. (1998).

**Study 2: Results**

**Sample characteristics**
The sample consisted of post-graduate and professional development students who were following a variety of university-based programmes as follows: (i) Egypt: participants were following a Master of Business Administration (MBA) programme (n = 20); (ii) Hong Kong participants were drawn from courses in psychology/counselling (n = 38) and public sector management (n = 18); (iii) UK participants were following MBA (n = 21), Certificate in Management Studies (CMS) (n = 28) and Diploma in Management Studies (DMS) (n = 27) programmes. Some 50.7 per cent of the sample were female and the age characteristics were as follows: 18–24 years, 8.8 per cent; 25–34 years, 56.5 per cent; 35–44 years, 14.3 per cent; 45–54 years, 3.9 per cent; 55 years and over, 16.3 per cent.

**Descriptive statistics and reliabilities**
The descriptive statistics for Study 2 are shown in Table 3. As may be seen, these post-graduate and professional development samples were less closely matched than

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Sub-sample</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Males (%)</th>
<th>Age &lt; 35 (%)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>MBA</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>44.35</td>
<td>12.47</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Counselling</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>77.8</td>
<td>43.90</td>
<td>11.08</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public sector</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>46.33</td>
<td>11.14</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>MBA</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>36.95</td>
<td>11.43</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CMS</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>39.71</td>
<td>16.07</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DMS</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>34.56</td>
<td>12.06</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Subscripts refer to groups between which the differences in mean CSI scores are statistically significant at the $p < 0.05$ level (Duncan multiple range test).
were the undergraduate samples. The levels of internal consistency for the CSI were consistently high (α ≥ 0.82) with the exception of the Egyptian sub-sample.

**Effect of nationality and gender**

The effects of nationality and gender on CSI scores were tested by means of a two-way analysis of variance (sub-sample by gender). There was a statistically significant effect of sub-sample upon mean CSI scores (F = 4.83; df = 5, 134; p < 0.001). There was no statistically significant main effect of gender nor was there any interaction between gender and sub-sample. The UK participants were in general more intuitive (lower CSI scores) than their Egyptian and Hong Kong counterparts (see Table 3 for sub-group comparisons). There were no statistically significant differences between the Egyptian and Hong Kong participants nor were there any statistically significant differences within the Hong Kong and UK national groups (that is between UK MBA, CMS and DMS nor between the Hong Kong Counselling and Public Sector Management groups).

**Conclusion**

The two studies here present, on the face of it, contradictory findings. Study 1, which used three closely matched samples, suggested that business and management students in Greece, Egypt and the UK do not differ in their cognitive styles. The educational models in the three institutions concerned were built largely upon ‘western’ business school models and this factor may have exerted a common influence across the samples. This does not support the argument that cognitive style differences will emerge from samples drawn from different cultural groups.

In Study 2, in which the samples were less closely matched, some differences were observed. In general, the UK participants were more intuitive (lower CSI scores) than the Egyptian or the Hong Kong participants — a finding that concurs with other cross-national research (for example, Allinson and Hayes, 2000). There were statistically significant differences between the UK DMS participants (the most intuitive UK sub-sample) and the Egyptian MBA participants and between particular Hong Kong and UK sub-groups. There were no statistically significant differences between Egyptian participants and Hong Kong participants. This could be as a result of cross-cultural differences in style (Sadler-Smith et al., 2000b found Hong Kong owner managers were significantly more analytical than UK owner managers) or as a result of the sampling methods used.

If there are significant cross-cultural differences at post-graduate level, a number of issues for international post-graduate and professional development education and training are raised: (i) different national groups need to be aware of their own styles and those of other managers with whom they will come into contact; (ii) different national groups need to be aware of the impact of style differences and the ways in which these may manifest themselves in educational and training contexts; (iii) individuals of different national groups in training settings may utilise the strengths of others in the group in order that a balanced and harmonious approach to a task may be achieved. Equally, the potential implications for cross-national working are similar, and managers who take overseas assignments need to be aware of the potential impact of style differences in ways of managing.

At undergraduate level, there were no clear differences between Egypt, Greece and the UK. If these data do reflect a true lack of difference in the population, this may suggest that international business education at the undergraduate level need not take cognisance of broad style differences between different national groups; however, management educators do need to be aware of the fact that within any one group there are bound to be a range of style differences which need to be recognised and accommodated if the effectiveness of learning is to be maximised (see Riding and Sadler-Smith, 1997). Furthermore, at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels the extent differences in national culture per se are likely to be significant factors that management educators and developers need to take into account.
The findings of these studies with respect to the issue of style and national culture are ambiguous and underline the clear need for methodologically rigorous studies employing closely matched large samples in order to further explore the relationship between national culture and cognitive style.

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to Dr C.W. Allinson (Leeds University Business School) for permission to use the Cognitive Style Index in this study.

References


