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Perceptions of organizational culture, leadership effectiveness and personal effectiveness across six countries

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Abstract

Perceptions of which facets of organizational culture are related to leadership and personal effectiveness were examined using archival data from Canada, Hong Kong, New Zealand, South Africa, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Organizational culture was strongly perceived as being related to both leadership effectiveness (explaining 40% of the variance) and personal effectiveness (24% of the variance). Aspects of organizational culture that promote employee fulfillment and satisfaction were uniformly viewed as positively related to leadership and personal effectiveness. The perceived relationship across samples was stronger between organizational culture and leadership effectiveness than between organizational culture and personal effectiveness. The implications of these findings for managers are discussed.

Keywords: Organizational culture; National differences; Leadership effectiveness; Personal effectiveness

1. Introduction

As economies and industries become more global, employees are increasingly dealing with individuals who are dissimilar to them. Likewise, as organizations increasingly create business alliances with organizations whose cultures are dissimilar, employees may work with others who hold different perceptions of what constitutes effective functioning in an organization, and what relationships exist between organizational factors and workplace effectiveness. While it is recognized that organizational culture encompasses both group and individual-level processes,

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little attention has been paid to the individual-level processes involved in the creation and maintenance of an organizational culture (Harris, 1994), and how those processes and perceptions may be affected by the national cultural context in which organizations operate.

This research project utilized the perspective of organizational culture as essentially an individual perception of an organizational phenomenon (van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004), and focused on the perceptions of relationships between organizational culture and organizational outcomes at the individual level. There is evidence in the literature that organizational culture is directly linked to employee attitudes and behaviour (see for example, O'Driscoll et al., 1998), but also that intervening variables may affect the nature of this relationship (see for example, Williams & Attaway, 1996). A greater understanding of the mechanism of intervening variables in the relationship between organizational culture and organizational outcomes may enhance the degree to which it is possible to understand negative outcomes, and intervene to create more positive organizational outcomes. It has been suggested that the recent interest in organizational culture rests on the fact that organizational leaders have the ability to impact the effectiveness of an organization by exercising control over variables related to organizational culture (Marcoulides & Heck, 1993). Accordingly, this research used social cognition, or sensemaking, as an explanatory framework to examine the effect of national culture on perceived relationships between organizational culture and two outcomes: leadership effectiveness, and personal effectiveness.

2. Organizational culture and individual-level perceptions

Organizational culture has been defined as relatively stable beliefs, attitudes, and values that are held in common among organizational members (Williams, Dobson, & Walters, 1993), shared normative beliefs and shared behavioural expectations (Cooke & Szumal, 1993, 2000), or a particular set of values, beliefs, and behaviours that characterizes the way individuals and groups interact in progressing toward a common goal (Eldridge & Crombie, 1974). As such, these definitions refer to what is basically a group-level phenomenon. However, culture also encompasses individual-level phenomena, and more specifically, reflects how individuals within a given culture try to make sense of how the organization operates (Harris, 1994; van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004). This sensemaking that employees in organizations engage in refers to how individuals within an organization give meaning to what they experience at work (Weick, 1995), and therefore reflects individuals' interpretations of events and situations in organizations (Peterson & Smith, 2000). Weick, Sutcliffe, and Obstfeld (2005) point out that individuals' perceptions of situations, and the concomitant sensemaking that individuals engage in are central to both individual identity and individual choice of action. Organizational culture, viewed as shared behavioural norms, and built on individual interpretations of experience, may be seen as the result of these cognitive activities — an individual-level phenomenon (Fiske & Taylor, 1991) becoming an organizational-level phenomenon.

2.1. Organizational culture as an individual perceptual phenomenon

Hofstede, Bond, and Luk (1993) point out the necessity of being clear regarding the level of analysis used in measuring and understanding organizational culture. They note that organizational culture is assumed to be an organizational characteristic that is somehow independent of the individuals in the organization, and therefore a construct at the social systems-level. Descriptions of any organizational culture frequently result from gathering information about the organization at the individual level, from employees of the organization, and aggregating to the organization level (see, for example, Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990). These means are then assumed to

represent characteristics of the organization as a whole. It is critical, however, that the level of analysis selected for examining organizational culture and its relationship to other constructs must be carefully selected with the research question in mind (Glick, 1985; Hofstede et al., 1993; Rousseau, 1985). If, for example, a researcher is interested in the relationship between unit, or organizational, level constructs, care must be taken that the variables used in the empirical investigation clearly represent these levels of analyses, and that a level-of-analysis fallacy does not result. Examining the link between employee perceptions of organizational culture and the perception of the extent to which that culture is effective avoids issues with confusing individual-level and social systems-level approaches, as both constructs reflect individual rather than group characteristics, and both are measured exclusively at the individual level.

2.2. Social cognition and organizational culture

Organizational culture reflects the values, beliefs, and behavioural norms that are used by employees in an organization to give meaning to the situations they encounter (Trice & Beyer, 1993). According to Peterson and Smith (2000), "talking about organizational culture has become a way of talking about making sense" (p. 101). In order to make sense of one's experience, there are a number of potential sources of meaning available to individuals. Within any organization, for example, meaning ascribed to a given situation may come from the rules of the organization, the degree of formality of the organization's structures, superiors, colleagues, subordinates, or the employee himself or herself (Peterson & Smith, 2000, p. 107). Despite the varied nature of sources of meaning, however, ultimately the meaning that is ascribed to situations and events is the result of sensemaking at the individual level.

Individual perceptions of what the organization is like reflects individuals' cognitive frameworks (Sparrow & Gaston, 1996), the attributions they make for events and the relationships they see in events that occur around them. Social cognition focuses on "how people make sense of other people and themselves" (Fiske & Taylor, 1991, p. 14) while social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986) suggests that individuals make sense of people and situations by observing examples of behaviour and subsequent responses to that behaviour. Social cognition provides the mechanisms that allow culture (national and organizational) to shape ideas and attitudes (DiMaggio, 1997), while social cognitive theory provides an explanatory framework for understanding how individual sensemaking takes place in an organization.

Social cognition is multifaceted, but two core elements are attributions and schemas (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). While the major focus of attribution theory is generally on how individuals make causal judgments, other functions may be served as well. Brewin and Antaki (1987) point out that attribution also serves the purposes of labeling and description, moral evaluation and self-presentation. Additionally, Lord and Smith (1983) observed that not only are there several functions of attributions, there are different types of causal attributions. Specifically, there are attributions that function to identify the cause of an event, those that identify the responsibility for an event, and those that refer to personal qualities (e.g., leadership and trustworthiness). For example, attribution theory has addressed workplace aggression and conflict (Jockin, Avery, & McGue, 2001), management of poor performance (Linden et al., 1999), and absences from work (Judge & Martocchio, 1995).

Schemas provide a way of "encoding default assumptions" (Anderson, 2000, p. 157) that result from the sensemaking process individuals engage in related to the culture and cultural norms and expectations at social and organizational levels. They may be conceived as "mental models" that are dependent on values and goals and also influence behaviour (Ross, 2004). These schemas

govern the expectations individuals have for behavioural interactions (called "scripts"), and, in turn, how the behaviour of others is evaluated.

In fact, it is not the objective relationship between organizational culture and its outcomes that is used to determine individual actions and behaviours, but the perceived relationships. Fraser, Kick, and Barber (2002), for example, examined the relationship between organizational culture and job satisfaction in the United States Postal Service (USPS). They found a large gap between the stated USPS organizational culture and the perceptions of that culture by the organization's employees. The dissatisfaction expressed by employees was clearly the result of their perceptions of organizational cultural norms related to treatment of women and minorities. As individuals within organizations often hold schemas related to the organization that are very similar in nature, personal experiences and interactions may ultimately have the greatest impact on schema development (Balogun & Johnson, 2004). The shared nature of the schemas that develop as the result of interactions between employees results in a "shared conception of reality" (Harris, 1994, p. 313), and provides a certain amount of social order and predictability to behaviours. The similarity of these schemas are the result of common experiences, reinforcement of similar types of behaviours, and vicarious learning from the experiences of others in the same organization — the factors that social cognitive theory suggests are the keys to individual sensemaking. Organizational cultures do not operate in a vacuum, however. The social environment, including social and national cultures, also shapes sensemaking in organizations.

2.3. External effects on organizational culture

Embedded in the idea of organizational culture, then, is the assumption that within an organization individuals develop a set of shared cognitions and schemas, or mental models, of how the organization works and what it takes to be successful in the organization. Indeed, organizations operate in a social context, however, and research has highlighted several influences external to the organization that can impact organizational culture. Phillips (1994) used an ethnographic approach to examine differences in mindset between individuals employed in fine arts museums and California wineries. Distinct differences were found in assumptions related to work, including both the meaning of work and the nature of work. Hofstede et al. (1990) found that the effect of the national context on individual employees affects organizational cultures, while Kwantes and Boglarsky (2004) showed that occupation affects perspectives on desired organizational culture. Each of these influences on organizational culture may be seen to be the result of processes that occur at the individual level, as they directly result from the fact that individuals make sense of their world from what they see around them. Each of the above represent a unique set of factors that help to mould particular mindsets, or perspectives, as each setting — national, industrial, or occupational — narrows the ranges of experiences an individual has in a given organization. When an employee engages in sensemaking, he or she draws on the knowledge and experiences that he or she has been exposed to, and comes up with perspectives and conclusions that may be uniquely related to the setting in which the individual operates.

3. National culture, organizational culture and social cognition

3.1. National culture and organizational culture

While an individual may self-select into a particular industry or occupation, nationality is typically something that temporally precedes entry into an organization, and therefore may be

considered a causative factor in determining schema formation related to organizational culture. National boundaries have often been deemed poor proxies for cultural boundaries (e.g., Smith, 2004), yet, while recognizing that social cultures do not always follow national boundary lines, some theoretical basis exists for their use — especially as relates to sensemaking and the individual-level processes related to organizational culture.

Sensemaking begins with attempts to understand, and this involves the use of symbols and symbolic processes (Gioia, Thomas, Clark, & Chittipeddi, 1994). The most pervasive use of symbols in human experience is the use of language, where a particular symbol (word) has meaning related to constructs, concepts, and experiences. The use of language is critical to individual sensemaking and in constructing organizational realities (Morgan, 1986). Shared language is thus one factor that enables and gives impetus to the development of shared meaning among those who speak it. To the extent that individuals in a nation share a language, therefore, it is appropriate to speak of a national culture. Additionally, individuals within a nation share common experiences such as national traditions and holidays, and common norms and laws surrounding labour practices, such as the number of hours worked per day and the amount of vacation given in a year. Smith, Peterson, and Schwartz (2002) point out that, "each individual operates within a cultural environment in which certain values, norms, attitudes, and practices are more or less dominant and serve as shared sources of socialization and social control" (p. 192), and that national cultures perform these functions. In a 47-nation study, they found that both values and behaviours did differ between cultures, using national boundaries as the delineators of social cultures.

3.2. National culture and social cognition

As individual experiences are set in a particular social context, that context has a large effect on the range of experiences that are both observed and experienced by an individual. The "self" has been identified as a source of meaning for employees engaged in sensemaking, in that employees draw on their previous experiences and knowledge to give meaning to their socio-organizational contexts (Peterson & Smith, 2000). National culture may therefore be seen as affecting schemas related to associations between organizational factors and outcomes. Peterson and Smith (1995) note that effective organizational behaviour is likely derived from the intersection of an employee's training and the extent to which he or she assigns appropriate meanings to organizational situations. National culture has a direct effect on what is considered to be an appropriate meaning in the extent to which employees draw on their experiences as individuals acting autonomously in their environment (i.e., Markus & Kitayama's 1991 "independent self") versus drawing on internalized representations of the expectations of important other individuals and groups (i.e., Markus and Kitayama's "interdependent self") (Peterson & Smith, 2000). Thus, the sources of meaning that an individual draws on in sensemaking may be directly affected by national culture.

The effect of national culture on sensemaking may also be due to particular schema being more available or more salient than others. Individuals, behaviours, and situations are multifaceted, and the relationships between them are complicated. As a result, multiple schemas about the relationship between behaviours and their outcomes are possible. Which schema is likely to be formed and activated is influenced by national culture in a number of ways. Schemas that are established early tend to be used most frequently (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). National culture is something each individual is exposed to from birth and the relationships between individuals and events, as well as behaviour and consequences, are taught early on. Thus national culture

establishes information related to a schema that subsequently organizes information that is obtained later, as these early schemas direct attention to schema-consistent information as well as provide an organizing structure for later information. Given that social cognitive theory suggests that schema formation is dependent on the examples an individual has available, one can see that national culture has a strong effect on early schema development.

Schema activation is also based on salience and accessibility (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Individuals tend to focus on, and remember, individuals, situations, and events that are meaningful, or schema-consistent. To the extent that culture focuses an individual's attention on particular relationships between behaviour and outcome, culture affects the salience of a given schema. Additionally, social cognitive theory suggests that the availability of a given schema is dependent on culture, in that culture is a force in setting the boundaries on the types of behaviour to which one is exposed. National culture also is a limiting factor in the types of outcomes one sees as the result of behaviour. For example, in the United States, non-conformity with group norms is often tolerated, while in Japan non-conformity is punished (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

Empirical evidence supports the idea that culture and cultural context can affect schemas. For example, Thomas and Pekerti (2003) found that cultural differences between Indonesians and New Zealanders moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and outcomes, such as turnover and loyalty. The results of Robert, Probst, Martoccio, Drasgow, and Lawler's (2000) research across four countries indicated that empowerment was associated with different outcomes in different countries. In Mexico, Poland, and the United States, empowerment was associated with positive views of supervisors, while in India it was related to negative views. In Poland, empowerment had a positive effect on satisfaction with coworkers, while in India it was negative. Understanding the effect of national culture on schemas, with their resultant attitudes and organizational outcomes, is of increasing importance as business becomes more globalized.

4. Perceptions of organizational culture and effectiveness

Conceptually, the relationship between organizational culture and effectiveness is strong. As Schneider pointed out, "[organizational] culture establishes the conditions for determining internal effectiveness. It determines whether performance is effective or ineffective, and what effective and ineffective mean in the organization" (1995, p.8). Given, therefore, that social culture affects schema development in the organizational context, the meaning of effectiveness in an organization may be affected by the social culture of an employee, and therefore should be taken into account when examining employee perceptions of the link between organizational culture and effectiveness.

4.1. Employee perceptions of organizational culture

The schemas, or attributions, that employees hold are important in understanding organizational culture and its outcomes. For example, attribution theory can explain why dysfunctional cultures not only exist, but are regenerated. Cooke and Szumal (2000) outline a "misattribution of success" process. That is, when an organization becomes successful based on bountiful environments, strong franchises, or extensive patents/copyrights, and obtains an abundance of resources and assets, managers may lose sight of the core values and factors that originally led the organization to success. Although these factors may provide the managers with an environment where it is relatively easy to perform effectively, accountability and responsibility are reduced, if not eliminated. Thus, managers can "get away" with poor management techniques and in the process create a dysfunctional organizational culture. However, since the organization

may still be functioning and effective for the time being, the managers will assume that the successes are due to (or attributed to) their own behaviours and leadership and the failures are due to external factors. It is, therefore, important to understand the perceptions employees have of the relationship between organizational culture and its outcomes.

4.2. Organizational culture and effectiveness

The relationship between organizational culture and effectiveness has been receiving more attention in recent years (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Dolan & Garcia, 2002; Marcoulides & Heck, 1993; Schneider, 1995), and clearly shows a link between organizational culture and productivity. However, few empirical studies have explored the extent to which this relationship may exist outside the single nation within which they were carried out. Two exceptions to this mono-culturalism include recent examinations of the relationship between organizational culture and effectiveness in the Russian context and in the Asian context. A comparison of Russian workers employed by foreign firms with American workers in the United States resulted in different patterns of relationships between culture variables and objective measures of organizational effectiveness (Fey & Denison, 2003). Organizational culture was more highly correlated with overall performance, employee satisfaction, quality and product development in the United States than in Russia, where it was more highly correlated with market share, sales growth, and profitability. A similar approach to examining the link between organizational culture and effectiveness was used by Denison, Haaland, and Goelzer (2004), looking for correlations between twelve organizational culture factors and overall organizational effectiveness. The authors found that all twelve organizational culture factors were related to effectiveness in a sample of 169 organizations in North America, but that no correlation existed between any organizational culture factors and effectiveness in their sample of seven Asian organizations. Given the discrepancy in power in an analysis using 169 organizations and the same analysis using only seven, this conclusion should be treated with some caution, however. In addition to these examples of research seeking to link organizational culture to objective measures of organizational effectiveness, the construct has also been associated with numerous other organizational outcomes, such as employee morale (Connell, 2001), sales growth, profits (Sin & Tse, 2000), quality, employee satisfaction (Fraser et al, 2002), and overall performance (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Sorenson, 2002). In many cases these outcomes have been used as indicators of organizational effectiveness.

Very little attention has been paid, however, to organizational culture's effect on outcomes at other levels — specifically, the level of personal effectiveness. Research examining personal effectiveness in organizations has tended to focus on the degree of congruence between individual and organizational values (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989), demographic similarities or dissimilarities and organizational culture (Chatman, Polzer, & Barsade, 1998), or other aspects of person–organization fit (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). Similarly, the effect of organizational culture on leadership effectiveness has received little attention. Several theories of leadership suggest that there is an interaction between situational factors and leadership (for example, Fiedler, 1995; Fiedler & Garcia, 1987; House & Mitchell, 1997), but most research implicitly assumes that leadership creates organizational culture and ignores how organizational culture may affect leadership effectiveness.

4.3. Employee perceptions of organizational culture and effectiveness

Hofstede et al. (1993), point out that the level of analysis used in organizational culture is critical, given that organizational culture reflects a group-level construct that is based on

individual-level experiences. Following the methods suggested by Leung and Bond (1989), they suggest that any study examining individuals, groups, and social cultures, can take one of several approaches: a *pancultural analysis*, which pools data from all individuals regardless of their culture of origin, a *within-culture analysis*, examining the data within cultures independently of the other cultures in a sample, an *ecological analysis*, using aggregate responses within each culture as a proxy for a cultural measure, and an *individual analysis* which examines responses of individuals, partialing out culture-level effects.

This research attempts to extend organizational culture theory, therefore, by using social cognition as an explanatory framework to examine the effect of national culture on perceived relationships between organizational culture and two different effectiveness outcomes: leadership, and personal. Both a pancultural and a within-culture, both national and organizational, approach were used, as this research seeks to first find relationships that exist across national cultural contexts, and secondarily to examine individual perceptions of the relationship between organizational culture and effectiveness within each national context.

5. Organizational culture, leadership and personal effectiveness

5.1. Leadership effectiveness

Leadership combines both task and socioemotional orientations. There is some evidence that task and person orientations in leadership are correlated, and a meta-analysis suggests that both of these two orientations correlate with effective leadership and positive outcomes (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). Hogan and Kaiser (2005) point out that effective leadership results in individuals being willing to set aside, to an extent, their personal agendas in order to tackle tasks that move the group's agenda forward, involving both interpersonal and task competencies. It is therefore hypothesized that leadership effectiveness will be perceived as being positively related to organizational culture styles that promote employee satisfaction with their co-workers and tasks. As Chemers (2000) noted, "the successful leader is the one who provides subordinates with an atmosphere conducive to the fulfillment of the followers' personal needs and goals" (p. 37).

Hypothesis 1. Leadership effectiveness will be positively related to organizational culture styles that promote employee satisfaction and achievement and negatively related to styles of organizational culture that encourage employees to believe that they must interact with people or tasks in defensive ways in order to protect their own security and status in the organization.

5.2. Personal effectiveness

Personal effectiveness is often perceived by employees as the extent to which they have sufficiently met the task requirements of their job, or the extent of their individual productivity. The organizational environment can have a strong effect on personal effectiveness and productivity (Arthur, 1994; Donald et al., 2005). Styles of organizational culture that maximize employees' abilities to approach their tasks in ways that they perceive as constructive and fulfilling are likely, therefore, to be positively related to personal effectiveness. On the other hand, it has been shown that increased stress in the workplace tends to decrease productivity (Jamal & Baba, 1992).

Hypothesis 2. Personal effectiveness will be positively related to organizational culture styles that promote employee satisfaction and achievement, and negatively related to those aspects of

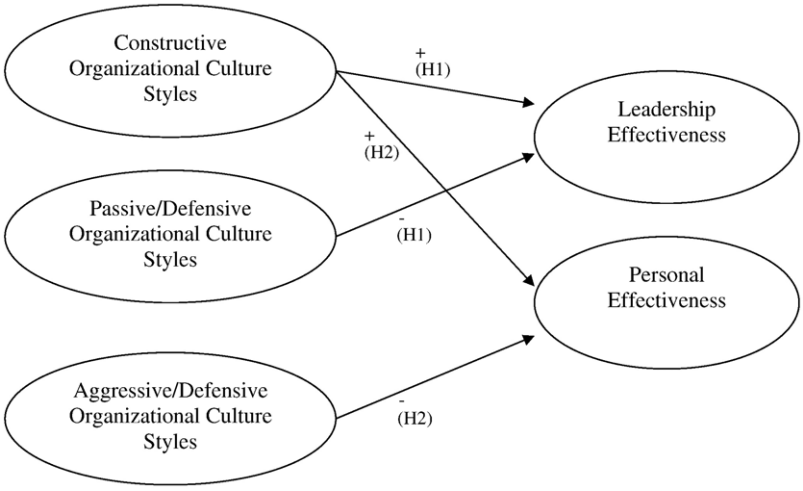

Fig. 1. Path diagram summarizing hypotheses.

organizational culture that cause an employee to expect that he or she must approach tasks in particular ways in order to protect his or her status and security.

A summary of the hypotheses may be found in Fig. 1.

6. Method

6.1. Sample

A group of 3275 respondents was selected from a larger population of employees whose *Organizational Culture Inventory®* (OCI) surveys were scored by the publisher of the inventory between 1996 and 1999. The selection criterion was based on the country within which the respondent indicated s/he was employed. For this research project, data from six countries where English is one of the official or unofficial national languages were used: Canada ($n=922$), Hong Kong ($n=391$), New Zealand ($n=746$), South Africa ($n=463$), the United Kingdom ($n=223$), and the United States ($n=530$). Due to the archival nature of the data, no demographic characteristics of the sample were available. Respondents represented a wide variety of organizations, including publishing, consulting, financial, hospitality, insurance, manufacturing and retail. Of these, manufacturing organizations formed the largest portion of the sample, with 28.5% of the respondents indicating they worked in this type of organization.

6.2. Measures

6.2.1. Organizational culture

The *Organizational Culture Inventory®* was used to measure respondents' perceptions of organizational culture[1]. There is debate in the literature regarding whether quantitative or

[1] *Organizational Culture Inventory®* is a registered trademark of Human Synergistics International, Plymouth, MI USA.

qualitative research approaches provide the best understanding of organizational culture, with some researchers favoring a qualitative approach (for example, Martin, 2002; Rosen, 1991; Sackmann, 1991) and others contributing quantitatively based instruments with which to measure aspects of organizational culture (for example, O'Reilly et al., 1991; Ashkanasy, Broadfoot, & Falkus, 2000). The quantitative approach was selected for the purposes of this research, as it provides the basis for a statistical comparison of perceived relationships between organizational culture and outcomes across national groups.

The *Organizational Culture Inventory*® (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989) focuses on 12 different sets of normative beliefs and behavioural expectations that reflect an organization's culture (see Table 1 for sample items), and was used to measure respondents' perceptions of their organizational culture. These 12 styles are defined by two underlying dimensions. The first dimension differentiates between a focus on people and a focus on tasks, and the second between higher order needs and security needs. These two dimensions provide the foundation for 12 sets of behavioural norms (see Table 2), divided into three general "clusters" or styles of organizational culture labeled Constructive, Passive/Defensive, and Aggressive/Defensive (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Cooke & Szumal, 1993, 2000; Rousseau, 1990).

A Constructive culture cluster (characterized by four styles: Achievement, Self-Actualizing, Humanistic-Encouraging, and Affiliative behavioural norms) reinforces and encourages

Table 1
Illustrative *Organizational Culture Inventory*® (OCI) Items*

Please think about the behaviors that are expected and encouraged in your organization.	Response options:
Using the response options to the right, indicate the *extent to which members are expected to:*	1. Not at all 2. To a slight extent 3. To a moderate extent 4. To a great extent 5. To a very great extent
Help others grow and develop _____ *(1) Humanistic-Encouraging*	Point out flaws _____ *(7) Oppositional*
Deal with others in a friendly way _____ *(2) Affiliative*	Build up one's power base _____ *(8) Power*
"Go along" with others _____ *(3) Approval*	Turn the job into a contest _____ *(9) Competitive*
Always follow policies and practices _____ *(4) Conventional*	Do things perfectly _____ *(10) Perfectionistic*
Please those in positions of authority _____ *(5) Dependent*	Pursue a standard of excellence _____ *(11) Achievement*
Wait for others to act first _____ *(6) Avoidance*	Think in unique and independent ways _____ *(12) Self-Actualization*

*The illustrative items are presented in an order that is different from the order in which they are presented in the OCI. Scale names and numbers are indicated in italics.

From Cooke, R.A. and Szumal, J.L. (1993). Measuring normative beliefs and shared behavioral expectations in organizations: The reliability and validity of the Organizational Culture Inventory. *Psychological Reports, 72,* 1299–1330.

Table 2
Descriptions of the 12 styles measured by the *Organizational Culture Inventory*® (OCI)*

Cluster and style	Description
Constructive norms — styles promoting satisfaction behaviors	
Achievement	Characterizes organizations that do things well and values members who set and accomplish their own goals.
Self-Actualizing	Characterizes organizations that value creativity, quality over quantity, and both task accomplishment and individual growth.
Humanistic-Encouraging	Characterizes organizations that are managed in a participative and people-centered way.
Affiliative	Characterizes organizations that place high priority on constructive interpersonal relationships.
Passive/defensive norms — styles promoting people-security behaviors	
Approval	Characterizes organizations in which conflicts are avoided and interpersonal relationships are pleasant — at least superficially.
Conventional	Characterizes organizations that are conservative, traditional, and bureaucratically controlled.
Dependent	Characterizes organizations that are hierarchically controlled and non-participative.
Avoidance	Characterizes organizations that fail to reward success but nevertheless punish mistakes.
Aggressive/defensive norms — styles promoting task-security behaviors	
Oppositional	Characterizes organizations in which confrontation prevails and negativity is rewarded.
Power	Characterizes non-participative organizations structured on the basis of the authority inherent in members' positions.
Competitive	Characterizes organizations in which winning is valued and members are rewarded for "out-performing" one another.
Perfectionistic	Characterizes organizations in which perfection, persistence, and intolerance for mistakes are valued.

*From Organizational Culture Inventory by R.A. Cooke and J.C. Lafferty, (1989), Plymouth, MI: Human Synergistics. Research and Development by Robert J. Cooke, PhD and J. Clayton Lafferty, PhD Copyright 1973–2006 by Human Synergistics International. Used by permission.

organizational members to "interact with *people* and approach *tasks* in ways that will help them to meet their higher-order satisfaction needs" (Cooke & Szumal, 2000, p. 148). The Achievement style reflects an organizational culture where completing tasks well is valued, and employees are encouraged to set and accomplish their own goals. The Self-Actualizing style reflects an emphasis on creativity and quality. Similar to the Achievement style, both individual growth and task accomplishment are valued. The Humanistic-Encouraging style characterizes a culture that is person-centered and involves employee participation in decision-making. The Affiliative style indicates a culture that places a high priority on appropriate and constructive relationships among employees. This general type of organizational culture style has been shown to result in both high satisfaction and high productivity in the workplace (Cooke, 1989; Cooke & Szumal, 2000).

The organizational cultural styles represented in the Passive/Defensive cluster of the OCI are Approval, Conventional, Dependent, and Avoidance. An organizational culture typified by the Approval style is a culture where individuals strive to keep interpersonal relationships pleasant, at least on the surface, by avoiding conflicts. The Conventional style of organizational culture characterizes organizations that have strong bureaucratic control, and emphasize conservatism and traditionalism. An organization that is hierarchically controlled and discourages input from employees typifies the Dependent style of organizational culture. Behaviours exemplifying the Avoidance style may be seen in organizations where mistakes are punished and success is not rewarded.

The Oppositional, Power, Competitive, and Perfectionistic styles comprise the Aggressive/Defensive cluster. The Oppositional style reflects patterns of behaviour where negativity and confrontation in interactions occur frequently and are expected. An organizational culture where the Power style is predominant results in employees working to build up their power base by controlling subordinates and acceding to the demands of supervisors. When an organizational culture constructs a win/lose situation for employees, employees compete against each other and operate on the belief that to do well they must win at another's expense. This typifies the Competitive organizational culture style. When an organization emphasizes the Perfectionistic style, employees know that mistakes will not be tolerated, that attention to detail, and hard work toward very narrowly defined objectives are expected. Means, standard deviations and Cronbach alphas for the organizational culture measures may be found in Table 3.

6.2.2. Leadership effectiveness

Leadership effectiveness encompasses numerous factors. The Ohio State and University of Michigan studies identified task facilitation and consideration as critical antecedents to effective leadership (Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Szumal, 2001). The present research used these factors as well as team emphasis and communication of standards of excellence and a common goal as indicators of how effective leadership is in the organizations. Participants were asked to respond to statements similar to "My manager clearly communicates our organization's goals" using a seven-point Likert scale format to indicate the extent to which they agreed with each statement.

Task facilitation refers to leadership that is aimed at aiding employees in doing their work by helping them solve problems and implement better procedures for completing work. In conjunction with that, consideration was defined as the extent to which leaders are supportive of subordinates in the organization. Team emphasis was defined as the extent to which leaders in an organization encourage employees to interact with each other in cooperative and supportive ways. Communication provides another benchmark of effective leadership to the extent that leaders set standards of excellence and communicate these expectations to employees. Finally, effective leadership must reinforce an organization's vision and mission, clearly defining and communicating it to employees.

6.2.3. Personal effectiveness

While some measures of personal effectiveness may include measures of productivity, not all jobs lend themselves to quantitative assessment of a specific output. Attitudes of employees toward their job and work environment have been identified as related to effectiveness, and resulting from organizational culture (e.g., Cooke & Szumal, 1993, 2000; Szumal, 2001). For this research, personal effectiveness was defined as employees sense of direction and goal-oriented behaviours, beliefs related to the degree to which employees have control over what happens to them, the degree to which employees feel they can trust others, and their general outlook toward the future. These aspects of personal effectiveness reflect an emphasis on both productivity and psychological well-being — both of which are thought to be important indicators of employee effectiveness at the individual level (Donald et al., 2005). Participants indicated the extent to which they agreed with statements similar to "I will do well at this organization if I work hard," using a seven-point Likert scale. Means, standard deviations, and Cronbach alphas for each of the effectiveness measures may be found in Table 4.

6.2.4. Construct equivalence

Addressing construct equivalence across national cultures is critical in cross-cultural work. Cross-cultural research certainly has complexity issues beyond work in a single cultural context. While it has been noted that it is virtually impossible to have perfect construct equivalence (Peng, Peterson, & Shyi,

Table 3
Means and SDs for organizational culture

	Canada			Hong Kong			New Zealand			South Africa			United Kingdom			United States		
	M	SD	alpha	M	SD	alpha	M	SD	alpha	M	SD	alpha	M	SD	alpha	M	SD	alpha
Constructive	26.40[a]	4.95	.90	26.54ab	4.52	.86	27.88c	5.49	.91	30.75d	5.59	.92	27.67bc	4.78	.88	27.38abc	5.46	.91
Achievement	27.72[ab]	4.98	.81	26.80a	5.12	.79	28.61ab	5.64	.83	30.96c	5.49	.87	27.75ab	4.96	.78	28.11b	5.81	.86
Self-Actualizing	24.01[a]	5.38	.79	25.89bc	4.76	.74	25.57bc	5.92	.80	29.35d	5.62	.79	24.77ab	5.33	.76	24.84ab	5.60	.79
Humanistic-Encouraging	25.76[a]	6.23	.90	25.07a	6.46	.90	27.77b	6.63	.90	30.95	7.17	.93	27.58b	6.29	.90	27.49b	6.61	.91
Affiliative	27.12[a]	5.96	.89	28.38ab	5.06	.81	29.59abc	6.65	.90	31.76d	6.65	.92	30.47cd	5.80	.88	29.11abc	6.55	.91
Passive/Defensive	22.07a	5.10	.89	24.6b	2.99	.62	21.81a	5.04	.87	22.00a	4.63	.86	21.30a	5.02	.87	22.05a	5.30	.90
Approval	21.76bc	5.25	.79	23.14d	4.09	.58	20.92ab	5.95	.81	22.16cd	5.59	.76	20.34a	5.32	.76	21.33abc	5.48	.80
Conventional	24.31a	6.04	.86	28.54b	4.62	.68	23.89a	6.09	.80	24.55a	5.46	.75	24.57a	6.29	.83	24.14a	6.10	.84
Dependent	24.29ab	6.05	.85	24.88b	4.19	.47	25.14b	5.70	.78	23.44a	5.64	.75	23.16a	5.99	.82	24.86b	6.04	.83
Avoidance	17.91a	6.14	.87	21.89b	4.63	.69	17.31a	6.14	.84	17.85a	5.46	.76	17.07a	6.23	.85	17.89a	6.46	.87
Aggressive/Defensive	20.69bc	4.60	.84	21.51c	3.60	.71	20.45b	4.77	.83	23.23d	3.95	.76	19.27a	4.18	.79	20.48b	4.68	.84
Oppositional	18.63ab	4.63	.73	20.53c	4.24	.59	19.33b	4.87	.68	22.64d	4.48	.59	17.98a	4.19	.58	18.32ab	4.86	.74
Power	20.14abc	6.08	.84	20.43bc	5.50	.73	19.30ab	6.39	.83	21.13c	5.71	.77	18.97a	5.66	.80	20.36bc	6.41	.84
Competitive	19.54b	6.19	.85	20.49b	5.34	.77	19.20b	6.53	.84	23.11c	5.53	.74	16.11a	6.11	.87	19.73b	6.19	.84
Perfectionistic	24.47a	5.26	.77	24.58a	4.30	.65	23.92a	5.63	.76	26.06b	4.84	.70	23.99a	5.23	.74	23.53a	5.20	.75

Note: Means in the same row that share subscripts were not significantly different at $p < .05$ in the Scheffe post-hoc comparison, and belonged to the same homogeneous subset.

Table 4
Means and SDs for effectiveness

	Canada			Hong Kong			New Zealand			South Africa			United Kingdom			United States		
	M	SD	alpha	M	SD	alpha	M	SD	alpha	M	SD	alpha	M	SD	alpha	M	SD	alpha
Leadership effectiveness	3.42a	.75	.83	3.25b	.84	.90	3.60c	.90	.89	3.92	.82	.90	3.46abce	.82	.82	3.47ace	.83	.86
Personal effectiveness	3.90a	.50	.79	3.36	.52	.77	3.88ab	.54	.80	3.92abc	.62	.85	3.90abcd	.50	.76	3.99acd	.53	.80

Note: Means in the same row that share subscripts were not significantly different at $p<.05$ in the Scheffe post-hoc comparison, and belonged to the same homogeneous subset.

1991), some form of assessing construct equivalence is necessary. When the instruments used in cross-cultural research are given in the same language in which they were developed, metric equivalence is typically high (see Liu, Borg, & Spector, 2004). Given the within-country analysis approach of this research, and the fact that the language of all the instruments was in English, measurement equivalence may be determined to be a sufficient proxy for construct equivalence. All Cronbach alphas for the measures used in this research were in the acceptable range within each national context.

7. Results

7.1. Measurement equivalence

Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted in order to determine the extent to which the organizational culture measure was invariant across national samples. Comparative Fit Indices (CFIs), Normed Fit Indices (NFIs) and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximations (RMSEAs) are reported in Table 5. When a discrepancy existed between the indices, the CFI was used as the determinant of fit, as this fit index is considered to be the most relevant to comparison of multiple samples (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). This fit index indicated a good fit for all samples and all measures.

7.2. Overall findings

In order to compare the perceptions of organizational cultures in each country, a profile analysis (repeated measures ANOVA) of national group members' perceptions of organizational cultural styles compared overall patterns (Bray, Maxwell, & Cole, 1995; Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001). Nation (Canada, Hong Kong, New Zealand, South Africa, United Kingdom, and United States) served as the between-subjects factor and three clusters of organizational cultural styles (Constructive, Passive/Defensive, and Aggressive/Defensive) served as the within-subjects factor. A profile analysis may be conceptualized as a completely crossed factorial design (Bray et al., 1995), and allows researchers to investigate three aspects of profiles. The first aspect is an assessment of flatness of the profiles, which is equivalent to testing the main effect of cultural styles in a factorial design. The second aspect involves an assessment of levels, or the average elevation, of the profiles for each national category, which is equivalent to testing the main effect of nation in a factorial design. Finally, the question of the parallel nature of the profiles may be assessed, testing the interaction of nation and organizational cultural styles.

The main effect of organizational cultural styles resulted in profiles that were not flat, significant using Wilks' Lambda, $F(2, 3239)=1386.56$, $p<.001$, $\eta^2=.46$. There were significant differences in mean expressed perceptions of levels for different styles, collapsed across nations. The levels test

showed differences between nations on the organizational culture styles ($F(5,3240)=47.34$, $p<.001$, $\eta^2=.07$) indicating that a main effect for nation existed. The profiles of organizational culture for each nation were significantly different in terms of the degree of expressed perceptions of organizational culture styles as a whole. A post-hoc with Scheffe adjustment indicated that the profile for participants from Hong Kong and from South Africa were unique, and significantly different from the profiles from all other nations (see Fig. 2).

An assessment was made using Wilks' Lambda of the extent to which the profiles of organizational culture for each nation were parallel to each other in order to determine if an interaction existed between the main effects. An interaction was found between nation and the styles of organizational culture, Wilks' Lambda = .655, $F(10,6478)=43.24$, $p<.001$, $\eta^2=.06$, indicating that while responses related to the levels of the styles differed by nation, the patterns of these responses also differed. The results of the profile analysis, therefore, indicated that in each country, the Constructive cluster of organizational styles was perceived more strongly than the Passive/Defensive or the Aggressive/Defensive clusters.

7.3. Hypothesis 1

To examine if organizational culture styles that encourage employees to believe that they must interact with people or tasks in defensive ways in order to protect their own security and status in the organization lead to negative evaluations of the effectiveness of a leader, leadership effectiveness was hierarchically regressed on the country dummy variables, then on each of the three organizational culture style clusters. As hypothesized, the Constructive cluster positively predicted leadership effectiveness, and the Aggressive/Defensive negatively predicted effectiveness (see Table 6). The equation including only the cultural context was significant, but adding in the organizational culture variables significantly added to the equation's predictive ability, with 40% of the variance in perceptions of leadership effectiveness explained by both national context and organizational culture.

Adding the interaction terms to the equation produced a small, but significant increase in the equation's ability to predict leadership effectiveness ($\Delta R^2=.013$, $p<.01$). Accordingly, post-hoc regression analyses were run for each national context. In each case, the regression equation was significant, predicting between 28% (United Kingdom) and 50% (South Africa) of the variance in perceptions of leadership effectiveness. As hypothesized, the Constructive cluster of organizational culture styles positively predicted perceptions of leadership effectiveness. In five of the national contexts, the Aggressive/Defensive cluster of organizational culture styles significantly and negatively predicted leadership effectiveness perceptions. The only exception to this was the United States, where only the Passive/Defensive cluster of styles was seen as negatively related to leadership effectiveness (see Table 7).

7.4. Hypothesis 2

A hierarchical regression was also used to test the second hypothesis, that an organizational culture which causes employees to expect that they must approach their tasks in ways that protect their status and preserve their security are likely to be viewed as negatively related to personal effectiveness. Country dummy codes were entered into the first step, then organizational culture clusters in the second step of the equation. Hypothesis 2 was partially supported in that the Constructive styles of organizational culture were positively related to personal effectiveness. However, contrary to the hypothesis, the Passive/Defensive styles were unrelated while Aggressive/Defensive styles were negatively related to perceptions of personal effectiveness (see Table 8). The equation with national contexts alone was significant, although adding the organizational culture

Table 5
Summary of fit indices for confirmatory factor analyses

	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
Canada			
Constructive culture	.990	.991	.103
Passive/defensive culture	.983	.983	.137
Aggressive/defensive culture	.983	.984	.116
Leadership effectiveness	.997	.999	.019
Personal effectiveness	.973	.975	.125
Hong Kong			
Constructive culture	.976	.978	.143
Passive/defensive culture	.988	.996	.035
Aggressive/defensive culture	.929	.933	.186
Leadership effectiveness	.996	1.00	.014
Personal effectiveness	.965	.968	.143
New Zealand			
Constructive culture	.992	.993	.092
Passive/defensive culture	.974	.975	.153
Aggressive/defensive culture	.986	.987	.100
Leadership effectiveness	.987	.989	.083
Personal effectiveness	.976	.978	.123
South Africa			
Constructive culture	.993	.994	.091
Passive/defensive culture	.989	.992	.087
Aggressive/defensive culture	.994	.998	.029
Leadership effectiveness	.990	.993	.070
Personal effectiveness	.970	.972	.163
United Kingdom			
Constructive culture	.980	.984	.126
Passive/defensive culture	.957	.961	.193
Aggressive/defensive culture	.986	.992	.074
Leadership effectiveness	.988	.996	.042
Personal effectiveness	.977	.985	.087
United States			
Constructive culture	.991	.992	.104
Passive/defensive culture	.978	.979	.165
Aggressive/defensive culture	.975	.977	.136
Leadership effectiveness	.996	.999	.022
Personal effectiveness	.989	.991	.076

variables into the equation significantly boosted the amount of explained variance, with the full equation explaining 24% of the variance in perceptions of personal effectiveness.

The interaction terms, when added to the equation, produced a small but significant increase in the amount of variability in personal effectiveness that the regression equation was able to explain ($\Delta R^2 = .021$, $p < .01$). In order to examine differences between national context and perceptions of the relationship between organizational culture and personal effectiveness, post-hoc within-country regressions were also run. In each case the equations were significant, predicting between 9% (Canada) and 35% (South Africa) of the variance in the criterion. In each national context, the Constructive styles of organizational culture positively predicted perceptions of personal effectiveness. Similarly, the Aggressive/Defensive cluster negatively predicted these perceptions in all national contexts. In five of the contexts, the Passive/Defensive cluster made no unique

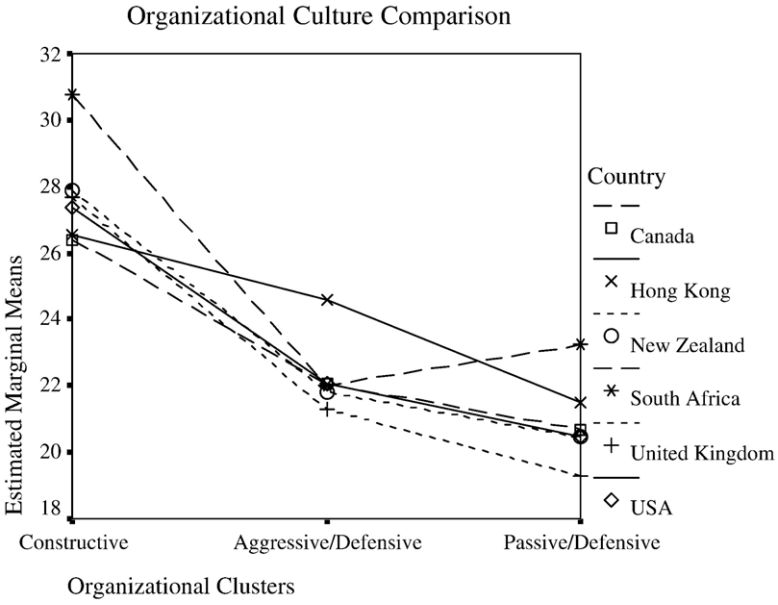

Fig. 2. Perceptions of current organizational culture.

contribution to predicting these perceptions, although the relationship was in the expected direction. Only in South Africa did this cluster predict (negatively) perceptions of personal effectiveness (see Table 9).

8. Discussion

Overall, the results of this research provide strong support for the idea that organizational culture is related to leadership and personal effectiveness. Across all national samples in this research, aspects of organizational culture that enhance employees' ability to gain intrinsic satisfaction from their job were positively related to both types of effectiveness. Similarly, aspects of organizational culture that encourage confrontation, competitiveness, and power seeking were negatively related to leadership and personal effectiveness.

8.1. Potential issues in cross-cultural research

Before discussing the specific findings of this research, it is important to note some potential issues in cross-cultural research in general, and how they might affect the findings in this study.

8.1.1. Response bias

One of the potential problems with cross-cultural research, is the fact that responses may reflect cultural response sets, that is, "systematic tendencies to respond differently to scales across cultures" (Gelfand, Raver, & Erhart, 2002, p. 237). Possible cultural response sets include the systematic use of the high or the low ends of the response spectrum. The profile analysis used provided a check for differences in response patterns that previous research has found between

Table 6
Summary of regression analysis for variables predicting leadership effectiveness across national samples

Variable	*B*	SE	*β*	R^2	ΔR^2
Step One				.051**	
Canada Dummy Code	−.054	.045	−.119		
Hong Kong Dummy Code	−.223	.055	−.086**		
New Zealand Dummy Code	.125	.047	.062**		
South Africa Dummy Code	.450	.052	.186**		
United Kingdom Dummy Code	−.015	.066	−.004		
Step Two				.401**	.350**
Canada Dummy Code	.038	.036	.020		
Hong Kong Dummy Code	−.114	.044	−.044*		
New Zealand Dummy Code	.078	.037	.039*		
South Africa Dummy Code	.214	.044	.088**		
United Kingdom Dummy Code	−.071	.053	−.021		
Constructive	.089	.002	.568**		
Passive/Defensive	−.004	.004	−.022		
Aggressive/Defensive	−.023	.004	−.126**		
Step Three				.414**	.013**
Canada Dummy Code	.073	.307	.039		
Hong Kong Dummy Code	−1.143	.451	−.552**		
New Zealand Dummy Code	−.800	.297	−.398**		
South Africa Dummy Code	−1.230	.362	−.509**		
United Kingdom Dummy Code	.652	.462	.194		
Constructive	−.073	.006	.469**		
Passive/Defensive	−.025	.009	−.145**		
Aggressive/Defensive	−.007	.009	−.036		
Canada × Constructive	−.003	.007	−.043		
Canada × Passive/Defensive	.015	.011	.189		
Canada × Aggressive/Defensive	−.016	.012	−.175		
Hong Kong × Constructive	−.042	.009	.281		
Hong Kong × Passive/Defensive	−.029	.015	.432**		
Hong Kong × Aggressive/Defensive	−.023	.014	−.189		
New Zealand × Constructive	.028	.007	−.179		
New Zealand × Passive/Defensive	.021	.011	.233		
New Zealand × Aggressive/Defensive	−.017	.012	.396**		
South Africa × Constructive	.031	.008	.402**		
South Africa × Passive/Defensive	.041	.014	.381**		
South Africa × Aggressive/Defensive	−.017	.015	−.170		
United Kingdom × Constructive	−.086	.011	−.273*		
United Kingdom × Passive/Defensive	.020	.016	.128		
United Kingdom × Aggressive/Defensive	−.047	.018	−.072		

Note: *indicates $p < .05$ **indicates $p < .01$.

national samples. In this research, respondents from Hong Kong and from South Africa had profiles of organizational culture styles that were very different from respondents in the other countries. If this had been due only to a response bias, the main effect of country would have been significant while the interaction would have been non-significant. While this does not completely rule out some cultural response set bias, the fact that an interaction was found suggests that the effect of any such bias, if present, had minimal effect on the outcomes in this study. The uniqueness of the responses from South Africa and from Hong Kong, therefore, likely reflect real differences in views of the norms and behaviours that an effective organizational culture constitutes rather than reflecting a measurement artifact.

Table 7
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis for variables predicting leadership effectiveness within national samples

Variables	*B*	SE	*β*	R^2
Canada				
Constructive	.071	.005	.468**	.314**
Passive/Defensive	−.009	.007	−.064	
Aggressive/Defensive	−.022	.007	−.137**	
Hong Kong				
Constructive	.115	.008	.620**	.401**
Passive/Defensive	−.005	.013	−.016	
Aggressive/Defensive	−.029	.011	−.123**	
New Zealand				
Constructive	.101	.005	.620**	.426**
Passive/Defensive	−.004	.008	−.064	
Aggressive/Defensive	−.024	.008	−.126**	
South Africa				
Constructive	.105	.005	.715**	.499**
Passive/Defensive	−.012	.009	−.090	
Aggressive/Defensive	−.024	.010	−.116*	
United Kingdom				
Constructive	.065	.011	.380**	.279**
Passive/Defensive	−.052	.015	−.032	
Aggressive/Defensive	−.053	.017	−.271**	
United States				
Constructive	.074	.006	.484**	.333**
Passive/Defensive	−.025	.009	−.159**	
Aggressive/Defensive	−.007	.010	−.038	

Note: *indicates $p<.05$ ** indicates $p<.01$.

8.1.2. Metric equivalence

A fundamental question in comparative cross-cultural research is the extent to which any given construct developed and originally measured in one national culture can exist and operate similarly in another cultural context (see Gelfand et al., 2002; van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). In a study that explicitly examined measurement equivalence of a job satisfaction measure across national contexts, Liu et al. (2004) examined the effects of both language and culture on the German Job Satisfaction Survey. They clustered the 15 countries and areas their sample came from into four cultural groups based on Schwartz's (1992) cultural model. Their findings indicate that measurement equivalence is particularly high when an instrument is used with groups where the language and culture are similar to the language and cultural context within which the instrument was developed.

8.2. Organizational culture and leadership effectiveness

Organizational culture was viewed as being related to leadership effectiveness, with the strongest perceived relationship in South Africa, with organizational culture explaining 50% of the

Table 8
Summary of regression analysis for variables predicting personal effectiveness across national samples

Variable	*B*	SE	*β*	R^2	ΔR^2
Step One				.105**	
Canada Dummy Code	−.085	.029	−.067**		
Hong Kong Dummy Code	−.625	.036	−.360**		
New Zealand Dummy Code	−.109	.031	−.081**		
South Africa Dummy Code	−.064	.034	−.039		
United Kingdom Dummy Code	−.088	.043	−.039*		
Step Two				.236**	.132**
Canada Dummy Code	−.053	.027	−.042		
Hong Kong Dummy Code	−.570	.033	−.328**		
New Zealand Dummy Code	−.128	.028	−.095**		
South Africa Dummy Code	−.113	.033	−.070**		
United Kingdom Dummy Code	−.126	.040	−.056**		
Constructive	.031	.002	.291**		
Passive/Defensive	−.003	.003	−.030		
Aggressive/Defensive	−.020	.003	−.161**		
Step Three				.258	.021**
Canada Dummy Code	.318	.232	.251		
Hong Kong Dummy Code	−.966	.340	−.556**		
New Zealand Dummy Code	.322	.224	.239		
South Africa Dummy Code	−.300	.273	−.185		
United Kingdom Dummy Code	.494	.354	.218		
Constructive	.030	.004	.285**		
Passive/Defensive	.002	.007	.021		
Aggressive/Defensive	−.018	.007	−.147*		
Canada × Constructive	−.011	.006	−.235		
Canada × Passive/Defensive	−.009	.009	−.163		
Canada × Aggressive/Defensive	.006	.009	.096		
Hong Kong × Constructive	.019	.007	.292**		
Hong Kong × Passive/Defensive	−.007	.012	−.101		
Hong Kong × Aggressive/Defensive	.002	.010	.031		
New Zealand × Constructive	−.006	.005	−.130		
New Zealand × Passive/Defensive	−.001	.009	−.016		
New Zealand × Aggressive/Defensive	−.013	.009	−.198		
South Africa × Constructive	.023	.006	.437**		
South Africa × Passive/Defensive	−.021	.010	−.297*		
South Africa × Aggressive/Defensive	−.002	.011	−.025		
United Kingdom × Constructive	−.012	.009	−.147		
United Kingdom × Passive/Defensive	−.007	.012	−.065		
United Kingdom × Aggressive/Defensive	−.007	,014	−.064		

Note: *indicates $p < .05$ **indicates $p < .01$.

variance in leadership effectiveness; the weakest was in the United Kingdom, with organizational culture explaining only 28% of the variance. In this research project, the respondents in all the countries agreed that effective leadership is tied with characteristics of organizational culture that enhance individual employees' abilities. Aspects of organizational culture that encourage controlling and competitive behaviours were viewed as negatively related to leadership effectiveness, while those aspects that encourage disengagement and lack of conflict were, overall, not viewed as significantly related to leadership effectiveness.

Some differences across national contexts emerged, and were not unexpected, as leadership itself has been identified as a construct that is affected by culture in previous research (House,

Table 9
Summary of hierarchical regression analysis for variables predicting personal effectiveness within national samples

Variable	*B*	SE	*β*	R^2
Canada				
Constructive	.019	.004	.187**	.087**
Passive/Defensive	−.007	.005	−.067	
Aggressive/Defensive	−.012	.006	−.115**	
Hong Kong				
Constructive	.048	.005	.425**	.205**
Passive/Defensive	−.005	.009	−.027	
Aggressive/Defensive	−.016	.007	−.110**	
New Zealand				
Constructive	.024	.003	.243**	.139**
Passive/Defensive	.001	.006	.013	
Aggressive/Defensive	−.031	.006	−.273**	
South Africa				
Constructive	.053	.004	.476**	.345**
Passive/Defensive	−.019	.008	−.142*	
Aggressive/Defensive	−.020	.009	−.128*	
United Kingdom				
Constructive	.018	.007	.174*	.113**
Passive/Defensive	−.043	.010	−.044	
Aggressive/Defensive	−.026	.011	−.215*	
United States				
Constructive	.030	.004	.306**	.129**
Passive/Defensive	.002	.007	.024	
Aggressive/Defensive	−.018	.007	−.161*	

Note: *indicates $p<.05$ **indicates $p<.01$.

Wright, & Aditya, 1997; van de Vliert, 2006). Similarly, the argument has been made that effective leaders are ones that create organizational environments that are conducive to employees meeting their own needs and goals — needs and goals that result, at least in part, from culturally socialized values (Chemers, 2000). Social cognitive theory suggests that perceptions of leadership may be the result of the use of leadership prototypes. Leadership categorization theory (Lord, Foti, & DeVader, 1984) suggests that subordinates hold prototypes of what a leader should be, and that perceptions of leadership effectiveness are based on a comparison of the behaviours that employees observe with these leadership prototypes. The development of these leadership prototypes is dependent on the experiences and examples available to individuals, and is therefore context-dependent (Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001). A large part of that context is, of course, shaped by the culture of the subordinate, both in terms of what is experienced as the behavioural norms for leaders, and also for the range of leadership examples available in that culture.

Aggressive/Defensive organizational cultural norms are ones that tend to emphasize getting things done, but emphasizing short-term goals (for example, laying people off to make the quarterly sales goals) as opposed to getting things done to promote long-term effectiveness (e.g. taking a quarterly loss due to training but thereby making the sales force stronger for the future). The negative

link between Aggressive/Defensive organizational cultural norms and leadership effectiveness, then, may be strongest in societies where "some action" is not necessarily preferable to "no action", and due to the perspective that these norms often reflect short-sightedness rather than effectiveness. In the American sample, however, there was no perceived relationship between Aggressive/Defensive organizational cultural norms and leader effectiveness. This could be due to the perspective that more immediate actions and decisions are expected, and that short-term thinking and successes are rewarded and valued, even though they are short term. On the other hand, in the American context, the Passive/Defensive organizational cultural norms were significantly and negatively related to leadership effectiveness. In strongly individualistic contexts such as the United States, Passive/Defensive organizational cultural norms may be seen as reflecting an attitude of "it's up to the individual to get things done." Passive/Defensive organizational cultures, however, promote waiting rather than doing, therefore things don't get done. Leadership without more immediate action is likely to be viewed more frequently as ineffective (see Gerstner & Day, 1994, for a description of prototypical leaders in the United States).

An additional factor related to culture and perceptions of leadership effectiveness is that the source of information related to the basis for effective leadership is likely to vary in different cultural contexts. Research indicates that in an individualistic cultural context, perceptions of effectiveness are based on a comparison of the perception of leadership behaviours and implicit leadership prototypes, while in collectivistic contexts they are based on the degree to which the group or organization has positive performance outcomes (Ensari & Murphy, 2003). The fact that the sample from the United States responded differently than the samples from other countries may be due to the extreme individualism of American culture combined with a low acceptance of power differentials in the workplace (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). This would affect both the leadership prototype that has developed in the American cultural context, but also in the reliance on that prototype as a standard for leadership rather than any actual outcomes of the leadership.

8.3. Organizational culture and personal effectiveness

The relationship between organizational culture and personal effectiveness was strongest in South Africa, with organizational culture explaining 35% of the variance, and the weakest relationship was in Canada, where organizational culture was perceived to account for only 9% of the variance in personal effectiveness. Overall, the aspects of organizational culture that enhance employee satisfaction and achievement were perceived as positively related and the aspects that promote competitive and controlling behaviours as negatively related to personal effectiveness. Organizational cultural norms that emphasize passivity and lack of conflict were not viewed as significantly related to employee effectiveness at the personal level.

Schneider (1995) suggests that employee effectiveness is fundamentally the result of organizational culture. The finding that organizational norms promoting productive employee behaviours leads to higher levels of goal orientation, self-control, and trust in the organization and fellow employees was expected. This sort of culture is termed a "collaboration culture" by Schneider, and he suggests that the emphasis on harmony, affiliation and teamwork sets the stage for maximum involvement by employees. Schneider further suggests that this involvement reflects a strong identification with the organization and a willingness to go above and beyond the job description in order to make an effective contribution toward the organization's goals. This idea is supported in literature that indicates that employees who engage in these behaviours have better performance and higher productivity and job effectiveness (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991, 1993; MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Paine, 1999).

Since the Constructive aspects of organizational culture encourage individuals to find ways to improve themselves, and to find satisfaction in their work, the fact that they were perceived to be positively related to personal effectiveness and productivity was not surprising. The perceived relationship between aspects of culture that promote defensive behaviours on the part of employee and personal effectiveness was a bit more complicated, however, as participants indicated that only certain types of defensive behavioural norms were related to effectiveness at the personal level. The Passive/Defensive aspects of organizational culture were negatively related to personal effectiveness, but the Aggressive/Defensive aspects showed no relationship with personal effectiveness, with the exception of South Africa where it was negatively related to personal effectiveness. The relationship in South Africa, however, although statistically significant, was weak enough to question its practical significance, suggesting that in all six national contexts, personal effectiveness was functionally related only to the Constructive and the Passive/Defensive aspects of organizational culture.

Behavioural norms that emphasize aggressive action in organizations emphasize completing tasks, but often in a manner that is detrimental to personal effectiveness. For example, an individual employee may cut corners in order to complete a sale, even though that impacts upon the level of trust in future interactions. On the other hand, behavioural norms that emphasize passivity in organizations result in pressure on employees to please others and avoid conflict even at the costs of productivity. This passive mode, although superficially harmonious, is generally not conducive to innovation, flexibility and productivity. In fact, these organizational cultural norms promote person/role conflict, low motivation and high intention to leave (Szumal, 2003). Generally speaking, there was no relationship between these Passive/Defensive norms and perceptions of personal effectiveness. This may reflect the fact that this aspect of organizational culture emphasizes getting along and harmonious relationships, although at the cost of productivity. This may mean being a "team player" but really not producing anything or completing a task does not always lead to positive or negative evaluations of personal effectiveness. The only exception to the perception that these Passive/Defensive organizational cultural norms are negatively related to personal effectiveness came from the South African sample, suggesting that those aspects of organizational culture where employees sense that they must be defensive in the way they interact with others in the workplace are seen as particularly negatively related to individual employee effectiveness.

9. Limitations and future research

Although the organizations used in these analyses were self-selected (i.e., part of an organizational change initiative) and therefore not necessarily representative of organizations in the countries in which they preside, the results of the research were quite clear. Employees do view a strong link between organizational culture and effectiveness at the organizational, leadership, and personal levels. The results strongly suggest that managers, regardless of the locale of the organization, should (1) strive to endorse and increase aspects of organizational culture that aid employees in achieving their goals, and in developing satisfying work and (2) minimize those aspects of organizational culture that develop defensive reactions in employees — especially those reactions where employees feel they need to deal with work tasks in protective ways (e.g., not taking chances, keeping information away from competitors internal to the organization).

The results of this research therefore provide important indications regarding schemas related to workplace effectiveness, along with evidence for some cultural variations in those schemas, however, some limitations exist that should be mentioned and that could be addressed in future research. The data used in this research were cross-sectional and self-reported, and came from a

database of organizations that were actively involved in addressing issues related to organizational culture. Future research examining both the universals of employee expectations across cultures, but also particularistic expectations within cultures should focus on a more randomly selected sample of organizations within each country of interest. Additionally, the countries represented in this research were limited to those where the first language, or *lingua franca*, of employees was English. Research using instruments in languages that can reach a wider variety of cultural contexts is certainly warranted in order to determine whether or not the general findings from this research may be extrapolated to contexts where other languages are used.

Additionally, this research focused on the link between employee perceptions of organizational culture and their perceptions of effectiveness. More objective indicators of effectiveness could be employed to add to an understanding of the relationship between organizational culture and effectiveness measured in a more objective manner. Indeed, while organizational culture was shown to have a strong effect on perceptions of effectiveness, more fully developed models should be developed related to other variables and organizational practices that affect both the perceptions of effectiveness, and of effectiveness measured using more objective criteria.

The contribution of this research, however, is the use of multiple levels of effectiveness. Research using objective measures of effectiveness has typically been conducted only at the organizational level, yet, for an organization to be effective, individual employees and leaders must also be effective. Future research should build on the findings of this paper and develop and test more comprehensive models of leadership and personal effectiveness.

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