ABSTRACT

Title: AN ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE PERSPECTIVE ON ROLE EMERGENCE AND ROLE ENACTMENT

Sophia V. Marinova, Doctor of Philosophy, 2005

Directed By: Professor Paul E. Tesluk, Department of Management and Organization

Organizational culture has received ample attention both in the popular and scholarly press as an important factor predicting organizational effectiveness by inducing employees to behave effectively (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Schein, 1985, 1990). The assertion that culture leads to behavior, however, has received only limited empirical support. The purpose of this dissertation is to explicate the impact of organizational culture on employees' roles and subsequent role behaviors. I propose that four types of cultures (clan, entrepreneurial, market and hierarchy) exert different and at times competing pressures, thus, creating distinct role schemas regarding the range of expected employee behaviors, which in turn, guide distinct forms of employee role behavior (e.g. helping, innovation, achievement and compliance).

In addition, I examine boundary conditions on the relationships between culture and role perceptions and role perceptions and behavior. I propose that in the process of role emergence, culture strength as an organizational level characteristic,

cognitive self-monitoring, and perceived person-organization (P-O) fit influence the degree to which individuals interpret and incorporate the organizational culture's norms as part of their roles at work. I also suggest that culture strength, behavioral self-monitoring as well as P-O fit have an impact on the extent to which employees enact the expected organizational work roles.

Data from about hundred different organizations were collected to test the proposed relationships. The empirical results provide support for most of the proposed relationships between culture and employee roles, thereby validating the role of culture in establishing what is expected and valued at work. In addition, culture strength had moderating effect on the linkages between culture and employee roles for two of the culture dimensions (clan and hierarchical). Surprisingly, self-monitoring (cognitive) had a significant moderating effect but in a direction different from the predicted. Perceived fit moderated the relationship between market culture and helping role. Innovative role exhibited a negative significant relationship with compliant behavior while market strength intensified the negative relationship between achievement role and helping behavior. Thus, the results lend some support to the overall framework. Implications for theory and practice, as well as directions for future research, are discussed.

AN ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE PERSPECTIVE ON ROLE EMERGENCE AND ROLE ENACTMENT

By

Sophia V. Marinova

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the
University of Maryland, College Park, in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
2005

Advisory Committee:

Professor Paul E. Tesluk, Chair
Professor Paul Hanges
Professor Henry P. Sims
Professor Cynthia K. Stevens
Professor M. Susan Taylor

Dedication

There are several people who have been an inspiration to me during the challenging times of the Ph.D. program. I'd like to dedicate this dissertation to:

Sophia Iantcheva (my grandmother), who has taught me the value of staying optimistic in the face of great challenges.

Nina Marinova (my mother), for her unswerving belief in me.

Ivan Anastassov (my husband), for his selfless encouragement and support.

Krustio Krustev, for being a great inspiration to me.

Acknowledgements

There are a number of people who have provided me with tremendous support throughout my Ph.D. student tenure and with respect to my dissertation.

First of all, I'd like to thank all of my dissertation committee members: Paul Tesluk, Hank Sims, Paul Hanges, Cindy Stevens, and Susan Taylor. I am grateful to Paul Tesluk, my dissertation advisor, who has been a source of great support to me and has always constructively challenged me to develop my professional skills. I wish to thank Hank for his moral support and advice throughout the Ph.D. program, for being a great mentor, and for being there for me during difficult times. I also greatly appreciate the support and advice from Paul Hanges, Cindy Stevens, and Susan Taylor.

A special thanks to Myeong-Gu Seo for assisting me with the data-collection process for the dissertation. I would also like to thank Henry Moon for his research mentoring. I appreciate the support of several other faculty members as well: Ian Williamson, Kay Bartol, Anil Gupta, Ken Smith, Scott Turner, and Dave Lepak.

I'd also like to thank my classmates for their collegiality and for helping me laugh throughout these years. A special thanks to Riki Takeuchi, Qing Cao, Long Jiang, Wei Liu, Lisa Dragoni, Jennifer Marrone, Alice Zhang, Meredith Burnett, Nevena Koukova, Antoaneta Petkova, and Karen Wouters: I consider myself fortunate to have been your colleague and friend.

Last but not least, I'd like to thank my husband Ivan Anastassov for his love, tremendous support, encouragement and his great sense of humor; my mother Nina Marinova and father Vladimir Marinov, for their love and advice; to my brothers

Nikolay Marinov, Pavel Marinov, and Krasen Marinov for always being supportive with me.

Thank you all!

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Problem Statement

The notion that employees are crucial for organizational effectiveness has come to be viewed as a truism in the management literature (Barnard, 1938; Coff, 1997; Deal & Kennedy, 1988; Katz, 1964; Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 2003). From a resource-based theory perspective, human capital is considered as valuable, hard-to-imitate, and socially complex and therefore (Coff, 1997), can serve as a source of competitive advantage for organizations. As a result, the process through which employees contribute to organizational effectiveness has received a great deal of attention. One important area of research examining human capital is the literature exploring the work performance domain and its various forms and manifestations in the workplace (Barnard, 1938; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Katz, 1964; Organ, 1988).

It has been established that satisfying the specific job requirements on a day-to-day basis through on-the-job task performance is not the only important component of employee effectiveness (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Organ, 1988; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Rooted in earlier notions that organizations need to ensure that employees engage in beneficial behaviors beyond their immediate technical job requirements (Barnard, 1938; Katz & Kahn, 1978), extensive research has been devoted to fleshing out behavioral constructs that go beyond the specific technical requirements of a job and add value to employee effectiveness and which ultimately contribute to group and organizational effectiveness (Katz, 1964; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). While task behaviors directly concern the technical core of the organization by serving to transform raw materials into products and distributing, and providing service for products, non-task behaviors “do not

support the technical core itself as much as they support the broader organizational, social, and psychological environment, in which the technical core must function" (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994, p.476). Terms such as organizational citizenship behavior (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992), contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994) and prosocial behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) have been used as labels for these valuable non-task employee behaviors.

The proliferation of terms to describe the broad domain of employee behaviors has been accompanied by a sustained interest in identifying the antecedents and performance implications of these behaviors. Some studies have examined individual differences such as personality in relation to citizenship behaviors, but the predictive validity of personality has been found to be limited for the most part to the trait of conscientiousness (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Considerable research has been conducted on the premises of the social exchange perspective (Blau, 1964), according to which employees engage in beneficial behaviors to reciprocate favorable treatment by the organization (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Zellars & Tepper, 2003). Antecedents such as perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), fairness (Ball, Trevino, & Sims, 1984; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000), and leader-member exchange (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996) have been explored from a social exchange theoretical perspective.

As critical as a social exchange framework might be, factors at the organizational level, notably organizational culture, may also serve as a fundamental mechanism for

eliciting these important non-task behaviors (Schein, 1985). At the same time, relatively little research to date has sought to directly investigate the relationships that might exist between organizational culture and employee behavior. This is perhaps surprising since the literature linking organizational culture and organizational effectiveness has stressed a behavioral explanation by arguing that cultures elicit, encourage and reinforce certain critical behaviors by employees to facilitate organizational effectiveness (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Kotter & Heskett, 1992). In other words, the implicit assumption is that organizational culture provides a blueprint for eliciting and supporting the types of employee behaviors which the organization has developed to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Schein, 1985). This important assumption, that culture drives employee behaviors, however, has received only limited direct empirical attention (Tesluk, Hofmann, & Quigley, 2002).

Recent events in the business world nevertheless suggest that understanding organizational culture and its impact on human behavior in organizations may be of critical importance. Enron, for instance, is an exemplar of how having the wrong organizational culture precipitates business failure. Enron's high achievement oriented, entrepreneurial employees reinforced the competitive "survival-of-the-fittest" culture of the company (Byrne, 2002). Because of the unreasonably high performance expectations, competitive behavior taken to an unethical level became the norm for many Enron managers and employees. The Enron leadership sustained this aggressive culture by enriching themselves possibly unethically. By comparison, companies prominent for their innovation competencies like 3M and Apple effectively reinforce innovative employee behavior by sustaining a culture for creativity and innovation (Tesluk, Farr & Klein,

1997). Companies pursuing internal stability such as large government bureaucracies are likely to seek to instill respect for order and rule following as appropriate behaviors in their employees in order to facilitate functioning on complex tasks (Leavitt, 2003; Thompson & Wildavsky, 1986). Ouchi (1981) juxtaposed the traditional American and Japanese organizational culture styles and suggested that management through commitment and cohesiveness seems to be the success formula in Japan. In the US, on the other hand, tragic events such as September 11th have demonstrated that the courage, cooperation and cohesiveness of the rescuer teams of firefighters and police officers was key for the successful management of this emergency situation. These examples reinforce the idea that fostering a specific culture is likely to be crucial for eliciting a variety of employee behaviors ranging from high individual achievement to cooperation and help, and from strict rule observance to innovation.

Organizational culture provides a meaning system (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Martin, 1992; Parker, 2001; Schein, 1985) for employees who are making sense of their environment (Weick, 1995). As such, organizational culture serves as a vehicle of the organizational influence on the individual's identity and behavior (Parker, 2000) by socializing individuals into specific norms and patterns of behavior (Louis, 1980) and by providing socially shared perceptions, which create predictability in the organizational environment (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). Only a limited number of studies have examined the impact of organizational culture on employee behavior, and those have specifically been restricted to studying collectivistic and individualistic organizational cultural norms as predictors of cooperative employee behavior (Chatman & Barsade, 1995; Chatman, Polzer, Barsade & Neale, 1998). Consequently, there has been a relative

paucity of research examining the impact of a wider range of organizational culture norms on employee behaviors.

Culture encompasses elements of the organization such as artifacts, values, and symbols, which permeate the organizational environment and provide blueprints for employees of what is expected in their work environment (Chatman & Barsade, 1995; Chatman et al., 1998; Hatch, 1993; Schein, 1985). Assumptions and values are a major component of organizational culture and this determines its largely preconscious nature (Ashforth, 1985). I propose that roles provide the perceptual link between culture and behaviors. As Katz & Kahn (1978) in their treatise on the formulation and enactment of roles suggested: "The concept of role is proposed as the major means for linking the individual and organizational levels of research and theory: it is at once the building block of social systems and the summation of the requirements with which such systems confront their members as individuals" (p. 219-220). A role theory perspective provides the bridging mechanism between organizational culture and behaviors.

Research on national culture supports the importance of roles by demonstrating that culture influences the cognitive processes of individuals by intensifying the retrieval of perceptions consistent with the overall cultural values (Trafimow, Triandis, & Goto, 1991; Triandis, 1989). Organizational culture consists of ambient stimuli that are likely to prime role cognitions coherent with their content and direction (Katz & Kahn, 1978). In the business world, cultures such as that of Dell might initiate employees' developing achievement role perceptions, which in turn drive high individual achievement behavior, while at 3M or Apple employees might espouse an innovative role orientation consistent with the organizational culture of innovation. Thus, I propose that different

organizational cultures create different patterns of role perceptions and subsequent behavioral responses.

One of the most prominent definitions of organizational culture comes from the work of Edgar Schein who proffered that " Organizational culture is the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of *external adaptation* and *internal integration*, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (1984: p. 3). Two basic dimensions along which cultures may be expected to differ and which emerge as important in Schein's (1985) definition are the external and internal focus of organizations. Moreover, Schein (1985) suggested that organizations are concerned with their adaptation (flexibility) and integration (stability) at the same time. Specifically, as Schein (1985) puts it:

"All group and organizational theories distinguish two major sets of problems that all groups, no matter what their size, must deal with: (1) survival, growth, and adaptation in their environment and (2) internal integration that permits daily functioning and the ability to adapt" (p. 11).

It can therefore be inferred that organizational culture is concerned with adaptation in its internal environment and with respect with its external environment but at the same time seeks to establish internal integration and stability.

A specific framework, which approaches cultures as reflecting how organizations cope with the competing tensions of internal and external focus and the need to sustain

flexibility and stability, describes organizational cultures as falling under one of four general culture types: clan, adhocracy (here I will refer to it as entrepreneurial), hierarchy and market culture types (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Denison & Mishra, 1995; Ouchi, 1979; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). These four culture types capture the stable patterns of norms that organizations develop to cope with their environment by focusing primarily on either their internal or their external environment and by choosing either to pursue stability or to develop their adaptability (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Tesluk et al., 2002). According to the Cameron and Quinn (1999) framework, based on earlier empirical work by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), some organizations choose to focus on their external environment for achieving competitive advantage (e.g. Dell), while the effectiveness of other organizations is predicated upon sustaining their internal organizational focus through stable internal systems (e.g. bureaucratic systems). In addition, using a clustering technique, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) showed that another continuum along which organizations differ is the stability-adaptability continuum (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967), with some organizations defining effectiveness along the lines of protecting the stability of the organizational functioning, while others emphasizing quick adaptability as the basis of their effectiveness.

Furthermore, according to Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), organizations choose different means of organizing depending on the ends they pursue. For instance, the clan culture type has an internal organizational focus and emphasizes adaptability through encouraging cohesion, morale and cooperation among employees (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Ouchi, 1979; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983); the bureaucracy type of culture also has an internal focus, but achieves this instead with an emphasis on organizational stability

through the use of rules and regulations (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Ouchi, 1979; Zammuto, Giffort, & Goodman, 2000). The market culture can be characterized with a strong external market orientation and concern with external competitiveness and stability through efficiency control. Finally, like a market culture, an entrepreneurial culture is externally oriented, but norms in the entrepreneurial culture emphasize individual creativity and the ability to deal with external challenges by coming up with innovative solutions (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Zammuto et al., 2000). I propose that these four culture types prime cognitive role perceptions, which in turn lead to employee behaviors.

Research in organizations has examined role perceptions as a predictor of employee behaviors within an organizational context (Hofmann, Morgeson, & Gerras, 2003; Morrison, 1994; Tepper, Lockhart, & Hoobler, 2001). From a role theory perspective, organizations must communicate what roles are expected of employees, thereby enabling individuals to make sense of their environment and enact the communicated roles (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Weick, 1993). In support of the predictive validity of role perceptions, a number of studies have confirmed a positive relationship between perceiving helpful organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) to be part of one's role at work and the incidence of citizenship behaviors (Hofmann et al., 2003; Morrison, 1994; Tepper et al., 2001). Perceived roles provide a socially constructed cognitive environment that guides the thinking and acting patterns of people in the organization (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Weick, 1981). Organizational culture provides a salient system of meaning, which creates specific cognitive role perceptions (scripts) as to what

is expected in the workplace. Those cognitive role perceptions are among the proximal factors leading to behaviors (Hofmann et al., 2003; Morrison, 1994; Tepper et al., 2001).

I propose that different organizational cultures create different role expectations, which are functional for the respective culture (Katz & Kahn, 1978). For instance, the clan culture would create the expectation that individuals should cooperate and collaborate on tasks; the bureaucracy culture, on the other hand, primes cognitions that strict rule observation of established procedures is anticipated in the organization; the market culture type suggests an achievement role to achieve maximum efficiency and finally, the entrepreneurial culture type creates innovative role cognitions (Zammuto et al., 2000). I also propose that these role cognitions lead to behaviors ranging from cooperation to competition and from rule observance to creativity. Even though some of these behaviors might be construed as part of or closely interrelated with the task performance of specific jobs (e.g. being innovative in a R&D unit or being strict in observing the existing rules in the military), each behavior may occur in any occupation and is not limited to a job type.

Examining the link between culture and behavior through the lens of role perceptions in itself explicates the mechanism through which culture translates into observable behaviors. Furthermore, to shed light on the boundary factors, which may play a role in the process, I consider additional individual and organizational level factors. I suggest that self-monitoring (Mehra, Kilduff, & Brass, 2001; Snyder, 1986) and culture strength (Payne, 1996), for instance, are two factors, which may impact the strength of the proposed relationships between culture types and cognitive role perceptions. Self-monitoring is an individual difference variable that describes an

individual's tendency to perceive, interpret, and incorporate into their cognitive role perceptions even subtle situational cues (Snyder, 1974; 1986; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). High self-monitors tend to adapt their styles to the environment, which helps them gain higher centrality in organizational networks as well as higher performance ratings (Mehra et al., 2001). Environmental stimuli are more likely to enter the cognitive attention span of individuals high on self-monitoring (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). I propose that self-monitoring moderates the relationships between organizational culture and work role perceptions (Fiske & Taylor, 1991) as well as between work role perceptions and behaviors, such that high self-monitors are more likely to incorporate organizational culture stimuli into their cognitive schema of role perceptions and enact them in order to suit the environmental demands (Snyder, 1974; 86; Chatman, 1991).

In addition, I propose that culture strength is an organizational level factor, which reinforces the relationship between culture and cognitive perceptions, and cognitive perceptions and behaviors. Martin (1992) discussed three different perspectives on culture: integration, differentiation, and fragmentation. From an integration standpoint, organizational members maintain consensus regarding the organizational culture. The differentiation perspective on the other hand suggests the formation of different subcultures in organizations that prevents a singular view on the organization's culture. Finally, a fragmentation perspective suggests that there is ambiguity (action, symbolic and ideological) in the culture that renders the process of meaning creation equivocal and open to individual interpretation. The three different perspectives imply that culture is not always homogenous; thus, considering culture strength is warranted.

The literature on social comparison and conformity (Ashforth, 1985; Festinger, 1954; Janis, 1972) also provides a theoretical perspective that explicates the mechanism through which culture strength acts as a moderator. Social conformity suggests that in the presence of social agreement individuals are less likely to deviate from the social norms. I propose that culture strength, which denotes the level of agreement (integration) among organizational members (Martin, 1992), moderates the relationship between organizational culture and role perceptions, as well as between role perceptions and behaviors such that when the culture strength is higher indicating higher consensus regarding the organizational culture, the relationships between culture and cognitive role perceptions, and between role perceptions and respective behaviors, would be stronger due to the increased pressure for social conformity.

Additionally, I examine person-organization fit (Chatman, 1989; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991) as a moderator of the relationships between culture and cognitive role perceptions, and between roles and exhibited behaviors. P-O fit is a concept associated with the degree to which individuals feel that their values and personality fit those of their current organization. P-O fit specifically captures the extent to which there is a match between organizational culture and the individual preferences for culture type. Consequently, it has been proposed that individuals who experience higher degree of fit with their organization are more likely to engage behaviors that are prescribed by the organizational context (Chatman, 1989).

Here I propose that fit will enhance the convergence between culture and perceived roles such that individual who experience high fit will perceive roles more consonant with the context. In addition, from an enactment perspective (Abolafia &

Kilduff, 1988; Weick, 1981; 1995), individuals are not only passive sensemakers but are also active creators of their environment. Here, I propose that a high degree of fit will enhance the relationship between cognitive role perceptions and expected behaviors since individuals with greater fit will actively try to reinforce their existing environments. Employees experiencing low fit with their organizations may try to resist or actively change their environment by withholding expected behaviors and possibly approaching their work in alternative ways.

In sum, the research questions that I present are as follows: How does organizational culture influence cognitive role perceptions and what is the role of individual and contextual factors in this process? While the virtues of self-monitoring have been traditionally extolled, it is possible that for dysfunctional organizational cultures such as the one which seemed to permeate Enron's environment, low self-monitors would be more likely to oppose traditional ways of thinking. The strength of an organizational culture might also have important implications in determining the extent to which it culture translates into observable behaviors. Another research question I am posing concerns the relationship between culture, cognitive role perceptions and behaviors, and the role that P-O fit might have in this process. Here, it could be argued that even though individuals with high fit and organizational identification sustain existing organizational cultures, individuals who experience low levels of fit and commitment would be more adept at organizational change and in some extreme examples, those individuals might go the extra mile of reporting dysfunctional organizational activities (Watkins, 2003).

In conclusion, while examining organizational culture has much promise, according to Weick (1981) “People in organizations repeatedly impose that which they later claim imposes on them” (p.269). Weick’s (1981) perspective emphasizes the role of the individual as an active creator of the environment by engaging in specific actions, which create knowledge and meaning. To the extent to which “people… create many of their own environments” (p. 279), at times it might be difficult to tell if culture has a predominant impact on eliciting behaviors via roles or it is the individual’s behaviors, which impose the environment itself and trigger a self-fulfilling cycle of perceiving organizational roles as consistent with individual actions. From that perspective, organizational culture may be reinforced through the actions and cognitions of individuals even in periods when the organizational leadership is attempting to change the cultural environment of the organization. Here, I propose some specific factors such as culture strength and person-organization fit, which might increase the tendency of the culture phenomenon to persist in organizations. But more research is needed to explore the causality of actions and interpretations taking into account the dynamic nature of sensemaking both through perceiving the environment and through actions and behaviors, which create the environment.

Chapter 2: Theoretical Concepts

Organizational Culture

Defining organizational culture. The term culture, as defined by the school of cognitive anthropology, consists of the psychological structures, which guide individuals' and groups' behavior. For instance, Goodenough who is representative of that school of thought, pointed out that the culture of society: "consists of whatever it is one to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members" (In Geertz, 1973, p.11). The term organizational culture has a similar meaning, only, it is applied to the concept of organization instead of society. For instance, Eliot Jaques provides the following description of the culture of a factory:

"The culture of the factory is its customary and traditional way of thinking and of doing things, which is shared to a greater or lesser extent by all its members, and which new members must learn, and at least partially accept… Culture is part of the second nature of those who have been with the firm for a long time." (1951: 251).

Culture, thus, consists of the set of assumptions, values, norms, symbols and artifacts within the organization, which convey meaning to employees regarding what is expected and shape individual and group behavior (Enz, 1988; Hatch, 1993; O'Reilly et al, 1991; Rousseau, 1990). Schein (1985) defined culture as, "A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved problems of *external adaptation* and *internal integration*, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to these problems." (p.12). Martin and Siehl (1983) viewed culture as the glue, which holds

the organization together via patterns of shared meaning, while Swartz and Jordon (1980) suggested that culture is the composition of expectations and beliefs about behavior shared in the organization. Therefore, organizational culture is expected to have an important bearing on behavior (Cooke & Szumal, 2000; Chatman & Barsade, 1995; Martin & Siehl, 1983; Schein, 1985).

There are some natural drawbacks to attempts to empirically measure culture due to its inherent subjectivity (Geertz, 1973; Rousseau, 1990). Culture is a socially constructed phenomenon and as such may be difficult to capture and quantify (Denison, 1996). Geertz (1973), in an attempt to emphasize the subjective nature of culture cites Goodenaugh, who believed that culture was embedded in the minds and hearts of people. Therefore, it could be maintained that culture has infinite forms such as is the number of possible subjective interpretations. Such a conclusion precludes the quantifiable measurement of organizational culture.

A debate making the culture literature even more complicated has revolved around the methods of culture measurement (Denison, 1996; Denison & Mishra, 1995). In the *emic* measurement tradition, researchers have advocated qualitative methods of measurement capturing the native point of view (Denison, 1996), while the *etic* perspective, which allows for quantitative measurement with instruments theoretically developed by the culture researcher has been applied more consistently to the measurement of climate rather than culture. In spite of the ongoing disagreements over the nature and measurement of culture, a number of quantitative instruments have been developed through a combination of methods that allow for the quantifiable measurement of culture.

Measurement of organizational culture. The person-organization fit literature represents one identifiable stream of culture research that has attempted to measure organizational culture and individual preferences for organizational culture (Chatman, 1989, 1991;Kristoff, 1996; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991), have made considerable progress in identifying key measurable dimensions of organizational culture along with individual culture preferences. They provided a comprehensive literature review in order to identify a wide-ranging list of categories that are relevant to individual culture preferences and organizational cultures. Their research was prompted by a willingness to appropriately study quantitatively organizational culture in a way that allows for meaningful comparisons between the values of individuals and organizations. To that end, O'Reilly and colleagues (1991) developed the organizational culture profile (OCP), which consists of 54 statements describing both the organization and the individual in terms of enduring values and characteristics. A central focus of the P-O fit literature has been to discover the effects of good and poor person-organization fit on these values on important proximal outcomes such as employee performance, satisfaction, commitment and turnover (Chatman, 1989, 1991; Kristof, 1996; Saks, 1997).

Other organizational typologies have also been developed to assess organizational culture apart from the P-O fit stream of research. For instance, the organizational culture inventory (OCI) developed by Cooke & Lafferty (1986) has been used to test relationships between antecedents and culture as well as between culture and outcomes of interest (Klein, Masi, & Weidner, 1995). This culture inventory is based on a circumplex notion of personality that taps interpersonal and task-related styles (Cooke & Rousseau,

1988; Wiggins, 1991). The OCI consists of 12 specific styles that are placed on a circle. Examples of the OCI styles include humanistic-helpful, affiliative, conventional, competitive, and achievement.

Although the OCI presents 12 main cultural styles or norms, the latter cluster in three more general types: constructive, passive/defensive, and aggressive/defensive (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Cooke & Szumal, 2000). In the constructive culture type, cooperation, enjoyment of the task and creativity are valued. The passive-defensive culture type is characterized by traditional authority, norms of conformity and compliance, and top-down authority. Finally, aggressive-defensive cultures exhibit some negative dynamics such as competition and opposition that could be detrimental for the organization in the long-term. Therefore, the OCI typology incorporates elements of the four behavioral patterns of helping, innovation, rule observance, and competition on the level of organizational culture. Table 1 provides a summary of the specific culture norms and culture types as they are defined by the OCI circumplex.

Table 1: The OCI Cultural Styles [1]

Cultural Norms	Characteristics	Culture Type Cluster to Which the Style Belongs
Humanistic-Helpful Norms	The organization is managed in a person-oriented manner; members are expected to be helpful and supportive with each other.	Constructive Culture
Affiliative Norms	The organization places high priority on interpersonal harmony.	Constructive Culture
Achievement Norms	In this type of culture, setting and achievement of challenging goals is central to the work	Constructive Culture

[1] This table is based on the work of Cooke & Lafferty (1986), Cooke & Rousseau (1988) and Cooke & Szumal (2000).

	concept.	
Self-Actualization Norms	Creativity, quality over quantity, and employee development and self-actualization are central to this type of culture.	Constructive Culture
Approval Norms	Conflict is avoided at any cost for the sake of preserving good relationships.	Passive/Defensive Culture
Conventional Norms	The organizational culture is conservative.	Passive/Defensive Culture
Dependent Norms	Found in hierarchical organizations, where the decision-making is centralized.	Passive/Defensive Culture
Avoidance Norms	Organizational culture in which success is not recognized but failure and mistakes are punished. Characterized by people shifting responsibilities to others so that they don't take the blame for mistakes.	Passive/Defensive Culture
Oppositional Norms	Confrontation and negativism are strong forces at work. Status and influence are the main goals of organizational members.	Aggressive/Defensive Culture
Power Norms	Authority is inherent in the power position of individuals. Hierarchical pattern of decision-making and structuring of activities.	Aggressive/Defensive Culture
Competitive Norms	In this type of culture, members are rewarded for outperforming each other. Winning is central to the organization and a "win-lose" framework defines work relationships.	Aggressive/Defensive Culture
Competence/Perfectionist Norms	This exists in organizations in which hard work and perfectionism on specific objectives are especially important aspects of performance.	Aggressive/Defensive Culture

Another stream of research has examined culture traits and a model of effectiveness is the competing values framework (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Quinn &

Rohrbaugh, 1983; Tesluk et al., 2002). According to this approach, organizations are constantly involved in reconciling multiple forces pulling the organization in opposite directions (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Tesluk et al. 2002). The two main pairs of opposites rooted in Shein's (1985) definition of culture that organizations have to reconcile are the need for internal integration and external adaptation and the need to be stable and yet, at the same time ready and able to change (Tesluk et al., 2002). Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) found support for a four-dimensional model of organizational effectiveness that represents the multiple objectives that organizations pursue. The specific outcomes were maintaining cohesion/ morale, maintaining flexibility, efficiency/productivity, and stability of the organizational status-quo (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Denison and Mishra (1995) proposed a model of organizational culture traits, which lead to dimensions of organizational performance, situated along the same dimensions as the model of organizational effectiveness (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983), namely external adaptation versus internal integration and change versus stability.

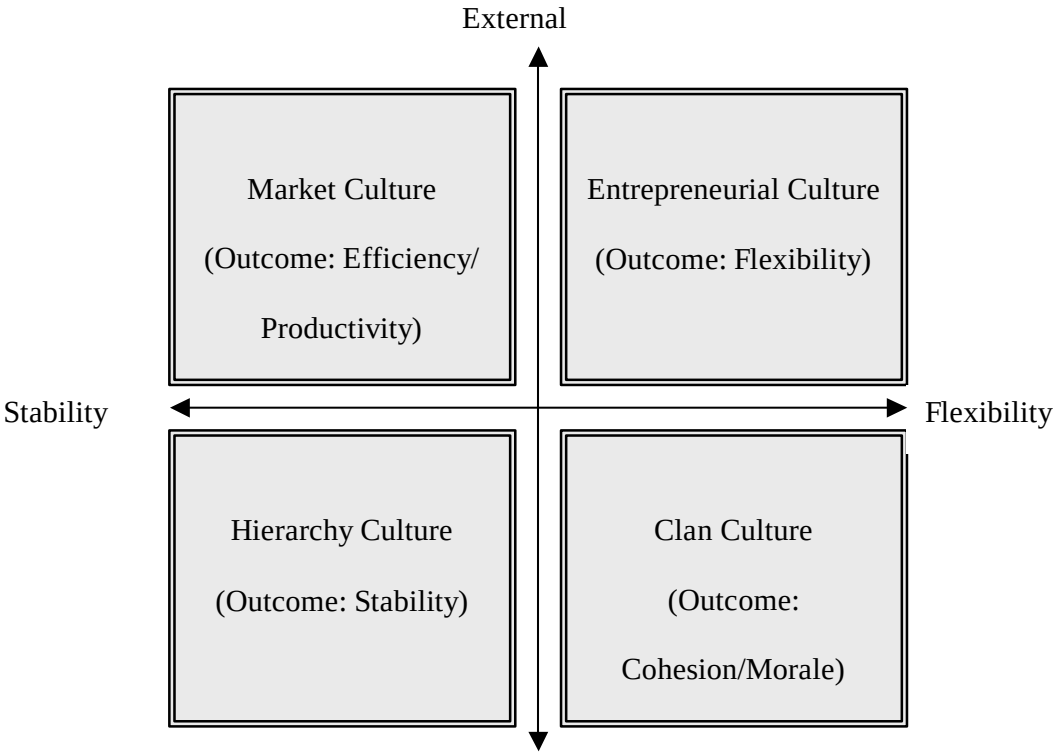
Each of the discussed research streams on culture measurement has its strong points. The P-O fit research (Chatman, 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991), for instance, is most suitable for research, the focus of which is mostly on the precise measurement of fit between a finite number of cultures and individual preferences. The OCI profile attempts at deriving a comprehensive typology of culture norms, which are not necessarily associated with specific individual values and preferences. Finally, the competing value framework presents a paradoxical perspective on the forces that shape culture such that there are contradictory ends, which different cultures pursue (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

The different measures of culture indicate that there is a growing agreement that culture can be measured. Here, I choose to maintain a four-dimensional conceptualization of culture that integrates aspects of both the circumplex perspective on culture (OCI: Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Cooke & Szumal, 2000) and the four-dimensional conceptualization of culture and effectiveness defined by the axes of external-internal and flexibility –stability foci. The reason why I choose this model over the P-O fit conceptualization, for instance, is that it provides a parsimonious but comprehensive view on the dimensions of culture (Van Vianen, 2000). The three main factors of the OCI, for example, suggest the presence of innovativeness, cooperation, competition and rule observance (Cooke & Szumal, 2000). The constructive culture type, for instance, instills norms for cooperation and creative behavior, which are two roles that I am examining. Moreover, one characteristic of the passive/defensive culture is that it entails conservatism and centralized decision-making, which implies existing norms for rule-observance. This type of culture corresponds to a compliant role orientation whereby employees strive to sustain order. Finally, in the aggressive/defensive culture confrontation and negativism are strong forces at work. Due to the aggressive nature of the aggressive/defensive culture, an aggressive role orientation would be the norm.

The culture-effectiveness model maintains four specific outcomes of culture: cohesion/ morale, maintaining flexibility, efficiency/productivity, and stability of the organizational status quo (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). The culture traits established by Denison and Mishra (1995) are situated along the same dimensions as the effectiveness model, namely external adaptation versus internal integration and change versus stability. Cameron and Quinn (1999) have developed a specific questionnaire that taps four types

of culture, which can also be situated on the model defined by the stability-adaptability and internal-external axes. The four culture types are as follows: clan (cooperative), adhocracy (entrepreneurial/innovative), market (competitive), and hierarchy (conservative). Cohesion/morale as an outcome of culture (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) can be construed as an outcome of the clan culture. This type of culture emphasizes cooperation and positive interpersonal interactions, and has, thus, been labeled "clan" culture (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). Cameron and Quinn (1999) characterize the adhocracy (innovative) culture as a place where entrepreneurship and creativity would be valued employee behavior. Cultures where optimum efficiency is the norm may create high-achievement, competitive orientations on the part of employees because of the high performance goals. Cameron and Quinn (1999) labeled this type of culture as "market culture" and pointed out that because market organizations are exclusively focused on bottom-line results (Ouchi, 1979), people are expected to become goal-oriented and competitive. The outcomes of a market culture resemble the efficiency/productivity dimension of effectiveness (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Finally, in the "hierarchy" culture, stability is valued at all costs, and as a result, employees are encouraged maintain the stability of the organization by carefully observing and following organizational rules and procedures (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Figure 1 presents graphically the culture types in accordance with Cameron & Quinn's (1999) initial conceptualization.

Figure 1: Culture Types



Culture strength as an attribute of culture. According to Payne (1996), culture has three important attributes: strength, direction, and pervasiveness. Strength denotes the degree to which the culture is intense and strong. If a culture is strong, then the underlying assumptions, the upheld norms, and the existing artifacts and symbols should express a clear, singular message, thereby providing a more convincing and clear set of expectations to employees. Individuals within the organization are more likely to understand and comply with the culture norms if they are clear and strong (Payne, 1996; Schein, 1984; 1985).

Martin (1992) also emphasized the importance of understanding culture strength by describing three perspectives on culture: integration, differentiation, and fragmentation. In the integration perspective, culture has a strong impact on perceptions and behavior because people in the organization agree on the content and direction of culture. The fragmentation and differentiation perspectives suggest that when culture is not strong and shared cohesively, symbols and values become ambiguous and open to interpretation (fragmentation) and different subcultures may emerge (differentiation).

Roles and Role Theory

Role theory is concerned with studying human behavior in context by defining the expectations and rewards associated with certain forms of behavior (Biddle, 1979). Social position is a central concept associated with roles. Social position refers to the identity that stratifies people in different social groups such as, for example, teacher, mother, and manager. From a role behavior standpoint, each position has a characteristic role associated with it. In addition, according to the predictions of role theory, roles are induced through shared expectations of behavior (Biddle, 1979). The pragmatic view on roles suggests that expectations are instilled in the individual during socialization and individuals who are assimilated into groups conform to their expected roles. Another important defining characteristic of roles, especially from a structural role theory perspective, is their functionality for the social systems in which they are embedded (Biddle, 1979; Stryker, 2002). For instance, if a player in a football team is being too competitive with his own teammates, his behavior is not likely to be functional for the overall performance of the team. In the same way, in a larger organization,

communicated roles should be functional for their respective context. For instance, coming up with creative ideas in a largely bureaucratic context is probably not going to be viewed favorably. By the same token, overly strict rule observation in a company that heavily depends and innovative and creativity would not qualify as a functional role. These examples illustrate how the functionality of a specific role depends on the context.

From a social cognitive perspective, *organizational roles* are not only the product of the person but are also a function of the social environment and, as a result, are inextricably bound to the social context (Biddle, 1979; Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991; Van Dyne, Cummings, Parks, 1995). Roles are the organizing structures of knowledge and information about the appropriate role behaviors in social situations and prompt the individual to act in a relatively automatic manner (Biddle, 1979; Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Therefore, it seems warranted to understand what factors in the social environment create specific roles.

Here, I focus on roles from a social cognitive perspective, proposing that the social context has an important bearing on the received role (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Work by Ilgen and Hollenbeck (1991) has elaborated on the distinction between formal job descriptions and roles in order to illustrate why and how roles in the workplace are different from jobs. Ilgen and Hollenbeck pointed out that their "interest is in the dynamic interaction between characteristics of the physical and social environments of individuals with the persons themselves and with the behavioral and attitudinal consequences of such interactions." (1991: 166). The environment in which jobs exist is subjective, interpersonal, and dynamic, which brings up the issue of emergent task elements (task elements added to the job of the incumbent through a variety of social

sources). The latter task elements differentiate a role from a job. A work role is more dynamic and more fluid than a job description and is more likely to contain elements communicated to the employee or negotiated by the employee by means of the social system (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez, 1998).

According to Turner (2002), for instance, incumbents use information from the social system (such as their peers or organizational culture) to develop their roles. Graen (1976) described an interdependent role-systems model according to which role demands are generated via the organizational/situational demands, social or role-set demands, and personal/personality demands. Hence, research suggests that roles emerge from the social context and situational demands. Organizational culture may be one such potent situational factor, which defines the social context and provides information about expected roles.

Employee Behaviors

Increasingly, researchers and practitioners examining the employee performance domain have started to recognize the importance of a number of competencies and behaviors such as interpersonal cooperation and innovation that go beyond the confines of the formal job description requirements (Goleman, 1998; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). For instance, Goleman (1998) emphasized the importance of a range of competencies above and beyond technical expertise that contribute to employee effectiveness through the performance of behaviors such as cooperation. Relying on individual knowledge a decade ago seemed to have been sufficient for job performance; relying on the group mind for information, however, has

already become a norm in many jobs (Goleman, 1998). Collaboration and cooperation, thus, have become essential performance behaviors.

Research on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and contextual performance has examined dimensions of performance above pure task behaviors (Organ, 1988; Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). This stream of research has placed the importance on facets of performance such as helping and interpersonal facilitation (Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999), conscientiousness (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990) and innovative behavior (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) that are not direct components of task performance. The argument for the importance of these behaviors has followed a similar logic to Goleman's (1998) work on emotional intelligence: managing the technical requirements of a job alone does not lead to superior performance. Behaviors that sustain the interpersonal context and other aspects of the organizational effectiveness (Organ, 1988; Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) are also crucial for individual as well as organizational success (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997).

In sum, progress has been made towards fleshing out behavioral constructs that contribute to work performance beyond the formal requirements of a job (Johnson, 2001; Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; Podsakoff et al., 1990). And while the labels and number of constructs have proliferated, the question of whether the latter are distinct in any substantive ways has remained equivocal (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). I invoke role theory and the circumplex notion of human behavior to create a theoretical framework of expected work roles that lead to employee behaviors in order to address the lack of consensus on what constitutes performance

dimensions. I use roles to denominate a broader domain of employee performance, which encompasses differing definitions of employee effectiveness.

Peterson & Smith (2000), in an attempt to explicate the process of meaning creation in the workplace, conclude that roles are a primary source of meaning concerning expected role behaviors. It is important to note that according to these authors explicit assignment to formal roles affects the thoughts and actions of that individual but this is "not a conclusion that wholly determines actual role relationships." (Peterson & Smith, 2000: p.105). It is, thus, essential for both scholars and practitioners to be able to understand the substantive content as well as the nomological network of predictors and outcomes of roles in organizations in order to gain a better understanding of the full range of performance dimensions.

Organizational initiatives such as job enrichment, total quality management, and employee involvement programs have been instituted with the purpose of enhancing organizational competitiveness through the proactive employee engagement in the work process (Lawler, 1992; Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez, 1998). This trend in management practices has been paralleled by growing interest on the part of researchers in taking a broader view of work performance and examining the notion of roles in the workplace (Parker, 1998; Parker, 2000; Welbourne et al., 1998). Parker (1998; 2000) has considered proactive role orientation and role breath self-efficacy as the ability of individuals to expand their job domains (Graen, 1976). Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez have (1998) advocated a broader view on performance as well. They have derived role-based performance scales (RBPS) for measuring roles in the workplace based on role and identity theory as theoretical frameworks.

Their role-based performance scale consists of five dimensions of roles relevant in the workplace. The dimensions Welbourne and colleagues (1998) have identified as important are job, career, innovator, team and organization roles. The job role has been specifically related to the task behaviors expected of an individual (e.g. "*quality of work output*"), the career role is descriptive of the individual's ability to make a successful career (e.g. "*seeking out career opportunities*"), the innovator role assesses an employee's creative potential (e.g. "*coming up with new ideas*"), the team role concerns the ability of an individual to cooperate with others given the increasingly group-based nature of many jobs (e.g. "*working as part of a team/work group*"), and organization role that reflects the willingness of an employee to engage in beneficial acts for the company (e.g. "*doing good things for the company*") (Welbourne et al., 1998: p.554-p.555).

In order to accomplish the purpose of this dissertation to delineate a broad repertoire of role sets that employees engage in and identify the antecedents and outcomes associated with role schemas, I review the literature on roles and organize it in a theoretical framework. First, I derive a set of roles based on a comprehensive literature review in order to identify the core dimensions of role behaviors. In order to accomplish this, I draw on several research streams: organizational citizenship behavior (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), contextual performance (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996), personal initiative (Frese, Kring, Soose & Zempel, 1996; Frese & Fay, 2001), creativity (Oldham & Cumming, 1996; Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993), cooperation and competition in a negotiation context (Chen & Tjosvold, 2002; Deutsch, 2001; De Dreu, Weingart, & Kwon, 2000).

Organizational citizenship behavior and contextual performance. Although OCBs have attained a life of their own as an important organizational behavior construct in the past decade through the work of many organizational scientists (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988; Smith et al., 1983; Williams & Anderson, 1991), they have developed from earlier notions of organizational efficiency (Barnard, 1938; Katz, 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978). The interest in extra-role behaviors has been first advocated by Barnard (1938) and later on promoted by Katz (1964). It is worth noting early on that even though extra-role has been used consistently to describe behaviors above and beyond the formal duties (Organ, 1988), the approach I take is that behaviors outside of the job description are not extra-role. As the distinction drawn by Ilgen & Hollenbeck (1991) suggests, roles can be different and broader than job descriptions. As a result, a behavior, which goes beyond formal duties and task requirements, is not necessarily extra-role (Morrison, 1994; Tepper, et al., 2001).

According to Barnard (1938), for example, it is crucial for executives to ensure that employees in their organizations engage in discretionary cooperative behaviors. Katz (1964) has also elaborated on what constitutes important employee behaviors beyond the formal task duties. Innovative and spontaneous behaviors, cooperation, protection, providing constructive ideas, self-developing oneself, as well as holding favorable attitudes toward the organization all represent important behavioral tenets of organizational efficiency (Katz, 1964).

In addition, it is worth noting that the term OCB has not been used consistently for the description of non-prescribed behaviors. Some of the most prominent extant conceptualizations different from and yet similar to OCB include organizational

spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992), contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996), and prosocial organizational behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; George & Brief, 1992). Although the existing definitions diverge somewhat, theoretically they share a common focus on non-task employee behaviors that in the aggregate provide firms with competitive advantage (George & Brief, 1992; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

However, in spite of the compelling conceptual similarities between the "extra-role" behaviors that different organizational behavior scholars have identified, no consistent attempts have been made at using similar labels for similar behaviors. Therefore, a brief literature review follows that compares the different conceptualizations of non-prescribed behaviors. One of the earliest definitions of prosocial behaviors comes from Katz' s work (1964). He identifies helping, protecting the organization, making constructive suggestions, developing oneself, and spreading goodwill as important employee behaviors. Organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992) is a construct, which encompasses the types of behaviors that have been put forward by Katz (1964). However, George & Brief (1992) have not examined empirically the existence of the five categories in an organizational context.

The early empirical work that has focused on both theoretical specification and empirical analysis of the dimensionality of OCB has essentially started with the work of Smith et al. (1983) and Bateman & Organ (1983). Their studies have generated two important aspects of "extra-role"[2] performance: *compliance* and *altruism* (Bateman, &

[2] The term "extra-role" has been consistently used to describe beneficial behaviors such as OCB. In this dissertation, I take a different approach that allows for a role to be broader and incorporate behaviors such as OCB. This view is currently supported and viewed as valid by OCB scholars (Organ, 1997). In the interest of authenticity, however, I use the term extra-role if it has been used in the work I am citing.

Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983). Compliance can essentially be described as exemplary rule following and conscientiousness. Altruism stands for helping behaviors and overall cooperation.

Others prompted by Organ's (1988) seminal book on OCBs have found empirical support for a five-dimensional structure of the organizational citizenship behaviors construct consisting of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Altruism and conscientiousness correspond to altruism and generalized compliance respectively as defined by Smith et al. (1983). The three added dimensions, hence, consist of sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. Sportsmanship, for instance, represents benevolent employee behaviors such as refraining from complaining in the face of adversity. Courtesy, on the other hand, consists of interpersonal gestures that prevent potential problems. Finally, the added dimension of civic virtue according to Organ (1988) "implies a sense of involvement in what policies are adopted and which candidates are supported" (p. 13). Furthermore, Organ (1988) goes on to describe different forms of civic virtue behaviors such as attending meetings, reading the mail, personal time, and speaking up.

Contextual performance scholars (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) have advocated a set of behaviors that are similar to OCBs. The two main types of behaviors that are examined in the contextual performance literature are labeled interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. The *interpersonal facilitation* domain combined aspects of the altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship dimensions (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). The job dedication

aspect resembled Smith et al. (1983) compliance factor and Organ's (1988) conscientiousness dimension. In spite of the subtle differences (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) between contextual performance and OCB, substantially it encompasses behaviors that have already been identified by Organ (1988).

Innovation, Personal initiative and Creativity. The work of Morrison & Phelps (1999) was probably one of the few empirical attempts at extending the OCB (or contextual performance) domain to include change-oriented and creative behaviors identified earlier by Katz (1964). Morrison and Phelps (1999) maintained that the OCB literature had often neglected an important change-oriented extra-role behavior—taking charge. Most of the OCB and contextual performance literature has examined beneficial behaviors such as helping and compliance but has not focused as much on the active change-oriented efforts that employee undertake on their job (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). The construct of taking charge in contrast consisted of active attempts to improve the organization through innovation endeavors and for that reason it was clearly distinct from the other forms of OCB that had been consistently explored in the OCB literature (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

Innovation may be construed as a type of personal initiative at work. Personal employee initiative has become crucial for organizational effectiveness in the context of constant competition (Lawler, 1992; Milkovich & Boudreau, 1997; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994; Welbourne et al., 1998). Frese & Fay (2001) draw an important distinction between OCB-compliance and personal initiative (PI). According to them, conscientiousness/ compliance is a passive form of behavior wherein the employee shows outstanding adherence to rules and norms. However, as they pointed out "the concept of

PI often implies ignoring or even being somewhat rebellious toward existing rules and regulations" (Frese & Fay, 2001: p.166). Therefore, PI can be viewed as a distinct from compliance (a typical OCB dimension) facet of employee discretionary behavior that is essential for organizational effectiveness.

Creativity is a similar to personal initiative construct in that it is change-oriented and it stands for spontaneous employee behaviors (Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Tierney & Farmer, 2002; Woodman et al., 1993). According to Ford (1996) "Researchers and laypersons seem to agree that creativity refers to something that is both novel and in some sense valuable" (p.1114). Oldham and Cummings (1996) proffered "When employees perform creatively, they suggest novel and useful products, ideas, or procedures that provide an organizational with important raw material for subsequent development and possible implementation…" (p.607). Morrison and Phelps (1999) suggested that scholars should define personal initiative or what they called innovation as an important aspect of performance that goes beyond the formal job description. The construct of innovation that they examined was constructive ideas and suggestions for improving the workflow that employees provided. In sum, personal creativity at work in its various has attracted significant attention as an important aspect of performance.

Cooperative and competitive (achievement) behavior. In the OCB and contextual performance tradition, help and cooperation are oftentimes considered as the central core of non-prescribed employee behaviors and roles (Organ, 1988; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Interest towards a construct somewhat opposite to that of cooperation, competition as an employee role behavior, however, has been somewhat lacking from the organizational behavior management literature. Competition and competitive dynamics

as a macro phenomenon on the firm and industry level, conversely, has been studied extensively in the strategic management literature (Gnyawali & Madhavan, 2001; Hambrick, Cho, & Chen, 1996; Haveman & Nonnemaker, 2000). Therefore, it is somewhat surprising that competitiveness, as a micro level phenomenon has not been addressed as much.

The extant literature on competition has been mainly focused on individual decision-making, negotiation, and group performance in experimental settings. This literature builds upon the theory of cooperation and competition (Deutsch, 1949; Deutsch, 1973) and identifies three social motives: individualistic, competitive, and prosocial (De Dreu & Van Lange, 1995; De Dreu et al., 2000). According to De Dreu et al.'s (2000) comprehensive meta-analysis, social motives can be rooted in stable individual differences or in the situation. From an individual difference perspective, people possessing an individualistic social value have the propensity to maximize their own outcomes (De Dreu & Van Lange, 1995; McClintock & Liebrand, 1988). Competitive orientation is characterized by willingness to maximize one's own outcomes at the expense of others (De Dreu & Van Lange, 1995; McClintock & Liebrand, 1988). Finally, those who have prosocial values are similar to altruists inasmuch as they want to maximize the joint gain in negotiations (De Dreu & Van Lange, 1995). Certain aspects of the situation such as the task structure (McClintock & Liebrand, 1988) have been found to affect the relationship between social value orientation and negotiation behavior as well.

The early experiments on cooperation and competition (Deutsch, 1949) suggest that incentives may influence the incidence of cooperative, individualistic, and

competitive behavior in groups. If important individual outcomes are tied in with competitive behavior, members exhibit more competitive behavior and vice versa; if incentives are based on cooperative behavior, individuals behave more cooperatively with each other (Deutsch, 1949). The overall results of these experiments suggest that groups with cooperative incentives have better group process and higher productivity than groups with competitive incentives (Deutsch, 1949). I examine achievement behavior as a mixture of competitive and individualistic behavior, and achievement role orientation as a type of non-task behavior and role, which has received somewhat scant attention in the organizational behavior literature.

Summary

A large body of literature has accumulated, which suggests that roles go beyond the formal job description. The existing empirical research has focused on several specific role behaviors as particularly important. The OCB and contextual performance research draw attention to *help /cooperative behavior and compliance/conscientiousness/ rule observance*. Most of the OCB and contextual performance literature has examined beneficial behaviors such as helping and compliance but has not focused as much on the active change-oriented efforts that employee undertake on their job (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). The literature on creativity and PI has addressed this shortcoming by considering *innovative behavior* an important component of employee performance. Finally, the theory of cooperation and competition has been concerned with identifying antecedents of *cooperative*, *individualistic*, and *competitive behavior* as two opposing forms of roles and behaviors. Here, I focus on four types of behaviors (and respective roles), which have a recurring role in the extant literature. Specifically, I am examining *help, innovative,*

achievement-oriented, and *compliant* aspects of behavior. I relied on the existing empirical research to put together a comprehensive set of behaviors and performance roles that may go beyond the job description.

Individual differences and attitudes

Self-monitoring. Individual differences also play a prominent role in schema use and construction (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). For example, self-monitoring is an individual difference that might be particularly relevant in an organizational culture context. Snyder (1974) succinctly described self-monitoring as "An acute sensitivity to the cues in a situation which indicate what expression or self-presentation is appropriate and what is not is a corollary ability to self-monitoring." (p.527). High self-monitors are concerned with presenting a public self that is in line with the expectations of the situation and the people involved in a certain situation (Snyder, 1987). They are more adaptable and more likely to change their behavior to suit what is socially accepted and socially desirable. High self-monitors are prone to give higher performance evaluations and to be less accurate because they want to be socially desirable (Jawahar, 2001). Individuals with higher levels of self-monitoring have also been found to occupy more central positions in their organizational networks due to their ability to adapt to the situation (Mehra et al., 2001). High self-monitors are also more adept at using impression management tactics so that they are seen as likable when using impression-management (Turnley & Bolino, 2001) and are viewed more favorably even when they are demographically different (Flynn, Chatman, & Spataro, 2001). Low self-monitors, on the other hand, are viewed unfavorably when they use impression management (Turnley & Bolino, 2001). These

findings are in line with earlier research by Snyder (1974), showing that high self-monitors are better at enacting emotions when instructed to do so. Moreover, Snyder (1974) found that the mean score of professional actors on self-monitoring is higher that the mean score of a sample of non-actors. In addition, high self-monitors obtain more favorable network positions in part due to their better interpersonal skills and higher adaptability (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Mehra et al., 2001).

According to Lennox & Wolfe's (1984) conceptualization of self-monitoring, it consists of a cognitive and behavioral component. They refer to the cognitive component as "sensitivity to the expressive behavior of others". This component reflects the tendency of high self-monitors to be sensitive, and aware of environmental stimuli such as the emotions of others. The behavioral component, which they label "ability to modify self-presentation" is concerned with the extent to which individuals are capable of adapting to the situation.

Perceived fit. Studying the influence of organizational culture and individual values on important organizational outcomes has been an area of considerable research in the past decade in the field of organizational behavior (Chatman, 1989; Chatman, 1991; Judge & Cable, 1997; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). The general assumption that drives the recurring interest in understanding the direct and interactive effects of organizational culture and individual values is that both individual values and organizational (situational) characteristics influence actual behaviors (Chatman, 1989; Ekehammar, 1974).

A large body of literature on organizational culture has focused on person-organization fit (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1989; Kristof, 1996; O'Reilly et al.,

1991), also informing other streams of research examining perceived fit in other important dimensions such as personal and team goals (Kristof-Brown & Stevens, 2001). The assumptions underlying research on P-O fit are that a) individuals hold specific values and beliefs and b) organizations have specific value systems (culture) (Chatman, 1989). Therefore, it is conceivable that combining individuals' value systems and organizational culture can result either in a good fit or a poorer fit, which in turn affect important outcomes such as performance, satisfaction, commitment and turnover (Chatman, 1989; Chatman, 1991; Kristof, 1996; Saks, 1997).

Chapter 3: Hypotheses Development

Organizational Culture as Antecedent of Work Roles

According to the interdependent role-systems model (Graen, 1976), organizational culture is among the organizational factors that determine the set of role demands placed on a specific individual. Katz & Kahn (1978) also emphasized the importance of organizational factors in determining roles and argued that roles are the cognitive linking mechanisms between organizational stimuli and individuals because they "confront" organizational members with the system's expectations (1978: 220). Organizational culture research specifically suggests that organizational culture establishes shared norms and expectations throughout the organization (Cooke & Lafferty, 1986; Cooke & Szumal, 2000; Denison & Mishra, 1995; Schein, 1985) and the sensemaking literature suggests that people construct their perceptions of the world by making sense of a socially-constructed environment (Weick, 1995). Organizational culture permeates and defines the organizational environment, providing a means for the organization and its leadership to communicate its expectations to organizational members (Ashforth, 1985).

An important assumption of the organizational culture literature examining the link between culture and effectiveness is that culture motivates and guides employee behaviors by establishing norms and expectations. To date no research has empirically examined the process through which culture may influence behaviors. Applying a role theory and sensemaking perspective on behaviors in a social context, I propose that culture provides the system of meaning, which informs the roles that individuals in the

organization perceive as expected and appropriate (Ashforth, 1985; Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Weick, 1995).

Research on individualism-collectivism suggests that when primed subjects retrieve cognitive responses attuned to the specific type of priming (Trafimow et al., 1991). Research on national culture also suggests that subjects from different cultures emphasize different aspects of the self (Triandis, 1989), have different cognitions, emotions, and motivations (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), form distinct representations of conflict depending on their cultural background (Gelfand et al., 2001) as well as work differently in work groups depending on their level of individualism-collectivism (Earley, 1993).

Similarly, organizational culture has an impact on individual behavior, patterns of social interaction and performance outcomes (Chatman & Barsade, 1995;Chatman et al., 1998; Schein, 1985). As Schein (1985) put it:

"To function as a group, the individuals who come together must establish a system of communication and a language that permits interpretation of what is going on. The human organism cannot tolerate too much uncertainty and/or stimulus overload. Categories of meaning that organize perceptions and thought, thereby filtering out what is unimportant while focusing on what is important, become not only a major means of reducing overload and anxiety but also a necessary precondition for any coordinated action." (p. 71).

In line with Schein's predictions, Chatman and colleagues proposed: "Members of collectivistic organizational cultures will view organizational membership as a more salient category than will members of individualistic organizations" (1998: 751), thereby

suggesting a cognitive perspective on the mechanism via which organizational culture influences processes and behavior. Gioa and Sims also emphasized the importance of cognition as an antecedent to action: "They [people in organizations] are unique in that they do not just *do*, they also *think*. More accurately, perhaps, they often take action as a result of their thinking. In a related vein, organizations themselves do not "behave" independently of the people who construct and manage them." (1986: 1). Given the importance cognition has been given in the literature, it seems surprising that the impact of culture on the cognitive roles as bridging mechanisms and process variables, which link the organization and the individual has not been explored. I use a role theory perspective to propose that organizational cultures create cognitive roles functional for the specific organizational environment, which reduce ambiguity by suggesting that specific patterns of behavior are appropriate and expected in the organization (Biddle, 1979; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Schein, 1985).

Therefore, I am examining the impact of specific dimensions of organizational culture on individual role perceptions. The culture typology based on the competing values framework defines organizations as reconciling multiple demands, resulting in four different strategies for managing organizational processes- by focusing on internal stability, internal flexibility, external stability, or external flexibility. Building on the predictions of the competing values framework that organizations with different cultures pursue different ends (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) such as cohesion in the clan culture, external competitiveness in the market culture, adaptation through innovativeness in the entrepreneurial culture, and preserving the status-quo through strict observance of the existing rules in the hierarchy culture, I propose both positive and negative relationships

between culture and roles in accordance with the competing values framework (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Tesluk et al., 2002). Specifically, in the competing value model, entrepreneurial, and hierarchy cultures are expected to convey opposing objectives. In a similar vein, the clan and market dimensions emphasize differing aspects, namely internal flexibility via interpersonal harmony versus external efficiency through aggressiveness. While Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) acknowledge that organizations may need to pursue more than one end at the same time, they also suggest that there is an inherent contradiction between the competing objectives situated on opposite poles. Therefore, I expect that culture and role perceptions will be related in the following way:

Hypothesis 1. a) A clan type of organizational culture will be positively related to individuals' adoption of a helping role and b) negatively related to the adoption of an achievement role.

Hypothesis 1. c) A market type of organizational culture will be positively related to individuals' adoption of an achievement role and d) negatively related to the adoption of a helping role.

Hypothesis 1. e) An entrepreneurial type of organizational culture will be positively related to individuals' adoption of innovative role and f) negatively related to the adoption of a compliant role.

Hypothesis 1. g) A hierarchy type of organizational culture will be positively related to individuals' adoption of a compliant role and h) negatively related to the adoption of an innovative role.

Roles as Predictors of Behavior

Why is it important to understand the social cognitive nature of work role behavior? One important reason for investigating this is to gain the ability to understand what leads to positive and negative work outcomes and to be able to steer the process in the right direction. Roles are organized schemas that initiate behavior in social situations (Biddle, 1979; Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Therefore, roles are the scripts that guide behaviors. For instance, the extent to which an individual endorses OCBs as part of a work-role is likely to lead to actual OCB (Hofmann et al., 2003; Morrison, 1994; Tepper et al., 2001). I am examining a broader domain of role perceptions and based on the predictions of cognitive role theories (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Lord & Foti, 1986) I make similar predictions regarding the outcomes of roles.

Role perceptions act like schemas to provide a system for organizing knowledge (Freeman, Romney, & Freeman, 1987) and lead to relatively automatic processing of information and behavior (Lord & Foti, 1986). From a role theory perspective (Biddle, 1979; Katz & Kahn, 1978), roles convey organizational expectations. Therefore, I predict that employees' work roles will be positively related to the respective expected behaviors and negatively related to the behaviors that are dysfunctional.

Hypothesis 2 a). A helping role will be positively related to helping behavior and b) negatively related to achievement behavior.

Hypothesis 2 c). An achievement role will be positively related to achievement behavior and negatively related to d) helping behavior.

Hypothesis 2. e) An innovative role will be positively related to innovative behavior and f) negatively related to compliant behavior.

Hypothesis 2. g). A compliant role will be positively related to compliant behavior and h) negatively related to innovative behavior.

Moderators of The Relationships Between Organizational Culture, Roles, and Behaviors

Culture strength as a moderator. From a role theory perspective as well consensus is an important attribute of roles and expectations. As Biddle (1979) suggested: "… role theorists should avoid the concept of shared expectation… unless the actual condition of consensus can be established" (p. 195). Consensus denotes the extent to which people in a situation hold convergent expectations of each other roles and expected behaviors, thus, facilitating the uninterrupted functioning of social systems (such as organizational systems). In the presence of consensual beliefs, social stability and behavior conformity is likely to occur (Biddle, 1979).

Research on work climate has examined climate strength (Klein, Conn, Smith, & Sorra, 2001; Schneider, Salvaggio, & Subiratis, 2002). For instance, Schneider and colleagues (2002) found that high climate strength boosted the relationship between aspects of climate for service and customer satisfaction, while Gonzales-Roma, Peiro, & Tordera (2002) found that high climate strength intensifies the links between type of climate and outcome variables such as commitment and satisfaction. Mischel's (1976) perspective on the influence of situational strength on attitudes and behavior provides one theoretical avenue, which has been explored in the climate research (Schneider et al.,

2002). Schneider and colleagues (2002), for instance, have built on Mischel's work to suggest that strong climates induce more uniform patterns of behavior consistent with the group climate as compared to weak climates. More recently, human resource management scholars have also emphasized the importance of strength of the HRM system in inducing appropriate and uniform employee perceptions and behaviors (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004).

Building on the literature on culture and existing empirical research on climate strength, I also expect that strength of culture will modify the relationships between culture types and outcome variables. For instance, a strong culture also is likely to reflect the presence of strong normative beliefs regarding what is acceptable in the organization, which would in turn induce uniform expectations in line with the propositions of the situational strength research (Mischel, 1976). In addition, when the culture is stronger, individuals are more likely to perceive their roles in ways consonant with the organizational culture, due to the higher clarity of the organizational system (Martin, 1992). Therefore, I propose that culture strength acts as a moderator of the relationships presented in *Hypotheses 1a-1h* such that when the culture strength is higher, suggesting a higher level of consensus, culture would have a stronger impact on employees' cognitive role perceptions.

Hypothesis 3 .a) Culture strength moderates the positive relationship between a clan type of organizational culture and helping role and b) the negative relationship between a clan type and achievement role such that when culture strength is high, the

proposed relationships will be stronger and when culture strength is low the proposed relationships will be weaker.

Hypothesis 3. c) Culture strength moderates the positive relationship between market type of organizational culture and achievement role and d) the negative relationship between market type of organizational culture and helping role s such that when culture strength is high, the proposed relationships will be stronger and when culture strength is low the proposed relationships will be weaker.

Hypothesis 3. e) Culture strength moderates the positive relationship between entrepreneurial type of organizational culture and innovative role and f) the negative relationship between entrepreneurial type of organizational culture and compliant role perceptions such that when culture strength is high, the proposed relationships will be stronger, and when culture strength is low the proposed relationships will be weaker.

Hypothesis 3. g) Culture strength moderates the positive relationship between hierarchy type of organizational culture and compliant role and h) the negative relationship between hierarchy type of culture and innovative role perceptions such that when culture strength is high, the proposed relationships will be stronger and when culture strength is low the proposed relationships will be weaker.

Moreover, applying a social conformity (Janis, 1972, 1982) perspective helps explicate the influence of culture strength on behavioral outcomes of interest. A persistent finding of the literature on social conformity, also labeled "groupthink," is that individuals in groups tend to publicly agree with the opinion of the majority even when they hold a divergent view. One reason for this effect is that social conformity sometimes seems to elicit personal benefits; for instance, socially conforming individuals tend to

become promoted in bureaucratic organizations (Coates & Pellegrin, 1957). Moreover, exhibiting social conformity is an easier way to get by without "rocking the boat" or being stereotyped as a deviant individual.

Individuals in groups exhibit social conformity for a variety of reasons including normative pressure or due to distortion of perception or judgment (Asch, 1958; Hackman, 1992). High culture strength indicates cohesion and agreement; thus, a strong culture may signify the existence of pressures for social conformity. Therefore, I expect that in the presence of high culture strength, role perceptions would also elicit stronger behavioral outcomes.

Hypothesis 4. Culture strength will moderate the relationships between roles and behaviors such that a) the positive relationship between helping role and helping as behavior and b) the negative relationship between helping role and achievement behavior, will be more pronounced in the presence of higher culture strength

Hypothesis 4. Culture strength will moderate the relationships between roles and behaviors such that c) the positive relationship between achievement role and achievement behavior and d) the negative relationship between achievement role and helping as behavior, will be more pronounced in the presence of higher culture strength.

Hypothesis 4. Culture strength will moderate the relationships between roles and behaviors such that e) the positive relationship between an innovative role and innovative behavior and f) the negative relationship between compliant role and

compliant behavior, will be more pronounced in the presence of higher culture strength.

Hypothesis 4. Culture strength will moderate the relationships between roles and behaviors such that g) the positive relationship between a compliant role and compliant behavior and h) the negative relationship between compliant role and innovative behavior, will be more pronounced in the presence of higher culture strength.

Self-monitoring as a moderator. The literature on self-monitoring suggests that high self-monitors are adept at deciphering situational cues, they are skilled at acting appropriately, and using impression management to enhance their images. Based on the literature on self-monitoring, Chatman (1991) proposed that self-monitoring would lead to higher P-O fit one year after entry because high self-monitors are more socializable. The statistical results did not reach significance but they were in the predicted positive direction. High self-monitors are motivated to read the situation while low self-monitors are either not motivated or not adept at sensing situation cues (Snyder, 1986).

Therefore, I expect that self-monitoring will affect the degree to which organizational culture has an effect on the individual's role perceptions. High self-monitors can be expected to incorporate situational stimuli more in their cognitive schemas. In line with Lennox & Wolfe's (1984), two-component conceptualization of self-monitoring, high self-monitors are sensitive to the expressive behavior of others on a cognitive level (cognitive self-monitoring) as well as they are more capable of adapting behaviorally to a specific situation (behavioral self-monitoring). Therefore, one argument

concerns the ability of high self-monitors, due to their sensitivity in observing and decoding situations more so than low self-monitors, to incorporate more of the organizational culture stimuli into their own role perceptions.

Hypothesis 5. The relationships between clan type of organizational culture and a) helping (positive) and b) achievement (negative) role will be moderated by level of self-monitoring (cognitive) such that when self-monitoring is higher, the proposed relationships will be enhanced.

Hypothesis 5. The relationships between market type of organizational culture and c) achievement (positive) and d) helping (negative) role will be moderated by level of self-monitoring (cognitive) such that when self-monitoring is higher, the proposed relationships will be enhanced.

Hypothesis 5. The relationships between entrepreneurial type of organizational culture and e) innovative (positive) and f) compliant (negative) role will be moderated by level of self-monitoring (cognitive) such that when self-monitoring is higher, the proposed relationships will be enhanced.

Hypothesis 5. The relationships between the hierarchy type of organizational culture and g) compliant (positive) and h) innovative (negative) role will be moderated by level of self-monitoring (cognitive) such that when self-monitoring is higher, the proposed relationships will be enhanced.

In addition, the ability and willingness of high self-monitors to adapt to the situation at hand is another aspect of self-monitoring (Chatman, 1991; Lennox & Wolfe,

1984; Mehra et al., 1991). High self-monitors, therefore, can be expected to enact their organizational roles more so than low self-monitors. This leads to the next set of propositions outlined in *hypothesis 6*:

Hypothesis 6. Self-monitoring (behavioral) will moderate the relationships between roles and behaviors such that a) the positive relationship between helping role and helping as behavior and b) the negative relationship between helping role and achievement behavior,

c) The positive relationship between achievement role and achievement behavior and d) the negative relationship between achievement role and helping as behavior,

e) The positive relationship between an innovative role and innovative behavior and f) the negative relationship between compliant role and compliant behavior,

g) The positive relationship between a compliant role and compliant behavior and h) the negative relationship between compliant role and innovative behavior, will be more pronounced when self-monitoring (behavioral) is higher.

P-O fit as a moderator. The extent to which an applicant feels he/she fits with the organization is also likely to influence the frequency of his/her extra-role behaviors (Chatman, 1989). Subjective fit has been shown to mediate the relationship between objective fit and organizational attractiveness (Judge & Cable, 1997). This suggests that perceived fit with an organization is a fairly accurate reflection of objective fit between individual values and cultural preferences. Furthermore, the way that individuals perceive their fit with an organization before working in it carries a lot of importance for their

organizational choice later (Judge & Cable, 1997). In addition, perceived fit with an organization has a positive relationship with work attitudes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment and a negative association with intentions to turnover (Cable & Judge, 1996).

Further advocating the importance of person-organization fit, Chatman (1989) argued that high person-organization fit increases the probability that individuals will engage in specific behaviors such as cooperation if they feel that what the organization values is congruent with their own values. Socialization research suggests that newcomers are more willing to take on roles compatible with their personal values (Chatman, 1991; Fisher, 1986; Schein, 1978). The degree of person-organization fit (P-O fit), thus, is an important motivational aspect that fosters the acceptance of organizationally endorsed values (Chatman, 1989; Saks, 1997).

Building on the extant literature, the congruence between individuals' preferences and organizational values can be expected to lead to stronger adoption of the organizational values. Individuals who are feel that they are fitting well with the organizational environment may also be more likely to accurately perceive and interpret the organizational expectations communicated through the culture. This leads to my next hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7 .a) P-O fit moderates the positive relationship between a clan type of organizational culture and helping role and b) the negative relationship between a clan type and achievement role such that when P-O fit is high, the proposed relationships will be stronger.

Hypothesis 7. c) P-O fit moderates the positive relationship between market type of organizational culture and achievement role and d) the negative relationship between market type of organizational culture and helping role s such that when P-O fit is high, the proposed relationships will be stronger.

Hypothesis 7. e) P-O fit moderates the positive relationship between entrepreneurial type of organizational culture and innovative role and f) the negative relationship between entrepreneurial type of organizational culture and compliant role perceptions such that when P-O fit is high, the proposed relationships will be stronger.

Hypothesis 7. g) P-O fit moderates the positive relationship between hierarchy type of organizational culture and compliant role and h) the negative relationship between hierarchy type of culture and innovative role such that when P-O fit is high, the proposed relationships will be stronger.

Moreover, using an enactment perspective, individual action is driven by personal motives and individuals are active creators of their environment and are not just passive recipients (Abolafia & Kilduff, 1988; Weick, 1981). And while task performance usually has a direct impact on performance evaluations, acting in accordance with the existing culture norms may not be as readily and easy to observe and reward or punish. Therefore, due to the expected higher discretion that roles allow, P-O fit may play an especially prominent role in the process of role enactment.

Consistent with the logic of enactment, individuals with high fit are, for instance, more likely to seek to sustain the existing environment by engaging in behaviors consistent with the expectations. Individuals who experience low fit, however, might

engage less in these behaviors prescribed by the organizational culture context in an attempt to resist or change the existing environment. I propose that P-O fit will moderate the relationship between roles and behaviors. When the degree of perceived fit with the organization is high for the employee, then he/she is more likely to engage in a role-prescribed behavior than when it is low.

Hypothesis 8. a) The positive relationship between helping role and helping behavior and the negative relationship between helping role, and b) achievement behavior will be moderated by the degree of P-O fit so that when P-O fit is high the proposed relationships will be stronger.

Hypothesis 8. c) The positive relationship between achievement role and achievement behavior and the d) negative relationships between achievement role and helping behavior will be moderated by P-O fit so that when P-O fit is high the proposed relationships will be stronger.

Hypothesis 8. e) The positive relationship between innovative role and innovative behavior and f) the negative relationship between innovative role and compliant behavior will be moderated by the degree of P-O fit so that when P-O fit is high the proposed relationships will be stronger.

Hypothesis 8. g) The positive relationship between compliant role and compliant behavior and h) the negative relationship between compliant role and innovative behavior will be moderated by P-O fit so that when P-O fit is high the proposed relationships will be stronger.

Summary

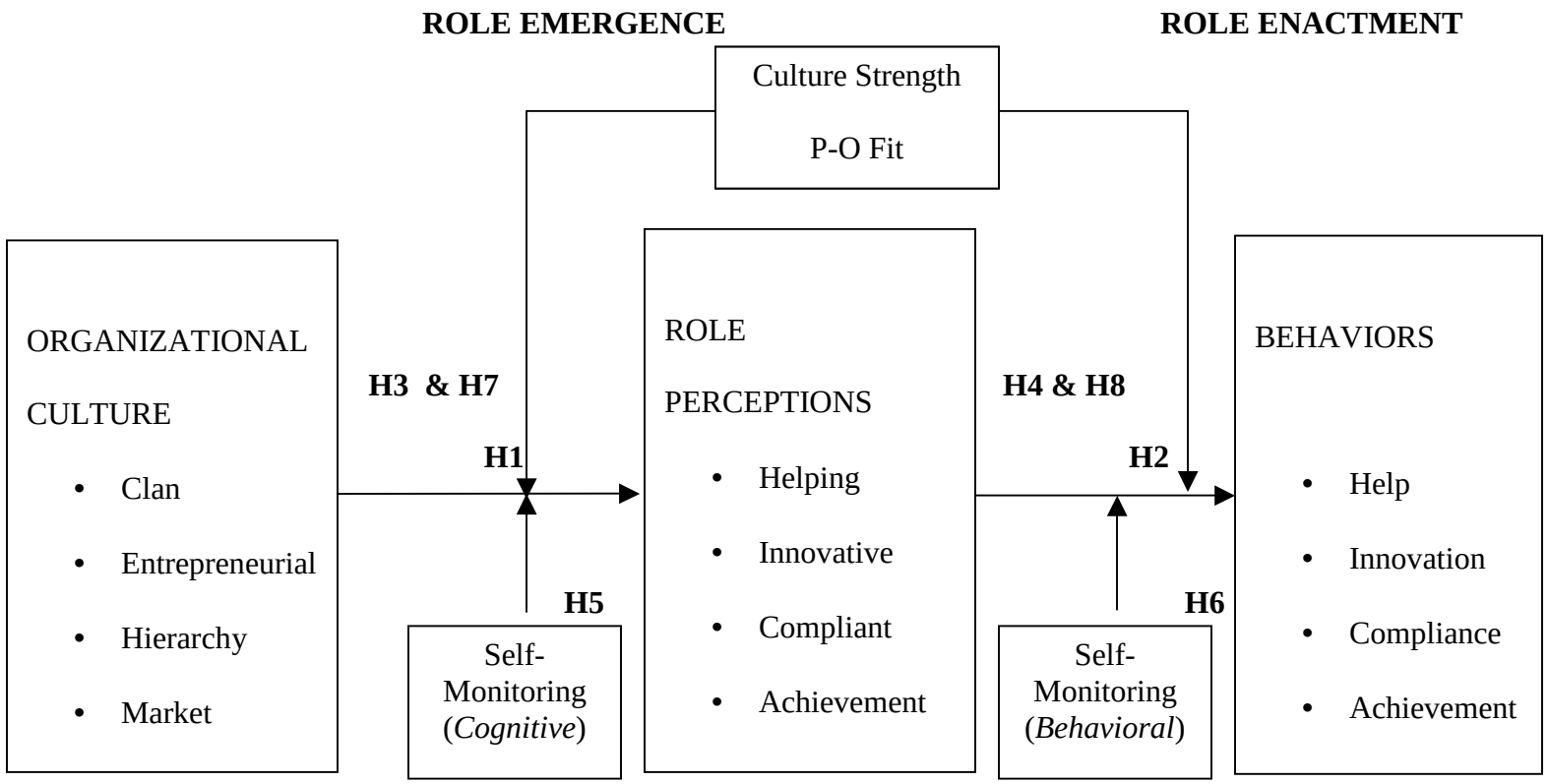
Research on organizational culture suggests that culture is a potent predictor of employee behaviors because culture defines the norms of accepted behaviors. The *emic* and *etic* perspectives on culture have recommended different methods for measuring culture. Here, I adopt an etic perspective in that I adapt an existing instrument of culture and apply it to multiple organizational settings to generate results that could be generalized irrespective of the specific organization.

The specific dimensions that I examine are based on existing measures and conceptualizations of culture and they correspond to four role types that I explore. In particular, I explore market, entrepreneurial, hierarchy and clan cultures in line with Denison and Mishra's (1995) and Cameron and Quinn's (1999) model of culture and effectiveness. I propose direct relationships between culture and role perceptions such that entrepreneurial type of culture is positively related to innovative role perceptions and negatively related to compliant role. I also expect a direct positive link between clan type of culture and helping role perceptions and a negative link between clan culture and achievement role perceptions. In addition, I propose a positive relationship between the hierarchy type of culture and compliant role and a negative relationship between hierarchy culture and innovative role. I also propose a positive relationship between a market type of culture and achievement role perceptions as well as a negative relationship between market culture and helping role. I also hypothesize positive and negative relationship between roles and respective behaviors (e.g. innovative role and innovative behavior).

I propose several moderators of the direct relationships: culture strength, self-monitoring, and P-O fit based on the literature review. Culture strength describes the degree to which the culture is unequivocal and socially shared, thus, reducing uncertainty about expected behaviors (Schein, 1985). I propose that when the organizational culture's strength is high, the relationships between culture dimensions and respective role perceptions would be stronger. In addition, I posit that culture strength will also induce more uniform relationships between roles and behaviors building on the logic of social conformity theory. Self-monitoring is an individual difference that describes the degree to which an individual is adept at deciphering situational cues and is also likely to comply with situation cues. I propose that higher levels of self-monitoring will strengthen the relationships between organizational culture, and roles, and roles and behaviors.

Finally, the level of fit with the organization will have an impact on the extent to which, individuals perceived roles consistent with the cultural norms of the organization, as well the degree to which cognitive roles lead to actual behaviors. From an enactment perspective individuals are not only passive observers of their environment but active creators. Therefore, individuals who are high on P-O fit are more likely to comply with the organizational role expectations; while employees with lower P-O fit might be less willing to engage in organizationally expected roles. Figure 2 displays the proposed relationships.

Figure 2: Model of Role Perceptions and Role Enactment



Chapter 4: Method Section

Research Design

The data were collected in the fall semester of 2004. The research project was designed to minimize potential common method bias caused by collecting data from a single source. Specifically, responses were collected from students enrolled in four core part-time MBA classes at a large Mid-Atlantic public university as well as from their coworkers and supervisors. First, focal employees (i.e., part-time MBAs) were asked to provide their ratings of their organization's culture, role perceptions, self-monitoring, fit, and culture strength. In addition, students solicited the participation of their coworkers and supervisors to respond to surveys regarding organizational culture (coworkers) and the focal MBA students' behaviors (coworkers and supervisors). In exchange, students received a detailed developmental feedback report regarding their teamwork and leadership capabilities.

The surveys were collected electronically, by sending emails directing the students and their colleagues to websites containing the respective surveys. The participants had unique user names and passwords known only by them individually and by the student investigator. This ensured the confidentiality of the survey collection process. Moreover, only aggregate scores were used for the coworker/supervisor-based portion of the student feedback in order to guarantee that their individual responses would remain anonymous and confidential.

Sample

Initial focal MBA sample. I collected data from 206 participants, working in organizations and studying as part-time MBA students. The average age of respondents was between 26-35 years (71.8%), female participants accounted for 24.80% of all respondents, 98.50% of the participants were employed full-time during the data collection period in a variety of occupations as follows: 21% in financial services/banking companies, 16% in consulting/government relations companies, another 16% in high tech companies, 10.50% in the government in defense contractor companies, (the remainder were employed in various types of companies, each accounting for less that 10% of the sample). Respondents had average company tenure of 3.31 years (SD=2.70) and average job tenure of 2.45 years (SD=1.88), 33% reported that they worked less than 50% of their time as part of a work team. The majority of respondents categorized themselves as White/Caucasian (58.30%), followed by Indian Subcontinental/Pacific Islander (14.60%), Asian (14.10%), African American (6%), Hispanic/Latino (6.50%), and Native American (.5%).

Coworker/supervisor sample. A total of 792 coworkers responded to the coworker portion of the survey regarding work behaviors of 202 of the MBA student participants (98% of the focal participants). A total of 358 supervisors responded to the supervisor part of the survey for 193 MBA participants (94% of the focal participants). I did not collect any demographic data from the supervisors and coworkers because they were only providing ratings regarding the focal MBA or the organizational culture (coworkers). There was no theoretical reason to believe that demographic data would influence these particular ratings.

Analysis

For the actual analysis of the proposed relationships, sub-sets of the initial samples of respondents were used such that they were selected based on theoretical reasons to allow analyzing the proposed relationships between constructs of interests. For purposes of clarity, this section is organized in two parts: the first section describes the sample utilized for the analysis of relationships between culture and roles. And the second section provides details about the sample used in the analysis of the relationships between roles and behaviors.

Section one: relationship between culture and role perceptions. For the analysis of the first part of the model examining the relationships between culture and role perceptions of organizational expectations, a theoretically derived subset of the initial sample of coworkers was used. I focused on coworkers for capturing culture because I wanted to capture the shared perceptions of culture rather than an individual's single perception (Rentsch, 1990). This approach is consistent with the climate literature, wherein a distinction is drawn between organizational, and psychological climate. Specifically, the former refers to the shared, aggregated perceptions of multiple individuals, while the latter is reserved for an individual's unique perception of the climate (Gavin & Howe, 1975; Glick, 1985; Jones & James, 1979; Parker et al., 2003).

In addition, some more considerations were made in selecting the specific set of coworkers for reporting organizational culture. First, only the responses of individuals currently working in the same organization as the focal were used since they were expected to report the relevant organizational culture of the respective participant (which reduced the initial sample to N=160 focal employees). In addition, the research questions

focus on *organizational* culture. Therefore, the survey included some screening items regarding the level at which the respondents were reporting. In particular, respondents were prompted to report what level they referred to as they were completing the questionnaire (e.g. organization, group, department). Only the respondents who reported organizational level were retained to maintain the focus on the organization as the relevant entity of interest. This procedure was employed to exclude individuals reporting on different levels because their perceptions were likely to be the result of an organizational subculture rather than the overall culture that organizational leaders maintain (Martin, 1992). The resulting sample had 98 focal individual observations and 257 coworker responses (Average N=2.62 per focal).

In the resulting sample, the predominant percentage of focal respondents were between 26-35 years (73.5%), female participants accounted for 26.50% of focal respondents, 99% of the participants were employed full-time during the data collection period in a variety of occupations as follows: 18.2% in financial services/banking companies, 14.3% in consulting/government relations companies, another 16.9% in high tech companies, 10.40% in government, 10.4% in manufacturing (the remainder were employed in various types of companies, each accounting for less that 10% of the sample). Respondents had average company tenure of 3.71 years (SD=3.40) and average job tenure of 2.30 years (SD=1.73), 37% reported that they worked less than 50% of their time as part of a work team. The majority of respondents categorized themselves as White/Caucasian (61.7%), followed by Asian (11.70%), Indian Subcontinental/Pacific Islander (10.60%), African American (10.6%), Hispanic/Latino (5.30%). The

characteristics of this sample were, thus, very similar to the characteristics of the larger sample of focal working individuals.

Moreover, I compared the means of the selected sample with the excluded sample on the four culture dimensions to check If there were systematic differences between the initial set of respondents, and the selected respondents. The differences between three of the four culture dimensions were not significant. Only the means for market culture differed significantly for both samples such that individuals used in the analysis reported slightly higher values on market culture ($F = .63$, $p < .05$). This difference may suggest that on average respondents in organizations higher on market culture perceive the organizational level as more salient, thus, reporting culture on the organizational level. The means of the other measures did not differ in the two samples.

Section two: relationships between roles and behaviors. For the second set of analyses, the focus was on roles and behaviors. There were two sources used to measure focal employee behaviors: coworkers and supervisors. Here a different procedure was employed to select the most theoretically viable sample. For instance, for the coworker sample, the focus was on retaining those coworkers who are familiar with the focal individual behaviors such that their report would be most informed. The sample resulted in 107 focal observations and 325 coworkers (average N=3 respondents per focal). In this sample, the focal characteristics were very similar to the ones described in the previous samples. The sample for supervisors was selected using a similar method by focusing only on those supervisors who have reported knowing the person's work well or very well. This resulted in a sample of 143 supervisors responding for 89 focal individuals (average N=1.66 per focal).

Summary

To summarize, I used coworker ratings for the evaluation of culture. My use of coworkers as a source of rating culture was based on the premise that there is an objective, shared reality underlying the culture phenomenon (Gavin & Howe, 1975; Glick, 1985;Parker et al., 2003). In addition, using coworker rating for culture allowed me to triangulate the rating sources of roles and culture. On the other hand, I used the focal employee's rating of roles, perceived fit, self-monitoring, and culture strength. Given the nature of the scales (e.g. how an individual perceives their fit with the organization), the use of self-report seemed warranted.

The ultimate outcome of interest was employee behaviors, which were captured both from the coworkers' and supervisors' perspectives. I expected that coworkers would provide more informed ratings than supervisors. Moreover, I did not use self-report for behaviors due to the potential for social desirability as well as common method bias. Table 2 shows the relationship between sources and measurement scales.

Table 2: Sources for Primary Analysis

Scale/Source	Focal	Coworker(s)	Supervisor(s)
Organizational culture		X	
Culture Strength	X		
Self-monitoring	X		
P-O fit	X		
Role Perceptions	X		
Behaviors		X	X

Measures

Organizational culture. I adapted an existing measure originally developed by Cameron & Quinn (1999) to measure organizational culture. The measure captures four

dimensions of organizational culture- clan (cooperative), adhocracy (entpreneurial/innovative), hierarchy (compliant), and market (competitive) types. Here, I refer to clan culture as clan or cooperative culture; adhocracy culture as entrepreneurial or innovative; hierarchy culture as hierarchy or hierarchical, and market culture as market or market-oriented culture culture. The initial questionnaire contained 20 questions (5 per culture type) divided in four sections describing different aspects of the organizational culture (e.g. sample item from clan reads: "This organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to feel comfortable sharing their personal situations with colleagues."). Respondents were instructed to rate the degree to which each statement is characteristic of the culture that they experience it.

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with principal axis factoring was conducted on the coworker responses, specifying four factors. The factor structure revealed that two of the items from the entrepreneurial culture had high cross-loadings, thus, were dropped from further analysis. The results of the EFA are presented in table 3.

Table 3: Exploratory Factor Analysis of Organizational Culture

Items	Scale[3]	Factor			
		1	2	3	4
1. This organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to feel comfortable sharing their personal situations with colleagues.	C	**.50**	.05	.06	.12
2. The management style in this organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.	C	**.79**	.01	-.04	.08
3. The glue that holds this organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.	C	**.87**	.03	-.18	-.09
4. This organization emphasizes personal and	C	**.87**	.02	.01	-.08

[3] C refers to clan culture; E- entrepreneurial culture; M- market culture; H- hierarchy culture.

professional development. There is a strong focus on developing skills and providing interesting work opportunities.					
5. This organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment and concern for people.	C	**.82**	.09	-.03	.06
6. This organization is a very controlled & structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.	E	-.07	**.82**	-.17	-.16
7. The management style of this organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability	E	.15	**.77**	.04	.01
8. The glue that holds this organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.	E	.02	**.90**	.15	-.04
9. This organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are important.	E	.13	**.87**	.07	.01
10. This organization defines success of the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost production are critical.	E	-.10	**.61**	-.14	.11
11. This organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.	M	-.03	.06	**-.78**	.08
12. The management style in this organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.	M	.15	-.06	**-.89**	-.19
13. The glue that holds this organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.	M	.12	-.04	**-.81**	-.05
14.This organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.	M	.04	.07	**-.84**	.04
15. This organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.	M	-.16	.07	**-.66**	.25
16. This organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to	H	.52	-.18	-.25	.33

stick their necks out and take risks.					
17. The management style of this organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom and uniqueness.	H	.43	-.17	-.04	.47
18. The glue that holds this organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.	H	.26	.02	.06	**.77**
19. This organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.	H	.33	-.12	-.09	**.58**
20. This organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product/service leader and innovator.	H	.03	.01	-.28	**.57**
Eigenvalues		5.83	3.42	4.70	4.72

Note. N=98 (aggregate of 257 coworkers). This table is based on the results of a prinicipal axis factoring analysis with oblique rotation (four factors). A key phrase from each item is used to represent each item.

A confirmatory factor analysis using the focal responses to the culture items was performed as an additional test providing evidence for the generalizability of the four-factor structure across different samples of respondents (Bentler, 1990; Bentler & Bonnett, 1980). The CFA results suggest that the 18 items provide good fit for a four-factor model (CFI= .96; RMSEA= .06; SRMR= .08), that all of the items load significantly on their intended factors, and that the factors have sufficient discriminant validity (the highest inter-correlation is at .59, between entrepreneurial and clan culture).

To limit the potential influence of common method bias in examining the relationship between organizational culture and role perceptions, I use the average of coworkers' ratings of the organizational culture in examining the relationship between

culture and roles. The reliability of the clan culture measure is .90. The reliability of the entrepreneurial culture measure equals .85. The market-oriented culture measure also exhibited a high degree of reliability of .91. Finally, the hierarchy culture measure has a reliability of .89. Therefore, all of the culture dimensions measures exhibited acceptable reliabilities.

In addition, I measured organizational culture perceptions from the focal participant's perspective. The standardized reliability estimates in the focal sample are as follows: .80 for the clan culture, .82 for the entrepreneurial culture, .90 for market culture, and .86 for the hierarchy culture.

To provide initial evidence on the convergent validity of the culture measure, I estimated the correlations between the aggregated coworker perceptions of culture and the focal individual's perceptions of the same organization's culture. The correlation between the clan cultures from both perspectives is positive and significant ($r = .49$, $p < .01$). Entrepreneurial culture measurements from both perspectives were correlated at .47, which is also significant at $p < .01$. Furthermore, the competitive culture measures were related at .52 ($p < .01$). Finally, hierarchy culture from both perspectives was correlated at .47 ($p < .01$). Table 4 provides more detail regarding the convergent and discriminant validity of organizational culture from the focal and coworker perspectives.

Table 4:Correlations between Dimensions of Culture from the Coworker and Focal Perspectives

Variable	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Clan [a]	4.87	1.07	(.90)							
2. Entrepreneurial [a]	4.59	1.16	.64**	(.85)						
3. Market-oriented [a]	5.10	.96	.34**	.48**	(.91)					
4. Hierarchy [a]	4.65	1.02	.09	-.06	.13	(.89)				
5. Clan [b]	4.35	1.24	**.49****	.33**	.23*	.00	(.80)			
6. Entrepreneurial [b]	4.17	1.52	.38**	**.47****	.33**	-.11	.45**	(.82)		
7. Market-oriented [b]	4.87	1.38	.11	.18	**.52****	-.16	.27*	.51**	(.90)	
8. Hierarchy [b]	4.41	1.47	-.24**	-.31**	-.20*	**.47****	-.18	-.29*	-.16	(.86)

Note. N=98. * p <0.05 ** p<0.01 . Reliabilities appear on the diagonal. [a] = Co-worker-rated [b] = Focal perspective.

A confirmatory factor analysis using the focal responses to the culture items was performed as an additional test providing evidence for the generalizability of the four-factor structure across different samples of respondents. The CFA results suggest that the 18 items provide good fit for a four-factor model (CFI= .96; RMSEA= .06; SRMR= .08), that all of the items load significantly on their intended factors, and that the factors have sufficient discriminant validity (the highest inter-correlation is at .59, between entrepreneurial and clan culture).

To limit the potential influence of common method bias in examining the relationship between organizational culture and role perceptions, I use the average of coworkers' ratings of the organizational culture in examining the relationship between culture and roles. The reliability of the clan culture measure is .90. The reliability of the

entrepreneurial culture measure equals .85. The market-oriented culture measure also exhibited a high degree of reliability of .91. Finally, the hierarchy culture measure has a reliability of .89. Therefore, all of the culture dimensions measures exhibited acceptable reliabilities.

In addition, a multi-trait multi-method approach provides further evidence for the convergent and discriminant validity of the dimensions of culture. Specifically, a confirmatory factor analysis of a model in which both method effects (coworker vs. focal) and culture effects (clan, entrepreneurial, market and hierarchical) suggests that its fit to the data is high (Model 1: CFI=1.00; SRMR= .04). Comparing this model to one in which the culture effects are removed shows significantly lower fit (Model 2: CFI=.68; SRMR=.12). The chi-square difference between model 1 and 2 is also highly significant ($\Delta\chi^2$= 89.39, 14df, p< .001). This result suggests that the culture dimensions exhibit convergent validity. A comparison between model 1 and a model in which the traits are perfectly correlated (model 3), on the other hand, suggests that the culture facets also exhibit discriminant validity ($\Delta\chi^2$ =53.05, 4 df, p< .001). Table 5 details the results.

Table 5: Multi-trait Multi-method Approach to Culture

Structure	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^{2\,c}$	Δ df	IFI	CFI	SRMR/ RMSEA
Model 1: Freely correlated traits and freely correlated methods.	5.20	5	-	-	1.00	1.00	.04/ .02
Model 2: Freely correlated methods but no traits.	94.59	19	89.39***	14	.69	.68	.12/ .20
Model 3: Perfectly correlated traits and freely correlated methods.	58.25	11	53.05***	4	.80	.81	.08/ .21

Note. The χ^2 statistics for model 1 is not significant. The χ^2 values for model 2 and 3 are significant at p< .001. IFI=incremental fit index; CFI=comparative fit index; RMSEA= root mean square of approximation. [c] The change in χ^2 is based on comparisons between the Model 1 and the other two models. *** p< .001.

Data aggregation for organizational culture. I calculated intra-class correlations ICC (1) and ICC (2) to assess the degree to which organizational culture can be considered an organizational level phenomenon as measured in the current study. ICC (1) can be interpreted as a measure of the proportion of variance explained by organization membership or as the degree to which ratings from respondents from the same unit of analysis (e.g. the organization) are substitutable (Bliese, 2000). The formula for computing ICC (1) is based on a one-way ANOVA with organization membership as the independent variable and the scales of interest as the dependent variable. The organizational culture ratings on each of the four dimensions are the outcome variables of interest. The computations of the ICC (1) an (2) were performed using the appropriate ANOVA method.

The formula used to compute the ICC (1) is as follows:

$$ICC\ (1)=(MSB-MSW)/[MSB+(k-1)*MSW]$$

Where k is the average number of respondents from the same organization (k=2.92 in this sample). All of the F-tests associated with organization membership were significant ($p< .001$). The ICC (1) values are as follows: .26 for clan culture, .27 for the entrepreneurial culture, .21 for the market culture, and .43 for the hierarchy culture. These values suggest that membership in a specific organization explains between 27% and 44% of the variance in organizational culture ratings. These values are higher than the median ICC (1) of .12, which was reported by James (1982), indicating that there is a good amount of between-organization variability relative to within-organization in respondents' perceptions of their organization's culture.

ICC (2) is a measure of the reliability group (i.e., organization-level) means (Bliese, 2000) and was calculated with the following formula:

$$ICC\ (2)=(MSB-MSW)/MSB$$

The ICC (2) values are .50, .50, .45, and .70 for clan, entrepreneurial, market, and hierarchy cultures, respectively. The ICC (2) values were relatively low for the most part may be partially attributed to the low number of respondents per organization.

The r_{wg} values reflect the level of agreement among coworkers regarding levels of culture. The median r_{wg} value for clan culture was .55, median r_{wg} value for entrepreneurial culture was .58, the median r_{wg} for market culture was equal to .70, and finally, the r_{wg} for hierarchy culture was equal to .58. Overall, these values suggest presence of agreement to allow aggregation of the scales.

Roles and employee behaviors. There are alternative methods of measuring roles available in the literature. Morrison (1994), for example, measured role perceptions by asking individuals to assign respective outcome activities into one of two categories: 1) activities that are an expected part of the job, and 2) activities, which are somewhat above what is expected. Lam and colleagues (1999), on the other hand, used a 5-point Likert scale to determine if an activity is more in-role or more extra-role. They asked respondents to rate the degree to which they agreed that each activity is an expected part of the role. Hofmann and colleagues (2003) used a 5-point Likert scale anchored so that 1 meant that an activity is an expected part of the job, while 5 stood for "definitely above and beyond what is expected for my job" (p. 172).

I used a procedure similar to Hofmann and colleagues (2003) by asking individuals to indicate on a Likert scale (1-7) whether an activity is extra-role or in-role.

Specifically, focal MBA participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they perceive four different types of behaviors to be expected of them by their organization. The instructions specifically read: "Rate the extent that your *organization expects* you to perform each role (NOTE: Work roles are activities that are not necessarily part of the job description but are expected by the organization)". A 1-7 anchored scale is used to indicate the extent to which each behavior was an expected part of a work role (1-definitely NOT expected as part of my work role; 2-only slightly expected as part of my work role; 3-somewhat expected; 4-moderately expected as part of my work role; 5-strongly expected as part of my work role; 6-very strongly expected as part of my work role; 7-absolutely expected as part of my work role).

The participants provided their roles ratings by responding to an initial pool of 34 items (7 items for helping role, 13 items for innovative role, 6 items for achievement role, and 8-items for compliant role). Most of these items were adapted from existing sources (e.g. Morrison & Phelps, 1999) or developed based on a literature review; some new items were also added to scales that were not so well developed in the literature (e.g. achievement and compliant roles). I conducted a factor analysis of the items to see if the items loaded on their component factors. Results from the exploratory analysis suggest that some items need to be dropped due to cross-loadings or because of low loading on their respective components. The initial item pool was not conforming to a four-factor solution. However, after several iterations and after removing cross-loading items, a smaller set of 13 items was derived using principal axis factoring with oblique rotation. Table 6 provides details regarding the factor analysis. (Please see Appendix A for the specific items).

Table 6: Exploratory Factor Analysis of Role Perceptions of Organizational Expectations

Items	Scale	Factor			
		1	2	3	4
1. Generating creative ideas.	I	**.89**	-.11	.00	.01
2. Promoting and championing ideas to others.	I	**.89**	.07	.08	.05
3. Being innovative.	I	**.91**	-.07	-.06	-.03
4. Doing my job in a way that emphasizes efficiency rather than creativity.	C	-.06	**.65**	-.05	-.20
5. Sticking with existing rules and procedures when doing my job rather than being creative	C	-.01	**.90**	-.05	.08
6. Going about solving problems following existing procedures	C	.07	**.83**	-.03	-.01
7. Relying on the existing work processes and procedures when it comes to completing my job responsibilities	C	-.06	**.76**	.09	.09
8. Taking time to listen to coworkers' problems and worries.	H	-.04	-.03	**.71**	.04
9. Going out of the way to help new employees.	H	.03	-.05	**.63**	-.06
10. Taking a personal interest in other employees.	H	-.02	.07	**.94**	.01
11. Strongly advocating my points and perspectives in meetings and discussions.	A	.39	.05	.03	**-.46**
12. Doing whatever it takes to achieve my performance goals and targets.	A	-.10	-.01	-.09	**-1.02**
13. Being an aggressive advocate for my interests and agendas.	A	.12	.01	.22	**-.64**
Eigenvalues		3.61	2.87	2.40	2.27

Note. N=98. This table is based on the results of a prinicipal axis factoring analysis with oblique rotation. A key phrase from each item is used to represent each item.
I refers to innovative role; C to compliant role; H to help role; A to achievement role.

Employee behaviors were measured using the same set of items for consistency purposes. Since I had already established the dimensionality of the role perceptions and I expected for behaviors to conform to the same structure, I used a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) approach. The results of the CFA suggest that the four-dimensional structure is well suited for the coworker ratings of behaviors (CFI= .98; SRMR= .08; RMSEA= .04). In addition, all of the factors were loading significantly on their

respective factors and the inter-correlations between factors did not exceed .85 recommended as the cutoff point for discriminant validity purposes (Kline, 1994). The internal Cronbach alpha-reliability of the help scale was .83, the reliability for innovative behavior was .90; the competitive/high performance scale had a reliability of .73, and finally, the scale for compliant behavior exhibited a reliability of .80.

The scales used to measure behaviors also exhibited good fit using the supervisor perceptions (CFI= .96; SRMR= .10; RMSEA= .07). The items were loading on the specified latent factors, and none of the inter-correlations between factors was higher than .85. The reliabilities in the supervisor sample were as follows: .85 (help), .93 (innovative behavior), .84 (achievement), and .79 (compliant behavior).

Issues of aggregation with behaviors. In order to justify the aggregation of coworker rated behaviors for each individual I selected a score of within-group inter-rater agreement R_{wg} to establish if there is sufficient agreement between respondents (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984, 1993). The median R_{wg} values for the help/cooperation, innovation, achievement, and compliant behavior, were as follows: .88, .87, .67 and 0.61 (in the coworker sample). All of these values are above the recommended level of .60 (James, 1982), thus, justifying the aggregation of multiple sources for each individual.

In addition, I calculated the ICC statistics using the same procedures as with the measures of culture. The F-statistics associated with organizational membership for three of the behaviors rated by coworkers was significant at $p<.001$; it was not significant for achievement behavior ($p< .18$). The ICC (1) values in the coworker sample were as follows: 0.10 for help, 0.08 for achievement behavior, 0.20 for innovative behavior, and finally, 0.12 for compliant behavior, thus, suggesting that there are some discernible

differences in behavior across organizations. The ICC (2) values were as follows: 0.25 for help, 0.16 for achievement behavior, 0.46 for innovative behavior, and 0.30 for compliant behavior.

Self-Monitoring. Self-monitoring is a form of social skill, related to the recognition and regulation of emotion in a social context (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Focal MBA participants were asked to rate their level of self-monitoring (on a 1-strongly disagree to 7-strongly agree scale format) on a previously developed and validated scale (Lennox & Wolf, 1984). A sample item reads " I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes." I conducted a CFA to confirm the dimensionality of the scale. One of the dimensions reflected social awareness, which Lennox & Wolfe (1984) labeled *sensitivity to expressive behavior of others* (sample item: "In conversation, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the persons I'm conversing with."). Alpha reliability of the scale was equal to .82. Here I refer to this dimension as cognitive self-monitoring.

The other dimension seemed to reflect a more active, behavioral component, which can be labeled *ability to modify self-presentation* (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984; Sample item: "In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for"). The CFA analysis showed that one item had very low explanatory power with respect to the overall latent dimension. Therefore, it was dropped from further analysis. The alpha reliability of the scale was .80. In my thesis, I refer to that dimension of self-monitoring as behavioral self-monitoring.

A 2-factor solution is consistent with the Lennox & Wolfe (1984) study, in which they found an identical two-factor structure. The CFI and IFI indices for the two-

dimensional model are equal to .99, indicating very good fit. In addition, the SRMR was equal to .05 (< .10) and the RMSEA was equal to .02. All of the indicator factor loading are significant at p< .001 and their paths were more than 2 times larger than the standard errors (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Using the available criteria for model fit, results from the CFA suggested that the 2-factor model provided a good fit.

Culture strength. Culture strength is defined as the extent to which culture is shared and reinforced in the organization (Martin, 1992). Here, I developed four 1-items measures for the primary analysis uses. A sample item reads: "Strength is defined in terms of the degree to which people in your organization collectively recognize and share a common set of values and beliefs about what is valued that are reinforced via formal and informal rewards, and work practices. Rate the culture strength on the following dimension of culture: a. innovation and adaptability—emphasis on risk and being on the cutting edge."). The scale for culture strength was anchored on a 7-point scale from 1-extremely weak to 7-extremely strong.

In addition, consistent with research on climate strength (Schneider et al., 2002), an alternative way to measure culture "strength" or more precisely, agreement is by the standard deviation of employee perceptions from each organization regarding the type of culture. This analysis is somewhat secondary because the construct validity of the standard deviation as a measure of strength has not been well established. Therefore, it is difficult to assess the extent to which agreement between employees on a culture dimension captures "strength".

P-O fit. P-O fit is measured by 3 items, adapted from Cable & Judge (1996) –A sample item is "I feel that my values "match" or fit my organization and the current employees in my organization". The reliability of this scale was .90.

Controls. Kidder and McLean Parks (2001) suggested that certain organizational roles might be influenced by gender stereotypes. For instance, women may perceive helping as more in-role while men may be more drawn to traditionally masculine competitive roles. Therefore, I am planning to include gender as a control variable.

Job type may also have implications for role perceptions and behaviors. Individuals who have more experience in a certain job may be more likely to possess the expertise to be innovative or helpful with other individuals. At the same time, organizational experience may provide incentives to individuals to abide by the organizational policies and rules (thus, inducing compliant behavior). To isolate its possible effect on outcome variables of interest, I am planning to include organizational experience (years, months in the current organization) as a control variable as well. While there it is theoretically justified to include controls, I do not expect the controls hold equally across different dependent variables. Therefore, I only report the effect of controls in those regressions where they are both theoretically relevant and empirically significant.

Chapter 5: Results

The results are outlined in two sections: one describing the relationships in the first part of the model (between culture and roles) and the other describing the results for the second part of the model (roles to behaviors).

Relationships between Culture and Role Perceptions

Table 7 describes the inter-correlations, means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of the variables used to test the proposed relationships between culture and roles.

Table 7: Correlation Table (Roles as Dependent Variable)

Variable	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	0.27	0.45	_										
2. Job type	0.55	0.50	.03	_									
3. Company experience	3.70	3.41	-.14	-.08	_								
4. Clan	4.87	1.08	-.02	.04	-.07	(.80)							
5. Entrepreneurial	4.60	1.16	.02	-.01	-.13	.65**	(.82)						
6. Market-oriented	5.11	0.96	-.05	-.05	-.11	.35**	.48**	(.90)					
7. Hierarchy	4.66	1.03	-.05	.03	.12	.09	-.07	.12	(.86)				
8. Clan strength	4.20	1.49	.03	.13	.11	.43**	.25*	.20*	-.02	_			
9. Entrepren. strength	4.09	1.46	.01	.07	.08	.24*	.34*	.36**	-.15	.31**	_		
10. Market strength	4.82	1.58	.13	.02	.02	.27*	.25*	.44**	-.14	.37**	.46**	_	
11. Hierarchy strength	4.40	1.56	.06	.04	.16	-.08	-.20*	.03	.32**	.25*	-.20*	.06	_

TABLE 7 (Continued).

Variable	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12. SD (clan)[a]	1.19	0.47	-.08	-.24	-.01	-.23	-.13	.02	-.14	.02	-.18	-.22	.11
13.SD (entrepreneurial) [a]	1.23	0.57	-.13	-.08	.17	-.05	-.14	.11	-.04	-.25*	.01	.07	-.19
14. SD (market) [a]	1.09	0.47	-.18	-.15	.18	.00	-.15	-.21	.16	-.11	.06	-.28*	-.05
15. SD (hierarchy) [a]	1.11	0.45	-.11	-.06	.05	-.19	-.06	.05	-.51**	.04	.05	.12	-.04
16. Perceived fit	4.66	1.38	-.04	.18	.11	.31**	.17	.25*	-.15	.58**	.37**	.46**	.12
17.Self-mon. (cognitive)	5.04	.84	-.03	-.10	.09	-.03	-.04	-.02	.04	.02	.02	.01	.26*
18. Helping Role	3.67	1.49	.04	-.12	.25*	-.05	-.02	.01	-.06	.18	.22*	.29**	.07
19. Innovative Role	4.67	1.52	-.02	.06	.06	.11	.25*	.13	-.22*	.37**	.35**	.35**	-.06
20. Achievement Role	3.89	1.43	-.13	-.02	.01	.04	.08	.22*	-.05	.03	.10	.34**	.02
21. Compliant Role	4.09	1.27	-.08	.01	.04	-.22*	-.27**	-.13	.15	-.15	-.40**	-.11	.49**

TABLE 7 (Continued)

Variable	M	S.D.	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
12. SD (clan)	1.19	0.47	_									
13. SD (entrepreneurial)	1.23	0.57	.30*	_								
14. SD (market)	1.09	0.47	.20	.23	_							
15. SD (hierarchy)	1.11	0.45	.24*	.06	.04	_						
16. Perceived fit	4.66	1.38	-.18	-.04	-.09	.07	(.90)					
17.Self-mon. (cognitive)	5.04	.84	-.05	-.04	.04	.22	.05	(.81)				
18. Helping Role	3.67	1.49	.02	.05	.22	-.11	.25*	.18	(.80)			
19. Innovative Role	4.67	1.52	.06	-.01	-.08	.16	.23	.14	.31**	(.93)		
20. Achievement Role	3.89	1.43	.01	.23	-.16	.11	.17	.17	.13	.39**	(.72)	
21. Compliant Role	4.09	1.27	.08	-.08	.00	.02	.08	.27**	-.10	-.31**	.04	(.87)

Note. N=96; *p< .05; ** p< .01; [a] N= 67.

Relationships between Culture and Roles

To test *hypotheses 1a-1h*, which predicted that culture would influence role perceptions, I ran multiple regression analysis. I entered all of the control variables to check if they are significant predictors of the dependent role perceptions. Only company experience was significant for one of the dependent variables, specifically helping (teamwork) role. *Hypothesis 1a*, in which I posited that clan culture would be a significant positive prediction of helping role, was not supported (β= -.03, n.s.). Company experience as a control was a positive predictor of helping role such that employees who had longer tenure with their companies perceived that their company expected of them to be helpful with other employees (β= .25, p< .05, ΔR^2 =0.06). *Hypothesis 1b*, which suggested a negative link between clan and achievement role was also not supported (β= .04, n.s.). *Hypothesis 1c* was supported, in that market culture norms were positively associated with an achievement role (β= .21, p< .05, ΔR^2 =0.04). The relationship between market culture and helping role, on the other hand, was not significant (β= .04, n.s.), which did not provide support for *hypothesis 1d*. The link between entrepreneurial culture and innovative role received strong support (β= .27, p< .01, ΔR^2 = .07), which substantiated empirically *hypothesis 1e*. The negative relationship between entrepreneurial culture and compliant role (*hypothesis 1f*) was also confirmed (β= -.29, p< .01, ΔR^2 = .08). Finally, the proposed positive relationship between hierarchy culture and compliant role (*hypothesis 1g*) was not supported although it was in the predicted direction (β= .15, n.s.) but the negative relationship between hierarchy culture and innovative role received empirical support (β= .21, p< .05. ΔR^2 = .04). Table 8 displays the results.

Table 8: Regression Analysis of the Relationship between Culture and Roles

Predictors	H1a & H1d			H1b & H1c		H1e & H1h		H1f & H1g	
	Helping Role [a]			Achievement Role		Innovative Role		Compliant Role	
	Step 1	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Company experience	.25*								
Clan culture		-.03		.04					
Entrepreneurial culture						.27**		-.29**	
Market culture			.04		.21*				
Hierarchy culture							-.21*		.15
R^2	.06	.06	.06	.00	.04	.07	.04	.08	.02
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.06	.00	.00	.00	.04	.07	.04	.08	.02
	(6.27*)	(.09)	(.17)	(.19)	(4.37*)	(7.40**)	(4.55*)	(8.54**)	(2.17)

Note. N=98. [a] N=96; * p< .05; ** p< .01;

For the interaction hypotheses, the main effects were entered first (culture and strength), followed by the interactive terms. *Hypothesis 3a,* in which I posited that clan strength, will moderate the relationship between clan culture norms and helping role did not receive support (β=-.05, n.s.). The interactive effect of clan strength and clan culture on achievement role *hypothesis 3b*), on the other hand, was significant. I plotted the interaction in line with existing guidelines by using +1SD and –1SD from the means of the independent variables as anchor values to represent the high and low values (Aiken & West, 1991). The shape of the figure shows that there is a stronger negative relationship between clan culture and achievement role when strength around teamwork is perceived to be higher (β= -.23, p< .05, ΔR^2 = .05).

On the other hand, there was an unexpected increase in achievement role in the condition of higher clan culture and lower strength perceptions, such that when the perceived strength and agreement around norms of teamwork was low, higher scores on clan organizational culture contributed to higher achievement role. *Hypothesis 3c* and *Hypothesis 3d* that predicted an interactive effect between market culture and market strength on achievement and helping role respectively were not supported (β= -.10, n.s. & -.16, n.s.).

The predicted interactive effects between entrepreneurial culture and entrepreneurial strength on innovative and compliant role were not supported (β= -.16, n.s. & β= -.13, n.s.), thus, failing to provide empirical support for *hypothesis 3e* and *3f*.

Hypothesis 3g, which posited an interaction between hierarchy and hierarchy strength on compliant role received some support. Specifically, the interaction term was significantly related to compliant role perceptions (β=-.25, p< .05, ΔR^2 = .05). Its shape

suggested that the largest difference occurs at the low level of hierarchical culture such that when the organizational espoused culture is not perceived as strongly hierarchical but there is a perception that those norms that exist around procedures are clear and strong, individuals tend to perceive more compliant roles than those of individuals who experience low levels of both. The role of strength seemed to have diminishing returns when the overall espoused culture was strongly hierarchical, perhaps, suggesting that strength and culture in this case are substitutable.

In addition, I tested whether strength as agreement captured by the standard deviation on a culture dimension would interact with culture to influence role perceptions. The interaction terms were not significant. Tables 9 (culture strength as 1-item measure) and 10 (culture strength as a standard deviation) demonstrate the primary and supplementary regression results and figures 3a and 3b display the shape of the significant interaction effects.

Table 9: Interaction Results: Culture and Culture Strength on Roles

Predictors/ Dependent variables	H3a: Helping Role [a]			H3b: Achievement Role		H3c: Achievement Role		H3d: Helping Role	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 2	Step 3
Company experience	.25*								
Clan culture		-.12		.05					
Clan strength		.21		.00					
Market culture						.28*		-.11	
Market strength						.09		.33**	
Clan x Strength			-.05		-.23*				
Market x Strength							-.10		-.16
R^2	.06	0.09	0.09	0.00	0.05	0.11	0.12	.15	.18
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.06	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.05	0.11	.01	.09	.03
	(6.27*)	(1.76)	(.28)	(.09)	(5.02*)	(6.17**)	(1.14)	(4.94**)	(2.85)
Predictors/Dependent variables	H3e: Innovative Role			H3f: Compliant Role		H3g: Compliant Role		H3h: Innovative Role	
Entrepreneurial culture	.15			-.16					
Entrepreneurial strength	.32**			-.36**					
Hierarchy culture						-.10		-.23*	
Hierarchy strength						.42**		.06	
Entrepreneurial x strength		-.16			-.13				
Hierarchy x strength							-.25*		.07
R^2	.16	.18		.20	.21	.20	.25	.05	.05
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.16	.02		.20	.01	.20	.05	.05	.00
	(9.09**)	(2.80)		(11.75**)	(1.87)	(11.65**)	(6.14*)	(2.40)	(.36)

Note. N=98. [a] N=96; * p< .05; ** p< .01.

Table 10 *(strength as agreement)*:Interaction Results

Predictors/ Dependent variables	H3a: Helping Role			H3b: Achievement Role		H3c: Achievement Role		H3d: Helping Role	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 2	Step 3
Company experience	.29*								
Clan culture		.02		.26*					
SD[4] Clan		.02		.08					
Market culture						.35**		.10	
SD Market						-.09		.19	
Clan x SD clan			.14		-.05				
Market x SD market							-.11		-.01
R^2	.08	.08	.09	.07	.07	.14	.15	.12	.12
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.08	.00	.01	.07	.00	.14	.15	.04	.00
	(5.89*)	(.03)	(.91)	(2.82*)	(.11)	(5.39**)	(.76)	(1.34)	(.01)
Predictors/Dependent variables	H3e: Innovative Role			H3f: Compliant Role		H3g: Compliant Role		H3h: Innovative Role	
Entrepreneurial culture	.35**			-.14					
SD Entrepreneurial	.02			-.07					
Hierarchy culture						.22		-.23	
SD Hierarchy						.19		-.03	
Entrepreneurial x SD entr.		.17			-.08				
Hierarchy x SD hierarchy							-.02		.11
R^2	.12	.14		.02	.03	.04	.04	.05	.05
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.12	.03		.02	.01	.04	.00	.05	.00
	(4.51*)	(2.07)		(.72)	(.41)	(1.50)	(.00)	(1.57)	(.13)

Note. N=68. * p< .05; ** p< .01.

[4] SD stands for standard deviation on the respective dimension of culture.

Figure 3: Interactions between Culture and Culture Strength

Figure 3a: Interaction between clan culture and clan strength.

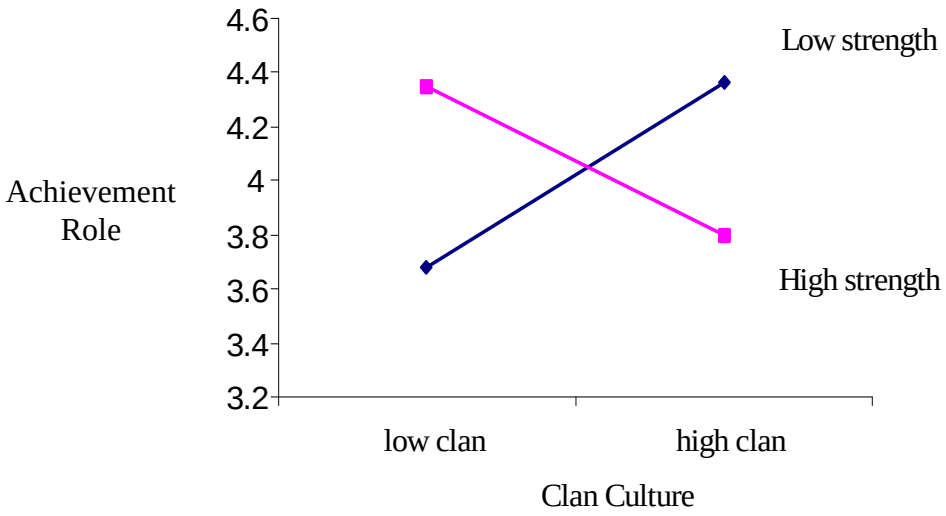
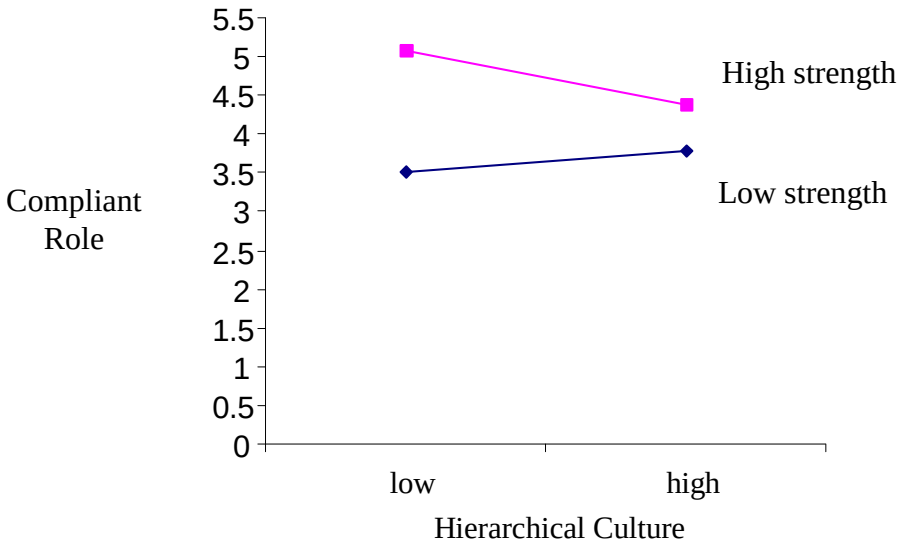


Figure 3b: Interaction between hierarchy culture and hierarchy strength



Hypotheses 5a and *5h* posited that self-monitoring will moderate the relationships between culture and roles in a way similar to culture strength. Similarly to hypotheses 3a-3h, I tested 5a-5h by first entering the main effects (and relevant controls), and then the interaction term. Only one of the interaction terms was significant, specifically the interaction of entrepreneurial culture and self-monitoring on compliant role (*hypothesis 5f*: $\beta = .19$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$). I plotted the interaction to see the nature of the result.

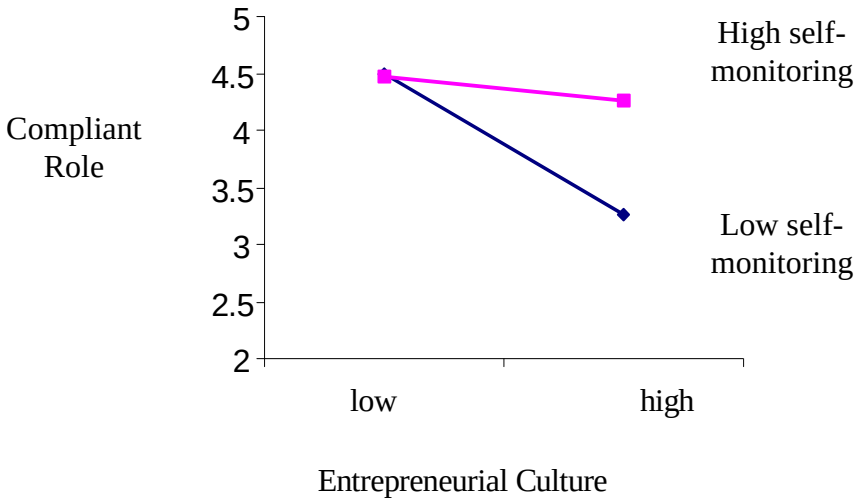
Surprisingly, instead of the expected enhancing effect of self-monitoring on the negative relationship between entrepreneurial culture and compliant role perceptions the effect seemed to follow an opposite shape. In particular, low self-monitors were more likely to adjust their perceptions of organizational expectations more as a result of higher levels of entrepreneurial culture. This may in fact suggest that the cognitive element of self-monitoring is more concerned with people rather than the environment such that high self-monitors perceive broader roles even when the broader context is not supportive of that role. Therefore, the results do not provide support for the proposed relationships in *hypotheses 5a* through *5h*. Table 11 provides more details regarding the specific regressions and figure 4 shows the shape of the significant interaction.

Table 11:Interaction Results: Culture and Self-monitoring on Roles

Predictors/ Dependent variables	H5a: Helping Role			H5b: Achievement Role		H5c: Achievement Role		H5d: Helping Role	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 2	Step 3
Company experience	.25*								
Clan culture		-.03		.05					
Self-monitoring (cognitive)		.16		.18		.19		.16	
Market culture						.22*		.02	
Clan x Self-monitoring			-.06		.20				
Market x Self-monitoring							-.10		-.03
R^2	0.06	0.09	0.09	0.03	0.07	0.08	0.12	0.02	0.02
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	0.06 (6.27*)	0.03 (1.31)	0.00 (.30)	0.03 (1.17)	0.04 (3.60)	0.08 (4.12*)	.01 (1.14)	0.02 (1.20)	0.00 (.08)
Predictors/Dependent variables	H5e: Innovative Role			H5f: Compliant Role		H5g: Compliant Role		H5h: Innovative Role	
Entrepreneurial culture	.27**			-.28**					
Self-monitoring	.19*			.19*		.20*		.19	
Hierarchy culture						.14		-.22*	
Entrepreneurial x Self-monitoring		-.09			.19*				
Hierarchy x Self-monitoring							.05		.00
R^2	.11	.12		.12	.15	.06	.06	.08	.08
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.11 (5.69**)	.01 (.94)		.12 (6.43**)	.03 (3.82*)	.06 (3.10*)	.06 (.27)	.08 (4.11*)	.00 (.00)

Note. * p< .05; ** p< 0.01. There may be some slight differences in values required to reach significance levels due to rounding.

Figure 4: Interaction between self-monitoring (cognitive) and entrepreneurial culture

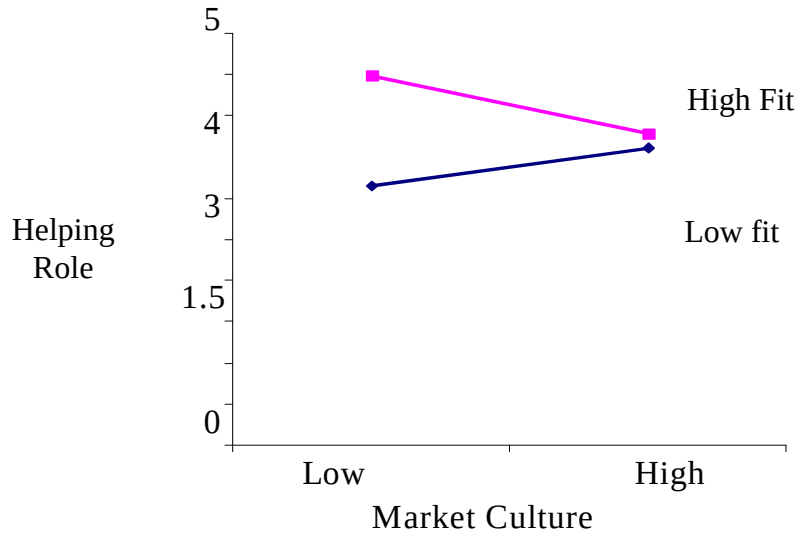


Hypotheses 7a through *7h* posited that the relationships between culture and role would be moderated by the perceived P-O fit. P-O fit had a main effect on helping and innovative role (β= .27, p< .01 and β= .26, p< .01, respectively). In addition, only the interactive effect of P-O fit and market culture on helping role was significant (*H7d*: β= -.19, p< .05, ΔR^2 = .04). The significant interaction between P-O fit and market culture was in the predicted direction such that when the organizational culture had a strong market orientation and the level of perceived fit was high, the relationship between market culture and helping role was increasingly negative. In addition, at low market culture individuals with high fit perceived helping to be more expected in their role than individuals with low fit. Table 12 demonstrates the regression results for *hypotheses 7a* through *7h* and figure 5 illustrates the shape of the interaction.

Table 12: Culture and Perceived Person-Organization Fit (P-O Fit) Interaction on Roles

Predictors/ Dependent variables	H7a: Helping Role			H7b: Achievement Role		H7c: Achievement Role		H7d: Helping Role	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 2	Step 3
Company experience	.25*								
Clan culture		-.12		.02					
P-O fit		.27**		.07		.03		.25*	
Market culture						.20*		-.04	
Clan x P-O fit			-.10		-.18				
Market x P-O fit							-.10		-.19*
R^2	0.06	0.13	0.14	0.01	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.10
ΔR^2 (F)	0.06 (6.27*)	0.07	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.01	0.06	0.04
		(3.59*)	(1.06)	(.33)	(3.08)	(2.21)	(1.08)	(3.01*)	(3.79*)
Predictors/Dependent variables	H7e: Innovative Role			H7f: Compliant Role		H7g: Compliant Role		H7h: Innovative Role	
Entrepreneurial culture	.22*			-.27**					
P-O fit	.26**			-.08		-.12		.28**	
Hierarchy culture						.13		-.17	
Entrepreneurial x P-O fit		-.07			-.13				
Hierarchy x P-O fit							.12		.00
R^2	.14	.14		.09	.11	.04	.05	.12	.12
ΔR^2 step (F)	.14 (7.61**)	.00 (.47)		.09 (4.62*)	.02 (1.78)	.04 (1.75)	.01 (1.41)	.12 (6.57**)	.00 (0.00)

Figure 5: Interaction between P-O fit and market culture



Relationships between Roles and Behaviors

Coworker ratings and supervisor ratings. Hypotheses 2a through *2h* posited that there would be relationships between roles and respective behaviors. I tested the proposed relationships using the aggregate coworker ratings of behaviors. Table 13 describes the inter-correlations, means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of the variables used to test the proposed relationships between roles and behaviors in the coworker sample. One of the control variables had a significant effect on one of the outcome variables—innovative behavior. Specifically, individuals in engineering/ professional jobs were viewed as more innovative than those in managerial jobs ($\beta = .26$, $p < .01$, $\Delta R^2 = .07$). Therefore, this control variable was retained as a control for innovative behavior. Table 14 provides the regression results for *hypotheses 2a* through *2h*. Only hypothesis 2f was supported (innovative role had a negative relationship with compliant behavior. ($\beta = -.30$, $p < .01$, $\Delta R^2 = .09$).

Table 13:Correlation Table: Coworker-Rated Behaviors as a Dependent Variable

Variable	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	0.26	0.44	_										
2. Job type	0.55	0.50	-.06	_									
3. Company experience	3.58	3.24	-.11	-.08	_								
4. Help role	3.73	1.46	.00	-.16	.24*	(.80)							
5. Innovative role	4.69	1.48	-.01	-.07	.08	.34**	(.82)						
6. Achievement role	3.95	1.41	-.07	.00	-.01	.18	.41**	(.90)					
7. Compliant role	4.16	1.22	-.10	.09	.02	-.11	-.37**	.18	(.86)				
8. P-O fit	4.55	1.35	.03	.03	.15	.24*	.32**	.13	-.12	(.88)			
9. Self-Mon. (behavioral)	5.07	0.87	-.08	.05	.10	.15	.16	.11	.11	.13	(.81)		
10. Clan strength	4.13	1.47	.05	.02	.14	.14	.36**	.08	-.17	.58**	.04	_	
11. Entrepren. Strength	4.07	1.39	.06	.02	.09	.09	.36**	.06	-.41**	.45**	.03	.33**	_

TABLE 13 (Continued)

Variable	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12. Market strength	4.82	1.53	.17	-.11	.04	.20*	.28**	32**	-.09	.45**	-.03	.36**	47**
13. Hierarchy strength	4.35	1.52	.05	-.09	.17	.03	-.05	.04	.44**	.17	.06	.26**	-.17
14. SD (clan) [a]	1.23	0.48	-.01	-.07	.04	.14	-.04	-.04	-.06	-.10	-.05	-.19	.04
15.SD (entrepreneurial) [a]	1.31	0.67	-.23*	-.06	.33**	.03	.06	.11	-.13	.02	-.16	.18	-.19
16. SD (market) [a]	1.08	0.47	-22*	-.01	.13	.10	.11	-.05	.03	-.01	-.04	.09	-.01
17. SD (hierarchy) [a]	1.22	0.51	-.11	.02	.06	-.05	.11	.10	-.10	.03	-.20	-.11	.08
18. Helping Behavior	6.00	0.71	.13	.11	.10	.04	.13	-.02	-.08	.08	.01	.11	.14
19. Innovative Behavior	5.81	0.73	.01	.26*	-.01	.11	.11	.03	-.03	-.05	.12	-.02	.03
20.Achievement Behavior	5.43	0.75	.05	-.12	-.03	-.02	-.05	-.10	.08	.08	.12	.06	-.02
21. Compliant Behavior	4.82	0.82	.03	.00	-.04	-.10	-.30**	-.20*	.13	-.01	.02	.05	-.07

TABLE 13 (Continued)

Variable	M	S.D.	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
12. Market strength	4.82	1.53	_									
13. Hierarchy strength	4.35	1.52	.10	_								
14. SD (clan) [a]	1.23	0.48	-.14	-.08	_							
15. SD (entrepreneurial) [a]	1.31	0.67	.21*	-.05	.30**	_						
16. SD (market) [a]	1.08	0.47	-.16	.04	.10	.27*	_					
17. SD (hierarchy) [a]	1.22	0.51	.13	-.25*	.06	.22*	.12	_				
18. Helping Behavior	6.00	0.71	.08	.02	-.07	.08	-.02	.04	(.83)			
19. Innovative Behavior	5.81	0.73	-.11	-.09	-.21*	-.12	-.16	.04	.61**	(.90)		
20.Achievement Behavior	5.43	0.75	-.03	-.09	-.04	-.05	-.14	-.06	.27**	.33**	(.73)	
21. Compliant Behavior	4.82	0.82	-.01	.10	.09	.04	.01	.14	.08	-.11	.22*	(.80)

Note. N=107. [a] N=89.

Table 14: Relationships between Roles and Behaviors (coworker ratings)

Predictors	H2a & H2d		H2b & 2c		H2e & H2h			H2f & H2g	
	Helping Behavior		Achievement Behavior		Innovative Behavior			Compliant Behavior	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Step 1	Model 1 (Step 2)	Model 2 (Step 2)	Model 1	Model 2
Job Type					.26**				
Helping role	.04		-.02						
Innovative role						.13		-.30**	
Achievement role		-.02		-.10					
Compliant role							-.06		.13
R^2	.00	.00	.00	0.01	0.07	.08	0.00	0.09	0.02
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.00 (.16)	.00 (.05)	.00 (.04)	0.01 (1.06)	0.07 (7.58**)	.01 (1.80)	0.00 (.34)	0.09 (10.75**)	0.02 (1.75)

Note. N=107. * p < .05; ** p < .01 .

Supervisor ratings. In addition, I tested *hypotheses 2a-2h* using the supervisor ratings of behaviors. The correlations between supervisor and coworker ratings of the behaviors of the focal person are displayed in table 15. While help and achievement displayed some degree of statistically significant convergence across the different sources ($r = .22$, $p < .05$ and $r = .32$, $p < .01$), the correlations between the supervisor and coworker ratings of innovation and compliance were lower and not statistically significant ($r = .12$, n.s. and $r = .13$, n.s., respectively). These low correlations suggest differences between the perspectives of supervisors and coworkers with respect to the focal person's behaviors.

Table 16 describes the inter-correlations, means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of the variables used to test the proposed relationships between roles and supervisor ratings of behaviors.

Hypothesis *2a* through *2h*, which maintained that roles would lead to behaviors, were not supported using the supervisor ratings. Specifically, only one of the control variables had a significant effect on two of the outcome variables. Female individuals were viewed as more helpful and more compliant than males by their supervisors ($\beta = .27$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .07$ and $\beta = .26$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .07$, respectively). Consequently, this control variable was retained as a control for both help and compliant behavior. Table 17 provides the regression results for *hypotheses 2a* through *2h*.

Table 15: Correlations among behaviors (coworkers and supervisors as sources)

Variable (behavior)	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Help [a]	5.77	0.85	-							
2. Innovative [a]	5.69	0.98	.44**	-						
3. Achievement [a]	4.95	1.30	.18	.43**	-					
4. Compliant [a]	4.49	0.93	-.14	-.18	.10	-				
5. Help [b]	6.03	0.69	**.22***	.05	.11	.09				
6. Innovative [b]	5.81	0.71	.09	**.13**	.07	-.19	.60**			
7. Achievement [b]	5.41	0.75	.26*	.28**	**.32****	-.17	.17	.27*		
8. Compliant [b]	4.76	0.80	.03	-.05	-.05	**.12**	.09	-.11	.22*	

Note. N=86. [a] Supervisor perspective. [b] Coworker perspective.

Table 16: Correlation Table: Supervisor-Rated Behaviors as a Dependent Variable

Variable	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	0.27	0.45	_										
2. Job type	0.54	0.50	-.02	_									
3. Company experience	3.81	3.47	-.14	-.06	_								
4. Help role	3.77	1.45	.02	-.12	.26*	(.80)							
5. Innovative role	4.77	1.44	-.05	-.02	.05	.34**	(.82)						
6. Achievement role	3.92	1.42	-.05	-.05	-.02	.14	.40**	(.90)					
7. Compliant role	4.14	1.16	.01	.05	.04	-.08	-.32**	.19	(.86)				
8. P-O fit	4.59	1.32	.01	.15	.16	.19	.25*	.07	-.03	(.88)			
9. Self-Mon. (behavioral)	5.08	0.91	-.10	.06	.12	.10	.14	.04	.13	.12	(.81)		
10. Clan strength	4.12	1.49	-.01	.11	.17	.15	.36**	.05	-.20	.61**	.08	_	
11. Entrepren. Strength	4.11	1.35	.03	.07	.09	.22*	.32**	.08	-.33**	.40**	.05	.35**	_

TABLE 16 (Continued)

Variable	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12. Market strength	4.89	1.51	.13	-.07	.01	.18	.18	.33**	.04	.40**	-.09	.34**	.42**
13. Hierarchy strength	4.42	1.51	.06	-.10	.22*	.12	-.03	.06	.44**	.19	.07	.26**	-.14
14. SD (clan) [a]	1.25	0.46	.14	-.07	.03	.10	-.10	-.05	-.04	-.12	-.03	-.15	.01
15. SD (entrepreneurial) [a]	1.33	0.66	-.22	-.04	.34**	.04	.01	.09	-.19	.01	-.11	.18	.29*
16. SD (market) [a]	1.09	0.42	-.16	.02	.22	.15	.11	-.03	.06	.02	.02	.16	-.08
17. SD (hierarchy) [a]	1.25	0.53	-.13	.03	.05	-.14	.08	.12	-.02	-.07	-.24*	-.10	.05
18. Helping Behavior	5.77	1.42	.27*	-.13	-.01	.05	-.05	-.03	.03	-.14	-.11	.00	-.11
19. Innovative Behavior	5.69	1.16	-.06	-.03	.11	-.12	-.20	-.04	.10	-.01	-.04	-01	-.13
20.Achievement Behavior	4.95	1.32	.08	-.04	.06	-.07	-.10	-.02	.10	.12	.11	-.04	-.05
21. Compliant Behavior	4.48	0.91	.26*	.02	-.13	.06	.04	-.05	.02	.18	-.14	.17	.20

TABLE 16 (Continued)

Variable	M	S.D.	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
12. Market strength	4.89	1.51	_									
13. Hierarchy strength	4.42	1.51	.21	_								
14. SD (clan) [a]	1.25	0.46	-.14	.01	_							
15. SD (entrepreneurial) [a]	1.33	0.66	.20	-.03	.28*	_						
16. SD (market) [a]	1.09	0.42	-.16	.14	.03	.27*	_					
17. SD (hierarchy) [a]	1.25	0.53	.06	-.24*	.11	.28*	.18	_				
18. Helping Behavior	5.77	1.42	.03	.04	.01	-.19	.07	.00	(.85)			
19. Innovative Behavior	5.69	1.16	-.16	.04	-.06	.05	.04	-.06	.44**	(.93)		
20.Achievement Behavior	4.95	1.32	-.14	-.06	-.15	-.10	-.15	-.06	.18	.43**	(.84)	
21. Compliant Behavior	4.48	0.91	.24*	.13	-.12	-.04	-.23	.06	-.14	-.18	.10	(.79)

Note. For [a] N=70.

Table 17: Relationships between Roles and Behaviors (supervisor ratings)

Predictors (Roles)	H2a & H2d			H2b & 2c		H2e & H2h		H2f & H2g		
	Helping Behavior			Achievement Behavior		Innovative Behavior		Compliant Behavior		
	Step 1	Model 1 (Step 2)	Model 2 (Step 2)	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Step 1	Model 1 (Step 2)	Model 2
Gender	.27*							.26*		
Helping		-.10		-.07						
Innovative						-.20			.06	
Achievement			-.02		-.02					
Compliant							.10			.04
Total R^2	.07	.08	.07	.01	.00	.04	.01	.07	.07	.07
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.07 (6.52*)	.01 (.51)	.07 (.04)	.01 (.39)	.00 (.05)	.04 (3.56)	.01 (.88)	.07 (5.89*)	.00 (.28)	.00 (.11)

Note. N=86. * p < .05; ** p < .01 .

In *hypotheses 4a –4h*, I proposed that culture strength would moderate the linkage between roles and behavior such that under a perception of strong culture, roles will be more strongly related to respective behaviors. The theoretical reasoning was not statistically supported using coworker ratings as none of the interaction terms reached statistical significance. In addition, the interaction results for strength as agreement on each of the culture dimensions were not supported either. The regression results are displayed in table 18 & 19.

I tested *hypotheses 4a –4h* also using the supervisor ratings of behavior. There was one significant interaction term between market strength and achievement role on ratings of helping behavior (*hypothesis 4d*: $\beta = -.28$, $p < .01$). I plotted the interaction in line with existing guidelines by using +1SD and –1SD from the means of the independent variables as anchor values to represent the high and low values (Aiken & West, 1991). The shape of the interaction showed that with the increase of market strength achievement role had a stronger negative impact on supervisor ratings of help. In addition, there was an unexpected positive relationship between achievement role and help when market strength was low. The theoretical reasoning was not statistically supported for the other hypotheses. The interaction results for strength as agreement on each of the culture dimensions were not supported either. The regression results are displayed in table 20 & 21. The interaction is graphically presented in figure 6.

Table 18: Interaction between Culture Strength and Roles on Behaviors (coworker ratings)

Predictors/ Dependent variables	H4a: Helping Behavior			H4b: Achievement Behavior		H4c: Achievement Behavior		H4d: Helping Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Helping Role	.05			-.03					
Clan strength	.09			.06					
Achievement Role						-.10		-.05	
Market strength						.00		.08	
Help Role x Strength		-.08			.05				
Achievement Role x Strength							-.02		.05
R^2	.01	.02		.00	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.01	.01		.00	.01	.01	.00	.01	.00
	(.61)	(.67)		(.21)	(.27)	(.53)	(.04)	(.33)	(.30)
Predictors/Dependent variables	H4e: Innovative Behavior			H4f: Compliant Behavior		H4g: Compliant Behavior		H4h: Innovative Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 2	Step 3
Job Type	.26**								
Innovative role		.14		-.32**					
Entrepreneurial strength		-.03		.05					
Compliant Role						.12		-.03	
Hierarchy strength						.05		-.06	
Innovative x strength			.02		.08				
Compliant x strength							.03		-.18
R^2	.07	.08	.08	.09	.10	.02	.00	.07	.10
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.07	.01	.00	.09	.01	.02	.02	.00	.03
	(7.58**)	(.94)	(.05)	(5.44**)	(.73)	(.98)	(.06)	(.30)	(3.16)

Table 19: Interactions between Roles and Strength (agreement) on Behaviors (coworker ratings)

Predictors/ Dependent variables	H4a: Helping Behavior			H4b:Achievement Behavior		H4c: Achievement Behavior		H4d: Helping Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Helping Role	.11			.01					
SD Clan	-.08			-.04					
Achievement Role						-.04		.04	
SD Market						-.14		-.02	
Help Role x SD clan		-.12			-.08				.09
Achievement Role x SD market							-.02		
R^2	.02	.03		.00	.01	.02	.02	.00	.01
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.02	.01		.00	.01	.02	.00	.00	.01
	(.64)	(1.2)		(.07)	(.50)	(.90)	(.04)	(.12)	(.65)
Predictors/Dependent variables	H4e: Innovative Behavior			H4f: Compliant Behavior		H4g: Compliant Behavior		H4h: Innovative Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 2	Step 3
Job Type	.32**								
Innovative role		.17		-.31**					
SD Entrepreneurial		-.11		.06					
Compliant Role						.17		-.06	
SD Hierarchy						.15		.04	
Innovative x SD entrepreneurial			.04		.07				
Compliant x SD hierarchy							-.06		-.03
R^2	.10	.14	.14	.10	.11	.04	.01	.11	.11
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.10	.04	.00	.10	.01	.04	.05	.01	.00
	(10.06**)	(1.93)	(.12)	(4.74**)	(.51)	(2.05)	(.32)	(.25)	(.08)

Note. N=89. * p< .05; ** p< .01.

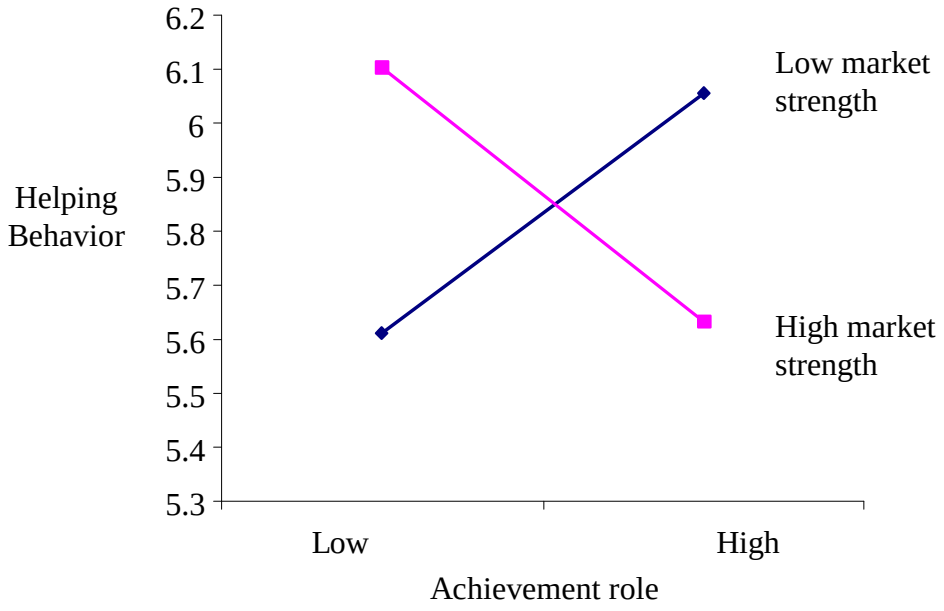
Table 20: Interaction between Roles and Culture Strength on Behaviors (supervisor ratings)

Predictors/ Dependent variables	H4a: Helping Behavior			H4b: Achievement Behavior		H4c: Achievement Behavior		H4d: Helping Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	.27*								
Helping role		.04		-.06					
Clan strength		.00		-.04					
Achievement role						.03		.00	
Market strength						-.16		-.02	
Help role x clan strength			-.10		-.03				
Achievement role x market strength							.04		-.28**
R^2	.07	.07	.08	.01	.01	.02	.02	.07	.15
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.07 (6.52*)	.00 (.07)	.01 (.87)	.01 (.27)	.00 (.08)	.02 (.98)	.00 (.12)	.00 (.02)	.08 (7.36**)
Predictors/Dependent variables	H4f: Compliant Behavior			H4e: Innovative Behavior		H4g: Compliant Behavior		H4h: Innovative Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	.26*								
Innovative role		.00		-.22					
Entrepreneurial strength		.18		-.07					
Compliant role						-.03		.10	
Hierarchy strength						.15		.00	
Innovative x strength			-.07		-.17				
Compliant x strength							.04		-.08
R^2	.07	.10	.10	.05	.07	.08	.08	.01	.02
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.07 (5.89*)	.03 (1.53)	.00 (.43)	.05 (1.96)	.02 (2.62)	.01 (.81)	.00 (.15)	.01 (.44)	.01 (.47)

Table 21: Interactions between Roles and Agreement on Behaviors (supervisor ratings)

Predictors/ Dependent variables	H4a: Helping Behavior			H4b: Achievement Behavior		H4c: Achievement Behavior		H4d: Helping Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	.23*								
Helping Role		.08		-.04					
SD Clan		-.03		-.14					
Achievement Role						-.05		-.06	
SD Market						-.15		.11	
Help Role x SD clan			-.09		.07				
Achievement Role x SD market							-.07		-.08
R^2	.05	.06	.07	.02	.02	.03	.03	.07	.07
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.05	.01	.01	.02	.00	.03	.00	.02	.00
	(3.84*)	(.25)	(.51)	(.73)	(.34)	(.89)	(.28)	(.55)	(.44)
Predictors/Dependent variables	H4f: Compliant Behavior			H4e: Innovative Behavior		H4g: Compliant Behavior		H4h: Innovative Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	.25*								
Innovative role		.02		-.28*					
SD Entrepreneurial		.04		.05					
Compliant role						.03		.16	
SD Hierarchy						.09		-.06	
Innovative x SD entrepreneurial			.00		-.20				
Compliant x SD hierarchy							.00		-.03
R^2	.06	.06	.06	.08	.12	.07	.01	.03	.03
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.06	.00	.00	.08	.04	.01	.00	.03	.00
	(4.57*)	(.06)	(.00)	(2.98)	(2.88)	(.33)	(.00)	(.99)	(.06)

Figure 6: Interaction between Achievement Role and Market Strength



Hypotheses 6a-6h and hypotheses 8a-8h, which posited that self-monitoring (behavioral) and P-O fit would act, as moderators of the proposed relationships between roles and behaviors (coworker rated) were also not supported. None of the interaction terms was significant. Therefore, the empirical results did not demonstrate support for the proposed relationships. Table 22 and 23 display the regression results for coworker ratings.

Finally, Hypotheses 6a-6h and hypotheses 8a-8h, which posited that self-monitoring (behavioral) and P-O fit would act as moderators of the proposed relationships between roles and behavior were not supported using supervisor ratings either. None of the interaction terms was significant. Therefore, the empirical results did not demonstrate support for the proposed relationships. Table 24 and 25 present the regression results with supervisor ratings.

Table 22: Interaction Results for Roles and Self-monitoring (behavioral) on Behaviors (coworker ratings)

Predictors/ Dependent variables	H6a: Helping Behavior			H6b:Achievement Behavior		H6c: Achievement Behavior		H6d: Helping Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Helping role	.06			-.04					
Self-monitoring	.02			.12		.13		.03	
Achievement role						-.11		-.03	
Helping Role x self-monitoring		-.14			-.08				
Achievement Role x self-monitoring							-.05		.06
R^2	.00	.02		.01	.01	.03	.03	.00	.00
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.00	.02		.01	.01	.03	.00	.00	.00
	(.23)	(1.86)		(.79)	(.72)	(1.40)	(.26)	(.08)	(.35)
Predictors/Dependent variables	H6e: Innovative Behavior			H6f: Compliant Behavior		H6g: Compliant Behavior		H6h: Innovative Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 2	Step 3
Job Type	.26**								
Innovative role		.11		-.32**					
Self-monitoring		.09		.07		.01		.11	
Compliant role						.13		-.07	
Innovative role x self-monitoring			-.16		-.05				
Compliant role x self-monitoring							-.12		.11
R^2	.07	.09	.12	.10	.10	.02	.03	.08	.09
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.07	.02	.03	.10	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01
	(7.58**)	(1.35)	(3.03)	(5.64)	(.25)	(.87)	(1.6)	(.91)	(1.24)

Table 23: Interaction Results for Roles and P-O fit on Behaviors (coworker ratings)

Predictors/ Dependent variables	H8a: Helping Behavior			H8b:Achievement Behavior		H8c: Achievement Behavior		H8d: Helping Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Helping role	.05			-.04					
P-O fit	.06			.09		.09		.07	
Achievement role						-.11		-.03	
Helping Role x P-O fit		-.10			.07				
Achievement Role x P-O fit							.08		.11
R^2	.01	.02		.01	.01	.02	.03	.01	.02
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.01	.01		.01	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01
	(.38)	(.98)		(.37)	(.42)	(.95)	(.73)	(.30)	(1.23)
Predictors/Dependent variables	H8e: Innovative Behavior			H8f: Compliant Behavior		H8g: Compliant Behavior		H8h: Innovative Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 2	Step 3
Job Type	.26**								
Innovative role		.16		-.31**					
P-O fit		-.12		.10		.01		-.07	
Compliant role						.13		-.06	
Innovative role x P-O fit			.05		.12				
Compliant role x P-O fit							-.07		.03
R^2	.07	.10	.10	.10	.12	.02	.02	.07	.07
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.07	.03	.00	.10	.02	.02	.00	.00	.00
	(7.58**)	(1.58)	(.24)	(5.88)	(1.64)	(.87)	(.54)	(.44)	(.00)

Table 24: Interaction Results for Roles and Self-monitoring (behavioral) on Behaviors (supervisor ratings)

Predictors/ Dependent variables	H6a: Helping Behavior			H6b: Achievement Behavior		H6c: Achievement Behavior		H6d: Helping Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	.27*								
Helping Role		.05		-.08					
Achievement Role						-.03		-.02	
Self-monitoring		-.09		.12		.11		-.08	
Help Role x self-monitoring			-.01		.07				
Achievement Role x self-monitoring							-.03		-.12
Total R^2	.07	.08	.08	.02	.02	.01	.01	.08	.09
ΔR^2 step (ΔF)	.07	.01	.00	.02	.00	.01	.00	.01	.01
	(6.52*)	(.42)	(.01)	(.75)	(.38)	(.51)	(.09)	(.33)	(1.24)
Predictors/Dependent variables	H6f: Compliant Behavior			H6e: Innovative Behavior		H6g: Compliant Behavior		H6h: Innovative Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	.26*								
Innovative role		.07		-.20					
Compliant Role						.05		.11	
Self-monitoring		-.10		-.01		-.10		-.05	
Innovative x self-monitoring			.00		.05				
Compliant x self-monitoring							.03		-.13
R^2	.07	.08	.08	.04	.04	.08	.00	.01	.03
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.07	01	.00	.04	.00	.01	.00	.01	.03
	(5.89*)	(.60)	(.00)	(1.78)	(.22)	(.48)	(.10)	(.55)	(1.34)

Table 25: Interaction Results for Roles and P-O fit on Behaviors (supervisor ratings)

Predictors/ Dependent variables	H8a: Helping Behavior			H8b: Achievement Behavior		H8c: Achievement Behavior		H8d: Helping Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	.27*								
Helping Role		.07		-.09					
Achievement Role						-.03		-.01	
P-O fit		-.16		.11		.10		-.15	
Help Role x P-O fit			-.10		-.01				
Achievement Role x P-O fit							.00		-.11
Total R^2	.07	.10	.11	.02	.02	.01	.01	.09	.11
ΔR^2 step (ΔF)	.07	.03	.01	.02	.00	.01	.00	.02	.02
	(6.52*)	(1.23)	(.90)	(.73)	(.00)	(.45)	(.00)	(1.02)	(1.00)
Predictors/Dependent variables	H8f: Compliant Behavior			H8e: Innovative Behavior		H8g: Compliant Behavior		H8h: Innovative Behavior	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	.26*								
Innovative role		.01		-.21					
Compliant Role						.04		.13	
P-O fit		.19		.04		.19		-.01	
Innovative x P-O fit			-.16		-.09				
Compliant x P-O fit							.13		-.11
Total R^2	.07	.10	.13	.04	.05	.10	.12	.01	.02
ΔR^2 (ΔF)	.07	.03	.03	.04	.01	.03	.02	.01	.01
	(5.89*)	(1.64)	(2.22)	(1.86)	(.60)	1.70)	(1.40)	(.44)	(.98)

Summary of results

The empirical results lend some support to the overall theoretical framework. Building on a contextual and social cognitive perspective on roles, I expected that the organizational context as evidenced in the organizational culture, would relate to employee role perceptions. Three of the four dimension of culture, exhibited relationships in the predicted direction with employee roles supporting many of the proposed relationships in *hypothesis 1*. Specifically, market culture was positively related to achievement role, thereby, supporting the link between a market-oriented, competitive culture and employee perceiving that high performance is required of them. In addition, the entrepreneurial culture generated innovative employee roles and discouraged high levels of compliant, rule-oriented role. Finally, hierarchy culture exhibited a negative link with innovative role orientation, such that employees in entrepreneurial context tended to perceive following the rules, and well-established procedures as less in-role. The relationships between clan culture and helping role, and achievement role were not supported. Finally, market culture had no linear relationship to perceptions of helping as in-role.

Hypothesis 2 concerned the relationship between roles and employee behaviors. I relied on role theory and the social cognitive theory to predict that roles will be linked positively to functional and negatively, to dysfunctional behaviors. Only one of the proposed relationships reached statistical significance—specifically, innovative role had a significant, negative link with compliant behavior. The other theoretically developed relationships did not receive empirical support.

In *hypothesis 3*, I proposed that culture strength would act as a moderator of the relationships between culture and roles. In two cases, the interaction effects were significant. There was a negative relationship between clan culture and achievement (high performance) role, when both the level of clan culture and culture strength were high. Finally, hierarchy culture and hierarchy culture strength seemed to have substitutable effects on the level of compliant role perceptions.

In *hypothesis 4*, on the basis of social conformity perspective, I predicted that roles would be more related to expected behaviors in stronger cultures. Only one of the proposed relationships received statistical support. Employees with achievement role orientation who perceived the culture of the organization as strongly reinforcing the dimension of external competitiveness (i.e. had strong market culture) were viewed as less helpful by their supervisors.

Hypothesis 5 posited that self-monitoring will impact the extent to which individuals incorporate the organizational culture in their roles. None of the relationships received empirical support. One of the interaction terms was, in fact, significant but in a different from the predicted direction. *Hypothesis 6*, in which I suggested that self-monitoring will enhance the relationships between roles and exhibited behaviors, was also not supported.

For *hypothesis 7*, P-O fit interacted with culture in such a way that individuals who experienced high fit and were in a highly market-oriented environment, were increasingly likely to perceive helping as less in-role than individuals who had high fit but were in organizations with less market-oriented cultures. *Hypothesis 8*, which proposed that perceived fit would enhance the enactment of organizational roles, was not

supported. Table 26 summarizes the nature of the proposed relationships and the empirical results.

Table 26: Summary of Results

Hypothesis Number (H #)	Nature of the proposed relationship	Supported Relationships
H1 a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h	Relationships between culture and roles	H1 c, e, f, h
H2 a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h	Relationships between roles and behaviors	H2 f
H3 a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h	Interactions between culture and culture strength on roles	H3 b & g
H4 a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h	Interactions between roles and culture strength on behaviors	H4 d
H5 a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h	Interactions between self-monitoring (cognitive) and culture on roles	Not supported
H6 a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h	Interactions between self-monitoring (behavioral) and roles on behavior	Not supported
H7 a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h	Interactions between P-O fit and culture on roles	H7 d
H8 a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h	Interactions between P-O fit and roles on behaviors	Not supported

Chapter 6: Discussion

Relationships between Culture and Roles

The purpose of my thesis was to explicate the relationship between culture and a variety of employee behaviors. Past research has examined employee behaviors from a range of perspectives including social exchange and fairness (Blau, 1964; Liden et al., 2000; Masterson et al., 2000; Wayne et al., 1997). The role of organizational culture as a potent environmental stimulus has, however, remained largely unexplored (Tesluk et al., 2002). This research, therefore, focused on attempting to understand the role of organizational culture in informing and energizing specific employee behaviors through cognitive perceptions. To achieve this goal, I focused on the competing values model of organizational culture, which depicts organizations as having to manage competing demands: efficiency versus flexibility, and internal versus external orientation (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). This typology posits that organizations pursue different and at times, competing ends.

The first part of my model suggested that organizational culture would have an impact on employee role perceptions of organizational expectations. While this proposition in itself seems relatively intuitive, the extant literature has not tested the presence of a cognitive mechanism relating the organizational context to individual employee behaviors, including aspects of citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988). The findings of this study indeed indicate that culture is related to what individuals perceive to be the expectations their organizations have of their role. For instance, individuals in market-oriented cultures reported that they perceived emphasis on high achievement as part of their expected role. By comparison, highly entrepreneurial cultures were

positively associated with perceptions of innovative role while negatively associated with perceptions that the work role focus of an individual should be on efficiency and compliance. Cultures that maintained a focus on hierarchy and rules, on the other hand, were positively, albeit insignificantly, related to perceptions of a compliant role orientation, while negatively related to innovative role orientation. These findings suggest that organizations undoubtedly influence the role perceptions of individuals working in the organization via their management philosophies and espoused values.

Only one aspect of culture—the clan culture, did not appear to be related to employee perceptions of helping role. The lack of relationship between clan culture and a helping role may suggest that cognition is not as important for certain aspects of culture. Therefore, this non-finding may convey the importance of emotional and other non-cognitive factors such as affective attitudes as more important for helping. Some of the extant literature corroborates this logic in the sense that relational quality and mood have both been confirmed as predictors of helping as a form of OCB over and above fairness cognitions (George, 1991; Wayne et al., 1997).

In this study, interestingly, company experience was a positive predictor of a helping orientation, suggesting that more experienced workers, were more likely to possess a helping role orientation. This finding is not surprising because workers who have been around for longer can also be expected to "know the ropes" in the organization better, and to be more capable of helping their fellow employees. Employees with less company experience, by comparison, might be too busy making sense of their environment and might, as a result, fail to perceive that they should be helping their coworkers.

Working in an organization with a clan culture was also unrelated to achievement role, failing to support the competing aspects of the clan and market oriented aspects of culture. The competing values framework (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) suggests that the market and clan quadrant are opposite to each other. However, as the results indicate this may not be the case. Specifically, the market aspect in the competing values framework is captured in the degree to which an organization emphasizes achievement and winning in the marketplace. Thus, the non-cooperative aspects of competition are emphasized on the outside of the organization but not necessarily on the inside.

Similarly, while market culture was associated with individuals being more likely to hold an achievement role, it was not negatively related to a helping orientation. Taken together, the results for clan and market culture suggest that the *focus* of competition (internal versus external) is important in understanding the relationships between culture, roles, and behaviors. The competing values framework examines external focus on competition. This type of competition is not intrinsically opposite to cooperation (helping) within the organization. In fact, it may even be conducive to help when the identity of the external group is pitted against the identity of the internal group (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Turner, 1981).

This conclusion is in line with the predictions of a different culture inventory, namely the organizational culture inventory (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988), wherein high achievement roles are inherent in a constructive culture environment, which also emphasizes cooperation in the attainment of goals. In contrast, the competitive norms in the organizational culture inventory highlight the less functional competitive aspects of culture. Therefore, the market and clan aspects of the competing values framework may

need to be re-conceptualized to reflect the fact that they are not opposed to each other in terms of the types of roles and behaviors they encourage from employees. Specifically, the clan and market culture are not opposite to each other in a correlational sense. Moreover, I do not find evidence that they have opposite signs in predicting criteria of interest (criterion validity). Thus, my analysis does not provide support for the competing aspects of the market and clan aspects of culture.

Culture strength was proposed as a moderator between culture and roles (Martin, 1992). The results suggest that the perception of a shared and reinforced culture around a specific dimension of proffered culture norms had an impact on the employee role perceptions in some situations. For instance, individuals in high clan contexts who also felt that cooperativeness and cohesion were valued and shared by their coworkers perceived that high individual achievement is not part of their expected role at work. This finding may suggest that while clan culture is not contradictory to setting high performance goals for achievement, it becomes dysfunctional for high achievement expectations when both the overall management philosophy and the strength of norms emphasize teamwork and cooperativeness. The interaction between hierarchy culture and strength around rules and regulations indicated that these two aspects of culture seem to be substitutable in the sense that the lowest perceptions of compliant role were observed at the low end of strength and culture. The other proposed interactive relationships involving culture and culture strength were not statistically significant.

It is also worth noting that I only found significant interactions by using a direct measure of strength, asking participants to assess the level of culture strength. Compared to the indirect standard deviation approach used in the climate research (Schneider et al.,

2002), the direct measure proved to have greater utility for my outcomes of interest. Based on my results, I'd recommend that construct validation would be an important aspect of using indirect measures of strength instead of assuming the meaning that they carry. According to the correlation tables from two of the sub-samples I used, the standard deviations were mostly not significantly related to the direct measures of strength (correlations ranging from .01 to -.28).

Only in the case of market culture and hierarchy culture, the standard deviations were negatively related to the respective measures of strength (-.28, $p < .05$ & -.24, $p < .05$), suggesting that the level of disagreement on market culture had a negative association with a direct measure of culture strength on the same dimension. However, there is also a positive association between the standard deviation on entrepreneurial culture and entrepreneurial culture strength (.29, $p < .05$), in contrast to what would be theoretically expected. There may be several theoretically viable explanations of the observed relationships. Specifically, it is possible that the high standard deviation on entrepreneurial culture reflects the presence of very high and very low scores on entrepreneurial culture. Hypothetically, if the focal employees who provided the direct measure of strength were consistently in agreement with the coworkers who provided the higher ratings on entrepreneurial culture, this tendency would be reflected in a positive correlation between the standard deviation and the direct measure of strength. In addition, the low number of coworkers who provided ratings of culture resulted in lower reliability of their ratings.

Given the overall inconsistency in the findings with respect to strength as a standard deviation and strength as agreement, it seems warranted for future research in

this area to further refine and include *direct measures* of strength, as well as to employ alternative indices of variability (Harrison & Klein, 2005) besides the standard deviation. For instance, multidimensional conceptualizations of strength aligned with the organizational context can be employed to capture a more fine-grained picture of the nature and impact of strength within organizations. Moreover, with respect to statistical approaches to measuring strength, Harrison & Klein (2005) have recently advocated the importance of perusing dispersion indices that are precisely aligned with the theoretical propositions. In this case, the use of standard deviation is what the literature recommends (Schneider et al., 2002; Harrison & Klein, 2005) but given its weak construct validity found in this thesis, further consideration seems warranted.

I had also proposed that the cognitive aspect of self-monitoring (sensitivity to the expressive behavior of others) and perceived fit with the organization would influence the extent to which individuals align culture norms with their perceptions of organizational work role expectations. One of the proposed relationships with respect of self-monitoring reached statistical significance. Self-monitoring emerged as a moderator of the relationship between entrepreneurial culture and compliant role. However, the shape of the interaction suggested the presence of an association that was different from the proposed relationship. In particular, higher self-monitors perceived higher compliant roles regardless of the context while lower self-monitors adjusted their perceptions more.

While the extant literature on self-monitoring has traditionally suggested that high self-monitors behave like chameleons frequently adopting behaviors and perceptions that suit the requirements of a specific context (Snyder, 1974; 1986), the results of this study indicate that self-monitors may be more likely to enlarge their roles in spite of the

specific context. Examining the inter-correlations between self-monitoring the role perceptions also reveals that self-monitoring has an overall positive impact on all aspects of work role perceptions (reaching statistical significance with respect to compliant role perceptions). If the statistical correlations are taken literally, the significance of the positive association between the cognitive aspect of self-monitoring (sensitivity to the expressive behavior of others) and compliant role may indicate that high self-monitors are particularly prone to perceiving rules and regulations as part of their role. It may be the case that cognitive self-monitoring is exclusively concerned with other individuals rather than the overall context. In addition, the empirical results did not lend support to the role of behavioral self-monitoring (ability to modify self-presentation) in enacted expected roles. Although the lack of results must be interpreted with caution in view of the possible data flaws as described in this discussion, it suggests that more attention should be devoted to better understanding what aspects of personality (such as self-monitoring) have more predictive validity. In sum, it seems warranted to gain a better understanding of how and why self-monitoring at work as is sometimes viewed as a component of employee effectiveness, and if indeed it is equally important in every work environment (Mehra et al., 2001).

Perceived fit had a moderating effect on the relationship between market culture and helping role perceptions such that in the presence of low norms for external competitiveness, individuals with higher fit perceived helping others as more in-role than those with low fit, with this effect evening out at the high end of market culture. The interaction shape, thus, suggests that overall, individuals with high fit were influenced by the market context in perceiving help as part of their role.

The other proposed interaction effects did not reach statistical significance (although some of them were close to the .05 threshold). For instance, the interaction term between clan and perceived fit had a negative influence on achievement role perceptions and was close to reaching statistical significance ($p < .10$). The negative coefficient suggests that when both perceived fit and clan culture are high or low (in the presence of non-significant main effects for the interaction step), individuals tend to perceive high achievement as less expected of their role in the organization, thereby supporting the logic outlined in *hypothesis 7b.*

Relationships between Roles and Behavior

The second part of the model examined roles as predictors of behavior and possible boundary conditions (Biddle, 1979). I conducted analysis with both coworkers and supervisors as a source. The logic for using coworkers was that they are more likely to be able to directly observe the everyday activities, and behaviors of the focal person than supervisors (Murphy & Cleveland, 1990; Pollack & Pollack, 1996). Surprisingly, very few of the proposed relationships were realized. Specifically, innovative role had a strong negative relationship with compliant behaviors (coworker perspective), and both compliant and innovative roles had links in the predicted direction with compliance and innovation but they did not reach statistical significance. Overall, this suggests a weak pattern of results in relating roles to behaviors, which may be rooted in under-specified theory or in empirical problems.

From a theoretical perspective, the lack of relationships would suggest the presence of moderators that act as boundary conditions determining the extent to which individuals enact expected roles. From an empirical point of view, there may be many

factors which might account for the non-significant relationships, among them low statistical power or inaccurate ratings. Given the number of aggregate coworker and focal pairs (N=107), weak relationships are not likely to reach statistical significance. Specifically, the power to detect a correlation of moderate magnitude significantly different from 0 in the population at $p < .05$ (e.g., $r = .20$) with a sample number of respondents equal to 107 is equal to approximately .55 (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2002). In other words, type I error (the rejection of the null hypothesis when it is false) is 9 times more important than type II error (the failure to reject the null hypothesis/detect significant effects). For a desired a power of .90 under the same parameter specifications, 258 subjects would be required. [5]

Moreover, the ratings provided by coworkers may also be biased by social desirability or inaccuracy in spite of the researcher's attempts to minimize biases. Specifically, only cases who reported being familiar with the behaviors of the focal employee were considered, and the raters were assured of the confidentiality of their feedback, as well as its developmental rather than evaluative purposes, which could be expected to result in higher truthfulness and reliability of the ratings (Pollack & Pollack, 1996). However, the focal employees were asked to select their raters, which is likely to have resulted in their selection of friends who may provide inflated ratings (Murphy & Cleveland, 1990).

The relationships between roles and supervisors' ratings of behaviors were not significant and, in fact, sometimes were opposite of their predicted direction. For instance, innovative role had a negative albeit not significant relationship with supervisor

[5] The importance of type I error relative to type II error may be judged by calculating the ratio of (1-power)/significance level (in this case, (1-.55)/.05.

ratings of innovative behavior. This pattern of results may be attributed to similar theoretical and empirical causes as in the case of the coworker ratings. However, in the case of supervisors, there is an even stronger potential for inaccuracy due to lack of intimate knowledge with the focal employees' daily behaviors or due to a "halo" bias, and inaccuracy of the behavioral/performance ratings (Cardy & Dobbins, 1986; Feldman, 1981; Kozlowski & Kirsch, 1987; Lefkowitz, 2000; Longenecker, Sims, & Gioia, 1987; Murphy & Balzer, 1986).

In the next stage, I tested the theoretically proposed interactions. Only one interaction emerged as a significant predictor of the outcome behaviors. Specifically, achievement role and market strength interacted so that when the culture was perceived as strongly market-oriented, and individuals perceived that they were expected to aggressively strive for strong individual performance results, their overall level of helping decreased as rated from the supervisor perspective. Overall, the inability to detect other significant interaction results may be partly attributed to the low sample size (lower statistical power), and the documented difficulty in obtaining theoretically viable interaction results in field settings (Champoux & Peters, 1987; Chaplin, 1991; West, Biesanz, & Pitts, 2000).

Implications

Theoretical. The main theoretical contribution of this thesis is that it examines organizational culture as a predictor of employee roles and behaviors. The results provide support for most of the proposed relationships between the overall espoused organizational culture and employee role perceptions. From a theoretical standpoint, this suggests that the extent to which a behavior is viewed as in-role or extra-role is likely to

depend on the overall context (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Organ, 1988). Therefore, future studies may need to go beyond social exchange in explaining organizational citizenship behaviors, or prosocial behaviors (Morrison, 1994; Wayne et al., 1997), and may need to consider the role of espoused management philosophies in informing employees' roles and behaviors. The contextual perspective on employee roles and behaviors does not negate a social exchange view but rather complements it. Specifically, it suggests overarching contextual factors, which may provide additional explanatory power in predicting employees' cognitions and behaviors.

The difficulty in obtaining results linking roles to behaviors, on the other hand, suggests that further theoretical exploration is needed to detect what contributes to individuals enacting their expected roles. The literature on roles suggests that individuals socialized in a certain context are likely to enact an expected role (Biddle, 1979). However, the results indicate that a more complex view on the relationships between roles and behaviors is warranted in an organizational context. Given the complexity of the organization as a system, perhaps it is not surprising to find that the relationships I expected did not hold, when considered in isolation from other relevant factors. Specifically, given that the organizational level is more distant than other levels (such as the group or team level, or that of the immediate supervisor expectations), organizational expectations may not be linearly related (or may be unrelated) to observed behaviors due to intervening factors on intermediate levels (Chan, 1998; Chen, 2005; Gully, Incalcaterra, Joshi, & Beuabien, 2002; Scott & Bruce, 1994).

Another theoretical implication emanates from the low inter-correlations between peer and supervisor ratings of behaviors. Perhaps, rigorous research pointing out the

causes for rating-source differences and validity of different source ratings would contribute to our understanding of the benefits of 360-degree feedback efforts, and the employee behavior/performance appraisal process. The literature on 360-degree feedback suggests that peers may be in a better position to observe the interpersonal behaviors of their colleagues, while supervisors may be more apt at rating behaviors directly related to performance results (Murphy & Cleveland, 1990). In addition, some of the extant literature points out that the correlations between peers and supervisors are typically high (e.g. .62 according to meta-analysis by Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988) but this was not the case in this study. Therefore, a careful theoretically driven examination of the effects of rater on assessed behaviors seems warranted for enhancing our overall understanding of the appraisal process.

Applied. The results of this study indicate that culture is an important tool in shaping employee cognitive roles with respect to what is expected of them in the work environment. Therefore, organizations seeking to emphasize innovation would be better off maximizing the entrepreneurial elements in the organizational environment, while de-emphasizing the extent of rules and regulations if they are to promote an innovative role orientation. Likewise, organizations that want to encourage high achievement orientation are likely to benefit from a market-oriented culture, supporting external competition. Managers of such organizations are, thus, well advised to espouse an external-oriented culture, and to emphasize achievement in their policies, and procedures. In addition, the results indicate that maintaining a strong clan environment tends to de-emphasize the achievement orientation of employees.

Overall, the findings suggest that accentuating certain aspects of the environment while paying special attention to de-emphasizing others is likely to convey the desired message more effectively to employees. Therefore, leaders should concentrate their efforts on creating a system of policies that can be combined effectively to influence employee perceptions of their roles at work. However, the findings also indicated a difficulty in obtaining evidence for significant links between roles and behaviors. This should alert leaders of organizations that there are additional factors, which influence the extent to which employees behave in organizationally prescribed ways.

In addition, some of the findings also convey the importance of roles for behaviors. For instance, an entrepreneurial role is likely to produce less compliant behavior. This aspect is, perhaps, important for managers to understand in managing and evaluating their employees' performance levels, as they are likely to require some level of compliance.

The study also has implications for 360-degree feedback efforts and the management of employees' competencies. Examining the relatively low correlations between supervisors and coworkers on the same aspects of focal employee behaviors (e.g. innovation) suggest that there are significant discrepancies in the way that managers and peers perceive the focal employees. Therefore, it seems warranted for supervisors to understand what is driving this difference in administering performance or competency evaluations. While the differences in perspectives may be valid (Tornow, 1993), the literature is not conclusive regarding the practical implications of these differences, and how they should be incorporated in the developmental feedback that a lot of 360-degree initiatives intend to provide.

One explanation for the difference in perspectives may be found in the schema research. In this study, managers seemed to be more influenced by gender stereotypes such that they perceived women as more helpful and more compliant than their male counterparts (Kidder & McLean Parks, 2001). It is a well-established fact that supervisors use schemas and short cuts in evaluating employees' performance dimensions (Lord & Foti, 1986; Park, Sims, & Motowidlo, 1986) but these short-cuts may need to be reconsidered to the extent to which they create false impressions of exhibited behaviors. Alerting managers to be more self-aware as well as administering, and taking into account 360-degree feedback results, may help minimize some of these biases.

Limitations

As with any study, this one has some limitations. For instance, one of the limitations is presented by its cross-sectional design. While there is a theoretical logic to expect that relationships will flow in a certain directions (from culture to roles and from roles to behaviors), having the measurements taken roughly in the same point in time does not facilitate causal explanation. However, reverse-causality is not a very likely explanation for the relationship between culture and cognitive roles as individual role perceptions are unlikely to influence coworkers' perceptions of culture. The direction of the relationship between roles and behaviors also seem to be straightforward in terms of theoretical reasoning. Therefore, while the possibility for reverse causality can't be completely rejected, it should not be a great concern for this study.

In addition, the number of respondents for some of the aggregate constructs was relatively low, thus, contributing to lower group reliability values. For instance, measuring culture from the perspective of roughly three employees may not be sufficient

to reliably capture the culture of the organization. At the same time, the agreement between respondents coupled with the significant convergence between focal and coworker perspective provides some assurance that I am capturing the underlying phenomenon with a fair level of objectivity.

Another limitation of the study is its survey design using rating scale format. Constructs measured through surveys tend to be influenced by rater errors and biases, thus, introducing measurement error (Visser, Krosnick, & Lavrakas, 2000). However, many of the research questions posed in this dissertation required the survey format (e.g. employee behaviors). Objective assessments regarding those behaviors are difficult to obtain. Furthermore, I assumed that ratings of behaviors are uniform across raters and aggregated the ratings based on the aggregation statistics, which were sufficient to allow aggregation. Naturally, the measures of behavior did not exhibit perfect agreement. While statistically this is to be expected, theoretically, there may be important differences in perspectives depending on a range of factors such as the quality of the relationship between the rater and the ratee (Wayne et al., 1997). However, given my focus on the context and cognitive role perceptions as drivers of behaviors, I expected sufficient level of uniformity of behavior across raters.

Somewhat complicating the problem of obtaining valid ratings, was the fact that focal individual was asked to select his/her raters because he/she was the point of contact with the researchers. The selection process can, thus, be expected to have resulted in rating inflation (Murphy & Cleveland, 1990). Obtaining a random sample of raters was not plausible due to the design of the study. This limitation may be overcome by collecting data as part of an organizationally endorsed 360-degree feedback initiatives,

which would require the managers to select a random sample of raters for each employee (Pollack & Pollack, 1996).

In addition, with respect to the organizational culture measurement, there are two perspectives recommending different methods of measurement. The *emic* measurement tradition advocates qualitative, rich methods of measurement capturing the native point of view (Denison, 1996), while the *etic* perspective promotes quantitative measurement. Here, I adopted the *etic* perspective and I measured culture with a survey instrument. The benefit of this measurement is that it allows the researcher to capture culture across many different organizations (as in this case) and facilitates generalizability, while the *emic* perspective usually suits better research conducted in a few organizations. However, the drawback of the quantitative approach is that it imposes a theoretical framework on organizational culture but forsakes the in-depth understanding of each individual culture as well as the opportunity to develop new theory.On the other hand, while a qualitative approach fosters the in-depth understanding of unique processes within each organization, it may also limit the generalizability of findings obtained within each to a different set of organizations. Therefore, the benefits of using a theoretically driven quantitative approach seemed to outweigh the costs.

Finally, the focus on individual cognitive perceptions may be construed as a limitation. Specifically, focusing on individual perceptions does not shed light on understanding group processes, and how they are influenced by culture. It is however, useful, for making inferences on the individual level that may in the future be further researched and generalized to the group level.

Directions for Future Research

Role enactment. Based on the results, one notable area that needs further research is the enactment of organizational roles. Overall, there was more consistent and stronger evidence that culture communicates certain role expectations. The relationships between roles and behaviors were not as pronounced, and often times, failed to reach statistical significant. In addition, the moderating factors proposed here did not seem to be effective in explaining variance in the outcomes of interest. Therefore, one gap that this research leaves insufficiently explored is the linkage between roles and behaviors. In particular, the question of how and why individuals enact expected roles needs further exploration.

Perhaps factors such as managers' support for the organizational culture and policies on a local level can be examined as moderators. From an agency theory perspective (Eisenhardt, 1989), managers may not always act in the best interest of the organization. The question of when and whether they support the higher-level organizational policies on an ongoing basis within the organization as well as their impact on role enactment remains to be explored.

To the extent to which eliciting desirable behaviors is important for long-term organizational effectiveness (Katz, 1964), an implication of the difficulty in obtaining relationships between roles and behaviors is for future research to seek ways to remedy our understanding of the absence of these relationships. One promising approach would be to engage in theory-inductive research in addition to the theory-deductive approach (Beyer & Hannah, 2002; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Qualitative research efforts may be utilized to create a map of all potentially relevant constructs, which can be then tested empirically. For instance, interviewing employees regarding the range of factors that

facilitate or discourage them from engaging in organizationally prescribed behaviors may be a viable approach in identifying a comprehensive set of factors (Farh, Zhong, & Organ, 2004). Based on the *initial qualitative stage*, a more precise set of *quantitative measures* can be employed to test the expected relationships. This would be a more rigorous method for conducting future research.

The role of individual level factors is also important. Specifically, further research is needed in the areas of individual differences, and how they may influence the enactment of organizational roles. For instance, innovative behavior may depend on the creative self-efficacy of individuals (Tierney & Farmer, 2002), while help may be tied in with altruism.

Multilevel lens. Another area that deserves further attention is the multilevel mechanism leading to behaviors. Specifically, factors at all relevant levels such as organizational, departmental, group, and individual may be examined to establish how they co-act to determine behaviors. It may be appropriate to use fewer organizations for this line of research to allow nested designs, and the in-depth analysis of multilevel factors. For instance, it may be the case that organizational culture, group climate, and individual level factors have both independent and synergistic influence on desired behaviors (Scott & Bruce, 1994).

Conclusion

In this study, I explored the influence of organizational culture on employee roles and behaviors. Analysis involving data collected from about a hundred different organizations in a variety of industries provided support for the overall proposition that culture shapes employee roles, and that, in some cases, roles lead to behaviors. These findings have both practical and theoretical implications.

Specifically, the results lend support to the role that organizational leaders can play in shaping the role orientations of employees through creating the right culture environment. This phenomenon is evidenced in organizations such as Apple famous for their innovative capacity, which is often times attributed to the culture that CEO Steve Jobs has established.

Theoretically, the findings contribute to our overall understanding of roles and behaviors at work. A large body of literature has accumulated arguing that citizenship behavior at work is important, and is partially driven by roles and social exchange factors in organizations (Wayne et al., 1997; Masterson et al., 2000; Morrison, 1994; Settoon et al., 1996). At its core, good citizenship can be defined as roles and behaviors valued by the organization.

Here, I advocated a culture perspective on roles and behaviors, which emphasized the importance of organizational culture (and leadership) in defining what constitutes good citizenship, as well as valued roles, and behaviors at work. Organizations emphasizing innovation, for example, are also likely to induce innovative roles in their employees, while de-emphasizing the value of compliant orientation. The cultural context

of the organization, therefore, can and should not be extricated from the definition and motivation of valuable employee behaviors within organizations.

Appendices

Appendix A: Focal Questionnaire

Please, provide the following information.

Q1. What is your current (or most recent) job/title? _____

Q2. Employment status? F- full time, P-part-time, N-non-employed.

Q3a. If you are working, how long have you had this job/position? Years &

Q3b. Months

Q4. Briefly describe the type of company you work for by choosing from the available categories

___1__Service __2___ Manufacturing _3____ Education/Research/University

__4____ Oil/Chemical ___5__ High Tech ___6__ Communications

___7___ Consulting/Government Relations ___8__ Financial services/Banking

__9___ Healthcare __10___ Government __11___ Defense Contractor __12___

Military ; Other (please explain): __open ended____

Q5a. How long have your worked for your current company? Years &

5b. Months

Q6. Estimate the percentage of you time that you have spent working as part of a project team (i.e., part of a group that has shared responsibility for some tangible outcome or objective and where members are interdependent on each other for getting the task complete) (min. 0- max.100 %) _____

Q7. Please indicate your age in years. 1- below 25, 2: 26-35, 3: 36-45, 4: 46-55, 5: >55.

Q8. Please, indicate your gender, M: Male; F: Female.

Q9. Please, indicate your ethnic background by selecting from the categories below:

___1__White/Caucasian 2_ African American _3_ Native American/Indian

4__Asian 5_Hispanic/Latino __6 Indian Subcontinent/Pacific Islander

Other: __7_____

Please read all instructions carefully before completing the survey.

Organizational Culture (adapted from Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

Rating format: (1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3=somewhat disagree; 4= neither agree nor disagree; 5=somewhat agree; 6=agree; 7=strongly agree).

Note: Throughout the survey you will see the term "organization." When you see this term, please think of the highest level (e.g., work unit, division, department, directorate) within your overall organization that is most meaningful to you in terms of how you experience your organization's culture.

Please respond to the following statements in terms of the degree to which they accurately reflect your organization's culture, as it currently exists.

1. This organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to feel comfortable sharing their personal situations with colleagues.

2. The management style in this organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.

3. The "glue" that holds this organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.

4. This organization emphasizes personal and professional development. There is a strong focus on developing skills and providing interesting work opportunities.

5. This organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.

6. This organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.

7. The management style in this organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.

8. The "glue" that holds this organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.

9. This organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.

10. This organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product/service leader and innovator.

11. This organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.

12. The management style in this organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.

13. The "glue" that holds this organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.

14. This organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.

15. This organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.

16. This organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.

17. The management style in this organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.

18. The "glue" that holds this organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.

19. This organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.

20. This organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost production are critical.

21. What was the level in your organization that you were thinking about when you responded to the above statements?

a. Entire organization (e.g., company, agency).
b. Work unit
c. Department
d. Division
e. Directorate
f. Physical location (e.g., plant, office)
g. Work group
h. Other (please specify) _____

Strength of Your Organization's Culture

On each of the following dimensions listed under a, b, c & d, please rate the strength of your organization's culture on that dimension. *Strength* is defined in terms of the degree to which people in your organization collectively recognize and share a common set of values and beliefs about what is important and valued that are reinforced by through formal and informal rewards and work practices.

Rating format: 1- extremely weak; 2 very weak; 3- weak. 4-moderate; 5-strong; 6- very strong; 7 extremely strong.

a. Innovation and adaptability – emphasis on risk taking and being on the cutting edge.

b. Competitiveness and growth – emphasis on beating the competition and being number one in what our organization does

c. Cooperativeness, cohesion and developing a strong team spirit – emphasis on teamwork and participation and building employee commitment to the organization.

d. Efficiency and stability – emphasis on maintaining and smooth and efficient operations and decision making by following detailed procedures, work methods and organizational hierarchy.

P-O fit (adapted from Cable & Judge, 1996).

1. I feel that my values "match" or fit my organization and the current employees in the organization?

2. My values match those of the current employees in this organization.

3. I think the values and "personality" of this organization reflect my own values and personality.

Self-monitoring (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984)

Response scale: 1-7. 1-strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-somewhat disagree, 4-neither agree, nor disagree, 5-somewhat agree, 6-agree, 7-strongly agree.

1) Ability to modify self-presentation

1. In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for.

2.I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them.

3.When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does.

4. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.

5.I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirement of any situation I find myself in.

6.Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly

2) Sensitivity to the expressive behavior of others

1. I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes.

2. In conversation, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the persons I'm conversing with.

3. My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others' emotions and motives.

4. I can usually tell when others consider a joke in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly.

5. I can usually tell when I've said something inappropriate by reading the listener's eyes.

6. If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from that person's manner of expression.

Excluded item

* Even when it might be to my advantage, I have difficulty hiding my true feelings.[6]

Roles

Please rate the extent to which your organization expects you to perform each role activity by responding to the statements below. (Note: work roles are activities that are not necessarily part of the job description but are expected by the organization).

Response scale: 1-definitely not expected as part of my work role, 2-only slightly expected as part of my work role, 3-somewhat expected as part of my work role, 4-moderately expected as part of my work role, 5-strongly expected as part my work role, 6- very strongly expected as part of my work role, 7-absolutely expected as part of my work role.

1) Helping Role (adapted from Williams & Anderson, 1991).

1. Helping others who have been absent.
2. Helping others who have heavy workloads.
3. Assisting supervisor with your work (when not asked).
4. *Taking time to listen to co-workers problems and worries. (Retained)*
5. *Going out of way to help new employees. (Retained)*
6. *Taking a personal interest in other employees. (Retained)*

[6] Item was excluded from the scale due to low factor loading.

7. Passing along information to co-workers.

2) Innovative Role (adapted from Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Scott & Bruce, 1994).

1. Generating creative ideas. (Retained)

2. Promoting and championing ideas to others. (Retained)

3. Being innovative. (Retained)

6. Adopting improved procedures for doing your job.
7. Changing the way that work is done in order to be more effective.
8. Instituting new work methods that are more effective for the company.
9. Bringing about improved methods and procedures for your/her work unit and department.
10. Changing organizational rules and policies that are non-productive or counterproductive.
11. Making constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the company.
12. Correcting faulty procedures and practices.
13. Eliminating redundant or unnecessary procedures.
14. Introducing new structures, technologies, or approaches to improve efficiency.
15. Suggesting or implementing solutions to pressuring organizational problems.

3) Achievement Role (new items)

1. Being aggressive and wanting to win at all costs.
2. Showing senior managers/executives that my ideas and work are better than that of others in your organization.

3. *Strongly advocating my points and perspectives in meetings and discussions. (Retained)*
4. *Doing whatever it takes in order to achieve my performance goals and targets. (Retained)*
5. Doing whatever it takes to be successful.
6. *Being an aggressive advocate for your/her interests and agendas. (Retained)*

4) Compliant Role

1. Carefully following company rules and procedures.
2. Making sure that when I do m work I follow the informal rules for how "things are done around here.
3. *Doing my job in a way that emphasizes efficiency rather than creativity. (Retained)*
4. Going through the hierarchy of the organization searching for a solution rather than using my own discretion.
5. *Sticking with existing rules and procedures when doing my job rather than being creative. (Retained)*
6. *Going about solving problems following existing procedures. (Retained)*
7. Questioning existing rules and procedures, even if it means, "rocking the boat".
8. *Relying on the existing work processes and procedures when it comes to completing my job responsibilities. (Retained)*

Appendix B: Coworker Questionnaire

Please, provide the following information.

Background Information

The following information is being asked so that we can better understand the nature of the survey responses in their entirety. This information is ONLY being used in an aggregated form.

1. Do you currently work in the same organization as this person? (Circle one) No- (N) (Y)-Yes

2. Do you currently work in the same department or unit as this person? (Circle one) No- (N) (Y)-Yes

3. Do you currently work in the same work group or team as this person? (Circle one) No- (N) (Y)-Yes

4. How long have you worked (did you work) with this person? 0 to 25, & >25 Years; CQ4b_months- 0 to 12. Months

5. How well do you know this person's work? 1-not at all; 2-not well; 3-somewhat; 4-well; 5-very well.

6. Which statement best describes the nature of the reporting relationship that you have with this person?

(Please circle one):

1) This person is a peer/coworker/colleague of mine.

2) This person is my primary/direct manager.

Role Behaviors

Please rate the extent to which your coworker engages in each of the following behaviors:

This person is frequently:

1-8 (1= strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=neither agree nor disagree, 5=somewhat agree, 6=agree, 7=strongly agree; 8= don't know/cannot answer).

1. Helping others who have been absent.
2. Helping others who have heavy workloads.
3. Assisting his/her supervisor (even when not asked).
4. Taking time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.
5. Going out of his/her way to help new employees.
6. Taking a personal interest in other employees.
7. Passing along information to co-workers.
8. Adopting improved procedures for doing his/her job.
9. Changing the way that work is done in order to be more effective.
10. Instituting new work methods that are more effective for the company.
11. Bringing about improved methods and procedures for my work unit and department.
12. Changing organizational rules and policies that are non-productive or counterproductive.
13. Making constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the company.
14. Correcting faulty procedures and practices.

15. Eliminating redundant or unnecessary procedures.

16. Suggesting or implementing solutions to pressuring organizational problems.

17. Introducing new structures, technologies, or approaches to improve efficiency.

18. Generating creative ideas.

19. Promoting and championing ideas to others.

20. Being innovative.

21. Being aggressive and showing that he/she wants to win at all costs.

22. Showing senior managers/executives that his/her ideas and work are better than those being advocated by others.

23. Strongly advocating, championing and defending his/her points and perspectives in meetings and discussions.

24. Doing whatever it takes in order to achieve his/her performance goals and targets.

25. Doing what it takes to be successful.

26. Being an aggressive advocate for his/her interests and agendas.

27. Carefully following company rules and procedures.

28. Making sure that he/she follows the informal rules for how "things are done around here."

29. Doing his/her job in way that emphasizes efficiency rather than creativity.

30. Going through the hierarchy of the organization searching for a solution rather than using his own discretion.

31. Sticking with existing rules and procedures when doing his/her job rather than being creative.

32. Going about solving problems following existing procedures.

33. Questioning existing rules and/or work procedures, even if it means "rocking the boat."

34. Relying on the existing work processes and procedures when it comes to completing his/her job responsibilities.

Organizational Culture (adapted from Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

Rating format: (1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3=somewhat disagree; 4= neither agree nor disagree; 5=somewhat agree; 6=agree; 7=strongly agree).

Note: Throughout the survey you will see the term "organization." When you see this term, please think of the highest level (e.g., work unit, division, department, directorate) within your overall organization that is most meaningful to you in terms of how you experience your organization's culture.

Please respond to the following statements in terms of the degree to which they accurately reflect your organization's culture, as it currently exists.

1. This organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to feel comfortable sharing their personal situations with colleagues.

2. The management style in this organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.

3. The "glue" that holds this organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.

4. This organization emphasizes personal and professional development. There is a strong focus on developing skills and providing interesting work opportunities.

5. This organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.

6. This organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.

7. The management style in this organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.

8. The “glue” that holds this organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.

9. This organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.

10. This organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product/service leader and innovator.

11. This organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.

12. The management style in this organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.

13. The “glue” that holds this organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.

14. This organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.

15. This organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.

16. This organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.

17. The management style in this organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.

18. The "glue" that holds this organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.

19. This organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.

20. This organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost production are critical.

21. What was the level in your organization that you were thinking about when you responded to the above statements?

a. Entire organization (e.g., company, agency).
b. Work unit
c. Department
d. Division
e. Directorate
f. Physical location (e.g., plant, office)
g. Work group
h. Other (please specify) _____

<u>Strength of Your Organization's Culture</u>

On each of the following dimensions listed under a, b, c & d, please rate the strength of your organization's culture on that dimension. Strength is defined in terms of the degree to which people in your organization collectively recognize and share a common set of values and beliefs about what is important and valued that are reinforced by through formal and informal rewards and work practices.

Rating format: 1- extremely weak; 2 very weak; 3- weak. 4-moderate; 5-strong; 6- very strong; 7 extremely strong.

a. Innovation and adaptability – emphasis on risk taking and being on the cutting edge.

b. Competitiveness and growth – emphasis on beating the competition and being number one in what our organization does

c. Cooperativeness, cohesion and developing a strong team spirit – emphasis on teamwork and participation and building employee commitment to the organization.

d. Efficiency and stability – emphasis on maintaining and smooth and efficient operations and decision making by following detailed procedures, work methods and organizational hierarchy.

Appendix C: Supervisor Questionnaire

The following information is being asked so that we can better understand the nature of the survey responses in their entirety. This information is ONLY being used in an aggregated form.

1.Which statement best describes the nature of the reporting relationship that you have with this person?

(Please circle one)

A- I am this person's primary direct supervisor/manager

B- I have more indirect supervisory/managerial responsibilities for this person

C- I share supervisory/managerial responsibilities for this person,

D- I have more of a peer/lateral reporting relationship with this person.

2. How long have you worked with this person in the capacity that you described in above?

(Please indicate numerical value in the spaces provided): Years_____ Months _____

3. How familiar do you feel you are with this person's work behaviors as asked about in this survey?

1-very unfamiliar, 2-unfamiliar, 3-somewhat familiar, 4-familiar, 5-very familiar

Role Behaviors

Please rate the extent to which your coworker engages in each of the following behaviors:

This person is frequently:

1-8 (1= strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=neither agree nor disagree, 5=somewhat agree, 6=agree, 7=strongly agree; 8= don't know/cannot answer).

1. Helping others who have been absent.

2. Helping others who have heavy workloads.

3. Assisting his/her supervisor (even when not asked).

4. Taking time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.

5. Going out of his/her way to help new employees.

6. Taking a personal interest in other employees.

7. Passing along information to co-workers.

8. Adopting improved procedures for doing his/her job.

9. Changing the way that work is done in order to be more effective.

10. Instituting new work methods that are more effective for the company.

11. Bringing about improved methods and procedures for my work unit and department.

12. Changing organizational rules and policies that are non-productive or counterproductive.

13. Making constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the company.

14. Correcting faulty procedures and practices.

15. Eliminating redundant or unnecessary procedures.

16. Suggesting or implementing solutions to pressuring organizational problems.

17. Introducing new structures, technologies, or approaches to improve efficiency.

18. Generating creative ideas.

19. Promoting and championing ideas to others.

20. Being innovative.

21. Being aggressive and showing that he/she wants to win at all costs.

22. Showing senior managers/executives that his/her ideas and work are better than those being advocated by others.

23. Strongly advocating, championing and defending his/her points and perspectives in meetings and discussions.

24. Doing whatever it takes in order to achieve his/her performance goals and targets.

25. Doing what it takes to be successful.

26. Being an aggressive advocate for his/her interests and agendas.

27. Carefully following company rules and procedures.

28. Making sure that he/she follows the informal rules for how "things are done around here."

29. Doing his/her job in way that emphasizes efficiency rather than creativity.

30. Going through the hierarchy of the organization searching for a solution rather than using his own discretion.

31. Sticking with existing rules and procedures when doing his/her job rather than being creative.

32. Going about solving problems following existing procedures.

33. Questioning existing rules and/or work procedures, even if it means "rocking the boat."

34. Relying on the existing work processes and procedures when it comes to completing his/her job responsibilities.

Bibliography

Abolafia, M. Y., & Kilduff, M. 1988. Enacting market crisis: The social construction of a speculative bubble. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 33: 177-193.

Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. 1991. *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Anderson, J. C. & Gerbing, D. W. 1988. Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin,* 103: 411-423.

Ashforth, B.E. 1985. Climate formation: Issues and extensions. *Academy of Management Review*, 10: 837-847.

Ashforth, B.E. & Mael, F. 1989. Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, 14: 20-39.

Ball, G.A., Trevino, L.K., & Sims, H.P. 1994. Just and unjust punishment: Influences on subordinate performance and citizenship. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37: 299-322.

Barnard, C. I. 1938. *The Functions of the Executive.* Harvard University Press: Cambridge Massachusetts.

Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. 1983. Job satisfaction and the good soldier: the relationship between affect and "citizenship". *Academy of Management Journal*, 26: 587-595.

Bentler, P.M. 1990. Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107: 238-246.

Bentler, P.M., & Bonnett, D.G. 1980. Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, 88: 588-606.

Beyer, J.M. & Hannah, D.R. 2002. Building on the past: Enacting established personal identities in a new work setting. *Organization Science*, 13: 636-652.

Biddle, B. 1979. *Role theory: Expectations, identities, and behaviors*. New York: Academic Press.

Blau, P. 1964. *Exchange and power in social life.* New York: Wiley.

Bliese, P.D. 2000. Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In K.J. Klein & S.W.J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory research, and methods in organizations*, pp. 349-381. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Borman, W.C., & Motowidlo, S.J. 1993. Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt & W.Borman (Eds.), *Personnel selection in organizations*: 71-98. New York: Jossey-Bass.

Bowen, D.E. & Ostroff, C. 2004. Understanding HRM-Firm performance linkages: The role of "strength" of the HRM system. *Academy of Management Review*, 29: 203-221.

Byrne, B.M. (1994). *Structural equation modeling with EQS and EQS/Windows*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications

Byrne, J. A. 2002. At Enron, "The environment was ripe for abuse". Accessed at www.businessweek.com on 7/16/2002.

Cable, D.M., & Judge, T.A. 1996. Person-organization fit, job choice decisions, and organizational entry. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 67: 294-311.

Cameron, K.S., & Quinn, R. E. 1999. *Diagnosing and changing organizational culture.* Addison- Wesley: Massachusetts.

Cardy, R.L. & Dobbins, G.H. 1986. Affect and appraisal accuracy: Liking as an integral dimension in evaluating performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71: 672-678.

Champoux, J. and Peters, W. 1987. Form, effect size, and power in moderated regression analysis. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 60: 243-55.

Chaplin, W. F. 1991. The next generation of moderator research in personality psychology. *Journal of Personality*, 59: 143-78.

Chatman, J. 1989. Improving interactional organizational research: A model of person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Review*, 14: 333-349.

Chatman, J. 1991. Matching people and organizations: Selection and socialization in public accounting firms. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 36: 459-484.

Chatman, J.A., & Barsade, S.G. 1995. Personality, organizational culture, and cooperation: Evidence from a business simulation. *Administrative Science Quarterl*y, 40: 423-443.

Chatman, J.A., Polzer, J.T., Barsade, S.G., Neale, M.A. 1998. Being different yet feeling similar: The influence of demographic composition and organizational culture on work processes and outcomes. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 43: 749-780.

Chan, D. 1998. Functional relations among constructs in the same content domain at different levels of analysis: A typology of composition models. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83: 234-246.

Chen, G. 2005. Newcomer adaptation in teams: Multilevel antecedents and outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48: 101-116.

Chen, G., & Tjosvold, D. 2002. Cooperative goals and constructive controversy for promoting innovation in student groups in China. *Journal of Education for Business*, 78: 46-50.

Coates, C.H., & Pellegrin, R.J. 1957. Executives and supervisors: Informal factors n differential bureaucratic promotion. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 2 : 200-215.

Coff, R.W. 1997. Human assets and management dilemmas: Coping with hazards on the road to resource-based theory. *Academy of Management Review*, 22: 374-402.

Cohen, P., Cohen, J., West, S., & Aiken, L. 2002. Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers
: Mahwah, NJ.

Cooke, R.A. & Lafferty, J.C. (1986). *Level V: Organizational Culture Inventory-form III.* Plymouth, MI: Human Synergistics.

Cooke, R.A., & Rousseau, D.M. 1988. Behavioral norms and expectations: A quantitative approach to the assessment of organizational culture. *Group and Organization Studies*, 13: 245-273.

Cooke, R.A. & Szumal, J.L. 2000. Using the organizational culture inventory to understand the operating cultures of organization. In N.M. Ashkanasy, C.P.M. Wilderom, M. F. (Eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Culture and Climate*: 147-162. Peterson. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Dansereau, F. Jr., Graen, G., & Haga, W.J. 1975. A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the role-making process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 13: 46-78.

Deal, T.E. & Kennedy, A.A. 1988. *Corporate culture*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.

De Dreu, C. K. & Van Lange, P.A. 1995. The impact of social value orientations on negotiator cognition and behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin,* 21: 1178-1188.

De Dreu, C.K., Weingart, L.R. & Kwon, S. 2000. Influence of social motives on integrative negotiation: A meta-analytic review and test of two theories. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 78: 889-905.

Denison, D. R. 1996. What is the difference between organizational culture and organizational climate? A native's point of view on a decade of paradigm wars. *Academy of Management Review*, 21: 619-654.

Denison, D.R., & Mishra, A.K. 1995. Toward a theory of organizational culture and effectiveness. *Organization Science,* 6: 204-223.

Deutsch, M. 1949. A theory of cooperation and competition. *Human Relations,* 2:129-152.

Deutsch, M. 1973. *The resolution of conflict: Constructive and destructive processes.* New Haven: Yale University Press.

Deutsch, M. 2001. Cooperation and conflict resolution: Implications for consulting psychology. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research,* 53: 76-81.

Earley, P.C. 1993. East meets west meets mideast: Further elaborations of collectivistic and individualistic work groups. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36: 319-348.

Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, P.D., & Rhoades, L. 2001. Reciprocation of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 42-51.

Eisenhardt, K.M. 1989. Agency theory: An assessment and review. *Academy of Management Review*, 14: 57-74.

Ekehammar, B. 1974. Interactionism in personality from a historical perspective. *Psychological Bulletin*, 81: 1026-1048.

Enz, C. 1988. The role of value congruity in intraorganizational power. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 33: 284-304.

Farh, J., Zhong, C., & Organ, D.W. 2004. Organizational citizenship behavior in the people's republic of China. *Organization Science*, 15: 241-253.

Feldman, J.M. 1981. Beyond attribution theory: Cognitive processes in performance appraisal. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 66: 127-148.

Festinger, L. 1954. A theory of social comparison processes. *Human Relations*, 7: 117-140.

Fisher, C.D. 1986. Organizational socialization: An integrative review. In G.R. Ferris & K.M. Rowland (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management, Vol. 4*, 143-165. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Fiske, S. & Taylor, E. 1991. *Social cognition*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Flynn, F.J., Chatman, J.A., & Spataro, S.E. 2001. Getting to know you: The influence of personality on impressions and performance of demographically different people in organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46: 414-442.

Ford, C.M. 1996. A theory of individual creative action in multiple social domains. *Academy of Management Review*, 21: 1112-1142.

Freeman, L.C., Romney, A.K., Freeman, S.C. 1987. Cognitive structure and informant accuracy. *American Anthropologist*, 89: 310-325.

Frese, M. & Fay, D. 2001. Personal initiative: An active performance concept for work in the 21st century. *Research in Organizational Behavior*. Vol. 23: 133-187.

Frese, M. Kring, W., Soose, A., & Zempel, J. 1996. Personal initiative at work: Differences between East and West Germany. *Academy of Management Journal*: 39: 37-63.

Gangestad, S.W. & Snyder, M. 2000. Self-monitoring: Appraisal and reappraisal. *Psychological Bulletin,* 126: 530-555.

Gavin, J.F. & Howe, J.G. 1975. Psychological climate: Some theoretical and empirical considerations. *Behavioral Science,* 20: 228-240.

Geertz, C. 1973. *The interpretation of cultures.* New York: Basic Books.

Gelfand, M.J., Nishii, L.H., Holcombe, K.M., Dyer, N., Ohbuchi, K. & Fukuno, M. 2001. Cultural influences on cognitive representations of conflict: Interpretations of conflict episodes in the United States and Japan. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 1059-1074.

George, J.M. 1991. State or trait: Effects of positive mood on prosocial behaviors at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76: 299-307.

George, J. M. & Brief, A. P. 1992. Feeling good, doing good: A conceptual analysis of the mood at work-organizational spontaneity relationship. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112: 310-329.

Glick, W. H. 1985. Conceptualizing and measuring organizational and psychological climate: Pitfalls in multilevel research. *Academy of Management Review*, 10: 601-616.

Gioia, D.A. & Sims, H.P., Jr. 1986. Introduction: Social cognition in organizations. In H.P. Sims, Jr., D.A. Gioia, and Associates, *The thinking organization*: 1-19. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Gnyawali, D. & Madhavan, R. 2001. Cooperative networks and competitive dynamics: A structural embeddedness perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 26: 431-445.

Goleman, D. 1998. *Working with Emotional Intelligence.* New York: Bantam Books.

Gonzales-Roma, V., Peiro, J.M., & Tordera, N. 2002. An examination of the antecedents and moderator influences of climate strength. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87 (3): 465-473.

Graen, G. 1976. Role-making processes within complex organizations. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*: 1201-1245. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company.

Gully, S.M., Inalcaterra, K.A., Joshi, A. & Beaubien, J.M. 2002. A meta-analysis of team-efficacy, potency, and performance: Independence and level of analysis as moderators of observed relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87: 819-832.

Hackman, J.R. 1992. Group influences on individuals in organizations. In M.D. Dunnette & L.M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*, 2nd ed., pp. 199-267. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychological Press.

Hambrick, D.C., Cho, T.S., Chen, M. 1996. The influence of top management team heterogeneity on firms' competitive moves. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41: 659-684.

Harris, M.M. & Schaubroeck, J. 1988. A meta-analysis of self-supervisor, self-peer, and peer-supervisor ratings. *Personnel Psychology*, 41: 43-62.

Hatch, M.J. 1993. The dynamics of organizational culture. *Academy of Management Review*, 18: 657-693.

Harrison, D.A. & Klein, K. J. 2005. What's the difference: diversity constructs as separation, variety, or disparity in organizations. *Unpublished working paper*.

Haveman, H.A. & Nonnemaker, L. 2000. Competition in multiple geographic markets: The impact on growth and market entry. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 45: 232-267.

Hofmann, D.A., Morgeson, F.P., & Gerras, S.J. 2003. Climate as a moderator of the relationship between leader-member exchange and content specific citizenship: Safety climate as an exemplar. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(1): 170-178.

Ilgen & Hollenbeck, J. 1991. The structure of work: job design and roles. In M. Dunnette & L. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*, Volume II, pp. 165-207. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychological Press.

Irving, P.G., Coleman, D.F., & Cooper, C.L. 1997. Further assessments of a three-component model of occupational commitment: Generalizability and differences across occupations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82: 444-452.

James, L. R. 1982. Aggregation bias in estimates of perceptual agreement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 67: 219-229.

James, L. R., Demaree, R. G., & Wolf, G. 1993. Rwg: An assessment of within-group agreement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78: 306-309.

James, L. R., Demaree, R. G., & Wolf, G. 1984. Estimating within-group interrater reliability with and without response bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69: 85-98.

Janis, I.L. 1972. *Victims of groupthink: A psychological study of foreign-policy decisions and fiascoes*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Janis, I.L. (1982). *Groupthink* (2nd ed.). Boston: Houghton Mufflin.

Jaques, E. (1951). *The changing culture of a factory.* London: Tavistock.

Jawahar, I. M. 2001. Attitudes, self-monitoring, and appraisal behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 875-883.

Johnson, J. 2001. The relative importance of task and contextual performance domains to supervisor judgments of overall performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 984-996.

Jones, A.P. & James, L. P. 1979. Psychological climate: Dimensions and relationships of individual and aggregated work environment perceptions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 23: 201-250.

Judge, T. A. & Cable, D.M. 1997. Applicant personality, organizational culture, and organization attraction. *Personnel Psychology,* 50: 359-394.

Katz, D. 1964. The motivational basis of organizational behavior. *Behavioral Science*, 9: 131-146.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R.L. 1978. *The social psychology of organizations* (2nd edition). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Kidder, D. L. & McLean Parks, J. 2001. The good soldier: who is s(he)? *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 22: 939-959.

Kiker, D.S. & Motowidlo, S.J. 1999. Main and interaction effects of task and contextual performance on supervisory reward decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 84: 602-609.

Klein, A.S., Masi, R.J., Weidner, C.K. 1995. Organization culture, distribution and amount of control, and perceptions of quality: An empirical study of linkages. *Group and Organization Management,* 20: 122-148.

Klein, K.J., Conn, A.B., Smith, D.B., & Sorra, J.S. 2001. Is everyone in agreement? An exploration of within-group agreement in employee perceptions of the work environment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 3-16.

Konovsky, M.A. & Pugh, S.D. 1994. Citizenship behavior and social exchange. *Academy of Management Journal,* 37: 656-669.

Kotter, J.P. & Heskett, J.L. 1992. *Corporate culture and performance*. New York: Free Press.

Kozlowski, S.W. & Kirsch, M.P. 1987. The systematic distortion hypothesis, halo, and accuracy: an individual level analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72: 252-261.

Kristof, A. 1996. Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology,* 49:1-49.

Kristof-Brown, A. L. & Stevens, C. K. 2001. Goal congruence in project teams: Does the fit between members' personal mastery and performance goals matter. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 1083-1095.

Lam, S.S.K., Hui, C. & Law, K.S. 1999. Organizational citizenship behavior: Comparing perspectives of supervisors and subordinates across four international samples. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84: 594-601.

Lawler, E.E. 1992. *The ultimate advantage: Creating the high involvement organization.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Lawrence, P.R. & Lorsch, J.W. 1967. *Organization and Environment.* Boston: Harvard Business School.

Leavitt, H.J. 2003. Why hierarchies thrive. *Harvard Business Review*, March: 96-102.

Lengnick-Hall, M.L. & Lengnick-Hall, C.A. 2003. HR's role in building relationship networks. *Academy of Management Executive*, 17: 53-63.

Lefkowitz, J. 2000. The role of interpersonal affective regard in supervisory performance ratings: A literature review and proposed causal model. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 73: 67-85.

Lennox, R.D., & Wolfe, R.N. 1984. Revision of the self-monitoring scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 46: 1349-1364.

LePine, J. A., A. Erez, & Johnson, D. E. 2002. The nature and dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior: A critical review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87: 52-65.

Liden, R.C., Wayne, S.J. & Sparrowe, R.T. 2000. An examination of the mediating role of psychological empowerement on the relations between the job, interpersonal relationships, and work outcomes. *Journal of Aplied Psychology,* 85: 407-416.

Longenecker, C.O. Sims, H.P. Jr., & Gioia, D.A. 1987. Behind the mask: The poliics of employee appraisal. *Academy of Management Executive*, 1: 183-193.

Lord, R.G., & Foti, R.J. 1986. Schema theories, information processing, and organizational behavior. In Sims, H.P., Gioia, D.A. and associates (Eds.), *The thinking organization.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Louis, M.R. 1980. Surprise and sense Making: What newcomers experience in entering unfamiliar organizational settings. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 25: 226-251.

MacKenzie, S., Podsakoff, P., & Fetter, R. 1991. Organizational citizenship behavior and objective productivity as determinants of managerial evaluations of salesperson's performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50: 123-150.

Markus, H.R. & Kitayama, S. 1991. Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review*, 98: 224-253.

Martin, J. 1992. *Cultures in organizations: Three perspectives*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Martin, J. & Siehl, C. (1983). Organizational culture and counterculture: An uneasy symbiosis. *Organizational Dynamics*, 12 (Autumn): 52-64.

Masterson, S.S., Lewis, K., Goldman, B.M., & Taylor, M.S. 2000. Integrating justice and social exchange: The differing effects of fair procedures and treatment on work relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43: 738-748.

McClintock, C. & Liebrand, W.B. 1988. Role of interdependence structure, individual value orientation, and another's strategy in decision-making: A transformational analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 55: 396-409.

Mehra, A., Kilduff, M., Brass, D.J. 2001. The social networks of high and low self-monitors: Implications for workplace performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46:121-146.

Milkovich, G.M. & Boudreau, J.W. 1997. *Human resource management* (8th edition). Chicago: Irwin.

Mischel, W. 1976. Towards a cognitive social model learning reconceptualization of personality. In N.S. Endler & D. Magnusson (Eds.), *Interactional Psychology and Personality*, pp. 166-207. New York: Wiley.

Morrison, E. 1994. Role definitions and organizational citizenship behavior: The importance of the employee's perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37: 1543-1557.

Morrison, E.W. & Phelps, C.C. 1999. Taking charge at work: Extrarole efforts to initiate workplace change. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42: 403-419.

Motowidlo, S.J. & Van Scotter, J.R. 1994. Evidence that task performance should be distinguished from contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79: 475-480.

Murphy, K.R. & Balzer, W.K. 1986. Systematic distortions in memory-based behavior ratings and performance evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71: 39-44.

Murphy, K.R. & Cleveland, J.N. 1990. Performance appraisal: An organizational perspective. Allyn and Bacon: Boston, MA.

Niehoff, B.P. & Moorman, R.H. 1993. Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36: 527-556.

Oldham, G.R.& Cummings, E. 1996. Employee creativity: Personal and contextual factors at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39: 607-634.

O'Reilly III, C.A., Chatman, J., & Caldwell, D. F. 1991. People and organizational culture: a profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34: 487-516.

Organ, D. W. 1988. *Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The good soldier syndrome.* Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Organ, D.W. 1997. Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time. *Human Performance*, 10: 85-97.

Organ, D.W., & Ryan, K. 1995. A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 48: 775- 802.

Ouchi, W.G. 1979. A conceptual framework for the design of organizational control mechanisms. *Management Science, 25: 833-848.*

Ouchi, W.G. 1981. *Theory Z.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Park. O.S., Sims, H.P. Jr., Motowidlo, S.J. 1986. Affect in organizations: How feelings and emotions influence managerial judgement. In H.P. Sims, Jr., D.A. Gioia, and Associates, *The thinking organization*: 215-237. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Parker, M. 2001. *Organizational culture and identity*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Parker, S. K. 1998. Enhancing role breadth self-efficacy: The roles of job enrichment and other organizational interventions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83: 835-852.

Parker, S. K. 2000. From passive to proactive motivation: The importance of flexible role orientations and role breadth self-efficacy. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 49:* 447-469.

Parker, C. P., Baltes, B. B., Young, S. A., Huff, J. W., Altmann, R. A., Lacost, H. A., Roberts, J. E. 2003. Relationships between psychological climate perceptions and work outcomes: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24: 389-416.

Payne, R. L. 1996. The characteristics of organizations. In P.B. Warr (Ed.), *Psychology at Work* (4th ed.). Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Peterson, M.F. & Smith, P.B. 2000. Sources of meaning, organizations, and culture: Making sense of organizational events. In N.M. Ashkanasy, C.P.M. Wilderom, M. F. Peterson (Eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Culture and Climate:* 101-115. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Podsakoff, P., Ahearne, M. & MacKenzie, S. 1997. Organizational citizenship behavior and the quantity and quality of work group performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82: 262-270.

Podsakoff, P. & MacKenzie, S. 1997. Impact of Organizational citizenship behavior on organizational performance: a review and suggestions for future research. *Human Performance*, 10: 133-151.

Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Moorman, R.H. & Fetter, R. 1990. Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in their leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly*,1: 107-142.

Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Paine, J.B., & Bachrach, D.G. 2000. Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, 3: 513-563.

Pollack, D.J. & Pollack, L.J. 1996. Using 360-degree feedback in performance appraisal. *Public Personnel Management*, 25: 507-528.

Quinn, R.E. & Rohrbaugh, J. 1983. A spatial model of effectiveness criteria: Towards a competing values approach to organizational analysis. *Management Science*, 3: 363-377.

Rentsch, J.R. 1990. Climate and culture: Interaction and qualitative differences in organizational meanings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75: 668-681.

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. 2002. Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87: 698-714.

Rousseau, D. 1990. Quantitative assessment of organizational culture: the case for multiple measures. In B. Schneider (Ed.), *Frontiers in industrial and organizational psychology*, vol.3: 153-192. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Saks, A. 1997. A longitudinal investigation of the relationships between job information sources, applicant perceptions of fit, and work outcomes. *Personnel Psychology*, 50: 395-425.

Salancik, G. & Pfeffer, J. 1978. A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 23: 224-253.

Schein, E. 1978. *Career dynamics: Matching individual and organizational needs.* Readin, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Schein, E. 1984. Coming to a new awareness of organizational culture. *Sloan Management Review*, Winter: 3-14.

Schein, E. 1985. *Organizational culture and leadership: A dynamic perspective*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schein, E. 1990. Organizational culture. *American Psychologist*, 45: 109-119.

Schneider, B., Salvaggio, A.N., & Subiratis, M. 2002. Climate strength: a new direction for climate research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(2): 220-229.

Scott, S.G. & Bruce, R.A. 1994. Determinants of innovative behavior: A path model of individual innovation in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37: 580-607.

Settoon, R. P., Bennett, N., & Liden, R. C. 1996. Social exchange in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81: 219-227.

Smith, C. A., Organ, D.W., & Near, J.P. 1983. Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68: 653-663.

Snyder, M. 1974. Self-monitoring of expressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 30*, 526-537.

Snyder, M. 1986. On the nature of self-monitoring: matters of assessment, matters of validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 125-139.

Snyder, M. 1987. *Public appearances, private realities.* New York: W. H. Freeman.

Strauss, A.L., & Corbin, J. 1990. *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques.* Sage Publications: Newbury Park.

Stryker, S. 2002. Traditional symbolic interactionism, role theory, and structural symbolic interactionism. In J.H. Turner (Ed.), *Handbook of Sociological Theory*: 211-231. New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers.

Swartz, M. & Jordon, D. 1980. *Culture: An anthropological perspective*. New York: John Wiley.

Tepper, B.J., Lockhart, D., & Hoobler, J. 2001. Justice, citizenship, and role definition effects. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 789-796.

Tesluk, P.E., Farr, J.L., Klein, S.R. 1997. Influences of organizational culture and climate on individual creativity. *Journal of Creative Behavior*, 31: 27-41.

Tesluk, P., Hofmann, D. & Quigley, N. 2002. Integrating the linkages between organizational culture and individual outcomes at work. In S. Sonnentag (Ed.) *Psychological Management of Individual Performance*: 442-469. John Wiley & Sons.

Thompson, M. & Wildavsky, A. 1986. A cultural theory of information bias in organizations. *Journal of Management Studies*, 23: 273-286.

Tierney, P. & Farmer, S. M. 2002. Creative self-efficacy: its potential antecedents and relationship to creative performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45: 1137-1148.

Tornow, W.W. 1993. Perceptions or reality: Is multi-perspective measurement a means to an end. *Human Resource Management*, 32: 221-229.

Trafimow, D., Triandis, H.C., & Goto, S.G. 1991. Some tests of the distinction between the private self and the collective self. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60: 649-655.

Triandis, H.C. 1989. The self and social behavior in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review*, 96: 506-520.

Turner, J.C. 1981. The experimental social psychology of intergroup behavior. In J.C. Turner & H. Giles (Eds.), *Intergroup behavior*: 66-101. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Turner, R.H. 2002. Role theory. In J.H. Turner (Ed.), *Handbook of Sociological Theory*: 233-253. New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers.

Turnley, W. & Bolino, M. 2001. Achieving desired images while avoiding undesired images: exploring the role of self-monitoring in impression management. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 351-360.

Van Dyne, L., Cummings, L. L., & Parks, J. M. 1995. Extra-role behaviors: In pursuit of constructs and definitional clarity (a bridge over muddied waters). *Research in Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 17: 215-185.

Van Dyne, L., Graham, J. W. & Dienesch, R. M. 1994. Organizational citizenship behavior: construct redefinition, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37: 765-802.

Van Dyne, L & LePine, J. (1998). Helping and extra-role behaviors: Evidence of construct and predictive validity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41: 108-119

Van Scotter, J. and Motowidlo, S. 1996. Interpersonal facilitation and job dedication as separate facets of contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81: 525-531.

Van Vianen, A.E.M. 2000. Person-organization fit: The match between newcomers' and recruiters' preferences for organizational cultures. *Personnel Psychology,* 53: 113-149.

Visser, P.S., Krosnick, J.A., & Lavrakas, P.J. 2000. Survey research. In H.R. Reis & C.M. Judd (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods in social and personality psychology*: 223-252. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

Watkins, S. 2003. Former Enron vice president Sherron Watkins on the Enron collapse *Academy of Management Executive*, 17: 119-125.

Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M. & Liden, R. C. 1997. Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: a social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management Journal,* 40: 82-111.

Weick, K. 1981. Enactment and organizing. In O. Grusky & G. A. Miller (Eds.), *The sociology of organizations* (2nd edition): 265-279. New York: The Free Press.

Weick, K.E. 1993. The collapse of sensemaking in organizations: The Mann Gulch disaster. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 38: 628-652.

Weick, K. 1995. *Sensemaking in organizations*. Sage Publications: Thousand Oaks.

West, S.G., Biesanz, J., & Pitts, S.C. 2000. Causal inference and generalization in field settings: Experimental and quasi-experimental designs. In H.R. Reis & C.M. Judd (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods in social and personality psychology*: 40-84. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

Welbourne, T.M., Johnson, D.E., and Erez, A. (1998). The role-based performance scale: Validity analysis of a theory-based measure. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41: 540-555.

Wiggins, J.S. 1991. Agency and communion as conceptual coordinates for the understanding and measurement of interpersonal behavior. In W.M. Grove and D. Cicchetti (Eds.), *Thinking Clearly About Psychology*: 89-113. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Williams, L.K. & Anderson, S.E. 1991. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 17: 601-617.

Woodman, R.W. Saywer, J. E. & Griffin, R. W. 1993. Toward a theory of organizational creativity. *Academy of Management Review*, 18: 293-321.

Zammuto, R.E., Gifford, B., & Goodman, E.A. 2000. Managerial ideologies, organization culture, and the outcomes of innovation: A competing values perspective. In N.M. Ashkanasy, C.P.M. Wilderom, M. F. Peterson (Eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Culture and Climate*: 261-278. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Zellars, K.J. & Tepper, B.J. 2003. Beyond social exchange: New directions for organizational citizenship behavior theory and research. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, Vol. 22: 395-424.