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Organizational culture and performance:
The moderated mediation role of employee engagement and supervisor humor

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Abstract

Although all public and private organizations, business owners and leaders around the globe constantly try to improve their organization's performance, still many organizations and industries face a decline in their performance. Achieving target performance is not an easy task and organizations still struggle with this goal, as there are many factors involved. Human capital is one of the most important factors in the productivity of organizations. Employee performance is essentially the financial or nonfinancial outcome of employees, and it is directly associated with the performance and achievements of an organization. These are the people who spin the wheels of industries. But what makes employees to be more engaged and perform better? Keeping the employees motivated in this challenging environment is a big burden on department leaders and the organization as a whole.

Pervious scholars have identified the deficiencies in healthcare services. Although improving performance in the healthcare system is a universal attempt, none of the tools currently in use for improving performance in public health services is flawless.

Strategy, structure, leadership and organizational culture are known to be antecedents of performance. However, there is a lack of research that examines a comprehensive model encompassing all these variables and their influence on employee performance. As such, the current study proposes to investigate several options for improving employee performance. This study intends to use the competing value framework (CVF) of corporate culture . It is a complete framework that considers strategy, structure, and leadership. It also relates culture to performance.

One essential approach to developing performance management practices is to focus on promoting employee engagement as a driver of performance enhancement. Engaged employees typically perform better than others in the workplace. In general, affective and motivational constructs (job engagement, job involvement, job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation, and affective commitment) are shown to have an influence on employee performance and citizenship behavior.

A key element of organizational life is relationships. The interaction with the supervisors is vital for the employees in order to gain access to personal and social resources. It is likely that employees who have better interactions with their managers, show a higher level of commitment to the organization, which leads to improved performance and productivity. Therefore, this study intends to propose humor as a managerial tool that may improve relationships and communication between employees and managers. This in turn, would motivate employees to be more engaged and perform better.

Thus, the purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between organizational culture and in-role and extra-role performance of employees through the mediating role of engagement. It also aims to show how supervisor humor might impact this relationship as a moderator.

The major findings of this study indicate that 1) All types of organizational culture (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy) have correlation with employee engagement 2) Clan and adhocracy cultures have stronger relationships with employee engagement than the other two culture types 3) The different types of organizational culture have correlation with some components of in-role and extra-role performance 4) Employee engagement strongly mediates the relationship between organizational culture and in-role and extra-role performance 5) Supervisor humor moderates the relationship between organizational culture and engagement and also between organizational culture and in-role and extra-role performance.

The purpose of this study is to find out what kind of culture is dominant in public organizations, and how we can improve the engagement and performance of employees in different kinds of culture. Motivational drivers like fun and humor in the workplace have been taken for granted, despite the fact that humor is known as a managerial tool (Axtell Ray 1986), which can smooth communications, especially between leaders (supervisors) and employees. The quality of communication has strong correlation with team performance (Marlow et al. 2017). Therefore, we hypothesized that humor can act as a moderator between corporate culture and engagement and also between corporate culture and in-role and extra-role performance of employees. A comprehensive literature review was conducted as a background to form the hypotheses in this thesis.

We have expanded our hypotheses to the related literature in order to examine the relationships between our variables. After gathering N=316 usable questionnaires from public hospitals in Palermo, Italy, we managed to answer the research questions of the thesis. The results of our thesis confirmed the role of humor as a moderator for the engagement and performance of employees in different corporate cultures. The data analysis revealed that the association between corporate culture and engagement will increase if more of humorous communication exists between the supervisor and the supervisee, which proved the role of positive humor in the engagement and productivity of employees. Besides, it confirms that engagement mediates the association between the different elements of corporate culture and in-role and extra-role performance of employees.

These types of studies will help strategic managers to predict the trade-offs involved in selecting a dominant type of culture and its influence on employee engagement and performance.

By investigating the relationship between corporate culture and performance and the moderated mediation role of supervisor humor and engagement, this study illustrates how a managerial tool like humor can be used to improve the supervisor-supervisee relationship and thus create an environment that encourages higher engagement and consequently improved performance and organizational citizenship behavior of employees.

Declaration

I, Hooman Shahidi, hereby declare that this PhD thesis entitled "**Organizational culture and performance: The moderated mediation role of engagement and supervisor humor"** has been composed solely by myself and that it has not been submitted, in whole or in part, in any previous application for a degree. Except where stated otherwise, by reference or acknowledgment, the work presented is entirely my own.

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CHAPTER I

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Business owners and leaders around the globe, irrespective of the industry or the size of the organization, are constantly striving to improve productivity and organizational performance. However, the attainment of this objective remains elusive due to several factors that contribute to poor performance. These factors include problems in jobs, strategies, structure, culture, human capital, leadership, management communication, etc.

In this introductory chapter, the rationale of this study is justified, and a summary of the thesis is provided. The chapter begins with a discussion of the background of the study, followed by the problem statement. Next, it reviews the related variables and gaps in the literature. Research purpose, objectives, and questions are further discussed, and key terms and definitions are explained. Finally, the contributions, scope, and limitations of the study are described.

1.2 RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Employee performance is essentially the financial or non-financial outcome of employees, and it is directly associated with the performance and attainment of an organization (Anitha, 2014). Rotundo & Sackett (2002) described employee performance as the activity of individuals that goes towards the goals of the organization.

Organizations that comprehend the effect of their employees' performance are better equipped to supervise them in producing outcomes that lead to the company's profitability (Gabčanová, 2011). Many notable industrial surveys have illustrated the need to improve employee performance (Arpaci, 2017; Hashemi & Kohestani, 2016;

Tsai, 2016). There is strong evidence that employee performance leads to enhanced organizational performance (Thanyawatpornkul, Siengthai, & Johri, 2016).

In people-oriented industries, employee performance is crucial for both the financial well-being and reputation of an organization (Kundu, 2015). For instance, in 2010, BusinessWeek reported that TOYOTA lost $30 billion in stock value, almost $155 million per week, as a result of a recall due to acceleration failures in their cars. There were also some fatal accidents that resulted from this fault. As it turned out, employees and managers knew about these mechanical failures beforehand and they had taken critical steps to hide the details and scope of the problem. This resulted because TOYOTA excessively rewarded managers and employees for being cost-efficient, with no regard for product quality (Sullivan, 2010). In this case, the impact of strategic human resource management policies caused employees to focus primarily on cost-efficiency, at the expense of product quality.

Similarly in the healthcare industry recent studies have focused on improving employee performance and enhancing customer services. Improving healthcare system performance like other kinds of service businesses is a complicated undertaking. The main source of this complexity is the high interaction between different variables, internally and externally (Hijazi et al. 2019). Challenges like dividing healthcare tasks, heavy workload, night shifts, stress etc. are the main reasons for decreased performance level among healthcare employees like practitioners and nurses, which in turn might cause a decline in care quality and an increase in the rate of medical errors (Demb et al., 2009).

Keeping the employees motivated in this challenging environment is a big burden on department leaders and the organization as a whole (Suleiman and Sabri 2009). Performance as a phenomenon in the healthcare industry depends on knowledge management and quality, on the one hand, and financing and organizational development on the other hand. Pervious scholars have identified the deficiencies in healthcare services. Although improving performance in the healthcare system is a universal

attempt, however none of the tools currently in use for improving performance in public health services is flawless (Glickman et al. 2007). Miller Franco et al. (2002) stated that the healthcare system is highly labor intensive. The performance level in healthcare depends on employee motivation. Organizations impact employee motivation in different ways, for instance, through improving the employee's capabilities, providing recourses, proper feedback about their performance, and work culture.

Earlier studies have worked with different kinds of performance appraisal in the healthcare system. Some of the objectives of these assessments are: identifying employees' skills, motivating them for higher achievement, enhancing communication between supervisor and supervisee, promoting better relationship among staff, detecting the need for training and development, recognizing competent employees for a raise or other incentives, etc. There is however still a need to find new ways for performance appraisal toward having more motivated employees and achieving better performance results in healthcare. As Nikpeyma et al. (2014) stated, some of the problems of performance appraisal system are related to organizational setting, structure, process and the result of the performance appraisal system.

Previous studies have investigated the antecedents of performance at both individual and organizational levels. At the organizational level, a group of studies focused on strategies and their relationship to performance. For example, Snow & Hrebiniak (1980) illustrated the relationship between each of four strategy types (defender, prospector, analyzer, and reactor) and organizational performance. The relationship between strategy, structure, and performance was studied by Jennings & Seaman (1994). They concluded that organizations with particular levels of adaptation tend to have a specific strategy-structure "fit" that yield certain performance results. The impact of strategic human resource management policies on firm performance was also examined. It was concluded that investment in HRM results in lower employee turnover, enhances productivity, and improves corporate financial performance (Huselid, 1995). In line with this study, another research showed that human capital moderates the

relationship between strategy and firm performance, thus supporting a resource-strategy contingency fit (Hitt et al., 2001).

Besides strategy, the effects of company structure on performance have also been studied. Nahm et al. (2003) argued that various structural dimensions (i.e. number of layers in the hierarchy, level of horizontal integration, focus of decision-making, nature of formalization, time-based manufacturing practices, and level of communication) would influence a plant's performance. Another study surveyed the effectiveness of the formal structure of the organization and concluded that organic structures are more effective than mechanistic structures (Sine et al., 2006). Organizational structure also affects team performance (Foster & Washington, 2009).

In leadership literature, numerous researches have confirmed the influence of leadership style on performance. For instance, the employee-manager relationship and the leadership style of managers have a major impact on employee performance (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). The impact of transformational leadership on innovation in a performance-oriented culture was evident as well (Sarros, Cooper, & Santora, 2008). Furthermore, a meta-analysis by R. Martin et al. (2016) indicated that leader-member exchange and work performance (task, citizenship, and counterproductive performance) are correlated. The influence that relationships with superiors have on performance is evident in many studies, especially at the individual level. Other studies have shown that perceived organizational support (POS), can positively influence employee performance by reducing stressors (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008).

There is strong evidence to support the association of organizational culture with performance (Denison, 1984; E. G. Flamholtz et al., 2012; Jacobs et al., 2013; S. Kim et al., 2004; S. Saffold, 1988; Shahzad et al., 2017). For example, culture and its influence on performance were examined by S. Kim et al. (2004). The relationship between team culture and organizational performance was also investigated in English acute hospitals (Jacobs et al., 2013). Jacobs et al. (2013) used a competitive value framework (CVF) to confirm the influence of four types of culture on team performance. Valmohammadi &

Roshanzamir (2015) investigated the mediating role of Total Quality Management (TQM) between organizational culture (CVF) and performance. In the study by E. G. Flamholtz et al. (2012), it was stated that corporate culture is a strategic asset. If utilized properly, it can be the key for business success. In another study, the impact of organizational culture on market orientation and organizational performance was confirmed (Jogaratnam, 2017).

Corporate culture received much consideration due to its impact and potential effects on organizational achievement (Rashid, Sambasivan, & Johari, 2003). A helpful, dynamic, and persistent culture is the basis of productivity (Chen, 2010; Flanagan, 2010). Creating the appropriate culture fulfills a few critical needs. First, it passes on a feeling of character to organizational members. Second, it inspires employee commitment (Nelson, 2011). Third, it enhances the stability of an organization. Fourth, it fills in as a sense-making tool that can guide and shape employee behavior in an organization (Oyemomi et al., 2016).

Despite a lot of evidence confirming the association of culture with performance, the question remains: Which variables influence the relationship between culture and performance and in what type of culture employees perform better? The studies summarized earlier involved strategy, structure, leadership, and culture. They illustrated their influence on organizational and individual performance separately. There is lack of research that examines a comprehensive model encompassing all these variables and their influence on employee performance.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Despite the myriad of studies on improving performance, achieving target performance is not an easy task and organizations still struggle with this goal as there are many factors involved. The variables that were introduced in the literature are not conclusive and one solution cannot fit all. There is a need to determine a more comprehensive framework and to examine factors that could contribute to performance.

The previous section illustrated how organization strategy, structure, and leadership can influence employee performance. However, there is a lack of studies that consider all these variables. As such, this study proposes to investigate several options for improving employee performance. This study intends to use the competing value framework (CVF) of corporate culture by K.S. Cameron & Quinn (2005). It is a complete framework that considers strategy, structure, and leadership. It also relates culture to performance.

The CVF model is widely used in previous studies and is based on two dimensions: structure and focus. The focus dimension compares internal and external environments. The structure dimension compares "flexibility and discretion" to "control and stability". These dimensions create four quadrants, each of which represents one component of organizational culture. These dimensions emphasize distinctive viewpoints in creating value for organizations. Four core culture types (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market) are arranged in vertical and horizontal axes. These illustrate the integration of strategies, competencies, and viewpoints of leaders to induce value.

- In the clan quadrant, value-creating activity is characterized as collaborative. Leadership styles/roles are the facilitators, mentors, and team builders. Quality strategies are empowerment, teambuilding, employee involvement, human resource development, and open communication.
- In the adhocracy quadrant, value-creating activity is characterized as creative. Leadership styles are innovator and entrepreneur visions. Quality strategies are surprise and delight, creating new standards, anticipating needs, continuous improvement, and discovering creative solutions.
- In the hierarchy quadrant, value-creating activity is characterized as control. Leadership styles are coordinator, monitor, and organizer. Quality strategies are error detection, measurement, process control, systematic problem solving, and quality tools.

- Finally, in the market quadrant, value-creating activity is characterized as competitive. Leadership styles are hard driver, competitor, and producer. Quality strategies are measuring customer preferences, improving productivity, creating external partnerships, enhancing competitiveness, and involving customers and suppliers.

This study investigates the influence of these four core culture types (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market) in the CVF model on employee in-role and extra-role performance. This study will also utilize motivational variables like supervisor humor and employee engagement to investigate how organizations can improve their performance in different cultures.

With regards to engagement, there are several reasons for why culture and engagement are associated. It is evident that proper implementation of culture can promote loyalty, enthusiasm, conscientiousness, and dedication to the organization (Axtell Ray, 1986). Which overlaps with the definition of Schaufeli et al., (2002) who characterized engagement as "vigor, dedication, and absorption". Corporate culture has also been considered as a control management tool in organizations (Axtell Ray, 1986). Job control is a major driver of all components of work engagement, that is, vigor, dedication, and absorption (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Macey et al. (2009) stated that organizational culture can lead to work engagement in two ways: (1) by releasing and creating employee energy through the way employees are treated; and (2) by linking that energy towards competitive advantage through emphasizing strategic organizational objectives. Reis et al. (2016) study also confirmed the correlation between corporate culture and engagement.

One essential approach to developing performance management practices is to focus on promoting employee engagement as a driver of performance enhancement (Gruman & Saks, 2011). Anitha (2014) stated that an essential way to improve employee performance is through emphasis on nurturing employee engagement. Previous research has suggested that engaged employees typically perform better than others in the

workplace (Fleck & Inceoglu, 2010; May et al., 2004; Saks, 2006; Shuck & Reio, 2011). In general, affective and motivational constructs (job engagement, job involvement, job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation, and affective commitment) are shown to have an influence on employee performance and citizenship behavior (Van Geldren & W. Bik, 2016; Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010). According to the Gallup survey, engaging staff with organizational goals is a key to business success. Staff members are often more engaged with their work if they are enthusiastic about the job. This allows them to perform at their best and reinforces their commitment. Engagement itself is a predictor of performance (Fleck & Inceoglu, 2010; May et al., 2004; Saks, 2006; Shuck & Reio, 2011). Therefore, it can be concluded that engagement might have a mediating role between corporate culture and performance.

With respect to the use of humor, it is necessary to understand the importance of communication in the workplace. A key element of organizational life is relationships (Allen & Eby, 2012). Since supervisors have control over the resources needed by employees (Pundt & Herrmann, 2014), the interaction of employees with their supervisors is vital for them to gain access to personal and social resources (Robert & Wilbanks, 2012). It is likely that employees who have better interactions with their managers, show a higher level of commitment to the organization. This leads to improved performance and productivity (Neves & Eisenberger, 2012).

Today, managers in every organization are concerned about the way they interact with employees because they realize that good relationships lead to better performance (Hashemi & Kohestani, 2016). Kacmar et al. (2003) examined the role of communication frequency as the moderator between leader-member exchange (LMX) and performance. They revealed that LMX and job-performance are strongly correlated, and the relationship between leaders and subordinates improves when they communicate frequently. Another study suggests that management communication is correlated with change in perceived organizational support (POS) as well as in-role and extra-role performance. The mediating role is carried out by the POS variable (Neves & Eisenberger, 2012). In a later study, different types of communication were distinguished

and it was proposed that the quality of communication has greater correlation with team performance than communication frequency (Marlow et al., 2017). Cai et al. (2018) examined the role of formal and informal employee relationships on performance. Convincing evidence was found illustrating that effective communication management such as performance feedback, openness, accuracy, and appropriateness of given information about company policies and practices is associated with better employee performance (Kacmar et al., 2003; Marlow et al., 2017; Neves & Eisenberger, 2012). Therefore, communication between supervisors and employees is a vital factor affecting employee performance. However, there is a need to determine what managers could do to improve communication in different cultural settings and to clarify which culture type improves motivation in employees.

Since some categories in organizational culture (hierarchy and market) are known to be control-oriented and strict, it is difficult to make significant changes in these corporate cultures and such efforts typically encounter resistance (Hrebiniak, 2006). There might be less communication between supervisors and employees in such settings. This study intends to propose humor as a managerial tool that may improve relationships and communication between employees and managers. This, in turn, would motivate employees to be more engaged and perform better.

One of the topics in the culture literature is implementing a "culture of fun" in the workplace. Fun is one of the factors that younger employees seek in potential jobs (Belkin, 2007). Employing fun in the workplace has some positive effects. For instance, it has been revealed that fun and organizational citizenship behavior (extra-role performance) are directly and positively correlated. They are also positively but not directly correlated to task performance and creative performance. Moreover, employees who have fun in the workplace are more likely to have a higher degree of engagement and, consequently, better creative performance (Fluegge-woolf, 2014). Humor, a different but related concept, is often included when discussing fun in the workplace. Because of the similarity between these two constructs, they are often used interchangeably in work

settings (Euchler & Kenny, 2006; Newstrom, 2002). However, fun and humor are conceptually distinct, as was discussed in a study by Cooper (2003).

Humor is known as one of the most significant components of organizational culture (EJ Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). There is both empirical (Avolio, Howell, & Sosik, 1999) and circumstantial evidence confirming that humor is correlated with enhancing performance in the workplace. This is due to the role of humor in making interactions and knowledge-sharing smoother. Many researchers believe that humor can be an effective managerial tool (Cooper, 2005; Duncan, 1982; Hatzithomas, Zotos, & Boutsouki, 2011; Holmes, 2007; Huo, Lam, & Chen, 2012; Hurren, 2006; Mathies & Chiew, 2016; E. J. Romero & Cruthirds, 2006; E. Romero & Pescosolido, 2008). Several researchers have suggested that the proper use of humor would have a moderating effect (Avolio, Howell, & Sosik, 1999). Martin et al. (2003) divided the different kinds of humor into four categories: affiliative humor, self-enhancing humor, self-defeating humor, and aggressive humor. The first two are considered to be positive forms of humor while the second two are considered negative. Some scholars call this adaptive or maladaptive humor (Cann & Matson, 2014).

Our study tested the moderating role of humor on the relationship between corporate culture and performance. It also studied the moderating role of humor on the relationship between corporate culture and engagement. In order to investigate these problems, this study analyzed data from public hospitals in Palermo, Italy. A high level of employee performance is critical for quality patient care and potential shortcomings can be life-threatening. Stress level is high in hospitals and this influences employee performance (Abualrub, 2004). Moreover hospitals, as business entities, should move toward accomplishing economic goals (Acar & Pınar, 2014). Nowadays, healthcare providers around the world face several challenges such as increased competition for survival, pressure to reduce costs, service demands driven by consumer preferences, and broad public enquiries. Successful management is critical to ensure customer retention and increased organizational profitability (Bellou, 2008).

Our study used the conservation of resources theory (COR) by Hobfoll (1989), which can adequately interpret the relationship between the variables used in the study. This is a theory about ways to reduce stress, based on the motivating employees and to conserve resources by building better relationships with their supervisors. This will allow employees to find new resources in the context of different organizational culture types, which will in turn lead to improved performance.

1.4 PURPOSE OF STUDY

The purpose of this study is to illustrate the association between organizational culture and the in-role/extra-role performance of employees through the mediating role of engagement. It also aims to show how supervisor humor might impact this relationship as a moderator.

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1) To diagnose the dominant corporate culture (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market) in the selected public hospitals;

2) To illustrate the correlation of different categories of corporate culture with in-role and extra-role performance, and to determine which culture has a stronger relationship with employee performance;

3) To illustrate the mediating role of engagement between each category of corporate culture and in-role/extra-role performance;

4) To determine if supervisor humor has a moderating role in making employees more engaged, leading to better performance in different corporate cultures;

5) To investigate the moderated mediation role of supervisor humor and engagement in the relationship between different types of corporate culture and in-role/extra-role performance.

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1) What is the dominant culture in selected public organizations?

2) What is the relationship between the different categories of corporate culture (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market) and employee in-role and/or extra-role performance?

3) Does engagement mediate the relationship between corporate culture and in-role and/or extra-role performance?

4) Does supervisor humor moderate the relationship between various categories of corporate culture and in-role and/or extra-role performance?

5) Does the moderated mediation role of supervisor humor and engagement influence the correlation between corporate culture and performance?

1.7 CONCEPTUAL DEFINITION OF THE STUDY

The conceptual definitions of the five variables of the study are elaborated in this section. They include corporate (organizational) culture, humor, work engagement, in-role performance, and extra-role performance.

1.7.1 Organizational Culture

In organizations, culture is described as a mixture of beliefs, ideologies, languages, myths, habits, and legends (Pettigrew, 1979). More concisely, "It's the way we do things around here" (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Fleming, 2005). Likewise, according to Deshpande & Webster (1989), corporate culture is defined as the common beliefs and value patterns that help people understand an organization's mechanisms, therefore providing them with the behavioral norms of the organization. Corporate culture is related to the individual's behavior and the interactions between employees in the organization (Schein, 1983).

Cameron & Freeman (1991) noted that "because cultures are defined by the values, assumptions, and interpretations of organization members, and because a common set of dimensions organizes these factors on both psychological and organizational levels, a model of culture types can be derived." The four kinds of corporate culture introduced by Cameron & Freeman (1991) were adhocracy, hierarchy, market, and clan. In this framework, "the shared beliefs pertain to dominant organizational attributes, leadership styles, organizational bonding mechanisms, and overall strategic emphases" (Deshpandé et al., 1993). As previously mentioned, strategy, leadership, structure, and culture are all mentioned in this competing value framework.

1.7.2 Humor

Humor is defined as "any communicative instance which is perceived as "humorous" (Lehmann-willenbrock & Allen, 2014). Similarly, Cooper (2005) defined humor as "any event shared by an agent (e.g. an employee) with another individual (i.e. a target) that is intended to be amusing to the target and that the target perceives as an intentional act." This definition implies that humor is successful, in terms of being perceived as amusing rather than offensive (Malone, 1980; Meyer, 2000). Successful humor can be verbal or non-verbal interactions that create a "positive cognitive or affective response from listeners" (Crawford, 1994).

Martin et al. (2003) divided the different types of humor into four categories, as highlighted below. In their study, they referred to past clinical research that categorized humor as either adaptive or maladaptive. The first two types, affiliative and self-enhancing humor, were considered to be adaptive or positive types of humor. The second two, aggressive and self-defeating humor, were considered maladaptive or negative types of humor.

1.7.3 Work Engagement

Work engagement is a positive, rewarding, and work-related disposition. It comprises the three elements of vigor, dedication, and absorption. Vigor represents a high level of energy, mental flexibility at work, eagerness to place an effort, and determination even in difficult situations. Dedication refers to being recognized as important and valuable at work. It also refers to passion, enthusiasm, motivation, and a willingness to take on challenges. The third dimension is absorption, which means the employee is fully concentrated on the job and is absorbed in it (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

1.7.4 In-role & Extra-role Performance

In-role performance refers to tasks assigned to employees and rewarded by the company. Extra-role performance refers to roles beyond the company's expectations (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008).

Several types of extra-role performances have been introduced, including prosocial, spontaneous, and contextual behaviors. However, the type of extra-role performance most widely used and gathering the most attention in the literature is organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) by Organ (1988, 1990). Organ (1988), described OCB as discretionary work by individuals in the organization which is not directly or clearly defined in the reward system and generally leads to better

organizational performance (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998; Sosik, Juzbasich, & Chun, 2011).

1.8 CONTRIBIUTION OF THE STUDY

This study is useful because it investigates the relationship between corporate culture and performance, along with the moderated mediation effect of humor and engagement in this relationship. This study illustrates how managers can use managerial tools like humor to improve the relationship between supervisors and employees, consequently allowing employees to be more engaged in their jobs and improving their performance and organizational citizenship behavior.

At the outset, humor in organizations was underrated; this study sheds light on this variable as a useful managerial tool. It illustrates the effect of humor on the relationship between organizational culture, engagement, and performance. Furthermore, this study suggests that the relationship between corporate culture and performance might be affected by the moderated mediation role of supervisor humor and engagement.

This study was conducted in public hospitals, and it was noted that stress levels in the clinical environment are high. "Gallows" or dark humor is common in hospitals because healthcare employees constantly encounter critical situations (Dean & Major, 2008). As such, the role of humor is important and not something unusual in healthcare environments.

Despite this, the correlation between corporate culture and engagement still needs to be investigated in different industries, especially in public sectors. As mentioned before, the engagement of employees is essential for many organizations, therefore, by distinguishing different categories of organizational culture and their association with engagement, this study contributes to the management and organizational behavior literature. It could further help managers choose an appropriate culture in line with their strategy and objectives.

The present study contributes to the literature in five ways**:**

First, to understand and apply appropriate organizational culture in public organizations, it is beneficial to know which types of culture encourage employee engagement and better in-role/extra-role performance. This study compared the consequences of the specific dominant culture in relation to the objective of the organization. However, one solution doesn't fit all. Sometimes managers inevitably follow trends in their industries without noticing other variables (Mason, 2007).

Second, corporate culture has been immensely studied in the literature and there are different categorizations, some of which are widely used. For instance, Cameron & Freeman (1991) and Deshpandé et al. (1993) introduced "a model of cultural congruence for organizations", or a competing value framework (CVF). It was derived from the Jungian model and classified culture into four types (adhocracy, hierarchy, market and clan), as was used in this study. This model investigates the congruence between different cultures towards organizational strength and effectiveness. Deshpandé & Farley (2004) examined the CVF of organizational culture and focused on the ways organizational culture, market orientation, and innovativeness can influence the performance of organizations competing in business-to-business markets. The association between CVF and firm performance in public acute hospitals was also assessed by Jacobs et al. (2013). Our study investigated the relationship between CVF and employee in-role/extra-role performance with the mediating role of engagement. It is important to know which types of organizational culture can influence employee performance through employee engagement. Investigating the culture in public hospitals using this framework is scarce in the literature and can open new horizons for strategic managers in the public sector.

Third, the lack of engagement, or the "engagement gap", in organizations is one of the biggest concerns for organizations around the world (M. Saks, 2006; Yasin et al., 2013). This study can fill this gap by introducing solutions for managers to have more engaged employees.

The fourth group of workplace issues investigated in this study, were those of communication between leaders and subordinates. In such instances, humor in the workplace may be a positive force (Holmes, 2007). Sometimes, because of power distance, corporate culture, and/or background culture, communication and interaction between supervisors and subordinates become problematic. Humor can act as a lubricant for such relationships (Hughes & Avey, 2009; Mesmer-Magnus, Glew, & Viswesvaran, 2012).

Finally, this study was conducted in public hospitals. Hospital employees, especially clinical staff, are frequently under severe emotional stress and pressure. The aim of this study is to introduce a new tool that allows supervisors to relieve their subordinates in stressful situations, even though *gallows humor* (humor that makes fun of a life-threatening, disastrous, or terrifying situations; as defined by the Merriam-Webster Dictionary) is already common in many clinical centers. The role of humor as a managerial tool has been neglected, yet it has potential for use (Dean & Major, 2008).

1.9 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study, like others, had some limitations. The first limitation was that it examined positive or adaptive kinds of humor, but negative or maladaptive types of humor were not conclusively explored. The initial justification was that by exploring all styles of humor, a much longer questionnaire would have been needed and this may not have been appropriate for respondents. Self-completion questionnaires are generally recommended to be short (Meadows, 2003). Long questionnaires may cause respondents to answer superficially.

Secondly, since the destructive consequences of negative humor were already established in the literature and the initial intention of this study was to enhance engagement and productivity, negative humor types would have contradicted the research objectives.

A further limitation is the effect of the background culture of the employee on this research construct. It is claimed that the local organizational culture plays a less significant role in employee performance than their background culture (Wilkins & Ouchi 1983). In addition in the same study certain characteristics of the local organizational culture were found to be more significant than others, when it comes to organizational performance and it was also noted that the local organizational culture has a more vital impact on performance in a select group of organizations as compared to others (Hofstede, 1985; Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983). Similarly, Schneider (1987) mentioned how the local organizational culture may be contradictory to the national or international culture of an organization. Considering this, he stated that these two perspectives on the concept of culture should be analyzed separately.

1.10 CONCLUSION AND OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

This chapter began with the introduction and background of the study to illustrate the reasons for the significance of conducting such research. It then proceeded to explain the research problems, questions, and objectives along with how this study contributes to this research area through filling several gaps in the literature. The definitions of certain variables were also concisely explained.

In the next chapter, a review of the literature on each variable is conducted. Hypotheses built using theories and existing evidence in the literature are introduced along with the theories applied for the rational discussion. Chapter 3 discusses the methodology highlighting data collection methods, sampling techniques, population of study, and survey questions used.

CHAPTER II

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 as the introductory chapter to this thesis presented the background of the study, identified the Problem Statement and then formulated the Research Questions and the Research Objectives. It also presented the Scope and Significance of the Study. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the reason for embarking on this study was to investigate how the four components of organizational culture (clan, market, adhocracy and hierarchy) are related to the "in-role" and "extra-role" performance of employees as well as the manner in which engagement plays its role as a mediator. This study further endeavors to examine the role that supervisor humor plays as the moderator in this relationship. This chapter offers a broad overview of previous research on organizational culture, supervisor humor, engagement and in-role and extra-role performance and their relationships.

This chapter begins by introducing the variables and their definitions, then, compares and discusses different components of the variables, based on creditable resources and earlier studies in this area. Then it will determine, describe and discuss the gap in the literature as well as the shortcomings in previous related research. The theoretical relationship between variables will be discussed using appropriately related theories. Some relationships may already be established in the literature; nevertheless, this chapter will focus on the rationale for revisiting the umbrella topic of organizational culture (OC) to investigate the various interrelated relationships in a different context viewed through a different colored lens. Subsequently, the hypotheses will be formulated, and the conceptual framework of the study will be constructed. Related theories and their relevance in contributing to the interpretation and exposition of the study will be appropriately contextualized.

2.2 REVIEW OF FUNDAMNETAL RESEARCH STREAMS

Employee performance is the main factor in competitive advantage for all organizations and businesses. Employees are the most essential assets of an organization on the basis of Resource Based Theory (RBT) (Gabčanová 2011). It is a resource that business rivals cannot replicate and is thus regarded as a precious asset. There are many internal and external factors that influence employee performance. Previous studies have taken different approaches to the methods of improving performance in the workplace. For instance, the effect of strategy, structure, leadership style, culture, perceived organizational support, etc… were studied (i.e. Foster & Washington 2009; Hitt et al., 2001; Robin Martin et al., 2016). However, despite the myriad of studies on improving performance, achieving target performance is not an easy task and organizations still struggle with this goal, as there are many factors associated with performance. The variables that were introduced in previous studies were not conclusive and one solution cannot fit all. There is a need to determine more comprehensive frameworks and to examine factors that could contribute to performance. Therefore, this study investigates the competing value framework of Cameron and Quinn (2005), which is a comprehensive model based on effectiveness in organizations and divides corporate culture into four categories (clan, adhocracy, market and, hierarchy).

Corporate culture (CC) has received much attention because of its potential impact on organizational achievement (Rashid, Sambasivan, & Johari 2003). A helpful, dynamic and persisting culture is accepted to be a basis of productivity (Chen, 2010; Flanagan, 2010). Culture has an essential role in every business entity. The most important challenge for every business manager, owner and policymaker is to establish the most effective culture for their organization. As such, to know how managers can use and enhance this managerial tool to improve performance is the concern of this study.

To address the above-mentioned issue, this study investigates supervisor humor as a managerial tool to moderate the relationship of corporate culture and employee achievement. This study examines the application of humor in organizations in order to

know the extent to which it could influence employee engagement and consequently performance in different corporate cultural settings.

Humor in organizations has been taken for granted despite the evidence in management and human resource literature about its role in workplaces (Robert & Wilbanks 2012).

This study was conducted in public hospitals in Palermo, Italy and attempted to suggest solutions for policymakers to enhance the effectiveness of employee work outcomes in these kinds of organizations. This is particularly true in the healthcare environment, where usually, the stress level is high, and the heavy workload of the employees may have a negative impact on their engagement and performance.

What follows is an overview of the study variables, in order to clarify the discussion of this thesis.

2.3 OVERVIEW OF STUDY VARIABLES

2.3.1 Corporate Culture review

Culture can be defined as "a mixture of beliefs, ideologies, languages, myths, habits, and legends" (Pettigrew 1979). More concisely, it is "the way we do things around here" (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). One of the debates surrounding the topic of corporate culture is, "whether culture is something an organization has, or whether culture is something that an organization is" (Axtell Ray, 1986; Smircich, 1983). In other words, "is culture a variable or a metaphor"(Axtell Ray 1986)? In fact, Axtell Ray (1986) introduced culture as a potential control variable and management tool. Actually, the important attribute that has distinguished culture from other forms of management control strategies is that it can control beyond the standard control systems because it is derived from people's beliefs, attitudes, values, and expression of opinions (Pfeffer, 1981). Therefore, it contains emotions and affections, which may not be rational yet influential. According to

Deshpande and Webster (1989), corporate culture is defined as common belief and value patterns, which help people to understand the organization's mechanisms, and therefore provide them with the behavioral norms in the organization. Corporate culture is related to individual behaviors and interactions between employees in the organization (Schein, 1983). A wide range of studies have been performed on organization culture, with some focusing on the values and beliefs of the organization, which are the core of corporate vision, organizational mission and goals (Baker 2002; S.Saffold 1988), and others concentrating more on the behaviors and experiences of the people who work in organizations, for instance, managers and employees, social customs, meeting places, interactions in groups and teamwork (Sharifirad & Ataei 2012; Taormina 2009). It can be concluded that corporate culture can be both a variable and a metaphor, and that depends on how the company utilizes it. In this study, both perspectives are considered, that is, the study looks at corporate culture both as the ensemble of behavioral norms and also as an organizational control mechanism.

The table (2-1) below shows the different definitions of culture:

Diverse definitions of culture

Topical	Culture consists of everything on a list of topics, or categories, such as Social organization, religion, and economy.
Historical	Culture is a social heritage, or tradition, that is passed on to future generations.
Behavioral	Culture is shared, learned human behavior; a way of life.
Normative	Culture is ideals, values, or rules for living.
Mental	Culture is a complex of ideas, or learned habits, that inhibit impulses and distinguish people from animals.
Functional	Culture is the way humans solve problems of adapting to the environment or living together.
Structural	Culture consists of patterned and interrelated ideas, symbols, or behaviors.
Symbolic	Culture is based on arbitrarily assigned meanings that are shared by a society.

Source: Bodley, 1994.

Table 2-1 Diverse definitions of culture

Serious consideration of the notion of organizational culture (OC) was first noted in the early 1980s (K.S. Cameron & Quinn 2005). Characterizing it as an instrument for

harmonizing organizational relationships ought to be accredited to Peters, and Waterman (1982) and Ouchi (1980, 1981).   Ouchi (1980) maintains that corporate culture is an essential tool to harmonize workplace relationships, in a way that common values and beliefs lead to creating harmony and alignment between the interests of employees, which will prevent opportunistic behaviors. Likewise, Ogbor (2001) states that "corporate culture needs to manage ambiguity and paradox."

2.3.2 Corporate culture in the healthcare industry

Health organizations are social units made up of people who pursue common goals, values and beliefs, which translate into one or more types of culture. The theory and implications of organizational culture have a specific application in health care, since the ability to achieve a common goal depends largely on effective relationships between individuals (Dennison, 1990). Managing the organizational culture of a health organization is essential in order to achieve sustainable change in care provision and consequent improvement.

Why is it important to understand and manage the organizational culture in healthcare? The answer is two-fold. First, if an archetypal organizational culture is seriously ineffective in a healthcare organization, it can be the main cause of the problems of that health system. For example, culture must deal with stress especially in the healthcare industry, and culture itself may cause the stress (Merry, 1998). Regarding the medical error rate, Leape (1994) showed that the most important reason for the spread of mistakes is the culture of the medical practice. Similarly, Gifford, Zammuto, and Goodman (2002), stated that the culture of the health organization could be an influential feature that affects the work environment of hospital nurses.

The second important reason is that, understanding the organizational culture in the health sector is very important for human resource management. Personnel problems in healthcare, especially high turnover and career withdrawal are becoming grave (Bass, 2000). These symptoms are often directly related to job dissatisfaction and cultural

clashes (Waldman & Hood 2003).

The main dimensions of corporate culture in government hospitals in Greece and the subcultures relative to the employees' traits were studied by Bellou (2008) whose sample was from 20 Greek public hospitals, from which 749 frontline employees responded to the questionnaire. The result of this study suggested that hospitals wishing to provide higher quality services to their clients at more affordable costs, should nurture the values, priorities, outlooks and behaviors of the staff accordingly. Additionally, the researcher noted that surprisingly, the personnel in government hospitals in Greece were less concerned with attention to detail, results and being team players, which are all crucial components of the culture and vital in healthcare practices. Two other dominant cultures characteristic of employees in Greek hospitals were aggressiveness and supportiveness. These kinds of culture characteristics are more related to market-based cultures. The researcher also found that corporate culture is not strong in Greek hospitals.

There have been studies that examined how the corporate culture of the management team and organizational performance in the English "National Health Service" (NHS) hospitals are related. The results of this study indicated that corporate culture of hospitals changes over time and is moving towards a more competitive culture (Jacobs et al., 2013).

The CC of hospitals in Turkey was measured employing the "competitive value framework" (CVF) of OC. The influence of CC on work outcomes was investigated and it was found that the dominant culture in Turkey's hospitals is Hierarchy, followed by Market and Clan cultures. These results indicate that corporate culture in the healthcare industry in Turkey is based on stability and control. The researcher pointed out that in Turkey, the healthcare industry's concern with stability, order and control results in better performance compared to those with more flexible cultures (Acar & Pınar 2014).

Previous studies mostly focused on the effects of OC on organizational performance (OP) and it seems that there is a lack of studies investigating the influence

of corporate culture on the behavioral characteristics of employee performance in healthcare organizations.

2.3.3 Why Corporate Culture is vital in organizations

To know and appreciate the importance of CC in organizations first, it is necessary to know why companies need to have a proper CC. Thompson et al. (2012) described CC as "a component of executing strategies in organizations". Organizational culture is one of many key variables contributing to the implementation of strategy in an organization and it has considerable influence on business performance as well (Thompson et al., 2018). Eight managerial tasks were examined in the book by Thompson et al. (2018) on strategy execution: "staffing the organization, acquiring the needed resources and capabilities, designing the organizational structure, allocating resources, establishing policies and procedures, employing process management tools, installing operating systems, providing the right incentives, creating a corporate culture that supports good strategy execution and leading the strategy execution process". These elements are in line with previous categorizational studies, for instance, Okumus (2001) who designed a framework and illustrated how the elements of strategy implementation are related. Figure (2.1) illustrates the strategy implementation framework and key variables by Okumus (2001).

Figure 1
Strategy implementation framework and key variables

- This framework is not meant to be all-inclusive, rather its purpose is to provide a direction or a train of thought for executives faced with implementing strategies.
- It is argued that to implement a strategic decision, there should be a 'fit' or 'coherence' between the strategy and these variables and between all variables themselves.

Figure 2-1 Strategy implementation framework and key variables

Figure 2.1 illustrates the key variables in implementing the strategic framework. As can be seen, organizational context includes organizational culture and organizational structure, besides organizational process. According to Okumus (2001) variables in organizational process are directly involved in the executing process and also are more controllable at least in the short-term than organizational context variables (e.g. Organizational culture and Organizational process).

Furthermore, Delisi (1998) emphasized that OC itself can either drive or hinder implementation. The "seven factors for successful strategy execution," suggested by Qi (2005), also emphasized the significance of combining learning and the culture of adaptation.

Cameron and Quinn (2006) stressed the importance of managerial planning and investigation of the existing state of the OC, so as to be able to detect the gap and offer an appropriate strategy to bridge the gap (Srivastava 2014). All of the aforementioned evidence shows the significance of corporate culture in executing the strategies of the organization.

2.3.4 Corporate Culture as a tool for strategy implementation

It is vital to have a culture and a system of relationships for the purpose of supporting the execution of strategic measures (Slocum et al. 2014). There are many studies in the literature about the tools used to execute strategies (e.g. Higgins, 2005; Qi, 2005; Salas, & Huxley, 2014; Slocum et al., 2014; Srivastava, 2014), some of which are focused on the external environment, for instance; a macro-view, whole industry, or strategic group, while others have studied internal constructs, such as, culture, internal resources, management processes and capabilities (Uusitalo et al.m 2017).

As has been mentioned before; eight different kinds of managerial tasks were introduced by Thompson et al. (2012), which can lead to better execution of the organizational strategy. One of these managerial strategies is to generate an appropriate corporate culture to support the corporate strateg**y.** Likewise, according to Higgins, and Mcallaster (2010), one of the main tasks of strategists is to take care of several factors when executing or changing strategies, and the most important of these factors is corporate culture. Similarly, in a study by Qi (2005), where seven factors were introduced as significant in the implementation of successful strategies, the importance of corporate learning and a culture aligned with the workplace strategy has been emphasized (Srivastava 2014).

The final objective of every business strategy is to acquire a competitive advantage and a stable profit situation for the company. Probable resources of competitive advantage include advantages related to production, pricing, technology, finance, factory, location, and operation. These advantages of resources are generally tangible. Nowadays the importance of intangible resources, for instance, human capital and culture are well recognized and companies and managers are aware of the role of these factors as competitive advantage (Slocum et al., 2014).

The company's culture (assumptions, beliefs, and common values) and the network of interactions, internally and externally, are the social capital of every company. There is much evidence that when human capital and social capital become aligned with strategic objectives, organizations would gain competitive advantages (Barbarsm 2012; E. G. Flamholtz et al., 2012). Human capital and social capital are potentially competitive advantages because they are valuable and difficult to replicate by competitors while tangible resources are replicable.

A positive culture leads to better performance while a negative culture leads to organizational malfunction. Starbucks and Walmart achieved better performance and gained an asset in the form of positive differential earnings through having a positive culture (E. G. Flamholtz et al., 2012). Human resource management strategies are strategically valuable and not replicable, only if they provide a fertile ground for maintenance and creation of other resources to implement the strategies of companies (Slocum et al. 2014).

Here are some earlier research studies that investigated organizational culture and performance to clarify the significance of CC in organizations.

Study 1

A longitudinal study investigated the link between organizational culture (OC) and organizational performance (OP) (Denison, 1984). This study compared the performance of 34 firms over a five-year period. These companies were listed either in the New York or the American Stock Exchange. The results of this study suggested that cultural and behavioral characteristics of organizations have a significant impact on a firm's achievements. Companies that are more participative outperform those without such a participative culture; this difference in the performnce level gets progressively larger over time, which might be an indication of a cause and effect relationship between the two variables of culture and performance.

Study 2

In an analytical research S. Saffold (1988) discussed how OC and OP are related. The researcher maintained that if scholars want to accurately examine the culture-performance link, a combination of more suitable measurements of the influence of culture were needed. For that purpose, all orgnizational processes, which are essentially cultural and can be somehow related to performance should be taken into account. The study introduced seven more appropriate cultural constructs (i.e., climate formation, behavioral control, strategy formulation, social efficacy, organizational learning, integration and differentiation, and leadership). The author suggested that each category should in some way contribute to the culture-performance outcome. This study suggested that a universally theorized notion is that if a culture is to contribute to improving performance, it should both be "strong" and have unique "traits": shared behavior patterns, beliefs, and particular values.

Study 3

In one of the chapters of Denison's (1991) book the relationship between OC and financial achievments were investigated. The chapter introduced four concepts for OC; Involvement, Consistency, Adaptability, and Mission. Data were collected from two different sources; the first was the University of Michigan's Institute of Social Research (data collected from 1966-1980), and the second source was the Standard & Poor's annual financial performance of 200 public organizations. The results of this study demonstrated that all the four concepts of organizational culture, when appropriate, have an association with financial performance.

The individual definitions of these concepts are as follows:

Involvement: indicates the level of participation of individuals in decision making. It also implies the commitment and responsibility of the members.

Consistency: is the degree of collectiveness of beliefs, values and expectations by members of the organization.

Adaptability: is the degree to which an organization is capable of behavioral, structural and system change to align with its environment.

Mission: refers to the existence of a common definition of the organizational purpose.

Study 4

Similar to the previous study, this study tested the relationship between OC, organizational commitment, and financial achievements. It was conducted in Malaysia among companies listed in the Kuala Lumpur Stock Exchange. The researchers sent 1,036 questionnaires of which 202 were returned for the study. The analysis of the data showed that both OC and organizational commitment have an impact on financial performance. This study used the organizational culture based on Deshpande and Farley's (1999) framework which was improved by Cameron and Quinn (2005) based on organizational effectiveness (Rashid, Sambasivan, & Johari 2003).

Study 5

Kim et al. (2004) studied how organizational culture and OP were related. In this study, the researchers used the organizational culture profile (OCP) by Chatman and Jehn (1994). The study was conducted among 10 companies: three industrial manufacturers, four hospitals, and three insurance companies. The results confirmed the impact of OC on OP.

Study 6

In the study by Flamholtz et al. (2012) CC was presented as a strategic asset, which if used properly, could impact the success of the business model and enhance competitive advantage. In contrast, if it is not managed properly it could be a "liability" rather than having any positive advantage. The key dimensions of CC and the related performance measurement issues were also illustrated. The researchers viewed CC as a component of

"Human Capital" besides skills and competencies of individuals. They also showed that successful organizations like Starbucks and Walmart had positive cultures, whereas in structurally dysfunctional companies such as AIG and Kmart the cultures became "liabilities".

Study 7

Similar to this thesis, the study by Jacobs et al. (2013) employed the competing value framework (CVF) of Cameron and Quinn (2005). However, they investigated its relationship with organizational performance in hospitals in England (NHS). They measured the senior management's team culture. Their sample was collected from three different time periods between 2001/2002 and 2007/2008 which made it a longitudinal study. To analyze the data they used multinomial logit models. The result indicated that organizational culture was not the same in different hospitals and also in any single hospital during different periods of time. They concluded that "this variation is at least in part associated, in consistent and predictable ways, with a variety of organizational characteristics and routine measures of performance".

Study 8

Organizational culture was examined in a research by Valmohammadi and Roshanzamir (2015). They also examined different aspects of Total Quality Management (TQM) and compared the influence of two models of culture and TQM on performance. They used structural equation modelling (SEM). The sample comprised 209 CEOs and senior managers in pharmaceutical companies in Tehran, Iran. The results indicated that hierarchy and market cultures were the dominant cultures. This emphasizes more stability than flexibility. Also, a positive direct relationship between OC and TQM on performance existed. Finally, they suggested some effectiveness and quality strategies for these organizations.

Study 9

This recent study, similar to the previous study, investigated the role of OC on innovation

performance. The sample was collected from 215 individuals in software companies in Pakistan. The results showed that organizational culture influences innovation performance. In particular these specific industries have to adapt and change continuously and the proper type of culture and aligning with changes would lead to better innovation performance. They used the knowledge-based view theory (KBV) and suggested that companies need an open climate to promote creativity and innovation. As influencing factors on the organizational culture they introduced: "external orientation (customers), organizational climate, flexibility, and support to change, teamwork, employee empowerment" (Shahzad, Xiu, & Shahbaz 2017).

As we can see many studies have examined the effect of culture on performance; however, there is a lack of studies which examine the CVF model on in-role and extra-role performance of employees. Employees are the most important assets in organizations. They are a resource that competitors cannot replicate and therefore they are viewed as a resource of great value. It is important to conduct such a study in order to identify the kinds of culture in which employee performance will be enhanced.

2.3.5 Competing Value Framework (CVF)

Initially, four kinds of corporate culture were categorized as Adhocracy, Hierarchy, Market, and Clan by Deshpande et al. (1993), then it was improved by Cameron and Quinn (2005) to become the "competing value framework" (CVF). Organizations may not be exclusively in one of these categories. Instead, organizations typically have one dominant culture, but also, show the characteristics of other cultures (Deshpandé et al., 1993). This categorization is suitable for this study and has been widely used in the organizational culture literature (Suppiah & Singh Sandhu 2011). It contains two axes: on the vertical axis, as we move from organic to mechanistic, the organization style changes from empowerment and authenticity, to stability and control, order, and rules; on the horizontal axis, the prominence of the organization is represented, which ranges from internal maintenance (based on a combination of activities) to external positioning

(differentiates itself from competitors) (Strese et al. 2016) (Figure (2-2)).

ORGANIC PROCESSES

Clan

Dominant attributes: Cohesiveness, participation, teamwork, sense of family

Leader style: Mentor, facilitator, parent-figure

Bonding: Loyalty, tradition, interpersonal cohesion

Strategic emphases: Toward developing human resources, commitment, morale

Adhocracy

Dominant attributes: Entrepreneurship, creativity, adaptability

Leader style: Entrepreneur, innovator, risk taker

Bonding: Entrepreneurship, flexibility, risk

Strategic emphasis: Toward innovation, growth, new resources

INTERNAL MAINTENANCE ———————————— EXTERNAL POSITIONING

Hierarchy

Dominant attributes: Order, rules and regulations, uniformity

Leader style: Coordinator, administrator

Bonding: Rules, policies and procedures

Strategic emphases: Toward stability, predictability, smooth operations

Market

Dominant attributes: Competitiveness, goal achievement

Leader style: Decisive, achievement-oriented

Bonding: Goal orientation, production, competition

Strategic emphases: Toward competitive advantage and market superiority

MECHANISTIC PROCESSES

Fig. 1. Model of corporate culture types adapted from Deshpandé et al. (1993).

Figure 2-2 Model of culture types (Source: Deshpande et al. (1993))

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- Clan culture emphasizes consensus in particular, values interaction between individuals, loyalty, and traditions (Deshpandé & Farley 2004). The main characteristics of this organizational culture include cohesiveness, participation, teamwork, and feeling like a family.

- Adhocracy concentrates on entrepreneurship spirit, innovation and compliance as its dominant attributes. Its typical leadership style is entrepreneurial, innovative and risk-taking, which emphasizes its strategy of innovation, growth and acquiring new resources (Kim S. Cameron, & Freeman 1991; Deshpandé et al. 1993; Quinn, 1988). Additionally, "entrepreneurship, flexibility, and risk-taking" are a vital mechanism for organizational relationships in this culture (Cameron & Freeman, 1991).

- Market culture is characterized by orientation towards market dominance and its specific attributes are competitiveness and goal achievement (Deshpandé et al., 1993). Its leadership style is conclusive and towards accomplishing the goals and emphasizes strategic objectives such as recognizing competitive advantages (Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Deshpandé et al., 1993; Quinn, 1988).

- Hierarch**y** culture, stresses order, laws, and rules for the sake of being confident of stability and balance in the organization (Kim S. Cameron & Freeman 1991). Leadership characteristics of this culture include coordination or management towards stability, forecasting the ensuing situation and fluidity of organizational operations ((Kim S. Cameron, & Freeman 1991; Deshpandé et al., 1993; Quinn, 1988).

This framework is significant because it covers alongside aspects of leadership, organizational structure and organizational culture for the internal and external environments. In fact, it could be a practical tool for managers and decision makers to select the best approach to their corporate culture by combining different quadrants of this framework.

Every company has one or more combinations of these four types (Suppiah & Singh Sandhu, 2011). It has been claimed that the most commonly dominant cultures in organizations are hierarchical and market cultures, which are perceived as control-oriented cultures (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Despite their popularity in organizational settings, these cultures do not offer prospects of meaningful work to employees (Cardador & Rupp, 2011), which explains the lower efficiency and engagement of employees (Reis, Trullen, & Story 2016). Moreover, the dominant organizational culture in public organizations is hierarchy, which discourages empowerment and innovation. It gives less autonomy to employees and decisions are centralized and top-down. The Competing Value Framework (CVF) is going to be used in this research to evaluate corporate culture and to determine how managers can choose the best combination of these four categories to achieve better outcomes (Figure 2-3).

Fig. 1. The competing values framework (Cameron and Quinn, 2005).

Figure 2-3 The Competing Value Framework (CVF) by Cameron & Quinn, (2005)

2.4 DEFINITION OF HUMOR

C. Cooper (2008) maintained that the humor construct does not have a generalized definition. Due to the extent of this construct, it requires scholars to place limitations on the particular characteristic of humor that is their point of interest. However, some previous studies define it in more general terms, for instance, humor was defined as "any communicative instance that is perceived as humorous" (Martineau, 1972, p. 114). This suggests that humor is considered positive when it is viewed as amusing instead of offensive (Malone 1980a; Meyer 2000).

According to Cooper (2005), humor is "an ingratiatory behavior and it can be effective as an ingratiation strategy." Humor has been known to act as "a social lubricant" says Vinton (1989) "where friendly teasing serves a variety of positive

functions or to communicate role expectations." Crawford (1994) explains that "humor can be verbal or non-verbal interactions that create positive cognitive or affective response from listeners."

However, not all kinds of humor create affective or positive cognitive and affective feelings for the receivers; for instance, disparaging jokes that express superiority or belittle social groups or individuals are considered aggressive humor and are the result of perceived superiority over others, which represents the Superiority Theory of Humor (Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce 2009a). Incongruity Theory emphasizes that humor comes from the unanticipated encounter of the unexpected. Whereas Relief Theory regards humor as a relief for psychological energies that otherwise would be used to overwhelm feelings related to societal taboos such as illness, poverty, stress or sex (Mathies & Chiew 2016). Hence, humor can be categorized into different types, for instance, Martin et al. (2003) categorized it into four types, which will be explained in the next section.

2.4.1 Different types of humor

Martin et al. (2003) have divided humor to four categories as follows:

Affiliative humor. Cann and Matson (2014) named it as "a kind of adaptive humor." This type of humor is normally used to strengthen the bonds between individuals. People share funny and amusing stories or witty things impulsively that cheer others, hence it is other-directed. This kind of humor is nonhostile and is appreciated by others. Presumably, it will enhance cohesiveness, charm, and attraction. It is related to human traits, for instance, extroversion and openness to experience personality, joyfulness, confidence, relationship gratification, and mainly positive tempers and feelings (R. A. Martin et al., 2003).

Self-enhancing humor. This is a subjectively-directed and adaptive type of humor. This kind of humor has a humorous perspective on life. This humor is generally employed to improve the self such that it is acceptable and nondestructive to others. It is a similar

concept to coping humor, which is a tool to alleviate emotions in stressful and challenging situations as a coping mechanism (Kurtzberg, Naquin, & Belkin 2009). This type of humor is consistent with Freud's (1970) definition of humor and "Involves using humor to reassess potential stressors and to manage the challenges" (Cann & Matson 2014). This category is negatively related to depression and anxiety and more succinctly, neuroticism, and positively related to openness and extroversion, confidence and well-being (R. A. Martin et al., 2003).

Aggressive humor. Is a maladaptive kind of humor (Cann & Matson 2014) and other-directed humor, which is related to sarcasm, teasing, scorn, mockery, putting down or belittling humor. Some use this kind of humor to manipulate others as a threat to humiliate them. Generally, it is a tendency to use humor without concern for its potential to offend others. Sexist and racist humors are examples of this kind of humor. This kind of humor is related to neurotic personality, anger and aggressiveness, dissatisfaction with a relationship, and is negatively related to agreeableness and conscientiousness (R. A. Martin et al., 2003).

Self-defeating humor. This is also a maladaptive kind of humor that some people use for self-disparaging ridicule or to criticize themselves in order to amuse others. These individuals by making fun of themselves, in fact, ingratiate towards others or special people. They might intend to get more attention and be accepted in a group even at the cost of lowering themselves. It is hypothesized that this kind of humor may be used as a denial of being defensive, for hiding negative feelings, or for avoiding dealing with problems. Yet, people in this dimension may be seen as funny and likeable (e.g. clowns). Emotional neediness, avoidance and low confidence are the usual characteristics of people who use this kind of humor, however, some politicians like Ronald Reagan or people in high ranking positions use this kind of humor to decrease their distance from people so that others feel more comfortable with them and more attached to them (Wood & Rossiter 2011). This type of humor has a positive relationship with neuroticism and a negative relationship with agreeableness and conscientiousness. It shows positive relation with depression, nervousness, resentment, aggression and bad mood, and negative

correlation with psychological well-being, confidence, and satisfaction with social supports (R. A. Martin et al., 2003).

2.4.2 Humor in the workplace

Many researchers who investigated humor and fun in the workplace confirm that humor can be an effective managerial tool (C. D. Cooper, 2005; Duncan, 1982; Hatzithomas, Zotos, & Boutsouki 2011; Holmes, 2007; Huo, Lam, & Chen 2012; Hurren, 2006; Mathies & Chiew 2016; E. J. Romero & Cruthirds 2006; E. Romero & Pescosolido 2008). Humor shapes social and career cohesions, delivers a scene to manage work-related stressors, and can differentiate authority within an organization (Gayadeen & Phillips 2016).

The following section reviews previous studies on humor in the workplace.

Study 1

Malone (1980) was one of the first scholars who emphasized the potential role of humor in the workplace. The study stated that despite evidence for humor being favorable and even therapeutic, few studies have attempted to examine this variable in management and leadership. It mentioned that research on this construct might help managers and leaders to use it as a tool to get things done. This study brought up several questions for future research. Perhaps the most important question is: "Can humor be used as a managerial tool?" In conclusion it mentioned that because of a decline in resources in organizations, we should examine variables that can probably help. It stated that humor is an inherent resource that can enhance the satisfaction and productivity of employees at work. The study then went on and advised researchers to perform in-depth research on this variable to get people to perform better.

Study 2

After Malone's study perhaps Duncan (1982) was the first scholar who suggested that humor is an effective managerial tool. The effect of humor on group cohesivness, comunication, power and status was underlined. The study also suggested that there might be a relation between humor and dynamic variables and people performance. In this study, some recommendations were made to managers regarding the use of humor in different situations.

Study 3

Avolio et al. (1999) stressed the moderating role of humor in the relationship between leadership style and performance at the individual and unit-levels. This study was conducted in a large Canadian finacial organization. This organization had several departments, and collectively had 115 leaders and 322 followers. The results showed a positive and direct association between humor and performance. Active leadership (transformational or contingent reward leadership) also had a positive relationship with humor, however *laissez-faire* leadership had a negative correlation with humor. The researchers suggested that firms could train leaders to use humor in a proper way, and also inform them of the potentially negative impacts of humor on individual performance if it is not used correctly.

Study 4

Rod A Martin is an influential scholar in humor research who has undertaken several important studies in this area. One of those is this important study, in which humor is categorized, based on individual differences in its use (Rod a. Martin et al. 2003). He classified humor into Affiliative, Self-enhancing, Aggressive, and Self-defeating. This was the classification used most frequently for research related to the use of humor in the workplace. He and his colleague also introduced the Situational Humor Response Questionnaire (SHRQ) in R. A. Martin and Lefcourt (1984). This classification was

discussed in the previous section.

Study 5

This is a very informative article for managers about the use of humor in the workplace provided by E. J. Romero and Cruthirds (2006). They stated that humor is taken for granted by managers, although it is a popular aspect of interaction between people and influences work groups and organizations. Similar to Duncan's (1982) study they emphasized the role of humor as a managerial tool. The role of humor in lowering stress, improving leadership, group cohesiveness, communication, creativity and also organizational culture was underlined. They suggested that gender and ethnicity moderate the effect of the relationship between humor and organizational outcomes. This study used an interesting metaphor and mentioned that the appropriate style of humor in different contexts is like taking the proper tool from a toolkit. By using the proper tool the desired outcome will be achieved (EJ Romero & Cruthirds, 2006).

Study 6

Romero is another influential scholar who has published many important studies on humor. For instance, he has introduced a specific model that explains the impact of proper organizational humor on group effectiveness (E. Romero & Pescosolido 2008). This study presented a framework based on Hachman's group effectiveness model. This framework illustrated the effect of organizational humor on group effectiveness, which contains viability, group productivity and learning. This article claims that this model can potentially be a theoretical advancement of organizational humor and provide managers with the understanding of two apparently different variables (humor and group effectiveness), which are actually meaningfully connected. The figure (2-4) below shows the group humor effectiveness model (GHEM).

41
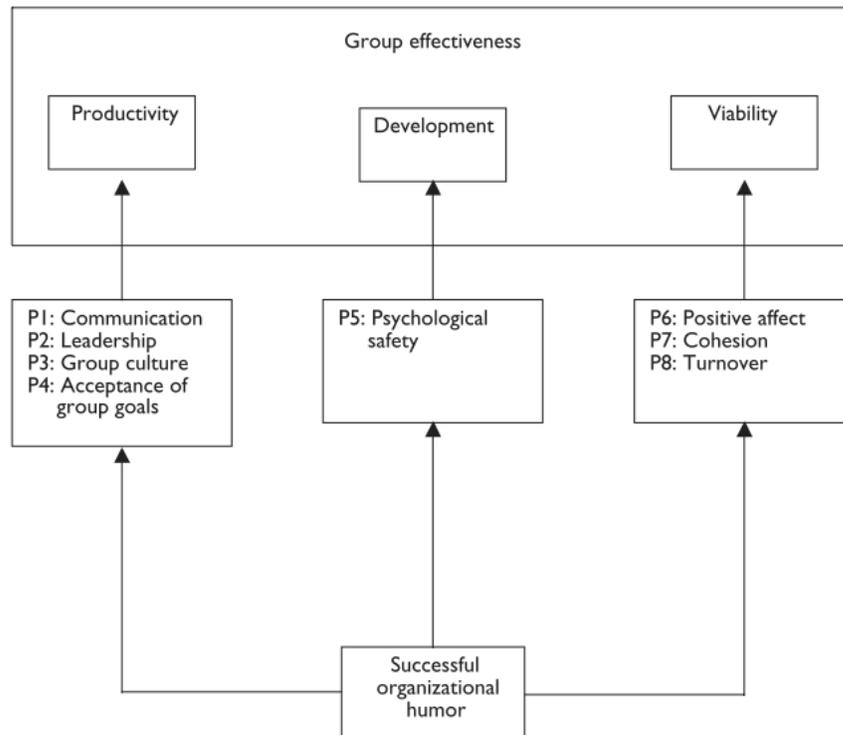
Figure 2-4 Model of Group Humor Effectiveness

Study 7

Another study similar to the study by Avalio et al. (1999) demonstrated the moderating role of humor (Hughes & Avey 2009). It empirically investigated the moderating role of leader humor in the relationship between transformational leadership and the behavior of the followers. The study was carried out in two stages with a sample of 369 working adults. Data related to employee perceptions about their leaders were collected. The findings suggested that leader humor has a moderating effect on the relationship between transformational leadership and both trust and affective commitment. It also suggested that transformational leaders who use more humor produce a higher rate of employee job statisfation and affective commitment. The practical implications of these findings for transformational leaders were then discussed. They proposed that, theoretically, the varaiables introduced in this study might be an antecedent of more distal variables like turnover and work performance.

Study 8

The relationship between humor and engagement is reflected in the study of Van den Broeck et al. (2012). This article, which is built on the basis of positive psychology, investigated the role of humor in the workplace. It particularly investigated the impact of affiliative and self-enhancing humor on both engagment and burnout of employees. It draws its conclusion from a large sample of 1,200 Belgian employees. They suggested that there was no association between humor styles and burnout, however there was positive correlation between humor styles and engagement.

Study 9

After almost 30 years of numerous studies on humor in the workplace this meta-analysis took place (Mesmer-Magnus, Glew, & Viswesvaran 2012). It emphasized the benefits of humor in the workplace based on previous research. The sample used (k ¼ 49, n ¼ 8,532) consisting of 49 studies. Subsequently, it suggested that Leader humor was associated with both employee work-related outcomes (i.e., performance, job satisfaction, and work withdrawal and group cohesion) and leader effectiveness (performance and follower approval). Furthermore, employee humor correlates with employee health outcomes (i.e., burnout, stress, health and coping effectiveness) and employee work-related outcomes.

Study 10

Another study related to correlation between humor and engagement by Guenter, Schreurs, and Emmerik (2013) took a different approach to this contruct. This research investigated within-person humor in the workplace. They investigated the role of the reaction from others to adaptive and maldaptive humor as the moderator. However, the reaction to humor showed no such moderating effect. Nevertheless, the findings of this study were in line with the previous ones that suggested adaptive humor enhances engagement of individuals in the workplace and maladaptive humor leads to their emotional burnout.

Study 11

Affiliative and aggressive humor as the antecedents of leader member exchange (LMX) with the mediating role of "identification with the leader" were investigated by Pundt & Herrmann (2014). This was a longitudinal study with a sample of 152 employees, which took place in Germany over six weeks. Relational identification (Identification with the leaders) indicates the relationship between leaders and their followers. This study showed that the relationship between leader and follower becomes deeper when the leader uses affiliative humor. This in turn will improve LMX. Thus, according to the results of this study, the positive role of affiliative humor was confirmed; however, "identification with the leader" did not mediate the relationship between aggressive humor and LMX.

Study 12

Lehmann-willenbrock and Allen (2014) claimed that to date, humor had rarely been examined in different social settings and that there was a need to investigate it. Their study examined humor in the team context. The link between humor and performance was explored through videotaping the behavioral patterns of humor and laughter in 54 organizational meetings. It was discovered that humor enhances positive communication, procedural structure, and new solutions. Humor patterns (not humor and laughter itself) had a positive association with team performance at the team level of analysis. This was a longitudinal study and took place over a time period of two-year. It also illustrated that job insecurity climate at the team level acted as a boundary condition. Meaning that in high job insecurity situations, humor and team performance were negatively correlated, whereas with low job insecurity, humor and team performance were positively correlated. This study highlighted the importance of studying team interactions and the role of humor considering team-level boundaries.

Study 13

The impact of humor on the well-being of the nurses was studied in the healthcare

environment when there was a shortage in resources like, the number of personnel or equipment in hospitals (Ghaffari, Dehghan-nayeri, & Shali 2015). Nurses described their experiences and described how humor could help them to reduce their stress in clinical settings. Structured interviews with 17 nurses in five university hospitals were conducted. Five themes were studied, namely, the dynamics of humor, condition enforcement, risk-making probability, instrument use and change, opportunities and threats. This study was useful to illustrate how humor in the healthcare environment can enhance workplace cheerfulness and improve the mental and emotional health of nurses and patients.

Study 14

A dyadic quantitative study investigated the leader-subordinate relationship, to show how leader humor can impact employee creativity (Lee, 2015). Trust in the leader was used as the moderator between leader humor and employee creativity. A total of 71 leaders and 316 subordinates from five telecomunication companies in South Korea participated in this study. The results showed that the use of self-enhancing humor by the leaders improves the creativity of the subordinates. It also demonstrated that trust in the leader moderates this relationship.

Study 15

Aggressive humor was considered as a moderator in the study of the mediating role of negative affect on the relationship between abusive supervision and dysfunctional resistance (Goswami, Nair, & Grossenbacher 2015). A total of 235 employees in Indian international companies participated in this study. The results indicated that aggressive humor and dysfunctional resistance were correlated. Furthermore, aggressive humor moderates the direct relationship between abusive supervision and dysfunctional resistance; however, it did not moderate the indirect paths.

Study 16

Humor has also been studied in service industries. For instance, one study investigated the role of humor in service delivery encounters (Mathies & Chiew 2016). This was a comprehensive study, which illustrated the antecedents and outcomes of humor to clarify the potential role of humor in service delivery. The study found that utilizing humor in service encounters is a creative affiliative behavior that enhances the bond between service employees and their clients. They emphasized that humor helped employees to cope with the emotional labor and improved their well-being. It also softened the interaction between the employees and their clients and decreased unpleasant emotional reactions. The services became more effective through the enhanced acceptance of responsibility among service employees.

Study 17

This was another study, which emphasized the role of humor in the environments, in which the stress level was high. The study was conducted in a police department in New York, USA and the use of humor among the officers was investigated (Gayadeen & Phillips 2016). Data were collected through interviews and observations. The results of this study suggested that officers use humor for socializing, manage stress, and sometimes to show superiority to their subordinates. The use of humor depends on the situation and can be either arranged or spontaneous. This study emphasized the role of humor as a gauge for organizational and individual health.

Study 18

A recent study on leadership humor proposed that leader humor indirectly predicts employee commitment and burnout through the mediating role of LMX (Pundt & Venz 2017). This survey took place in two waves among 142 employees. The researchers suggest that although leader humor can smooth the relationship between leaders and subordinates, it is dependent on the humor recipient's acceptance of this kind of informal

interaction; some employees prefer to have only formal interactions (personal need for structure) with their leaders. However, this viewpoint disregards the role of the organizational culture or the local culture. The conceptual model of this study showed the moderated mediation role of the personal need for structure and LMX in the relationship between leader humor and employee commitment, burnout and emotional exhaustion. The results suggested that with a low need of structure the relationship between leader humor and commitment and burnout is stronger. However, no significant relationship with emotional exhaustion was observed.

As mentioned before, this thesis investigates the relationship between corporate culture and employee performance with the moderated mediation role of leader humor and engagement. The above study is conceptually similar to the current study, however, this thesis claims that structure is covered in organizational culture in the CVF model.

Study 19

Another recent study by Mesmer-magnus et al. (2018) examined the impact of the leader's use of four kinds of humor, that is, affiliative, self-enhancing, self-defeating and aggressive, on employee job satisfaction, organizational pride, organizational commitment and self-esteem. The sample size was 216 employees. Supervisor favorability had the mediating role in this study. When a supervisor uses positive kinds of humor such as affiliative and self-enhancing humor, he/she would be more favorable compared to a supervisor who uses negative kinds of humor. The findings of the study showed that positive humor was positively correlated with employee attitude outcome and negatively correlated with the leader's negative humor. The mediating role of supervisor favorability was also confirmed in positive kinds of humor.

2.4.3 Nature/ Characteristics of humor

Group cohesiveness

One valuable characteristic of humor is that it supports better communication among individuals as well as group cohesiveness (Duncan, 1982). Humor can act as a "double-edged sword" (Malone 1980a). "When a leader makes effective use of humor, it can enhance outcomes, but when humor is not handled appropriately, it may have a negative impact" (Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce 2009). Therefore, it is possible that the humor, which is funny for one person may not be funny for another person or may even be offensive. Some studies looked at humor from a psychological perspective and others concentrated on its role in management and leadership. The following is a review of the literature about humor in different areas to examine its role in different contexts.

Initial research on humor has shown that subordinates view supervisors who frequently use humor as more likeable and more effective (Rizzo et al., 1999). Cooper (2005) discussed the use of humor in the context of the ingratiation construct. However, utilizing humor is not always for amusement; it can be a way of reducing stress or overcoming the difficulties of a situation (e.g. self-enhancing humor).

Yip and Martin (2006) studied the correlation between emotional intelligence and social competence with humor. They indicated that EI has a positive relationship with self-enhancing humor and cheerfulness, and a negative relationship with bad mood. Self-enhancing and affiliative humor which are known as positive humor along with cheerfulness traits have a positive relationship with social competence. Aggressive and self-defeating humor and bad mood are negatively correlated with social competence.

Humor is beyond just amusement; it can be a management tool, which is multifunctional and can be used to achieve many objectives, for instance, it can reduce stress level, enhance leadership, improve group cohesiveness, develop relations and encourage innovation culture (Mesmer-Magnus, Glew, & Viswesvaran 2012). It is also

significant as a component of organizational culture (OC). Many successful organizations like Southwest Airlines, Kodak, Ben & Jerry's and Sun Microsystems use humor as their culture to enhance their outcomes (Mesmer-Magnus, Glew, & Viswesvaran 2012; Robert & Wilbanks 2012; EJ Romero & Cruthirds 2006). The influence of humor on outcomes is moderated by gender and ethnicity (S. E. Hone, Hurwitz, & Lieberman 2015).

Humor creates a positive feeling among group members by enhancing interactions. In this way, group members become more attached and affectionate towards each other (Mesmer-Magnus, Glew, & Viswesvaran 2012). Mutual laughter and fun create a bond between group members and they feel closer to each other, especially during hard times. This emotional glue causes the team members to become united on difficult days and in challenging times (E. J. Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). Both affiliative and self-enhancing humor increase group cohesion (McIlheran, 2006; Mesmer-Magnus, Glew, & Viswesvaran, 2012).

Moreover, group cohesion impacts satisfaction. This is because it creates a sense of task interdependence, and enhances both mood and citizenship behavior (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). When group cohesion increases, it makes members of the group perceive it as a "safety net", which would allow them to focus more on their tasks. This approach might contribute to the creation of a strong group culture, which by using humor can reinforce organizational effectiveness (E. J. Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). In addition to the aforementioned studies, two meta-analyses also confirmed that group cohesion is associated with team performance (Benson et al., 2016; Filho et al., 2014; Stevens, 2002). Thus, humor helps groups of employees to feel safe and relaxed and enhance their performance in the workplace.

Communication

Utilizing humor in communication is common and can enhance relationships inside the organization. Humor in communication produces a positive climate, which will improve listening, understanding and acceptance of the message by the audience (McIlheran 2006). In marketing practices, self-enhancing humor was used in commercial advertising

to communicate with their special target group.

In some cases, mild self-defeating humor can have a positive effect on the audience by reducing the tension and temporarily lowering the speaker's status (McIlheran 2006). For instance, some politicians like Ronald Reagan and Bill Clinton used this kind of humor to make people believe that they are like common citizens (E. J. Romero & Cruthirds, 2006).

Affiliative humor, when utilized by group members, might cause audiences to feel closer to the individual who uses this kind of humor and can create positive emotions which enhances communication (C. Cooper, 2008; McIlheran, 2006; EJ Romero & Cruthirds, 2006).

Many convincing pieces of evidence illustrate that the effective management of communication (e.g. through performance feedback, openness and accuracy, appropriateness of given information about company policies and practices) is associated with employee performance (Kacmar et al., 2003; Marlow et al., 2017; Neves & Eisenberger, 2012). Hence, humor can predict employee performance through the reinforcement of communication.

Stress reduction

There is strong evidence that humor can lower dysfunctional stress (Hughes & Avey, 2009; Huo, Lam, & Chen, 2012; Meyer, 2000; Pundt & Venz, 2017; E. J. Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). When humor is used in a stressful situation, one feels dominance and control over the condition, which is a way to cope with strain and anxiety. On the other hand, cracking jokes and displaying humor in tension-creating situations (e.g. downsizing in organizations), make the situation less stressful and threatening for the employees. Another example can be seen among army groups, in marches and songs that they sing together to mock death and threats from enemies. Humor causes people to feel no fear. Without fear, people will have more control over the situation and be more effective (E. J. Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). Affiliative humor can help teams to decrease tension and

anxiety. It creates a collective climate and gives the feeling of belonging to the group. It causes the sharing of stress among the members to handle the situation. Hence, affiliative humor creates the "we are in this together" mind-set, which is helpful to face the stress (Mesmer-Magnus, Glew, & Viswesvaran, 2012; Stieger, Formann, & Burger, 2011).

Myriad of studies have shown that job demands (e.g. role stressors, time pressure, workload, customer contact, and physical environment) are positively correlated with burnout (Jeong, Hyun, & Swanger, 2009; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a). Job strain and stress have a negative impact on engagement (Bragard, Hansez, & Coucke, 2014). In fact, job stress is associated with burnout of employees. Since burnout is the negative side of engagement, reducing burnout means maintaining or increasing engagement. Thus, this study suggests that by utilizing humor, especially in healthcare settings where the stress level is high, might reduce the stress and enhance the engagement of employees.

Creativity

There is ample evidence in the literature that indicates humor is related to creative thinking (Kellner & Benedek, 2016; Murdock & Ganim, 1993; Ziv, 1976). Humor causes enhanced openness to new ideas. It is more likely for people to be creative and engage in problem-solving in a humorous environment. These findings are reflected in some organizations e.g. Google, Yahoo and Pixar animation studios (E. J. Romero & Cruthirds, 2006).

Affiliative and self-enhancing humor are both appropriate to provide a creative environment. Affiliative humor can be used to provide an open and flexible work environment, in which new ideas can be proposed freely and as a result, creativity will be supported during communications. Self-enhancing humor can lighten the failures related to new ideas.

In a study on the engagement of school principals, Bakker et al. (2006) revealed that engagement and creativity are highly correlated. More engaged school principals are more competent to deal with school problems with better and creative solutions. Engaged

principals encourage and inspire their subordinates (Arnold B Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

Another study on fun and creativity was conducted in the laboratory (Friedman, Förster, & Denzler, 2007). This study illustrated that if a task were framed as fun and silly, the result would be higher performance with more creative ideas. Particularly people with a positive mood, show better performance. Hence, humor may create an environment of fun, which inspires creativity and consequently an improved performance.

Organizational culture

Humor is known as one of the most significant components of organizational culture (E. Flamholtz, 2005; EJ Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). It generates a positive environment for knowledge and idea sharing and also improves employee relationships. There are both empirical (Avolio, Howell, & Sosik, 1999) and circumstantial evidence that humor is related to enhanced performance in the workplace because of its role in knowledge sharing. Conclusively, it is rational that managers should try to utilize humor and incorporate it into their organizational culture (EJ Romero & Cruthirds, 2006).

Leadership

The relationship between humor and leadership has been explored in several studies (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Crawford, 1994; Gkorezis, Petridou, & Xanthiakos, 2014; Pundt, 2015; Shamir, 1995; Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce, 2009a). Several concepts in the humor literature are related to management and leadership (e.g. group cohesiveness, communication, stress, creativity, OC, follower outcomes and leadership). Surveys by Robert Half International demonstrated that 97% of staff members feel it is important for leaders to have a sense of humor because it creates a positive workgroup climate and improves the supervisor/subordinate relationship (Witham, 2007). Therefore, humor can potentially have a positive outcome in organizations; however, the effect is also dependent on the kind of humor being used. Previous studies have confirmed the role of

humor and its association with leadership and management variables. Likewise, our study intends to discover the effect of leader humor on the engagement and performance of individuals.

Humor can improve the relationship between the leader and the followers in a hierarchical relationship by reducing the social distance between them. The relationship between humor and leadership and its interpersonal mechanism as C. Cooper (2008) mentioned, can be explained by the notions of "similarity-attraction, self-disclosure, and hierarchical salience". Similarly, humor enhances the relationship between leaders.

It is evident that people of higher ranks (i.e. supervisors, leaders) are more successful in making their subordinates laugh with their jokes rather than lower level employees. According to Holmes, and Marra (2002) using humor is somehow a privilege for higher status people over their subordinates, which shows their superiority.

Sometimes leaders might utilize mocking or aggressive humor to persuade their subordinates to do their job correctly (e.g. military leaders). However, in most work environments, utilizing aggressive humor or teasing is not appropriate and is in contradiction with the well-being of employees because it may be perceived as mocking or bullying (Pundt & Herrmann, 2014).

Self-defeating humor is not suitable for leaders because it may create a mentality that the leader has low self-esteem, is playful and not serious at work (EJ Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). Although self-defeating humor too can reduce the perceived social distance, it is considered risky and leaders should preferably use only mild kinds of self-defeating humor. Dyck and Holtzman (2013) stated that there is a negative correlation between self-defeating humor and well-being through the mediating role of lower levels of perceived support. They say that "self-defeating humor is highly and positively associated with anxiety, depression, hostility, aggression, and psychiatric and somatic symptoms, and, negatively, with self-esteem and well-being" (Leist & Müller, 2013). Studies have shown that employees perceived their supervisors to be less stressful, more

supportive and cooperative and more open in communications when they utilize moderate self-defeating humor.

Therefore, among all types of humor, affiliative and self-enhancing humor are considered as the appropriate types to reduce the perceived social distance between leaders and followers because it makes the followers feel that the supervisor is a part of the group.

2.4.4 The reason why this study does not consider negative kinds of humor

Many studies have indicated the destructive influences of negative humor in the workplace (Van den Broeck et al., 2012; Decker & Rotondo, 2001). Reports have indicated that individuals who normally use aggressive humor have less satisfaction in their interactions and low social capability (Yip & Martin, 2006). Likewise, another study showed that aggressive humor style has a relationship with high social detachment, lack of care and reciprocal behavior, and the person being considered as a burden for others (Tucker et al., 2013). Aggressive humor is a negative type of humor, which is associated with anger, hostility, and bullying behavior (R. A. Martin et al., 2012). Additionally, dark, rough, sarcastic humor and socially unsuitable jokes are among this type. Individuals who utilize these kinds of humor, use it without caring about the feelings of others. Usually, aggressive humor is used to offend others or to show superiority (Howland & Simpson, 2014). Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, self-defeating humor may also be perceived negatively; because if leaders or supervisors use it improperly, they might be thought of as someone with low self-esteem and not serious about the job (Pundt & Herrmann, 2014). Since this study intends to investigate ways to enhance the engagement and productivity of employees, only the positive types of leader humor are considered.

2.5 ENGAGEMENT AT WORK

Work engagement is a positive, rewarding and work-related disposition, which can be defined as the sum of "vigor, dedication and absorption" (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a). Vigor means having a high level of energy and mental suppleness, eagerness to make efforts and determination even in difficult situations. Dedication refers to "being recognized as important and valuable at work, passionate and enthusiastic about the work, encouraged and craving for a challenge." Vigor and dedication are the exact opposite of exhaustion and cynicism respectively. The third dimension of engagement is absorption. It has been described as "a person who fully concentrates on his or her work and being absorbed in it." Even with the passing of time, it is difficult for the person to be detached from his/her job because somehow it is enjoyable for him/her (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a).

Employee engagement is among the most popular concepts in Human Resource Development (Rana, Ardichvili, & Tkachenko, 2014). The popularity of this concept is because of its noticeable effect on employee performance (Arnold B. Bakker et al., 2008) and also corporate-level financial performance (A.B. Bakker et al., 2007; Macey & Schneider, 2008).

In order to discuss engagement at work, this study first conducted a review of the literature related to engagement at work and its antecedents and outcomes.

Study 1

The study of Kahn (1990) was the first qualitative research which comprehensively investigated the engagement construct and actually introduced it. It stated that individuals can use "variyiing degrees of their selves, physically, cognitively, and emotionally" at work or in performance, which affects their job and experience. This article explains the three psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and their contextual resources. These three conditions are related to the existing theoretical

concept.

Three factors that generally influence psychological meaningfulness are: i) task characteristics, ii) role characteristics and iii) work interaction.

Four factors impact psychological safety: i) interpersonal relationships, ii) group and intergroup dynamics, iii) management style and process, and iv) organizational norms. Finally, the factors that impact psychological availability are: i) physical energy, ii) emotional energy, iii) insecurity, and iv) outside life. This study clarified the enagagement construct and introduced a framework for employee enagagement in the Human Resourse Development (HRD) area, especially for theory building, scholarship and practice. Furthermore, it described the latest viewpoints, research and the ways to use "employee engagement as an organizational performance and workplace culture-building strategy."

Study 2

The study by Schaufeli et al. (2002) emphasized burnout and engagement as two opposite constructs which have an impact on performance. They empirically tested their hypothesis on the university students from Spain and the Netherlands. The main point of this research is that "engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigor, dedication, and absorption." They concluded that, irrespective of the country, efficacy and vigor are positively correlated with performance.

Study 3

A field study in a U.S. Midwestern insurance company investigated the mediating role of three psychological conditions-meaningfulness, safety, and availability on employee engagement based on Kahn's (1990) work (May et al. 2004). The results of this study indicate that all these three psychological conditions have a positive correlatiom with engagement. Among these, meaningfulness has the strongest correlation. Job enrichment

and work role fit both had positive relationship with psychological meaningfulness. "Rewarding co-worker" and supportive supervisor were positively related to psychological safety; however, compliance with co-worker norms and self-consciousness had negative correlation. Available resources and participating in outside activities were positively linked to psychological availability. Lastly, psychological meaningfulness fully mediates the relationship between job improvement and work role fit with engagement. Psychological safety partly mediated the relationship between co-worker norms and engagement.

Study 4

The study of M. Saks (2006) expressed the popularity of employee engagement at that time period. Additionally, it stated that there is a lack of studies in the academic literature about the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. They introduced a model based on "social exchange theory". This article distinguished between job engagement and organization engagement as two different constructs. It illustrated the antecedents and consequences of engagement as well. The study demonstrted that perceived organizational support is the antecedent of both job and organizational engagement. However, job characteristics predict only job engagement and procedural justice predicts organizational engagement. Furthermore, job and organizational engagement are the mediators of the relationship between the antecedents (figure 2-5) and the outcome variables such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to quit and organizational citizenship behavior. The following is the model of antecedents and consequences of engagement in the M. Saks (2006) article.

Figure 2-5 Model of antecedents and consequences of engagement

Study 5

Bakker and Demerouti (2008) conducted a meta-analysis on engagement to offer an overview concept of work engagement. They introduced the popular JD-R model of engagement. In addition, they stated that subjective resources are the major antecedents of engagement. Furthermore, engaged employees are more innovative, productive and more willing to do more than what is expected from them. The following is the popular JD-R model (Figure 2-6).
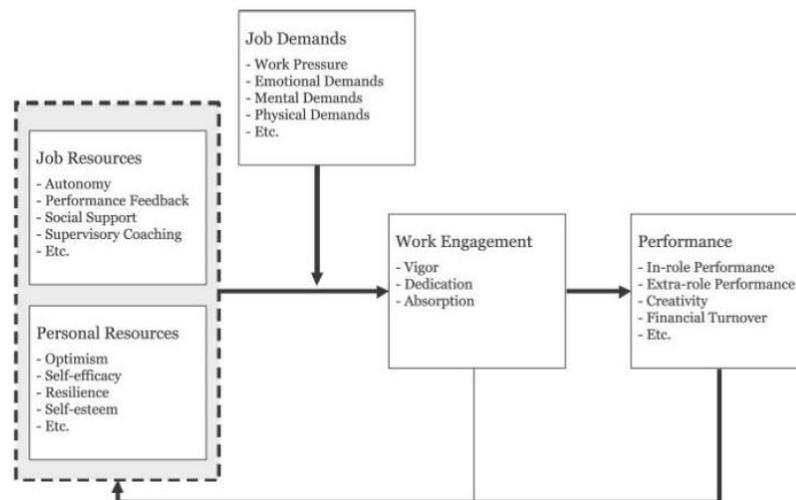
Figure 1.
The JD-R model of work engagement

Source: Based on Bakker & Demerouti (2007)

Figure 2-6 JD-R Model of work engagement

The JD-R model is based on two assumptions and is derived from the "Job

demands-resources model" of A.B. Bakker et al. (2007) and Demerouti et al. (2001). Arnold B Bakker and Demerouti (2008) introduced two assumptions. The first assumption is that job resources like social support from supervisors and co-workers, performance feedback, different skills, and autonomy, initiate a motivational process that leads to work engagement and consequently better employee performance. The second assumption is that when job demands (i.e. workload, emotional and mental demands, etc.…) are high, job resources are more vital. Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) expanded the JD-R model by clarifying that "job resources and personal resources are mutually related and personal resources can be independent predictors of work engagement". Therefore, employees who score higher on optimism, self-efficacy, self-esteem and resilience tend to activate and organize job resources and are commonly more engaged. Moreover, job resources and personal resources positively affect engagement when the job demands (i.e. workload, emotional and mental demands, etc.…) are high. Furthermore, work engagement positively affects job performance. Lastly, employees who are engaged in their work and have higher performance can create resources for themselves, which in time causes still higher engagement and that creates a positive loop.

Study 6

In the Fleck and Inceoglu (2008) book the relationship between engagement and organizational outcome measures such as profitability, revenue growth, earning per share and employee turnover were studied. They introduced a framework which described the antecedents and consequences of engagement. This model is a different approach to engagement compared to the JD-R model and focuses more on organizational engagement. Characteristics of the work environment were considered to be antecedents of engagement. They claim that this model will solve the ambiguity of interpretation that is often related to organizational engagement. The framework below is the model that was intruduced in this book (Figure 2-7).
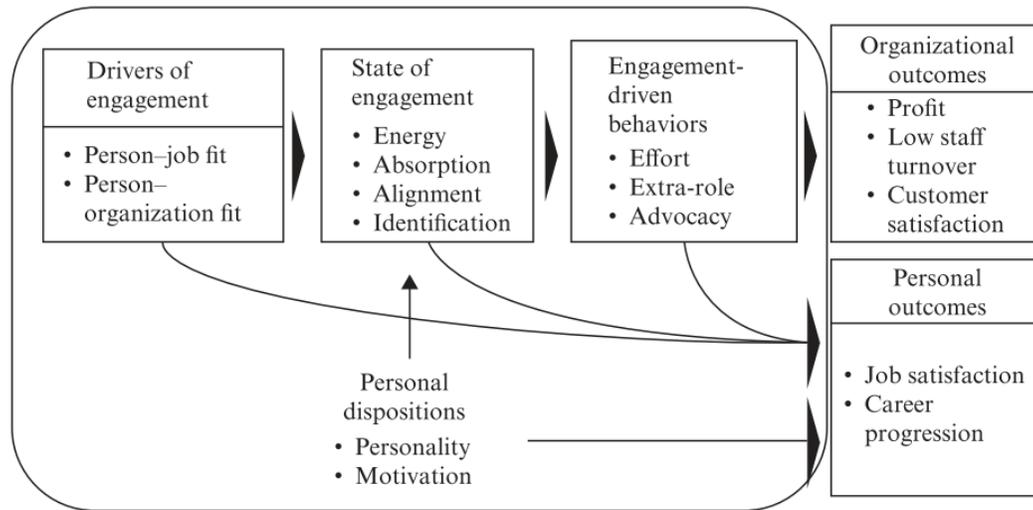
Figure 2-7 Fleck and Inceoglu (2008) model

The authors stated that employee engagement could predict employee performance, organizational success, and improved financial achievement (e.g. return on investment for shareholders). On the other hand, it has been reported that employee engagement is declining and disengagement among employees is increasing (M.Saks 2006). There are even some reports about employees in the USA, almost 50% of whom, are less than fully engaged or are disengaged in the workplace, which leads to a dilemma known as the "engagement gap" (Gebauer, Lowman, & Gordon. 2008). The loss in productivity of the industry calculated for this problem is roughly US$300 billion annually (M.Saks 2006).

Study 7

The article by Rich, Lepine, and Crawford (2010) introduced a complete explanation of the relationship between job engagement and performance in a narrower aspect. This study was conducted among 245 firefighters and their supervisors. Their hypothesis was supported and the conclusion was that engagement mediates the relationship between perceived organizational support, core self-evaluation and two performance dimensions: task performance (In-role performance) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) or extra-role performance. They also examined the mediating role of job involvement, job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation in which none of them exceeded the engagement as a

mediator.

Study 8

Similarly to the Rich, Lepine, and Crawford (2010) study a study by Rurkkhum and Bartlett (2012) confirmed the association of employee engagement and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

Study 9

A model of engagement management was introduced by Gruman and Saks (2011). They suggested that improving performance could be best attained only when the performance management system fosters employee engagement. This model shows how employees can become more engaged and consequently can improve their performance (Figure 2-8).
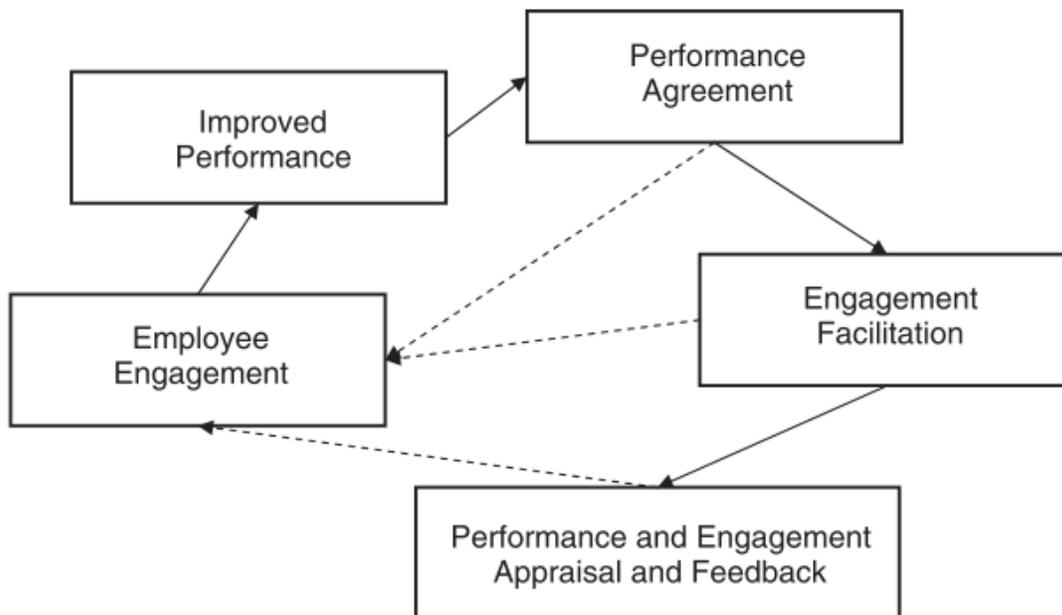
Figure 2-8 Performance and engagement appraisal and feedback

Note: Arrows around the circumference of the model represent the engagement management process. Dotted lines denote the drivers of employee engagements.

Study 10

The working environment and relationship with coworkers were claimed to be strong determinants of employee engagement (Anitha 2014). The purpose of Anitha's (2014) study was to identify the key determinants of employee engagement and emphasize the importance of employee engagement. The author investigated variables like workplace well-being, compensation program, team and relationship with coworkers, leadership, working environment, policies and procedures and training and career development as predictors of engagement. Of these, working environment and team and relationship with coworkers had the strongest impact on employee engagement.

Employees feel obliged to reciprocate perceived organizational and supervisor support for the benefits they have gained from their supervisor or organization (M.Saks 2006). Previous studies have illustrated that a better quality of supervisor-employee relationship enhances employee work motivation, attitude, and behavior (Hsieh & Wang 2015). It actually makes employees more engaged in their work and improves work results and outcomes.

Study 11

Similarly, a study by Breevaart et al. (2015), which was conducted among 847 Dutch police officers, examined the relationship of leader-member exchange with employee performance. They integrated the LMX theory and resource theories. They hypothesized that the relationship between LMX and job performance is mediated by job resources (autonomy, development opportunities, and social support) and employee engagement. They concluded that employees had high-quality LMX relationships in work environments that are more resourceful (i.e. development opportunities and social support are higher, but not higher autonomy). When the workplace is more resourceful, it triggers work engagement and job performance.

Study 12

With regard to leader and employee relationships, Hsieh and Wang (2015) examined the relationship between authentic leadership and employee engagement with the mediating role of employee trust. This was a dyadic study, which examined both supervisor and employee perception of authentic leadership. The results indicated that employee trust fully mediated the relationship between supervisor-perceived authentic leadership and employee engagement. In addition, employee-perceived authentic leadership fully mediated the relationship between supervisor-perceived authentic leadership and employee trust. Also, employee-perceived authentic leadership fully mediated the relationship between supervisor-perceived authentic leadership and employee engagement. Furthermore, at the individual level, employee-perceived authentic leadership was partially mediated by employee trust in its relationship with employee work engagement.

In recent decades, managers believe that engaged employees can bring about significant changes in organizations in terms of creativity and innovation, effective performance, competitiveness and eventually business achievement. Organizations expect their employees to be active, independent and capable. They want employees to collaborate smoothly, be responsible for their professional growth and committed to high quality and standard performance. Thus, they need employees who are energetic, dedicated and absorbed in their job, in other words, organizations need engaged employees (A. Bakker &Schaufeli, 2008). This point was illustrated in Ulrich (1997)'s effective and innovative book *Human Resources Champions*. Employee contribution becomes a critical business issue because in trying to produce more output with less employee input, companies have no choice but to try to engage not only the body but the mind and soul of every employee.

2.6 IN-ROLE AND EXTRA-ROLE PERFORMANCE

Previous researchers divided employee performance into two types: in-role and extra-role performance (Williams & Anderson 1991). In-role performance concerns the tasks assigned to employees by their company, whereas extra-role performance refers to the roles beyond the expectations of the company. The importance of extra-role performance is evident in the literature (Williams & Anderson 1991, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne 1998; Sosik, Juzbasich, & Chun 2011; Zhang, Guo, & Newman 2017).

A widespread definition of extra-role performance is organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Bateman, & Organ, (1983); Smith, Organ & Near, (1983); Organ, (1988), (p. 4) described OCB as discretionary work of individuals in the organization, which is not directly or clearly known in the reward system and generally leads to improvement of organizational performance. A discretionary job in OCB means that it is a work, which is not explicitly required or defined in the job contract. Werner (2000) suggested that OCB or extra-role performance and in-role performance should be distinguished despite there being a positive correlation between these two variables. Werner (2000) defined in-role performance as "consistently fulfilling the role, which is required in one's job". He identified in-role performance as the synonym of task performance. However, OCB is discretionary; nevertheless, it too can improve the performance of the organization. Therefore, the important issue here is to know what encourages OCB in organizations.

Earlier studies have introduced motivators for OCB, including depositional attributions and also cognitive predictors of OCB (Organ, 1988). Personal dispositions behaviors are individual traits that influence OCB but are not related to organizations (George, & Brief 1992; Organ, 1990). Affectivity is known as an important disposition for OCB. Cognitive antecedents have attracted many debates among scholars, most of whom were focused on fairness and perceptions of individuals ((Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1988,1990) in Hui, Law, and Chen, 1999).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is divided into two different categories: Behavior towards Individuals (OCBI) and Behavior towards the Organization (OCBO). Examples of OCBI include helping colleagues in their job, and those of OCBO are punctuality and preservation of organizational resources (Decoster et al., 2014).

2.7 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

2.7.1 Corporate culture and engagement

Despite the existence of many studies on corporate culture and engagement, there are few studies that have examined competing value framework (CVF) with employee engagement. As such, more research is needed to further expand the knowledge of the range of antecedents to engagement (Saks, 2006; Christian et al., 2011).

Conscious efforts should be made to use corporate culture in a way to direct the organization towards its goals. As always has been the case, managers should implement this control strategy in the best possible way. It is evident that proper implementation of the culture can potentially and effectively promote loyalty, enthusiasm, conscientiousness and dedication to the organization (Axtell Ray 1986), which overlap with the definition of engagement. Engagement is characterized as "vigor, dedication and absorption" (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Furthermore, previous research studies have suggested that job resources (e.g. supervisory coaching, performance feedback, job control, and social support) and personal resources (e.g. self-efficacy and optimism), are the main drivers of work engagement due to their motivational potential (Arnold B. Bakker et al. 2008; Arnold B Bakker, & Demerouti 2008; Halbesleben, 2010). Besides, corporate culture is considered as a method of job control in many studies (Axtell Ray, 1986; Guiso, Sapienza, & Zingales 2015; S.Saffold, 1988; Sørensen, 2002; Taormina, 2009; Wilkins & Ouchi 1983). Therefore, it might be concluded that corporate culture predicts engagement at work.

The relationship between CC and engagement is evident in the literature. For example, Macey et al. (2009), stated that work engagement is determined by the organizational culture in two ways: i) the way the employees are treated would create and liberate energy for employees and   ii) how they can apply this energy towards competitive advantage with the focus on the strategic goals of the organization. Corporate culture is a control management tool (Axtell Ray, 1986) and a component of implementing strategy (Thompson et al., 2012) in organizations. Job control is one of the major drivers of all the components of work engagement, that is, vigor, dedication, and absorption (Arnold B Bakker & Demerouti 2008).

The link between corporate culture and engagement was examined by Reis, Trullen, and Story (2016). This study used the competing value framework (CVF) to assess corporate culture. The relationship between the four components of organizational culture (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy) and employee engagement with the mediating role of authenticity was investigated by Reis et al. (2016). The results interestingly indicated that the components of organizational culture, which seem more participative and inclusive (i.e clan and adhocracy), had no correlation with authenticity. On the other hand, cultures with more order, control and stability (i.e. hierarchy and market) showed a corelation with authenticity. Additionally, authenticity at work mediated the relationship between hierarchical and market culture with work engagement. The results of this study are important because as we can see, hierarchy and market cultures, which are the more common cultures in public organizations (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Cardador & Rupp, 2011), are less likely to provide opportunities for employees to act independently at work. Therefore, these kinds of culture reduce the level of personally meaningful work and consequently, result in less employee engagement.

As it was described in previous sections, the Competing Value Framework (CVF) divided culture into four categories (Clan, Adhocracy, Market, and Hierarchy). The CVF, as the name reflects, could help managers to detect and understand the different

categories of culture and use them for "value creation activities". As illustrated in the figure (2-9) below each culture type has its value drivers and leadership style, which are consistent with some antecedents of engagement.

- For instance, in the Clan quadrant, leader type is "facilitator, mentor, and team-builder", which is consistent with job recourses (performance feedback, social support, and supervisory coaching), especially "facilitator and social support" and "mentor and supervisory coaching" are similar terms and can be predictors of engagement in the Clan culture.

- In the Adhocracy quadrant, the value drivers are "innovative outputs, transformation, and agility" and the leader type is "innovator, entrepreneur and visionary". These are comparable to the personal resources of "optimism, self-efficacy, resilience, and self-esteem" and some categories of job resources (e.g. autonomy) as antecedents of engagement.

- In the Hierarchy or control quadrant, the value drivers can also be interpreted as personal resources, which are predictors of engagement, for instance, efficiency and "consistency and uniformity" are comparable to "self-efficacy, resilience, and self-esteem".

- In the Market or compete quadrant, the value drivers are "market share, goal achievement, and profitability" and the leadership type is "hard-driver, competitor and producer"; here, "goal achievement" and "producer" are consistent with self-efficacy as personal resources.
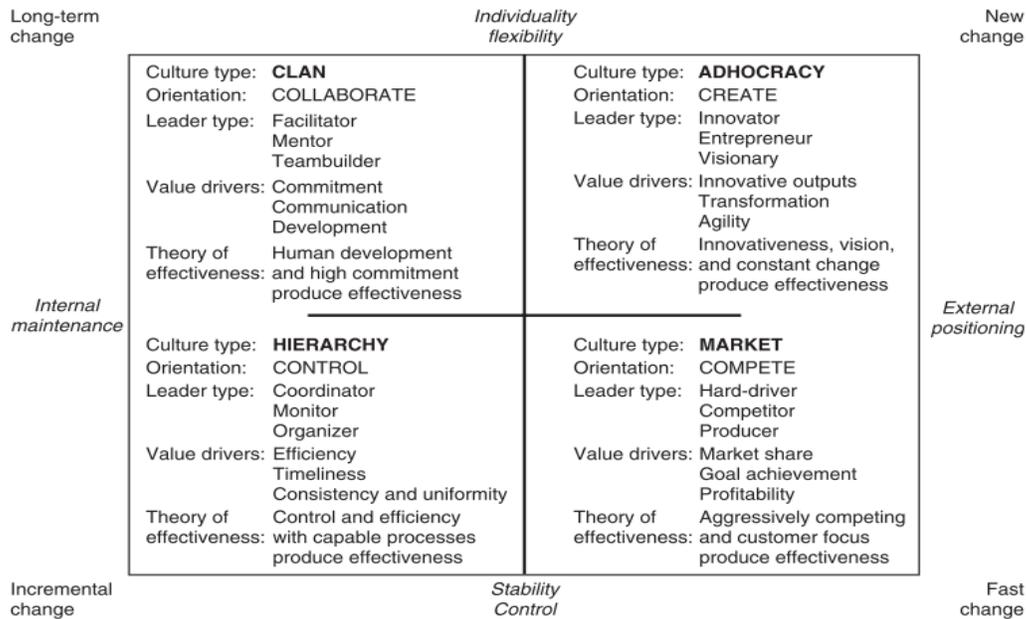
Figure 2-9 Competing Value Framework

Ethical organizational cultures were investigated in the Huhtala et al. (2015) study as an explicit form of organizational culture that comprises values and ethical behavior in organizations. It is based on Solomon's virtue-based theory (2004) and the cultural theory of Schein (1990). They have verified that there is an association between corporate ethical values and engagement and burnout of employees, at the individual and unit level in public sector organizations.

Interestingly, despite the existence of theoretical and empirical evidence of the relationship between corporate culture and employee engagement, there is a lack of studies that explicitly examine these relationships. Thus, based on the above-mentioned literature, it seems likely to find correlations between corporate culture and employee engagement; Hence the hypotheses:

H1a: *Clan culture predicts employee engagement.*

H1b: *Hierarchy culture predicts employee engagement.*

H1c*: Market culture predicts employee engagement.*

H1d: *Adhocracy culture predicts employee engagement.*

2.7.2 Corporate culture and performance

The link between organizational culture and performance has been studied for years and continues to date, e.g. Denison (1984); E. G. Flamholtz et al. (2012); Jacobs et al. (2013); S. Kim et al. (2004); S.Saffold (1988); Shahzad et al. (2017). However, there is no study that examined the correlation between the competing value framework (CVF) of culture and employee in-role and extra-role performance.

The main notion that culture can influence organizational performance is based on several key ideas. First, culture enhances goal attainment; more precisely, organizations with "strong" cultures are more likely to attain their goals compared with organizations with "weak" cultures (S.Saffold 1988). They also have more market value, financial value, and financial performance because of the link of culture with motivation. Flamholtz (2005) called culture "human capital of the third kind" and stated that it is a significant element for organizational financial success.

It has already been established in the literature that corporate culture can predict performance, but each study has examined this relationship from a different viewpoint. Some of these studies like the dated study by Schneider (1987) mentioned the role of local organizational culture as opposed to the national or international culture of the organization, and its influence on performance. This study was in line with research works by Hofstede (1985), and Wilkins and Ouchi (1983), which claimed that, specific components of the local organizational culture are more significant than others, and that some local organizational cultures are more vital to performance in one scope of the organization compared to others. Similarly, it is established that the value system of the organization is influenced by the local culture.

S. Saffold (1988) approaches culture by investigating its contextual elements and linking it to performance with the use of the "strong culture hypothesis". The "strong culture hypothesis" of Denison (1984) suggested that a universal phenomenon such as organizational culture influences the organizational performance. "Strong" cultural

models, however, oversimplify the relationships. If scholars want to analyze the link between culture and performance accurately, they should utilize more appropriate measurements of the effect of culture, taking into account the organizational processes affecting performance that are cultural in nature. According to S. Saffold (1988) the contextual approach to the culture-performance link, for acquiring a strong culture is as follows:

1- Environment formation
2- Behavioral control
3- Strategy design
4- Social efficiency
5- Organizational learning
6- Integration and differentiation
7- Leadership

Although these components are not comprehensive, scholars need to analyze them in order to understand the culture-performance link. It is suggested that it may be more important to study the processes of culture rather than cultural traits. As it has been illustrated, one of the components that links corporate culture with performance is behavioral control, which is the kind of control that this study tries to emphasize through the integration of humor in the context of behavioral control.

In a review study of values and cultures in organizations, O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) developed an instrument called Organizational Culture Profile (OCP), which contains 54 different values. This measurement determines an employee's preferences for the organizational culture and how a person can fit and be embedded in a special organizational culture. This approach, with the use of new assessments and longitudinal studies, attempted to determine to what extent individual cultural fits with the organizational culture influence job satisfaction, intention to leave and turnover of employees. The results of this study confirm the importance of person-organization fit for obtaining better outcomes, while different value elements of OCP have been found to be

related to performance (S. Kim et al., 2004).

Sørensen (2002) states that a strong organizational culture is best at escalating changes, and also results in performance consistency; however, problems arise when environments are unstable. In other perspectives, it is the industry's changing aspects that determine the values and culture of an organization. For instance, in hospitals teamwork is important; in insurance companies individual tasks are significant and in manufacturing a humanistic view of culture is vital. In some cases, the strength of corporate culture is correlated with the company's performance.

In another study, organizational culture was defined in terms of twelve kinds of behavioral norms and the cultural style of the employees were described accordingly. The instrument was adapted from a validated inventory called organizational culture inventory (OCI) conducted by Human Synergistic International (Cooke & Szumal 2000). These twelve behavioral norms are divided into three categories- constructive, passive/defensive and aggressive/defensive styles of culture. Results illustrate that positive culture and negative culture correlate with individual- and organizational-level performance. A dysfunctional or negative cultural style will influence efficiency and effectiveness at both individual and organizational levels (Balthazard, Cooke, & Potter 2006). Different authors have used different terminologies; some use the terms "strong" and "weak" cultures and others call these "constructive" and "dysfunctional" cultures. In any case, these studies show the important role of culture in performance effectiveness and efficiency, financial success, etc.…

There is strong evidence to support the association of organizational culture and performance (Denison, 1984; E. G. Flamholtz et al., 2012; Jacobs et al., 2013; S. Kim et al., 2004; S. Saffold, 1988; Shahzad et al., 2017). For example, the approach of social culture and its influence on performance were examined by S. Kim et al., (2004). The relationships between team culture and organizational performance were also investigated in English acute hospitals (Jacobs et al., 2013). Jacobs et al. (2013) used a competitive value framework (CVF) to confirm the influence of four types of culture on

team performance. Valmohammadi and Roshanzamir (2015) investigated the mediating role of Total Quality Management (TQM) between organizational culture (CVF) and performance. In the study by E. G. Flamholtz et al. (2012), it was stated that corporate culture (CC) is a strategic asset. If utilized properly, it can be the key for business success. In another study by Jogaratnam (2017), the influence of organizational culture on market orientation and organizational performance was confirmed.

Corporate culture received much consideration due to its impact and potential effect on organizational achievement (Rashid, Sambasivan, & Johari, 2003). A helpful, dynamic, and persistent culture is the basis of productivity (Chen, 2010; Flanagan, 2010). Creating the appropriate culture fulfills a few critical needs. First, it passes on a feeling of character to organizational members. Second, it inspires employee commitment (Nelson, 2011). Third, it enhances the stability of an organization. Fourth, it fills in as a sense-making tool that can guide and shape behavior in an organization (Oyemomi et al., 2016).

Despite the evidence related to the association of culture and performance, the question remains: What mechanisms of culture influence the performance of employees? The studies summarized earlier involved strategy, structure, leadership, and culture. They illustrated their separate influence on both organizational and individual performance. There is a lack of research with a comprehensive model encompassing all these variables and their influence on employee performance. In reference to those mentioned above and the wide range of literature about culture and performance, it is expected that:

H2a: Clan culture predicts in-role and extra-role performance.
H2b: Hierarchy culture predicts in-role and extra-role performance.
H2c: Market culture predicts in-role and extra-role performance.
H3d: Adhocracy culture predicts in-role and extra-role performance.

2.7.3 Positive supervisor humor and engagement

Previous studies have not investigated the different contextual variables, which may

enhance employee engagement in a specific culture. Since positive humor is a construct, which is known as a social lubricant and creates a positive mental state (E. J. Romero & Cruthirds 2006), it may enhance the engagement of employees in different cultural settings. One of the objectives of this study is to examine the moderating role of humor between corporate culture and engagement.

Existing research suggested that humor and fun lead to enhanced performance and job satisfaction and can also reinforce employee engagement in the workplace (Fluegge-woolf 2014; Mesmer-Magnus, Glew, & Viswesvaran 2012; Plester 2009).

It has also been suggested that utilizing humor may be a signal of self-confidence, which shows the person has enough control over his or her social environment (Zeigler-Hill, Besser, & Jett 2013). Playful and humorous behavior can generally help individuals to expand their social resources that can be used when they need social support, cooperation or any kind of provision (Van den Broeck et al., 2012).

The social capital theory suggests that the development of one's social relationships acts like an investment with returns in the future in a reinforced and amplified form (lin, 2001). Humor, because of its role in enhancing relationships, especially between employees and supervisors (C. Cooper 2008), can help employees to gain personal and social resources (Robert & Wilbanks 2012). Also, the broaden-and-build theory postulates the role of positive emotions in building personal resources, because positive emotions trigger "momentary thought-action repertoires" (Fredrickson 2001). The more personal resources, ranging from physical to psychological, the employee can gain, the more engaged they might be (JD-R model). As it has been mentioned in the JD-R model, job resources and personal resources predict work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). The different job characteristics that are explicitly considered as beneficial are known as job resources (e.g., autonomy, social support, etc.), (Arnold B Bakker & Demerouti 2008)). Job resources can prevent or decrease burnout and increase job engagement. This study used the "conservation of resources" theory (COR) by Hobfoll (1989) to interpret the relationship between the

study variables. This is a theory based on the motivation of employees and aims to conserve resources by building better relationships between employees and supervisors. This will allow employees to acquire new resources in a different organizational culture leading to improved performance. Especially leader self-enhancing and affiliative humor may be fit to this model because they are among dispositional types of behavior that reflect caring towards oneself or others (R. A. Martin et al., 2003).

Based on these theories (JD-R & COR), it is expected that leader affiliative and self-enhancing humor enhance the motivation of employees and make them more engaged (Van den Broeck et al., 2012). Considering the research by Martin et al. (2003) and Avolio et al. (1999) about humor and also the COR theory, it is expected that supervisor humor and work engagement are correlated:

H3: Perceived supervisor humor has direct relationship with employee engagement

2.7.4 Positive supervisor humor and performance

Duncan (1982) illustrated the influence of humor on communication and group cohesiveness, employee relations and power distance, and individual performance. A study by Avolio, Howell, and Sosik (1999) has revealed that humor moderates the relationship between leadership style and performance. Avolio (1999) declares that leader humor improves affection and has a motivational role; it lightens the atmosphere of the company and helps employees to discuss their understanding about the expectation towards the performance. There is also evidence that humor can improve performance through generating happiness in employees (Karl et al., 2005; Mesmer-Magnus, Glew, and Viswesvaran, 2012; Plester, 2009). The link between happiness and "work productivity and well-being" is evident in the literature (Fisher, 2010; Lucas, 2001). Fisher (2010) has ascertained the role and benefits of happiness in the workplace at different levels of analysis. Happy employees may create more resources, which can generate healthier and more determined staff. Furthermore, happy employees are more cooperative and show altruistic behavior, which creates a pleasant environment for their

colleagues; that in turn would win them emotional and social support from their co-workers (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2010). This is in line with the "broaden-and-build theory" (Fredrickson, 2004), which suggests that positive emotions will help people create sustainable resources.

Hence, having happy employees in the organization is crucial, especially when job demands are high. Humor, as a variable which triggers happiness and well-being (Carretero-dios et al., 2014), might cause employees to gain resources and use them in high demand situations like stressful situations. Since our study is in hospital settings, where the employees are continuously under pressure to give better service to patients, finding a way to have happier employees would help them to be more efficient.

It is suggested that humor decreases the perceived superiority and thus causes a closer relationship between leaders and followers. This encourages a relationship that is opener and freer, which results in enhanced group performance (Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce 2009). There are plenty of studies in leadership literature, carried out in well-known companies such as Southwest Airlines, Ben & Jerry's Ice Cream, and Sun Microsystems, which exemplify the use of humor by leaders and confirm its role in enhancing employee commitment, cohesiveness, and performance (e.g. C. Cooper 2008; C. D. Cooper, 2005; Mathies & Chiew, 2016; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012).

There is both empirical (Avolio, Howell, and Sosik 1999) and circumstantial evidence (Caudron 1992) that humor is related to enhancing performance in the workplace. Companies are becoming more aware of the role of humor in the workplace and how it can influence performance, control stress and encourage teamwork and creativity (Holmes, 2007).

According to Romero, and Pescosolido (2008), it is expected that successful organizational humor would positively improve outcomes like productivity, viability, and development. They suggested that proper types of humor (affiliative and self-enhancing) make communication easier and create a sense of psychological safety, thereby leading to

group effectiveness.

Besides, Fredrickson (2001) broaden-and-build theory can help to interpret the role humor in the workplace, as this theory stated "positive emotions broaden the scopes of attention, cognition, and action and that they build physical, intellectual, and social resources". In addition, OCB or extra-role behavior is expected to have a stronger correlation with leader humor because humor enhances the affection of employees towards their supervisor and consequently the workplace. Considering the above reasoning and also the theory it is expected that:

H4: Supervisor humor in the workplace correlates with in-role and extra-role performance

2.7.5 Mediating role of Engagement

Previous research suggests that engaged employees typically perform better than others in the workplace (Fleck & Inceoglu, 2010; May et al., 2004; Saks, 2006; Shuck & Reio, 2011). Saks (2006) pointed out that engaged employees are more dedicated, productive and satisfied in the workplace. Furthermore, Fleck and Inceoglu (2010) suggested that engaged individuals are more absorbed in their job, prioritize their job over other things, and invest time and effort to perform their role in the organization. W. Kim et al. (2012) proposed that work engagement has a positive direct or indirect effect on employee performance in the organization.

The "Social Exchange Theory" (SET) argues that reciprocal behaviors between parties who interact in workplaces, make obligations for them to make it up to each other. For example, when an employee receives resources from their company, it makes them feel obligated to respond to or compensate the organization. The fundamental principle of SET theory is that the relationship can create loyalty, trust, and mutual commitment over time. Several other studies similarly confirm the mediating role of engagement between its antecedents and outcomes, for example, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004a); and

Sonnentag, (2003).

Furthermore, the "conservation of resources" (COR) theory of Hobfoll (1989) indicates that people are interested in acquiring, maintaining and preserving their resources (e.g. sovereignty, social support, the opportunity for development) (Breevaart et al., 2015).

Several studies focused on OCB as the outcome of work engagement; for example, Rurkkhum, and Bartlett (2012) found support for the positive correlation between engagement and all the elements of OCB. They mentioned altruism, consciousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue as components of OCB. Furthermore, Soane et al. (2012) suggested that OCB has the potential to be the outcome of employee engagement, because engaged employees usually have positive affection and enthusiasm to show helpful behaviors. Their study is in line with that of Rich, Lepine, and Crawford &2010), which shows empirical evidence of the engagement-OCB relationship (Rana, Ardichvili, & Tkachenko 2014).

M. Saks (2006) in his study on antecedents and outcomes of engagement suggested that engagement partially mediates the correlation of its antecedents and consequences. As mentioned earlier, organizational culture, as a control variable, is an antecedent of engagement. Moreover, based on previous studies, organizational culture and performance are correlated (Denison, 1984; E. G. Flamholtz et al., 2012; Jacobs et al., 2013; S. Kim et al., 2004; S.Saffold, 1988; Shahzad et al., 2017). It is therefore expected that engagement mediates the relationship between organizational culture and in-role and extra-role performance. Referring to the above-mentioned theories and evidence, we postulate that:

H5: Employee engagement mediates the relationship between corporate culture and in role and extra-role performance.

2.7.6 Moderating role of supervisor humor in corporate culture-performance link

A study by Malone (1980) on supervisor humor, proposed that effective use of humor enhances the managerial process and performance. Several researchers have suggested a moderating effect for the proper use of humor (Avolio, Howell, & Sosik, 1999). One of the most tested attributes of humor is its moderating effect on reducing the effect of stress on employee performance (Hughes & Avey 2009). Furthermore, the role of humor in leadership style towards the effectiveness of leadership has been emphasized (Holmes & Marra 2006; Hughes & Avey 2009).

Corporate culture is an essential tool for harmonizing workplace relationships, through providing common values and beliefs, which help align employee interests in order to prevent opportunistic behaviors (Ouchi 1980). Culture is a lever and control managerial tool that can probably be manipulated to promote engagement (Reis, Trullen, & Story 2016) and consequently performance. Moreover, corporate culture acts as a corporate "glue" which holds different parts of the organization together by encouraging coherence and unity. Considering the role of corporate culture and its correlation with performance and also because humor can enhance group cohesiveness, communication, leadership and creativity and reduce stress, it is likely that humor has a buffering role in the relationship between corporate culture and performance, hence:

H6: Supervisor humor moderates the relationship between corporate culture and performance

2.7.7 Moderating role of supervisor humor in corporate culture-engagement link

Previous studies have suggested that job resources (e.g. supervisory coaching, performance feedback, job control and social support) and personal resources (e.g. self-efficacy and optimism), are the drivers of work engagement, due to their motivational potential (Arnold B. Bakker et al., 2008; Arnold B Bakker, & Demerouti, 2008; Halbesleben, 2010). Job resources are predictors of work engagement and leader humor

has the potential to assist individuals in enhancing their relationship with their supervisors and consequently gaining more resources.

According to Ouchi (1980), corporate culture is defined as "an essential tool to harmonize workplace relationships, in a way that common values and beliefs help to create harmony and alignment between common points of employees' interest, which will prevent opportunistic behaviors."

The moderating effect of humor was mentioned by Avolio (1999). Besides, Martin et al. (2003) confirmed the role of positive humor in enhancing relationships. Since positive humor (affiliative and self-enhancing) reduces stress, enhances relationships and improves interactions (Mesmer-Magnus, Glew, & Viswesvaran 2012), it may cause employees to gain more resources and consequently become more engaged. It is expected that different elements of corporate culture in the CVF framework, give different results. For instance, in a strict culture like hierarchy, interactions are limited and the stress level is high or even strict rules may not let employees interact properly; in such a context, humor might have a moderating role, thus, we posit that:

H7: *Supervisor humor moderates the relationship between corporate culture and engagement.*

2.8 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Figure (2-10) illustrates the conceptual framework of the variables and their relationships in this study.
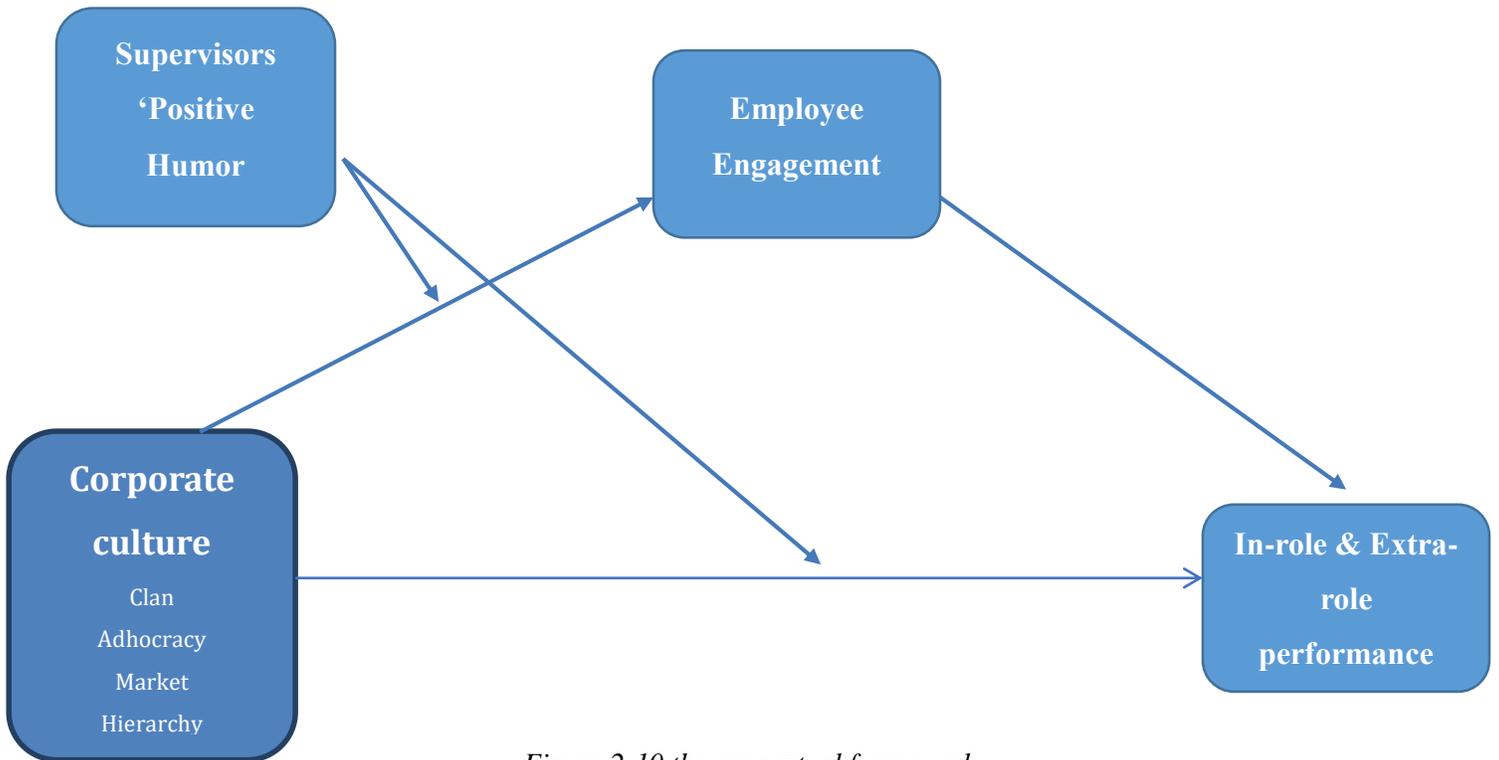
Figure 2-10 the conceptual framework

2.9 UNDERPINING THEORIES

2.9.1 Conservation of Resources Theory (COR)

Our study used the Conservation Of Resources Theory (COR) by Hobfoll (1989), which interprets the relationship between the study variables. This is a theory based on the motivation of employees and aims to conserve resources by building better relationships between employees and supervisors. This will allow employees to gain new resources in a different organizational culture leading to improved performance.

2.9.2 Other related theories

Corporate Ethical Value (CEV) model- Our study uses the CEV model (Corporate Ethical Value) suggested by Kaptein (2008), the basis of which is the virtue-based theory (Solomon, 2004) and the cultural theory of Schein (1990). Kaptein (2008) extended these theories from individual level to organizational level. Kaptein (1998) believes that organizations too should have some virtues and values that lead to an ethical behavior by the employee. Organizational virtues are divided into eight components in the above-mentioned studies which consist of: i) Clarity; ii) Congruency of managers; iii) Congruency of supervisors; iv) Feasibility; v) Supportability; vi) Transparency; vii) Discussability, and viii) Sanctionability. The CEV model has been used to show the relationship between ethical culture and engagement (Huhtala, Tolvanen, & Mauno 2015). It has demonstrated that companies, which have some kind of virtues and values, make employees feel more connected and engaged.

This theory can be related to the conceptual model of this study in a way that when managers use positive kinds of humor, employees may feel more connected to their supervisors. This can represent a kind of ethical culture in an organization and can explain the relationship between corporate culture and engagement with the moderating role of the positive humor of supervisors.

Charismatic Leadership Theory- The Charismatic Leadership Theory highlights the importance of the emotional state, values and the behavior of the leader in "making events meaningful for followers"(Yukl, 1999). Furthermore, this theory can explain the relationship between supervisor and employees during interactions. Supervisors who are perceived as humorous can have better relationship with their subordinates, and might persuade and influence their subordinates to perform better. This kind of managers might be considered as charismatic leaders.

Comprehension-elaboration Theory- Recently there is a new theory in psychological literature called Comprehension-elaboration Theory. This theory remarks that the process of amusing the target of the humor consists of two phases, comprehension and elaboration. The first, is defined by how difficult the humor is to be comprehend; second, is the elaboration phase, containing cognitive elaboration of the consequences of reinterpreting the situation and subsequent stimulus of the feeling of amusement (Cooper, 2008). This theory expresses the mechanism of humor and how it can amuse others or the person himself.

Similarity Attraction Theory- Previous research on the Similarity Attraction Theory illustrated that people are attracted to someone whose behavior and beliefs are similar to theirs ((Byrne, 1971; Pundt, & Herrmann, 2014). Individuals always seek and befriend people who share common attributes. If a supervisor is humorous, subordinates who feel similarities in their character with the supervisor will be attracted to him/her.

Social Exchange Theory (SET)- Social Exchange Theory by Blau (1964) describes how relationships among different variables take place via the reciprocity process. The perceptions of employees as to whether their organizational culture is rewarding or punishing, is reflected in their behavior. Research has shown that organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) can be explained by the reciprocity behavior of employees as an exchange for the positive feeling they get from their leaders or respective company (Decoster et al., 2014; Huynh, Xanthopoulou, & Anthony 2014).

Social Cognitive Theory-The relationship between corporate culture and in-role and extra-role performance can be explained by the Social Cognitive Theory, in which the environment influences individual behavior (Bandura, 1991).

Virtue-based Theory of business ethics-This is a theory by Solomon (2004), which is in line with the Cultural Theory of Schein (1990). It highlights personal integrity, which should be supported by the ethical values and practices of the work community. Kaptein (2008) extended Solomon's theory from individuals to organizations, underlining that also organizations need to possess certain characteristics (virtues) that encourage ethical actions. This theory is appropriate to explaining the relationship between corporate culture and OCB and also corporate culture and engagement.

Resource-based Theory- By emphasizing the role of human capital as the most important asset in organizations (Gabčanová, 2011), this theory can explain how this resource can help organizations to deliver competitive advantage.

2.9.3 Humor theories

Incongruity theory- This theory indicates that humor is primarily the result of an unusual sort of behavior which contradicts the expected situation, and the ability of the person who receives this kind of behavior to understand and resolve this incongruity makes it funny and interesting (Mathies & Chiew 2016)**.**

Humor takes place when one perceives a condition, which is real or intentionally formed by someone and creates a sort of absurdity and the receiver embraces it with his or her sense of humor.

Relief Theory- It looks at humor as a phenomenon which releases overwhelming feelings about a social taboo, illness, death, sex or poverty. For the reason that these feelings are beyond social boundaries and uncontrollable by individuals, jokes provide a situation that enables people to overcome their overwhelming feelings. The prerequisite for this kind of

humor is the existence of an undesirable situation.

Superiority Theory- This theory of humor is based on the belief that people's interactions consist of daily competitions, which have winners and losers. Humorous events are competitions that mainly the winners enjoy although there is not necessarily any malicious intent involve. For example, these kinds of humor can be about the silliness, clumsiness or ignorance of others, and the motivation may be because of what they gain in the interaction. The most common forms of this type of humor are aggressive and self-enhancing humor (Mathies & Chiew 2016)**.**

2.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter reviewed the literature and focused particularly on the constructs and variables related to this study. The existing evidence and related theories, supporting and justifying the relationship between the variables proposed in this study, were explained. The current gaps in knowledge and previous research were identified.

The current study tries to answer the question of how managers and policymakers can reinforce the organizational culture towards having better engaged employees and consequently achieving improved performance. Despite the existing evidence of the role of corporate culture as predictor of engagement and performance, there is still a need for this type of study in order to examine these relationships in different settings.

This study adopted components from Cameron and Freeman's (1991) and (K.S. Cameron & Quinn (2005) studies, which are widely used in the organizational culture literature and divided corporate culture into four categories: i) Clan; ii) Adhocracy; iii) Market, and iv) Hierarchy. The study fills the gap in the literature by investigating the relationship between the four categories of culture and in-role and extra-role performance of employees, through the mediating role of engagement.

Furthermore, this study introduces the notion that leader humor can influence the culture and bring people together, leading to more efficient and effective performance. In fact, the main intention of this study is to emphasize the role of the humor construct in the workplace, which has rarely been studied and is unknown by many managers and scholars despite its importance. Although humor has already been introduced as a managerial tool, it has been taken for granted. There is ample evidence in the literature that humor is correlated with enhancing relationships, group cohesiveness, stress reduction, creativity, performance, organizational culture and leadership (Mesmer-Magnus, Glew, & Viswesvaran, 2012). As humor is a construct which is without any costs or trade-offs, it can be utilized in the workplace, just by making managers and leaders aware of it. Through using humor, organizations may have more engaged employees and consequently enjoy better performance. It can act as a social lubricant in enhancing relationships between supervisors and employees. There is a lack of studies that examine the role of humor and its influence as a moderator on the relationship between corporate culture and engagement and also its moderating role between corporate culture and performance. In fact, this study emphasizes how business owners and leaders can convert a weak culture into a strong culture for better outcomes such as improved employee performance.

CHAPTER III

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

As stated in the previous chapters, the purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between corporate culture and in-role and extra-role employee performance with the mediating role of engagement. Also, this study investigates the moderating role of supervisor humor on the relationship between corporate culture, engagement, and performance.

This chapter describes the research area, research design, sampling method, and the instruments. Data collection methods, validity, and reliability of the questionnaire, and pilot study are also explained in this chapter.

3.2 RESEARCH AREA

This study is an integration of several research areas. First, it investigates the different types of corporate culture in public hospitals in Palermo, Italy. Then it will investigate supervisor humor and its influence on the relationship between corporate culture, engagement and in-role & extra-role performance.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

De Vaus (2001) has stated, "The function of the research design is to ensure that evidence obtained enables us to answer the initial question as unambiguously as possible" (P.9), hence an appropriate design provides credible results. Durrheim (2004:29), identified research design as a strategic framework for execution which links research questions

with the implementation of the research strategy. Leedy & Ormrod (2010) characterized research design as a blueprint for the study, delivering a complete framework for gathering data.

Since this study is going to test the research hypotheses using a closed-ended questionnaire, quantitative research methods are applied (Newman and Ridenour 1998).

This is a cross-sectional study, as it is going to distribute the questionnaire at a single point in time to a sample drawn from an identified population (Krosnick 1999).

The research strategy is survey-based. Since survey-based studies are often used to describe and explore human behavior, they are frequently used in social and psychological research (Singleton & Straits, 2009). This type of research allows for a variety of methods to recruit participants, collect data and diverse instruments to be applied (Ponto Julie 2015).

This study has used a questionnaire to investigate its variables. The five main variables in the study are: 1- corporate culture; 2- ssupervisor humor; 3- engagement; 4- in-role performance; and 5- extra-role performance or organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

In brief, this is a survey-based quantitative cross-sectional study, which investigates corporate culture, supervisor humor, engagement, and in-role and extra-role performance of the sample, with a close-ended questionnaire. Data is going to be gathered using a five-point Likert scale (Table 3.1).

3.4 STUDY POPULATION, SAMPLING FRAME, CLUSTER

This study will be conducted among public hospitals in Palermo, Italy. There are six public hospitals in the city of Palermo, as follows:

- Universateria Policlinico Paolo Giaccone Di Palermo

- Pamafir centro medico plurispecialistico

- Casa di cura candela

- Azienda Ospedaliera Ospedali Riuniti Villa Sofia Cervello

- Ospedale civico Palermo

- Ospedale Buccheri da Ferla

Unfortunately there was no accurate information about the number of personnel for these six public hospitals; however, according to the human resource management at Civico hospital, almost 6000 personnel work at public hospitals in Palermo. Therefore, it is assumed that the target population is around 6000.

"Universateria Policlinico Paolo Giaccone Di Palermo" is the university hospital, at which we plan to distribute around 300 hardcopies of the questionnaire in different hospital departments. The questionnaires will be distributed, after having acquired the authorization of the hospital management. According to the management staff, they have almost 1500 (Clinical & Non-Clinical) employees.

"Ospedale Civico Palermo" had also accepted to distribute the questionnaires among the employees through their work email. According to the human resource manager of the hospital, they have more than 1500 personnel as well.

For two of the other hospitals namely: Villa Sofia and Cervello (Azienda Ospedaliera (Ospedali Riuniti Villa Sofia & Cervello), permission was taken to distribute 250 hard copies of the questionnaires to the personnel. The number of employees in these two hospitals, which were under one administrative office, was around 1200.

In order to get authorization for distributing the questionnaires to the two other hospitals, the administrative offices were contacted by email and also in person. However, unfortunately, they either gave no response or refused to collaborate for the study.

Although the target population were 6000, this study had only access to around 4200 personnel; therefore, the sampling frame is 4200. The sample should be extracted from the frame, not from the target population. In theory, the frame population and the target population should be the same, however, in practice, the goal is to minimize the difference between the two, since it is sometimes simply not possible to reach all the target population (Black 2010).

Personnel were divided into clinical and non-clinical. Clinical personnel consist of physicians, nurses, medical interns, therapists, technicians, pharmacists, etc. and non-clinical employees include executives, accountants, information technology, administrative assistants, etc.

3.4.1 Sample selection

In order to choose a proper type of sampling first different categories of sampling should be defined. Generally, there are two types of sampling technique, probability, and non-probability sampling.

3.4.2 Probability sampling

In probability sampling, each unit of the population has an equal probability or non-zero chance to be selected. There are four types of probability sampling:

a) **_Simple random sampling_**- a simple random sample is a subgroup of a statistical population, in which each representative of the subgroup has an equal probability of being selected. A simple random sample is deemed to be an unbiased image of a group (S. K. Thompson 2012).

b) **_Stratified sampling-_** If the population chosen for sampling is heterogeneous, which is common in large-scale data sets, it might be possible to group the individuals into so-called "homogenous strata", meaning that the items in each of these groups (strata) are similar to one another (homogeneous) (Meng 2013). For example (Figure 3-1) illustrated the homogeneous and heterogeneous groups in the sample which are stratified by age.
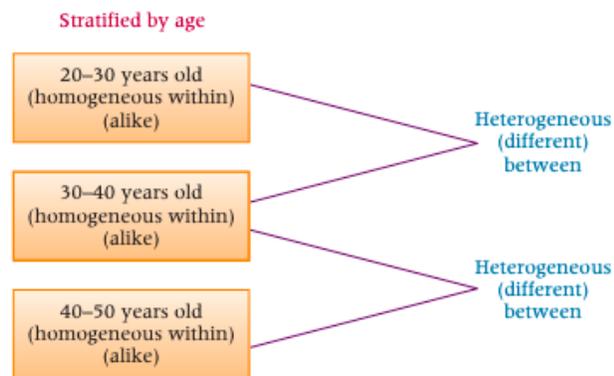
Figure 3-1 Example for stratified sampling

.

c) *Systematic sampling-* Systematic sampling is a random sampling technique. It is used because of its convenience and simplicity of administration (Black 2010). In systematic sampling, the researcher chooses every k^{th} item to produce a sample size of n from the population of N. The value of k which sometimes called the sampling cycle can be determined with the formula as follows (Figure 3-2):

DETERMINING THE VALUE OF k $\qquad k = \dfrac{N}{n}$

where

n = sample size
N = population size
k = size of interval for selection

Figure 3-2 Formula to caculate systematic sampling

d) *Cluster sampling-* Cluster (or area) sampling divides the population into non-overlapping areas or clusters. However, it is different from stratified sampling. In Stratified sampling each stratum is homogenous but in cluster sampling they are heterogeneous. In fact, each cluster is a miniature of the target population. Examples of cluster sampling are using cities as samples for the country or using some areas of a city as samples for the whole city (Figure 3-3).

Figure 3-3 United states cities as clusters

3.4.3 Non-probability sampling

Non-probability sampling, as opposed to probability sampling, does not give equal chance to every unit to be included; however, it is vastly used, because it is cheaper and faster to implement (Etikan 2016).

There are two kinds of nonprobability sampling:

a) *Convenience sampling*- Is a non-probability sampling, where sample units are selected because of their convenient accessibility in terms of geographical vicinity, availability at a certain time, or inclination to participate in the study (Etikan 2016).

b) *Purposive sampling*- Ritchie et al., (2003) defined purposive sampling technique as a strategy that "Members of a sample are chosen with a purpose to represent a location or type in relation to the criterion" (p. 77). Similarly, according to Etikan (2016), "The purposive sampling technique, also called judgment sampling, is the deliberate choice of a participant due to the qualities the participant possesses". Unlike probability (random) studies, which deliberately contain diverse groups of participants with different backgrounds and experiences, the focus of purposive sampling is on people with specific characteristics who will be capable to contribute to the research at hand. Accordingly, for this study, people with a minimum education level of high school diploma were selected. Since this study is going to investigate employee perceptions of the culture in public hospitals, supervisor humor, engagement, and in-role and extra-role performance**,** the sampling method would be homogenous purposive sampling. Subjects were asked about their relevant experiences in these areas. Homogenous purposive sampling is focused on the similarity between participants, for example in terms of age, education, culture, job or life experiences (Table 3-1).

Research Type	Data Collection Method	Time Horizon	Research method	Research Approach	Research Philosophy
Quantitative	Survey	Cross Sectional	Purposive Sampling	Deductive	Positivism

Table 3-1 Research design

3.4.4 Sample size

According to Hair et al. (2010) for each question at least five respondents are essential and more precisely according to Bartlett et al. (2001) conservative approach is the rule of ten; thus since the questionnaire contains 56 questions, at least 280 usable responses are needed. There are controversies in the literature about the sample size, which depends on the method of data analysis. The above-mentioned construct is appropriate for the use of structural equation modeling (SEM), which will be employed to determine the correlations between variables in this study (Christopher Wessttland 2010).

This study is planning to distribute hardcopies of questionnaires to the employees of the hospitals which have given the authorization. Multiple contacts, presence of the researcher, incentives, and sponsorship of the research have substantial influences on response rates (Fincham 2008). As mentioned previously, the sampling population is 6000 and the sampling frame is 4200 among public hospitals in Palermo, Italy.

3.5 STUDY INSTRUMENTS

This study has used a survey-based method for data collection. Five main measurements have been studied: 1- corporate culture; 2- supervisor humor; 3- engagement; 4- in-role performance; and 5- extra-role performance or organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

The survey on supervisor humor, engagement, and in-role and extra-role performance was performed using a closed-ended questionnaire and data were gathered using a five-point Likert scale.

Corporate culture- The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) by Cameron & Quinn (2005) is a widely used instrument to assess corporate culture. This questionnaire includes 24 items. (van Eijnatten, van der Ark, and Holloway 2015). In this measurement, organizational culture is divided into six domains, namely, dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphasis, and criteria for judging success, which together assess four organizational culture types (Clan, Adhocracy, Market, and Hierarchy). Each domain consists of four questions (Reis, Trullen, and Story 2016). Sample questions of this measure in the domain of "dominant characteristics of the organization" are:

1-The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.

2-The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.

3-The organization is very results-oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement-oriented.

4-The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.

This study is going to use a normative (Likert scale) for organizational culture.

Leader's humor- This study has used the five-item questionnaire designed by Avolio et al. (1999) which had also been used in some other previous leadership studies ((Jung & Avolio 1999); Dubinsky et al., 1995). It measures the leader's use of humor in terms of

behavioral frequency. Sample item is: "My supervisor uses humor to take the edge off during stressful periods". The standardized coefficient alpha for these items reported in related previous research was 0.90 (Avolio et al., 1999b; Dubinsky et al., 1995).

Work engagement measurement- The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) has been used to assess employee engagement in this study (Schaufeli et al. 2002). The Utrecht scale is one of the most popular measurements for engagement in academic literature. This measurement is based on three dimensions of engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption. This categorization is used in this study for work engagement as well (A.B. Bakker et al. 2007).

This measurement is a self-report questionnaire, which contains 18 items: 6 items are related to the vigor dimension, 6 items are for the dedication dimension and 6 items for the absorption dimension of engagement. However, there is a short version of this questionnaire by Schaufeli & Bakker (2003) containing 9 items, which was used in this study. The example questions for the vigor, dedication and absorption dimensions are: "At my work, I feel bursting with energy", "I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose" and "Time flies when I am working" respectively. The reliability and validity of this scale have been evaluated by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004b).

In-role and extra-role performance- These variables are measured by an 18-item questionnaire created by Williams & Anderson (1991). This questionnaire consists of three parts and each part has 6 questions. The first part is related to in-role performance, a sample question of which is "I adequately complete my assigned duties". The remaining 12 questions are about OCB or extra-role performance. They have divided OCB into two parts:

- One part is about citizenship behavior toward the benefits of the organization which is called OCBO; a sample question for this part is "My attendance at work is above

the norm"

- The second part is about organizational behavior with regard to benefits towards other individuals or co-workers in the organization, which is called OCBI; a sample question is "I help others who have been absent".

In each case, we have used Likert-scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Cronbach (α) is calculated in Turnley et al. (2003) study, which for in-role performance (α=.93), for OCBO (α=.83) and finally for OCBI (α=.88).

3.5.1 Adapting and translation of the questionnaire

As mentioned earlier, the questionnaire was translated to the Italian language, and for the adaptation, forward and back-translation method suggested by Banville, Desrosiers, and Genet-Volet (2000) was used and also got confirmation from bilingual professionals. According to Meadows (2003) "Semantic equivalence" signifies that each time the questionnaire is translated into another language, it should be culturally equivalent to its origin.

Cultural differences influence language (Geng 2010), for instance, in their concepts, expressions, idioms, and common terms. Hence, literal translation of a questionnaire can be inappropriate because it may result in distortion of the intended meaning and miscomprehension of the concept (Bullinger et al. 1993). For this reason, it is important to provide the translator with descriptions of the meanings of special terms and keywords beforehand in order to inform them of the purpose of the questions to avoid conceptual mistakes (Meadows 2003).

Most of the time, researchers use existing questionnaires or adapt one from the literature. This may enable researchers to compare their results to other studies; however, some consideration should be done when adopting a questionnaire. First of all, adopting

an existing questionnaire for a different place or a different group may have serious effects on the reliability and validity of the questionnaire . If the reliability and validity have been approved for a particular setting in other studies, they should be tested for, when the questionnaire is applied to a different setting. That is why it is recommended that researchers do a pilot test before distribution of the questionnaires. Figure 3-4 illustrates the important factors to be considered in the process of translation of a questionnaire into another language (Meadows 2003).
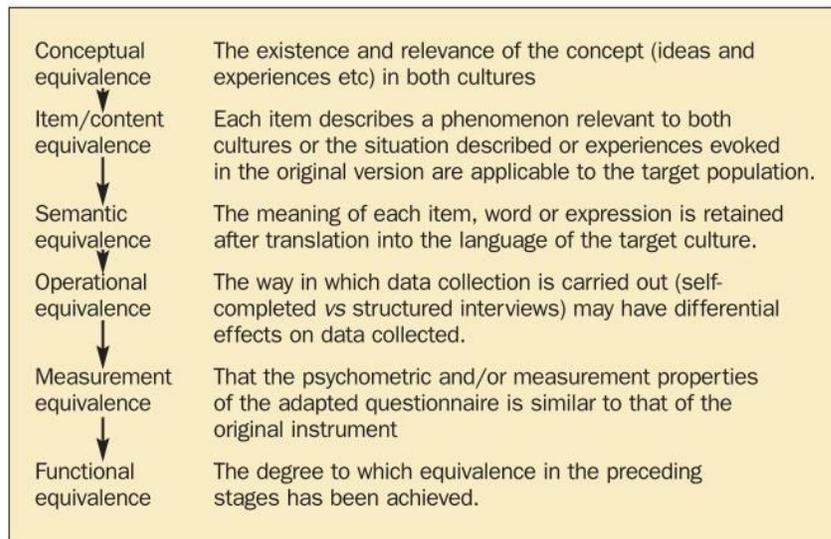
Figure 3-4-Types of cross- cultural equivalence of a questionnaire (Meadows 2003)

3.5.2 Validity and reliability

As already mentioned, the reliability and validity of the questionnaire should be tested, especially when it is translated into another language and is to be used in a different country. There are different methods for analyzing a questionnaire in order to test it for reliability and validity.

*Reliability-*An important characteristic of quantitative data is the reliability of the collected data, which refers to the consistency of measurements for each variable

(Mertler, 2006). In other words, if one variable is measured multiple times, everytime it should give almost the same result. Each item should measure the same construct in any one measurement; this kind of reliability test is called internal consistency and shows the consistency among different items. Another type of reliability analysis is confirmatory factor analysis, which checks for "the composite reliability and the average variance extracted" (hair et al. 2010).

Several reliability coefficients have been described. The one most commonly used is Cronbach's alpha. According to Nunnally (1978), Cronbach alpha should be a minimum of 0.70 to indicate internal consistency; however other researchers like Field (2005) stated that values below 0.70 could also be acceptable in psychological constructs, because of the variety in this kind of measurement.

Validity- Is a critical feature in each research, which illustrates how correctly measures or instruments of data collection, represent the concept of the study. It also measures any systematic or non-random errors. In other words, are the collected data appropriate for the study? According to Hair et al. (2010), there are four types of validity; content validity, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and nomological validity.

Content validity or face validity- is the "assessment of the degree of correspondence between the items selected to constitute a summated scale and its conceptual definition".

Convergent validity- Assessment to determine the correlation between two measures from the same concept. If the correlation is high, it specifies that the scale measures the intended theory.

Discriminant validity- Assess two different concepts that supposedly are not related but

may be conceptually similar. Researchers perform this test to make sure these two concepts are unrelated; therefore, the correlation should not be high.

Nomological validity- is a form of construct validity, which illustrates the theoretically supported relationships between different variables or constructs in a study, by referring to the interpretation of theories and prior empirical studies. These variables should be logically unrelated.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION

The procedure of data collection involved: 1- preparation of the questionnaire (translation and ascertaining face validity), 2- obtaining permission from the authorities to carry out the pilot test 3- providing respondents with an adequate explanation as to how to answer the questions as well as assuring them of anonymity and confidentiality of their information. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire were confirmed with the use of SPSS and/or Smart-PLS software, before it was distributed to the target sample, that is, public hospital employees in Palermo, Italy. It is important not to change the sequence of the questions because it may impact the validity and reliability of the instrument.

3.6.1 Pilot test

The initial intention of the pilot test is to make sure about the validity and reliability of instruments and questionnaires. The pilot test is conducted on a small number of eligible respondents before distributing all the questionnaires (Leplege and Verdier 1995; Guillemin et al. 1993). The pilot study, also called a feasibility study, is used to test a specific instrument and the trustworthiness of its respondents for the sake of collection of the necessary research data. One of the benefits of implementing a pilot study before distributing all the questionnaires is to detect any problems, for example, confusing items in the proposed questionnaire or instrument (van Teijlingen and Hundley 2001). Also, it is important to perform a pilot test to investigate the validity and reliability of the

questionnaire.

3.6.2 Primary data analysis

After the questionnaires are returned, and for testing the hypotheses, I will deploy the Smart-PLS software, which is an appropriate and practical software for the calculations needed in structural equation modeling. PLS measures the correlations between latent variables by making standardized regression coefficients for model routes (Avolio, Howell, and Sosik 1999). SEM technique (cf. Wold, 1985) is a method that can separately and simultaneously calculate correlations for each dependent variable. In other words, it can estimate a series of multiple regression analyses concurrently. PLS calculates canonical correlation, or covariate-based structural equation modeling (Garson 2016). A more detailed description of the different techniques used to analyze our data will be presented in the next chapter.

3.7 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the methodology and research design of this study were elucidated. Detailed information regarding the sampling method and the use of the questionnaire were provided. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire have been explained. The proper instruments that are widely used to quantify the variables measured in this study were described. In the next chapter, the findings of this study are presented, the data are analyzed and the research hypotheses are proposed.

CHAPTER IV

4. RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter outlined the research methodology. The selected instruments were discussed; validity and reliability of instruments, sampling, pilot test, and statistical analysis were described. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between corporate culture and in-role & extra-role performance. In addition, the impact of moderated mediation role of supervisor humor and job engagement on this relationship was investigated. The independent variable of this study is corporate culture which has four types based on the CVF model Cameron & Quinn (2005) consists of (Clan, Adhocracy, Market, and Hierarchy). The dependent variables of this study are in-role and extra-role performance of employees. The mediating variable is engagement (Vigor, Dedication, and Absorption). Finally, the moderating variable is supervisor humor. This chapter describes the data analysis followed by a discussion of the research findings. By analyzing the relationships between the variables, hypotheses are being tested to answer the research questions.

This study was conducted in four different public hospitals in Palermo-Sicily in Italy. Ospedale di Policlinico, which is a public university hospital, had the highest number of respondents. Which was because during questionnaire distribution and also the follow-up visits, I was accompanied by two of the university administrative office personnel. We distributed 320 questionnaires in 18 departments in this hospital, 180 of which were returned. This indicates an acceptable response rate of 56%. During data screening some of the filled in questionnaires were omitted because of some problems (outliers). In some cases the respondents did not reply to most of the questions, and in

others they responded all the questions with the same answer. Therefore, in total, 168 usable questionnaires were used for analyzing the data.

From the three other hospitals, namely Villa Sofia, Cervello, and Civico, a total of 153 usable questionnaires were collected. The administration of Civico hospital preferred that the questionnaires be distributed via email; therefore, an online questionnaire was published on Google Forms and the link was sent to the personnel by the hospital administrative office. Only 36 filled in questionnaires were returned by the employees from this hospital, 29 of which were usable. The administration was more cooperative at Villa Sofia hospital and authorized me to distribute 100 hard copies of the questionnaire to their personnel. Ninety questionnaires were returned and 82 of those were usable. The response rate for this hospital was very high (90%) because one of the nurses of that hospital accompanied me during the distribution of the questionnaires and also followed up on them. Also, at the Cervello hospital 100 questionnaires were distributed and 60 of them were returned, that is, a response rate of 60%. 42 of them were usable for data analysis.

The questionnaire consists of 56 questions from 5 different constructs: organizational culture, engagement, supervisor humor, in-role & extra-role performance. The demographic data will be used as control variables.

The questionnaire comprised of four sections and the data generated will be presented as follows:
- The first section comprises demographic data such as gender, age, experience, department and education.
- The second section comprises questions related to organizational culture for the four categories of CVF (Cameron & Quinn, 2006), namely 1- Clan culture 2- Market culture, 3-Adhocracy culture and 4- hierarchy culture. There were six questions for each of these categories.
- The supervisor humor section contains 5 questions adopted from Avolio et al. (1999).

- In the third section, engagement of employees was measured by the Utrecht Work Engagement scale (UWES), which consists of 9 questions (Schaufeli, Salanova, et al. 2002).

- In-role and extra-role performance was measured using the 18 item questionnaire created by Williams & Anderson (1991). This questionnaire consists of 6 questions to assess in-role performance of employees. The remaining 12 items are for assessing extra-role performance or organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Of these six questions were to assess organizational citizenship behaviour toward the organization (OCBO) and the other six assessed organizational behaviour related to benefits towards individuals or co-workers in organizations (OCBI).

4.2 QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS SOFTWARE

Two widely used statistical software, that is, SPSS 23 mac version and Smartpls 3 were implemented for data analysis. The latter was specifically used for Structural Equation Modeling (SEM).

4.2.1 Preliminary data analysis

As mentioned in the introduction the subjects of this study were employees from the following hospitals in Palermo, Italy:

- Universateria Policlinico Paolo Giaccone Di Palermo

- Azienda Ospedaliera Ospedali Riuniti Villa Sofia

- Ospedale Cervello Palermo

- Ospedale civico Palermo

Respondents were medical doctors, nurses, interns, assistants and also non-clinical and administrative personnel. University hospital of Policlinico had the highest response rate with 168 people. Since it was a university hospital and the head of administrative office was also a professor at the university, he asked me to separate the questionnaires for each department so that they could use the results for their future decision-makings. Therefore, in the first part of this study, we are going to separate the demographics of this hospital from the others. The respondents were 168 individuals from 18 different departments. In the second part, the demographics of the other three hospitals will be illustrated. For the second part of analyses the demographic data of 153 respondents from the other three hospitals were illustrated.

4.2.2 Demographics at the Policlinico Hospital

Participants were asked to provide seven different demographic information including gender, age, job experience, education and department.

Gender:

The gender distribution was 49.4% male and 50% female, with one missing value. (Table 4-1)

<table>
<tr><td colspan="6" align="center">**Gender:**</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td>Frequency</td><td>Percent</td><td>Valid Percent</td><td>Cumulative Percent</td></tr>
<tr><td>Valid</td><td>Male</td><td>83</td><td>49.4</td><td>49.7</td><td>49.7</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Female</td><td>84</td><td>50.0</td><td>50.3</td><td>100.0</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Total</td><td>167</td><td>99.4</td><td>100.0</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Missing</td><td>System</td><td>1</td><td>.6</td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" align="center">Total</td><td>168</td><td>100.0</td><td></td><td></td></tr>
</table>

Table 4-1 Gender of respondents

Age:

The age of the respondents was categorized into five ranges including 18-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55, and 56 years old and more (Table 4-2). The 46-55 year-olds comprised the category with the highest number of respondents (26.8% of total).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
				Age:	
Valid	18-25	13	7.7	7.8	7.8
	26-35	40	23.8	24.0	31.7
	36-45	34	20.2	20.4	52.1
	46-55	45	26.8	26.9	79.0
	56 and more	35	20.8	21.0	100.0
	Total	167	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.6		
Total		168	100.0		

Table 4-2 Ages of Participants

Figure 4-1 illustrates the distribution of age among Policlinico hospital personnel.
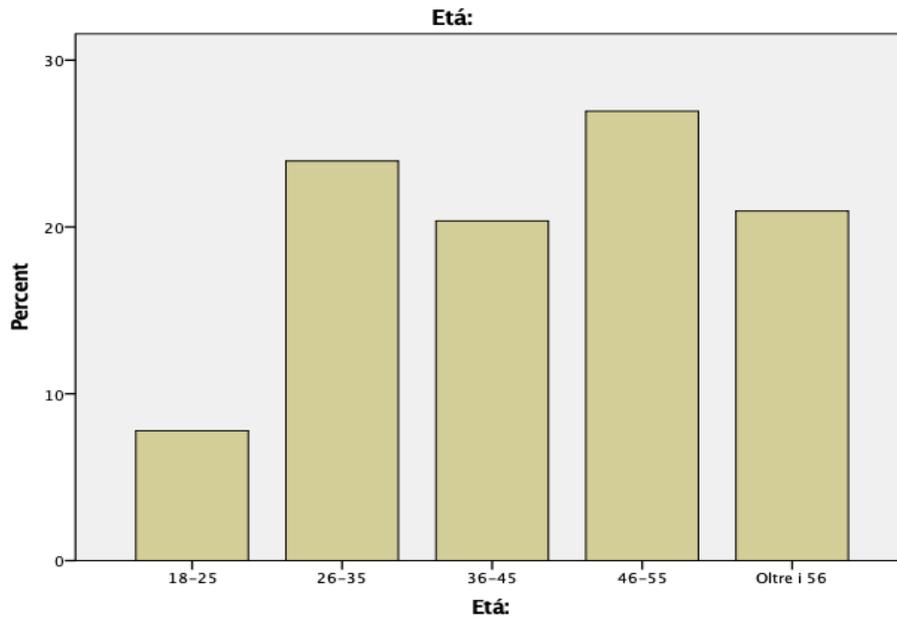
Figure 4-1 Chart of the ages of participants

Job experience:

Years of job experience were categorized into five ranges including 1-5 (25.6%), 6-10 years (8.9%), 11-15 (10.1%), 16-20 (13.7%), and finally more than 21 years of experience, which at 41.1% had the highest percentage of participants in this study. This is appropriate to get more accurate results from this study, because more experienced individuals might have a better view of their organization (Table 4-3).

Job experience:					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-5	43	25.6	25.7	25.7
	6-10	15	8.9	9.0	34.7
	11-15	17	10.1	10.2	44.9

	16-20	23	13.7	13.8	58.7
	More than 21	69	41.1	41.3	100.0
	Total	167	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.6		
Total		168	100.0		

Table 4-3 Job experience year

Education level:

The four categories of education level were high school diploma, bachelor's degree, master's degree and doctorate or PhD degree. The percentage for each category of education is demonstrated in the table below. The highest percentage was that of bachelor's degree at 42.9%, then high school diploma at 25%, followed by doctorates and master's degrees at 17.3% and 14.3% respectively (Table 4-4).

Education Level:					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percen t	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High school diploma	42	25.0	25.1	25.1
	Bachelor's degree	72	42.9	43.1	68.3
	Master's degree	24	14.3	14.4	82.6
	Medical doctor/Specialist/ PhD	29	17.3	17.4	100.0
	Total	167	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.6		
Total		168	100.0		

Table 4-4 Participants education level

Figure 4-2 below illustrates the valid percentage of each category of education among participants.
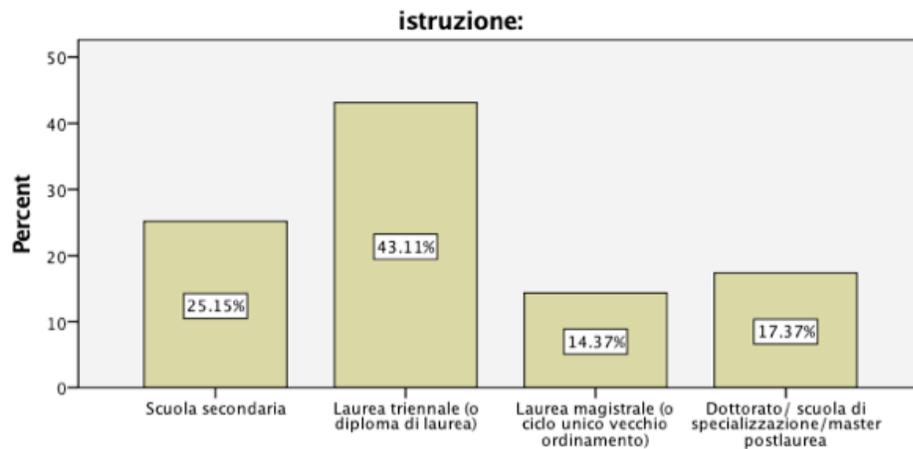
Figure 4-2 Participant's education level

Departments in Policlinico hospital:

Eighteen departments (wards) in the Ospedale Policlinico university hospital responded to the questionnaires. The CICU ward had the highest rate of participants at 18 individuals or 10.7% of the participants followed by the ward for infectious diseases at 8.3%. Table (4-5) illustrates each department's name and the corresponding percentage of participants. The CICU ward is a Cardiological Intensive Care Unit, specializing in the management of patients suffering from acute cardiac disease (Table 4-5).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Name of the Department					
Valid	Emergency surgery	12	7.1	7.2	7.2
	Hematology	10	6.0	6.0	13.2
	Cardiology	13	7.7	7.8	21.0
	Hemodynamics	10	6.0	6.0	26.9
	Cardiac Intensive Care Unit (CICU)	18	10.7	10.8	37.7
	Cardiac surgery	12	7.1	7.2	44.9
	Infectious diseases	14	8.3	8.4	53.3
	Orthopedics	9	5.4	5.4	58.7
	Internal medicine	2	1.2	1.2	59.9
	Oncology	7	4.2	4.2	64.1
	Gynecology	7	4.2	4.2	68.3
	Obstetrics & Gynecology	3	1.8	1.8	70.1
	Geriatrics	5	3.0	3.0	73.1
	Residents	11	6.5	6.6	79.6
	Operating rooms	12	7.1	7.2	86.8
	Technical Area	7	4.2	4.2	91.0
	Vascular surgery	8	4.8	4.8	95.8
	Neurology	7	4.2	4.2	100.0
	Total	167	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.6		
	Total	168	100.0		

Table 4-5 Respondents in each hospital ward

Department category:

This study classified the departments to clinical and non-clinical. The table below illustrates that 82.1% of the participants worked in clinical wards and 17.3% in non-clinical departments (Table 4-6).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Department:					
Valid	Clinical	138	82.1	82.6	82.6
	Non-Clinical	29	17.3	17.4	100.0
	Total	167	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.6		
	Total	168	100.0		

Table 4-6 Department categories

Job Category:

In this study professions were also sorted into clinical and non-clinical. Non-clinical jobs signify the administrative personnel. As illustrated in the table below, 83.3% of the participants had clinical professions and only 14.9% were in non-clinical jobs (Table 4-7).

Relief Theory regards humor as a relief for psychological energies that otherwise would be used to overwhelm feelings related to societal taboos such as illness, poverty, death, stress or sex (Mathies and Chiew 2016).

Since the stress level is usually high in clinical jobs and that one of the objectives of this study was to examine supervisor humor and its impact on engagement and performance of employees, it was important for us to make the distinction between clinical and non-clinical employees in our data analysis.

Profession:					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Clinical	140	83.3	84.8	84.8
	Non-Clinical	25	14.9	15.2	100.0
	Total	165	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.8		
Total		168	100.0		

Table 4-7 Profession categories

4.2.3 Demographics of the other three hospitals (Villa Sofia, Cervello, Civico)

Gender:

Similar to Policlinico, the participants at the other three hospitals were asked to provide six different demographic pieces of information including gender, department type, profession type, age, job experience, and education. The gender distribution was 37.9% male and 47.7% female and 14.4% did not specify their gender (Table 4-8).

Gender:					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	58	37.9	44.3	44.3
	Female	73	47.7	55.7	100.0
	Total	131	85.6	100.0	
Missing	System	22	14.4		
Total		153	100.0		

Table 4-8 Gender in three hospitals (Villa Sofia, Cervello, Civico)

Age:

The age of the respondents was categorized into five ranges including 18-25 with 8%, 26-35 with 22%, 36-45 with 18%, 46-55 with 52% (the highest percentage) and 56 years old and more with 38% of total among the different age groups. 15% of the participants did not mention their age range (Table 4-9).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-25	8	5.2	5.8	5.8
	26-35	22	14.4	15.9	21.7
	36-45	18	11.8	13.0	34.8
	46-55	52	34.0	37.7	72.5
	56 and more	38	24.8	27.5	100.0
	Total	138	90.2	100.0	
Missing	System	15	9.8		
Total		153	100.0		

Table 4-9 Age range at Villa Sofia, Cervello, Civico hospitals

Figure 4-3 illustrates the bar chart for the age of participants.
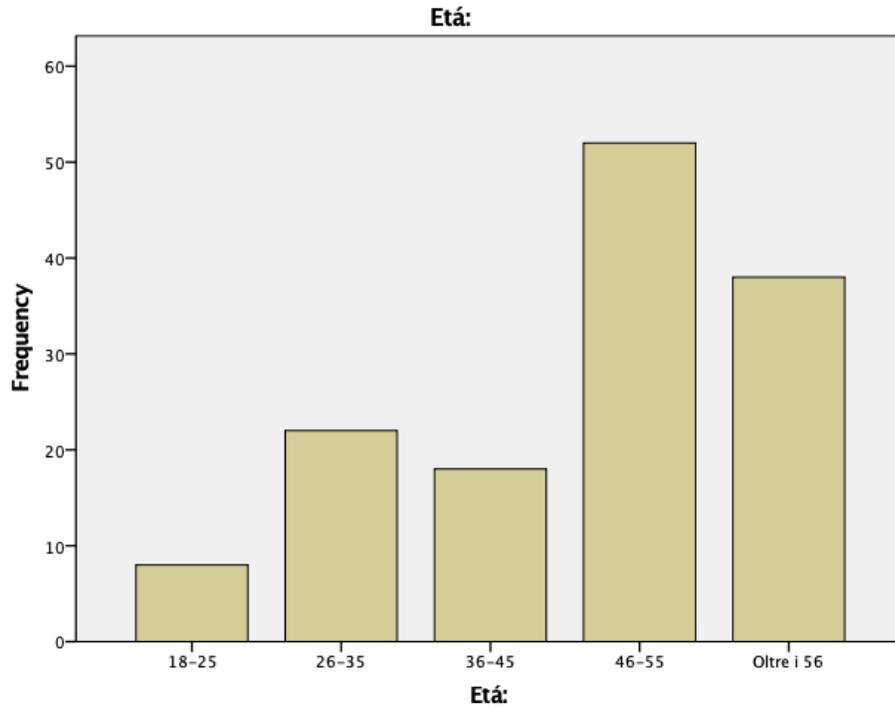
Figure 4-3 Age range (Villa Sofia, Cervello, Civico hospitals)

Job experience:

Years of job experience were categorized into five different ranges including 1-5 years (0.7%), 6-10 years (92.8%, which was the highest percentage among participants from these hospitals), 11-15 years (0.7%), 16-20 years (0%), and finally 21 years and more of experience (5.2%)(Table 4-10).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Job experience (Year):				
Valid	1-5	1	0.7	0.7	0.7
	6-10	142	92.8	93.4	94.1
	11-15	1	0.7	0.7	94.7
	More than 21	8	5.2	5.3	100.0
	Total	152	99.3	100.0	

Missing	System	1	0.7		
Total		153	100.0		

Table 4-10 Job experience years

Education level:

The following four categories of education level were differentiated: high school diploma, bachelor's degree, master's degree and doctorate or PhD degree. The percentage for each category of education is demonstrated in the table below. The highest percentage for these three hospitals (Villa Sofia, Cervello, Civico), similar to Policlinico hospital, was that of bachelor's degree at 26.8%, which was followed by doctorate degree at 20.3%, master's degree at 17.6% and high school diploma at 15%. Almost 20% did not indicate their level of education (Table 4-11).

Education Level					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High School Diploma	23	15.0	18.9	18.9
	Bachelor's Degree	41	26.8	33.6	52.5
	Master's Degree	27	17.6	22.1	74.6
	Medical Doctor/ Specialist/ PhD	31	20.3	25.4	100.0
	Total	122	79.7	100.0	
Missing	System	31	20.3		
Total		153	100.0		

Table 4-11 Level of education

Figure 4-4 illustrates the bar chart for the education level of participants.
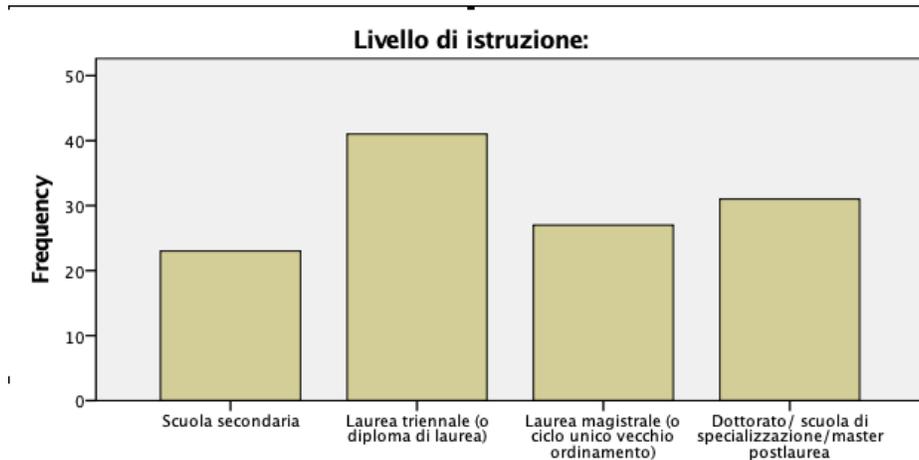
Figure 4-4 Bar chart of level of education

Department category:

The table below illustrates that 79.1% of the participants were working in clinical wards and 10% in non-clinical departments. 10.5% percent of the participants did not mention their job category (Table (4-12)).

Department:					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Clinical	121	79.1	88.3	88.3
	Non-Clinical	16	10.5	11.7	100.0
	Total	137	89.5	100.0	
Missing	System	16	10.5		
Total		153	100.0		

Table 4-12 Department category

Job category:

In these three hospitals, as with Policlinico, the majority (75%) of the respondents had a clinical job, which is more appropriate for this study (Table 4-13).

Category of profession:					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Clinical	115	75.2	85.2	85.2
	Non-Clinical	20	13.1	14.8	100.0
	Total	135	88.2	100.0	
Missing	System	18	11.8		
Total		153	100.0		

Table 4-13 Job category

4.3 PILOT TEST

The main intention of the pilot test is to ascertain the validity and reliability of the instruments and questionnaires. It is conducted on a small number of eligible respondents before distributing all the questionnaires (Leplege and Verdier 1995; Guillemin et al. 1993). For this research, the pilot test was implemented on the first 30 responses to assess the validity of the questionnaire. Convergent validity and reliability of the initial responses were calculated through determination of the correlation between the items of the instruments, all of which showed a Cronbach alpha of more than 0.7 except for extra-role performance, which was 0.61. However, at this stage we did not remove any items because the reliability will increase with a higher number of responses. Although, Field (2005) stated that values below 0.70 could also be acceptable in psychological constructs, because of the variety in this kind of measurement. Therefore, our questionnaire was suitable for data collection for this study.

4.4 DATA SCREENING FOR ALL THE SAMPLE

4.4.1 Missing data

The percentage of missing data for all the items is less than 5%; therefore it is appropriate to replace them with the mean of the same item. According to Hair et al. (2010) one of the imputation methods for dealing with missing data is replacing them with the mean of the same series of that missing item. As the missing data for this study is missing completely at random (MCAR) it will not create any bias problems (Table 4-14). Replacing missing data with the mean is one of the most widely used imputation methods among scholars. Hair et al. (2010) asserted that when the missing data is below 10% any imputation method could be applied.

Univariate Statistics							
				Missing		No. of Extremes[a]	
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Count	Percent	Low	High
Charcteri1	322	3.668	.9397	0	.0	3	0
Characteri2	322	3.202	1.0076	0	.0	0	0
Characteri3	320	3.453	1.0222	2	.6	12	0
Characteri4	314	3.347	1.0379	8	2.5	15	0
Leadership1	322	3.081	1.2969	0	.0	0	0
Leadership2	318	3.069	1.1841	4	1.2	0	0
Leadership3	322	3.245	1.0555	0	.0	24	0
Leadership4	322	3.447	1.1569	0	.0	21	0
Gestione1	320	3.525	1.2542	2	.6	31	0
Gestione2	322	3.382	1.1329	0	.0	25	0
Gestione3	318	3.113	1.0948	4	1.2	0	0
Gestione4	318	3.472	1.1053	4	1.2	21	0
Collante1	312	3.397	1.2840	10	3.1	37	0
Collante2	318	3.170	1.2005	4	1.2	0	0

Collante3	316	3.358	1.1078	6	1.9	24	0
Collantei4	318	3.484	.9588	4	1.2	15	0
Enfasi1	316	3.345	1.2181	6	1.9	37	0
Enfasi2	318	3.255	1.1760	4	1.2	0	0
Enfasi3	318	3.167	1.0777	4	1.2	0	0
Enfasi4	314	3.360	1.1110	8	2.5	29	0
Criteri1	318	3.352	1.2790	4	1.2	0	0
Criteri2	314	3.143	1.1998	8	2.5	0	0
Criteri3	314	3.178	1.1748	8	2.5	0	0
Criteri4	318	3.645	1.0845	4	1.2	17	0
Humor1	318	3.009	1.1247	4	1.2	0	0
Humor2	314	2.777	1.0966	8	2.5	0	15
Humor3	314	2.710	1.1784	8	2.5	0	24
Humor4	316	3.019	1.1817	6	1.9	0	0
Humor5	312	2.814	1.2045	10	3.1	0	0
Engage1	316	3.741	.9236	6	1.9	4	0
Engage2	316	3.497	1.0032	6	1.9	12	0
Engage3	316	3.744	1.0423	6	1.9	0	0
Engage4	310	3.758	1.0503	12	3.7	0	0
Enagage5	312	3.446	1.0594	10	3.1	17	0
Engage6	314	3.510	1.1700	8	2.5	23	0
Engage7	316	4.158	.9825	6	1.9	19	0
Enagage8	316	3.962	.8901	6	1.9	0	0
Engage9	316	4.092	.9056	6	1.9	16	0
Inrol1	316	4.434	.7207	6	1.9	8	0
Inrole2	316	4.215	.7461	6	1.9	8	0
Inrole3	316	4.554	.6377	6	1.9	2	0
Inrole4	312	4.417	.7346	10	3.1	8	0
Inrole5	310	2.384	1.3063	12	3.7	0	0
Inrole6	314	2.261	1.2797	8	2.5	0	0
Exo1	316	1.801	1.1851	6	1.9	0	39

Exo2	314	4.178	.8902	8	2.5	18	0
Exo3	314	4.446	1.0598	8	2.5	24	0
Exo4	312	1.699	1.0991	10	3.1	0	33
Exo5	314	3.532	1.3378	8	2.5	0	0
Exo6	314	2.357	1.1911	8	2.5	0	0
Exi1	314	3.538	1.0961	8	2.5	17	0
Exi2	316	3.934	.9008	6	1.9	0	0
Exi3	314	3.771	.9450	8	2.5	7	0
Exi4	313	1.994	1.4097	9	2.8	0	0
Exi5	315	4.063	.9217	7	2.2	17	0
Exi6	315	4.130	1.0370	7	2.2	22	0

Table 4-14 percentage of missing value

4.4.2 Outliers

Although there are various definitions for outliers, a simple one would be that an outlier is an item that has great difference with the other items. Hawkins (1980, p1) describes outliers as data points that "deviate so much from other observations as to arouse suspicion that it was generated by a different mechanism". Outliers can influence regression models. If the omission of outliers is justifiable, it can increase the generalizability of the research (Hair et al. 2010).

Generally, outliers are perceptible because of their distinct quantity; they are abnormally high or low. To assess the outliers, researchers should use practical and applicable methods.

How to detect outliers

Outliers can be detected using several methods like univariate, bivariate and multivariate analyses. Comparison of these three methods can result in the decision to either eliminate or retain the outliers. Scatterplot and boxplots are usual methods for univariate detection

and Mahalanobis D^2 measures can be used for multivariate analysis. In this study, first, the univariate method (figure 4-5) boxplot for each study variable was utilized and then the method of Mahalanobis was conducted to confirm the outliers.

For example, for the case numbers 60, 227, 169 and 190, our decision was to eliminate the cases because it appeared that the respondents had ticked the same choice in the entire questionnaire. However, before doing that and in order to make sure about the existence of outliers, we did a multivariate Mahalanobis D^2 test. Our test indicated that there were six outliers in our study, which we decided to omit from our sample. This reduced our sample size to 316. As Cousineau (2010) and Hair et al. (2010) suggested, after cautiously examining the cases for outliers with different methods, you can remove the outliers if it does not influence more than 10% of the number of participants. Since in our study only 6 cases were identified as outliers, we preferred to eliminate them.
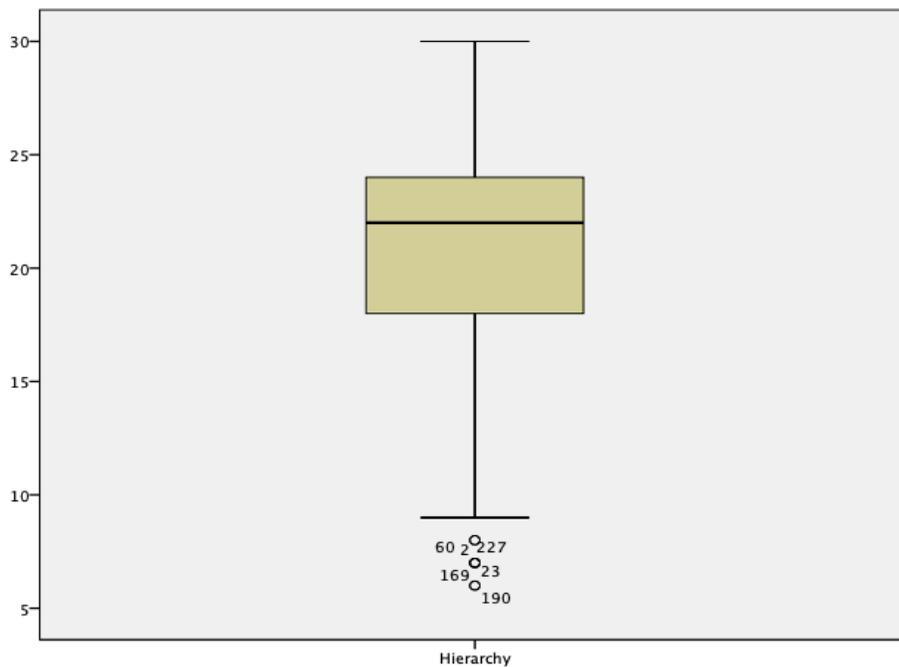
Figure 4-5 outliers

As illustrated in the table (4-5), Mahalonobis D2 and then the P-value of Mahalonobis D2 were calculated. The result shows the first 6 cases are outliers in the

independent variable organizational culture (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy). These tests were also performed on our dependent variables and there, no outliers were detected.

	Absorption	Inrole	Exroleo	Exrolei	MAH_1	Probability
.00	12.00	22.00	26.00	28.00	27.65104	.0000
.00	12.00	22.00	26.00	28.00	27.65104	.0000
.00	9.00	26.00	20.00	22.00	19.42735	.0002
.00	9.00	26.00	20.00	22.00	19.42735	.0002
.00	14.00	21.00	21.00	26.00	16.38015	.0009
.00	14.00	21.00	21.00	26.00	16.38015	.0009

Table 4-15 Mahalonobis D² for outliers

4.5 TESTING THE ASSUMPTIONS OF MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS

4-5-1 Normality test

One of the most essential assumptions in multivariate analysis is normality. The shape of the distributed data for an individual variable should match normal distribution, which is a bell-shaped curve. If the deviation from normal distribution is large, it will influence the statistical analysis and make it invalid for the data analysis (Hair et al. 2010). The most widely used tests in statistical applications testing normality are the Shapiro-Wilks and Kolmogorov-Smimov tests. Each of these tests "calculates the level of significance for the differences from a normal distribution" (Hair et al. 2010). There are some graphs that can show the normality of the individual variables as well, for instance QQ-Plot, Scatterplot and Boxplot. The figure (4-6) below shows that the humor variable in this study is normally distributed and has just slightly positive skewness (normality curve is slightly to the left).

According to Mikko et al. (2016) the Partially Least Squares (PLS-SEM)

statistical method can handle non-normal data in SEM; therefore, since we are going to use Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), the normality assumption can be ignored. Nevertheless we checked for skewness and kurtosis and then transformed some of our data which were highly skewed.
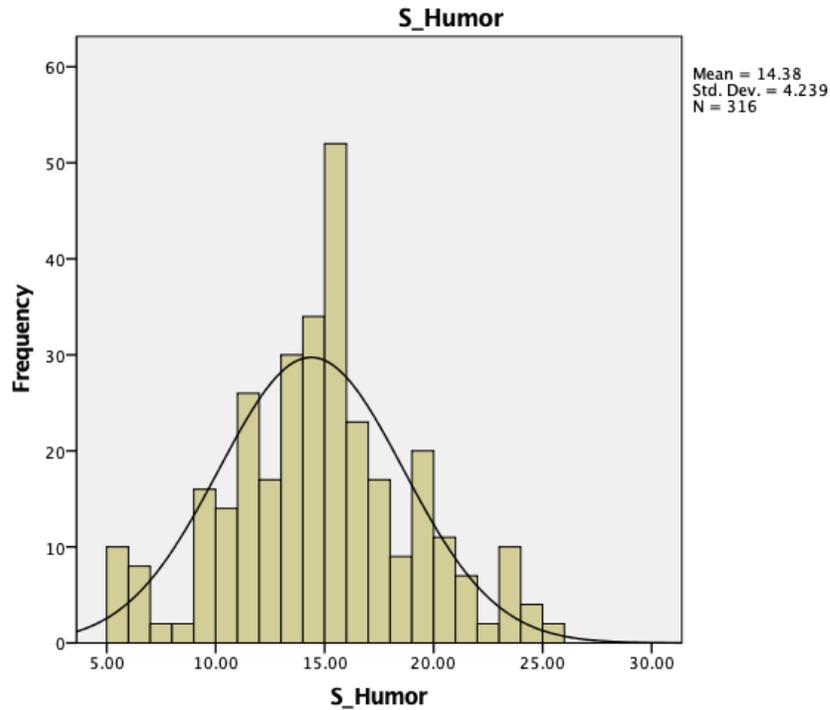
Figure 4-6 Normality curve of humor variable

4-5-2 Skewness and Kurtosis

Skewness

Skewness is a test for the symmetry of the distribution in a normal curve. Positive skewness illustrates a kind of curve, which has relatively large scales on the right side. In such a case, the normality curve is skewed to the right. In contrast, negative skewness shows that there are relatively small scales on the left side of the curve; therefore, it is skewed to the left. A normal curve value falling is in the rage of -1 to +1; variables which are out of this range are highly skewed (Chitiyo et al. 2015) .

Kurtosis

The other kind of distribution inequality is kurtosis, which refers to "peakedness" or "flatness" of the distribution curve. Normality curves that are taller or peaked are called *leptokurtic* and the ones with shorter height or flatted are called *platykurtic.*

Both Skewness and Kurtosis are measurable in statistical programs. There some remedies for skewness or Kurtosis to make the distribution normal (Hair et al. 2010).

As Hair et al. (2010) stated, when there is a significant skewed distribution in a variable, researchers can transform the data by getting square root, logarithms, squared or cubed (X^2 or X^3) values. They can test all these methods until the distribution becomes normal. For this study, the variables with significant skewness were transformed to their squared and cubed numbers. Among our variables Hierarchy, Dedication, and Absorption were significantly skewed. After the square and cube remedy, both skewness and kurtosis of the mentioned variables became near normal (Tables (4-16) and (4-17)).

However, as Hsu & Chen (2006) stated, "in terms of skewness, all the SEM techniques are quite robust". That is, when the skewness of data distribution is moderate and the theory behind the model is strong, all the SEM techniques can achieve good results. We too, used SEM techniques to analyze our data.

Descriptive Statistics									
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Clan	316	7.00	30.00	20.5054	5.92896	-.563	.137	-.513	.273
Adhocracy	316	6.00	30.00	19.4086	5.51918	-.523	.137	-.528	.273

		Minimum	Maximum		Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
Market	316	6.00	30.00	19.5949	5.04746	-.525	.137	-.200	.273
Hierarchy	316	6.00	30.00	20.8008	4.90971	-.790	.137	.431	.273
S_Humor	316	5.00	25.00	14.3804	4.23867	.050	.137	.016	.273
Vigor	316	3.00	15.00	10.6895	2.53847	-.524	.137	.266	.273
Dedication	316	3.00	15.00	11.6725	2.65361	-.908	.137	.827	.273
Absorption	316	3.00	15.00	11.5614	2.39035	-.871	.137	1.171	.273
Inrole	316	16.00	30.00	25.0117	3.67110	-.491	.137	-.526	.273
Exroleo	316	14.00	30.00	24.3374	3.64359	-.558	.137	-.007	.273
Exrolei	316	10.00	30.00	23.4066	4.00623	-.536	.137	.484	.273
Valid N (listwise)	316								

Table 4-16 Skewness and Kurtosis before transformation remedy

Table (4-17) below illustrates changes in skewness after implementing remedy on skewed variables.

Descriptive Statistics									
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Clan	316	7.00	30.00	20.5054	5.92896	-.563	.137	-.513	.273
Adhocracy	316	6.00	30.00	19.4086	5.51918	-.523	.137	-.528	.273
Market	316	6.00	30.00	19.5949	5.04746	-.525	.137	-.200	.273
S_Humor	316	5.00	25.00	14.3804	4.23867	.050	.137	.016	.273
Vigor	316	3.00	15.00	10.6895	2.53847	-.524	.137	.266	.273
Dedication2	316	9.00	225.00	143.2665	56.46514	-.247	.137	-.639	.273
Absorption3	316	27.00	3375.00	1731.1305	882.93518	.303	.137	-.590	.273
Hierarchy2	316	36.00	900.00	456.7030	188.10443	-.136	.137	-.430	.273
Inrole	316	16.00	30.00	25.0117	3.67110	-.491	.137	-.526	.273
Exroleo	316	14.00	30.00	24.3374	3.64359	-.558	.137	-.007	.273

Exrolei	316	10.00	30.00	23.4066	4.00623	-.536	.137	.484	.273
Valid N (listwise)	316								

Table 4-17 Skewness and kurtosis after transformation remedy

4.5.3 Linearity test

Scatterplots can be used to examine the linearity of the individual variables. In addition to positive and negative linearity there is also curvilinear and non-linear relationship between variables (Bryman 2005). Linearity of the relationship between the variables in a study can be detected by two methods: scatterplots and correlation matrix. In figure 4-7 below, all the variables of this study, are demonstrated. Examination of this scatterplot does not reveal any non-linear relationships.
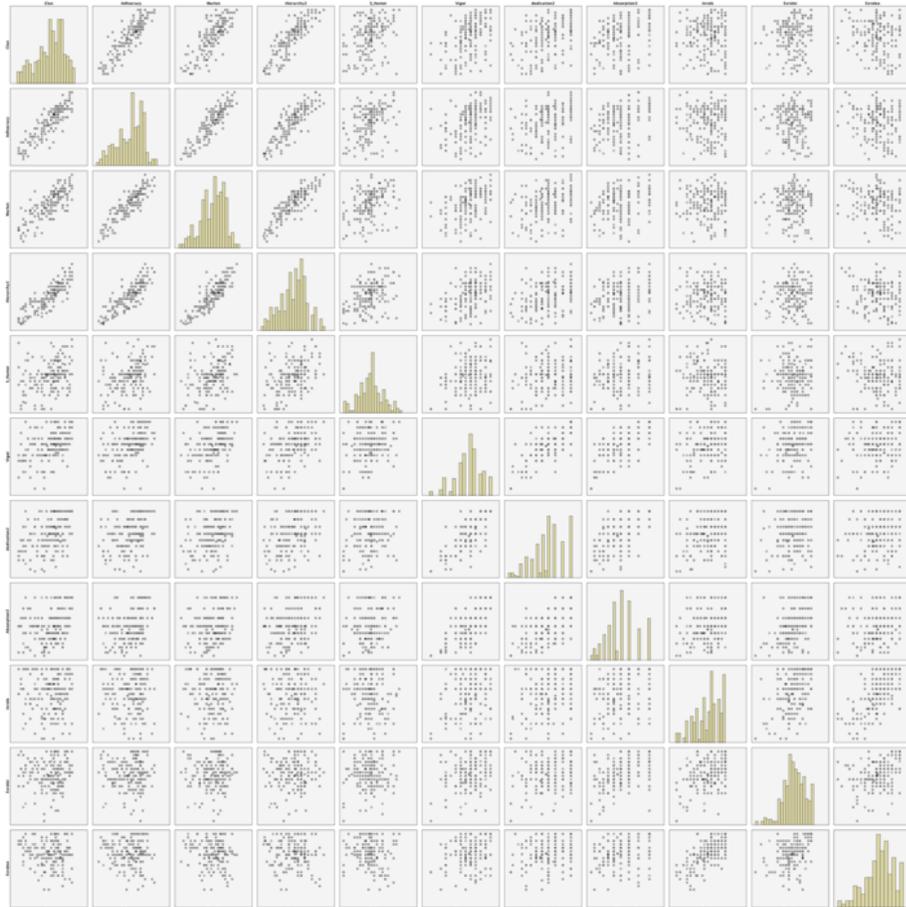
Figure 4-7 Linearity test scatterplot

Also, in the table 4-18 below, the correlation between all the variables of this study is illustrated in order to show the linear relationship between the variables.

		Clan	Adhocracy	Market	Hierarchy	S_Humor	Vigor	Dedication	Absorption	Inrole	Exroleo	Exrolei
									Correlations			
Clan	Pearson Correlation	1	.878**	.781**	.853**	.317**	.421**	.425**	.265**	.014	-.137*	.036
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.808	.015	.525
	N		316	316	316	316	316	316	316	316	316	316
Adhocracy	Pearson Correlation		1	.890**	.836**	.336**	.383**	.352**	.250**	-.052	-.171**	-.020
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.354	.002	.725
	N			316	316	316	316	316	316	316	316	316
Market	Pearson Correlation			1	.852**	.386**	.400**	.336**	.266**	.000	-.136*	-.001
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.997	.015	.992
	N				316	316	316	316	316	316	316	316
Hierarchy	Pearson Correlation				1	.389**	.410**	.354**	.274**	.024	-.112*	.019
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000	.000	.000	.667	.047	.741
	N					316	316	316	316	316	316	316
S_Humor	Pearson Correlation					1	.227**	.168**	.233**	.011	-.087	.087
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.000	.003	.000	.841	.125	.121
	N						316	316	316	316	316	316
Vigor	Pearson Correlation						1	.763**	.668**	.250**	.230**	.287**
	Sig. (2-tailed)							.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N							316	316	316	316	316

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Dedication	Pearson Correlation						1	.626**	.275**	.194**	.196**
	Sig. (2-tailed)							.000	.000	.001	.000
	N							316	316	316	316
Absorption	Pearson Correlation							1	.276**	.264**	.434**
	Sig. (2-tailed)								.000	.000	.000
	N								316	316	316
Inrole	Pearson Correlation								1	.672**	.357**
	Sig. (2-tailed)									.000	.000
	N									316	316
Exroleo	Pearson Correlation									1	.377**
	Sig. (2-tailed)										.000
	N										316
Exrolei	Pearson Correlation										1
	Sig. (2-tailed)										
	N										

Table 4-18 correlation matrix

4.6 CONSTRUCT VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Reliability test is to assess the degree of uniformity between multiple measurements of the variables. The objective of reliability test is to make sure that responses are not too varied during two different time periods and that if they are measured in two different points in time, the results would be the same. A more commonly used assessment of reliability is to measure internal consistency. It means that the different indicators of a scale should all measure the same variable and therefore, should be highly correlated (Hair et al. 2010). Cronbach's alpha is widely used for this assessment. According to Nunnally (1978), the acceptable range of Cornbach's alpha for it to indicate internal consistency is above 0.70; however, other researchers such as Field (2005) stated that values below 0.70 could also be acceptable in psychological constructs, because of the variety in this kind of measurement.

An alternative to Cronbach's alpha is composite reliability test as a test of convergent validity. As we have mentioned in the previous chapter, convergent validity is an assessment to determine the correlation between two measures from the same concept.

Composite reliability is preferred among the researchers in PLS-based research. PLS (Partial Least Squares) is a form of SEM (Structural Equation Modelling) which can be viewed as a combination of regression and factor analysis and complex path models (Hox & Bechger 1998). The composite reliability for the variables in this study was tested in Smartpls software and is illustrated in Table 4-19. According to Garson (2016) composite reliability test is more commonly used in PLS-based research because Cronbach's alpha might over- or underestimate reliability, usually the latter.

AVE or "Average Variance Extracted" assesses both the convergent and discriminant validity. As we have mentioned in the previous chapter, discriminant validity assesses two different constructs, which supposedly should not be related. However, in the reflective models in PLS, AVE illustrates the average communality for

each latent factor. Hair et al. (2010) suggested that an AVE of more than 0.5 is adequate and that AVE of less than 0.5 indicates the average percentage variance explained by the latent factor, is less than the error that remains in the items.

4-6-1 Improving the reliability

In order to improve the reliability of our constructs all the models of this study were put at once in Smartpls to show all the cross loadings for reflective indicators (Figure 4-8). Two items from in-role performance and two items from extra-role performance were removed to improve the reliability and validity of the instruments. Items that should be removed are highlighted by red color. The rule of thumb in factor loading is that the items less than 0.5 indicate an error and should be deleted.
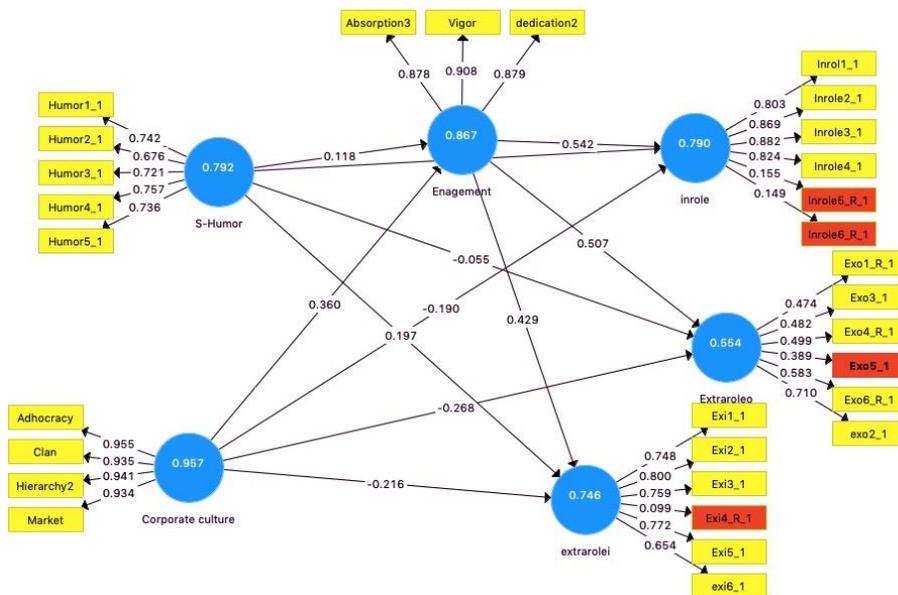
Figure 4-8 all the variables at once in Smartpls

Table 4-19 below illustrates Cronbach's Alpha, Composite Reliability and AVE of all the constructs of this study. The only construct, which might create some cautions, is extra-role performance toward the organization (ExtraroleO); however, since its composite reliability number is more than 0.7 it is unlikely to create any error.

Construct Reliability and Validity

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Corporate culture	0.957	0.959	0.969	0.886
Enagement	0.867	0.873	0.919	0.790
Extraroleo	0.634	0.603	0.734	0.362
S-Humor	0.792	0.810	0.848	0.527
extrarolei	0.805	0.821	0.864	0.560
inrole	0.868	0.878	0.910	0.717

Table 4-19 Construct reliability and validity

4.6.1 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

CFA test is a method to realize how well each variable item fits in the model. The important characteristic of CFA is to help researchers to "analytically test a conceptually grounded theory explaining how different measured items represent important psychological, sociological, or business measures" (Hair et al. 2010). In order to obtain more accurate results, researchers can combine construct validity and CFA test to assess the quality of their measures. Thus, in our study, we first did construct validity test as seen in figure (4-8) in which items with the loadings of less than 0.5 were omitted, then we tested our items by CFA test in SPSS to make sure all items of any individual measurement are loading together. Table (4-9) illustrates that almost all the items of the variables in our study loaded together. Corporate culture components (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy), engagement components (vigor, dedication, and absorption), in-role performance and extra-role performance towards individuals perfectly loaded together. However, there were some defects in extra-role performance towards the organization (ExtraroleO) and humor construct, just three out of five items loaded together; nevertheless, since the construct validity figure (4-8) had showed factor loading of more than 0.5, we preferred to keep them (Table 4-21).

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of Sphericity show the suitability of data for factor detection. The rule of thumb is that KMO in the range of 0.8 to 1 denotes adequate sampling.

For **Bartle Test of Sphericity,** if the p-value is significant (p<0.001), the correlation matrix in factor analysis is an "Identity Matrix". "An identity matrix is a correlation matrix where the diagonals are all 1 and the off-diagonals are all 0" (J Walker 2009) (Table (4-20)).

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.797
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5181.191
	df	325
	Sig.	.000

Table 4-20 KMO and Bartlet's test

Rotated Component Matrix[a]							
	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Adhocracy	.938						
Market	.913						
Hierarchy2	.907						
Clan	.896						
Exi3_1		.836					
Exi2_1		.736					
Exi1_1		.702					
Exi5_1		.680					
exi6_1		.637					

Exo3_1			.758				
Inrol1_1			.757				
Inrole3_1			.682				
Inrole2_1			.654				
Inrole4_1			.650				
exo2_1							
dedication2				.764			
Vigor				.760			
Absorption3				.750			
Humor2_1					.900		
Humor3_1					.896		
Humor1_1					.822		
Exo1_R_1						.817	
Exo4_R_1						.805	
Exo6_R_1						.652	
Humor5_1							.808
Humor4_1							.795
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.							
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.							

Table 4-21 CFA loading test

4-6-2 Testing the assumption of Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is a case of multiple regressions that shows that the scale indicators of the same construct are highly correlated. When investigating the impact of variable X on variable Y, if the items in X are highly correlated, it means that they are measuring the same scale, and this can create problems in multiple regression analyses such as SEM. There are a few methods to detect multicollinearity; these include observation of correlation matrix, VIF (variance inflation factor) and eigenvalues.

In this study, we have used VIF method in Smartpls (Table 4-10,11). VIF is a meter to measure the impact of other independent variables on the standard error of a regression coefficient. A large VIF among independent variables indicates collinearity or multicollinearity. VIF of more than 5 or 10 indicates that there is high multicollinearity among independent variables (Paul 2006).

Tables 4-20 and 4-21 below illustrate the inner and outer VIF values among our constructs and items.

	Corporate culture	Enagement	Extraroleo	S-Humor	extrarolei	inrole
Corporate culture		1.204	1.362		1.362	1.362
Enagement			1.218		1.218	1.218
Extraroleo						
S-Humor		1.204	1.220		1.220	1.220
extrarolei						
inrole						

Table 4-22 Inner VIF (Variance inflation factor) values

Items	Outer VIF	Items	Outer VIF	Items	Outer VIF
Characteri2_1	1.539	Exi1_1	1.808	Inrol1_1	1.981
Characteri3_1	1.499	Exi2_1	1.874	Inrole2_1	2.129
Characteri4_1	1.406	Exi2_1	1.050	Inrole3_1	2.709
Charcteri1_1	1.348	Exi3_1	1.976	Inrole4_1	2.064
Collante1_1	2.602	Exi4_R_1	1.349	Inrole5_R_1	1.833
Collante2_1	3.112	Exi5_1	1.682	Inrole6_R_1	1.835
Collante3_1	2.128	Exo1_R_1	1.643	Leadership2_1	2.425
Collantei4_1	1.816	Exo3_1	1.169	enagage5_1	1.411
Criteri1_1	2.686	Exo4_R_1	1.888	enfasi2_1	3.280
Criteri2_1	3.144	Exo5_1	1.539	enfasi4_1	2.379
Criteri3_1	2.569	Exo6_R_1	1.406	engage1_1	2.990
Criteri4_1	2.130	Gestione1_1	3.104	engage2_1	2.838

Enagage8_1	1.818	Gestione2_1	1.911	engage6_1	1.287
Enfasi1_1	3.696	Gestione3_1	1.915	exi6_1	1.429
Enfasi3_1	2.398	Gestione4_1	1.782	exo2_1	1.199
Engage3_1	2.391	Humor1	2.253	leadership1_1	2.304
Engage4_1	2.427	Humor2	2.764	leadership3_1	1.592
Engage7_1	1.676	Humor3	2.651	leadership4_1	1.751
Engage9_1	1.765	Humor4	1.624		
		Humor5	1.526		

Table 4-23 Outer VIF (variance inflation factors) values

4-6-3 Dominant cultures
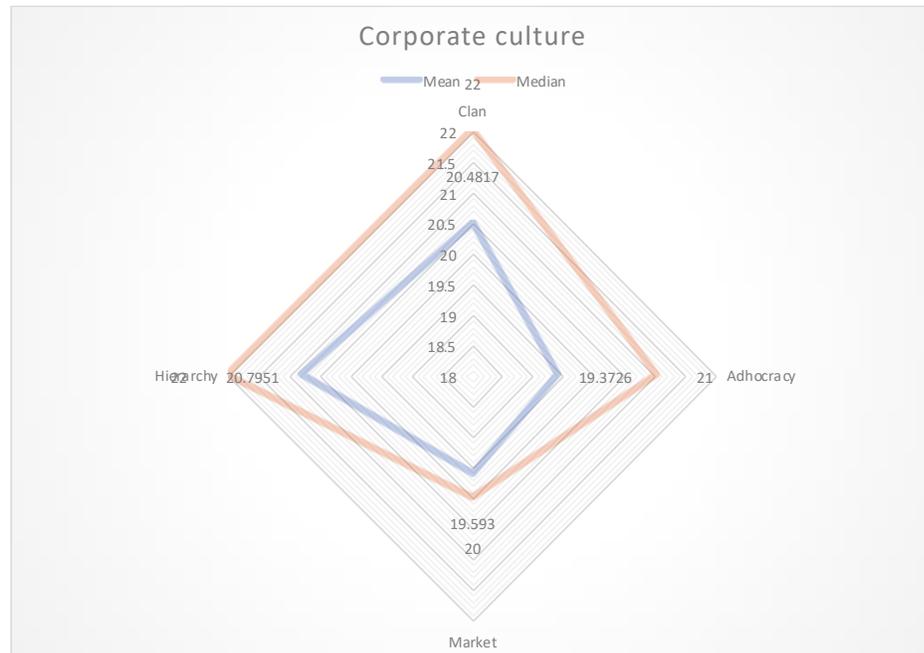
Figure 4-9 dominant cultures in the survey

Figure (4-9) illustrates the mean and median of components of culture in this study. It indicates that the perceived dominant culture in hospitals in Palermo, Italy is hierarchy with the highest mean of 20.795 and clan culture with the mean of 20.481 as the second dominant culture. However, their median score is 22 and equal. Market culture with the mean of 19.593 is in the third place and adhocracy has the lowest mean score of 19.372. However, the median score of adhocracy culture is 21 comparing to 20 for market culture. We can conclude that the dominant cultures in this study are hierarchy and clan culture. However, because the mean and median scores of all the components are near to each other as Suppiah & Singh Sandhu (2011) mentioned, every company has one or more combinations of these four types of cultures.

4.7 HYPOTHESIS TESTING

4.7.1 Structural Equation Modelling

The advantage of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) compared to other methods of analysis especially in the social sciences is that it can calculate a series of dependent variable relationships simultaneously. It is hypothesized that work engagement is a dependent variable for corporate culture and supervisor humor, and at the same time an independent variable for in-role and extra-role performance. In other words, in our model, work engagement is both a dependent and an independent variable. None of the other methods are capable to assess both measurements simultaneously and test the theory behind it. SEM is a useful technique, which can answer these kinds of hypotheses (Hair et al. 2010). Therefore, in the next section we are going to investigate hypotheses of this study using (PLS-SEM) in Smartpls.

Hypothesis 1

H1a: Clan culture predicts employee engagement.
H1b: Hierarchy culture predicts employee engagement.
H1c: Market culture predicts employee engagement.
H1d: Adhocracy culture predicts employee engagement.

These hypotheses were tested separately in Samrtpls models with all the types of corporate culture. The results indicated that all types of corporate culture (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy) are significantly correlated with employee engagement (Figure 4-9,12). This is consistent with previous studies like that of Reis et al. (2016). Furthermore, as corporate culture is a job control variable as Bakker & Demerouti (2008) indicated, job control is one of the major drivers of work engagement.

Cultures like clan and adhocracy, which give more empowerment to the employees, have a slightly higher correlation with employee engagement. On the other

hand, cultures, which are stricter and more control-oriented (market and hierarchy), have a lower correlation level with employee engagement. However, there is little difference between the degree of association between the more flexible cultures (clan and adhocracy) and the stricter cultures (market and hierarchy). It can be because of the nature of the jobs in hospitals and in general the healthcare system. The goal in healthcare services is to help patients; no matter what kind of strategy the hospital management adopts, the goal would be the same. However, even in these kinds of environments, it is obvious that more flexible cultures make the employees more engaged.
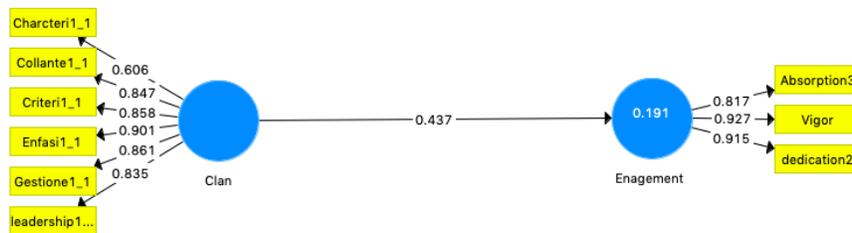
Figure 4-10 Clan and engagement correlation
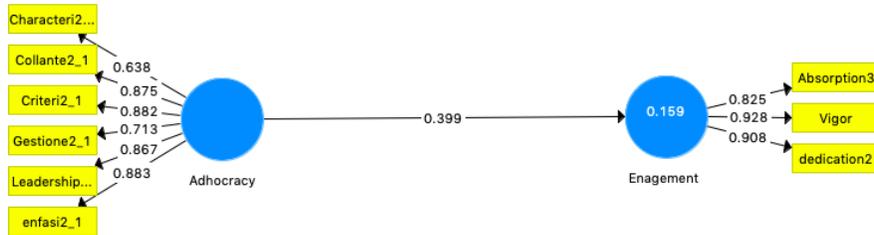
Figure 4-11 Adhocracy and engagement correlation
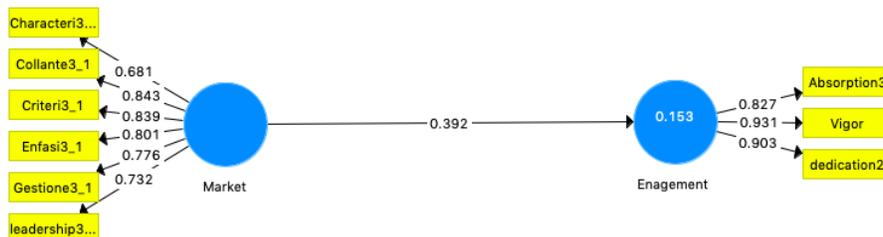
Figure 4-12 Market and engagement correlation
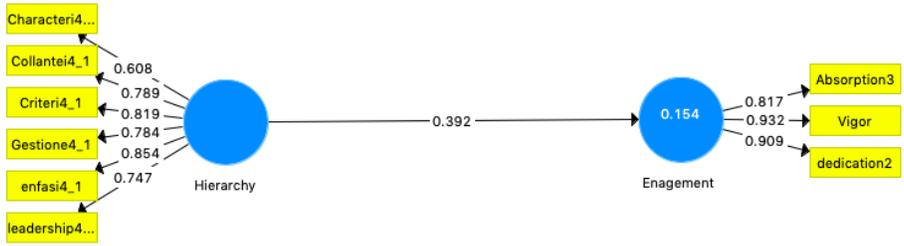
Figure 4-13 Hierarchy and engagement correlation

Hypotheses 2

H2a: Clan culture predicts in-role and extra-role performance.
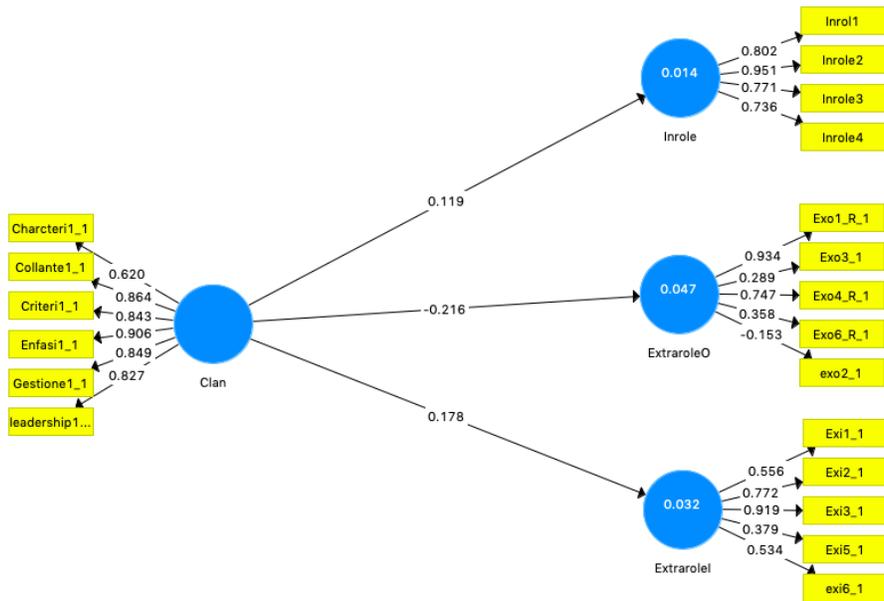
Figure 4-14 Clan and in-role & extra-role performance

Path Coefficients

	Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values	Confidence Intervals	Confidence Intervals Bias Correc

	Original Sample (C	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviatior	T Statistics (|O/ST	P Values
Clan -> Extrarolel	0.178	0.157	0.152	1.167	0.244
Clan -> ExtraroleO	-0.216	-0.226	0.099	2.190	0.029
Clan -> Inrole	0.119	0.134	0.080	1.474	0.141

Table 4-24 Path coefficients of clan and in-role & extra-role performance

Figure (4-14) and table (4-24) above show a direct but negative correlation between clan culture and extra-role performance toward the organization.

H2b: *Adhocracy culture predicts in-role and extra-role performance.*
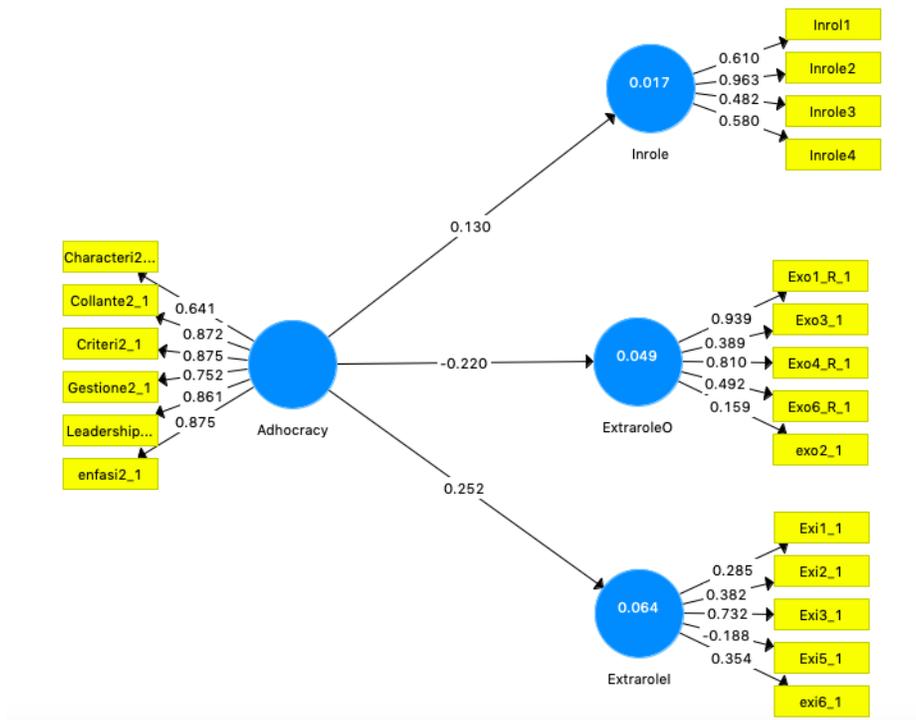
Figure 4-15 Adhocracy and in-role & extra-role performance

Path Coefficients

| | | Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values | Confidence Intervals | Confidence Intervals Bias Corrected | Sa |

	Original Sample (C	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviatior	T Statistics (|O/ST	P Values
Adhocracy -> Extrarolel	0.252	0.048	0.251	1.005	0.316
Adhocracy -> ExtraroleO	-0.220	-0.244	0.055	4.029	0.000
Adhocracy -> Inrole	0.130	0.061	0.147	0.886	0.376

Table 4-25 Path coefficients of adhocracy and in-role & extra-role performance

Adhocracy culture, like clan culture, shows a negative correlation with extra-role performance toward the organization figure (4-15) and table (4-25).

H2c: *Market culture predicts in-role and extra-role performance.*
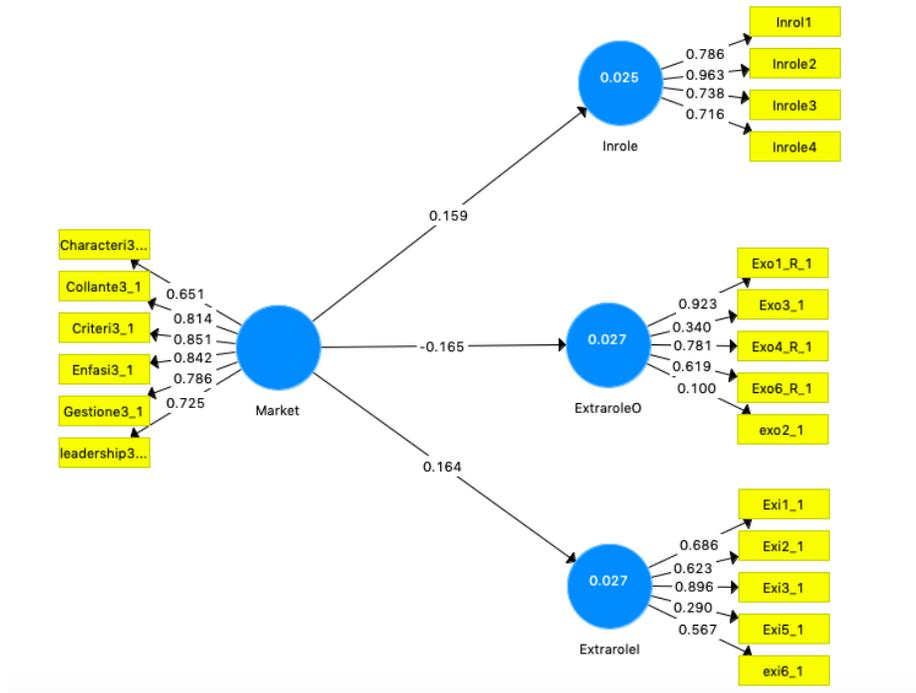
Figure 4-16 Market and in-role & extra-role performance

Path Coefficients

	Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values	Confidence Intervals		Confidence Intervals Bias Corrected

	Original Sample (C	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviatior	T Statistics (|O/ST	P Values
Market -> Extrarolel	0.164	0.131	0.164	0.994	0.321
Market -> ExtraroleO	-0.165	-0.197	0.073	2.276	0.023
Market -> Inrole	0.159	0.185	0.072	2.200	0.028

Table 4-26 Path coefficients of market and in-role & extra-role performance

Market culture has also a negative correlation with extra-role performance toward the organization, however, it shows a positive correlation with in-role performance (figure (4-16) and table (4-26)).

H2d: Hierarchy culture predicts in-role and extra-role performance.
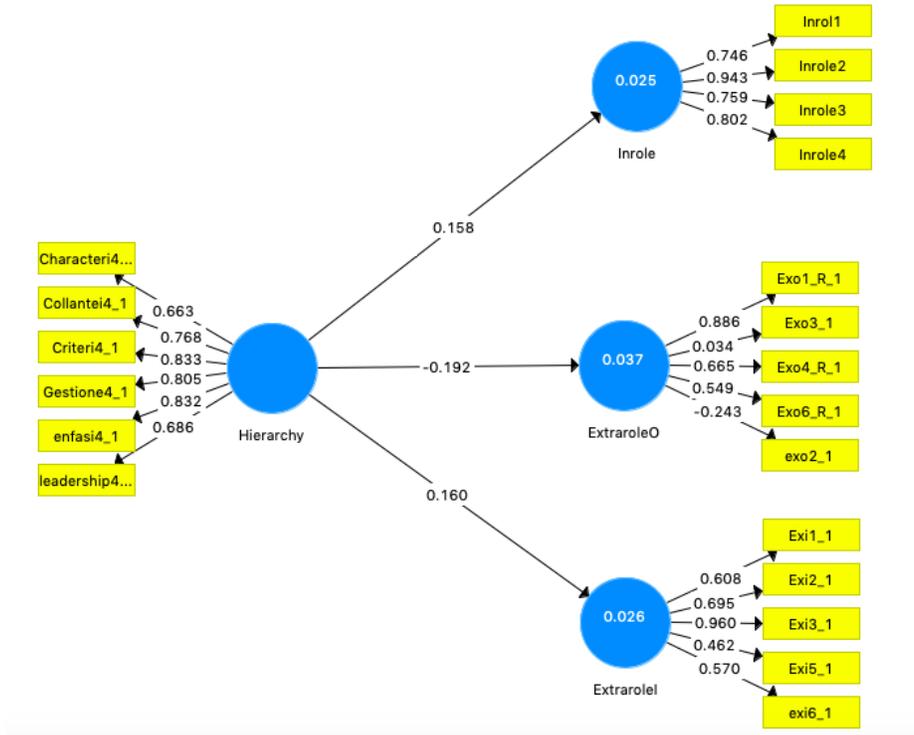
Figure 4-17 hierarchy and in-role & extra-role performance

Path Coefficients

| | Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values | Confidence Intervals | Confidence Intervals Bias Corrected | |

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation	T Statistics (|O/ST|)	P Values
Hierarchy -> Extrarolel	0.160	0.099	0.183	0.873	0.383
Hierarchy -> ExtraroleO	-0.192	-0.141	0.179	1.072	0.284
Hierarchy -> Inrole	0.158	0.159	0.118	1.344	0.180

Table 4-27 Path coefficients of market and in-role & extra-role performance

There is no significant correlation between the hierarchy culture and any form of performance (figure (4-17) and table (4-27)).

All the correlations above indicate that some of the organization culture types have correlation with some aspects of employee performance, however for instance clan, market, and adhocracy have negative correlation with extra-role performance toward organizations. This means that in these three types of culture employees do not tend to do any extra and voluntary job toward the organization. Although market culture shows a correlation with in-role performance, other culture types do not show any correlation with in-role and extra-role performance towards individuals or colleagues.
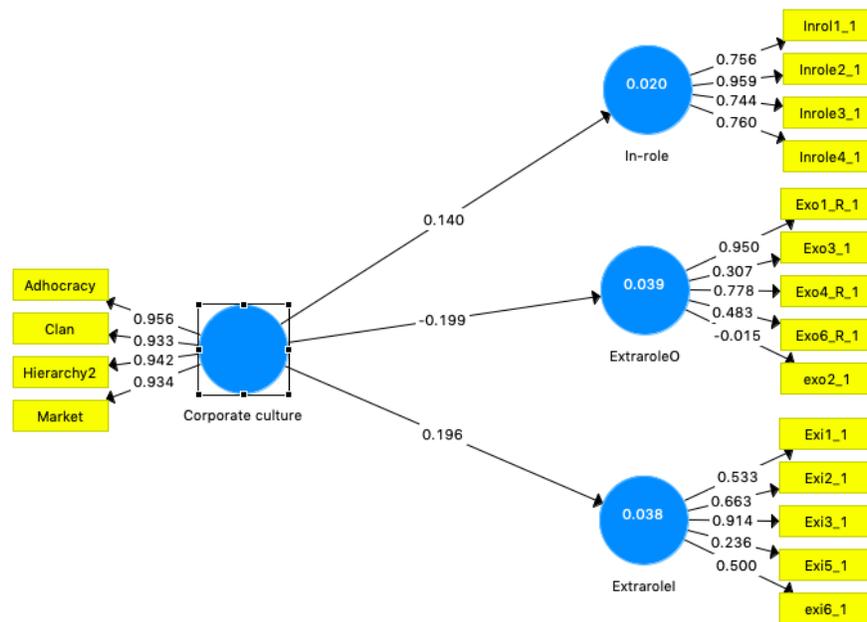
Figure 4-18 correlation corporate culture and in-role & extra-role performance

Path Coefficients

	Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Valu...	Confidence Intervals	Confidence Intervals Bias Corr...	Samples

|	Original Sample (O	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation	T Statistics (|O/ST	P Values
Corporate culture -> Extrarolel	0.196	0.137	0.186	1.057	0.291
Corporate culture -> ExtraroleO	-0.199	-0.215	0.082	2.424	0.016
Corporate culture -> In-role	0.140	0.161	0.077	1.810	0.071

Table 4-28 path coefficients of corporate culture and in-role & extra-role performance

Table (4-28) and figure (4-18) show that when all types of corporate culture are entered simultaneously with employee performance, there is no correlation between corporate culture and in-role and extra-role performance toward individuals. However, there is a

negative correlation between corporate culture and extra-role performance toward the organization.

As we have described in previous chapters motivational variables like engagement might mediate the relationship between all the types of corporate culture and performance. For instance, in Gruman & Saks (2011) study of the essential approach to developing performance management practices is promoting employee engagement as a driver of performance enhancement. Similarly Anitha (2014) stated that an essential way to improve employee performance is through emphasis on nurturing employee engagement. Previous research has suggested that engaged employees typically perform better than others in the workplace (Fleck & Inceoglu, 2010; May et al., 2004; Saks, 2006; Shuck & Reio, 2011). Therefore, by including engagement as the mediator between corporate culture and performance we expect that corporate culture would predict all the components of in-role and extra-role performance.

H3: *Perceived supervisor humor has a direct relationship with employee engagement*

Perceived supervisor humor is directly correlated with employee engagement; therefore, our hypothesis is accepted.
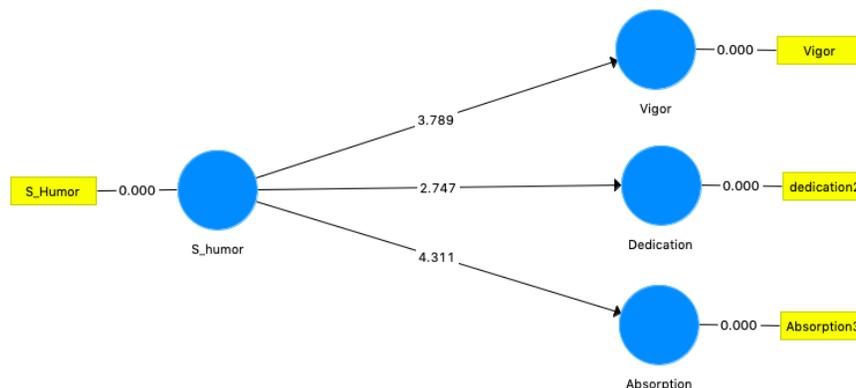
Figure 4-19 supervisor humor and engagement correlation

Path Coefficients

Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values | Confidence Intervals | Confidence Intervals Bias Corrected | Samples

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
S_humor -> Absorption	0.233	0.231	0.054	4.311	0.000
S_humor -> Dedication	0.168	0.167	0.061	2.747	0.006
S_humor -> Vigor	0.227	0.225	0.060	3.789	0.000

Table 4-29 Path coefficients of supervisor humor and engagement

As illustrated in table (4-29) and figure (4-17), supervisor humor shows significant correlation with all aspects of engagement. This is in line with the broaden-and-build theory and also previous studies. The broaden-and-build theory postulates the role of positive emotions on building personal resources, because positive emotions trigger "momentary thought-action repertoires" (Fredrickson 2001); thus, the more personal resources, ranging from physical to psychological, employees gain, the more engaged they might be (JD-R model). As it has been mentioned in the JD-R model, job resources and personal resources predict work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al. 2007). Our results also confirm the Van den Broeck et al. (2012) findings about the relationship between humor and engagement.

H4: *Perceived supervisor humor in workplace correlates with in-role and extra-role performance.*

Figure 4-20 supervisor humor and in-role & extra-role performance

Path Coefficients

| Mean, STDEV, T-Valu... | Confidence Intervals | Confidence Intervals... | Samples | Copy to Clipb |
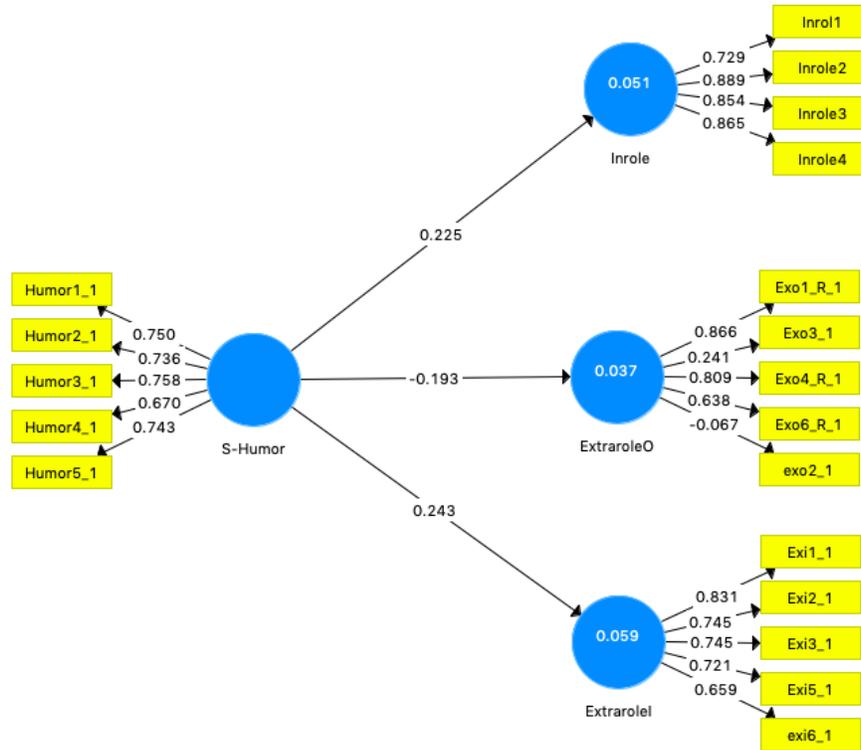
	Original Sample (C	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviatior	T Statistics (|O/ST	P Values
S-Humor -> ExtraroleI	0.243	0.259	0.045	5.357	0.000
S-Humor -> ExtraroleO	-0.193	-0.190	0.128	1.510	0.132
S-Humor -> Inrole	0.225	0.241	0.047	4.816	0.000

Table 4-30 Path coefficients of supervisor humor and in-role & extra-role performance

There is both empirical (Avolio, Howell, & Sosik, 1999) and circumstantial evidence confirming that humor is positively correlated with enhanced performance in the workplace. This is due to the role of humor in making interactions and knowledge-sharing smoother. Our hypothesis has also confirmed this correlation. As illustrated in table (4-30) and figure (4-20), supervisor humor is associated with in-role performance and extra-role performance of employees toward the individuals. The lubricant effect of humor can make communication easier and therefore individuals tend to help each other

in the organization.

H5: *Employee engagement mediates the relationship between corporate culture and in role and extra-role performance.*
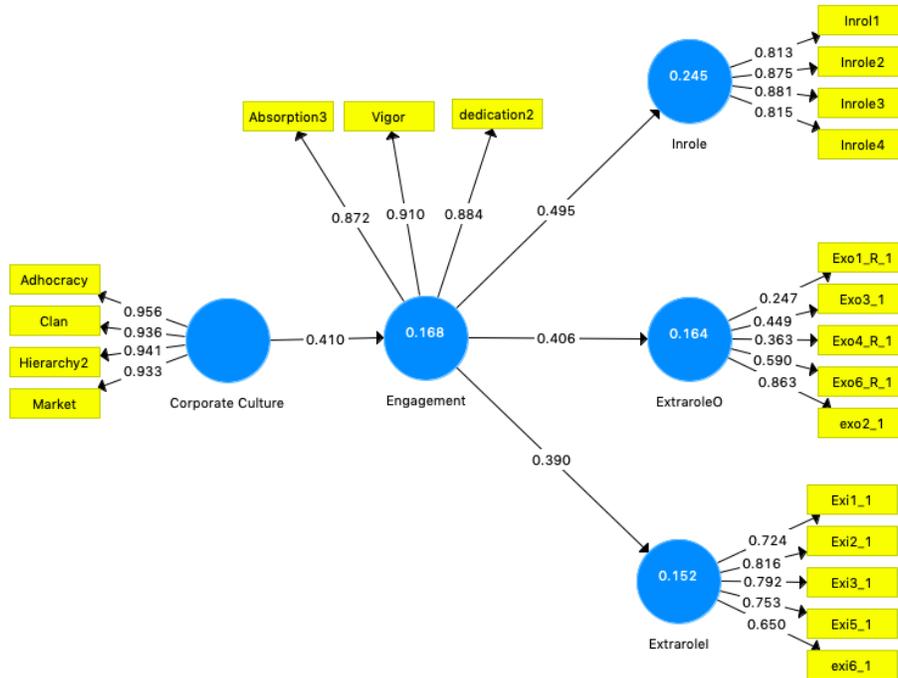
Figure 4-21 Mediating role of engagement between corporate culture and performance

Specific Indirect Effects

| | Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values | | Confidence Intervals | | Confidence Intervals Bias Corrected | | Samples |

	Original Sample (C	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation	T Statistics (|O/ST	P Values
Corporate Culture -> Engagement -> Extrarolel	0.160	0.159	0.030	5.351	0.000
Corporate Culture -> Engagement -> ExtraroleO	0.166	0.174	0.027	6.185	0.000
Corporate Culture -> Engagement -> Inrole	0.203	0.203	0.029	6.983	0.000

Table 4-31 Mediating role of engagement between corporate culture and performance

As we had expected corporate culture with the mediating role of engagement predicts in-role and extra-role performance figure (4-21) and table (4-31). By looking at this hypothesis (H5) and comparing it with hypothesis (H2), we can realize how important the role of engagement as a mediator is in these relationships. In hypothesis 2, it was shown that different types of corporate culture had negative relationships with extra-role

performance towards the organization. However, in this hypothesis because of the role of engagement this correlation became positive and significant for in-role & extra-role performance. Consequently, we can conclude that engagement fully mediates the relationship between corporate culture and engagement.

H6: Supervisor humor moderates the relationship between corporate culture and performance
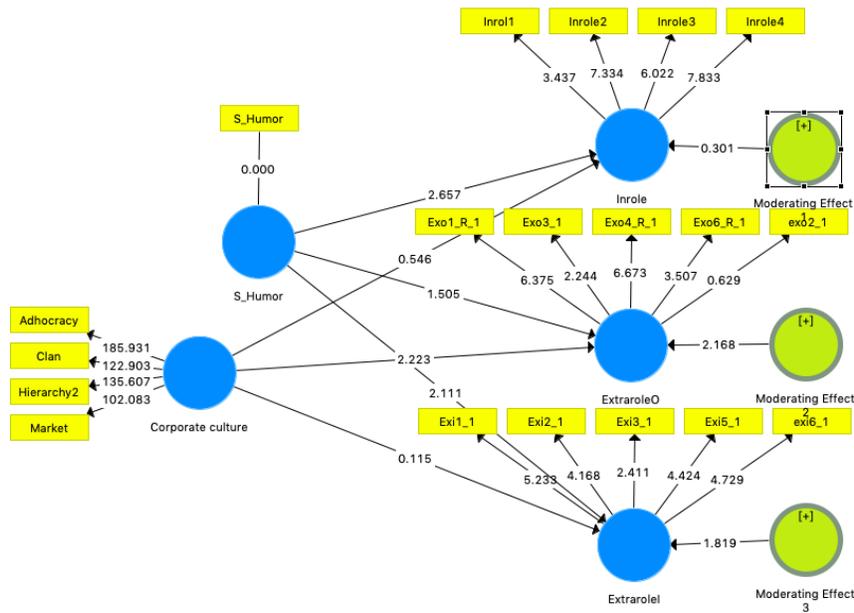
Figure 4-22 Moderating role of supervisor humor on corporate culture and performance

Path Coefficients

	Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values	Confidence Intervals	Confidence Intervals Bias Corrected	Samples

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation	T Statistics (|O/ST)	P Values
Corporate culture -> Extrarolel	-0.019	-0.012	0.167	0.115	0.909
Corporate culture -> ExtraroleO	-0.158	-0.174	0.071	2.223	0.027
Corporate culture -> Inrole	0.047	0.053	0.086	0.546	0.585
Moderating Effect 1 -> Inrole	0.014	0.009	0.045	0.301	0.764
Moderating Effect 2 -> ExtraroleO	-0.122	-0.126	0.056	2.168	0.031
Moderating Effect 3 -> Extrarolel	0.119	0.112	0.065	1.819	0.070
S_Humor -> Extrarolel	0.237	0.239	0.112	2.111	0.035
S_Humor -> ExtraroleO	-0.110	-0.121	0.073	1.505	0.133
S_Humor -> Inrole	0.198	0.203	0.075	2.657	0.008

Table 4-32 Moderating role of supervisor humor on corporate culture and performance

When we enter all the types of corporate culture simultaneously to test for the moderating role of supervisor humor, it only significantly moderates the relationship between corporate culture and the extra-role performance towards the organization. However, in order to investigate this relationship more precisely we have tested all the components (types) of culture separately for the moderating role of supervisor humor.

Path Coefficients

	Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values	Confidence Intervals	Confidence Intervals Bias Corrected	Sam

	Original Sample (C	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation	T Statistics (|O/ST|	P Values
Clan -> ExtraroleI	0.052	0.036	0.159	0.327	0.744
Clan -> ExtraroleO	-0.164	-0.171	0.088	1.866	0.063
Clan -> Inrole	0.048	0.049	0.081	0.597	0.551
Moderating Effect 1 -> Inrole	0.022	0.020	0.049	0.440	0.660
Moderating Effect 2 -> ExtraroleO	-0.076	-0.080	0.060	1.275	0.203
Moderating Effect 3 -> ExtraroleI	0.126	0.117	0.055	2.278	0.023
S_Humor -> ExtraroleI	0.200	0.210	0.100	2.005	0.045
S_Humor -> ExtraroleO	-0.112	-0.125	0.077	1.452	0.147
S_Humor -> Inrole	0.198	0.202	0.068	2.895	0.004

Table 4-33 Moderating role of supervisor humor on clan culture and performance

As illustrated in table (4-33) the relationship between clan culture and extra-role performance toward individuals is moderated by supervisor humor. This was expected based on the description of clan culture by. Deshpandé and Farley (2004). They described clan culture as a culture, which emphasizes consensus, values interactions between individuals and loyalty of employees. Also Cameron & Quinn (2005) asserted that in the clan quadrant, value-creating activity is characterized as collaborative. The leadership style is to act as facilitator, mentor, and team builder. Quality strategies are empowerment, teambuilding, employee involvement, human resource development, and open communication. Hence, employees in this culture tend to communicate and collaborate together more compared with other culture types. Supervisor humor can especially improve these interactions. At the top of the table, no relationship can be seen between clan culture and in-role and extra-role performance; however, after entering supervisor humor as the moderator it shows a relationship with extra-role performance towards individuals.

Path Coefficients

	Original Sample (C	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviatior	T Statistics (|O/ST	P Values
Adhocracy -> ExtraroleI	-0.038	-0.020	0.171	0.220	0.826
Adhocracy -> ExtraroleO	-0.197	-0.214	0.048	4.078	0.000
Adhocracy -> Inrole	0.007	0.009	0.092	0.071	0.943
Moderating Effect 1 -> Inrole	0.039	0.039	0.046	0.851	0.395
Moderating Effect 2 -> ExtraroleO	-0.121	-0.121	0.056	2.160	0.031
Moderating Effect 3 -> ExtraroleI	0.118	0.112	0.058	2.023	0.044
S_Humor -> ExtraroleI	0.240	0.230	0.110	2.171	0.030
S_Humor -> ExtraroleO	-0.092	-0.098	0.065	1.420	0.156
S_Humor -> Inrole	0.213	0.214	0.070	3.048	0.002

Table 4-34 Moderating role of supervisor humor on (Adhocracy culture and performance)

Similar to clan culture, adhocracy culture has a significant positive relationship with extra-role performance towards individuals and negative correlation with extra-role performance towards the organization table (4-34). If we look at the direct relationships at the top of the table, also adhocracy had negative relationship with extra-role performance towards the organization; however, with the moderating effect of supervisor humor the degree of negativity of this relationship is reduced from -0.197 to -0.121. In fact, adhocracy culture focuses on entrepreneurship, flexibility and risk-taking that are vital mechanisms for organizational relationship (Cameron & Freeman, 1991).

Path Coefficients

	Original Sample (C	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviatior	T Statistics (|O/ST	P Values
Market -> ExtraroleI	-0.026	-0.023	0.162	0.160	0.873
Market -> ExtraroleO	-0.188	-0.195	0.089	2.118	0.035
Market -> Inrole	0.018	0.030	0.130	0.141	0.888
Moderating Effect 1 -> Inrole	-0.013	-0.010	0.049	0.259	0.796
Moderating Effect 2 -> ExtraroleO	-0.180	-0.171	0.068	2.640	0.009
Moderating Effect 3 -> ExtraroleI	0.074	0.066	0.066	1.119	0.264
S_Humor -> ExtraroleI	0.243	0.239	0.105	2.306	0.022
S_Humor -> ExtraroleO	-0.115	-0.125	0.073	1.574	0.116
S_Humor -> Inrole	0.204	0.194	0.080	2.552	0.011

Table 4-35 Moderating role of supervisor humor on (Market culture and performance)

Supervisor humor does not have a strong impact on the relationship between marker culture with in-role and extra-role performance. In the top of the table the direct relationship between market culture and in-role and extra-role performance is

demonstrated. It was illustrated that market culture had a direct negative relationship with extra-role performance towards organization. However by entering supervisor humor just slightly it has neutralized their relationship from -0.188 to -0.180.

Path Coefficients

	Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Valu...	Confidence Intervals	Confidence Intervals Bias Corr...	Samples

	Original Sample (C	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviatior	T Statistics (|O/ST	P Values
Hierarchy -> Extrarolel	0.010	0.010	0.058	0.174	0.862
Hierarchy -> ExtraroleO	-0.114	-0.111	0.058	1.956	0.051
Hierarchy -> Inrole	0.009	0.010	0.061	0.141	0.888
Moderating Effect 1 -> Inrole	-0.140	-0.141	0.050	2.810	0.005
Moderating Effect 2 -> ExtraroleO	-0.103	-0.105	0.067	1.537	0.124
Moderating Effect 3 -> Extrarolel	0.138	0.136	0.049	2.837	0.005
S_humor -> Extrarolel	0.068	0.068	0.067	1.018	0.309
S_humor -> ExtraroleO	-0.067	-0.070	0.072	0.932	0.351
S_humor -> Inrole	-0.072	-0.072	0.062	1.163	0.245

Table 4-36 Moderating role of supervisor humor on hierarchy culture and performance

Table (4-36) illustrates that supervisor humor has a positive effect on the relationship between hierarchy culture and in-role and extra-role performance. As shown at the top of this table, there is no significant correlation between the hierarchy culture and in-role and extra-role performance; however, by entering the supervisor humor variable as the moderator, these relationships are meaningful. Yet the moderating effect of supervisor humor on the relationship between hierarchy culture and in-role performance is negative because of the essence of hierarchy culture, which is based on rules, regulations and stability control, and communications between supervisors and subordinates are generally limited.

H7*: Supervisor humor moderates the relationship between corporate culture and engagement*
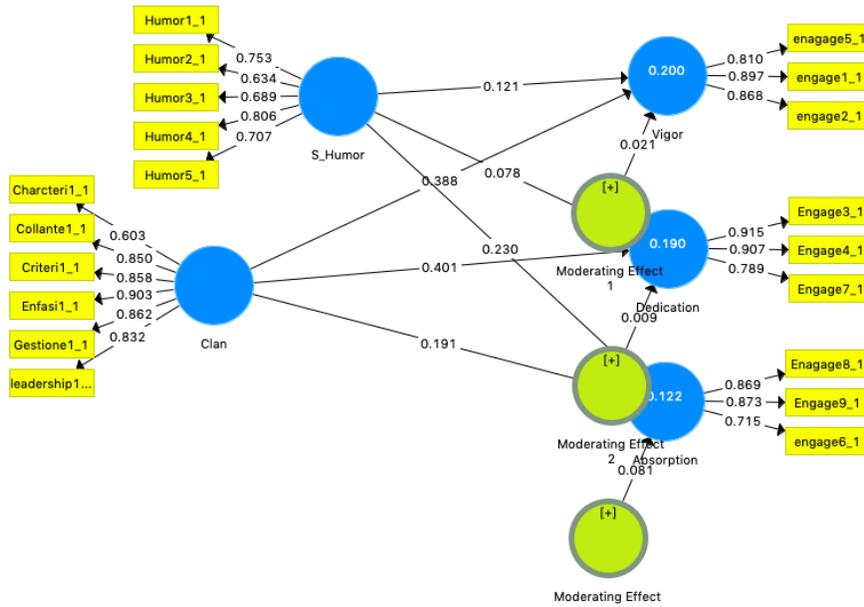
Figure 4-23 Moderating role of supervisor humor on clan culture and engagement

Path Coefficients

| | Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values | Confidence Intervals | Confidence Intervals Bias Corrected | Samp |

	Original Sample (C	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation	T Statistics (|O/ST	P Values
Clan -> Absorption	0.191	0.195	0.054	3.516	0.000
Clan -> Dedication	0.401	0.402	0.052	7.701	0.000
Clan -> Vigor	0.388	0.394	0.043	9.135	0.000
Moderating Effect 1 -> Vigor	0.021	0.018	0.056	0.370	0.711
Moderating Effect 2 -> Dedication	0.009	0.008	0.059	0.150	0.881
Moderating Effect 3 -> Absorption	0.081	0.080	0.049	1.647	0.100
S_Humor -> Absorption	0.230	0.234	0.062	3.718	0.000
S_Humor -> Dedication	0.078	0.082	0.069	1.143	0.254
S_Humor -> Vigor	0.121	0.122	0.058	2.081	0.038

Table 4-37 Moderating role of supervisor humor on clan culture and engagement
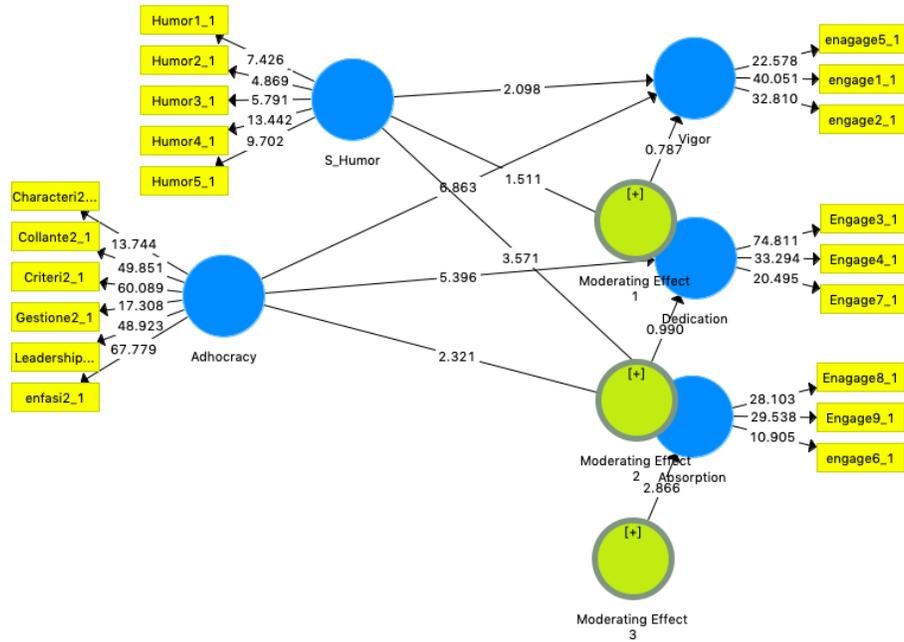
Figure 4-24 Moderating role of supervisor humor on Adhocracy culture and engagement

Path Coefficients

| | Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values | Confidence Intervals | Confidence Intervals Bias Corrected | Samp |

	Original Sample (C	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation	T Statistics (|O/ST	P Values
Adhocracy -> Absorption	0.161	0.167	0.069	2.321	0.021
Adhocracy -> Dedication	0.331	0.332	0.061	5.396	0.000
Adhocracy -> Vigor	0.359	0.366	0.052	6.863	0.000
Moderating Effect 1 -> Vigor	0.043	0.044	0.055	0.787	0.432
Moderating Effect 2 -> Dedication	0.057	0.059	0.058	0.990	0.322
Moderating Effect 3 -> Absorption	0.153	0.156	0.053	2.866	0.004
S_Humor -> Absorption	0.245	0.251	0.069	3.571	0.000
S_Humor -> Dedication	0.112	0.121	0.074	1.511	0.131
S_Humor -> Vigor	0.134	0.140	0.064	2.098	0.036

Table 4-38 Moderating role of supervisor humor on Adhocracy culture and engagement

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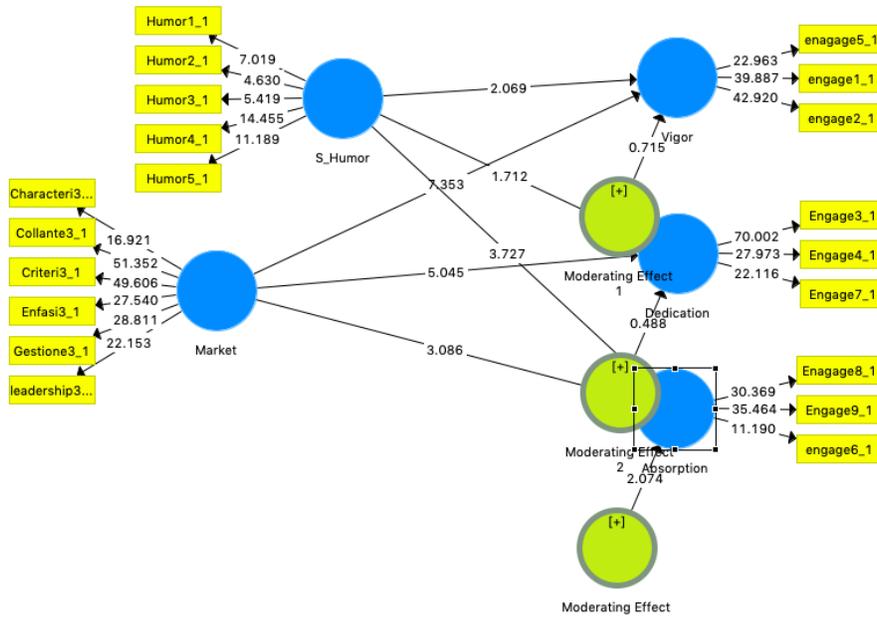
Figure 4-25 Moderating role of supervisor humor on Market culture and engagement

Path Coefficients

	Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values	Confidence Intervals	Confidence Intervals Bias Corrected	Sam

	Original Sample (C	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation	T Statistics (|O/ST|	P Values
Market -> Absorption	0.180	0.184	0.058	3.086	0.002
Market -> Dedication	0.305	0.305	0.060	5.045	0.000
Market -> Vigor	0.363	0.366	0.049	7.353	0.000
Moderating Effect 1 -> Vigor	0.039	0.037	0.055	0.715	0.475
Moderating Effect 2 -> Dedication	0.027	0.026	0.055	0.488	0.626
Moderating Effect 3 -> Absorption	0.104	0.102	0.050	2.074	0.039
S_Humor -> Absorption	0.240	0.249	0.064	3.727	0.000
S_Humor -> Dedication	0.118	0.131	0.069	1.712	0.088
S_Humor -> Vigor	0.126	0.134	0.061	2.069	0.039

Table 4-39 Moderating role of supervisor humor on market culture and engagement
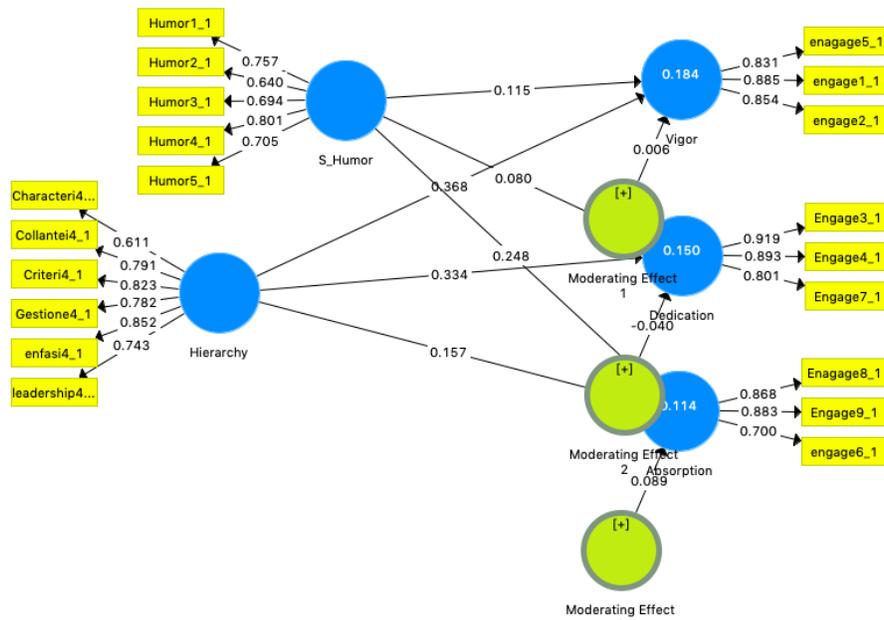
*Figure 4-26 Moderating role of supervisor humor on hierarchy culture and engagement*

Path Coefficients

	Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values	Confidence Intervals	Confidence Intervals Bias Corrected	Sampl

	Original Sample (C	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation	T Statistics (|O/ST	P Values
Hierarchy -> Absorption	0.157	0.167	0.056	2.802	0.005
Hierarchy -> Dedication	0.334	0.340	0.052	6.427	0.000
Hierarchy -> Vigor	0.368	0.378	0.042	8.828	0.000
Moderating Effect 1 -> Vigor	0.006	0.003	0.058	0.103	0.918
Moderating Effect 2 -> Dedication	-0.040	-0.038	0.055	0.726	0.468
Moderating Effect 3 -> Absorption	0.089	0.085	0.052	1.714	0.087
S_Humor -> Absorption	0.248	0.254	0.054	4.565	0.000
S_Humor -> Dedication	0.080	0.090	0.062	1.297	0.195
S_Humor -> Vigor	0.115	0.123	0.049	2.357	0.019

Table 4-40 Moderating role of supervisor humor on hierarchy culture and engagement

Table (4-37) to (4-40) and figure (4-23) to (4-26) indicate that supervisor humor moderates the relationship of market culture and adhocracy culture with engagement. However, for the clan and hierarchy culture supervisor humor does not have a moderating role. It can be concluded that when the supervisor uses humor in his interactions with subordinates, if the culture of the organization is perceived as market or adhocracy, it will make the subordinate employees more engaged in their job.
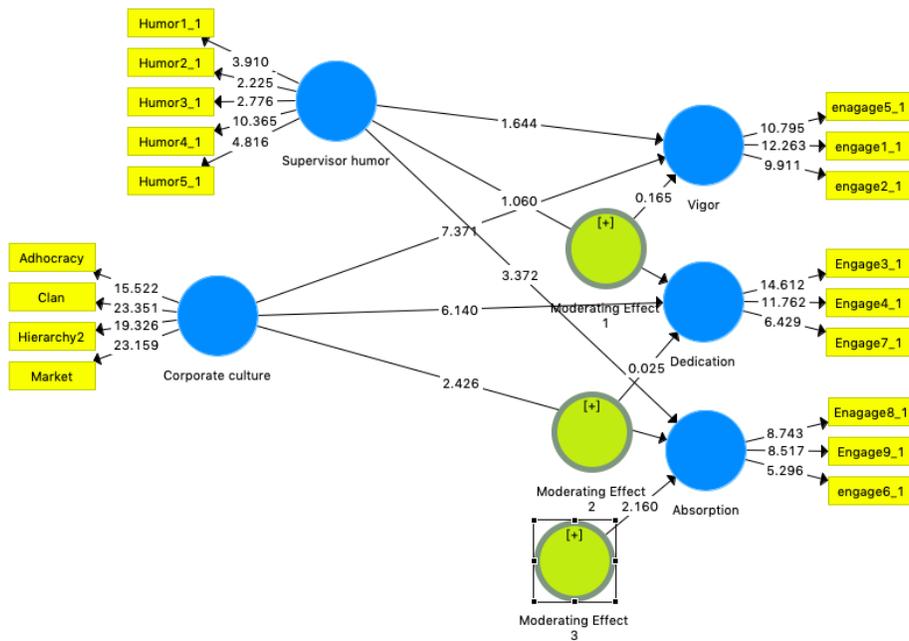
Figure 4-27 Moderating role of supervisor humor on the corporate culture and enagagement

Path Coefficients

| | Mean, STDEV, T-Valu... | Confidence Intervals | Confidence Intervals... | Samples | Copy to Clipboard: |

	Original Sample (C	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviatior	T Statistics (|O/ST	P Values
Corporate culture_ -> Absorption	0.194	0.193	0.081	2.393	0.017
Corporate culture_ -> Dedication	0.390	0.380	0.068	5.730	0.000
Corporate culture_ -> Vigor	0.433	0.431	0.058	7.484	0.000
Moderating Effect 1 -> Vigor	0.011	0.009	0.070	0.160	0.873
Moderating Effect 2 -> Dedication	-0.002	-0.004	0.064	0.025	0.980
Moderating Effect 3 -> Absorption	0.126	0.124	0.061	2.065	0.039
Supervisor humor -> Absorption	0.289	0.298	0.086	3.377	0.001
Supervisor humor -> Dedication	0.083	0.110	0.084	0.986	0.325
Supervisor humor -> Vigor	0.116	0.130	0.070	1.652	0.099

Table 4-41 Moderating role of supervisor humor on the corporate culture and enagagement

When we put all types of corporate culture at once in the model to calculate the moderating role of supervisor humor on the relationship between corporate culture and engagement, the only significant moderating effect observed among the categories of engagement, is on absorption figure (4-27) and table (4-41). This is rational considering the definition of absorption, as one of the dimensions of engagement, which is "being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time

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passes quickly and one feels carried away by one's job" (Schaufeli, Martínez, et al. 2002). It shows that when supervisor humor exists, employees are more concentrated and happily absorbed in their job.

4.7.2 Supported and non-supported hypotheses

Table (4-42) below summarized hypothesis results of this study. A few sub-hypotheses were rejected however all the major hypotheses were supported.

No.	Hypothesis description	Results
H1a	Clan culture predicts employees' engagement.	Supported
H1b	Adhocracy Culture predicts employees' engagement.	Supported
H1c	Market Culture predicts employees' engagement.	Supported
H1d	Hierarchy Culture predicts employees' engagement.	Supported
H2a	Clan culture predicts in-role and extra-role performance.	Supported
H2b	Adhocracy culture predicts in-role and extra-role performance.	Supported
H2c	Market culture predicts in-role and extra-role performance.	Supported
H2d	Hierarchy culture predicts in-role and extra-role performance.	Rejected
H3	Perceived supervisor humor in workplace correlates with employee engagement.	Supported
H4	Perceived supervisor humor in workplace correlates with in-role and extra-role performance.	Supported
H5	Employee engagement mediates the relationship between corporate culture and in role and extra-role performance.	Supported
H6	Supervisor's humor moderates the relationship between corporate culture and performance.	Supported
H7a	Humor moderates the relationship between clan culture and engagement.	Rejected
H7b	Humor moderates the relationship between adhocracy culture and engagement.	Supported
H7c	Humor moderates the relationship between market culture and	Supported

	engagement.	
H7d	Humor moderates the relationship between hierarchy culture and engagement.	**Rejected**

Table 4-42 Hypotheses results

4.8 CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Figure (4-29) below shows the conceptual model of this study and the relationships between its variables.
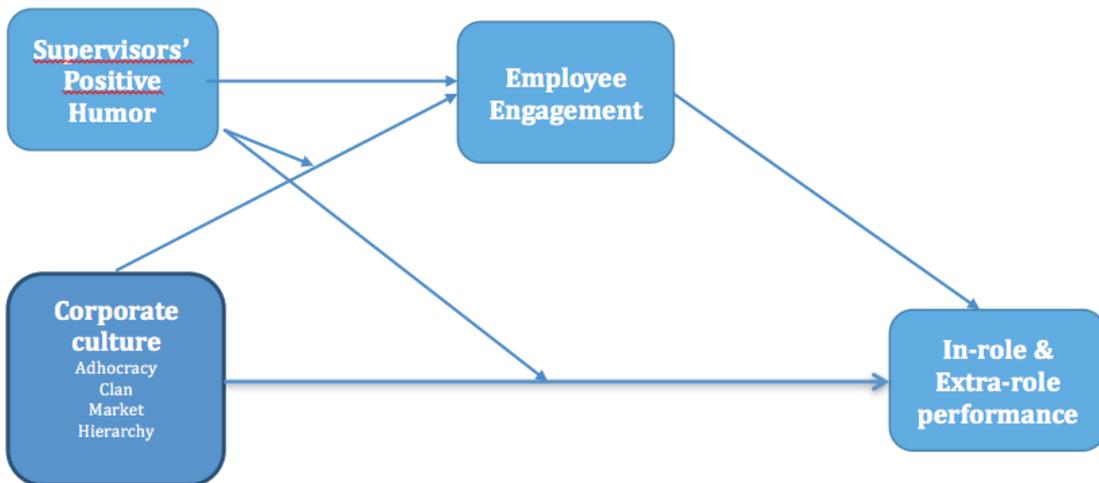
Figure 4-28 Conceptual model of the study

4.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented and analyzed the collected data, and discussed the statistical results of the survey. As we have mentioned before, we have gathered the data from public hospitals in Palermo, Italy. A total of 322 responses were collected and after normality test, we omitted the 6 outliers and implemented our analysis on the remaining 316 samples. The intention of this chapter was to detect correlations between corporate culture and performance, the impact of engagement as mediator and supervisor humor as moderator on these relationships. After listing the demographic data of the participants and implementing descriptive analysis, data screening was performed in order to check for validity of the data and for data cleaning. Data screening consists of remedies for missing data and outliers. Then to test the assumptions of the multivariate analysis, we proceeded to normality test, which includes the following: skewness and kurtosis, linearity test, correlation matrix, construct validity and reliability, multicollinearity and variance inflation factor (VIF) test. After all these tests the data were ready and clear for final statistical analysis. We have used structural equation modeling (SEM) to test the hypotheses. All the eight hypotheses were supported. However then the hypotheses were interpreted by comparing to existing theories and previous studies. In the next chapter (discussion and conclusion) we will discuss findings and our research questions in more detail.

CHAPTER V

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, first, the purpose and objective of the study are briefly explained. Then the research questions will be discussed and answered with reference to the results of the hypothesis testing from the previous chapter. Broader explanations about the research findings along with the theoretical and managerial implications will be argued. Limitations of the study and suggested future studies will be debated and followed by the conclusion.

5.2 SUMMERAY OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate corporate culture in Competitive Value Framework (CVF), as antecedent of in-role and extra-role performance of employees. Furthermore, the role of engagement as the mediator between corporate culture and in-role and extra-role performance was examined. In addition, the impact of supervisor humor as a moderator in the relationship between corporate culture (CC) and engagement and also between corporate culture and "in-role and extra-role" performance was investigated.

Based on the CVF, corporate culture was divided to the four components of clan, adhocracy, market and hierarchy. Clan culture characteristics are cohesiveness, participation and teamwork. Adhocracy culture characteristics are entrepreneurship, flexibility, and risk-taking. Market culture characteristics are formed by and oriented toward market superiority and its specific attributes are competitiveness and goal

achievement. Finally, hierarchy culture characteristics are coordination or management toward stability, forecasting the situation and smoothness, with emphasis on order, rules and regulations, and stability and control. All these types of cultures and their relationships with other variables in this study were investigated. This study intended to clarify, which type of culture is dominant in the public hospitals in Palermo, Italy and in which type of culture healthcare employees are more engaged and perform better. In addition, we investigated whether supervisor humor has a moderating role in these relationships. All these questions will be answered in this chapter.

Purposive sampling was used to gather data. 316 usable questionnaires were analyzed in this study. Participants were clinical and non-clinical employees from four public hospitals in Palermo, Italy, of which the one with the most participants in our study was the university hospital (Policlinico).

This study asked five research questions:

1) What is the dominant culture in selected public organizations?

2) What is the relationship between the different categories of corporate culture (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market) and employee in-role and/or extra-role performance?

3) Does engagement mediate the relationship between corporate culture and in-role and/or extra-role performance?

4) Does supervisor humor moderate the relationship between various categories of corporate culture and in-role and/or extra-role performance?

5) Does the moderated mediation role of supervisor humor and engagement influence the correlation between corporate culture and performance?

Research Question #1) What is the dominant culture in selected public organizations?

In order to answer this question, we calculated the mean, median and mode for the four types of culture in our research. Hierarchy, as expected in public organizations, showed the highest mean and median, followed by clan, market, and adhocracy. This findings were in line with the study by Acar and Pınar (2014) who indicated that the dominant culture in hospitals in Turkey was hierarchy. However, the observed findings in our study did not show a marked difference between the values for hierarchy and those for the other types of culture and it cannot be claimed that the dominant culture in public hospitals in Palermo is hierarchy. However, since hierarchy and clan culture had the highest scores among the four culture types, we can conclude that employees perceived the culture of their organizations more toward hierarchy and clan culture rather than the two other types. This is consistent with what Deshpandé & Farley (2004) mentioned about the mixture of these four types of culture in every organization, and stated that the weight of each type varies significantly across nations and in a way, it is linked to the main features of the national cultures. Organizations that follow entrepreneurial and competitive (adhocracy and market) cultures generally outpace the organizations with bureaucratic and consensual (clan and hierarchy) cultures in terms of performance.

The importance of organizational culture, especially for decision makers is pointed out in this study. They should select the proper culture based on the characteristics of each culture type and the expected outcome for their organization. They should also be aware of the trade-offs involved whenever such a decision is made.

Research Question #2) What is the relationship between the different categories of corporate culture (clan, adhocracy, market and hierarchy) and employee in-role and/or extra-role performance?

This study has investigated the relationship between corporate culture and employee performance. Previous studies examined similar constructs in different contexts, for instance, Denison (1984) found that the cultural and behavioral characterstics of organizations affect organizational performance. S. Saffold (1988) introduced the strong

culture model as a culture trait in organizations and claimed that organizational culture influences organizational performance. Rashid, Sambasivan, and Johari (2003) had showed the influence of organizational culture on organizational commitment and organizational performance. Kim et al. (2004), Jacobs et al. (2013) investigated the culture of the senior management team and its impact on organizational performance. Shahzad, Xiu, and Shahbaz (2017) verified the relationship between organizational culture and innovation performance.

Most of the above-mentioned studies were on social culture (culture as a trait) and its influence on organizational performance; in contrast, in this study we have used CVF, which is based on organizational effectiveness. This framework clarifies the complex nature of organizational culture and provides two main dimensions of cultural values by specifying the structure, strategy, and leadership characteristics and the respective types of operation. The main two dimensions of the CVF model are: "internal/external focus, and stability/flexibility". Furthermore, it divides culture into four types: clan, market, adhocracy, and hierarchy (K.S. Cameron & Quinn 2005). In this study we also investigated the relationship between corporate culture and in-role and extra-role performance of the employees, which is relatively new in the literature.

The analysis of the hypotheses showed that there is a negative correlation between clan, adhocracy and market cultures with extra-role performance toward the organization. Also, market culture showed correlation with in-role performance. Market culture represents accomplishment of goals, thereby the correlation between this type of culture and in-role performance might be because of the nature of the jobs in the hospitals. Hierarchy was the only type of culture, which did not have any correlation with any type of employee performance. This indicates that in the three culture types of clan, adhocracy, and market, the employees do not tend to do any extra job or citizenship behavior toward their colleagues. Market culture shows correlation with in-role performance. Therefore the answer for the above research question is that there are correlations between some types of corporate culture and some aspects of employee performance; however, as mentioned in our discussion in the literature review, we believe that corporate culture would have a stronger correlation with all aspects of in-role and

extra-role performance through engagement. As previous research studies have suggested, engaged employees typically perform better than others in the workplace (Fleck and Inceoglu, 2010; May et al., 2004; Saks, 2006; Shuck and Reio, 2011).

Research Question #3) Does engagement mediate the relationship between corporate culture and in-role and/or extra-role performance?

Another core objective of this study was to demonstrate the mediating role of engagement between corporate culture and "in-role and extra-role performance". Based on the result of the hypothesis testing related to this question, it is confirmed that engagement fully mediates the relationship between corporate culture and performance.

All the components of corporate culture significantly show indirect relationship with in-role and extra-role performance through engagement. Interestingly, even the negative correlations between the three types of clan, adhocracy and market culture and extra-role performance toward the organization (OCBO) became positive after entering engagement as the mediator in the model. This indicates the important role of engagement in this construct. This is also in line with the basic principle of Social Exchange Theory (SET), which argues that reciprocal behaviors between parties who interact in the workplace, means that they feel an obligation to make it up to each other. Relationships can create loyalty, trust, and mutual commitment over time. Several other studies similarly confirm the mediating role of engagement between its antecedents and outcomes, for example, those of Schaufeli and Bakker (2004a), Sonnentag (2003). Hierarchy and market culture are known as cultures, which are based on stability, control, and competitiveness and are most commonly observed in organizations (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Despite their popularity in organizational settings, these kinds of culture (hierarchy and market) do not offer the prospect of meaningful work to employees (Cardador and Rupp, 2011), which explains the lower engagement of employees (Reis et al. 2016). Our findings were aligned with previous studies and showed that these components of organizational culture (hierarchy and market) had a lower level of direct correlation with employee engagement than clan and adhocracy. However, with the

mediating role of engagement all the four components of culture significantly correlate with in-role and extra-role performance.

Research Question #4) To what extent if any, does supervisor humor moderate the relationship between the different categories of corporate culture (Clan, Adhocracy, Hierarchy and Market) and in-role and/or extra-role performance?

Our data analysis revealed that supervisor humor has a moderating role in the relationship between different types of corporate culture and "in-role and extra-role performance". The details of the findings about the moderating role of supervisor humor are as follow:

- Supervisor humor moderates the relationship between clan culture and extra-role performance toward individuals (OCBI).

- Supervisor humor moderates the relationship between adhocracy culture and extra-role performance towards both the organization and individuals (OCBO and OCBI).

- Supervisor humor moderates the relationship between market culture and extra-role performance towards the organization (OCBO).

- Supervisor humor moderates the relationship between hierarchy culture and in-role performance and extra-role performance towards individuals (OCBI).

This moderating effect of supervisor humor enhances the relationship between organizational culture and in-role and especially extra-role performance. In other words, when supervisor humor exists in different types of culture, employees perform better; especially extra-role performance or organizational citizenship behavior of employees towards individuals (OCBI) will be enhanced.

This result is consistent with the work of previous researchers, which had suggested that the proper use of humor would have a moderating effect (Avolio, Howell, and Sosik 1999). Humor reduces the stress of individuals (Hughes and Avey 2009). Furthermore, previous studies had emphasized the role of humor toward the effectiveness of leadership (Holmes and Marra 2006; Hughes and Avey 2009). Likewise, in our study, hierarchy culture showed a significant correlation with in-role and extra-role performance (OCBI), only when supervisor humor was factored in. Otherwise, no significant correlation with either in-role or extra-role performance could be ascertained. In the hierarchy culture, interactions are limited, the stress level is high, and it is based on stability and control. It can therefore be concluded that the moderating effect of supervisor humor, especially on the hierarchy culture with the said features, can smooth the interactions and consequently improve employee performance.

Research Question #5) Does the moderated mediation role of supervisor humor and engagement influence the correlation between corporate culture and performance?

This study confirmed that the relationship between corporate culture and in-role and extra-role performance of employees is affected by both the moderating role of supervisor humor and the mediating role of engagement. In chapter 4, we tested all the hypotheses about these relationships both with and without the moderating role of supervisor humor and the mediating role of employee engagement. The results demonstrated that all these relationships were significantly stronger when the variables of engagement, as a mediator and supervisor humor, as moderator, were entered. The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory by Hobfoll (1989) was used in our study to interpret the relationship between the variables and the findings were consistent with this theory. This stress theory expresses how employees can reduce their stress and become motivated to conserve resources by building better relationships with their colleagues and supervisors. This will allow them to maintain current resources and also acquire new ones in different organizational culture types, which leads to better performance.

5.3 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

These types of studies will help strategic managers to predict the trade-offs when selecting a dominant type of culture for their organization. It is important for strategic managers to be aware of the different types of culture and the influence they can have on the engagement and performance of the employees. By selecting specific aspects of different types of culture, strategic managers can expect predicted outcomes. For instance, in the clan culture, strategic managers should emphasize collaborative team building, leadership styles should be toward facilitating teamwork as mentors, and the strategy should be focused on empowerment, employee involvement, human resource development, and open communication (K.S. Cameron & Quinn 2005). However, selecting a proper culture also depends on the organization country, business type, the sector, and the expectation of shareholders of the organization (Deshpandé & Farley 2004).

Besides, in this study, the role of leader humor as a managerial tool was emphasized. Especially that our study was conducted in public hospitals, in which the stress level is high, and humor may be a remedy to control the stress. While healthcare employees are familiar with "gallows" or dark humor, which is common in hospitals (Dean & Major 2008), introducing the role of leader humor as a managerial tool would help managers to use it properly towards the objectives of their organization.

As Romero & Cruthirds (2006) mentioned, organizations can establish "humor-training seminars" to make the supervisor and team members aware of the benefits of humor in the workplace. For instance, subjects such as appropriate types of humor, gender and ethical differences in appreciating the humor, and matching the humor style with the specific organizational outcome can be discussed.

This study, by emphasizing the role of engagement in the employee outcome, tried to show that leaders and managers should provide resources for the employees on a daily basis, so that they can perform better. These resources can be supervisor coaching

and team atmosphere, which contribute to personal resources "(day-levels of optimism, self-efficacy, and self-esteem)" that in turn enhance engagement. The higher the level of employee engagement, the better the objective outcome (Xanthopoulou et al. 2007).

5.4 THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

In this study, the Competitive Value framework (CVF) was utilized to comprehensively investigate the structure, leadership, and strategy of organizations for each component of corporate culture. This is a relatively new contribution to the literature and has shown to what extent corporate culture can influence engagement and in-role and extra-role performance of employees. The competitive value framework explains the leadership style, strategy and structure for each type of culture and can be a useful guide for managers to design the proper strategy, structure and culture for their organization.

Furthermore, employee engagement is an immense issue for many organizations and scholars should consider the dilemma of "engagement gap". Despite abundant evidence in the literature of the relationship between corporate culture and employee engagement (Barbars 2012; Reis et al. 2016), there were scarce studies that examined the correlations of organizational culture in the CVF model as an important antecedent of engagement. As Reis et al. (2016) pointed out, previous studies were more around proximal antecedents of engagement rather than distal variables like culture.

Moreover, this study has illustrated how engaged employees perform better in terms of tasks assigned to them (in-role performance), and also the roles beyond the company's expectations (extra-role performance) or the so-called organizational citizenship behavior toward the organization and individuals (OCBO and OCBI) (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008).

Another theoretical implication of this study is that it shows how the process of employee motivation in the organization could be fueled. There is compelling evidence that reducing job demands and stressors would lead to acquisition of resources which

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could motivate employees and make them more engaged (Schaufeli & Bakker 2004b); however, there is scarce evidence as to how to achieve these goals, while resources are limited and changing organizational culture is not easy. Therefore, we believe that through conducting this study, we have shown that leader humor can act as a motivational stimulus for employees.

5.5 LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

This study, like every other study has some limitations.

- The first limitation is that, this study examines only positive or adaptive kinds of leader humor; negative or maladaptive humor is not included. The initial justification is that by entering all the styles of humor, we would have needed a much longer questionnaire, which may not have been be appropriate for respondents. It is generally recommended that self-completion questionnaires be short (Meadows 2003). Long questionnaires may cause respondents to answer superficially. However, since the destructive consequences of negative humor is already established in the literature and the initial intention of this study was to find new ways of enhancing employee engagement and productivity, negative types of humor would have contradicted our research objectives.

- During the data analysis we realized that the Cronbach's alpha of extra-role performance towards the organization (OCBO) was less than 0.7, and some of its factor loadings were less than 0.5; hence, we removed one item from its indicators to improve alpha. The highest Cronbach's alpha we obtained was 0.61. We did not nonetheless omit this construct because according to some studies, a Cronbach's alpha of lower than 0.7 is acceptable in social and psychological sciences (Field 2005). However, it showed some correlations that were not justifiable, for instance, its negative correlation with the components of organizational culture. Yet it showed acceptable correlations with other variables and also when we entered the mediator or moderator in our model, it showed

rational changes. As Van Sonderen et al. (2013) stated, instruments with reverse questions may sometimes create ambiguity. Hence, it might have been better to change the reverse questions and make them clearer for respondents in order to avoid making biased measurements.

- A further limitation is the role of local organizational culture in our construct. It is claimed that, specific components of local organizational culture are more significant compared with others and that some local organizational cultures are more vital to performance in one part of the organization than others (Hofstede 1985; Wilkins & Ouchi 1983). Similarly, Schneider (1987) has mentioned the role of individual culture, which may contradict the national or international culture of an organization and stated that these two perspectives on culture should be analyzed separately.

- The influence of personality traits on utilizing specific kinds of humor is reflected in the definitions of different types of humor introduced by Martin et al. (2003). It would be interesting if future studies use these constructs (personality traits of the supervisor and employees) as a moderator for the effect of leader humor on different outcomes like engagement and performance. Moderator variables like age or gender of the supervisors can also be tested.

- Furthermore, influence of leadership style (transformational & transactional) on the relationship of organizational culture, engagement, and in-role and extra-role performance can be investigated.

- In future studies, other outcomes of engagement such as turnover intention of employees or job satisfaction can be investigated as well.

- This study can be conducted as a longitudinal study, before and after conducting seminars and training sessions for supervisors about the importance and practicality of humor.

- A dyadic approach for this study may produce more accurate results, that is, two types of questionnaires be designed for the individual and organizational levels.

- Finally, this study can be conducted in different public and private sector organizations in different countries, so that the results in different settings can be compared.

5.6 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The present study contributes to the literature in five ways:

First, the types of culture encouraging employee engagement and performance are clearly summed up. This information could be used by managers to compare the consequences of any specific dominant culture with the objectives of their organization.

Second, investigating the culture in public hospitals by the competitive value framework (CVF) was rare in the literature and this study opens new horizons for strategic managers in the public sector. It can enable researchers and strategic managers to investigate the congruence between different cultures toward organizational strength and effectiveness.

Third, lack of engagement or "engagement gap" in organizations is one of the biggest concerns of organizations around the world (M.Saks 2006; Yasin et al. 2013). This study has tried to fill this gap by introducing solutions for managers to have more engaged employees.

Fourth, the interaction issues between leadership and subordinates in the workplace were addressed. We propose supervisor humor as a managerial tool to facilitate workplace interactions, since our study confirmed the result of previous studies introducing humor as a lubricant for relationships (Hughes & Avey 2009; Mesmer-Magnus et al. 2012).

Finally, this study introduces a new tool for supervisors to reduce the stress level of their subordinates in particularly stressful jobs or situations, and thereby increase engagement and improve performance. We accomplished this through carrying out the study in the setting of public hospitals in Palermo, Italy; and it is widely known that nurses and many other hospital employees frequently work under severely stressful conditions.

5.7 CONCLUSION

This study projected an analytical framework based on the Conservation of Resources Theory (COR) to investigate the relationship between organizational culture in the CVF model with in-role and extra-role performance of employees through employee engagement as mediator and leader humor as moderator.

The main findings of this research indicate that there are correlations between organizational culture and in-role and extra-role performance, however, these correlations are stronger when employees are engaged and positive leader humor exists.

This study has showed that in the public hospitals in Palermo, Italy, the leading culture is hierarchy followed by clan culture. The hierarchy culture did not show any direct correlation with employee in-role and extra-role performance. However, it showed strong correlation when employee engagement was added as the mediator. Furthermore, supervisor humor as moderator also had an impact on the relationship between organization culture and engagement and in-role and extra-role performance which shows how important can be the role of engagement and leader's humor on the performance of employees.

Finally, the model used in this study can be utilized by strategic managers as a new appraisal instrument for measuring employee performance in the healthcare system, since as Glickman et al. (2007) stated none of the tools currently in use for improving performance in public health services is flawless.

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APPENDIX

Study questionnaire (Italian language)

Gentile Partecipante,

La ringrazio per prendere parte a questo questionario. Mi chiamo Hooman Shahidi e questa ricerca rientra tra le attività del mio dottorato in "Modelli per il miglioramento della performance nel settore pubblico" che sto svolgendo presso l'Università degli Studi di Palermo. Si tratta di un anonimo questionario e tutte le informazioni raccolte saranno utilizzate solo per fini didattici e di ricerca. Il sondaggio è stato progettato per valutare alcuni aspetti specifici della cultura organizzativa e le loro influenze sull'efficienza dei dipendenti.

Il questionario è suddiviso in quattro parti, la prima parte raccoglie alcune informazioni demografiche (es. età. istruzione, dipartimento, genere) , la seconda parte riguarda l'organizzazione e l'ultima parte riguarda l'efficienza dei dipendenti. La compilazione del questionario richiederà circa 10 minuti. La prego di portare attenzione a tutte le domande e di rispondere con accuratezza.

Le sono davvero grato per la collaborazione e la sincerità dei giudizi che vorrà esprimere.

PARTE 1- Domande demografiche:

Genere:

 Maschile: ( )   Femminile: ( )

Dipartimento:

Clinico: ( )   Non Clinico: ( )

Categoria professionale:

Clinico: ( )   Non clinico:( )

Etá:

18-25: ( )   25-35: ( )   35-45: ( ) 45-55: ( )   Oltre i 55: ( )

Esperienza lavorativa (Anni):

1-5: ( )   5-10: ( )   10-15: ( ) 15-20: ( ) oltre i 20: ( )

Livello di istruzione:

Scuola secondaria ( )
Laurea triennale (o diploma di laurea) ( )
Laurea magistrale (o ciclo unico vecchio ordinamento) ( )
Dottorato/ scuola di specializzazione/master postlaurea ( )

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PARTE 2- Si prega di contrassegnare l'opinione espressa con una X.

	Cultura Organizzativa	Completamente in disaccordo	In disaccordo	Indifferente	D'accordo	Completamente d' accordo
	Caratteristiche dominanti					
1	L'organizzazione è un luogo decisamente personale. E' come una famiglia allargata. I dipendenti condividono molti aspetti della loro vita.	1	2	3	4	5
2	L'organizzazione è un posto molto dinamico e orientate all'imprenditorialità. I dipendenti sono disposti a mettersi in gioco e correre dei rischi.	1	2	3	4	5
3	L'organizzazione è decisamente orientata ai risultati. Una delle principali preoccupazioni è portare a termine il lavoro. I dipendenti sono molto competitivi e orientati all'obiettivo.	1	2	3	4	5
4	L'organizzazione è un luogo molto controllato e strutturato. Le procedure formali normalmente governano cosa fanno i lavoratori.	1	2	3	4	5
	Leadership					
5	I responsabili dell'organizzazione sono generalmente orientati al sostegno, alla facilitazione, allo sviluppo delle persone.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I responsabili dell'organizzazione sono generalmente orientati all'imprenditorialità, all'innovazione, all'assunzione dei rischi.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I responsabili dell'organizzazione sono generalmente orientati a un deciso orientamento al risultato senza fronzoli.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I responsabili dell'organizzazione sono generalmente orientati a coordinare, organizzare, far sì che vada tutto a buon fine	1	2	3	4	5
	Gestione delle Risorse Umane					
9	Lo stile di gestione nell'organizzazione è caratterizzato dal lavoro di squadra, dal consenso e dalla partecipazione.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Lo stile di gestione nell'organizzazione è caratterizzato dall'assunzione individuale del rischio, dalla capacità di innovare, dall'autonomia e dall'originalità.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Lo stile di gestione nell'organizzazione è caratterizzato da una spinta competizione, elevate richieste e attenzione al risultato.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Lo stile di gestione nell'organizzazione è caratterizzato dalla sicurezza delle procedure di lavoro, adesione alle regole prevedibilità e stabilità nelle relazioni.	1	2	3	4	5
	Collante organizzativo					
13	Il collante che tiene insieme l'organizzazione è la lealtà e la fiducia reciproca. Il coinvolgimento è elevato.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Il collante che tiene insieme l'organizzazione è l'impegno per l'innovazione e lo sviluppo. L'enfasi è sull'essere all'avanguardia.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Il collante che tiene insieme l'organizzazione è l'enfasi sui risultati e sul conseguimento degli obiettivi. La decisionalità e l'orientamento al successo sono temi condivisi.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Il collante che tiene insieme l'organizzazione sono le politiche e le regole formali. E' importante garantire un buon funzionamento organizzativo.	1	2	3	4	5

2

	Enfasi strategica					
17	L'organizzazione enfatizza lo sviluppo delle risorse umane. Sono costanti l'elevata fiducia, la chiarezza, la partecipazione.	1	2	3	4	5
18	L'organizzazione enfatizza l'acquisizione di nuove risorse e la creazione di nuove sfide. Sono considerati di valore il provare cose nuove e la ricerca di nuove opportunità.	1	2	3	4	5
19	L'organizzazione enfatizza il successo e la competizione. Dominano il raggiungere gli obiettivi e la conquista del mercato.	1	2	3	4	5
20	L'organizzazione enfatizza la continuità e la stabilità. Sono ritenute importanti l'efficienza, il controllo e la linearità dei processi.	1	2	3	4	5
	Criteri di successo					
21	L'organizzazione definisce il successo sulla base dello sviluppo delle risorse umane, del lavoro di gruppo, del coinvolgimento del lavoratore e dell'attenzione rivolta alle persone.	1	2	3	4	5
22	L'organizzazione definisce il successo sul possedere I prodotti o servizi più nuovi o unici. E' leader di prodotto e innovatrice.	1	2	3	4	5
23	L'organizzazione definisce il successo sulla base della competizione del mercato e sul superare la concorrenza. E' fondamentale la leadership di mercato.	1	2	3	4	5
24	L'organizzazione definisce il successo sulla base dell'efficienza. Sono fondamentali il raggiungimento degli obiettivi, la programmazione regolare delle attività e il contenimento dei costi	1	2	3	4	5

PARTE 3- In questa sezione, si vuole conoscere la tua percezione su alcuni caratteristiche specifiche del tuo diretto Supervisore. Si intende per Supervisore, il soggetto con cui hai maggiori interazioni ed è responsabile del tuo operato.

	Caratteristiche del tuo diretto Supervisore	Quasi Mai	Raramente	Qualche Volta	Spesso	Molto Spesso
1	Il mio supervisore ha senso di umorismo per stemperare situazioni di stress e di contrasto	1	2	3	4	5
2	Il mio supervisore racconta aneddoti divertenti per avere ragione	1	2	3	4	5
3	Il mio supervisore rende l'ambiente disteso, facendoci ridere, quando siamo troppo seri senza un motivo ragionevole	1	2	3	4	5
4	Il mio supervisore usa storie divertenti per risolvere i conflitti	1	2	3	4	5
5	Il mio supervisore ha senso dello humour, specie quando deve riappacificarsi con qualcuno	1	2	3	4	5

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PARTE 4- Questa parte riguarda il coinvolgimento e la performance (in termini di efficienza) dei dipendenti; si prega di rispondere alle seguenti domande nel modo più onesto possibile. Si ricorda che tutte le risposta verranno gestite in maniera confidenziale, mantenendo il suo anonimato. Grazie.

	Indagine sul Benessere del lavoro (UWES)	Quasi Mai	Raramente	Qualche Volta	Spesso	Molto Spesso
1	Nel mio lavoro mi sento pieno di energia	1	2	3	4	5
2	Nel mio lavoro, mi sento forte e vigoroso	1	2	3	4	5
3	Sono entusiasta del mio lavoro	1	2	3	4	5
4	Il mio lavoro mi ispira	1	2	3	4	5
5	La mattina, quando mi alzo, ho voglia di andare a lavoro	1	2	3	4	5
6	Sono felice quando lavoro intensamente	1	2	3	4	5
7	Sono orgoglioso/a del lavoro che faccio	1	2	3	4	5
8	Sono immerso nel mio lavoro	1	2	3	4	5
9	Mi lascio prendere completamente quando lavoro	1	2	3	4	5

Le seguenti domande riguardano la performance degli impiegati. Riguardano gli aspetti definiti dalle condizioni contrattuale della propria posizione lavorativa ed eventuali attività extra lavorative.

	Performance	Quasi Mai	Raramente	Qualche Volta	Spesso	Molto Spesso
1	Rispetto tutte le responsabilità della mia posizione lavorativa contrattuale	1	2	3	4	5
2	Raggiungo gli obiettivi di performance, indicati dalle condizioni contrattuali.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Svolgo con coscienza tutti incarichi che mi sono stati assegnati	1	2	3	4	5
4	Svolgo con appropriatezza tutti gli incarichi che mi sono stati assegnati	1	2	3	4	5
5	Qualche volta non riesco a rispettare i miei compiti minimi	1	2	3	4	5
6	A volte trascuro alcuni aspetti lavorativi che dovrei svolgere	1	2	3	4	5
7	A volte mi prendo pause di lavoro che sono prolungate o immeritate	1	2	3	4	5
8	Rispetto le regole organizzative informali stabilite per il mantenimento dell'ordine	1	2	3	4	5
9	Informo sempre in anticipo quando non sono in condizione di andare a lavoro	1	2	3	4	5
10	Qualche volta faccio lunghe telefonate personali a lavoro	1	2	3	4	5
11	Rimango al lavoro per una durata maggiore rispetto a quella prevista dalle condizioni contrattuali	1	2	3	4	5
12	Qualche volta mi lamento a lavoro su aspetti marginali o insignificanti	1	2	3	4	5
13	Generalmente svolgo compiti che non mi sono stati assegnati, per aiutare qualche collega che è stato assente	1	2	3	4	5
14	Mi interessa il benessere dei miei colleghi	1	2	3	4	5
15	Generalmente aiuto i colleghi che hanno troppi incarichi	1	2	3	4	5
16	Non aiuto i nuovi dipendenti	1	2	3	4	5
17	Solitamente ascolto, con attenzione e tempo, i problemi e le preoccupazioni dei miei colleghi	1	2	3	4	5
18	Diffondo informazioni lavorative ai miei colleghi	1	2	3	4	5

Grazie per la sua partecipazione, buon lavoro!

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Study Questionnaire (English language)

	Research Questionnaire (Premier draft)	Assessment
No.	**Corporate Culture**	
1-	1-The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
	2-The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
	3-The organization is very results-oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement-oriented	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
	4-The organization is very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
2-	1-The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
	2-The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovation, or risk taking	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
	3-The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
	4-The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
3-	1-The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
	2-The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
	3-The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
	4-The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
4-	1-The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
	2-The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
	3-The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
	4-The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth running organization is important	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree
5-	1-The organization emphasizes human development.	Strongly disagree----------Strongly agree

	High trust, openness, and participation persist	
	2-The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	3-The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	4-The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are important	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
6-	1-The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	2-The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	3-The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	4-The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost production are critical	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	Engagement (UWES)	
Absorption	1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy*	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous*	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	3. I am enthusiastic about my job	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	4. My job inspires me	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
Vigor	5. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	6. I feel happy when I am working intensely	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
Dedication	7. I am proud on the work that I do	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	8. I am immersed in my work	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	9. I get carried away when I'm working	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	Use of humor by supervisor	
	1. My supervisor uses humor to take the edge off during stressful periods," and The	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	2. My supervisor uses a funny story to turn an argument in his or her favor,"	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	3. my supervisor makes us laugh at ourselves when we are too serious,"	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	4. my supervisor uses amusing stories to defuse conflicts,"	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	5. My supervisor uses wit to make friends of the opposition."	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree

	In-role performance	
	1.I fulfills all the responsibilities specified in my job description	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	2.I consistently meet the formal performance requirements of my job	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	3.I conscientiously performs tasks that are expected of me	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	4.I adequately completes all of my assigned duties	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	5.I sometimes fails to perform essential duties of my job (rs)	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	6.I sometimes neglects aspects of the job that I am obligated to perform (rs)	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
OCB-O	1.I sometimes takes undeserved or extended work breaks (rs)	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	2.I adheres to informal organizational rules devised to maintain order	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	3.I always gives advance notice when I am unable to come to work	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	4.I sometimes spends a lot of time in personal phone conversations (rs)	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	5.My attendance at work is above the norm	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	6.I sometimes complains about insignificant or minor things at work (rs)	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
OCB-I	1.I generally helps others who have been absent	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	2.I take a personal interest in the well-being of other employees	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	3.I generally help others who have heavy workloads	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	4.I go out of the way to help new employees	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	5.I generally takes time to listen to coworkers' problems and worries	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree
	6.I pass along work-related information to coworkers	Strongly disagree---------Strongly agree

Table 0-1

ANNOTETED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Tables below are annotated bibliography of the variables of this thesis. Annotated bibliography is useful to arrange the previous related literature and synthesizing the study.

		ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR HUMOR		
Article Name	Year Published	Purpose	Sample	Findings
Malone, Paul B. 1980. "Humor : A Double-Edged Tool For Today ' s Managers ?" *Academy of Management Review* **5(3): 357–60.**	1980	This research intends to emphasize the potential role of humor in the workplaces	descriptive	It stated that despite evidences about humor to be favorable, even therapeuthic, yet few studies attempted to examine this variable in management and leadership. It mentioned that research on this construct might help managers and leaders to use it as a tool to get things done. This study had asked several questions for future researches. Perhaps the most important question was: Can humor be used as a managerial tool? In conclusion it mentioned that because of decline in the resources in organizations, we should examine the variables that probably can help. It stated that humor is an undeveloped resource that can enhance the satisfaction and productivity of employees at work. Then it had advised researchers to perform in-depth researches on this variable to get people to perform better.
Duncan, W Jack. 1982. "Humor in Management: Prospects for Adminstrative Practice and Research." *Academy of Management* **7(1): 136–42.**	1982	Proposed that humor is an effective managerial tool.	descriptive	Perhaps Duncan (1982) was the first scholar who suggested that humor is an effective managerial tool. The effect of humor on group cohesivness, comunications, power and status was emphasized. Also it has suggested that it might be a relation between humor and dynamic variables and people performance. Some recommendations for the managers regarding using humor in different situation had given in this research.
Avolio, Bruce J, Jane M Howell, and John J. Sosik. 1999. "A Funny Thing Happened on the Way to the Bottom Line : Humor as a Moderator of Leadership Style Effects Source : The Academy of Management Journal , Vol . 42 , No . 2 (" *Academy of Management* **42(2): 219–27.**	1999	To illustrate the moderating role of humor	This study was conducted in a large Canadian finacial organization. This organization had had several departments, consisting of 115 leaders and 322 followers.	The results showed a positive and direct association between humor and performance. Active leadership (transformational or contingent reward leadership) also had a positive relationship with humor, however laissez-faire leadership had a negative correlation with humor. They suggested that firms could train leaders to use humor in a proper way, also inform them of potentially negative impacts of humor if it have not been used appropriately, on individual performance.

Reference	Year	Purpose	Method/Sample	Findings
Martin, Rod A. et al. 2003. "Individual Differences in Uses of Humor and Their Relation to Psychological Well-Being: Development of the Humor Styles Questionnaire." *Journal of Research in Personality* 37(1): 48–75.	2003	Categorizing humor based on individual differences in use of humor.		This study categorized humor based on individual differences in use of humor. He categorized humor as (Affiliative, Self enhancing, Aggressive and Self-defeating). This was the main categorization of humor, which had been used in majority of researches related to the use of humor in the workplaces. He and his colleague also introduced (Situational Humor Response Questionnaire—SHRQ) in (R. A. Martin & Lefcourt 1984)
Romero, EJ, and KW Cruthirds. 2006. "The Use of Humor in the Workplace." *The Academy of Management* …. http://amp.aom.org/content/20/2/58.short (March 26, 2015).	2006	Outcomes of humor when being utilized as managerial tool	descriptive	Again the role as a managerial tool had been emphasized. The role of humor on reducing stress, enhancing leadership, group cohesiveness, communication, creativity and also organizational culture was underlined. They suggested that gender and ethnicity has a moderating effect on the relationship between humor and organizational outcomes. This study used an interesting metaphor and mentioned that the appropriate style of humor in different contexts is like taking the proper tool from a toolkit. By using proper tool they will achieve desired outcome.
Romero, E., and a. Pescosolido. 2008. "Humor and Group Effectiveness." *Human Relations* 61(3): 395–418.	2008	Introducing a specific model that explains the impact of proper humor on group effectiveness	descriptive	It presented a framework based on Hachman's group effectiveness model. The group effectiveness in this model comprises of viability, group productivity and learning that shows the organizational humor impact on these constructs. This article claims that this model has the potential both for theory advancement of organizational humor and to offer managers the understanding of two seemingly unrelated variables (humor and group effectiveness), which are in fact meaningfully related.
Hughes, Larry W., and James B. Avey. 2009. "Transforming with Levity: Humor, Leadership, and Follower Attitudes." *Leadership & Organization Development Journal* 30(6): 540–62.	2009	Investigating the moderating role of leader's humor on the relationship between transformational leadership and followers behavior, such as job satisfaction, affective commitment, identification and trust	This study was conducted in two phases with a sample of 369 working adults.	The result of this study indicated that leader's humor has moderiting effect on the relationship between transformational leadership and both trust and affective commitment. It suggested that transformational leaders who had used more humor get the higher rate of abovementioned outcomes. Also it proposed practical implications for transformational leaders who effectively use humor in work settings. It stated that theoritacally, the varaiables that was introduced in this study might be antecedent of more distal variables like turnover and work performance.
Van den Broeck, Anja et al. 2012. "This Is Funny: On the Benefícial Role of Self-Enhancing and Affiliative Humor in Job Design." *Psicothema* 24(1): 87–93. www.psicothema.com.	2012	Investigated the impact of affiliative and self-enhancing humor on both engagment and burnout of employees	from a large sample of 1200 Belgian employees.	There was no association between humor styles and burnout however there was positive correation between humor styles and engagement.
Mesmer-Magnus, Jessica, David J. Glew,	2012	Conducting a meta-	The sample had used (k	Consequently this study suggested that: Leader's humor has

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and Chockalingam Viswesvaran. 2012. 27 Journal of Managerial Psychology *A Meta-Analysis of Positive Humor in the Workplace*.		analysis about the humor in workplace	¼ 49, n ¼ 8,532) consisting of 49 studies	association with employee work-related outcomes (i.e., performance, job satisfaction, work withdrawal and group cohesion) and also on leader effectiveness (performance and follower approval). Furthermore employee humor correlates with employee health outcomes (i.e., burnout, stress, health and coping effectiveness) and employee work-related outcomes.
Guenter, Hannes, Bert Schreurs, and I J Hetty Van Emmerik. 2013. "How Adaptive and Maladaptive Humor Influence Well-Being at Work : A Diary Study." *Humor* 26(4): 573–94.	2013	Investigating the role of reaction from others to adaptive and maldaptive humor as the moderator	This was a qualitative study which took place between 57 ducth employees in an automative company.	They haven't find any moderating effect from reaction to humor. There are in-line with other studies in this area that adaptive humor enhance enagement of individuals in the workplace and maladaptive humor make them emotionally burnout.
Pundt, Alexander, and Felicia Herrmann. 2014. "Affiliative and Aggressive Humor in Leadership and Their Relationship to Leader-Member Exchange." *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*: 108–25.	2014	Afiliative and aggressive humor as the antecedents of leader member exchange (LMX) with the mediating role of (identification with the leader) was investigated in this study.	This was a longitudinal study, which took place in a time lag of 6 weeks with the sample of 152 employees in Germany	Relational identification (Identification with the leaders) indicates the relationship between leaders and their followers. It shows that the relationship between leader and follower will become deeper when the leader used affiliative humor. Therefore it will increase LMX. The result of this study confirms the positive role of affiliative humor but it illustrates that when the humor is aggressive (identification with the leader) did not mediates the relationship between aggressive humor and LMX.
Lehmann-willenbrock, Nale, and Joseph A Allen. 2014. "How Fun Are Your Meetings ? Investigating the Relationship Between Humor Patterns in Team Interactions and Team Performance." *Journal of applied psychology* 99(6): 1278–87.	2014	Investigating humor in a team context. The link between humor and performance	They videotaped behavioral patterns of humor and laughter in 54 organizational meetings. This was a longitudinal study and took place with 2 years lag.	They discovered that humor enhances positive communication, procedural structure, and new solutions. Humor patterns (not humor and laughter itself) were positively associated with team performance in team level of analysis. It also illustrates that when the job insecurity in team level as a boundary was high, humor patterns and team performance were negatively correlated however when job insecurity was low, humor and team performance were positively correlated. This study highlighted the importance of study on team interactions when team-level boundaries exist over time.
Ghaffari, Fatemeh, Nahid Dehghan-nayeri, and Mahboubeh Shali. 2015. "Nurses ' Experiences of Humor in Clinical Settings." *Medical Journal of the Islamic Republic of Iran (MJIRI)* (6): 1–11.	2015	Investigating the impact of humor on the nurse's well-being when there is a shortage in resources like, the number of personnel or equipment in hospitals.	Qualitative study, which interviewed 17 nurses in 5 university hospitals.	Nurses described their experiences and described how humor can help them to reduce their stress in clinical setting. Five themes had been studied including, the dynamics of humor, condition enforcement, and risk-making probability, instrumental use and change: opportunities and threats. This study was useful to illustrate how humor in health care environment can enhance workplace cheerfulness and improve mental and emotional health of nurses and patients.
Lee, Deog-ro. 2015. "The Impact of	2015	investigated leaders and	This was a dyad	The results showed that when leaders use self-enhancing

Leader ' s Humor on Employees ' Creativity : The Moderating Role of Trust in Leader *." *Seol Journal of Business* 21(1).		subordinates relationships, to show how leader's humor can impact on employee creativit	quantitative study that investigated leaders and subordinates relationships, 71 leaders and 316 subordinates from five telecomunication companies in South Korea	humor, it improves the creativity of subordinates and also, trust in leader moderates this relationship. Especially the relationship will be stronger when the trust between leader and subordinates increased.
Goswami, Ashita, Prakash K. Nair, and Michael A. Grossenbacher. 2015. "Impact of Aggressive Humor on Dysfunctional Resistance." *Personality and Individual Differences* 74: 265–69. http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0191886914006114 (August 5, 2015).	2015	Aggressive humor had been used as moderator to examine its role on the relationship between abusive supervision and dysfunctional resistance with the mediating role of negative affect.	235 employees in Indian international companies participated in this study.	The result indicates that aggressive humor and dysfunctional resistance had correlation. Furthermore, aggressive humor moderates the direct relationship between abusive supervision and dysfunctional resistance, however, it did not moderates the indirect paths.
Mathies, Christine, and Tung Moi Chiew. 2016. "The Antecedents and Consequences of Humor for Service A Review and Directions for Research." *Journal of service theory and practice*: 137–62.	2016	To investigate the use of humor in service delivery encounters	Descriptive	The study found that utilizing humor in service encounters is a creative affiliative behavior that enhances the bond between service employees and their clients. Also they emphasized that humor caused employees to cope with emotional labour and increase their well-being. It also softens the interaction between employees and their clients and decrease unpleasant emotional reactions. The services became more effective through enhancing responsibility acceptance of service employees.
Gayadeen, S Marlon, and Scott W Phillips. 2016. "Donut Time: The Use of Humor across the Police Work Environment." *Journal of Organizational Ethnography* 5(1): 44–59. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/JOE-06-2015-0016.	2016	The research purpose was to investigate the use of humor between officers in police department.	Qualitative study, data were collected by interviews and observations in police department in New york, USA	Result of this study suggests that officers in order to socialize manage the stress and also superiority, use humor. The use of humor depends on the situation and can be varied as arranged or spontaneous. This study emphasizes the role of humor as a gauge for organizational and individual health.
Pundt, Alexander, and Laura Venz. 2017. "Personal Need for Structure as a Boundary Condition for Humor in Leadership." *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 38(1): 87–107.	2017	To illustrate leaders humor indirectly predicts commitment and burnout of employees through mediating role of LMX	This study was taken place in two waves between 142 employees	They suggest that despite the fact that leader's humor can smooth the relationship between leader and subordinate however, it depends on the humor recipient to accept this kind of informal interaction in structure. Some employees prefer to have only formal interaction (personal need for structure) with their leader. They find that the relationship between leader's humor and commitment and burnout is stronger in low need of structure. However the relationship with emotional exuastion was not significant.

| Mesmer-magnus, Jessica et al. 2018. "The Effects of Supervisor Humor on Employee Attitudes Humor." | 2018 | To investigate the impact of leader's use of four kinds of Affiliative, self-enhancing, self-defeating and aggressive humor on employee's job satisfaction, organizational pride, organizational commitment and self-esteem | The sample was collected from 216 employees. | When a supervisor uses positive kinds of humor affiliative and self-enhancing humor he/she would be more favorable comparing to a supervisor who uses negative kinds of humor. The result of the study indicates that Positive humors were positively related to employee's attitudes outcome and negatively correlated with leader's negative humor. The mediating role of supervisor favorability also was confirmed in positive kinds of humor. |

Axtell Ray, C. 1986. CORPORATE CULTURE :The Last Frontier of Control. *journal of management studies* (May).

This article indicates corporate culture as a form of control. Organizations by effectively changing the culture can make more enageged employees. It had said that if corporate culture is implemented properly and is used as an managerial strategy it can promote loyalty, enthisiasm, deligence and devotion in the organization which are the componenet of emplyee engagement.

Kahn, W. A. 1990. Psychological Conditions of Personal Engagement and Disengagement at Work Author (s): William A . Kahn Source : The Academy of Management Journal , Vol . 33 , No . 4 (Dec ., 1990), pp . 692-724 Published by : Academy of Management Stable URL : http://. *Academy of Management* 33(4): 692–724.

Actually, this was the first study which comprehensively studied the engagement construct and actually introduced it. This article started with the idea that individuals can use a variety of degree of selves, physically, cognitively, and emotionally at work or performance, which has implications for both job and experience. Two qualitative studies were conducted in order to generate theory. One was among summer school counselors and another was on employees in an architecture company. These studies were conducted to explore conditions at work which individuals personally engage in it or express their personal selves. Or the conditions that disengage or withdraw from it in order to defend their personal selves during role performance. This article describes and illustrates three psychological conditions, meaningfulness, safety and availability and their contextual resources.
These three conditions are related to the theoretical concept and are a direction for future research.
Three factors generally influence on psychological meaningfulness, 1-Task characteristics 2- Role Characteristics 3- Work interaction.
Previous researches indicated that four factors impacts on psychological safety, 1- Interpersonal relationship 2- Group and intergroup dynamics 3- Management style and process 4- organizational norms.
And finally psychological availability: the data extracted from two studies indicate that four types of interferences influenced this component: 1- physical energy 2- emotional energy 3- insecurity 4- outside life.

This study had clarified enagement construct and introduced a framework of employee enagagement in the HRD area. Especially in the extent of theory building, scholarship and practice. Furthermore it dilivered the latest view points, research and strategy development, to use "employee engagement as an organizational performance and workplace culture-building strategy".

Schaufeli, Martínez, I. M., Pinto, A. M., Salanova, M. & Bakker, A. B. 2002. Burnout and Engagement in University Students. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* 33(5): 464–481. doi:10.1177/0022022102033005003

This study emphasized that burnout and engagement as two opposite constructs which have an impact on performance. They have empirically tested their hypothesis on the university students from Spain, and the Netherlands. The main point of this research is that engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. They concluded that irrespective of the country efficacy and vigor are positively correlated with performance.

May, D. R., Gilson, R. L. & Harter, L. M. 2004. The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology* 77(1): 11–37. doi:10.1348/096317904322915892

This is a field study in a U.S. Midwestern insurance company. They have investigated the mediating role of three psychological conditions - meaningfulness, safety, and availability on employee's engagement based on Kahn (1990) work. The result of this study indicates that all these three psychological conditions positively correlated with engagement. Among these three conditions, meaningfulness has the strongest correlation. Job enrichment and work role fit were both positively related to psychological meaningfulness. Rewarding co-worker and supportive supervisor correlate positively with psychological safety, however, adherence to co-worker norms and self-consciousness were negatively correlated. Available resources and participation in outside activities were positively linked to Psychological availability. Lastly, psychological meaningfulness fully mediates the relationship between job enrichment and work role fit with engagement. Psychological safety partially mediated the relationship between co-worker norms and engagement.

M.Saks, A. 2006. Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. doi:10.1108/02683940610690169

This paper expresses the popularity of employee engagement at that time. Also, it stated that there is a lack of studies in the academic literature about the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. They have introduced a model based on social exchange theory. The data were gathered from 102 employees in different jobs and organizations. This article had distinguished job and organization engagement and found out a significant difference for them. They have illustrated antecedent and consequences of engagement as well. They indicated that perceived organizational support is the antecedent of both job and organizational engagement. However job characteristics predict only job engagement, and procedural justice predicts organizational engagement. Furthermore, job and organizational engagement are the mediators of percieved organizational support and job charateristic and the outcome variables are job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to quit and organizational citizenship behavior.

Macey, W. & Schneider, B. 2008. The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and organizational* ... 1: 3–30. Retrieved from http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1754-9434.2007.0002.x/pdf

This is conceptual research which had tried to solve the ambiguity of the meaning of engagement among academicians and also practitioners. They suggested propositions about a) psychological state of engagement b) behavioral engagement and c) trait engagement. Also, they propose that job attributes and leadership are the main constructs which impact on behavioral engagement and has a moderating role among three abovementioned components of engagement.

Bakker, A. B. & Demerouti, E. 2008. Towards a model of work engagement. *Career Development International* 13(3): 209–223. doi:10.1108/13620430810870476

This is a meta-analysis on engagement to provide an overview concept of work engagement. They have introduced the popular JD-R model of engagement. In addition they stated that personal resources are the main antecedents of engagement. Furthermore engaged employees are more inovative, productive and more willing to do more than it is expected from them.

Fleck, S. & Inceoglu, I. 2008. A comprehensive framework for understanding and predicting engagement. *Handbook of employee engagement* 31–42.

This is a book chapter report which studied on the relationship between engagement and organizational performance, for instance; profitability, revenue growth, earning per share and employee turnover. They have introduced a model which described the antecedent and consequences of engagement. This model is a different approach to engagement comparing to the JD-R model and has more focussed on organizational engagement. They have placed characteristics of the work environment as antecedents of engagement. They claim that this model will solve the ambiguity of interpretation that is often related to organizational engagement.

Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A. & Crawford, E. R. 2010. JOB ENGAGEMENT : ANTECEDENTS AND EFFECTS ON JOB PERFORMANCE. *Academy of Management* 53(3): 617–635.

This article had introduced a more complete explanation of the relationship between job engagement and performance in a narrower aspect. This study had conducted between 245 firefighters and their supervisors. Their hypothesizes were support and concluded that engagement mediates the relationship between perceived organizational support, core self-evaluation and two performance dimensions: task performance (In-role performance) and organizational citizenship behavior (extra-role performance). They have also examined the mediating role of job involvement, job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation which none of them did not exceed the engagement as a mediator.

Gruman, J. A. & Saks, A. M. 2011. Performance management and employee engagement. *Human Resource Management Review* 21(2): 123–136. doi:10.1016/j.hrmr.2010.09.004

This is a conceptual paper, which introduced a model of engagement management. They suggest that improving performance may be best attained only when performance management system promotes employee engagement. This model shows how employees can be more engaged and consequently improve performance.

Rurkkhum, S. & Bartlett, K. R. 2012. The relationship between employee engagement and organizational citizenship behavior in Thailand. *Human Resource Development International* 15(2): 157–174. doi:10.1080/13678868.2012.664693

This is another quantitative study which confirmed the association of employee engagement and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). It was conducted in Thailand among 522 employees from four large organizations. They have also tested the moderating role of perceived human resource development (HRD) on this relationship. They concluded that employee engagement was correlated with all the aspects of OCB and it was stronger for the civic virtue component of OCB. However, they hadn't found any significant influence of the moderator HRD on the relationship.

Anitha, J. 2014. Determinants of employee engagement and their impact on employee performance. *International Journal of productivity and Performance management* 63(3): 308–323. doi:10.1108/IJPPM-01-2013-0008

They have found the most related variables in the literature and examined them as predictors of engagement. The purpose was to identify key determinant of employee engagement and emphasize the importance of employee engagement. They had tested following variables as predictors of engagement; workplace wellbeing, compensation program, team and co-worker relationship, leadership, working environment, policies and procedures, training and career development. However, the variables that had the strongest on engagement was working environment and team and co-worker relationship. They collect their

data (383 valid responses) from employees in small-scale organizations.

Breevaart, K., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., Heuvel, M. Van Den, Breevaart, K., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., et al. 2015. Leader-member exchange , work engagement , and job performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. doi:10.1108/JMP-03-2013-0088

This research article was conducted among 847 Dutch police officers. The purpose of the study was to examine the leader-member exchange relationship with job performance. They have integrated LMX theory and resource theories. They have hypothesized that the relationship between LMX and job performance is mediated by job resources (autonomy, development opportunities, and social support) and employee engagement. SEM method was employed to test these hypotheses. They had concluded that employees had high-quality LMX relationships in the work environment that are more resourceful (i.e. development opportunities and social support are higher, but not higher autonomy). When the workplace is more resourceful, it triggers work engagement and job performance.

Hsieh, C. & Wang, D. 2015. Does supervisor-perceived authentic leadership influence employee work engagement through employee- perceived authentic leadership and employee trust ? *The International Journal of Human Resource management* 37–41. doi:10.1080/09585192.2015.1025234

This study intended to examine the relationship between authentic leadership and employee engagement with the mediating role of employee trust. This was a dyadic study which examined both supervisor and employees perception of authentic leadership. The sample was collected from 77 team supervisors and 345 employees in 36 different companies. The result indicated that employee trust, fully mediates the relationship between supervisor-perceived authentic leadership and employee engagement. In addition, employee-perceived authentic leadership fully mediated the relationship between supervisor-perceived authentic leadership and employee trust, also employee-perceived authentic leadership fully mediates the relationship between supervisor-perceived authentic leadership and employee engagement. Furthermore, in the individual level, employee-perceived authentic leadership was partially mediated by employee trust in its relationship with employee work engagement.

Reis, G., Trullen, J. & Story, J. 2016. Perceived organizational culture and engagement: the mediating role of authenticity. *Journal of Managerial Psychology* 31(6): 1091–1105. doi:10.1108/JMP-05-2015-0178

The notion of being authentic at work get more attention in recent studies and organizations. Therefore this study intended to examine the mediating role of employee authenticity between four component of organizational culture (hierarchy, clan, market, and adhocracy) and employee engagement. The research question was whether having more authenticity at work influences employees engagement. They have collected data from a sample of 208 employees in different industries in Brazil. The methods they had used was structural equation modeling (SEM). Their results surprisingly indicates that the components of organizational culture which seem more participative and inclusive (i.e clan and adhocracy) has no relation to authenticity. On the other hand cultures with more, order, control and stability (i.e. hierarchy and market) are negatively correlated with authenticity. In addition authenticity at work mediates the relationship between hierarchical and market culture with work engagement. The result of this study is important because as we can see hierarchy and market culture which are more common cultures in organizations (Cameron and Quinn, 2006; Cardador and Rupp, 2011), are less likely to provide opportunities for employees to act autonomously at work, therefore, these kinds of culture reduce the personal meaningful work and consequently less employee engagement.

Strategy

Snow, C. C. & Hrebiniak, L. G. 1980. Strategy , Distinctive Competence , and Organizational Performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 25(2): 317–336.

This study had investigated the relationship between four kinds of strategy (defender, prospector, analyzer, and reactor) with organizational performance and distinctive competence of organizations. The sample was selected from 100 different organizations in several industries, for instance, air transportation, plastic materials, certified carriers, and semiconductors and related devices. Results indicated that all four organizations strategy was being practiced in organizations. Also, it suggested that strategy and industry were strongly associated with financial performance. They also revealed that Defender and prospectors strategies have numerical dominance among three industries.

Jennings, D. F. & Seaman, S. L. 1994. High and Low Levels of Organizational Adaptation : An Empirical Analysis of Strategy , Structure , and Performance Author (s): Daniel F . Jennings and Samuel L . Seaman Published by : Wiley Stable URL : http://www.jstor.org/stable/2486761 ADAPTATION : A. *Strategic Management Journal* 15(6): 459–475.

This study had investigated the levels of adaption of organizations based on environmental change in the industry by analyzing the strategy. The selected industry was the Texas saving and loan industry because continuously changing in rules and regulations had created an environment that adaption was necessary. The result indicated that organizations that adapted their strategy-structure by changes had a higher performance level.

Huselid, M. A. 1995. The Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Turnover , Productivity , and Corporate Financial Performance Author (s): Mark A . Huselid Source : The Academy of Management Journal , Vol . 38 , No . 3 (Jun ., 1995), pp . 635-672 Published by : A. *Academy of Management Journal* 38(3): 635–672.

This paper comprehensively assessed the link between Human Resource strategy of (High-performance Work Practices) and the company's performance. The sample was collected from a thousand companies. The result indicated that HRM has a significant influence on employees outcome (turnover and productivity) and also on the short and long term of organization financial performance.

Hitt, M. A., Bierman, L., Shimizu, K. & Kochhar, R. 2001. Direct and Moderating Effects of Human Capital on Strategy and Performance in Professional Service Firms : A Resource-Based Perspective. *Academy of Management Journal* 44(1): 13–28.

This paper had investigated the relationship between strategy and performance, however, emphasized the moderating role of human capital on this relationship. The study had taken place in 100 large companies in the U.S. The importance of human capital was discussed in this research. It is suggested that intangible resources are even more important than tangible resources in generating a competitive advantage for organizations. For example knowledge as an intangible resource resides in human capital, therefore, firms creating values through the use of selected and developed human capital. The result indicated that human capital moderates the relationship between strategy and performance, which is in line with resource-strategy contingency fit.

Structure

Nahm, A., Vonderembse, M. & Koufleros, X. 2003. The impact of organizational structure on time-based manufacturing and plant performance. *Journal of Operations Management* 21(3): 281–306. doi:10.1016/S0272-6963(02)00107-9

This paper introduced a framework to investigate the relationship between different components of the structure (i.e. number of layers in the hierarchy, level of horizontal integration, locus of decision-making, nature of formalization, and level of communication), and plant performance. This study had introduced new instruments to measure these dimensions of the structure. Part of the sample N= 104 was used to measure these dimension and other parts N=120 was used to test the structure relationship. This study was among manufacturing companies. The result indicates that time-based manufacturing had a positive significant impact on plant performance.

Sine, W. D., Mitsuhashi, H., Kirsch, D. A., Sine, W. D. & Kirsch, D. A. 2006. Emerging Economic Sectors REVISITING BURNS AND STALKER : FORMAL STRUCTURE AND NEW VENTURE PERFORMANCE IN EMERGING ECONOMIC SECTORS. *Academy of Management Journal* 49(1): 121–132. doi:10.5465/AMJ.2006.20785590

This article studies the impact of formal structure on the performance on internet sector companies. The sample was extracted from internet service ventures operating in the U.S in the duration of the five-year period 1996-2001. Results reveal that the ventures with more formal structure (founding team formalization, specialization, and administrative intensity) had better performance than the companies with more organic structures.

Foster, W. M. & Washington, M. 2009. Organizational structure and home team performance. *Team Performance Management* 15(3/4): 158–171. doi:10.1108/13527590910964937

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between organizational structure and team performance. This article was conducted among baseball and hockey teams based on their data points. The result revealed that sport manager teams who consider organizational structure (task interdependence) outperform other teams. A significant impact of task interdependence and performance was illustrated in this study.

Leadership

Mccoll-kennedy, J. R. & Anderson, R. D. 2002. Impact of leadership style and emotions on subordinate performance 13: 545–559.

This study had examined the relationship between leadership style and employee performance. Also, they had examined the mediating role of emotions of frustration and optimism on this relationship. This survey collected its sample from 139 sales representatives in pharmaceutical companies in Australia. The finding revealed that transformational leadership has a significant impact on frustration and optimism. Also, transformational leadership had a significant relationship with performance however indirectly.

Sarros, J. C., Cooper, B. K. & Santora, J. C. 2008. Building a climate for innovation through transformational leadership and organizational culture. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies* 15(2): 145–158. doi:10.1177/1548051808324100

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, organizational culture, and organizational innovation. The sample was collected from 1,158 managers in private sector members of the Australian Institute of Management. The relationship between these three constructs was confirmed.

Martin, R., Guillaume, Y., Thomas, G., Lee, A. & Epitropaki, O. 2016. Leader–Member Exchange (LMX) and Performance: A Meta-Analytic Review. *Personnel Psychology* 69(1): 67–121. doi:10.1111/peps.12100

This was a meta-analysis study which examines the association of leader-member exchange (LMX) and work performance (task, citizenship, and

counterproductive performance). There was a positive correlation between LMX and task performance. Also a possitive relationship with citizenship performance. The relationship between LMX and citizenship performance were mediated by trust, empowerment, and job satisfaction, which trust made the relationship more strong than other mediators. LMX had a negative relationship with counterproductive performance.

Annotated Bibliography Corporate Culture

Denison, D. R. 1984. Bringing corporate culture to the bottom line. *Organizational Dynamics* 13(2): 5–22. doi:10.1016/0090-2616(84)90015-9

This is a longitudinal study which examines the influence of organization's culture on performance. This study during five years time had compared 34 firms performance. These companies were listed either in New York or the American stock exchange. The results of this study suggested that cultural and behavioral characteristics of organizations have a significant impact on a firm's performance. Companies with more participative culture outperform those without such a culture, however, the difference during the time shows it may be a cause and effect relationship between culture and performance.

S.Saffold, G. 1988. Culture Traits , Strength , and Organizational Performance : Moving Beyond " Strong " Culture. *Academy of Management* 13(4): 546–558.

This analytical research discusses the relationship between culture and performance. They claim that if scholars want to accurately examine the culture-performance link, they should more accurately measure this relationship by combing different measurements of culture-performance link and fundamental culture-performance related process in organizations shoulb be noticed. They have introduced seven more appropriate cultural constructs (i.e., climate formation, behavioral control, strategy formulation, social efficacy, organizational learning, integration and differentiation, and leadership). The author suggested that the categories should be in a way to contribute to the culture-performance outcome. This study suggested that a universally theorized notion is that if a culture is to contribute to the improving performance, it should be both "strong" and have unique "traits": shared behavior patterns, beliefs, and particular values.

Denison, D. R. 1991. Corporate Culture and Organizational Effectiveness by Daniel R . Denison. *The academey of management review* 16(1): 203–205.

This is a book chapter which examines the relationship between the organization's culture and financial performance. They have introduced for concepts for organization culture; Involvement, Consistency, Adaptability, and Mission. Data were collected from two different sources, first was from University of Michigan's Institute of Social Research collected from 1966-1980, and the second source was from Standard & Poor's annually financial performance of 200 public organizations. The result of the case indicated that four concepts of organizational culture when is appropriate has an association with financial performance.
The definition of each of these concepts are as follow:
Involvement: indicates the level of participation of organization individuals in decision making. It also signifies the commitment and responsibility of the members. Consistency: refers to the extends of beliefs, values, and expectation of the members. Adaptability: Is the degree of the capability of an organization to behavioral, structural and system change in order to align with its environment. Mission: refers to the existence of a common definition of the purpose of the organization.

Rashid, M. Z. A., Sambasivan, M. & Johari, J. 2003. The influence of corporate culture and organizational commitment on performance. *Journal of Management Development* 22(7–8): 708–728. doi:10.1108/0262171031048787

This study similar to the previous study had tested the relationship between corporate culture and financial performance and also organizational commitment. It was conducted in Malaysia among the companies listed in the Kuala Lumpur stock exchange. They have sent 1036 questionnaires which 202 were returned for the study. The result of this study indicated that both organizational culture and organizational commitment have an impact on financial performance. This study had used the organizational culture based on Deshpande and Farley (1999) framework which were improved by Cameron and Quinn (2005) an is based on organization effectiveness.

Kim, S., Lee, J., Yu, K., Kim, S., Lee, J. & Yu, K. 2004. Corporate culture and organizational performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. doi:10.1108/02683940410537927

In this study also the purpose was to examine the relationship between organizational culture and organizational performance. In this study, they have used the organizational culture profile (OCP) (Chatman and Jehn, 1994). The study was conducted among ten companies, three manufacturing, four hospitals, and three insurance companies. The result confirmed the influence of organizational culture on organizational performance.

Flamholtz, E. G., Randle, Y., Flamholtz, E. G. & Randle, Y. 2012. Corporate culture , business models , competitive advantage , strategic assets and the bottom line Theoretical and measurement issues. *Journal of Human Resource Costing & Accounting*. doi:10.1108/14013381211284227

This is a conceptual study which looks at the corporate culture as a strategic asset if it uses properly can impact on the success of the business model and can be a source of competitive advantage. And if not managed properly it can divert it to "liability". It has also illustrated key dimensions of corporate culture and related performance measurement issues. They viewed corporate culture as one of the three component of "Human Capital" besides skills and competencies of individuals. Also, it illustrates successful organizations with a positive culture like Starbucks and Wal-Mart and on the contrary companies with a dysfunctional culture like AIG, K-Mart which their culture became "liabilities".

Jacobs, R., Mannion, R., Davies, H. T. O., Harrison, S., Konteh, F. & Walshe, K. 2013. The relationship between organizational culture and performance in acute hospitals. *Social Science and Medicine* 76(1): 115–125. doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2012.10.014

This longitudinal paper had used the competing value framework (CVF) of Cameron and Quinn (2005) relationship with organizational performance in hospitals in England (NHS). However, they have measured the senior management team culture. The sample was collected from three different time periods between 2001/2002 and 2007/2008. To analyze the data they had used multinomial logit models. The result indicated that corporate culture changes over time and depends on routine measures of performance. Hospitals culture during the time period were moving forward to more competitive culture models. This study showed the relationship between corporate culture and organizational performance.

Valmohammadi, C. & Roshanzamir, S. 2015. The guidelines of improvement: Relations among organizational culture, TQM and performance. *International Journal of Production Economics* 164: 167–178. doi:10.1016/j.ijpe.2014.12.028

The purpose of this study was to diagnose the organizational culture (CVF) and different aspects of TQM and comparing two models of culture and TQM impact on performance. They have used structural equation modeling (SEM). The sample was among 209 CEOs and senior managers in pharmaceutical companies in Tehran/Iran. The results indicated that hierarchy and market cultures are dominant cultures. Which emphasizes more stability than flexibility. Also, a positive direct relationship between organizational culture and TQM on performance existed. Finally, they had suggested some effectiveness and quality strategies for these organizations.

Shahzad, F., Xiu, G. Y. & Shahbaz, M. 2017. Organizational culture and innovation performance in Pakistan's software industry. *Technology in Society* 51: 66–73. doi:10.1016/j.techsoc.2017.08.002

This recent study similar to the previous study investigated the role of organizational culture on innovation performance. The sample was collected from 215 individuals in software companies in Pakistan. The results indicated that organizational culture influence on innovation performance. Especially these specific industries have to adapt and change continuously and the proper type of culture and aligning with changes would lead to innovation performance. They had used knowledge-based view theory (KBV) and suggested that companies need an open climate to promote creativeness and innovation therefore as influencing factors on the organizational culture they introduced; external orientation (customers), organizational climate, Flexibility, and support to change, teamwork, employee empowerment.