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The Decision to Pursue Self-Interests: Cultural Implications at the Individual Level

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THE DECISION TO PURSUE SELF-INTERESTS:
CULTURAL IMPLICATIONS AT THE INDIVIDUAL LEVEL

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science

By

Corinne P. Wright
B.S., Wright State University, 2003

2011

Wright State University

WRIGHT STATE UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

APRIL 6, 2011

I HEREBY RECOMMEND THAT THE THESIS PREPARED UNDER MY SUPERVISION BY Corinne Patrice Wright ENTITLED The Decision to Pursue Self-interests: Cultural Implications at the Individual Level BE ACCEPTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF Master of Science.

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ABSTRACT

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In the current study I examined the relationships between personality, culture, and the decision to pursue self-interests. Specifically, I proposed that conscientiousness, extraversion, idiocentrism, masculinity, and power distance would be positively related to the decision to pursue self-interests whereas agreeableness would be negatively related to the pursuit of self-interests. I also proposed an exploratory examination of interactions between personality and individual cultural values in predicting the decision to pursue self-interests. As predicted, idiocentrism and masculinity significantly predicted the decision to pursue self-interests. In addition, masculinity moderated the effects of both agreeableness and neuroticism on the pursuit of self-interests. Also, idiocentrism moderated the effects of conscientiousness and openness on the pursuit of self-interests. Finally, power distance moderated the relationship between conscientiousness and the pursuit of self-interests.

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DEDICATION

To Thomas F. Wright Jr., my dearest and truest friend.

I. INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE

Personality and culture are two important variables that have a complex relationship (see McCrae, Costa, Del Pilar, Rolland, & Parker, 1998 for a review). Despite the large bodies of literature on these topics individually, few researchers have examined how personality and culture interact to affect work outcomes (Willock et al., 1999). In addition, few researchers have examined the intersection between cross-cultural psychology, personality, and decision-making (Weber & Hsee, 2000). Weber and Hsee stated that future research should explore how cultural and individual differences affect the task of decision-making. Research in this area is very much needed. For example, companies create incentive programs for employees in an effort to cultivate innovative ideas, improve job satisfaction, and foster positive work attitudes. Yet, little is known about how cultural values affect the way these incentives are perceived, and the work behaviors necessary to receive these rewards. The intent of my proposed research is to examine the relationships between personality, cultural values, and the decision to pursue self-interests when participating in a simulated incentive program.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Culture

Since the 1800s, researchers, practitioners, and laymen have used the term culture to describe a wide and varied range of phenomena. Adolf Bastian, a researcher credited for being the inspiration for modern anthropology, described culture as the psychic unity of mankind (Koepping, 1983). British anthropologist Edward Tylor (1871) redefined the construct as, “a diverse set of activities characteristic of all human societies” (p. 1).

Although contemporaries of Bastian and Tylor (e.g., Benedict, 1934, Boaz, 1940; Kroeber & Kluckohn, 1952; 1963) have advanced the study of culture, and world events (e.g., World War II) helped to modernize methods to collect cultural data, we are still unable to agree on what culture is.

In their influential review, researchers Kroeber and Kluckohn (1952; 1963) compiled 164 definitions of culture being used across the social sciences. Studies conducted by Kroeber, Kluckohn, and others in the anthropological field have allowed researchers to safely deduce what culture is not: culture is not a biological occurrence of genetic predispositions. However, researchers have not been as definitive in providing an explanation for what culture is. Philosophers of science have theorized that the difficulty in defining culture is a result of the phenomena that we wish to define. Lowie (1917/1966, p. 25-26) stated, “Culture is a thing *sui generis* which can be explained only in terms of itself.” Further, Tooby and Cosmides (1992) described culture as a phenomenon much like intelligence and learning; all three are used to explain behavior although all three have inadequate definitions.

Despite the philosophical issues of defining culture, researchers have illustrated key components of the construct. According to Tooby and Cosmides (1992), culture is a fabricated artifact of psychological systems that evolves over time and is apparent in two or more people. Researchers also have viewed culture as a cognitive response to environmental occurrences. Klein (2004) described culture in terms of situational cues and developed the *cultural lens model*. According to Klein, groups of individuals see the world similarly, based on shared experiences and other commonalities. These shared commonalities result in patterns of similar behavior amongst societies. Similarly, Hofstede theorized that culture collectively programs minds and distinguishes groups or categories of people (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). Hofstede labeled five factors evident at various levels in each country he studied: individualism, power distance, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and short term versus long-term orientation. In the current study, I examined individualism, masculinity, and power distance. Nations high in individualism are comprised of citizens who see themselves as individuals, not as the roles they play within groups. Masculine cultures place a higher value on financial achievement than interpersonal relationships. Individuals who live in countries high in power distance expect and accept that individuals with less authority are afforded an unequal distribution of power.

Researchers have found that culture is related to many facets of human behavior, from religious preferences to economic output (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede & Bond, 1988). Hofstede (1980) found that power distance correlated with the use of violence in domestic policies and with the unequal division of income within a country. Hofstede also found that individualism correlated with national wealth (e.g., Gross National

Product per capita) and with the ability to move between social classes. In addition, Hofstede found that masculinity negatively correlated with the portion of national wealth that governments of prosperous countries allocated to assisting third world country development. Roth, Prasnikar, Okuno-Fujiwara, and Zamir (1991) found that culture related to observed differences in bargaining behaviors. Despite support for culture's far-reaching predictive ability, few researchers have examined how culture affects work related outcomes

As asserted by Chen, Wasti, and Triandis (2007), an individual's cultural values might differ from the dominant cultural values of their home country. Researchers have suggested that culture is a group variable that expresses the established differences of a national civilization. However, because culture is manifested in behaviors, each behavior does not necessarily manifest in all people of a given culture (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). For example, individualism and collectivism refer to general attributes of a culture, whereas idiocentrism and allocentrism are opposite ends of a spectrum used to measure individual value systems (Triandis, 1989). Idiocentrics consider themselves to be separate from the group and view personal goals as more important than those of the group. Allocentrics tend to subordinate their personal goals for the goals of the collective. These views are generally unrelated to the general beliefs of society; yet collectivistic cultures will have more allocentrics than idiocentrics.

Maznevski, DiStefano, Gomez, Noordehaven, and Wu (2002) and Vitell, Paolillo, and Thomas (2003) found similar support for individual levels of the cultural dimensions of power distance and masculinity. According to Maznevskiet al., (2002) power distance and masculinity can be measured at the individual level. The researchers labeled

individual levels of power distance as hierarchy. An individual high in hierarchy would agree that both “power and responsibility are naturally unequally distributed throughout society and that those higher in the hierarchy have power over and responsibility for those who are lower” (2002, p. 277). Earley (1997) stated that power distance measures the extent to which an individual accepts inequality and large disparities between those with power (e.g., superiors) and those without it (e.g., subordinates). Run (2008) stated that masculine individuals tend to place value on acquiring material possessions and admire those who use aggressive attempts to gain wealth. These individuals tend to define their life through their work and achievements. Those low in masculinity are considered high in femininity (Run, 2008). Individuals high in femininity value quality work conditions, job satisfaction, and employee participation at work. Feminine individuals focus on relationships, interdependence, and equality.

When examining national levels of culture, past researchers typically have aggregated scores across a population of scores to compute a mean score, which is representative of the cultural levels of each nation (e.g., Hofstede, 1980). Further, as indicated by Gelfand, Erez, and Aycan (2007), cultural researchers often ignore level of analysis and use group and individual levels of culture interchangeably to explain various work related behaviors. These prior methods of research are problematic because it fails to acknowledge both the group and individual variance in cultural dimensions. Although individuals within a nation share similar beliefs, the individual scores are not all at the mean, but are a distribution of scores. This variability suggests that researchers should examine cultural differences at the individual level. This distinction requires a construct related to but distinct from the general notion of culture. For the remainder of this

document, I will use the term *individual cultural values* when referring to learned beliefs and values measured at the individual level and *culture* when referring to the broad notion of shared beliefs and values within groups. Further, given that I will focus on effects within one society, my focus in this study will be exclusively on individual cultural values.

Individual Cultural Values

According to Rokeach (1973, p. 5), “A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence.” Rokeach further stated that values affect individuals cognitively and emotionally, and thus behavior will vary based on these value differences. Researchers have stated that personal values are a result of learned behavior (Olver & Mooradian, 2003). Schwartz (1994) indicated that values are universal phenomena that act as the “guiding principle” of a person’s life (p. 21). Because individuals learn values within a cultural context and adjust these values based on the demands of the environment (Berry, 1976; Kerr, 2001), one could view individual cultural values as a personal expression of societal preferences within a culture. Although related to culture, individual cultural values are viewed as a distinct construct with predictive ability. For example, researchers have found that attitudes about certain personality traits depend on the cultural values related to that trait (Kerr, 2001; Zimbardo, 1977). Although cultural values are somewhat stable (Olver & Mooradian, 2003), they are context- dependent and are not the same as personality traits. As I will discuss in the next section, personality is based mostly on biological predispositions, although some aspects of personality are based on environment.

Personality

Personality is a very broad construct and typically has been defined by the traits used in a given model (Hofstee, 1994). Over fifty years of research has defined personality within the framework of a five-factor model (e.g., Norman, 1963; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1993; John, 1990). According to McCrae and John (1992), the five factors of personality describe five distinct personality traits. Openness describes individuals who are curious about both inner and outer worlds, and due to this curiosity, have experientially richer lives. Open individuals are willing to entertain novel ideas and unconventional values, and they experience both positive and negative emotions more keenly than do closed individuals. Conscientious individuals are purposeful, strong-willed, and determined. Individuals high in conscientiousness are thought to be reliable and organized people. Extraverted individuals are social; they like people and prefer large groups and gatherings. Extraverts are assertive, active, and talkative. They like excitement and stimulation and tend to be cheerful. Extraverts also tend to be upbeat, energetic, and optimistic. Agreeable individuals are fundamentally altruistic. They are sympathetic to others and are eager to help. Agreeable people believe that others will be equally helpful in return. Lastly, neurotic individuals are low in emotional stability and are more susceptible to psychological distress.

In a meta-analysis, Barrick, Mount, and Judge (2001) found that personality had a weak influence on many work outcomes. Extraversion was associated with training performance, teamwork, and managerial performance. Neuroticism negatively correlated with work and training performance, supervisor ratings, and teamwork. Agreeableness was related to supervisor ratings, training, sales-and managerial performance, and

teamwork. Conscientiousness correlated with work, training, sales- and managerial performance, supervisor ratings, and teamwork. Openness was associated with training performance and teamwork.

The Manifestation of Personality Across Cultures

According to McCrae, Costa, Del Pilar, Rolland, and Parker (1998), the five-trait model of personality is evident across cultures. This research suggested that there is an element of invariance amongst mankind, regardless of culture. They further asserted that individual personality traits are more of an expression of human biology than just a result of life experiences (McCrae et al, 2000). Subsequently, many studies have used this personality model to assess cross-cultural data and found support for the validity of the Big Five across cultures (e.g., Paunonen et al., 1992).

Much debate and research has focused on the possible relationships between personality and culture. According to Marsella (1995), personality is shaped by the culture in which the person was socialized. He further asserted that he viewed personality as a cultural artifact, similar clothing or technology, due to the mores, norms, values, and basic assumptions of that culture. Although researchers agree that culture is not biological, there is evidence that culture and personality are related. When reanalyzing the IBM study data (Hofstede, 1980), Hofstede and McCrae found that the Big Five personality traits significantly correlated with the dimensions of culture devised by Hofstede in that study. They found these correlations to be significant in the data for all of the 33 countries represented in the study. From these and other findings, McCrae (2000) indicated that the study of personality and culture should begin to examine other aspects of the relationship between culture and personality. According to McCrae,

researchers should examine the interaction of personality traits and culture and how this interaction shapes the behavior of individuals. McCrae's assertion of culture's predictive ability is consistent with Klein (2004) and others who view culture as a situational cue that affects how individuals view the world. However, to the best of my knowledge, no published study has examined an interaction model of culture, personality, and work outcomes.

The Decision to Pursue Self-Interests

According to Beach and Mitchell (1998), decision makers are individuals who make up their own minds and are aware and open to changing their decision once it is presented to others. These individuals use schemas or images to organize their decision-making strategy. Beach and Mitchell (1998) referred to this organization and implementation of decision images as *image theory*. The theorists stated that this internal process is applied to all situations and that all decisions are made based on three schemas of knowledge. The value image represents the decision-maker's principles and establishes an inflexible criteria regarding whether the decision is good or bad. Individuals construct their goals and aspirations for the future into the trajectory image, a representation of the decision maker's long-term agenda. Individuals use the strategic image to store the plans implemented to achieve the goals established in the trajectory image. Individuals frame situations to be congruent with one or more of the images and make a decision based on the chosen schema. Researchers have used image theory to describe decisions that involve screening of options, choosing amongst options, or continuing with a course of action. Many workplace decisions involve the types of

decision-making tasks described within the image theory literature. Particularly, the decision to pursue self-interests readily fits within the image theory framework.

Bazerman (1993) suggested that an individual acts in self-interest when he or she is thinking and behaving in a way that the individual expects to lead to an optimal or maximum result. An individual acting in self-interest only considers his or her own values and risk preferences. Research conducted by Korsgaard, Meglino, and Lester (1996) suggested that individuals tend to vary in the level of motivation to pursue self-interests. The researchers found that individuals with a high level of concern for others did not regard personal outcomes as highly as those low in concern for others. Specifically, individuals concerned for others were more likely to engage in helping behaviors within organizations than individuals with a self-orientation.

Although the pursuit of self-interest might appear to have a negative connotation, the effect of the decision depends on the situation. For example, sales organizations that offer a bonus structure to employees are operating under the assumption that individuals will focus most of their effort on increasing their production. This focus is a decision to pursue self-interests, and encouraged by the organization. However, in health organizations, employers are more likely more pleased with staff that put the needs of the patient ahead of personal goals. Likewise, organizations looking to foster teamwork and cooperation might not appreciate employees who are solely focused on individual needs.

Current Study

Both individual cultural values and personality predict the decision to pursue self-interests. Hofstede (1988) and Triandis (1995) demonstrated that individuals from collectivist cultures display a greater disposition to help others than those from

individualistic cultures. Regarding personality, researchers have shown pro-social tendencies to be positively correlated with agreeableness, extraversion, and openness (Graziano, Habashi, Sheese, & Tobin, 2007; Mlcak & Zaskodna, 2008). The findings of the researchers indicated that individual differences predispose individuals to conduct helping behaviors, with little or no influence from the situation or who might benefit from the decision to help.

Researchers have examined the main effects of personality and individual cultural values to predict several job performance outcomes. Klehe and Anderson (2007) found that personality and individual cultural values predicted the amount of effort an individual is willing to exert on job-related tasks. The researchers found that the cultural dimensions of individualism and power distance and the personality traits of conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness explained some effort exerted in typical and maximum performance situations. Willock et al. (1999) found that many farming decisions were significantly correlated with Big Five personality traits. Willock et al. suggested that personality affected how farmers approached decisions in operating their farms. Individuals high in conscientiousness tend to use independent thinking. The conscientiousness trait also includes analyzing situations, being cognizant of one's environment, and having goals and objectives. Willock et al. (1999) found conscientiousness was significantly correlated with achievement, success, and business development.

In the Edinburgh study (Willock et al., 1999), researchers found that several workplace outcomes were correlated with the personality trait of extraversion. Extraversion correlated with achievement, pessimism (negatively), openness, financial

risk, success, sustainability, quality of life, status, production, and concern for the environment. Consistent with the characteristics described in the personality literature, extraverted individuals tend to be assertive within groups and more willing to discuss their opinions with others. Based on this research, I propose the model presented in figure 1, illustrating how individual cultural values, personality, and their interaction predict the decision to pursue self-interests. I hypothesized that both conscientiousness and extraversion will be positively related to the decision to pursue self-interests.

Hypothesis 1. Conscientiousness and extraversion will be positively related to the decision to pursue self-interests.

The personality trait of agreeableness consists of being able to get along with others, be a team player, and possess good interpersonal skills. In their decision-making study, Willock et al. (1999) found that agreeableness was negatively correlated to pessimism and financial risk. Due to the social nature of those high in agreeableness, I hypothesized that individuals high in agreeableness will not pursue self-interests because such individuals will want to reduce the risk of upsetting members of the team.

Hypothesis 2. Agreeableness will be negatively related to the decision to pursue self-interests.

Based on previous findings, culture also should predict the decision to pursue self-interests. As demonstrated by Hofstede (1980), individuals high in individualism tend to be less concerned with group goals than those high in collectivism. In regard to masculinity, Run (2008) stated that masculine cultures tend to place value on acquiring material possessions and admire those who use aggressive attempts to gain wealth. These individuals tend to define their life through their work and achievements. Run (2008) also

suggested that individuals high in power distance act submissively to supervisors and are usually unwilling to openly disagree with their supervisor. These individuals tend to show loyalty, deference, and compliance to those in a position of authority. Individuals being asked by a supervisor to pursue an independent goal might forsake the needs of coworkers in an effort to please the authority figure. As discussed above, I expected that national culture would have an analog in terms of individual cultural values within a single country. Therefore, I hypothesized that individual cultural values reflecting individualism, masculinity, and power distance would be positively related to the decision to pursue self-interests.

Hypothesis 3. Idiocentrism, masculinity, and power distance will be positively related to the decision to pursue self-interests.

McCrae (2000) suggested that researchers should examine the interaction of personality and culture to predict behavioral outcomes. If culture is a situational cue, or lens (Klein, 2004), then culture should moderate personality's predictive ability. Researchers examining team outcomes have noted that cultural context has a moderating effect on personality's ability to predict various team outcomes. Moynihan and Peterson (2004) suggested a contingent approach, positing that context, such as group task and/or organizational culture, affects the influence of personality on group processes and outcomes. Aronoff, Meese, and Wilson (1983) found that individuals who required high esteem were more productive in egalitarian versus hierarchical organization structures. Chatman and Barsade (1995) found that organizational culture moderated the cooperative behavior of individuals who are more likely to be helpful (i.e., allocentric), whereas individuals with an individualistic predisposition (i.e., idiocentric) remained competitive,

regardless of the cultural context. Chatman and Barsade's findings indicate that individual differences in organizational cultural levels also can moderate helping behaviors in the workplace.

Based on the findings of researchers using the contingent approach, I expected that individual cultural values would moderate the relationship between personality and the decision to pursue self-interests. Because no published study has examined this relationship, I posed these relationships as a research question. However, I suspect that certain aspects of personality and individual cultural values will interact in predicting self-interest behavior. As previously stated, I expect that individuals high in conscientiousness are more likely to pursue self-interests to fulfill their need for achievement. As demonstrated by Hofstede (1980), individuals high in individualism (i.e., idiocentrism) tend to be less concerned with group goals than those high in collectivism (i.e., allocentrism). Based on these findings, individuals high in conscientiousness and idiocentrism will pursue self-interests more than conscientious individuals who are low in idiocentrism. In addition, I suspect that power distance will interact with extraversion in its effect on the pursuit of self-interests. Extraverted individuals will be more inclined to pursue self-interests; individuals high in power distance place greater emphasis on deference and loyalty to those in a position of authority. Therefore, I expect that extraverted individuals who are high in power distance will make the decision to pursue self-interests more than those who are low in power distance. I also suspect that agreeableness and masculinity will interact. Individuals who are agreeable and masculine will feel compelled to use more assertive efforts to achieve individual success, specifically, by pursuing self-interests.

Research Question. Do idiocentrism, masculinity, and power distance moderate the relationship between the big five of personality and the decision to pursue self-interests?

PILOT STUDIES

Researchers examining the decision to pursue self-interests commonly used commons dilemmas (Kopelman, 2009). The use of commons dilemmas (also known as take-some games, resource dilemmas, or common-pool-resource games) allow individual behavior to influence others' well being and create conflict between the goals of the individual and a collective (Kahan, 1974). Although researchers have used commons dilemmas extensively in the self-interest literature, few are based on a workplace scenario; therefore I will not use an existing commons dilemma. I developed a self-interest task based on workplace decisions.

Participants and Procedure

To develop the self-interest task, I conducted two pilot studies. In the first pilot study, twelve I-O Psychology graduate students and two I-O Psychology professors read the task and responded to the task items I provided. Afterwards, the participants made suggestions to improve the task. Based on the data collected in the first pilot, I deemed it necessary to conduct a second pilot study that allowed participants to provide open-ended responses to each item. This qualitative data could provide alternative responses to each item that represented all likely actions participants would most likely pursue.

In the second pilot study, sixty participants completed the online survey by first reading the consent form and checking the box indicating they agreed to participate. The participants then read the scenario, and responded to the scenario items. The participants first responded to the items in an open-ended format. I collected the qualitative data to ensure that the proposed experiment provided all likely response alternatives.

Measures

In the survey, I referred to the self-interest task as a decision-making task so that participants were not aware of the true construct of interest. The first part of the scenario reads as follows (see appendix A for the complete scenario):

“Your company is looking for innovations to improve productivity. Within every department, teams of 5-7 people are asked to come up with ideas to present to company executives. Your company will invite teams with the best ideas to the next company-wide conference, where they will have lunch with the company CEO and discuss how the company can benefit from their idea for innovation. If a team idea is integrated into company policy, each team member will receive a \$5,000 bonus.

You receive your team assignment and notice that you are acquainted with each person on your team. Before your first team meeting, your immediate supervisor casually mentions to you that an individual from your department might be promoted based on individual contributions to the team project. Your supervisor just received a promotion and is now looking for a replacement. Many people in your department, including yourself, have consistently performed well, so contributions to this project might be the deciding factor.”

Responses to the task allowed me to examine any behavioral variation in the participant’s responses. Example items included, “During the team brainstorming session, you have come up with several ideas. The team votes on all the ideas presented and plan to proceed with someone else’s contribution to the project. How likely are you to: Do nothing to help the team.” And, “How likely are you to: Continue to lobby the

merits of your ideas” (see Appendix A for scenario and items). For the present study, I focused on the final portion of the task, concerning shareholder meeting attendance.

Results

The data showed that the alternatives I provided represented most of the open-ended responses. I added additional response alternatives where appropriate. The pilot participants also completed the self-interest task by endorsing response items provided by the researcher. The purpose of this portion of the pilot study was to ensure response variability amongst participants. Results indicated adequate response variability, across item responses and in the self-interest items. Forty-five percent of the participants stated they would attend the shareholder meeting whereas 55% stated they would attend the final team practice session.

IV. METHOD

Participants and Procedure

I accessed study participants through the use of the StudyResponse Project (“The StudyResponse Project,” n.d.). StudyResponse, which maintains a database of over 80,000 individuals who have agreed to participate in online research, has been used to recruit participants for several published studies (e.g., Judge, Ilies, & Scott, 2006; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Reynolds & Ceranic, 2007).

Two hundred ninety six employed adults participated in the study through StudyResponse, an on-line data collection service. Eight participants were removed from analyses due to incomplete responses, seventy-one were deleted for non-purposeful responding, and three were deleted due to being multivariate outliers, resulting in a sample size of two hundred and thirteen. Participants had at least three years of full-time work experience, were citizens of the United States, and lived and worked in the U.S. Most participants were white (83.4%) and male (53.5%), and their average age was forty years ($M = 40.19$, $SD = 10.15$). Participants reported working for an average of 8 years ($M = 8.20$, $SD = 6.26$) in various positions. Example job titles include managers, medical professionals, engineers, teachers, information technologists, secretaries, security guards, and corporate executive officers.

Respondents endorsed the online consent form by checking the consent box (see appendix B for the consent form). After giving consent, respondents completed all surveys online and in the following order: self-interest task, personality, individual cultural values, and demographics. I used this order of scales in an effort to avoid any priming that participants could receive from the personality or cultural value scale items.

Researchers have indicated that administering personal inventory items first might cause participants to be more cognizant of their item endorsements on subsequent questionnaires or surveys (Andersen, 2005).

Measures

Self-Interest task. I used a self-interest task created for this study (see Appendix A). Please refer to the pilot study section for details regarding this measure. Participants read the workplace scenario, then stated how likely they are to commit actions using a 7-point graphic ratings scale ranging from “most likely” to “not at all likely”. The main dependent variable of the self-interest task consisted of the last 3 questions of the scenario, which were questions 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3. Responses to the items, “How likely are you to attend the shareholder’s meeting?” “How likely are you to attend the final team practice session?” and “Choose to attend either the shareholder’s meeting or the final team practice session,” were converted to *z*-scores and averaged to create a composite score for the decision to pursue self-interests. A positive composite score indicated that the individual would more likely attend the shareholder’s meeting, which I operationalized as the decision to pursue self-interests. A negative composite score indicated that the individual would more likely attend the team practice session. The reliability for the composite score was .66. The remaining items of the self-interest task were used for post-hoc exploratory analyses.

Personality. I assessed the personality factors of conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness, extraversion, and neuroticism with the 50-item IPIP, a Big 5 personality assessment (Goldberg, 1999.). Example items include, “I am seldom sad or depressed” and “I work hard to accomplish my goals.” To assess personality,

participants indicated on a 7-point scale the extent to which they agreed with each item. Participants who rated an item with a 1 strongly disagreed with the item whereas those who endorsed an item with a 7 strongly agreed with the item. There were 10 items averaged for each personality construct, with larger scores indicating higher levels of the trait. Researchers (Goldberg, 1999) reported the Cronbach's alpha as .81 for conscientiousness, .77 for agreeableness, .82 for openness, .86 for extraversion, and .86 for neuroticism. See Appendix C for a complete list of items. Reliabilities for the current study were .83 for conscientiousness, .78 for agreeableness, .77 for openness, .76 for extraversion, and .80 for neuroticism. Although only extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness were addressed in the hypotheses, openness and neuroticism were included to facilitate the examination of alternative explanations.

Idiocentrism. I assessed individualism with the Individualism-Collectivism Interpersonal Assessment Inventory (Matsumoto, Weissman, Preston, Brown & Kupperbusch, 1997). Triandis (1995) stated that most cultural value scales are reliable at only the societal or organizational level (e.g., Hofstede's cultural dimensions, 1980). However, researchers have found the Individualism-Collectivism Interpersonal Assessment Inventory to be reliable at the individual level (Matsumoto et al., 1997). The researchers reported a Cronbach's alpha of .67, which is the highest internal consistency amongst idiocentrism measures (Matsumoto et al., 1997). Participants endorsed the 22-item idiocentrism inventory using a 7-point response format, with a range of options from 1 "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree". Participants reported how likely they were to engage in each item. The 22 items were averaged to create an idiocentrism score (see Appendix D). Individuals with a high score were seen as high in idiocentrism. An

example item asks, “How likely are you to follow norms established by your organization?” The alpha for the current study was .88.

Power Distance. I used Maznevski et al.’s (1997) seven-item Relational Hierarchy Scale to assess power distance (see Appendix D). An example item from the scale is, “The hierarchy of groups in a society should remain consistent over time.” The scores from each item were averaged to calculate a power distance score. Participants endorsed the 7-item power distance inventory using a 7-point response format, with a range of options with 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree”. Participants reported how much they agreed with each item. Individuals with a higher score were seen as high in power distance. Once again, this scale was preferred over the Hofstede scale (1980) due to its ability to assess individual variation in cultural values. Kirkman and Shapiro (2001) reported the reliability to range from .70 to .77. The Alpha for the present study was .76.

Masculinity/Femininity. I used the Vitell, Paolillo, and Thomas (2003) Masculinity Scale to measure masculinity/femininity (see Appendix D). Participants endorsed the 4-item masculinity inventory using a 7-point response format, with a range of options 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree”. Participants reported how strongly they agreed with each item. The items were averaged to create a masculinity score. Individuals with a higher score are seen as high in masculinity. Individuals with a lower score are seen as high in femininity. An example item is: how strongly do you agree that, “it is important for me to have a job which has an opportunity for high earnings.” As with the other individual differences scales, I chose this measure due to its relatively higher reliability at the individual level. Researchers reported the scale to have a

Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .67 (Vitell, et al., 2003). Alpha for the current study was .76.

V. RESULTS

Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics and correlations between study variables. Internal consistency reliabilities are displayed on the diagonal. As seen in this table, none of the personality predictors or the individual cultural values was significantly correlated to the decision to pursue self-interests. However, many of the predictors were significantly related to one another. Idiocentrism was significantly related to extraversion ($r = -.16, p < .05$), masculinity was related to extraversion ($r = .17, p < .05$), and power distance was related to conscientiousness ($r = -.28, p < .01$) and agreeableness ($r = -.26, p < .01$). The lack of additional relationships between personality and individual cultural values suggests that they are capturing different domains, thus explaining unique variance.

In addition to examining the zero-order correlations, I regressed the decision to pursue self-interests on age, gender, the personality variables, and the individual cultural values. All together these variables explained 8.8% of the variance in the decision to pursue self-interests with idiocentrism ($\beta = .37, p < .01$), and masculinity ($\beta = .35, p < .01$) emerging as significant predictors when everything else was controlled for (see Table 2). The data provided partial support for Hypothesis 3. Only the cultural value dimension of power distance failed to significantly predict the pursuit of self-interests ($\beta = .08, p > .05$). The data did not indicate support for either Hypothesis 1 or 2. The decision to pursue self-interests was not significantly related to conscientiousness ($\beta = .23, p = .06$), extraversion ($\beta = -.10, p > .05$), or agreeableness ($\beta = .12, p > .05$). See Table 2 for these results.

Research Question 1 was an exploratory examination of whether individual cultural values moderated the strength of the relationship between personality and the decision to pursue self-interests. To examine these interactions, I centered the variables, as suggested by Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003, p. 261) to reduce the effects of multi-collinearity, and examined each interaction separately. Results are presented in Table 3.

To assess whether personality and individual cultural values interacted when predicting the decision to pursue self-interests, I conducted 15 separate hierarchical regression analyses. Each analysis included the demographic variables and main effects in Step 1 and the interaction term of the personality dimension and individual cultural value of interest in Step 2. Five of these interactions were significant. Focusing first on idiocentrism, I conducted a regression analysis to examine if the personality trait of interest was moderated by idiocentrism, after controlling for age and gender. I found that this cultural value dimension moderated the personality traits of both conscientiousness and openness in predicting the decision to pursue self-interests. The interaction terms for both the conscientiousness x idiocentrism interaction ($F\Delta = 4.59, p < .05$) and the openness x idiocentrism ($F\Delta = 5.15, p < .05$) predicted an additional 2% and 2.7%, respectively, of variance above and beyond the demographic variables and the main effects of personality and individual cultural values. The two relationships of both conscientiousness and openness was strengthened by idiocentrism, such that the relationships of conscientiousness and openness with the pursuit of self-interests was stronger when idiocentrism was high than when the cultural value dimension was low. As recommended by Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003), I plotted these interactions

by assessing the slope at one standard deviation above and below the mean. See Figures 2 and 3, respectively, for these interactions.

Power distance moderated the relationship between conscientiousness and the decision to pursue self-interests. This interaction predicted an additional 2% of the variance ($F\Delta = 4.07, p < .05$). The result indicated a stronger relationship between conscientiousness and the decision to pursue self-interests when power distance was high. See Figure 4 for this interaction.

Masculinity moderated the relationship between two personality traits and the decision to pursue self-interests. The interaction between neuroticism and masculinity explained an additional 2% of the variance ($F\Delta = 4.38, p < .05$). When masculinity was high, the relationship between the main effects and the decision to pursue self-interests was weaker than when masculinity was low. The interaction between agreeableness and masculinity explained an additional 2.8% of the variance ($F\Delta = 5.89, p < .05$). When masculinity was high, the relationship between agreeableness and the pursuit of self-interests was stronger than when masculinity was low. See Figures 5 and 6, respectively, for these interactions.

VI. DISCUSSION

Summary

I examined the decision to pursue self-interests when individuals are in a simulated work situation while working in teams. I hypothesized that individual cultural values and personality influenced the decision to pursue self-interests. I also asked whether individual cultural values and personality interacted and explained additional variance in the decision to pursue self-interests. Prior research has shown that both personality and culture were related to self-interest behavior (e.g., Hofstede, 1988; Trinadis, 1995; Graziano, Habashi, Sheese, & Tobin, 2007; Mlcak & Zaskodna, 2008), but little research has found a significant relationship of the interaction of these predictors (e.g., Chatman & Barsade, 1995). Further, to my knowledge, no research has examined this interaction to predict workplace outcomes.

The findings of my study indicated that personality, individual cultural values, and their interaction predict the decision to pursue self-interests. Neuroticism, idiocentrism and masculinity significantly predicted the decision to pursue self-interests. The relationship between the main effects and self-interest pursuit was positive, with weak-to-moderate effect sizes. Although these main effects were significant, the significant interactions indicate that caution must be used in interpreting the main effects. The interaction between personality and culture showed predictive ability for the decision to pursue self-interests. Idiocentrism interacted with conscientiousness and openness, power distance interacted with conscientiousness, and masculinity interacted with neuroticism and agreeableness to predict the decision to pursue self-interests. These

findings indicated that individual cultural values affected personality's influence on decision-making in a simulated self-interest task.

Theoretical Implications

My findings provided additional evidence of the validity of cultural value assessment. As indicated by prior researchers (e.g., Matsumoto et al., 1997; Maznevski et al., 2002; Vitell et al., 2003), individual cultural values exist and can be assessed without aggregating to a group level of analysis. These findings suggested that individual cultural values have predictive ability.

Second, my findings provided support for using a simulated task to predict the decision to pursue self-interest within the context of work related decision-making. Prior researchers have used commons dilemmas and other games to assess the decision to pursue self-interests (Kopelman, 2009). Few researchers have examined this same decision using a work-related task. This is likely due to the fact that traditional notions of generalizability would suggest that simulated work experiences lack ecological validity, or the experiment's ability to generalize to the typical workplace. Highhouse (2010) stated that simulated tasks allow researchers to examine the underlying processes involved that result in the observed outcome. Highhouse further asserted that simulated work place tasks are often more powerful in that they provide external validity, or the ability to generalize across organizations.

Third, my findings provided support for the interaction of personality and individual cultural values to explain the decision to pursue self-interests. Prior research has largely focused on the main effects of group culture and personality to predict various outcomes. My findings indicated that the interaction of individual cultural value and

personality have predictive ability above and beyond main effects that are often reduced to non-significance when controlling for the interaction between the individual cultural value and personality variables of interest. These findings provide additional support for the line of research that examines culture as a contextual variable.

Practical Implications

My findings have significant implications for researchers. Moynihan and Peterson (2004) stated that there are two challenges to examining work-related outcomes within a team context. The first is that few studies are designed with the ability to control for context or situational variables. Based on the findings of researchers such as Klein (2004) and Hofstede (1980; 1988), culture can operate as a situational cue. I have combated this issue by measuring culture as an individual cultural value and thus was able to statistically control for it when assessing personality's ability to predict work outcomes.

The second issue is that most studies are based on real teams that have several variables that are unknown and thus cannot be controlled for. My study used a simulated team experience, which allowed me to capture individuals' perceptions of the team experience, without introducing potential confounds. Related to Moynihan and Peterson's (2004) theory on the contingent nature of situational context, the data demonstrated that the main effects of personality and culture didn't matter as much as the interaction of the two when predicting the decision to pursue self-interests. My findings suggested that the impact of personality depends on the situational cue of individual cultural values. For individuals who have higher levels of individual cultural values, personality becomes limited in its ability to predict the decision to pursue self-interests.

Limitations

As with all studies, there are limitations to the current study. At present, all published measures of individual cultural values have a low-to-moderate reliability coefficient. The unreliability of these measures introduces additional error variance and attenuates any possible relationships that might exist between the predictor and criterion variables. The relationships exhibited in my findings might be stronger than indicated in the data. Also, I used self-report measures to collect the data. Self-report data is sometimes linked to artificial significant findings due to common-method variance. When common-method variance is observed, many constructs will be related simply because of the manner in which the data was collected. In the current study, artificial significance is unlikely, due to the fact that both convergent and divergent validity was observed within the data. My findings indicated that constructs that should be related were (i.e., the personality dimensions were significantly correlated (Ones, Viswesvaran, & Reiss, 1996) and the individual cultural value dimensions were significantly correlated), whereas other constructs showed no significant relationship (i.e., with a few exceptions, personality dimensions and individual cultural values dimensions were not significantly related).

Another possible limitation of the current study was the use of a newly devised, simulated task. Because I used a newly developed task, I had limited ability to analyze the psychometric properties of the self-interest task. In addition, the task is a simulated one in nature. Researchers have suggested that participants are largely unable to successfully predict their behavior in simulated experiences unless certain conditions are met within the simulation (Gilbert & Wilson, 2007). According to the researchers,

simulations should be representative of some experience in the past, contain as much contextual detail as possible, and assess several points of time within the simulation. Although the current task displayed most of the qualifiers described, the timeframe of the simulation did not match the timeframe that would have occurred if this simulation were a real work task. Gilbert and Wilson (2007) suggested that individuals often feel one way at the onset of a situation, but as time progresses, individuals' attitudes adjust to the situation, resulting in alternate courses of action. This change in attitude often results in participants endorsing one action in a simulation, but then displaying a different behavior when faced with the same situation in a real experience.

Related to the self-interest task is the notion that I operationalized the decision to pursue self-interest as attending the shareholder meeting. However, one could say that any action or behavior could be construed as a decision to pursue self-interests. For example, in a collectivistic culture, one might feel the pressure to act in a manner that fosters group cohesion, thus pursuing group goals is actually in the individual's best interest. However, for the purposes of this study, I was interested in whether individuals attended the shareholder meeting instead of attending the practice session. In the future, one could examine what participants classify as self-interest behavior.

In addition to the operationalization of self-interests, I also provided a limited number of options for item endorsement. It is possible that individuals would have acted in a way that was not provided as an option in the scenario. However, the possibility of this occurring should be limited due to the pilot studies I conducted. In the second pilot, I collected qualitative responses to the scenario items by asking participants what they would do in each situation.

Future Research

Future research should continue to examine the moderating effects of individual cultural values. To date, very little is known about how individual cultural values affect individual differences. Future researchers should consider assessing individual cultural values in addition to various individual difference measures in an effort to better understand the incremental predictive validity of culture within the individual. A better understanding of individual cultural values is particularly important when assessing workplace decision-making. Researchers should continue to assess how individual cultural values might affect how decisions are made in the workplace.

Future research should also continue to assess how the decision to pursue self-interests is affected by both the incentive offered by the organization and the reward received for pursuing self-interests. In the current study, only one reward structure and one conflict were presented to the participants. Future research should examine how the decision to pursue self-interests is affected by alternative incentives and conflicts.

In addition, future research should examine the decision to pursue self-interest as a predictor of team-related processes and outcomes. As corporations continue to use teams in order to improve performance and affectations of individual workers, it is important for researchers and organizations to understand the implications of individuals choosing self-serving behavior. Researchers should continue to investigate the decision to pursue self-interest and what it means for the teams and organizations affected by these decisions.

Conclusion

In the current study, I examined the decision to pursue self-interests when individuals are members of a simulated work team, with incentives to perform conflicting behaviors. Inherent to my study was that individual cultural values existed and could be reliably measured. My findings indicated support for the validity of cultural value assessment at the individual level. In addition, I found partial support for the predictive ability of personality, individual cultural values, and their interaction to explain the decision to pursue self-interests. These findings contribute to what researchers know about how culture is manifested in individual behavior, particularly in workplace decision-making.

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VIII. APPENDIX A

Decision-Making Task

Your company is looking for innovations to improve productivity. Within every department, teams of 5-7 people are asked to come up with ideas to present to company executives. Your company will invite teams with the best ideas to the next company-wide conference, where they will have lunch with the company CEO and discuss how the company can benefit from their idea for innovation. If a team idea is integrated into company policy, each team member will receive a \$5,000 bonus.

You receive your team assignment and notice that you are acquainted with each person on your team. Before your first team meeting, your immediate supervisor casually mentions to you that an individual from your department might be promoted based on individual contributions to the team project. Your supervisor just received a promotion and is now looking for a replacement. Many people in your department, including yourself, have consistently performed well, so contributions to this project might be the deciding factor.”

1. During the team brainstorming session, you have come up with several ideas. The team votes on all the ideas presented and plan to proceed with someone else’s contribution to the project. How likely are you to:

- 1.1 Continue to lobby the merits of your ideas.
- 1.2 Go with team consensus and work hard to make the project a success.
- 1.3 Go with team consensus, do your share of the work, but nothing more.
- 1.4 Do nothing to help the team.
- 1.5 Forget about the ideas you came up with.
- 1.6 Make a mental note of your ideas but not write them down.
- 1.7 Keep a written record of your ideas but not show them to anyone.
- 1.8 Keep a written record of your ideas and plan to show them to your supervisor.

2. Your team realizes that the project idea they have selected is not feasible. They decide to go with one of your ideas but are giving credit for the idea to someone else. How likely are you to:

- 2.1 Remind the team that it was actually your idea.
- 2.2 Say nothing and work diligently to help the team complete the project.
- 2.3 Say nothing and do only the portion of the task assigned to you.
- 2.4 Not work hard on the task.
- 2.5 Feel secretly upset that your team is not giving you credit.
- 2.6 Feel determined to get the credit that is due to you.
- 2.7 Feel happy that your team is working on a plausible project.
- 2.8 Feel secret satisfaction because your idea was selected, even though you did not get the credit for it.

APPENDIX A (cont.)

- 2.9 Assume the team made an honest mistake.
- 2.10 Assume the team is intentionally not giving you credit.
- 2.11 Assume the person willing to take undue credit cannot be trusted.
- 2.12 Assume nothing.

3. Your team has been working on the “innovative idea” project for weeks. You have just completed your portion and are looking forward to completing some other work that needs your attention. One of your team members informs you that they have fallen behind and will likely not meet the project deadline due to a personal matter. How likely are you to:

- 3.1 Finish the team member’s portion of the project without telling the other team members.
- 3.2 Finish the team member’s portion of the project and inform the team of your extra effort.
- 3.3 Advise the team member to ask someone else for help.
- 3.4 Refuse to assist the team member.
- 3.5 Assume the team member isn’t as dedicated to the project as you are.
- 3.6 Assume the team member doesn’t respect your time or schedule.
- 3.7 Assume the team member must be going through a difficult personal situation.
- 3.8 Assume nothing.

4. Your supervisor has noticed your good work and thinks you may be a good candidate for the supervisor position. She wants you to attend tonight’s shareholder meeting so that she can introduce you to management executives. The meeting is at the same time as your team’s final meeting. In an effort to better their chances of winning the contest, the team wants to get together after work to practice the presentation. How likely are you to:

- 4.1. Attend the shareholder’s meeting
- 4.2. Attend the final team practice session
- 4.3. Choose the event you would most likely attend:
 - A. The shareholder’s meeting
 - B. The final team practice session

IX. APPENDIX B

Consent Form for Decision Making Evaluation

You are invited to take part in a research study. The purpose of this research is to better understand how college students make decisions in the workplace. Your role in the research is to provide responses to a series of questions that will take about 30 minutes to complete.

There are no known risks to participating in this research. Participants will receive 1 credit of participation points through SONA, per psychology department guidelines. This research is anonymous; please enter only the Study Response ID that has been provided to you. Only aggregate data will be presented or published.

Participation is voluntary, refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits, and you may discontinue participation at any time.

If you have any questions about this research you may contact the researcher at the number below. If you have general questions about giving consent or your rights as a participant in this research project contact the Wright State University IRB at 937-775-4462.

Gary N. Burns, Ph.D.
Wright State University
3640 Colonel Glenn Highway
Dayton, OH 45435
gary.burns@wright.edu
937-775-2391

Your participation is greatly appreciated!

By marking “Yes” below, you are implying your consent to participate in this research.
Do you agree to participate in this research?
Yes/No

X. APPENDIX C

Personality Items (Goldberg, 1999)

Neuroticism

1. Often feel blue.
2. Dislike myself.
3. Am often down in the dumps.
4. Have frequent mood swings.
5. Panic easily.
6. Rarely get irritated.
7. Seldom feel blue.
8. Feel comfortable with myself.
9. Am not easily bothered by things.
10. Am very pleased with myself.

Extraversion

1. Feel comfortable around people.
2. Make friends easily.
3. Am skilled in handling social situations.
4. Am the life of the party.
5. Know how to captivate people.
6. Have little to say.
7. Keep in the background.
8. Would describe my experiences as somewhat dull.
9. Don't like to draw attention to myself.
10. Don't talk a lot.

Openness to Experiences

1. Believe in the importance of art.
2. Have a vivid imagination.
3. Tend to vote for liberal political candidates.
4. Carry the conversation to a higher level.
5. Enjoy hearing new ideas.
6. Am not interested in abstract ideas.
7. Do not like art.
8. Avoid philosophical discussions.
9. Do not enjoy going to art museums.
10. Tend to vote for conservative political candidates.

APPENDIX C (cont.)

Agreeableness

1. Have a good word for everyone.
2. Believe that others have good intentions.
3. Respect others.
4. Accept people as they are.
5. Make people feel at ease.
6. Have a sharp tongue.
7. Cut others to pieces.
8. Suspect hidden motives in others.
9. Get back at others.
10. Insult people.

Conscientiousness

1. Am always prepared.
2. Pay attention to details.
3. Get chores done right away.
4. Carry out my plans.
5. Make plans and stick to them.
6. Waste my time.
7. Find it difficult to get down to work.
8. Do just enough work to get by.
9. Don't see things through.
10. Shirk my duties.

XI. APPENDIX D

Individual Cultural Values Scales

Power Distance (Maznevski, et al., 2002)

1. People at higher levels should make significant decisions for people below them.
2. People at higher levels of an organization must look after those below them.
3. People at lower levels in a group or organization should carry out the decisions of people at higher levels.
4. The hierarchy of groups in a society should remain consistent over time
5. People at higher levels should expect to have more privileges than those at lower levels.
6. People at lower levels in an organization should not expect to have much power.
7. Organizations work best with clear and formal hierarchies.

Maculinity/Femininity (Vitell et al., 2003)

1. Have a job that provides an opportunity for advancement.
2. Work in a prestigious and successful company or organization.
3. Have a job which has an opportunity for high earnings.
4. Out perform others in my company.

Individualism-Collectivism (Matsumoto et al., 1997)

1. Comply with direct requests from my supervisor
2. Maintain self-control toward coworkers
3. Maintain status between myself and coworkers
4. Share credit for accomplishments at work.
5. Share blame for failures at work.
6. Respect and honor the traditions and customs of coworkers.
7. Be loyal to coworkers.
8. Sacrifice goals for coworkers.

APPENDIX D (cont.)

1. Sacrifice possessions for others.
2. Respect elders.
3. Compromise wishes with coworkers.
4. Maintain a stable environment among coworkers.
5. Accept position or role among coworkers.
6. Follow advice for major decisions from coworkers.
7. Exhibit “correct” behaviors (i.e., proper manners and etiquette), regardless of how real feelings towards your coworkers.
8. Be like or similar to members of my workplace.
9. Accept awards or recognition based only on tenure or position rather than merit
10. Cooperate with coworkers.
11. Communicate verbally with coworkers.
12. “Save face” with coworkers.
13. Follow norms established in the workplace.
14. Identify myself as a member of the company/organization.

Figure 1.

Theoretical model depicting culture, personality, and learned values' roles in predicting the decision to pursue self-interests.

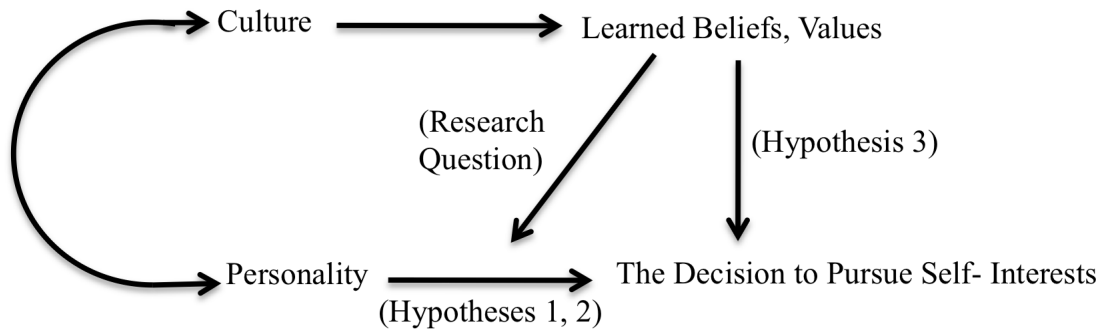


Figure 2.

Interaction between conscientiousness and idiocentrism in predicting the decision to pursue self-interests.

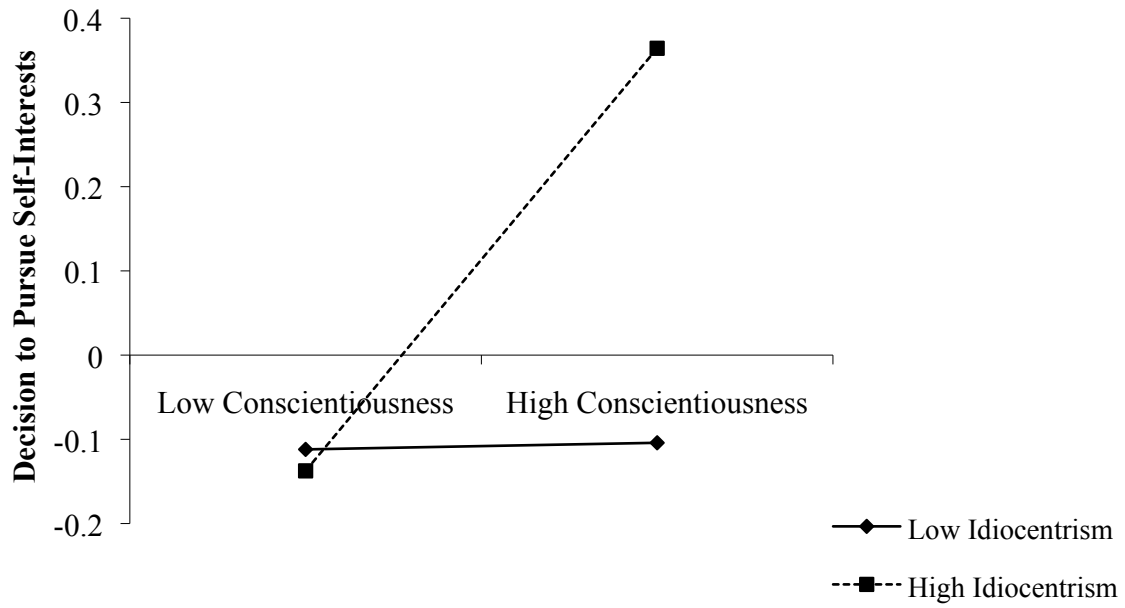


Figure 3.

Interaction between openness and idiocentrism in predicting the decision to pursue self-interests.

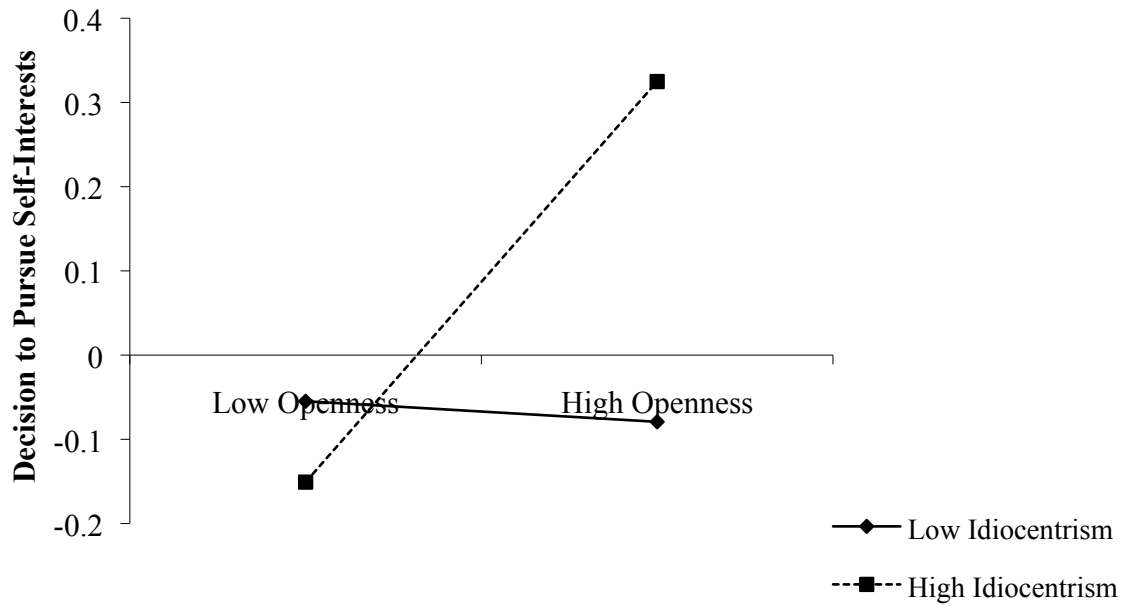


Figure 4.

Interaction between conscientiousness and power distance in the decision to pursue self-interests.

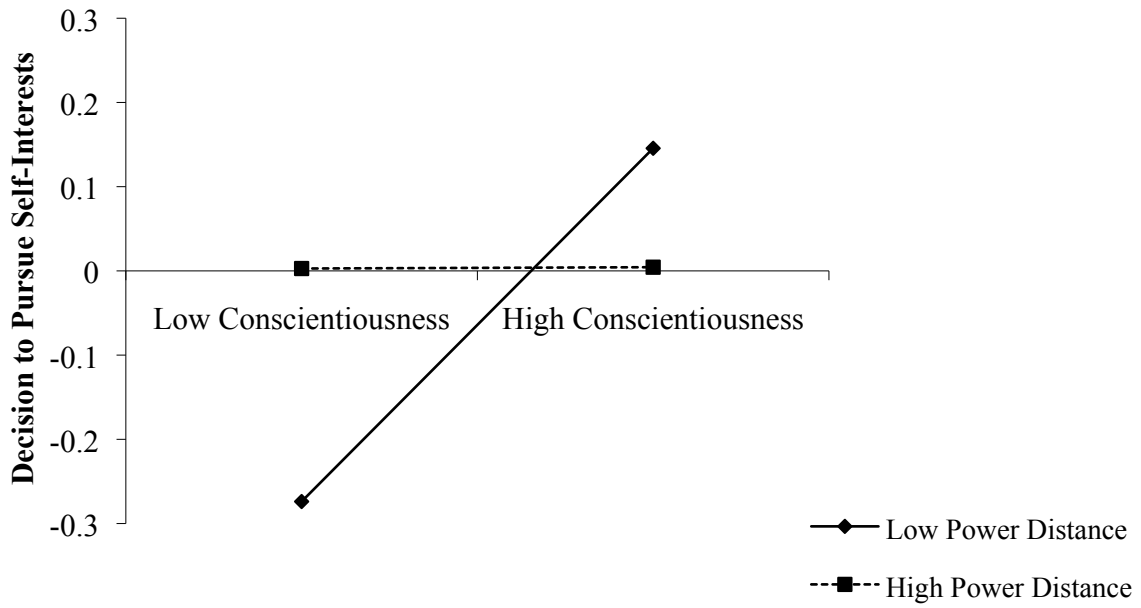


Figure 5.

Interaction between neuroticism and masculinity in predicting the decision to pursue self-interests.

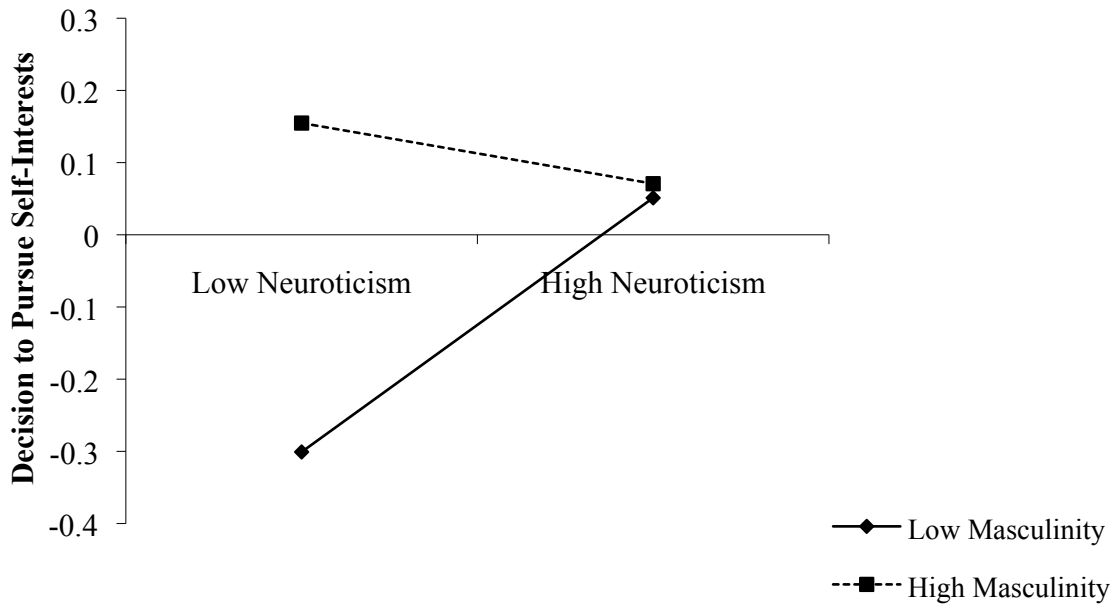


Figure 6.

Interaction between agreeableness and masculinity in predicting the decision to pursue self-interests.

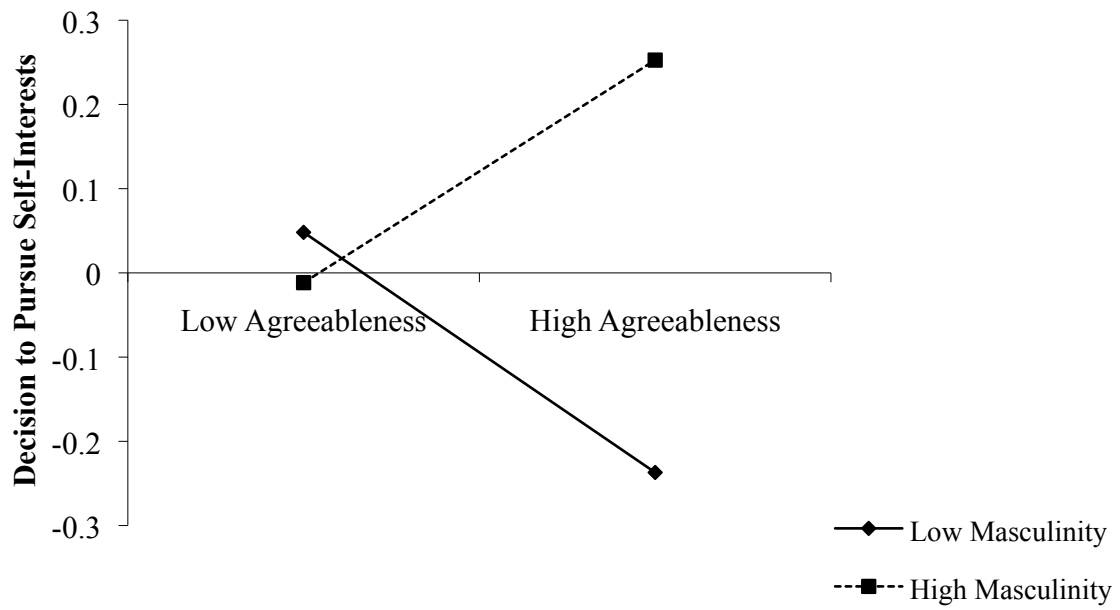


Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Matrix for Personality, Individual Cultural Values, and The Decision to Pursue Self-Interests

Measure	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Openness	4.93	.94	.77								
2. Extraversion	4.57	.91	.57**	.76							
3. Conscientiousness	5.20	.99	.54**	.45**	.83						
4. Neuroticism	3.10	1.00	-.44**	-.43**	-.70**	.80					
5. Agreeableness	4.98	.91	.44**	.43**	.70**	-.62**	.78				
6. Idiocentrism	2.81	.70	-.10	-.16*	.00	.13	-.13	.88			
7. Masculinity	5.21	1.14	.11	.17*	-.01	-.13	-.07	-.69**	.76		
8. Power Distance	4.70	.83	-.10	-.02	-.28**	.12	-.26**	-.52**	.52**	.76	
9. Self-Interest	-.01	.76	.10	-.03	.08	.06	-.02	.08	.11	.04	.66

Note. $N=213$. Self-Interest = The decision to pursue self-interests. Scale reliabilities are provided in the diagonal. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 2

Regression Analyses Predicting The Decision to Pursue Self-Interests from Personality and Individual Cultural Values

Predictor	β	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>
Age	.00	.00	.05
Gender	-.03	-.02	.05
$R^2 = .01$			
Conscientiousness	.22	.22	.08
Extraversion	-.07	-.06	.07
Agreeableness	-.09	-.08	.08
$\Delta R^2 = .02$			
Idiocentrism	.37**	.40**	.11
Masculinity	.34**	.24**	.08
Power Distance	.07	.07	.08
$\Delta R^2 = .07$			

Note. $N = 213$. $R^2 = .88$, $p < .05$. Controlled variables included age and gender. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 3

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting The Decision to Pursue Self-Interests from Personality, Individual Cultural Values, and their Interaction

Predictor	Individual Cultural Value Dimension								
	Idiocentrism			Power Distance			Masculinity		
	β	ΔR^2	R^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2	β	ΔR^2	R^2
Conscientiousness	.18*			.15			.09		
Value	.15*		.02	.04		.01	.12		.02
Conscientious x Value	.15*	.02*	.05*	-.14*	.02*	.03*	.05	.00	.03
Neuroticism	.03			.05			.10		
Value	.09		.01	.03		.00	.15		.02
Neuroticism x Value	-.03	.00	.01	.07	.01	.01	-.15*	.02*	.04*
Extraversion	-.01			-.02			-.05		
Value	.09		.01	.02		.00	.14		.02
Extraversion x Value	.07	.01	.01	-.03	.00	.00	.04	.00	.02
Agreeableness	.05			.00			-.02		
Value	.13		.01	.02		.00	.14		.02
Agreeableness x Value	.11	.01	.02	-.06	.01	.01	.17*	.02*	.04*
Openness	.15*			.13			.09		
Value	.10		.03	.03		.01	.11		.02
Openness x Value	.16*	.02*	.05*	-.10	.01	.02	-.06	.00	.03

Note. $N = 213$. Controlled variables included age and gender. Neither variable was significant and thus not included in the table. Value refers to the cultural value examined in each set of columns. * $p < .05$.