



Organizational culture and coopetition: An exploratory study of the features, models and role in the Polish Aviation Industry



Patrycja Klimas

Department of Management Theory, University of Economics in Katowice, ul. 1 Maja 50, 40-287 Katowice, Poland

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 14 July 2014

Received in revised form 15 November 2015

Accepted 15 November 2015

Available online 23 December 2015

Keywords:

Coopetition

Organizational culture

Innovation networks

Aviation

Aerospace

ABSTRACT

This study explores the importance of organizational culture for coopetition, and identifies the cultural profile of coopetitors operating within an innovation network. Although organizational culture's role in interorganizational collaboration is long established, coopetition settings have not received a similar attention. This exploratory study sheds light on the role of culture for coopetition, and scrutinizes organizational culture using the Competing Values Framework. Our findings suggest cultural differences between coopetitors versus non-coopetitors. Coopetitors display a cultural profile typical to hierarchy, as they describe themselves as more stable than flexible and more internally than externally focused in their strategic orientation. Interestingly the culture model typical for coopetitors, has been identified as the most distant for non-coopetitors, while the second typical model for non-coopetitors i.e. adhocracy has been identified as the most distant for coopetitors.

© 2015 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Academic interest in coopetition strategies barely reaches into the mid-1990s with a rapid growth since then (Bengtsson, Johansson, Näsholm, & Ullah, 2013; Bengtsson & Kock, 2014; Czakon, Mucha-Kuś, & Rogalski, 2014). Coopetition is defined as a simultaneous cooperation and competition, in some way a paradoxical mix (Bengtsson & Kock, 2000). Recently, researchers investigate success factors and causes of failure of coopetition (Chin, Chan, & Lam, 2008; Garraffo & Rocco, 2011; Zineldin, 2004). Still, our knowledge about coopetition's antecedents, drivers, conditions and success factors remains limited (Chin et al., 2008; Czakon et al., 2014; Morris, Kocak, & Ozer, 2007; Ritala, 2012). Latest research focuses on how to manage coopetition successfully, what are the best practices to manage coopetition in a long term, or what organizational designs and features are needed to reach the competitive success (Bigliardi, Dormio, & Galati, 2011; Fernandez, Le Roy, & Gnyawali, 2014b; Ritala, 2012).

Contextual, organizational and individual factors are listed as important in managing coopetition (Hagberg-Andersson, 2010). Gnyawali and Park (2009) suggest that industry level factors impact all firms, while firm-level factors have a distinct role in the likelihood of coopetition formation. The firm level of analysis draws attention to organizational factors, features, designs, or characteristics, and can help managers improving coopetition management and performance (Chin et al., 2008). Among the many organizational factors available to explain

organizational environments importance for coopetition, organizational culture has received very scarce attention (Luo, 2004; Rijamampianina & Carmichael, 2005).

Organizational culture has attracted the attention of researchers for several decades (Xiaoming & Junchen, 2012) as it seems to be significant for both every-day activities and long-term development of organizations (Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983). From a strategic management point of view, organizational culture is considered as a driving force for competitive advantage (Fiol, 1991; Xiaoming & Junchen, 2012) as it influences intra-organizational development (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991), effectiveness (Gregory, Harris, Armenakis, & Shook, 2009; Zheng, Yang, & McLean, 2010), and financial performance (Barney, 1986). Furthermore, organizational culture can be used as a source of competitive advantage based on inter-organizational cooperation (Noorderhaven, Koen, & Beugelsdijk, 2002; Wang & Li, 2007; Xiao & Tsui, 2007).

An organizational culture that promotes and facilitates collaboration is important for establishing long-term interorganizational relationships. Cultural features are also relevant during the cooperation processes. Fit, or cultural similarity, has long been viewed as necessary for smooth cooperation (Kanter, 1994; Laskowska-Rutkowska, 2009; Murray & Siehl, 1989), even between competitors (Chin et al., 2008; Rijamampianina & Carmichael, 2005). However, existing empirical findings referring to culture and interfirm cooperation remain fragmentary and limited (Eckenhof & Ershova, 2011; Noorderhaven et al., 2002). It is even much so when cooperation between competitors is in focus (Xiao & Tsui, 2007). Indeed, given the results of literature reviews (Bengtsson & Kock, 2014; Bengtsson et al., 2013; Czakon et al., 2014) there is no prior research on organizational cultures or cultural features of coopetitors.

E-mail address: patrycja.klimas@ue.katowice.pl

We argue that organizational culture is important for competition strategy adoption. We posit that dominant cultural features and models manifested by cooperators, and the differences in cultural aspects between cooperators and non-cooperators are relevant for understanding competition management. The aim of this study is to elucidate the role of organizational culture in competition. We explore a high-velocity and high-tech industry (Czakoń et al., 2014; Gnyawali & Park, 2009; Ritala, 2012), the Aviation Valley network in Poland in order to scrutinize organizational cultures and cultural features of cooperators. We have conducted 51 structured interviews (27 with cooperators), 14 semi-structured interviews (11 with cooperators), and 2 non-participatory observations to gather data, analyzed through the lens of the Competing Values Framework (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983).

This paper is structured in the following way. We outline the problem of organizational culture in the view of competition and develop our research questions. Next, we describe the empirical research design. In the fourth section we present our results. We discuss the findings that shed new light on: the role of organizational culture in competition, the dominant cultural traits of cooperators, and the differences between cooperators and non-cooperators from cultural perspective. Finally, we conclude with theoretical contributions, limitations and a future research agenda.

2. Theoretical background

In this section we adopt the view that organizational culture is an explanatory variable of performance and interorganizational phenomena in management research. We juxtapose the resource based view of the firm which considers culture as a resource useful in gaining and sustaining competitive advantage (Wernerfelt, 1984), with economic geography, which builds on the proximity hypothesis to explain cooperation (Boschma, 2005). Next, we provide an overview of organizational culture in competition and collaboration to develop our research questions and nurture competition studies.

2.1. Organizational culture framework

Organizational culture is understood as a set of values, beliefs, assumptions and perceptions common and shared by members of organizations (Cameron & Quinn, 2003). The importance of organizational culture results from its ability to explain wide range of outcomes, such as: flexibility (Denison & Mishra, 1995), innovativeness (Gebert, Boerner, & Lanwehr, 2003; Kamaruddeen, Yusof, & Said, 2009; Naranjo-Valencia, Sanz-Valle, & Jiménez-Jimenez, 2010; Wang & Li, 2007; Xiao & Tsui, 2007), effectiveness (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Zheng et al., 2010), organizational development (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991), and performance (Zheng et al., 2010).

The growing popularity of organizational culture for management scholars may be explained from the RBV perspective. It views culture as an intangible, organizational and quite elusive resource (Galbreath, 2005) that contributes to competitive advantage (Barney, 1986; Fiol, 1991; Flamholtz & Randle, 2011). Scholars claim that organizational culture is a strategic resource, directly related to superior financial performance (Barney, 1986), and to overall organization performance (Gregory et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2010). It is also a driving force for longitudinal development of organizations (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991). Organizational culture can resist imitation efforts of competitors, therefore it contributes more significantly to sustained advantage than tangible resources (Galbreath, 2005).

In recent years organizational culture has increasingly been conceptualized (Gregory et al., 2009: 673) and studied (Yu & Wu, 2009) in terms of values proposed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) in the Competing Values Framework (CVF). The CVF literature distinguishes different models of organizational culture using two independent dimensions: structure and strategic focus (Gregory et al., 2009). The differences between models are captured along these two dimensions,

and identified based on cultural characteristics: flexibility, discretion, stability, control, external focus, differentiation, internal focus, and integration (Cameron & Quinn, 2003). Depending on the preeminence of cultural characteristics, organizations display different models of organizational culture.

The CVF distinguishes four models including (Naranjo-Valencia et al., 2010; Yu & Wu, 2009): (1) clan/group/human relations culture distinguished by flexibility and internal focus; (2) adhocracy/developmental/open system culture characterized by flexibility and external focus; (3) hierarchy/hierarchical/internal process culture emblematic of control and internal focus; and (4) market/relational/rational goal culture dominated by control and external focus.

Depending on the type of business environment the interorganizational relationships literature (Gregory et al., 2009) identifies more and less appropriate cultures. The clan culture is seen as appropriate when the environment is very sociable, while adhocracy culture would be appropriate when the environment is very energetic and creative (Naranjo-Valencia et al., 2010). Market culture would be appropriate when the environment is results-based and gives value to goals orientation, while hierarchy would best fit when the environment is extremely formalized and structured (Naranjo-Valencia et al., 2010).

Prior studies investigating competition strategies suggest that competition appears as an industry related phenomenon (Czakoń et al., 2014) as it is identified especially in high-tech and dynamic industries characterized by variability, complexity and high uncertainty (Gnyawali & Park, 2009; Ritala, 2012; Shih, Tsai, Wu, & Lu, 2006). These dynamic environmental conditions might suggest that cooperators would display cultural traits characteristic for adhocracy model being the most suitable for active, energetic and creative working environments.

On the other hand, the literature states that co-innovations are one of the most important antecedents for competition strategy adoption (Gnyawali & Park, 2009), where competitive relationships are particular types of R&D relationship (Ritala, 2012), knowledge source (Belderbos, Carree, & Lokshin, 2004), and innovation stimulus (Park, Srivastava, & Gnyawali, 2014; Ritala & Hurmelinna-Laukkanen, 2013; Ritala & Hurmelinna-Laukkanen, 2009; Ritala & Sainio, 2014). Under these circumstances, the adhocracy culture ought to be the most appropriate model as it favors innovativeness (Tseng, 2010).

However, others show adhocracy culture as the least influential, and point to clan culture as the most valuable culture model for knowledge management and innovations (Fong & Kwok, 2009). Similarly, the results of research on creation and performance of networking show that clan culture supports networking processes to the greatest extent (Eckenhof & Ershova, 2011). This may suggest that clan, rather than adhocracy culture is typical for competition, which is often investigated as a network-level phenomenon (Bengtsson et al., 2013).

Since its introduction, management research aimed at identifying cultural models characteristic for organizations open on interorganizational collaboration. Although some studies show dominant organizational culture models of cooperating organizations, they do not take into account whether partners are also rivals. As literature reviews consistently show (Bengtsson & Kock, 2014; Bengtsson et al., 2013; Czakoń et al., 2014), there is no prior research referred to organizational cultures of cooperators, or even to their cultural features. Our knowledge about cultural models refers to cooperating organizations, leaving a gap relative to cooperators unexplored.

Given that previous research has led to inconsistent results, and significant gaps relative to organizational culture models in competition remain, it is important to take a closer look at cultural features and models adopted by competing organizations. Firms adopting competition strategy may display typical organizational cultures, but what cultural models do they actually adopt? Therefore, we formulate our first research question:

RQ1. What are the dominant cultural features and organizational culture models demonstrated by cooperators?

Download English Version:

<https://daneshyari.com/en/article/1027359>

Download Persian Version:

<https://daneshyari.com/article/1027359>

[Daneshyari.com](https://daneshyari.com)