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**Co-workership in institutions for higher education:
A qualitative comparative study of Norwegian and Hawaiian knowledge
workers**

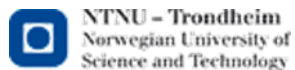
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Abstract

Co-workership is a term that has been filled with different meanings. Up to date co-workership has been considered a Nordic concept with no direct meaning in the English language, or in international research and practice (Kilhammar, 2011). The majority of the research on the concept has been carried out in Sweden (Tengblad, 2010). Co-workership may have a connection to productivity and work related health. Thereby, the concept is of relevance to study. The purpose of this study is to find the meaning of co-workership in institutions for higher education, and to compare co-workership between knowledge workers in Norway and Hawaii. Five employees from the Norwegian university of science and technology, four employees from Hawaii Pacific University, and one employee from the East-West Center in Honolulu were interviewed, applying a semi-structured protocol. Using thematic analysis, the interviews were analyzed and the following themes were identified as defining of co-workership; tasks, relations and power structure. As a normative meaning of co-workership the themes responsibility, professional respect, and cooperation were identified. The meaning of co-workership appeared to be similar in the two samples. However, there was a tendency of focusing more on relations, cooperation and professional respect in the Hawaiian sample. Whereas the Norwegian sample focused more on task and responsibility. These differences are interpreted as values imbedded in the different societies.

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Co-workership is a concept that fits well into the Scandinavian philosophy of organizational behavior, building on an active and responsible coworker role (Tengblad, 2010). The Nordic countries have clear similarities in terms of being small and open economies, with high-developed welfare systems, and well developed organized work-life. Such characteristics have given rise to the “Nordic model” (Elgvin and Hernes, 2014). In Norway, there has been several milestones in the development towards a more active co-worker role; in the 1960s employees began to demand more influence and participation in the decision-making processes. Einar Thorsrud was central in this process, with connections to the Tavistock Institute in London. Thorsrud led the cooperation between LO and NAF in the 1970s, which resulted in more democratic organizations and leadership style (Velten, Ackerman, Hällstén & Tengblad, 2008). In the 1990s “flat” organizations with big units and few leaders were introduced on a wide basis both in the public and private sector. Hence, the supervisor’s functions were to some extent replaced by teams. Since the beginning of the millennium, there has been an increasing interest in the term co-workership. Central to co-workership today is the opportunity to influence one’s workplace (Velten et al. 2008).

In the case of institutions for higher education, this sector is known for seeking its own environment (Musselin, 2007). However, like other organizations, knowledge institutions does not exist in vacuum but are adaptive and responsive to external changes. Musselin (2007) argues that there is an ongoing process within academia, which makes the universities more similar to the usual employer. Moreover, extensive changes in the structure of work and organizations embeds a new and more indirect role of the manager or leader. This creates new expectations for the role of the coworkers (Tengblad, 2003). Increased responsibility, sometimes involuntary, and thus the workload that follows might result in a poorer work related health as well as prolonged sick leaves (Tengblad, 2003). Tight (2010) argues that the academic workload is also on rise. Thus, one can argue that there is a need to describe a constructive co-workership in knowledge institutions.

There has been few studies on co-workership outside Scandinavia. However, Irfaeya & Liu (2003) investigated employeeship in 15 countries in their master thesis. They hypothesized that there would be a higher affective commitment, better cooperation and higher sense of responsibility in individualistic cultures. However, their results did not support this hypothesis.

Up to date co-workership has been considered a Nordic concept that has no direct meaning in the English language, or in international research and practice (Kilhammar, 2011). Thus, it is of interest to study the meaning of co-workership in an English speaking country. Hawaii was chosen as a comparative example to Norway, due to its position as one of the United States of America that differ from the rest of the country both historically and geographically. For this reason, Hawaii is culturally influenced both by eastern and western cultures (Vandello & Cohen, 1999), and thus has their own traditional values influencing the work-life (Kaulukukui & Nāho‘opi‘i, 2008). Hence, Hawaii makes an interesting case for the comparison to Norway. This thesis aim to answer the following problem formulation:

What is the meaning of co-workership in institutions for higher education, and what are the differences in how Norwegian and Hawaiian knowledge workers perceive co-workership?

“Medarbeiderskap” in the Norwegian language has been translated into both co-workership and employeeship. In this study, the translation “co-workership” is applied since the word “co” implies that one is working with someone (Kilhammar, 2011), and that the co-worker is more than an employee. Knowledge workers are defined as employees that do knowledge work (Scarborough, 1999) and in this study scientists and professors, as well as administrative staff were interviewed, some of which have leader positions and responsibilities. Changes in the academic profession have made it difficult to speak of a unified profession (Nixon, Marks, Rowland & Walker, 2001), and the purpose in this study is thus not to find a unified meaning of co-workership in institutions for higher education. The purpose is rather to study the mechanisms of co-workership in institutions for higher education.

First, the research and literature regarding co-workership is presented. This section includes literature on both co-workership and employeeship due to the similar nature of the terms. Second, Hofstede’s cultural dimensions (1980) of national culture is presented, with the purpose of comparing Norwegian and Hawaiians knowledge workers in terms of co-workership. Hofstede’s model of cultural dimensions was chosen because it is the most applied theory in cross-cultural psychology (Dickson, Hartog & Mitchelson, 2003). Third, the methodological section will explain the study and the applied methods used for this paper. Fourth, the results

are presented and discussed, followed by a discussion of the analyses, theory and method. Finally, the results are presented in the conclusion.

Co-workership

Co-workership lies close to the term coworkers. Coworkers simply refer to people who works together, while co-workership is considered a more general phenomenon. The word “ship” often connects to a role or position that are actively performed. Similar relationships are found between leaders and “ship” or citizens and “ship” (Kilhammar, 2011). Møller (1994), who has applied the term employeeship, relates this concept to other forms of “ships” such as leadership. Furthermore, he connects the ship part to being a good co-worker or good leader. Tengblad (2003), on the other hand, relates the word “ship” to something that is courageous and responsible.

The term co-workership has different meanings and definitions, and thus researchers have approached the term in various ways. One option is to look at the term as something neutral and descriptive. In this way of looking at it, co-workership is often connected to a role or position (Kilhammar, 2011). Representing this view, Andersson and Tengblad (2007) have defined co-workership as “the (co)-workers’ practices and attitudes towards their manager, colleagues and employer (the organization as a whole)” (p. 3). An alternative approach is to view the concept as normative, describing what a good and desirable co-workership is. This approach is often apparent in organizations coworkers’ policies, and a normative definition does not have to be the opposite of a descriptive definition (Kilhammar, 2011). Møller (1994), a pioneer within the field, views responsibility, loyalty and initiative as characteristics in a good co-workership. Where responsibility is at the core of the concept, while loyalty and initiative depends on the responsibility the individuals take on. Hällsten and Tengblad (2006) have formulated a normative model of constructive co-workership from their descriptive research in which they call the co-workership wheel. They see the following pairs as values in a good co-workership:

- 1) *Trust and openness*: there is trust and open communication between co-workers and managers.

- 2) *Fellowship and cooperation*: the co-workers experience a sense of belonging and can cooperate across different departments and occupations within the organization.
- 3) *Commitment and meaningfulness*: the co-workers sees meaning in their work, is proud of belonging to the organization, and aims to perform the best work they can.
- 4) *Accountability and agency*: the coworkers take responsibility for their work, take initiative in their work, and balance responsibility to maintain good health.

A third approach is to view co-workership as a concept that requires certain criteria as fulfilled, and simultaneously as something that can be introduced to an organization (Kilhammar, 2011). Since co-workership has been interpreted in different ways and filled with different meanings Kilhammar (2011) has tried to find a common core of the different definitions of the term. She views the term as an idea where “co-workership has to do with the co-workers identity, approach and behavior in their work and workplace” (p.13).

This thesis follow Kilhammar’s (2011) definition of co-workership, since it is a definition that allows for a freedom of interpretation and thus for a presumption of the idea being different in different organizations (Kilhammar, 2011), and cultures.

Research conducted with the purpose of describing co-workership have defined the concept as dimensional. This is described in the next section.

Dimensions of co-workership

There has been few studies conducted with the aim of defining co-workership. However, Tengblad (2003), and Bertlett (2011) have applied an empirical approach to the term, which will be presented below.

The research project “Effects of a decentralized employee responsibility” started up in Sweden in 1999 and identified five dimensions of co-workership based on how independent the employees are and how much responsibility they take on. These types of co-workership is related to how the work is organized, including if the changed role of the supervisor/manager have led to a growing responsibility amongst the employees, both as individuals and as members of a work team (Tengblad, 2003). The dimensions are as follows:

- 1) *Traditional co-workership*: The function of the management is intact and the role of the coworkers remains passive. In this kind of co-workership, there is no expansion in responsibility.

- 2) *Organizational-based co-workership*: The coworker's responsibilities are increased and clearly defined. The management and the organization's framework clearly define the coworker's responsibilities.
- 3) *Group-based co-workership*: Groups are given a relatively high degree of freedom. The most profound part of this kind of co-workership is the confidence in group's effectiveness when given the autonomy. This dimension is based on the fundamental presumption that coworkers can and will take responsibility in their work, and that groups is a positive contribution in work.
- 4) *Individual-based co-workership*: The individual coworkers have a relatively extensive responsibility and independence in their job.
- 5) *Leaderless co-workership*: The function of management is eliminated, and the coworkers collectively perform these functions.

Tengblad (2010) has also taken into account that co-workership may be based on coworkers behaviors, attitudes and development in terms of work. He divides this behavior into four dimensions: *following co-workership, specialized co-workership, initiative-rich co-workership and trans-boundary co-workership (co-leadership)*.

Bertlett (2011) has developed a model called the Employee– Leader- Relationship (ELR) model, where he applies a hierarchic perspective of top-down leadership, a horizontal perspective between the coworkers and a mutual perspective of leader- follower behavior. In this model, employeeship is based on psycho-relational competence as well as technical competence. Psycho- relational competence is about the individual's psychological competence in terms of handling social interactions. The technical competence concerns the knowledge that is required to do the work. The ELR model has four levels of psycho-relational competence and technical competence (Bertlett, Johansson, Arvidsson & Jern, 2012):

- 1) *Task-professional employeeship and leadership*: This level is functional when the employees have low task and social abilities, and needs formal and instructive leadership and peer employee support.
- 2) *Collegial-professional employeeship and leadership*: The employees are in the process of creating their professional identity but still need leadership or peer employee guidance.

- 3) *Socio-collegial employeeship and leadership*: The employees possess the ability to engage in mutual sharing that facilitates professional development and efficiency.
- 4) *Socio-emotional employeeship and leadership*: The employees possess the abilities in order to facilitate personal and organizational development and efficiency through mutual sharing (p. 433).

Both Tengblad (2003) and Bertlett (2011) view co-workership as a dimensional concept. Similarities between the two models is that the term is explained by a stage-model in regards to how employees perform within the co-workership. Tengblad's model (2003) is based on factors such as the organization of work and the responsibility the employees take on, and the stages of co-workership is shaped by profession or organizational role, even though he mentions that other factors may influence, such as personality. In Bertlett's model (2011) there is assumed that employees behave differently based on task and social abilities, and that it is important that there is a congruence in how employees with and without leadership responsibilities act. A difference between these two models is that Bertlett (2011) includes the employees' abilities in one model, while Tengblad (2011) describes abilities and development in another model.

In this thesis, both models are applied in the analysis, thereby it is assumed that the models offer two different approaches rather than being mutually excluding. Moreover, both Tengblad (2003) and Bertlett (2011) views leadership as a part of co-workership, which also is central to this thesis analyses. The role of leadership and organizational power structure in the context of co-workership are presented in the next section.

Organizational power structure and co-workership

Most leadership theories primarily address the leaders. However, such theories often ignore the mutual influence that occurs between leaders and followers. As a result employees are seen as passive receivers instead of active contributors. For this reason, there is a need for a concept that views coworkers as active contributors (Bertlett et al. 2012). Moreover, a more flattened organizational structure and democratic leadership style actualizes the role of active co-workers (Velten et al. 2008). Thus, power structure in organizations are viewed as central to co-workership in this thesis.

There are two main approaches described in the literature regarding co-workership. The first approach is about making co-workers more autonomous and independent in order to work independently within the organization and to perform as their own leaders. According to Velten and colleagues (2008), this organizational ideal have not delivered the expected results. One of the reasons for this may be that the co-workers have not been given the prerequisites for developing a good co-workership in this manner. The second approach is about a dynamic interaction between coworkers, and between coworkers and leaders (Velten et al. 2008). In this way the leaders also become a part of the co-workership and are thereby also viewed as coworkers. This approach is most often described in the literature (e.g. Møller, 2004; Andersson & Tengblad, 2007; Velten et al. 2008; Tengblad, 2010; Bertlett, 2011).

The aim of co-workership is not necessarily to reduce the importance of leadership. Tengblad and Andersson (2007) view co-workership in the light of reduced distance between managers and employees, where the planning and execution of work have become responsibilities of the coworkers, and where the managers role is more focused on goal setting, personal development of the employees and facilitating the work. Moreover, in good co-workership the employees participate in decision- making and follow up the intention of decisions agreed upon. In this manner, co-workership is based on both rights and demands. Co-workership is about the co-workers opportunities to influence the development of one's own work situation and being involved and engaged, while leadership is about supporting this development of the co-workership through linking the co-workers work to the overall organization's vision (Tengblad, 2010).

Musselin (2007) argues that there is an increased control in terms of external forces in academic institutions, whereas the celebrated autonomy, professional self-regulation and individual behaviors have been questioned. As a result, the use of non-professional instruments of control has increased at institutions for higher education (Musselin, 2007). For instance, in Norway there is now an ongoing debate about the process of hiring leaders in academia. There is a tradition in public knowledge organizations to be responsible for this hiring process without external interferences. The government now consider employing leaders that does not come from this sector in addition to external directors (Lie, Nebb & Storsul, 2015). Changes such as these might threat academic ideals such as autonomy and freedom in terms of research (Musselin, 2007). Since leaders are considered an important part of co-workership (Velten at al.

2008) such changes might influence the role of co-workership in institutions for higher education.

There exists other concepts that also highlight employee autonomy and responsibility or leader- employee relationships. The next section presents some concepts of organizational behavior that share some characteristics with co-workership.

Co-workership relative to other concepts

Co-workership has been considered a Nordic concept where the research and practice is limited to this geographic area. However, there has been conducted research outside Scandinavia that concern concepts similar to co-workership (Kilhammar, 2011). Concepts such as empowerment, followership, organizational citizenship behavior and psychological contracts are all considered as concepts that share some similarities to co-workership (Andersson & Tengblad, 2007; Bertlett, Johansson & Arvidsson, 2011).

Empowerment

Empowerment is based on psycho- organizational processes and decision- making, and is a motivating concept. The term empowerment originates from democratic movements during the 1960s in the U.S. In the 1980s and 1990s the concept received attention as a management concept (Andersson & Tengblad, 2007). Møller (1994) views employeeship as a prerequisite, necessary to accomplish empowerment. A different view is that co-workership and empowerment are similar concepts, but have some key differences that distinguishes the concepts. Bertlett and colleagues (2011) argues that empowerment is a more person- oriented term while employeeship has a more inter- relational focus. Andersson & Tengblads (2007) opinion is similar to this empowerment focus on making workers more autonomous and independent while co-workership has an emphasis on mutual dependence between leaders and coworkers where the emphasis is on cooperation. Critique of the empowerment concept has centered on when empowerment is successful, it is in fact the management that have become more powerful, and the concept becomes a way of exploiting workers (Andersson & Tengblad, 2007).

Followership

Followership is another term that lies close to co-workership. This concept evolved during the 1990s on the notion that leadership does not exist in isolation. Followership is considered as the counterpart to leadership, and there exists a reciprocal relationship between leaders and followers (Bertlett et al. 2011). Followership is usually described normatively where the essence is the importance for followers to perform effective followership in order for leaders to perform effective leadership. Some of the main differences between followership and co-workership is that the former is considered to have a more passively role than the latter (Tengblad & Andersson, 2007). However, Kelly (1998) has defined good followership as being active and critical. Furthermore, followership is described from a bottom- up perspective while co-workership has a two-sided approach, and encompass both leaders and coworkers (Bertlett et al. 2011).

Psychological contract

Bertlett and colleagues (2011), and Anderson and Tengblad (2007) views the psychological contract as a similar term to co-workership. Like co-workership psychological contracts also involves transactional relationships. Rousseau (1989) has defined psychological contract as “an individual’s beliefs regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between that focal person and another party” (p. 123). Thereby, psychological contracts are existing at an individual level because they are highly subjective, and parties to a relationship do not always have to agree. A psychological contract emerges when an individual perceives that he or she contributes to the organization that obligates a form of reciprocity, or the other way around (Rousseau, 1989). Psychological contracts usually concerns subjective relationships between an employee and the employer while co-workership concerns relationships with one’s co-workers (Anderson & Tengblad, 2007; Bertlett et al. 2011).

Organizational citizenship behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) emerged in the 1980s, and is often described as a trait where individuals contribute to the organization beyond formal obligations (Organ, 1988). Altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue and loyalty make up the dimensions of OCB. The essence is that the employees perceive the organizations values as

their own (Tengblad & Andersson, 2007). OCB and co-workership have some theoretical similarities, both are norm-based organizational behavior concepts with the common theme of highlighting helpful job behavior (Bertlett et al. 2011). Andersson & Tengblad (2007) views OCB as behavior above the norm while co-workership describes behavior considered more normal. Bertlett and colleagues (2011) argues that the relationship aspect mainly distinguishes the concepts. That is, OCB is more general while co-workership behavior is characterized by transactional relationships. This in turn separates the concepts in terms of measurement and operationalization (Bertlett et al. 2011).

Summed up, common for the concepts of empowerment, followership, OCB and psychological contracts is that they all refer to some aspect of co-workership (Andersson & Tengblad, 2007). However, there are also some differences between co-workership and the mentioned concepts. According to Andersson & Tengblad (2007) the empowerment, followership, psychological contracts and OCB do not overlap with co-workership. These concepts are included here because they share characteristics with co-workership such as autonomy, responsibility, leader and employee relationships, and norm based behavior, which are viewed as important to co-workership in this thesis.

Besides being distinguishable from other organizational behavior concepts, co-workership should also have some positive characteristics to possess a value. Some positive and negative aspects associated with co-workership are described in the next section.

Benefits and risks with co-workership

There can be identified both some associated benefits and risks with co-workership. It is of interest to include these aspects here, because in order for co-workership to have a value there should be some benefits associated with it. Moreover, one should also be aware over some possible risks with the concept.

A clear benefit with the term of co-workership is that it implies that coworkers have an active and creating role (Tengblad, 2003). Tengblad and Anderson (2007) views co-workership as the best possible solution to study organizational behavior and relations between leaders and co-workers. From their point of view the individuals who practice good co-workership will receive benefits such as: increased employability, increased life-incomes, better career

prospect, more influence on own work and work place decisions as well as better self-confidence and increased life satisfaction (p. 13).

Bertlett and colleagues (2012) argues that their concept of employeeship will have a positive effect on organizational climate. That is, the willingness, task and social abilities the employees perform in order to create and influence their own work, and that they are allowed so by management, will have a positive effect on organizational climate. In their study they found a positive correlation between the ELR model and psychological climate (Bertlett et al. 2012). Moreover, Bertlett and colleagues (2012) views the vertical and horizontal perspectives as the major benefit of the ELR model, since implementation of the concept needs to involve all employees in order to improve psychological climate.

Even though the focus on co-workership mainly has been positive in nature, there is also some risks associated with the concept. Andersson & Tengblad (2007) highlight two possible risks that might follow co-workership. The first is that demands and focus on organizational performance may result in individual work pressures and feelings of inadequacy. Without organizational support, the responsibility that come with the co-workership may be counterproductive and lead to more stress and poor work related health rather than good performance. The second risk they highlight is that co-workership might be preserved for certain groups of employees while other employees, due to reasons such as; unwillingness, lack of ability or exclusion is not able to take part in the co-workership and for that reason may become marginalized (Andersson & Tengblad, 2007. p. 14). Kilhammar (2011) argues that there is an increasing tendency towards individualization that infuses the contemporary socialization, and that individuals' no longer is dependent on other people in a collective manner. One problem that comes with this individualization is that more responsibility and even blame can be put on the individual (Kilhammar, 2011). Arguably, one can view co-workership as a new way of exploitation by convincing employees that they should be more responsible and active (Tengblad & Andersson, 2007).

Furthermore, the concept of co-workership does not yet have a significant international relevance (Kilhammar, 2011). Thus, it has been speculated if it solely a Nordic concept. In the next section national culture and its relevance for co-workership is presented.

Co-workshop and national culture: Hofstede's cultural dimensions

One of the main purposes in this thesis is to study the meaning of co-workshop in two different countries. Hence, differences in national culture might account for variations within co-workshop between Norway and Hawaii. Hofstede's cultural dimensions (1980) is without doubt the most applied, but also criticized, theory when it comes to cultural differences within organizations (Dickson et al. 2003). In this section, national culture is presented, where the focus is upon Hofstede's cultural dimensions (1980; 1983; 2011). However, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) will also be mentioned.

In the second half of the twentieth century, authors have speculated about the nature of issues that would present distinct dimensions of culture. The most common dimension for ranging societies is the degree of economic evolution or modernity the country possess (Hofstede, 2011). Culture can, however, be approached differently. The term itself is commonly used for nations, ethnic origin, and organizations. A newer field is the culture of occupations, for instance of academics from different disciplines (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998; Hofstede, 2011).

Hofstede (1980; 2011) and Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov (2010) have defined culture as "the collective bargaining programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others" (p. 3). Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) borrows Schein's (1985) definition of culture: "culture is the way in which a group of people solves problems and reconciles dilemmas" (p. 6). In this way, culture is distinguished by the specific solutions chosen to solve a problem (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). Even though, these theories describe culture collectively it is important to keep in mind that there also are individual variations and subcultures within a culture (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998; Hofstede, 2011).

Hofstede's (1980) initial study was based on leaders and employees from 40 countries in the international organization IBM. Later on this research have expanded to include more than 70 countries and different organizations (Hofstede, 2011). Hofstede (2011) writes that his study has indicated significant differences in behavior and attitudes between leaders and employees from different countries and these differences are expressed in five dimensions: *power distance*, *uncertainty avoidance*, *individualism vs. collectivism*, *masculinity vs. femininity*, *long-term vs. short-term orientation*, and *indulgence*.

In this study, the focus will be on the dimensions of power distance and individualism – collectivism because these dimensions seem to deal with factors such as involvement and relationships, which can be defining for co-workership (Irfaeya & Liu, 2003). These two dimensions are presented in the next section.

Power distance

The central issue within the dimension of power distance is how people deal with the unequal distribution of power within a society. It reflects a bottom-up perspective of less powerful employees in an organization, and the expectation and acceptance of an unequal distribution of power (Hofstede, 2011). Moreover, this dimension reflects upon dependence in relationships. That is, in a country with low power distance score's there will be a modified need of dependence of employees on management and the employees prefer to be consulted. Employees are expected to have a high involvement and to participate in decision-making (Hofstede et al. 2010). The effects of a more decentralized structure for decisions and less profound organizational hierarchy may contribute to such characteristics, which also are characteristics in which co-workership have been considered relevant (i.e., Velten et al. 2008).

In countries with high power distance score's the employees' dependence on management is considerably more profound, and the employees and the management consider themselves as unequal. Employees have limited opportunities of gaining enough information because sharing important information might be considered as a threat to the top management. (Hofstede et al. 2010).

Power distance tends to be lower for English speaking and Western countries (Hofstede, 2011), and thus both Norway and the U.S. scores are considered low on this dimension. The total score goes up to 100. Norway's score is measured at 31, while the U.S. score is measured at 40 (Hofstede, 1980, 1983). Thus, in terms of these countries Norway has the lowest scores on this dimension. However, the U.S. also has relatively low scores. The following characteristics should reflect organizational behavior in countries low on power distance; independence, equal rights, a coaching leader style, employees are expected to be consulted, control is disliked and attitudes towards management are informal (Hofstede 1980). While this dimension concerns power distribution within groups, the next dimension presented concerns integration into groups.

Individualism vs. Collectivism

The dimension of individualism versus collectivism is considered as a societal characteristic, not an individual one. This dimension deals with the degree to which people in a society are integrated into groups. Hence, in individualistic cultures, the ties between individuals are considered as loose and people are expected to look after their own. In more collectivistic cultures people are from the beginning of their lives integrated into groups, often characterized as strong and cohesive (Hofstede, 2011). In individualistic societies there is often an “I” consciousness and independence is valued. In more collectivistic societies there is a “we” consciousness (Hofstede, 2011) and harmony with other people is highly valued (Neuliep, 2015).

The individualism score, which is listed for 76 countries, is more predominant in well-developed cultures and western cultures, while collectivism is more prevalent in less developed and Eastern cultures (Hofstede et al. 2010). Norway with a score of 69, on a scale of 100, is considered as an individualistic country (Hofstede, 1980, 1983). However, cultures that does not fall far from the midpoint can possess both individualistic and collectivistic qualities. According to Gayle and Knutson (1993), Norwegians possess both individualistic and collectivistic qualities. That is, Norwegians value independence and thereby personal opinions are considered important, but at the same time people conforms to social norms and are taught to put the needs of the society first.

The U.S. is categorized as one of the most individualistic countries in the world with a score of 91 (Hofstede, 1980). However, there is also some variations within the country. Vandello and Cohen (1999) views Hawaii as a special case. That is, Hawaii has a different culture that distinguish the state from the rest of the U.S. both historically and geographically. Hawaii lies midway between Asia and North America and is culturally influenced by both places (Vandello & Cohen, 1999). Moreover, cross-cultural researchers have used Hawaii as representative example for collectivistic groups. In Vandello and Cohen’s (1999) measure of collectivism across the United States, Hawaii received a score of 91 (on scale up to 100), and was ranked as the most collectivistic state within the U.S. However, for their study Vandello and Cohen (199) created a new measure for collectivism, so this scale might differ somewhat from what Hofstede (1980) defines as collectivism.

The values described within the dimensions of power distance and individualism vs. collectivism can be defining of co-workership because they influence organizational and group structures. With basis in the presented literature on co-workership and national culture, this thesis aims to answer the following problem formulation:

What is the meaning of co-workership in institutions for higher education, and what are the differences in how Norwegian and Hawaiian knowledge workers perceive co-workership?

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the informants, and the applied methodologies in this study. First, the participants, the process of recruiting participants, and the process of collecting data are described. Second, the applied methodologies are presented. Finally, the analysis is described and the results are presented.

Data

The criteria for being contacted in this study was employment in an institution for higher education in Norway or Hawaii as a professor or in an administrative position. Thereby, this study contains five knowledge workers from Norway and five knowledge workers from Hawaii. The Norwegian participants are employed at The Norwegian University of science and Technology, four of the Hawaiian participants are employees from Hawaii Pacific University and one are employed at the East - West Center, Honolulu. The purpose of having one sample from Norway and one from Hawaii is to compare the samples in regards to co-workership. The professors and administrative employees were interviewed applying a semi- structured protocol. The interviews duration lasted from thirty minutes and up to an hour. Both samples consisted of three men and two women. The Norwegian group of employees have been in their positions from one to fourteen years, and three of the employees holds PhD. degrees. Further, this sample consist of two professors and three administrative employees. The Hawaiian sample has been in their positions up to 28 years, and four of the participants holds a PhD degree. This sample consist of three professors, and two administrative employees.

The participants were contacted through e-mail, although a few of the interviews were booked verbally before a formal request was sent out on e-mail. A researcher in the ARK

research group (work environment and climate surveys for institutions of higher education) contacted four of the participants in the Norwegian sample, in relation to a project on co-workership. The researcher of this study contacted one of the Norwegian participants, in relation to the same study. Furthermore, the researcher of this study contacted the Hawaiian sample, although I had help getting in contact with the two administrative participants since the study was currently missing this. The interviews took place in the participants' offices, however, two of the interviews were conducted over skype and one was conducted in a café. In the interviews from Norway, the researcher were interviewer in two of the interviews and co-interviewer in three of the interviews. The researcher conducted all the interviews in the Hawaiian sample.

The participants were informed about the purpose of the study, confidentiality of the data material and anonymity in the study's results through email and verbally before the interviews were conducted, and thereby gave their informed consent to participate. Furthermore, the participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any point through email. The results are not traceable back to the respondents (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The study has been reported to, and approved by NSD (Norwegian Social Science Data Services).

Applied methods

The aim of qualitative research is to gain an understanding of individual's experiences and actions. In this type of research the purpose is to develop understandings of the phenomena in question, based on the perspective of the studied sample (Elliot, Fischer & Rennie, 1999). Hence, a qualitative approach allowed me to study the meaning of co-workership among this sample of knowledge workers. In qualitative research, it is important to acknowledge theoretical positions and values in order to establish the active role of the researcher in the process. Qualitative analysis can be conducted in a realist approach or it can be a constructionist approach. The former, has to do with meanings, experiences and the reality of the informants while the latter has to do with the ways in which events, realities, meanings, experiences and so on are the effects of a range of discourses operating within society. It is also possible to be positioned in the middle of realism and constructionism (Braun & Clarke, 2008), where I consider my point of view.

The data material in this study was collected through semi-structured interviews in order to gain insight in the participants' perceptions of co-workership (Alvesson, 2011). The interview

guide covered themes such as work context, associations of co-workership and perceptions of work climate in terms of co-workership (see appendix). Semi-structured interviews were used in order to have an open conversation focused on co-workership (Langdrigde, 2006). In this way the interviews becomes as an active process where knowledge is produced through the relation between interviewer and interviewees. However, Alvesson (2011) suggest that one should be open for the view that interview situations can be ambiguous, and a complex blend of knowledge and communications elements with social, political, psychological and discursive processes. Interviews with a variety of people that have different political interests might support the validity of the interview material (Alvesson, 2011). In this study, there is employees with different positions within a knowledge institution.

When applying scientific methods, one should chose methodology in the light of its ability to provide useful and meaningful answers to the research question(s). “Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analyzing and reporting themes within data. It minimally organizes and describes your data set in rich detail” (Braun and Clarke, 2008. p. 79). Thematic analysis was chosen as analytic approach with the purpose of sorting the data material in to themes and in order to find a pattern in the data set. Moreover, Braun and Clarke (2008) views thematic analysis as a foundational method for qualitative analysis since it provides core skills in conducting qualitative analysis, and because this is a master thesis study, thematic analysis was considered a suitable method.

Analyses

The interview guide was adjusted through the process, and translated from Norwegian to English. The interviews were transcribed from the recordings, and from oral to written language (Kvale & Brinkman, 2007). Furthermore, the interviews were transcribed carefully and the transcripts were checked against the recordings for ensuring accuracy in the transcript, and as way of validating the accuracy of the interviews and written transcript (Braun & Clarke, 2008). The author transcribed the majority of the interviews. Nevertheless, a researcher in lead on the co-workership project of the ARK group transcribed two of the interviews from the Norwegian sample.

Themes and patterns within a thematic analysis can be identified in a deductive and top-down approach or in an inductive and bottom up approach (Braun & Clarke, 2008). In this study,

a deductive theory driven approach was applied to the material. First, the themes were identified from my understanding of previous literature on co-workership and in regards to Hofstede's (1980; 1983; 2011) dimensions of power distance and individualism vs. collectivism. Second, values that appeared central in co-workership was identified, also from my understanding of previous literature. In order to look at differences in perceptions of the meaning of co-workership between Norwegian and Hawaiian knowledge workers, the two samples were constantly compared (Boeije, 2002). Each interview have been paid equal attention to through the process.

Creating categories assist in the process of sorting and naming the chunks of reality studied (Alvesson, 2011). What should count as a pattern or theme, does not necessarily have to do with prevalence within each data item and across the whole data set. However, a theme should capture something important about the data that is related to the research question and represent some degree of pattern of responses or meaning within the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2008). In this analysis I have therefore paid attention to prevalence of themes and patterns, across the whole set and within the two samples in order to study the mechanism of co-workership and to compare the samples. Below there is an overview of the themes in table 1.1 and table 1.2.

Table 1.1 Defining themes of co-workership

Name of theme	Content of theme
<i>Tasks:</i>	The nature of tasks in co-workership.
<i>Relations:</i>	The nature of relationships and cooperation in co-workership.
<i>Power structure:</i>	Perceptions of power distribution in relation to co-workership.

Table 1.2. Themes of valued behavior in co-workership

Name of theme	Content of theme
<i>Responsibility:</i>	To engage in a shared or individual responsibility with interest for one's work community.
<i>Professional respect:</i>	To have positive attitudes, care for, trust, being present and equalize work relationships.
<i>Cooperation:</i>	A willingness to cooperate with co-workers and to work within the organization's goals.

RESULTS

In the first part of the analysis, the themes were based on previous literature and research on co-workership. In this part the themes *tasks*, *relations* and *power structure* were identified. The second part of the analysis is concerned values that seems important for the interviewed university employees. First, the themes concerning tasks and relations are presented. Second the theme power structure are presented. Third, valued behaviors in terms of co-workership are presented.

The role of tasks and relationships in co-workership

There exists different types of co-workership and different ways of categorizing co-workership (Tengblad, 2010). In this section, the aim is to explore how the knowledge workers in this study perceive their co-workership, in terms of the themes *tasks* and *relationships*.

In previous literature regarding co-workership, the work tasks and relationships are described as important. For instance, in their model Bertlett and colleagues (2012) have described employeeship as based on two pillars, psycho-relational and technical competences, in which they call social and task abilities. Hällsten & Tengblad (2006) describes co-workership as the relation work as well the relation other coworkers. The participants in this study stressed that their work is both individual and cooperative in nature. Moreover, most of the respondents

also viewed co-workship as something that is both social and work related in nature. However, my interpretation was that there is a slight higher tendency of viewing the tasks as most important in the Norwegian sample, as one of the participants exemplifies here:

It is the tasks that are the most important, it is why you are here. And I think that it is most important for the co-workers, and the people that are here is it probably because they like their job.

(Norway, administrative)

In individualistic societies tasks tend to prevail over relationships (Hofstede, 2011), so this might reflect that Norway is considered a individualistic country. In regards to tasks, there are a tendency of viewing the work as connected to knowledge and skills (Bertlett et al. 2012) and maybe not necessarily as connected to relations. Moreover, I perceived a slight higher tendency of viewing relationships as more important in the Hawaiian sample. One of the Hawaiian respondents said:

The reason why I am pausing is because in this particular case both aspects are important. Because I am working with graduate students, and working with graduate students you have to care about them as well.

(Hawaii, administrative)

In universities, some of the work concerns students, so in some situations tasks also concerns social aspects such as relationships. In more collectivistic cultures relationships tend prevail over tasks (Hofstede, 2011). So the tendency of viewing relations as more important in co-workship might reflect upon this. The United States have a higher score on the individualism dimension than Norway (Hofstede, 1980.) However, according to Vandello & Cohen (1999) Hawaii can be considered a more collectivistic culture.

One aspect that is reflected in the literature concerning co-workship is that there exist different types of co-workship depending on the context of work (e.g., Tengblad, 2003; Bertlett 2011). In order to find the meaning of co-workship in an academic institution it is important to look at this from the context in which the employees in question work, one of the participants highlighted this: “I guess the ability to define work will allow you to define co-workship. There is thinking work and there is acting work”. (Hawaii, professor) I think this

captures something about the concept of co-workership, which reflect upon that it can have a different meaning depending on what kind of work you do. Hence, to describe work might be important for recognizing the shape of co-workership, although academics seems to be engaged in many activities (Musselin, 2007). A cooperative approach in terms of work was an association to co-workership that was mentioned with high prevalence in both samples. One of the Hawaiian respondent highlighted this:

I guess again we look at the need for cooperation almost on anything. Whether it is the teaching side which becomes the responsibility to the program, because the individual courses make up the program, and so it is a cooperative effort in terms of syllabus content, of textbook selection, of those kinds of things. In coordinating the efforts of the program are pretty much the same thing because we have a program review, that we do each year too see whether or not we are meeting the learning outcomes that we had set up and so therefore we need to have a cooperating effort in doing that. We also work together on some research projects.

(Hawaii, professor)

Such a cooperative interpretation of the concept might mean to have a good professional collaboration (Bertlett et al. 2012), and as will be looked upon later in this analysis cooperation might be an important value in terms of co-workership. According to Tengblad (2010), organizational roles and the development the individual co-workers have reached is likely to affect co-workership. One of the Norwegian respondents said something that reflected upon this:

I am thinking that in an organization as ours, a knowledge organization the coworkers have a lot of freedom. There is good coworkers and one expect them to do well on their own in many ways, and they perform some management on their own and through their freedom it seems to me when you are in that position you shall also take a significant responsibility for how you cooperate with your colleagues, external and your leader.

(Norway, administrative)

As the participant exemplifies, there was a pattern of viewing freedom or autonomy as important for some of the participants. Freedom and autonomy are known as traditional characteristics in this sector, especially for scientists (Musselin, 2007). Moreover, the participant perceive that there is certain responsibilities that follows these characteristics, for instance in how one

cooperate on tasks. One interpretation of the responsibility to cooperate is that it is important to emphasize in a sector where the employees are assumed to have a high degree of independence. That is, within the educational sector there is a tradition for independent co-workers, and this also calls for demands on the individual co-worker to make initiative and decisions (Tengblad, 2010). Moreover, the value of freedom and personal autonomy is considered as representative characteristic for individualistic cultures (Hofstede, 2010). Even though, the employees in both populations mentioned the focus on autonomy, responsibility and independence the focus on these aspects seemed even stronger amongst the Norwegian employees. Independence has some associated positive aspects such as engaged workers (Tengblad, 2010). However, there might also be some potential weaknesses with this independence, one of the knowledge workers in the Norwegian sample stressed this:

The main problem in this sector is that one become too individual. Too much is done alone and then one becomes too weak. When one succeed then more than one coworker is able to take responsibility for something together. That could mean that some coworkers write a research application together for instance, help with supervising students in another study program, and divide resources and try to help where one is located. Or take responsibility as a community.

(Norway, professor)

A weakness with a high degree of individuality within the co-worksip is that the sense of community can become weaker (Tengblad, 2010). In individual cultures, there is often an “I” consciousness (Hofstede, 2011). This might contribute to a higher commitment towards one’s own work rather than taking a cooperative approach. Moreover, Musselin (2007) writes that some people perceive the celebrated autonomy of the scientist as an obstacle for private funding of research and in turning research into innovation. Another aspect is that co-worksip might be stronger among some persons in the organization, i.e., the co-workers one interact with the most. One possible explanation for this might be that one have closer relationships with these co-workers, a respondent from the Hawaiian sample reflected upon this:

And people who work closely together on a number of different things and on regular basis I think it is easier to develop this than when you have limited interactions in both the kind of things you do together and the frequency. You need to spend some time together to develop this. So it is harder the less frequently you interact, the fewer things you interact on I think.

(Hawaii, administrative)

One might have a stronger bond with the employees one work closest with because it is likely that one communicate more with some co-workers, and the relationship may as a result become stronger. Another possible explanation is that the tasks make the foundation for co-workership, one the participants from Hawaii highlighted this:

I would say that we as a team practice good co-workership but I think the bigger the teams become or the broader the scope of work the harder it is to maintain that strong co-workership culture. Partly because the work is so - the further out you go from your own profession or discipline the harder it is to understand what people do and so even if you are willing to practice co-workership you may not have the expertise or experience or the knowledge to so effectively. It gets a little more difficult.

(Hawaii, professor)

This participant from Hawaii mentions that there might be easier to practice co-workership within areas one have the abilities to do so. Hence, it might be the case that the tasks and field of interest is the most important aspects in terms of practicing co-workership. One possibility is that in collectivist cultures one is more likely to build relationships within one's group. Another possibility is that highly educated employees often identify more with one's own profession (Hofstede, 2011). Another aspect that was mentioned in both the Norwegian and Hawaiian sample is that if one have some informal communication then the formal and work related communication improves (Heide & Simonsson, 2011). A participant from Norway exemplified this:

With openness I mean having the time to be social and having the time for coffee to talk about what is going on at work, and get some feedback. And then you need have the informal part in place before you can get an even better outcome of the formal part such as papers, workshops and alike.

(Norway, professor)

Bertlett and colleagues (2012) found a correlation between psychological climate at work, where openness was considered a characteristic of climate, and co-workership. One possibility is that informal communication facilitate the formal communication. Maybe there is a reciprocal relationship between the tasks and relationships in the co-workership. Where the tasks facilitate the relationships and good co-workers relations enhance the quality of the tasks, or the other

way around. Bertlett and colleagues (2011) refer to the psycho-relational component of their employeeship model as the ability to handle social interactions and task ability as knowledge and skills to contribute in given assignments. Co-workership were by most of the participants viewed as something positive, one of the informants from the Hawaiian exemplified this:

As a result of all that I think you end up feeling better about your work place and the work you do. A part of it is you are working with friends- and I think you always feel better about it, and my experience is then that these things leads us to be more efficient in what we do so we feel better or accomplish something, and fulfill that desire we have to be efficient in what we do.

(Hawaii, administrative)

This participant viewed the advantages of co-workership as something that makes the work more effective and as resulting in positive feelings. Andersson and Tengblad (2007) views more influence in one's work, better self-confidence and increased life satisfaction as positive aspects of co-workership. Finally, there is also examples in this sector when one co-work with people that is not close in proximity. One of the Hawaiian respondents brought this up:

Everybody seem to have a virtual workspace so I am co-working consequently with a tons of people some of them I have not seen for years because they do not live here. Sometimes it is research on a topic with the intent of actually writing, and people contribute which is great but I think even in the virtual workspace the relationship with another person is essential if you want the best work to come forward.

(Hawaii, professor)

This participant emphasis the relationship aspect of co-workership as important to make the best work come forward even if the co-worker is not close in proximity. This might reflect upon that it is easier to perform good co-workership when you co-work on tasks that you understand and have the expertise and knowledge about. This might also reflect upon that university employees can consider researchers working in another country or university as co-workers. That is, according to Hofstede (2011) highly educated employees often identify primarily with their profession. Moreover, social media provides new opportunities for reinforcing coworker communication in relationships with colleagues (Heide & Simonsson, 2011).

Co-workership and power structure

A flattened organization structure and more teamwork contributes to make the concept of co-workership relevant. Moreover, there is a tradition to view co-workership as a term that includes both co-workers and leaders (Velten et al. 2008). In the case of institutions for higher education, Musselin (2007) writes that peers perform much of the control, such as peer reviewing. Moreover, tasks such as project management, administrative responsibilities and maintenance of partnerships have increasingly become academics responsibility, especially amongst seniority (Musselin, 2007). However, at the same time, Musselin (2007) also writes that there is a tendency of increased external control in the profession. I assume that Hofstede's (1980) dimension of power distance, which deals with distribution of power within organizations, might shape some part of the co-workership among knowledge workers. For this reason, the theme *power structure* is included in the analysis and presented in this section. Some of the participants viewed power structure as essential in defining co-workership. For instance, one participant from Hawaii mentioned this: "I guess it means the analysis of the relationship having to do with coworkers, communication, and power structure". (Hawaii, administrative)

Focus on co-workers when it comes to strategic communication may give a better understanding of the relationship between communication and organizing since the co-workers interpretations and actions constitute the organization (Heide & Simonsson, 2011). Free and open communication is often contextualized by management behavior and organizational structure. An optimal organizational structure for co-workership favors dynamic levels to make cross- boundary communication effective (Bertlett et al. 2011). According to Hofstede (2011) communication is more open and free in societies characterized by low power distance and should facilitate good cooperation. A professor in the Hawaiian sample reflected upon this:

It is the issue of how do we work cooperatively across the organization and the other side of it is that it not so much that is a top-down thing supposed to be. Because if you look at it at the organization is not some kind of a bureaucratic pyramid, it is flattened out! What the management level people got to deal with is to use your span of control so therefore the issue is you got to have a certain amount of that I guess either cooperation on which you call co-workership that therefore becomes this maybe the grove that holds it together. I think that might be a good way to look at it. So that people are comfortable working with that.

(Hawaii, professor)

In the light of more flattened organizations, management is given the new role as a partner and facilitator that matches the employees increasingly self-dependence (Heide & Simonson, 2011). Low power distance in organizations facilitates a more cooperative approach between leaders and co-workers. Such a cooperative approach between the employees might hold the organization together, as the participant mentions. Moreover, in the light of flattened organizations leadership might become the concern for any employee as they become a part of self, peer, and group leadership (Velten et al., 2008). Both Norway and Hawaii (U.S.) have low scores on the power distance scale (Hofstede, 1980). However, one participant also mentioned the perception of co-workership in regards to changes in organizational structure as something negative:

You hear about it in the post-bureaucratic discussions where you are supposed to delegate downwards and let the employees free and that sort of stuff. And then you have CMS. That is, political management studies, the literature that is critical towards that kind of thinking and says that this is only rhetoric to make the coworkers do things they would not do otherwise, that they shall take more responsibility than they actually supposed to do. So I am a bit unsure about co-workership, thus it depends how one use it in practical terms. Because it is possible to use it in a positive manner to get more freedom.

(Norway, associate professor)

Changes in post-bureaucratic organizations have resulted in new requirements for the employees. It is no longer enough to only do the job, but co-workers are also required to be social competent, highly engaged, prepared to walk the extra mile and to adopt new values in line with the organization's core values in addition to manage a heavy workload (Heide & Simonson, 2011). With a heightening responsibility put on the employees, there might be some perceived negative consequences such as an increased blame on individuals (Kilhammar, 2011). Moreover, Tight (2010) writes that the academic workloads are increasing, so one possibility is that the focus of a new concept might lead to strain.

Even though it was mentioned a couple times that it is possible to develop a co-workership that does not include leadership, most of the employees in both populations, viewed leadership as a part of the co-workership. This exemplified by one the Hawaiian administrative respondents:

I think it has to involve pretty much everyone. The leader has to be willing to say that having more people involved in decisions making is going to lead to better results and so in essence- I am giving up power but it is making our organization more powerful and making us better able to achieve good results and that ends up being a benefit. So I think in some- the higher up you are the scarier it is to certain extent because people who are at those levels tend to think that they know what they are doing. And so they say, you know, I know what needs to be done and I if let other people do it they make the wrong choice. But it is not anarchy, it is cooperation and the person who is the leader needs to be involved in the discussion and have enough sense and confidence.

(Hawaii, administrative)

Leaders are usually described as a part of co-workership (e.g., Tengblad, 2003; Velten et al. 2008; Bertlett et al. 2011). As the participant highlight, the issue might become for management to give up power, but as a result this might end up being a benefit for the organization. Bertlett et al. 2011 views Hofstede's (1980) dimension of power distance, with regards to sharing and accepting authority, as the fragility of employeeship. This process requires effort and all employees need to be involved (Møller, 1994; Bertlett et al. 2011). Moreover, Møller (1994) views the issue of giving, and taking responsibility as fundamental in successful employeeship. This might reflect the issue of equality in co-workership, this is exemplified by one of the Norwegian participants:

Where the focus is not only on leadership, but also on the equality you need to reach goals. Leadership is one thing but it is also about how people evaluate themselves within the co-workership, it is sort of a self-evaluation.

(Norway, administrative)

The focus on more active co-workers might also call for an expectation from a leaders' perspective in terms of the coworkers being aware of their role, and this might be what the participant calls self- evaluation. Heide and Simonsson (2011) write that there is a shift from focusing solely on leadership, thus the relationships and practices of leaders and employees are viewed as mutually dependent.

Tasks, relationships and power structure are viewed central in defining co-workership among the participants. In the next section, valued behaviors in terms of co-workership are presented.

Values in co-workership

This process of analysis was aimed at identifying values considered as important in co-workership. There were three values identified in this procedure: *professional respect*, *responsibility* and *cooperation*, these themes are presented in the same order in this section. The themes termed as responsibility and cooperation seems to support earlier literature in terms of a normative definition of co-workership (i.e., Tengblad & Andersson, 2007). There is some overlap of the meaning between the themes, but I see this as a possibility of the themes being connected rather than having the same content.

Responsibility

Responsibility is a recurring theme in the literature regarding co-workership, and a theme in this study. The word responsibility can encompass more than it seems, and for employees that are self-going and independent it is an expectation that they take responsibility in their daily work and not wait for directions (Irfaeya & Liu, 2003). Hence, the co-workers also becomes initiators. Therefore, in this context I use an enriched perception of responsibility that also encompasses involvement and initiative (Irfaeya & Liu, 2003). Moreover, characteristics such as independence and autonomy are considered as important to knowledge workers (Musselin, 2007). Møller (1994) views responsibility as the most important aspect of employeeship. Many of the informants viewed responsibility as important.

Everybody have a responsibility to develop the work environment and contribute to good leadership. It is possible that co-workership is comparable to leadership in that way, the difference is that the leader have even more responsibility.

(Norway, administrative).

The participant views responsibility as important for all co-workers, but that leaders have even more responsibility. According to Møller (1994) the management is only a part of the whole and therefore only holds part of the responsibility. Moreover, it is hard to bring out the best in people when the management is too much in focus and the management are considered responsible for all the results. At the same time, management also have some obvious responsibilities (Møller, 1994). Moreover, responsibility is necessary in order to obtain good

cooperation in an organization (Møller, 1994). One of the Hawaiian participants exemplified that in good co-workership the employees have the ability to share responsibility:

The things that comes to mind most quickly for me is that in an environment where there is good co-workership things do not fall through the crash because people do not look at this as this is mine and then this is yours. They look at this, all of this is our job and so they are more likely to go above and beyond the call to assume more of an entrepreneurial spirit in the completion of work so that they own more of the end product. (Later in the interview) In terms of a universal definition or one that a lot of people can agree on, failing to deliver on time and with the right level of quality would probably be easily identifiable aspect of bad co-workership. Or, delegating work to others without fully explaining what can fully be required or failing to accept responsibility for substandard group performance but claiming responsibility for above average or above standard group performance.

(Hawaii, professor)

This might resemble what Tengblad (2010) calls an active approach where the co-workers not only make initiative in their own work tasks but also in regards to the whole department or workplace. Moreover, when one makes such an effort one may also feel sort of an ownership in the work and therefore there should be some sort of balance in input and output. On the other hand, the responsibility mentioned might resemble above norm behavior as characterized by organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988). According to Møller (1994) the ability to share responsibility in success and failure is necessary in employeeship. In order to be able to engage in a shared responsibility there have to be some awareness of the responsibility. Expectations and evaluations were mentioned in a few of the interviews, see example below in the light of expectations of a co-workership culture:

It has to do with the expectation that people are conscious about their responsibility. So the expectation may involve that other people also understand that they have a responsibility. But first it has to be an expectation to oneself. That you are capable of seeing your own contribution and my thoughts regarding co-workership is that if you are being a good model, if you are trying to be the best person you can be – then other people can see it and you succeed more with that than by being grumpy and sit in your own corner.

(Norway, professor)

This remark can resemble perceptions of exchange relationships in terms of a balance in what one invest in the co-workership and what one receives in return, in terms of responsibility. Co-

workers that possesses high task and social abilities should have the ability to learn from each other as equals (Bertlett et al. 2011). If one are conscious about the responsibility one take on and trying to do the best with this responsibility, one can expect the same from co-workers. The extract below makes an example in how one individually can perform responsibility within the co-workership:

You do work that needs to be done, you work with other people, you cooperate with them. You do not have to agree with everything and certainly a lot of times the issue is if you just agree with everybody to be agreeable then maybe you go down the wrong road sometime. The issue is if you see that something is, or maybe you need to look at something more in depth... you get a better solution in whatever you are working on. So it is one thing to be cooperative, the other thing is that you are so cooperative that you would say yes to anything and that may not be the best thing for that particular decision.

(Hawaii, professor)

As this participant mentions, not being too agreeable, or making the effort of going in depth of decisions is examples of how one can be responsible for cooperative issues can be one aspect of performing good co-workership (Tengblad, 2010). Andersson & Tengblad (2007) view decision-making and the duty to follow up decisions as an essential part of good co-workership. In one of the interviews the focus of responsibilities relying on co-workers were also mentioned as a negative aspect with co-workership:

The first thing that comes to my mind with co-workership is that the employees take responsibility for the business without necessarily having a leader in charge. But for me, I am not sure if I like the term because it is sort of connected to the Scandinavian culture. Because in Scandinavia there is a tradition, that is what separating Norway from many other countries. Here the coworkers are independent, they are very independent.

(Norway, professor)

This participant sees co-workership in relation to the tradition of independent workers in Scandinavia (Tengblad & Andersson, 2007), and mentions this as a constraint of the concept. The dimensions of individualism and small power distance are correlated with wealth, and all wealth related phenomenon usually correlates with such a profile. One possibility is that co-workership is a wealth related phenomenon, and thus it is therefore a suitable phenomenon for

the Nordic countries (Elgvin & Hernes, 2014). Another interpretation is that the connection between co-workership and self-governed work groups might steer the perception of co-workership towards an existing negative opinion to self-governed work groups (Tengblad, 2010).

Summed up, the views on responsibility in this context is being responsible in terms of shared work and one's own contributions in this shared work, and finding a balance in the shared responsibility. Even though this value was present in both populations it was more highlighted in the Norwegian population.

Professional respect

Showing respect to co-workers recurred as an important value and theme in terms of co-workership in this study. Professional respect does not have an exact definition, but it seems to involve treatment of people. The subthemes are *positive attitudes, presence, care, trust* and *equalizing relationships*. The issue of professional respect often came up in regards to perform good co-workership. One of the Hawaiian participants exemplified this:

I think one thing is showing respect to your co-workers. You know even if you are the one in charge and you are smarter or better educated or whatever, but that is not the context within which you work, it is that we have something we are getting done together and you have your contributions to make and I have my contributions to make. So, and I do try to show that respect and I know that I cannot be effective if I am not working well with those folks. And, I try to make sure I understand the situation and get information from the relevant people and consult with people before I do things and I guess another part of it is trying to, particularly with the people I work real closely with to have some fun interactions that are not necessarily work interaction so to develop the relationships. I guess you can say that is a part of showing respect for people. Or at least it is a very close related part of that.

Hawaii, administrative)

The participant discuss respect in terms of attitudes towards co-workers and the tasks (Hällsten & Tengblad, 2006). Establishing a mutual understanding between people underlines the importance of knowledge about and respect for each other, which then again facilitate the personal well-being, tasks and role clarity. Moreover, this also facilitates shared authority and responsibility, and organizational collaboration based personal trust and loyalty (Bertlett et al

2011). Having interactions that is not work related might also be a part of the co-workership, which several of the participants brought up:

It is like any relationship with co-workers you have to nurture it. You remember their children, you remember their birthdays - even if you do not see them a lot you do see them and you hopefully make the relationship more than an acquaintance. Even if you share office with someone, you can feel isolated. You do not always see each other that much. That is why we have lunch we put the keyboards down and we talk and catch up with the people that you work with, and the people that you share office with in particular.

(Hawaii, professor)

To sit down and have lunch creates a situation where one can talk openly with ones co-workers, which then again may facilitate good co-workership (Bertlett et al. 2012). Furthermore, to share lunch with co-workers might work as a way of equalizing relationship. To develop and keep good relationships to co-workers is also a part of performing good co-workership besides the more formal communication, even though this is an aspect that often is neglected (Heide & Simonsson, 2011). One of the participants addressed allocating time to co-workers as important:

To have the time to stop and talk with people when you see them in the corridor. Especially maybe those that is not so involved and whom is not participating in the lunches. And who seems busy. To stop them ask them what they are doing and those sort things is the most efficacious one can do, that is my thoughts.

(Norway, professor)

In the light of an individual sector, where the workers have a lot of autonomy (Musselin, 2007) one way of practicing professional respect may be to include people that maybe is not that involved and try to include them in the co-workership, and this might be an example of showing care for ones co-workers. Moreover, it can be a way of being present to your co-workers. The idea of being present was brought up in a couple of the interviews in terms of being present stab meetings and common activities, but also in terms of being mentally present as one participant exemplified:

I think the first thing is I try to be present. So for an example, you and I are talking, the door is open but if we need to close it, we will. That is A. B, if the phone rings I am going

to ignore it because voicemail will pick up the call but I won't have another chance for an opportunity to build trust with you as a colleague. So that, the idea of being present to the people, the situation and the resources that you have I think that is very important. People need to feel like they are important and they need to feel that their needs are important and that does not happen unless I can be present to them.

(Hawaii, professor).

This participant exemplifies how to perform good co-workership as being present to her co-workers. I think this reflect upon an important aspect of treatment of colleagues and practicing professional respect. It is also important for co-workers to develop an awareness of their own role and their influence in the workplace (Heide & Simonsson, 2011). In this manner it may be connected to responsibility. The issue of trust was mentioned by some of the participants as important in order to be able to perform good co-workership, and as a factor that can make up a difference in the co-workership.

I think if you share a space with someone that you feel comfortable with you can discharge a lot of negative energy. There is stuff going on constantly and you do not know what to do with it, and you don not know what to do about it- trying to assess what is going on you ought to talk with somebody, who do you trust basically. That is an interesting thing because I think trust became an issue, it can make the difference between the administration and faculty. Or between the boss and the workers, there are differences. Their agendas are different and everybody is always just trying to protect their own.

(Hawaii, professor)

Trust can be a central issue in developing good and strong co-worker bonds, and trust and openness are key characteristics in a good co-workership. (Andersson & Tengblad, 2007). Thus, communication that is not open and free and likewise behavior that is not congruent with explicit values and attitudes can be devastating for trustful relationship and sustainable employeeship (Bertlett et al. 2011).

Professional respect in this setting seems to involve attitudes towards colleagues and the work, equalize relationships, care about and being present to co-workers, and having trust. On the other hand, this might just in practical terms be that one is practicing some required manners, with no relatedness to care and attitudes. However, it seems that this theme is related to positive co-workers relationships. This value was mentioned with prevalence in both samples but was more emphasized in the Hawaiian population.

Cooperation

Cooperation is the third theme that I consider as a basic value in co-workership in this study. As it is mentioned above, in occupations where there is no supervisors to closely monitor the work, employees and teams have a high degree of responsibility in their own work. Therefore, interpersonal cooperation and teamwork becomes important for the organizational effectiveness (Irfaeya & Liu, 2003). Like responsibility and professional respect there is no exact definition in the literature regarding cooperation. According to Irfaeya & Liu (2003) “cooperation is a collaboration between persons to achieve a certain goal” (p. 20). One of the Hawaiian respondents viewed collaboration as important:

I mean when it was first mentioned to me I thought of a term that we do use more in the United States- I think that's collaboration, and I thought that and this may be particular to universities but it seems to me that in the modern world it is very difficult to get anything done by yourself. And so if we figure out ways that we can work cooperatively or collaboratively we can accomplish more.

(Hawaii, administrative)

This participant views co-workership as similar to collaboration, that is working together in order to produce something or reach a common goal (Irfaeya & Liu, 2003). Further, from this participant's point of view it looks like co-workership becomes instrumental and may lead to better results. Several of the participants share the view upon co-workership as something instrumental or practical, and as something that can contribute to a positive vibe in the workplace:

Because all of us work with, we are really just people trying to help each other out. That is really what is going on (laughing). So being able to share and appreciate the people that are around you. So hopefully I do that, I like to think that I do that.

(Hawaii, administrative)

A fully developed co-workership implies that co-workers are willing to cooperate with their colleagues and contribute to a good social atmosphere and comradeship (Tengblad, 2003, p. 15). Co-workers should have the ability to cooperate in a non- prestigious manner (Andersson & Tengblad (2007) and this way it seems to be related to professional respect. Research illustrate

that peer relationship provides a unique opportunity to develop mutual problem solving. It is likely that peers who share common and mutual concerns can learn from each others experiences (cited in Bertlett et al. 2011). Cooperation seems to have a close link with teamwork (Irfaeya & Liu, 2003). Even though, employees in universities have a lot of independence and might practice some leadership in their own work, teamwork also seems a relevant way of working for many of the interviewed employees, this was exemplified by one of the Norwegian respondents:

When I think about co-workership- I am thinking that a leader is dependent of coworkers and it is comparable to a football team. I like this “Go ’fotboken” by Eggen. It is the thing that you cannot be a good football player if you are only doing a solo run. I think this also applies in organizations. I as a leader cannot be unless I have employees that are working well with me. That is what I put into this thing with the co-workership. Some uses football, some uses orchestra as examples, but everyone has their own role and it is the synergy a leader have carry forward. That is my thoughts.

(Norway, administrative)

In large organizations the employees is often dependent on co-workers in order to succeed. Taking on a cooperative approach even when it is not acquired might help in accomplish individual as well as common goals. Tengblad (2010) views this as essential in what he calls an initiative rich co-workership, where the co-workers also makes initiatives outside one’s own work tasks. Having this interplay and development within the department might be the department leader’s job to facilitate (Tengblad, 2010). Good co-workers should also be able to work with the organization. A couple of the respondents brought this up. One example is included here:

You should be a part of creating value, you should develop the business and then it is not enough to be a minimum worker who always take out the benefits and only deliver the required amount. I am thinking in co-workership everybody has a responsibility to develop the product, to develop the core of the business.

(Norway, administrative)

An aspect of cooperation, especially if the workers have a lot of autonomy, is for the workers to work within the organizations overall goals. That is, not only working for one’s own goals also to reach the organizations goal and development (Tengblad, 2010). Moreover, the

decentralization of power has led to an increased importance of the coworkers when it comes to reach the organizations overall goal (Tengblad). Thus, cooperation might also mean to work with the organization as well as with co-workers. Hence, it is important to bring in people that have a good fit with the organizations and teams. One of the Hawaiian participants exemplified this:

Only if not everyone is on the co-workership bandwagon. That is to say if you have a group of folks whom co-workership is very strong and then you introduce someone new into the group who decides that they do not have work as hard or quickly or at the same level of quality because if they mess up somebody else will catch the mistake and fix it. The intentionality of substandard performance I think will damage a good co-workership relationship among the team.

(Hawaii, professor)

This participant mentions that substandard performance can be damaging for the co-workership culture, and the importance of the introduction process in terms of bringing in the right people. Hällsten (2007) discusses co-workership as a possible responsibility of the Human Resources department. Moreover, Andersson & Tengblad (2007) mention the risk that co-workership culture might be excluding due to factors such as unwillingness to participate. Møller (1994) highlights the importance of all co-workers being responsible in order to obtain good cooperation.

Summed up, cooperation in this context seems to involve a willingness to cooperate with co-workers, as well as working towards the goals of the organization. Cooperation might in turn lead to better results and social atmosphere, if all employees are on the co-workership bandwagon as one of the participants exemplified. Cooperation was a theme mentioned with high prevalence in both samples. However, it was slightly more emphasized in the Hawaiian sample.

Discussion

The aim of this study has been to investigate the meaning of co-workership in institutions for higher education and to compare the concept between knowledge workers in Norway and Hawaii. Based on previous literature the themes tasks, relations and power structure were identified. Moreover, three values were identified as important to co-workership in this study,

responsibility, professional respect and cooperation. Although, the themes were identified in both samples there were some differences in focus. In this section, the results are discussed.

My conclusion is that co-workership needs to be defined by the shape of work, in terms of tasks and relationships and by power structure. Both the tasks and the relational aspects of co-workership was perceived as important to the employees in this study, and I view these themes as connected to Hofstede's dimension of individualism vs. collectivism (Hofstede, 1980; 1983; 2011). Moreover, the participants perceived that they had the opportunity to make decisions and influence their work. I think this reflect upon that two samples in this study are supposed to have low scores on Hofstede dimensions of power distance (Hofstede, 1980). However, Musselin (2007) argues that there is an increasing control of external forces on the university sector. At the same time, Musselin (2007) also emphasizes that this sector has a tradition for self- government and that the employees perform some leadership responsibilities on their own.

In my opinion, the identified values, *responsibility*, *professional respect* and *cooperation* reflect upon the themes of *tasks*, *relationships* and *power structure*. That is, responsibility becomes central both in terms being responsible for one's own and shared co-worker tasks, and take initiative for the benefit of the work community. Low power structure makes the co-worker responsible for his or her own work as well as the organizations work. Professional respect concerns treatment of people and I therefore assume it to be central for relationships with co-workers and attitudes in shared work projects. Cooperation becomes important in terms of a low power structure, where themes performs a high degree of self- management.

The themes of responsibility (i.e., Møller 1994) and cooperation (i.e. Andersson & Tengblad, 2007), is mentioned in the literature in terms of normative co-workership. Professional respect has not previously been defined as a theme in relation to co-workership, but aspects of the theme such as attitudes has been emphasized (e.i., Hällsten & Tengblad, 2006). Moreover, I assume that the values are interconnected rather than overlapping in terms of content. One possibility is that responsibility and professional respect leads to cooperation. Møller (1994) argues that responsibility of all co-workers is important to obtain good cooperation. The relation between values in co-workership can be a possible topic for future research.

It seems that the employees in this study perceive a high degree of independence and autonomy. Thus, the co-workers in this study have the opportunity to perform what Tengblad (2003) calls an individual based co-workership, or maybe in some cases a leaderless co-workership. However, in my opinion an individual type of co-workership where the employees are expected to do their work independently and take responsibility seems to have a better fit. Tengblad (2003) also emphasizes that this type of co-workership is characteristic for knowledge organizations. A downside with this type of co-workership is that the employees are not willing to take a collective responsibility for the organization, and mainly remains preoccupied with their own work tasks (Tengblad, 2003). Some of the Norwegian respondents also mentioned this as a downside with the individuality they experienced.

In terms of Bertlett's (2011) model, a socio- collegial or socio- emotional type of employeeship may be a possible description of co-workership among the university employees in this study. In this kind of co-workership, the leadership orientation is medium to low, and the employees recognize relationships between all co-workers and their assignment, and external parties (Bertlett et al. 2011). One possibility is that this co-workership describe the Hawaiian group and that an individual co-workership (Tengblad, 2010) describes the Norwegian group in this study.

In terms of cultural differences, the orientation towards tasks were more prevalent in the Norwegian sample than in the Hawaiian. Whereas the orientation towards relationships were more prevalent in the Hawaiian sample. This fits with the assumption that Norway is an individualistic country (Hofstede, 1980) and Hawaii a collectivistic state (Vandello & Cohen, 1999). However, it is assumed that both samples possess individualistic and collectivistic traits (Neuliep, 2015). Moreover, I think the culture of the profession in this case may influence the perceptions of co-workership more than national culture (Hofstede, 2011). Therefore, it could be interesting to conduct research on this aspect in the future. On the other side, no matter how uniform we try to make organizations it will have different meanings for people from different cultures (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998)

What I perceived was that the employees from Hawaii have a tendency of being more relation oriented, whereas the Norwegian employees seemed to be more task oriented. This might just illustrate that culture is a shared system of meaning and beliefs that steers our attention, how we act and what we value (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). According

to Hofstede (2011) culture is the mental programming of the mind, where values are learned from cultures. One possibility is that co-workership is quite similar but the culture will affect what one pay attention to in regards to co-workership. However, the purpose here was to find the meaning of co-workership and therefore such perceptions are an important part of the meaning of the concept. Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner (1998) argue that in every culture phenomes such as authority, bureaucracy and fellowship have a different meaning. However, we use the same words to describe them. The outcome is an unawareness of cultural biases and that one culture's accustoms might not be appropriate or shared in another culture. Hence, it is plausible that also co-workership, that may be influences by authority, bureaucracy and fellowship, also can have different meanings in different cultures.

Moreover, even though the values termed as the themes; responsibility, professional respect and cooperation were identified in both the Norwegian and Hawaiian sample there were some differences in terms of focus on the themes. The Norwegian sample was more oriented towards responsibility, while the Hawaiian sample was more oriented towards professional respect and cooperation. As mentioned, cultural differences is mainly expressed by values learned by the society (Hofstede, 2010). One possibility is that emphasis of responsibility in the Norwegian sample is the outcome of Norway being considered an individualistic country, where personal responsibility, personal autonomy and freedom of choice often are amongst the highest valued characteristics (Neuliep, 2015). The emphasis on professional respect and cooperation in the Hawaiian sample might reflect that in many collectivistic cultures harmony with others tend to be a primary value. Moreover, Meyer (1997) have identified relations and knowledge as important in Hawaiian culture.

The explanation in terms of similarities may be that Norway and Hawaii are characterized by individualistic and collectivistic traits. For instance, Norwegians are taught to put the needs of the society above their own and to conform to social norms in addition to value independence. Hawaii is also a specific case with influences from both western and eastern cultures (Neuliep, 2015). Another reason might be, as earlier mentioned, that the culture of profession also plays a part (Hofstede, 2011). Both the culture of the countries and culture of profession probably influence the results.

In this study the focus, in terms of national culture and co-workership, has been on the dimensions of power distance and individualism vs. collectivism (Hofstede, 1980). In future

studies it could be of interest to investigate co-workership in relation to other dimensions of Hofstede's model (1980). For instance, Elgvin and Hernes (2014) argue that the "Nordic model" is facing a variety of new challenges, and that the aftermath of the financial crisis has led to a stress test of the Nordic countries institutions and traditional instruments. For this reason, maybe Hofstede's dimension of uncertainty avoidance, which deals with a society's tolerance for ambiguity (Hofstede, 2011), could be of interest to look at in relation to co-workership.

Even though Hofstede's cultural dimensions (1980) is the most applied model within cross-cultural psychology it is important to keep in mind that this theory is also widely criticized. A simplified conceptualization of culture through dimensions, a bias in favor of western cultures and that the passage of time might affect cultures is amongst the critiques Hofstede's model has received. Moreover, the validity of the dimensions has also been criticized (Dickson et al. 2003). According to Hofstede (2011) the dimensional paradigm on the contrary might help in the understanding of changes the passage of time creates. Moreover, Hofstede (2011) argues that a country's score on a dimension is to be considered relative to other countries, and not as absolute country positions. The historical evidence of continuity of basic problems and national solutions to such problems implies that the dimensions will retain their validity over time (Hofstede, 2011). Hofstede has also been criticized for not paying enough attention towards individual differences (Dickson et al. 2003), and this might be a weakness with this study as well. Hence, personality is an aspect that can be paid more attention to in future research.

Further, this study has some methodological weaknesses. The conventional view of interviews is that the interviewee provides reliable data for the researcher as long as there is no other reason to believe so (Alvesson, 2011). Thus, in this study the participants are considered credible sources for studying the meaning of co-workership among knowledge workers. However, Alvesson (2011) argues that it is important to use reflexivity in qualitative research, which means to acknowledge the uncertainty in all empirical material, and thereby offer alternative interpretations. Moreover, Kvale and Brinkman (2009) argues that there is an alternation between the constructor of knowledge and the knowledge constructed. Thus, in this study it is recognized that the researcher's knowledge and interest can affect the process of studying co-workership (Braun & Clarke, 2008).

Furthermore, it is of relevance to question the comparison of Norwegian and Hawaiian knowledge workers in terms of co-workership. The cultures are different in terms of economic

and historic background as well as geographic positions. However, that the two samples are comparable in terms of co-workership, in spite of such differences, might implicate that co-workership is a concept of value in international research and practice. Moreover, applying a thematic analysis in this study provides a flexible approach for interpreting the meaning of co-workership in the two samples. Such a flexibility can be viewed as an advantage, because this method can produce rich, detailed and complex account of data (Braun & Clarke, 2008). At the same time Braun & Clarke (2008) acknowledge this flexibility as a weakness and a source of critique as “anything goes” that qualitative research has received. Thus, this critique also apply to this study. At the same time, it is unlikely that there is an ideal theoretical framework for conducting qualitative research. The important issue is that theoretical framework and methodology match the research question and that decisions through the research process are acknowledged (Braun & Clarke, 2008). Finally, the sample of this study is not big enough to generalize about co-workership, or cultural differences between Norway and Hawaii. However, this thesis can have a value as a pilot study on the subject.

Conclusions and implications.

The aim of this study has been to investigate the meaning of co-workership in institutions for higher education and to compare the concept between Norwegian and Hawaiian knowledge workers. Tasks, relationships and power structure were identified as central themes in defining co-workership, and responsibility, professional respect and cooperation were identified themes of valued behaviors in relation to the concept. Hence, this study contributes with knowledge regarding co-workership in institutions for higher education. Moreover, co-workership was in this thesis identified as a suitable concept for organizational behavior in context of low power distance, this implication relates to the discussion of delegating responsibility and power (Møller, 1994; Bertlett et al. 2012). For these reasons, this thesis can have implications for future research and practice regarding co-workership in institutions for higher education, and other organizations. Co-workership can be of interest to introduce in knowledge institutions, and other organizations, because the concept may has a positive effect on psychological climate, productivity and work related health. This can be beneficial for employees and employers in the context of an increasing workload and responsibility relying on co-workers

Second, this study benefits with knowledge about national culture and co-workship. The perceptions of co-workship were similar in the Norwegian and Hawaiian sample, with some differences of focus. There was a tendency of focusing more on relations, cooperation and professional respect in the Hawaiian sample, and tasks and responsibility in the Norwegian sample. These differences were interpreted as values in relation to Hofstede's (1980) dimension of individualism vs. collectivism. Thus, this study can benefit research regarding co-workship and cultural differences. The main contribution of this study is the notion that co-workship may have a significant meaning outside Scandinavia. Hence, this study benefits the knowledge of co-workship outside the Nordic countries, and can be useful for international research and practice regarding the concept.

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Appendix A: Interview guide Norwegian version

Takk vedkommende for at han/hun stiller opp

Informere om hva intervjuet skal brukes til

Informere om anonymitet

Spør om det er greit at det tas opp bånd, og informere om at det blir slettet etter at det er transkribert.

Del 1: Person data:

- Kjønn
- Alder
- Stilling i bedriften
- Hvor lenge har personen arbeidet i enheten
- Utdanningsbakgrunn

Del 2: Jobbkontekst:

- **Kan du fortelle kort om jobben din?**
- Oppgaver og ansvarsområder
- Typisk arbeidsdag er
- Arbeidsform (individuell/samarbeid?)
- Grad av selvstendighet i jobben
- Muligheter til utvikling
- Er målene tydelig definert i jobben?
- Er lederen involverende?

Del 3: Assosiasjoner og tanker om medarbeiderskap

Har du hørt om begrepet før?

- Hvis ja, hva legger du i begrepet?
- Hvis nei, prøv å assosier rundt det, hva tenker du det handler om?
 - Husk konkrete eksempler
 - Hvis informanten vektlegger det sosiale – få vedkommende til å tenke hvordan det virker inn på oppgave gjennomføring.

Del 4: Forutsetninger for et godt medarbeiderskap

- Hva er med på å skape et godt medarbeiderskap på din arbeidsplass?
- Hva kan gjøres for å få det bedre?

Del 5: Hvilke fordeler/ulempes ligger det i å ha en god medarbeiderskapskultur?

- For arbeidstakere
- For lederen
- For arbeidsplassen

Del 6: Fra egen arbeidshverdag

- Hvordan vil du beskrive eller karakterisere egen arbeidsplass når det gjelder medarbeiderskaps kultur?
- Hvordan er handlingsrommet til å være en aktiv medarbeider ved din enhet?
 - Beslutning muligheter
 - Påvirknings muligheter
 - Mål tydelighet
 - Tillit
 - Involverende leder
 - Krav
 - Kommunikasjon
- Hvem eller hva er det mest avgjørende i din arbeidshverdag for hvordan du utøver ditt medarbeiderskap (leder, kolleger, arbeidsoppgaver etc.)
- Hvordan vil du si at du selv prøver å være en god medarbeider?

Del 7: Avslutning

- Summer intervjuet kort opp
- Spør om det er noe informantens ønsker å legge til intervjuet

Del 8:

Takk for intervjuet og for at vedkommende har stilt opp

Appendix B: Interview guide English version

Inform about the purpose of the interview (Master thesis, co-workership in institutions for higher education, comparative study between Norway and Hawaii).

Inform about anonymity and confidentiality.

Ask of permission to record the interview (, and that it will be deleted after transcription).

Part 1: Personal data

- Position within the organization
- For how long have you been working within the organization?
- Educational, work background

Part 2: Job context

Can you give me a short description of your job?

- Tasks and responsibilities
- Typical day at work
- Group/Cooperation or individual work
- Degree of independence
- Opportunity for development
- Is the goals clearly defined?
- Involving/engaging leader

Part 3: Associations and thoughts regarding co-workership

Have you heard about Co-workership before?

- If yes: What is your opinion of the term, what do you think it is about?
- If no: Can you try to make some associations to the term?
- Remember: Concrete examples.

- If the informant talks mostly about the social aspects ask about task procedures (and the other way around)

Part 4: Foundations for good co-workership

- How can one build a work environment with a good co-workership?
- What can be done to make it better?

Part 5: Benefits and disadvantages

What can be obtained from having a good co-workership culture? Can it be positive/negative for the:

- For the employees?
- For the leader/manager?
- For the department and organization?

Part 6: From the persons own work context.

- How will you describe your own work climate when it comes to co-workership?
- Do you have the opportunity to be an active coworker at your department?
- What is the most important factors in your job for how you perform your co-workership? (Leader/manager, colleagues, job tasks etc.)
- In what ways will you describe how you are being a good coworker?

Part 7: End

Sum up the interview.

Ask if the informant wants to add something to the interview.

Thank the informant for participation.