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Sharing is Caring: Reciprocal  
Behaviors and Professional  
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**Table of Content**

<b>Table of Content</b> .....	<b>i</b>
<b>Abstract</b> .....	<b>ii</b>
<b>Introduction</b> .....	<b>1</b>
<b>Literature Review</b> .....	<b>2</b>
Reciprocal Behaviors: Giving, matching, and taking .....	2
Professional Networking .....	7
Task interdependence .....	13
<b>Method</b> .....	<b>16</b>
Procedure and Participants .....	16
Measurement .....	17
Analysis .....	19
<b>Results</b> .....	<b>20</b>
Descriptive statistics, validity, and reliability .....	20
Hypotheses testing.....	22
<b>Discussion</b> .....	<b>28</b>
Theoretical contributions.....	28
Limitations and directions for further research .....	32
Practical implications .....	35
<b>References</b> .....	<b>38</b>
<b>Appendix</b> .....	<b>48</b>
Appendix 1. Preliminary thesis report.....	48

## **Abstract**

The purpose of this study is to contribute to the existing literature regarding the interactions between individuals in a professional context, as a factor for their success. First, this study sheds light on the newly developed typology of reciprocity styles established by Grant (2013), containing three interactional categories called givers, matchers and takers. By using Wolff and Moser's (2009) networking measurement, the study explores whether giving, matching and taking behaviors are relevant when explaining the structural and functional differences in professional networking (building, maintaining, and using contacts inside and outside the organization). In addition, this study builds on the findings in the field of social psychology, which have proven that people build the most collaborative and longest-lasting connections when they work together on tasks. It thus, tests, whether task interdependence can strengthen the relationship between giving, matching, and taking behaviors and professional networking.

This study employed a quantitative cross-lagged research design. The analysis of 385 participants showed that there is a relationship between giving and taking behaviors and professional networking. Giving behavior correlated positively to building internal contacts, maintaining internal contacts, and using external contacts. Taking behavior correlated negatively to maintaining internal contacts, building external contacts and using external contacts. Last, the findings indicate that task interdependence moderated the relationship between giving and taking behaviors and professional networking.

*Keywords:* giving behavior, matching behavior, taking behavior, professional networking, and task interdependence

## Introduction

“No man is an island, entire of itself; every man is a piece of the continent, a part of the main” (Donne, 1624). This phrase encapsulates the value and meaning of networking behaviors and giving, taking, matching behaviors, which will be the main focus in this research paper. Professional networking refers to the behaviors of individuals, who develops and nurtures relationships as part of their personal and professional development. An individual’s network can be crucial when seeking information about new job opportunities, and can lead to broader and deeper knowledge, improved capacity to innovate, greater status and authority, increased job satisfaction and higher income (Forrest & Dougherty, 2001, Wolff & Moser, 2009; Casciaro, Gino & Kouchaki, 2016).

Professional networking leads to value creation for the organizations by increasing members’ exposure and personal learning. The exposure and learning, might in turn, affect the employee’s understanding of organizational practice; provide role clarity, skill development, and job performance (Lankau & Scandura, 2002; Wolff & Moser, 2009; Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993). From an organizational perspective, the willingness of employees to help each other represents a stepping-stone of effective collaboration, quality improvement, and service excellence (Grant, 2013).

Moreover, Grant (2013) stresses the importance of how individuals interact with each other, as a driver for their success. In this way, in addition to motivation, opportunity and ability, Grant (2013) includes interaction with others, as the fourth element in the Ability, Motivation, Opportunity model. This model is designed based on the individual-level theory of job performance, which underlines that employees’ performance is bounded to their level of knowledge, skills and abilities, and to whether they are determined to perform the job effectively (Campbell, 1993).

Continuing, Grant (2013) has contributed to the existing literature and developed a measure called Give and Take. This measure further analyses how individuals interact with each other in order to group their behaviors in three categories: giving, matching, and taking. Giving behaviors enable efficient problem solving, cohesiveness, coordination, and a supportive culture, which appeals to suppliers, customers, and talents. On the other hand, taking behavior

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might be the cause of paranoia in organizations, as individuals are afraid of being taken advantage of by their colleagues (Grant, 2013).

Last but not least, when it comes to the collaborations between individuals, studies in the field of social psychology have shown that individuals create the most collaborative and long-lasting contacts when they work together on tasks (Casciaro & Lobo, 2008; Casciaro & Lobo, 2015; Casciaro et al., 2014). Furthermore, Casciaro and Lobo (2015) highlight that task interdependence could be one of the biggest sources of positive energy in professional relationships.

Our aim is to contribute to the literature by drawing a relationship between the models of networking and reciprocal behaviors in order to better understand the implications of interactions, such as the individual's professional success. Therefore, we examine whether professional networking vary depending on the newly defined model of reciprocal behaviors, giving, matching and taking. The findings in the literature regarding task interdependence concerning collaboration represent the foundation to investigate whether task interdependence strengthens the relationship between giving, matching and taking behaviors and professional networking.

## **Literature Review**

### **Reciprocal Behaviors: Giving, matching, and taking**

Over the past three decades, social scientists have discovered that people differ in their preferences for reciprocity. Reciprocity refers to a relation that has been established between two individuals. This represents a strong relationship, whereas relationships that have been claimed by only one individual are unconfirmed and weak in nature (Gouldner, 1960). The strength of the relation (weak vs. strong ties) is characterized by frequency, reciprocity, emotional intensity and intimacy of that relationship (Granovetter, 1973).

In order to better understand the theoretical foundation of the newly developed reciprocal model, of giving, taking, and matching behaviors, several theoretical models will be presented and discussed. First, Eisenberger, Cotterell and Marvel (1987) looked into what makes individuals selfish or generous when reciprocating. The study suggests a universal ethical requirement that people return the amount of help given in order to establish mutually beneficial social relationships. However, Pruitt (1968) discovers that individuals, in the beginning

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of developing a social relationship, often offer more help to each other than previously received.

Eisenberger et al. (1987) defines creditors as those individuals that violate the reciprocity norm, by giving more. Creditors' ideology reflects a constant search for opportunities to put other people in debt. By doing this, creditors take advantage of the situation as they expect to receive even more back in the future. Creditors' strategy is to forecast which people possess useful resources for the future, before they choose whom to help (Eisenberger et al., 1987).

Relational theory represents another model useful for understanding reciprocal behaviors. This theory explains social life as a process of seeking, making, sustaining, repairing, adjusting, and construing relationships. The theory suggests that people are relationship oriented; people generally want to relate to each other and feel committed to the basic types of relationships. In this way, they try to follow the norms of the group, which might influence others to do the same, including third parties (Fiske, 1992). Fiske (1992) advocated for a relational framework consisting of four psychological models: communal sharing, equality matching, market pricing, and authority ranking.

Communal sharing denotes that relationships are based on equivalence. Equality matching explains that relationships are based on reciprocity (mutually giving and taking). Market pricing refers to relationships based on ratios and rates, and authority ranking explains relationships based on hierarchy. The four models could represent fundamental components of how individuals construct complex social relations.

The same research also recognizes that people might change from one type of social relationship to another, depending on the context people are in (Fiske, 1992). Literature has a possible explanation for context dependent relationships. A prerequisite for many kinds of cooperative behaviors can be that decision makers consider the wellbeing of others to a higher extent when contemplating their options. That is to say that people may have social preferences, and that these preferences promote behaviors that are more or less beneficial to others, even though they are costly to the actor (Murphy & Ackermann, 2014).

Allen and Eby (2012) present another framework of reciprocal behaviors. This framework identifies three categories of social behavior, which are called communal, social exchange, and exploitive. Communal relationships are established by people who feel responsibility to fulfill others' needs, so that

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benefits to others might be given without an expectation of getting anything in response. The strength can vary, the greater the motivation to fulfill the needs of the communal partner, the stronger the communal relations become. Dutton and Ragins (2007) refer to communal relationships as high-quality connections.

Social exchange relationships involve benefits given in response to past-received favors or benefits expected in return in the future. It implies series of exchanges, which generate obligations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 4). Exchange relationship can be economic or social; economic exchange is based on tangible resources, while social exchange is based on socio-emotional resources, and has often been considered to be of higher quality.

The third type of relationship is called exploitative, and is purely motivated by self-interest and gain of benefits for the person initiating the relationship. In the workplace literature, this type of relationship can be characteristic for an abusive supervisor. Researchers have also pointed out that most relationships do not fit one category, but have elements from each, which is also the case of these three relationship categorizations (Allen & Eby, 2012).

Another framework of understanding reciprocal behaviors is through social value orientation (SVO). SVO is typically defined as “pre-existing preferences for certain patterns of outcomes for oneself and other(s)” (McClintock, 1978 p.19). New research has found five kinds of social value orientation. The first type refers to individualists. These are individuals who seek to maximize their own outcome, regardless of others’ needs. Secondly, competitors are individuals motivated to maximize the difference in outcomes between them and others (Van Dijk, De Cremer & Handgraaf, 2004). Third, cooperators are characterized as individuals who strive to maximize joint outcomes for all parties. Fourth, altruists are individuals that seek to maximize other’s outcomes. Lastly, egalitarians strive for equality in outcomes.

Furthermore, the individualists, and competitors’ group are often combined and labeled “pro-self”, while the group of cooperators, egalitarians, and altruists are labeled “prosocial” (Van Lange & Kuhlman, 1994). SVO research also shades a light on cultural differences that might come into play when studying the concept. A research found that when people from different cultures allocate resources, they often tend to subscribe to a variety of different distribution rules, depending on contextual factors. Children and adolescents from different cultures have been found to attribute different values on social initiative and

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norm-based behavioral control. This affects the interpretation and evaluation of specific aspects of social functioning, including sociability (Deutsch, 1975).

Moreover, other researchers focus on exploring how human actions are driven by both self-interests and other motives (e.g. De Dreu, 2006; Ferrero, Pfeffer, & Sutton, 2005). For example, De Dreu and Nauta (2009) further researched the theoretical concepts of “self-concerned” and “other-oriented” in the field of work behavior. They point out that individuals differ in their behaviors, such as helping others, but also in terms of how they process and make use of information at work. Self-concerned individuals act and process the information in a way that is beneficial for themselves, for their personal characteristics, qualities, inputs, outcomes, and personal success. Other-orientated, on the other hand, act and process the information in a way that benefits others, as they take into consideration collective characteristics, qualities, inputs, outcomes, as they focus on collective success (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). Nevertheless, the boundaries between prosocial motivation and self-concern are not set, which indicates that one person can shift, depending on various factors, such as context and relation (Fiske, 1991).

However, it seems to exist an agreement among researchers that highly other-oriented individuals are prosocially motivated (e.g. Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004; De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). Meglino and Korsgaard (2004) have indicated that if the level of other-orientation increases, the level of self-concern decreases. In accordance to this view, prosocially motivated individuals are considered to be less self-concerned. On the other hand, if an individual is highly self-concerned, he or she is less prosocially motivated. However, De Dreu and Nauta’s (2009) research contradicts these findings and suggests that these two concepts are independent and have orthogonal dimensions, meaning that individuals can score high (or low) on both dimensions.

In line with the research mentioned above, Grant (2013) has later developed three reciprocal behaviors and used a different terminology to classify them. Grant (2013) labels the three reciprocal behaviors giving, matching, and taking. In this sense, he defines givers as those individuals who have a giving behavior, which underlines willingness to help and support others, without any expectations of getting something in return. Givers operate in a manner where the benefits of giving to others outweigh the personal costs. Contrary, he defines takers as those individuals who engage in taking behavior and who are often self-

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oriented and narcissistic. Taking behavior implies getting the most out of the interactions (Grant, 2013).

The difference between givers and takers is not measured in how much money they send or donate, but rather how their attitude and actions impact other people. Givers strive to be generous by sharing their time, knowledge, energy, skills, ideas, and connections to other people who could benefit from them. On the other hand, takers help other only if they think or know they will receive more than they give. The third category is drawn from the fact that people are not purely a giver or a taker, but often adapt to a third style called matchers. Matchers believe in fairness and strive to preserve an equal balance between giving and getting. They might give other people help, but protect themselves by seeking reciprocity. Grant's three reciprocity styles however, are not explained as being rigid, people might find themselves shifting from one style to another, as people often tend to have different work roles and relationships (Grant, 2013).

In addition to introduce the concepts of giver, matcher, and taker, Grant (2013) distinguishes between two prosocially motivated individuals in his book. These two groups are referred to as otherish giver and the selfless giver (both high on other-orientation). The two different givers are distinguished by their level of self-concern; the otherish givers are high on self-concerned, while selfless givers are lower on self-concerned (Grant, 2013).

Grant (2013) describe the otherish givers as successful individuals that care about helping others, but on the same time maintain their own goals that serve to their own achievements. The selfless givers, on the other hand, are driven by a pathological altruism and are more other-oriented associated to high risks of burnout (Grant, 2013). This is in line with De Dreu and Nauta (2009) who argue that a person can be low or high on one or both orientations (other-orientation and self-concern), as these two concepts are orthogonal and independent from each other.

Utz, Muscanell and Goritz (2014) further investigate Grant (2013) newly developed concepts and conclude that giving and taking behavior has a unique predictive validity for sharing behavior. The researchers prove that the Give and Take measure correlates with other theoretically similar constructs, such as self- and other-oriented, narcissism, reciprocity (reciprocation wariness), and social value orientation (prosocial, individual, competitor). Utz et al. (2014) research findings reveal that taking behavior correlate positively with self-orientation,

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individualistic and competitor types, narcissism. In their study, taking behavior are positively related to being exploited when helping others, and related negatively to knowledge sharing. Taking behavior was also negatively related to important information and resources sharing in a public goods dilemma.

Furthermore, giving behavior correlate positively with other-orientation, prosocial type, and show higher willingness of information and resource sharing, than taking behavior. At the same time, giving behavior was negatively related to reciprocation wariness and narcissism. However, the research finds no significant correlations between matching behavior and social value orientation types. Overall, these results prove evidence of convergent validity of the Give and Take construct (Utz et al., 2014). Moreover, Utz et al. (2014) suggest that Give and Take measurement predicts strategic information sharing better than SVO, thus, it might be a useful measure in practical settings, such as in organizational knowledge sharing.

To sum up, all the theoretical models presented above share some characteristics with Grant's (2013) three reciprocal behaviors, giving, matching and, taking. In addition, Grant (2013) highlights that the three reciprocal behaviors are important for work outputs, such as network building, career success, collaboration and motivation. Consequently, our research focus is to further build on these outcomes by examining the relation between giving, matching, and taking behaviors and professional networking.

### **Professional Networking**

Networking is described as a "behavior syndrome" (Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, & Tag, 1997) that encompasses a set of interrelated behaviors consistently pursued by individuals (Michael & Yukl, 1993; Wanberg et al., 2000; Witt, 2004). Professional networking refers to specific behaviors, such as building, maintaining, and using informal relationships which can potentially facilitate work related activities of the individuals by voluntarily giving them access to resources, such as task related support, strategic information, or career success (Podolny & Baron, 1997; Forret & Dougherty, 2004; Wolff & Moser 2006).

Professional networking measures typically assess the frequency of different networking behaviors which individuals display, for instance, discussing business aspects outside working hours. Similarly, research reveals that professional networking contributes to business opportunities, broader and deeper

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knowledge, improvement of quality of work, increased capacity to innovate, and increased job satisfaction (Casciaro, Gino & Kouchaki, 2016). Professional networking is also linked to favorable performance ratings, career success, and may represent a job search strategy (Thompson, 2005; Forret & Dougherty, 2004; Langford, 2000; Michael & Yukl, 1993; Wanberg et al., 2000).

The way networks impact the individual and the collective outcomes is reflected by a spectrum of theoretical concepts, starting with structural determinism to individual agency (Giddens, 1984; Bourdieu, 1990; Archer, 1995). Structural determinism refers to an individual position in the social structure and emphasizes that relatively stable patterns of social relationships of that individual can lead to different outcomes, such as access to resources, well-being and performance. Structural determinism also implies that the behavior of an individual, part of a social network, is bounded to the opportunities and constraints of that network. On the opposite, the agency view of social behavior presumes that individuals are the ones who shape their role in the social structure when they become part of social interactions, and when they purposefully make social connections with others (Casciaro et al., 2014).

Furthermore, in the networking literature, there is an overall distinction between instrumental (also referred to as task related ties) and expressive (also referred to as personal ties) (Fombrun, 1982; Lincoln & Miller, 1979). Instrumental ties present the exchange of resources related to the job, such as information, advice, expertise, career guidance, and exposure to management (Fombrun, 1982; Lincoln & Miller, 1979; Kram, 1985). On the other hand, expressive ties provide friendship and social support. Moreover, instrumental ties can overlap with expressive ties, as peer relationships could be a source of instrumental and social support, a process called multiplexity (Ibarra, 1993).

Kilduff and Tsai (2003) present another taxonomy which presents how interactions change over time, by making a distinction between goal directed and serendipitous ties. Goal directed ties describe goal-oriented relationships between members who share a common purpose and work together on attaining it. Serendipitous ties describe spontaneous dynamic interactions between different individuals, which have no expected outcomes.

Moreover, Casciaro, Gino and Kouchaki (2014) address the need to shed more light on the reasons why individuals create and maintain ties in their networks. They designed a framework, which delineates content (personal and

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professional) and approach (spontaneous and instrumental) in order to explain differences in social interactions. Personal ties reflect symmetry; they lack direct reciprocity and encompass a belonging motive. Professional ties do not encompass symmetry and are driven by self-interest rather than altruism.

Instrumental ties, on the other hand, refer to individuals who proactively engage in networking interactions. These interactions are initiated with a specific intention of receiving something. Spontaneous ties refer to networking interactions, which are initiated by people who have no specific intention before initiating them. These types of ties are more contingent to situations, as a result of the interactions with other people, and/or as a result of the initiative other people may take (Casciaro et al., 2014).

Furthermore, developing and nurturing social ties facilitates networking behaviors, which can provide a variety of signals to the individual's moral self-perception. Self-perception theory underlines that individuals' actions can have an impact on how they draw conclusions about their own character (Bem, 1982; Prelec & Bonder, 2003). Generally, individuals choose those behaviors that can reflect positively on them. Morality is one primary dimension upon which individuals make evaluations about themselves and others (Cuddy, Fiske & Glick, 2008).

Consequently, networking behaviors can lead to negative self-attributions when behaviors are hard to justify to oneself, induce guilt, and the "feeling of dirtiness". On the other hand, helping other people is not enough to label the moral worth of an action, as the action needs to be driven by altruism, rather than selfishness to be morally pure. Helping others can induce "clean feelings" (Casciaro et al., 2014; Blum 1980; Singer, 1995; Williams, 1973).

The likelihood and frequency of engaging in different professional networking is bounded to gender, race, authority, education, socioeconomic background, as well as personality traits. For example, Forret and Dougherty (2001) argued that gender, socioeconomic background, extroversion, and attitudes towards workplace were correlated with professional networking of managers, such as maintaining contacts, socializing, engaging in professional activities, participating in community, and increasing internal visibility.

In line with the theories presented above, Wolff and Moser (2006) developed a networking scale that assesses professional networking, by presenting the individuals' network on two levels. The first is a structural facet that

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differentiates the contacts inside and outside of the individual's organization, called internal and external networking. External contacts refer to individuals' outside-work friends, clients, suppliers, members of professional associations, and people in the individual's local community. Internal contacts, on the other hand, refer to members of an individual's organization, such as superiors, managers, peers and staff members. The other functional facet presents three stages of relationship development, labeled building, maintaining and using contacts.

In a longitudinal research design, Wolff and Moser (2009) further explore the effects of professional networking on career success. The results reveal that professional networking is correlated to concurrent salary level. The results of the study also indicate that internal networking appears to have a higher importance for career satisfaction, than external networking. All the six scales were salient in predicting concurrent salary, while only maintaining internal contacts played an important role in predicting growth of salary. This can be explained in two reverse ways: employees with higher salaries can be expected to network as a result of their job requirements, or that employees have to conduct some specific networking behaviors in order to complete their job.

Moreover, Wolff and Kim (2012) examined the relationship between professional networking and personality (five-factor model). The results showed that extraversion had a positive relationship with networking, specifically more closely related to building contacts than to maintaining and using contacts. The researchers outline that extraversion is characteristic for individuals that actively seek social attention. This disposition inclines individuals to engage in interactions at work. In addition, building contacts might also satisfy extraverted individuals' request for social attention. However, they may not necessarily focus on the instrumental aspects of maintaining and using contacts.

The researchers also found that agreeableness was positively related to internal networking (maintaining and using internal contacts) and negatively related to external networking. In addition, agreeable individuals have smaller and less diverse networks, as being agreeable might act as a hinder in the connection between professional networking and social capital variables (Wolff & Kim, 2012). Wolff and Kim (2012) also found that openness to experience was broadly related to professional networking.

Openness to experience was stronger associated with maintaining than with using contacts. Wolff and Kim (2012) suggest that this might reflect

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individuals' preference for general and novel information, instead of searching for information when they need it. Openness to experience also reflects an individual's interest in other people's tasks, news, and ideas. This contributes to the individuals' own development of occupational knowledge beyond their task related competency, which is in line with previous literature on networking (e.g. Baker, Grewal & Parasuraman, 1994). Lastly, the traits conscientiousness and emotional stability were not found to be associated with professional networking (Wolff & Kim, 2012).

McCallum, Forret and Wolff (2014) have done another study and tested the relationship between internal and external networking behaviors of professionals and their affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment addresses the emotional involvement employees feel toward the organization they work for. Continuance commitment occurs when a person weighs the benefits associated with staying in the organization towards the costs of leaving it. The normative commitment represents the employees' perceived sense of duty to be involved in activities that will benefit the organizational goal (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The results showed that when individuals network internally, they positively related to both normative and affective commitment. Individuals who network externally (outside their organization) had a significant negative relationship with normative commitment and were not related to affective commitment. Both individuals who network internally and externally were not related to continuance commitment.

In summary, according to social scientists, individuals differ significantly in their preferences for reciprocity as they have mixed desires of giving and taking. Accordingly, when individuals predominantly use one behavior, this might affect their productivity, which affects their success. Consequently, the more generous the behavior is, the more respect and status individuals earn from their colleagues. By doing so, individuals display their unique skills, prove their value, and show good intentions. Contrary, the more narcissistic the behavior is, the less respect and status individuals earn from their colleagues. By doing so, individuals jeopardize relations by constantly asking for favors, but rarely reciprocating which hinders their success (Grant, 2013).

On the other hand, literature on professional networking highlights that different types of social interactions, such as informally discussing business

matters, attending conferences, or staying in touch with former colleagues are essential to performance ratings and career success. More specifically, professional networking might facilitate work-related activities by providing individuals with access to resources, while maximizing common advantages (Wolff & Moser, 2006; Wolf & Moser, 2009).

Based on the above reasoning, we would like to further contribute to the existing literature regarding reciprocal behavior and professional networking, and test the following hypotheses:

*Hypothesis 1: Giving behavior is positively associated with professional networking.*

*Hypothesis 1a: Giving behavior is positively associated with building internal contact.*

*Hypothesis 1b: Giving behavior is positively associated with maintaining internal contact.*

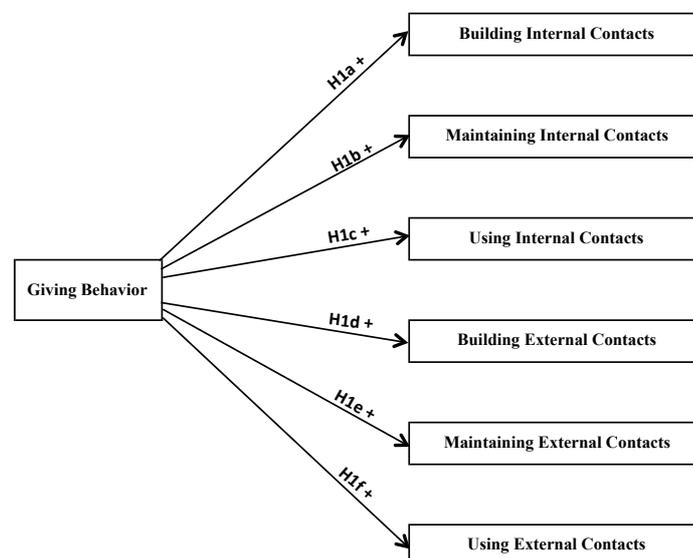
*Hypothesis 1c: Giving behavior is positively associated with using internal contact.*

*Hypothesis 1d: Giving behavior is positively associated with building external contacts.*

*Hypothesis 1e: Giving behavior is positively associated with maintaining external contacts.*

*Hypothesis 1f: Giving behavior is positively associated with using external contacts.*

**Figure 1.** Summary of hypotheses 1 a-f.



*Hypothesis 2: Taking behavior is negatively associated with professional networking.*

*Hypothesis 2a: Taking behavior is negatively associated with building internal contact.*

*Hypothesis 2b: Taking behavior is negatively associated with maintaining internal contact.*

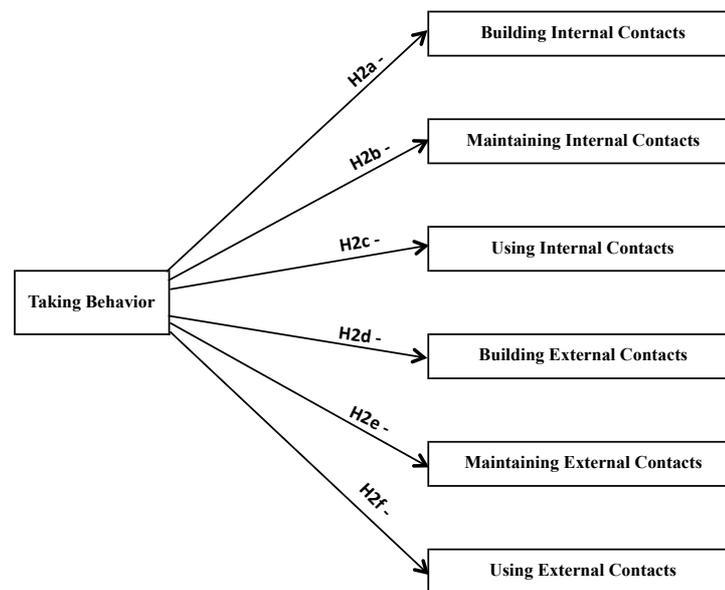
*Hypothesis 2c: Taking behavior is negatively associated with using internal contact.*

*Hypothesis 2d: Taking behavior is negatively associated with building external contacts.*

*Hypothesis 2e: Taking behavior is negatively associated with maintaining external contacts.*

*Hypothesis 2f: Taking behavior is negatively associated with using external contacts.*

**Figure 2.** Summary of hypotheses 2 a-f.



### **Task interdependence**

Interdependence in an organizational unit is analyzed by the extent to which employees are dependent upon each other to perform their own job. The greater the degree of task-related collaboration of shared tasks among employees, the greater the interdependence will be (Mohr, 1971; Thompson, 1967).

Interdependence between employees fosters teamwork (Cartwright & Zander, 1968; Shea & Guzzo, 1987). Interdependence takes place as a result of a

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variety of factors, such as: specific tasks and technology, uncertainty of the tasks and the environment, role variation, setting goals, distribution of resources and skills (Tjosvold, 1986; Wageman, 1995).

Furthermore, task interdependence refers to the extent in which individuals in a group must exchange information and resources and cooperate together in order to complete their work (Brass, 1985; Kiggundu, 1983; Thompson, 1967). Task interdependence usually increases as the work becomes more difficult or when the individuals demand more assistance from co-workers to perform their work. Task interdependence is either analyzed on a group (e.g. Jehn, 1995; Mohr, 1971; Slocum & Sims, 1980) or individual level (e.g. Brass, 1985; Kiggundu, 1983; Pearce & Gregersen, 1991).

At the group level, interdependence is reflected in the overall characteristics of the team. This means that the individuals in that specific team are assumed to react in a unified way to task interdependence conditions. On the other hand, when task interdependence is studied at individual level, it is characterized by the individual's job characteristics, and is not affected by the primary group or organizational factors (Van der Vegt, Emans & Vliert, 2000).

Research on task interdependence has found that it is positively related to team satisfaction and team commitment, rather than job satisfaction and job commitment of the individuals in a team (Van der Vegt, Emans & Vliert, 1998). Van der Vegt et al. (1998) also found that task interdependence is positively related to feelings of responsibility of colleagues' work instead of the individual's own work. The positive correlation between task interdependence, team satisfaction and team commitment emphasize that task interdependence contributes to satisfying the needs of the individuals who are part of the team (Van Der Vegt et al., 2000).

Furthermore, Casciaro and Lobo (2015) highlights that task interdependence could be one of the biggest sources of positive energy in professional relationships. Researchers refer to task ties as dyadic patterns of task interaction between organization members, which are driven by both instrumental motives and affective motives (e.g. Slater 1955, Brass 1984, Krackhardt 1999, Hinds et al. 2000). Instrumental motives relate to the achievement of task goals, while affective motives explains the emotional rewards of social relationships. Thus, social interactions are the result of instrumental and affective content (Homans 1950; Lindenberg, 1997).

At the same time, there is little research on the role of affective and instrumental value perceived by individuals and how this influence the way they interact with others, while working on assigned tasks. From a different perspective, we would like to explore whether task interdependence strengthens the relations between giving and taking behaviors and professional networking. In this sense, we suggest that task interdependence will stimulate individuals to use more frequently giving and taking behaviors, while networking internally and externally. Based on Casciaro and Lobo (2005, 2008, 2015) findings, we would like to test the following hypotheses:

*Hypothesis 3: Task interdependence strengthens the relationship between giving and taking behaviors and professional networking.*

*Hypothesis 3a: Task interdependence strengthens the relationship between giving and taking behaviors and building internal contacts.*

*Hypothesis 3b: Task interdependence strengthens the relationship between giving and taking behaviors and maintaining internal contacts.*

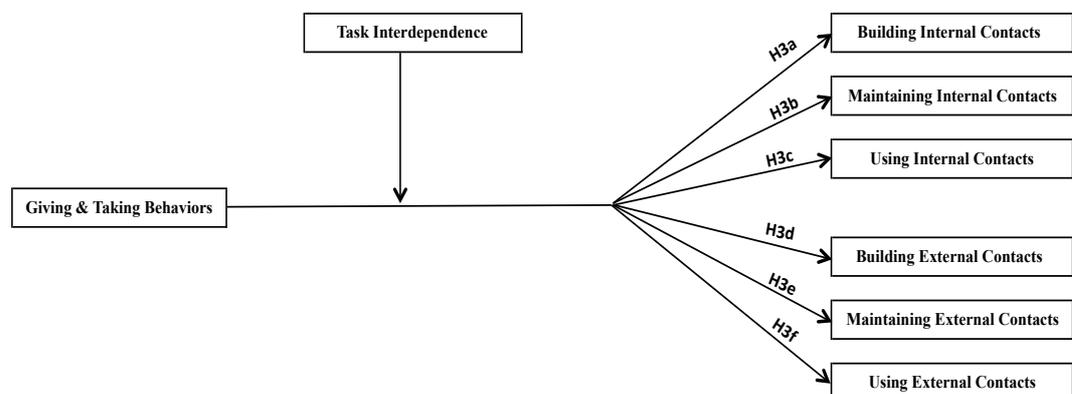
*Hypothesis 3c: Task interdependence strengthens the relationship between giving and taking behaviors and using internal contacts.*

*Hypothesis 3d: Task interdependence strengthens the relationship between giving and taking behaviors and building external contacts.*

*Hypothesis 3e: Task interdependence strengthens the relationship between giving and taking behaviors and maintaining external contacts.*

*Hypothesis 3f: Task interdependence strengthens the relationship between giving and taking behaviors and using external contacts.*

**Figure 3.** Summary of hypothesis 3 a-f.



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## Method

### Procedure and Participants

Our study's design, procedure, informed consent, and surveys were sent and approved by Norwegian Social Science Data Service (NSD). We collected the data during April, May, June 2016, via an electronic research platform, Qualtrics, and used a cross-lagged research design. The time lag between the two surveys varied between ten and twenty days. After we gathered participants' responses to the first survey, we used the "panel" function in Qualtrics to send the second survey. In this way we matched the responses corresponding to both surveys.

We used two strategies when collecting the data, advertising the survey in three organizations, and inviting participants to take part in it via professional network, LinkedIn and via our personal network. The time lag of ten to twenty days between the surveys aimed at reducing problems related to common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Klinger, 2013).

Some of the statements in the two surveys might have been perceived as sensitive information (e.g. "When I need answers to sensitive questions I turn to reliable colleagues to find out more about the matter."), which could have influenced the respondents to answer in a socially desirable way (Ganster, Hennessey & Luthans, 1983). To reduce such bias, we included an informed consent in the opening page of the first survey (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The informed consent presented info on what the survey was about, the purpose of our study, the approximate time needed to fill in the surveys, confidentiality, and the option of withdrawal. Both surveys also underlined that none of the answers were more right than others and encouraged the respondents to answer truthfully when choosing the option that best fitted their beliefs.

The first survey measured the final score each participant got for choosing giving behavior (total sum of giving choices), taking behavior (total sum of taking choices), and matching behavior (total sum of matching choices). The survey was sent out in English (the original language), and included one control variable "number of working hours per week" (full time or part time). The first survey was sent out to approximately 4000 people and we received 703 answers. From the 703 answers on survey one, we received 385 responses on survey two, which gave a response rate of 54.8%.

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In the second survey, we measured participants' tendencies in using, building, and maintaining contacts inside and outside their organization. The second survey included the control variables: years of experience, gender, country of origin, industry they work in, and age. Our total sample included 52.5% women and 47.5% men. 32.5% of the respondents were between 18-28 years old, 32.5% between 29-39 years old, 31.5% between 40-58 years old, and 3.6% were between 59 or older. 93.2% of the total respondents worked more than 30 hours per week and 6.8% worked less than 30 hours per week. 21.8% of the respondents had 0-3 years of work experience, 20.1% had 4-6 years, 10.4% had 7-9 years, and 47.2% had 10 or more years of work experience.

The industries represented were: 41.5% from business, 14% from administration, 14% from engineering and IT, 9.3% from sales and marketing, 5.1% from education and science, 4.8% from healthcare, 2.9% from art, design, media and entertainment, 1.8% represented respondents working with law, and 6.9% from other industries.

When it comes to country of origin, 53.3% respondents were from Norway, 22.3% from Romania, and 1.6% from Sweden, UK, U.S., and India, respectively. The rest of 16.5% represented a group called "others", where each of the countries in this group is represented with less than 1.6%. This group consists of the following countries: Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Denmark, Egypt, Estonia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Lithuania, Latvia, Malaysia, Netherlands, Pakistan, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Serbia, South Korea, Turkey, Ukraine.

## Measurement

**Independent variables: Giving, matching, and taking behaviors.** The Give and Take test is available on Adam Grant's website ([www.adamgrant.net](http://www.adamgrant.net)) and consists of 15 scenarios. In eleven scenarios, respondents have to choose how they would behave in organizational contexts (e.g., distribute tasks, share information). Three scenarios judge the behavior of an interaction partner (e.g., genuinely prosocial vs. strategic reputation building). One scenario is an outcome distribution between the respondent and a stranger. Participants have to choose one out of three answer options, reflecting what they will most likely do in the

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particular situation. The selected answer represents the participant's tendency giving, matching, and taking behavior.

**Dependent variables: Professional networking.** The professional networking measure used is a shortened version of Wolff and Moser (2006) 44-item scale, with a total of 18-items. The items were written originally in German and were translated to English by Wolff, Schneider-Rahm, and Forret (2011). The measure is multidimensional and it is based upon two theoretically derived facets: a structural facet of internal versus external networking, and a functional facet of building, maintaining, using contacts.

Crossing these facets leads to six scales: Building Internal Contacts (3 items, e.g., "I use company events to make new contacts"); Maintaining Internal Contacts (3 items, e.g., "I catch up with colleagues from other departments about what they are working on"); Using Internal Contacts (3 items, e.g., "I use my contacts with colleagues in other departments in order to get confidential advice in business matters"); Building External Contacts (3 items, e.g., "I accept invitations to official functions or festivities out of professional interest"); Maintaining External Contacts (3 items, e.g., "I ask others to give my regards to business acquaintances outside of our company"); and Using External Contacts (3 items, e.g., "I exchange professional tips and hints with acquaintances from other organizations"). All items were answered on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never/very seldom) to 4 (very often/ always).

**Moderation variable - Task interdependence.** The measurement used is created by Van der Vegt, Emans, and Van de Vliert (2000). Participants were given six statements and were asked to rate to which degree they agree or disagree with the statement. The statements included "I have to obtain information and advice from my colleagues to complete my work", "I depend on my colleagues for the completion of my work", "I have a one-person job", "I rarely have to check or work with others", "I have to work closely with my colleagues to do my work properly", and "In order to complete their work, my colleagues have to obtain information and advice from me". The statements were answered by a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

**Control variables.** Several additional variables were included in the study to control for factors that might confound the relationship between giving, matching, taking and professional networking. In survey one, we assessed the control variable of how many hours per week the respondents worked on average

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(1 - less than 30 hours, 2 - more than 30 hours). In survey two, we controlled for creative job requirements, a measure created by Shalley, Gilson, and Blum (2000).

Participants were asked to rate to which degree they agree or disagree with the following statement: “my job requires me to be creative” in a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Survey two also controlled for occupational field (1 - administration, 2 - business, 3 - art/design and media, 4 - education and science, 5 - engineering and IT, 6 - healthcare, 7 - law, 8 - sales and marketing, 9 - others). We also included a human capital variable - work experience (0-3, 4-6, 7-9, 10 or more years) and three demographic variables: gender (1 - female, 2 - male), age (18-28, 29-39, 40-58, 59 and over), and country of origin.

### **Analysis**

Our hypotheses reflect the relationship between two sets of variables, a set of three independent variables (giving, matching, taking behaviors), and a set of six dependent variables (building internal contacts, maintaining internal contacts, building external contacts, maintaining external contacts, using external contacts). In addition, we tested the moderation effect of a third variable, task interdependence. Once that data was plotted into IBM SPSS Statistics v.22, we began our analysis by computing latent variables for the moderator (task interdependence) and dependent variables (professional networking subscales).

In order to test our hypotheses we used three strategies (Pallant, 2016). Firstly, we performed descriptive statistics by calculating the means, standard deviations and correlations for all three variables. By doing this, we looked into the pattern of the correlation between the structural coefficients to examine if values were in line with our hypotheses. Significant correlations indicated that relationships exist and should be taken into consideration.

Secondly, we performed a linear regression analysis with those correlations that were significant in order to see how much of the variance in the dependent variables (networking subscales) is explained by the independent variables (reciprocal behaviors). Thirdly, in order to test the moderation effect of task interdependence, we performed a hierarchical linear regression analysis for all the six networking subscales. When performing the analysis, we took into consideration the moderated regression procedures suggested by Aiken and West (1991). By doing this, we entered the control variables, age, gender, years of

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experience and creative job requirements in step one, giving and taking behavior in step two, and task interdependence in step three.

## Results

### Descriptive statistics, validity, and reliability

Table 1 provides means, standard deviations, and correlations for the dependent variables, control variables, moderator and independent variables. Before correlating the variables, we modeled each construct of the professional networking as a latent variable, with a single indicator, and thus we obtained six variables (building internal contacts, maintaining internal contacts, using internal contacts, building external contacts, maintaining external contacts, using external contacts).

The six networking subscales were positively correlated with a variation between .28\*\* (maintaining internal contacts and maintaining external contacts) and .70\*\* (building external contacts and maintaining external contacts). Internal consistency reliability for scale with the sample is acceptable ( $> .70$ , Nunnally, 1978) in all, but building internal contacts ( $\alpha = .62$ ) and using internal contacts ( $\alpha = .67$ ). Overall, the networking scale had a good internal consistency ( $\alpha = .89$ ).

When computing the independent variables, we took into consideration the final scores corresponding to the three choices, reflecting a type of behavior, giving, matching and taking which were included in all the 15 scenarios. In this way, participants received a final score for giving behavior (total sum of giving choices), a final score for taking behavior (total sum of taking choices), a final score for matching behavior (total sum of matching choices). As the Give and Take measure has 15 scenarios, at the end, the total score each participant got was 15.

All the three reciprocal behaviors correlate negatively. There are medium negative correlations between giving and matching behavior ( $-.62^{**}$ ); giving and taking behavior ( $-.52^{**}$ ), and between taking and matching behavior ( $-.35^{**}$ ). This is aligned with Utz's et al. (2014) findings, implying that behaviors who score high on a certain subscale, are less likely to identify with the other two subscales.

Table 1  
*Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations*

Variables	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age	2.06	0.88	-													
2. Gender	1.52	0.50	-.29**	-												
3. Years of Experience	2.83	1.24	.82**	-.22**	-											
4. Creative Job Requirements	3.85	0.90	.22**	-0.08	.23**	-										
5. Task Interdependence	3.82	0.74	0.08	-0.02	0.05	.13**	(.80)									
6. Building Internal Contacts	2.68	0.65	.11*	-0.08	.15**	.16**	.16**	(.62)								
7. Maintaining Internal Contacts	2.58	0.65	0.03	0.03	0.08	.12*	.20**	.52**	(.71)							
8. Using Internal Contacts	2.67	0.64	-0.07	0.01	-0.05	0.04	.11*	.46**	.61**	(.67)						
9. Building External Contacts	2.31	0.70	0.00	-0.06	0.06	.20**	0.06	.50**	.33**	.42**	(.70)					
10. Maintaining External Contacts	1.93	0.69	-0.09	-0.07	-0.04	.17**	0.04	.48**	.28**	.35**	.70**	(.78)				
11. Using External Contacts	2.09	0.64	0.01	-0.08	0.04	0.09	0.08	.38**	.30**	.42**	.63**	.60**	(.75)			
12. Giving Behavior	5.61	2.36	-0.03	-0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.02	.10*	.10*	0.04	0.05	0.08	.12*	-		
13. Matching Behavior	5.66	2.14	-.16**	.17**	-.14**	-0.01	-0.01	-0.03	0.00	0.03	0.06	-0.07	-0.02	-.62**	-	
14. Taking Behavior	3.73	1.97	.21**	-.18**	.16**	0.01	-0.02	-0.09	-.13*	-0.081	-.12*	-0.027	-.12*	-.52**	-.35**	-

Note. N= 385. Coefficients alphas indicating scale reliabilities and are displayed on the diagonal in parenthesis.

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

## Hypotheses testing

To test hypotheses 1a-f and 2a-f, we first calculated Pearson correlations. Matching behavior scores did not correlate to any of the professional networking behaviors. As expected, the results for matching behaviors are in line with the results from Utz et al. (2014) who did not find any statistical significant correlations between matching behaviors and other variables, such as SVO, reciprocity and self vs. other oriented. The results from our study did not display any significant correlation between matching behavior and facets of professional networking.

Furthermore, giving behavior correlates positively with building internal contacts (.10\*), maintaining internal contacts (.10\*) and using external contacts (.12\*). In the next step, we did a linear regression in order to see how much variance in the professional networking can be explained by giving behavior. The results of the linear regressions were statistically significant for three facets of professional networking (Table 2), but not satisfactory ( $R^2$  values equal to .01).

Table 2

*Regression with giving behavior analysis predicting professional networking.*

Dependent Variables	<i>b</i>	<i>s.e.</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	$R^2$	<i>F (df)</i>
Building Internal Contacts	.03*	0.01	0.10	1.96*	0.01	3.94* (1, 383)
Maintaining Internal Contacts	.03*	0.01	0.10	2.03*	0.01	4.13* (1,383)
Using Internal Contacts	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.7	0.001	0.50 (1, 383)
Building External Contacts	0.02	0.02	0.05	0.1	0.003	0.99 (1, 383)
Maintaining External Contacts	0.03	0.02	0.08	1.66	0.01	2.75 (1, 383)
Using External Contacts	.03*	0.01	0.12	2.26*	0.01	5.01* (1, 383)

*Note.* N = 385. \*p < .05

In conclusion, giving behavior is positively associated with three facets of professional networking: building internal contacts, maintaining internal contacts and using external contacts. Consequently, hypothesis 1 is partially supported. More specifically, hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1f are supported, while hypotheses 1c, 1d, and 1e are rejected (Figure 4).

**Figure 4.** Results demonstrating H1 a-f.

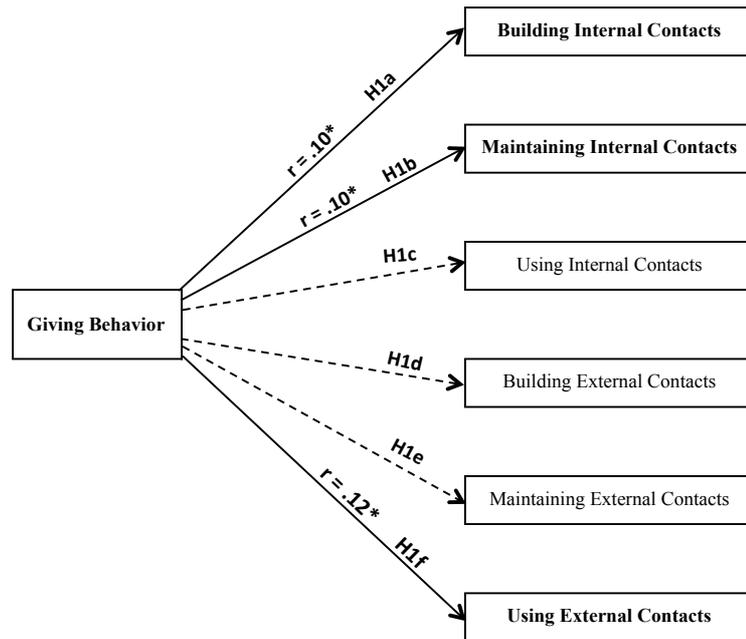


Figure 4. Straight line indicates supported hypothesis. Dotted line indicates rejected hypothesis

Taking behavior correlates negatively with maintaining internal contacts (-.13\*), as well as with building and using external contacts (-.12\*; -.12\*). Similar to hypotheses 1a-f, we conducted a linear regression in order to see how much variance in professional networking can be explained by taking behavior. The results of the linear regressions were statistically significant for three facets of networking behavior (Table 3), but not satisfactory ( $R^2$  values between .01 and .02).

Table 3

*Regression analysis with taking behavior predicting professional networking*

Dependent Variables	<i>b</i>	<i>s.e.</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	$R^2$	<i>F</i> ( <i>df</i> )
Building Internal Contacts	-.03	0.02	-.09	-1.81	0.01	3.30 (1, 383)
Maintaining Internal Contacts	-.04*	0.02	-0.13	-2.50*	0.02	6.23* (1, 383)
Using Internal Contacts	-.03	0.02	-.08	-1.60	0.01	2.52 (1, 383)
Building External Contacts	-.04*	0.02	-.12	-2.45*	0.02	6.01* (1, 383)
Maintaining External Contacts	-.01	0.02	-.03	-.53	0.001	.276 (1, 383)
Using External Contacts	-.04*	0.02	-.12	-2.32*	0.01	5.40* (1, 383)

Note. N = 385. \*p < .05

In conclusion, taking behavior is negatively associated with three facets of professional networking behaviors: maintaining internal contacts, building external contacts, and using external contacts. Consequently, hypothesis 2 is partially supported. More specifically, hypotheses 2b, 2d, and 2f are supported, while hypotheses 2a, 2c, and 2e are rejected (Figure 5).

**Figure 5.** Results demonstrating H2 a-f.

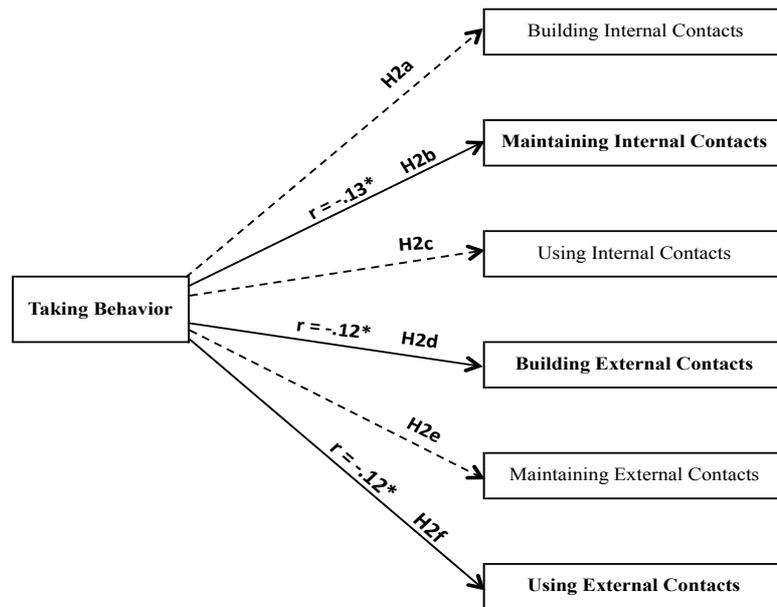


Figure 5. Straight line indicates supported hypothesis. Dotted line indicates rejected hypothesis

Hierarchical multiple regressions were used to assess hypothesis 3 a-f, by performing a three-step analysis. At step one, we estimated the regression having the control variables age, gender, years of experience and creative job requirements as independent variables. The model explains the variance of the dependent variables (building internal contacts, maintaining internal contacts, using internal contacts, building external contacts, maintaining external contacts, using external contacts) in a proportion  $R^2$  between 1% (using internal contacts) and 5% (building external contacts, maintaining external contacts).

At step two, we introduced the values of giving and taking behaviors, resulting in an improvement of predictability,  $\Delta R^2$  values between 0.4% (maintaining external contacts) and 2% (building internal contacts). All the models were statistically significant, except the model predicting using internal contacts.

At step three, we entered task interdependence and the models were overall improved,  $\Delta R^2$  values between 1% (using internal contacts and using external contacts) and 3% (maintaining internal contacts). All the third models were statistically significant, except the model predicting using internal contacts. However, not all the coefficients of the independent variables were statistically significant (Table 4.1-4.6).

The models from step three, which include task interdependence as moderation variable, explain the best relation between the independent variables and dependent variables ( $R^2$  values between 3% and 8%). Task interdependence strengthens the relation between giving and taking behaviors and the five facets of networking behavior (building internal contacts, maintaining internal contacts, building external contacts, maintaining external contacts, using external contacts). Consequently, we conclude that hypothesis 3 is partially supported. More specifically, hypotheses 3a, 3b, 3d, 3e, 3f are supported, while hypothesis 3c is rejected (Figure 6).

Table 4.1

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Building Internal Contacts*

Variables	Step 1				Step 2				Step 3			
	<i>b</i>	s.e.	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	s.e.	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	s.e.	$\beta$	<i>t</i>
Age	-0.06	0.07	-0.09	-0.95	-0.05	0.07	-0.61	-0.69	-0.06	0.07	-0.08	-0.87
Gender	-0.08	0.07	-0.06	-1.10	-0.09	0.07	-0.07	-1.30	-0.09	0.07	-0.07	-1.31
Years of Experience	0.09	0.05	0.18	2.00*	0.09	0.05	0.17	1.94*	0.09	0.05	0.18	2.07*
Creative Job Requierments	0.09	0.04	0.13	2.53*	0.09	0.04	0.13	2.47*	0.08	0.04	0.11	2.15*
Giving Behavior					0.01	0.02	0.05	0.86	0.01	0.02	0.05	0.84
Taking Behavior					-0.03	0.02	-0.09	-1.52	-0.03	0.02	-0.09	-1.48
Task Interdependence									<b>0.12</b>	<b>0.04</b>	<b>0.14</b>	<b>2.75*</b>
$R^2$			0.04				0.06				0.08	
$\Delta R^2$			0.04				0.02				0.02	
$R^2$ adj.			0.03				0.04				0.06	
<i>F</i> ( <i>df</i> )			4.22* (4, 380)				3.89* (6, 378)				4.47* (7, 377)	

Note. N=385. \*p < .05. Values in bold are relevant to test hypotheses

Table 4.2

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Maintaining Internal Contacts*

Variables	Step 1				Step 2				Step 3			
	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t
Age	-0.08	0.07	-0.11	-1.18	-0.06	0.07	-0.08	-0.89	-0.08	0.07	-0.10	-1.15
Gender	0.05	0.07	0.04	0.72	0.03	0.07	0.03	0.49	0.03	0.07	0.03	0.49
Years of Experience	0.08	0.05	0.15	1.73	0.08	0.05	0.15	1.68	0.09	0.05	0.16	1.84
Creative Job Requirments	0.79	0.04	0.11	2.08*	0.08	0.04	0.10	2.01*	0.06	0.04	0.08	1.59
Giving Behavior					0.01	0.02	0.05	0.79	0.01	0.02	0.05	0.76
Taking Behavior					-0.04	0.02	-0.11	-1.71	-0.03	0.02	-0.10	-1.66
Task Interdependence									<b>0.16</b>	<b>0.04</b>	<b>0.18</b>	<b>3.66*</b>
R <sup>2</sup>			0.02				0.04				0.07	
$\Delta R^2$			0.02				0.02				0.03	
R <sup>2</sup> adj.			0.01				0.03				0.06	
F (df)			2.24 (4, 380)				2.67* (6, 378)				4.28* (7, 377)	

Note. N=385. \*p < .05. Values in bold are relevant to test hypotheses

Table 4.3

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Using Internal Contacts*

Variables	Step 1				Step 2				Step 3			
	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t
Age	-0.09	0.07	-0.12	-1.29	-0.08	0.07	-0.10	-1.13	-0.09	0.07	-0.12	-1.28
Gender	-0.01	0.07	-0.01	-0.16	-0.02	0.07	-0.02	-0.32	-0.02	0.07	-0.02	-0.32
Years of Experience	0.02	0.05	0.04	0.40	0.02	0.05	0.03	0.38	0.02	0.05	0.04	0.47
Creative Job Requirments	0.04	0.04	0.05	1.03	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.98	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.72
Giving Behavior					0.00	0.02	0.00	-0.59	0.00	0.02	-0.01	-0.08
Taking Behavior					-0.02	0.02	-0.07	-1.12	-0.02	0.02	-0.07	-1.08
Task Interdependence									<b>0.10</b>	<b>0.04</b>	<b>0.11</b>	<b>2.18*</b>
R <sup>2</sup>			0.01				0.01				0.03	
$\Delta R^2$			0.01				0.00				0.01	
R <sup>2</sup> adj.			0.00				0.00				0.01	
F (df)			0.85 (4, 380)				0.85 (6, 378)				1.41 (7, 377)	

Note. N=385. \*p < .05. Values in bold are relevant to test hypotheses

Table 4.4

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Building External Contacts*

Variables	Step 1				Step 2				Step 3			
	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t
Age	-0.15	0.07	-0.19	-2.15*	-0.13	0.07	-0.16	-0.69	-0.13	0.07	-0.17	-1.87
Gender	-0.08	0.07	-0.06	-1.16	-0.11	0.07	-0.08	-1.30	-0.11	0.07	-0.08	-1.51
Years of Experience	0.09	0.05	0.16	1.77	0.09	0.05	0.15	1.94*	0.09	0.05	0.16	1.77
Creative Job Requirments	0.16	0.04	0.20	3.92*	0.15	0.04	0.20	2.47*	0.15	0.04	0.19	3.72*
Giving Behavior					-0.01	0.02	-0.03	0.86	-0.01	0.02	-0.03	-0.51
Taking Behavior					-0.05	0.02	-0.15	-2.4*	-0.05	0.02	-0.15	-2.38*
Task Interdependence									<b>0.03</b>	<b>0.05</b>	<b>0.04</b>	<b>0.69</b>
R <sup>2</sup>			0.05				0.07				0.07	
$\Delta R^2$			0.05				0.02				0.01	
R <sup>2</sup> adj.			0.04				0.05				0.05	
F (df)			5.29* (4, 380)				4.67* (6, 378)				4.01* (7, 377)	

Note. N=385. \*p < .05. Values in bold are relevant to test hypotheses

Table 4.5

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Maintaining External Contacts*

Variables	Step 1				Step 2				Step 3			
	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t
Age	-0.17	0.07	-0.23	-2.51*	-0.17	0.07	-0.22	-2.50	-0.18	0.07	-0.23	-2.53*
Gender	-0.14	0.07	-0.10	-1.89	-0.13	0.07	-0.09	-1.74	-0.13	0.07	-0.09	-1.74
Years of Experience	0.05	0.05	0.08	0.92	0.04	0.05	0.08	0.87	0.04	0.05	0.08	0.89
Creative Job Requirments	0.14	0.04	0.19	3.62*	0.14	0.04	0.19	3.70*	0.14	0.04	0.19	3.61*
Giving Behavior					0.03	0.02	0.10	1.69	0.03	0.02	0.10	1.68
Taking Behavior					0.02	0.02	0.04	0.69	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.70
Task Interdependence									<b>0.02</b>	<b>0.05</b>	<b>0.03</b>	<b>0.49</b>
R <sup>2</sup>			0.05				0.06				0.06	
$\Delta R^2$			0.05				0.01				0.00	
R <sup>2</sup> adj.			0.04				0.05				0.04	
F (df)			5.43* (4, 380)				4.11* (6, 378)				3.55* (7, 377)	

Note. N=385. \*p < .05. Values in bold are relevant to test hypotheses

Table 4.6

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Using External Contacts*

Variables	Step 1				Step 2				Step 3			
	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t
Age	-0.07	0.07	-0.10	-1.06	-0.05	0.07	-0.07	-0.77	-0.06	0.07	-0.08	-0.86
Gender	-0.12	0.07	-0.09	-1.63	-0.13	0.07	-0.10	-1.85	-0.13	0.07	-0.10	-1.85
Years of Experience	0.04	0.05	0.08	0.90	0.04	0.05	0.07	0.83	0.04	0.05	0.08	0.88
Creative Job Requirments	0.07	0.04	0.09	1.74	0.06	0.04	0.09	1.67	0.06	0.04	0.08	1.50
Giving Behavior					0.02	0.02	0.06	0.99	0.02	0.02	0.06	0.97
Taking Behavior					-0.03	0.02	-0.10	-1.66	-0.03	0.02	-0.10	-1.63
Task Interdependence									<b>0.06</b>	<b>0.04</b>	<b>0.07</b>	<b>1.36</b>
R <sup>2</sup>			0.02				0.04				0.04	
$\Delta R^2$			0.02				0.02				0.01	
R <sup>2</sup> adj.			0.01				0.02				0.02	
F (df)			1.72 (4, 380)				2.44* (6, 378)				2.36* (7, 377)	

Note. N=385. \*p < .05. Values in bold are relevant to test hypotheses

Figure 6. Results demonstrating H3 a-f.

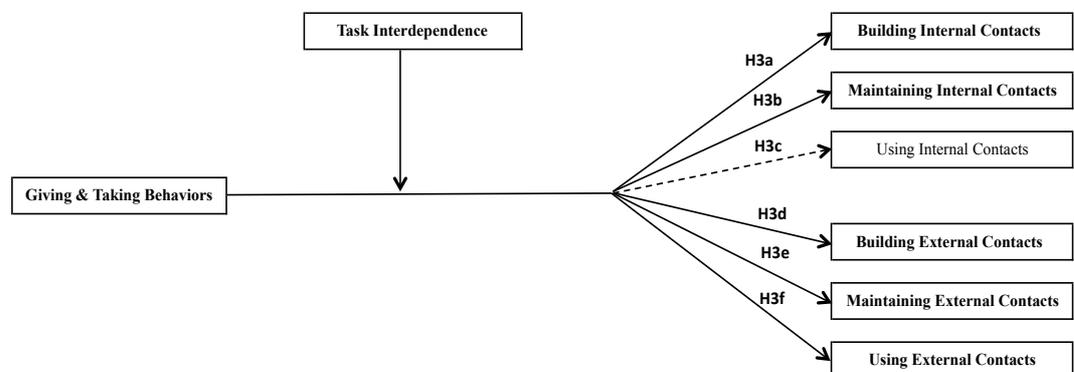


Figure 6. Straight line indicates significant relationship. Dotted line indicates not significant relationship.

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## Discussion

The present research study contributes to theory regarding social interactions in a professional context in particularly three ways. First, our results provide supported evidence for hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1f, revealing that there is a positive relationship between giving behavior and building internal contacts, maintaining internal contacts and using external contacts. No significant association between giving behavior and using internal contacts, building and maintaining external contacts was detected, rejecting hypotheses 1c, 1d and 1e.

Second, our results provided evidence for hypotheses 2b, 2d, 2f, revealing that there is a negative relationship between taking behavior and maintaining internal contacts, building external contacts and using external contacts. No significant association between taking behavior and building internal contacts, using internal contacts and maintaining external contacts was detected, rejecting hypotheses 2a, 2c and 2e.

Third, our study provides evidence for hypotheses 3a, 3b, 3d, 3e, 3f revealing that task interdependence strengthens the relationship between giving and taking behaviors and five facets of professional networking (building internal contacts, maintaining internal contacts, building external contacts, maintaining external contacts and using external contacts). No significant association between giving and taking behaviors and using internal contacts was detected, rejecting hypothesis 3c.

### Theoretical contributions

Our research aims at drawing a relationship between research models on reciprocal behaviors and professional networking in order to better understand the causes and implications of interactions, such as the individual's professional success. By focusing on behaviors, we suggested and found that there is a relationship between giving and taking behaviors and facets of professional networking (building, maintaining, using internal and external contacts).

In this way, our findings shed more light on the new model of reciprocal behaviors developed by Grant (2013). According to this model, individuals predominantly use a reciprocal behavior when they interact with others in a professional context. In line with Grant (2013) research, we provided evidence that a primary reciprocal behavior can predict how people build, maintain and use contacts.

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First, hypothesis 1a shows that giving behavior is positively associated with building internal contacts. This finding strengthens the characteristics of the behavior models in two ways. Building internal contacts reflect good social skills of the persons who act in a giver way when initiating and making new contacts inside the company (Wolff and Moser, 2009). Moreover, building contacts implies having a large network of contacts, a common characteristic for those people acting in a giving way (Grant, 2013).

Supported hypothesis 1b reveals that giving behavior is positively associated with maintaining internal contacts. In line with Grant's (2013) research, our findings provide evidence that when individuals consistently use giving behavior they build networks that have both breadth and depth. Moreover, Wolff and Moser's (2009) study shows that maintaining internal contacts is an important predictor of career success. In this way, by connecting giving behavior with maintaining internal contacts, we offer evidence that givers can be the successful individuals in the companies they are working for.

Moreover, the positive association between giving behavior and maintaining internal contacts may offer a better understanding on why individuals engage in instrumental ties. Maintaining internal contacts reflects instrumental interactions, such as exchanging information, knowledge, expertise and influence (Wolff & Kim, 2012; Grant, 2013). Even if the notion of instrumental ties might have negative connotations, Grant (2013) argues that acting as a giver represents a genuine way of fostering and strengthening a relationship. Generous behavior implies sharing time, energy, knowledge, skills and connections with colleagues who can benefit from them. In line with this, Utz et al. (2014) also found that giving behavior is positively related to information sharing.

Furthermore, we did not find support for hypotheses 1c, 1d and 1e. A possible explanation for the rejected hypothesis 1c can be that using internal contacts is highly instrumental. Thus, individuals with a giving behavior might not feel comfortable asking for help (Casciaro et al, 2014). These people might fit into the category of selfless givers, as described by Grant (2013). With regards to hypotheses 1d and 1e, the findings are not in line with Wolff and Moser's research (2010), who argue that building and maintaining external contacts are preconditions of using external contacts.

Supported hypothesis 1f shows that giving behavior is positively associated with using external contacts. This might bring evidence to Grant's

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(2013) research who highlights that the most successful givers are the ones who use their contacts. Even if using contacts is instrumental, and many individuals might not be comfortable asking for help. Thus, our results strength Grant's (2013) findings arguing that the willingness of asking for help is the major difference between givers at the top (otherish) and givers at the bottom (selfless).

Likewise, the support for hypothesis 1f strengthens the networking behavior model, which explains that the level of trust between people increases in the relationship development stages (building, maintaining, using) (Wolff & Moser, 2009). Further, our findings clarify why successful people (otherish givers) receive help when they ask for it. Grant (2013) describes otherish givers as successful individuals who focus both on themselves (high on self-interest), as well as on the well being of the others (high on others' interests).

Moreover, the positive association between giving behavior and using external contacts is in line with the research on self versus other orientation. These two concepts are independent and have orthogonal dimensions; a person can be high or low on both dimensions (De Dreu&Nauta, 2009). However, Casciaro et al. (2014) point out that people might feel dirty when initiating instrumental ties, such as using contacts. This might not be applicable for successful individuals, such as otherish givers who genuinely believe in the value of giving and receiving.

Second, our results show that taking behavior is negatively associated with maintaining internal contacts, building external contacts and using external contacts. Our findings shed more light on how individuals approach and develop connections with others. For example, rejected hypothesis 2a does not reveal any negative association between taking behavior and building internal contacts. The rejected hypothesis may further explain some implications of taking behavior. According to Grant (2013), taking behavior is a selfish behavior, and people who exhibit this behavior initiate connections only for pursuing their own interests. If there are no anticipated personal gains, takers may chose not to approach those people.

Supported hypothesis 2b shows that taking behavior is negatively correlated with maintaining internal contacts. Our findings support implications of the taking behavior. The implications are metaphorically summarized in this phrase "Individuals may rise by kissing up, but they often fail by kicking down" (Grant, 2013, p.37). This implies that once individuals figure out that their

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colleagues have a selfish behavior, they tend to end the relationship for fear of being taken advantage of.

The rejected hypothesis 2c shows that there is no negative association between taking behavior and using internal contacts can be explained in at least two possible ways. Taking behavior might be spotted, so colleagues will avoid helping individuals who exhibit this behavior. Another possible explanation could be that takers do not view their colleagues as helpful enough to ask them for favors.

Moreover, according to supported hypotheses 2d and 2e, taking behavior is negatively associated with building and maintaining external contacts. Thus, our results reveal that takers build and maintain external contacts only if they can leverage them for their own benefits. Opposed to Grant's (2013) statement that takers build large networks with influential contacts, our findings provide evidence their networks might be smaller, but with influential individuals who could be a potential source of help for them in the future.

Regarding hypothesis 2f, the fact that taking behavior is negatively associated with using external contacts might not necessarily imply that takers do not ask for favors. It might imply that taking behavior does not involve creating strong ties based on trust with external contacts. This argumentation is in line with Wolff and Moser (2009) who present the functional facet of using contacts, as the final stage in the development of a relationship based on trust.

Thirdly, when it comes to hypotheses 3a-f, our findings contribute to the literature exploring whether more interactions emerge in the already designed organizational structures, which promote collaboration. Our results show that task interdependence has a partially supported moderating effect. Supported hypotheses 3a and 3b provide evidence that task interdependence strengthens the relationship between giving and taking behaviors and building and maintaining internal contacts. Casciaro and Lobo (2008) found that positive and negative feelings about colleagues moderate the importance of task competence, as a principle for choosing colleagues as work partners. Casciaro and Lobo's (2008) research clarifies that people prefer to work with those individuals to whom they feel positive about, and dislike to work with those individuals to whom they feel negative.

Our results are in line with these findings, in the sense that task interdependence strengthens the already negative relation between taking behavior

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and professional networking, and alternatively the already positive relation between giving behavior and professional networking.

The rejected hypothesis 3c implies that there is no task interdependence moderation effect between giving and taking behaviors and using internal contacts. On one hand, givers, such as selfless givers might not feel comfortable asking for help. On the other hand, takers might feel afraid of not being perceived competent enough, and thus lose their status when asking for help.

Supported hypotheses 3d, 3e, 3f provide evidence that task interdependence strengthens the relationship between giving and taking behaviors and building, maintaining and using external contacts. These findings are in line with the research of Fiske, Cuddy, Glick and Xu (2002). The authors provide evidence that people choose their business partners based on two main criteria: competence and likeability. Casciaro and Lobo (2005) built on these findings in order to find out how much competence and likeability influence people's preferences regarding business partners. Individuals prefer to work the most with individuals that are likeable and competent and least with individuals that are incompetent and unlikeable.

In addition, we found that years of experience and creative job requirements may play significant roles in the relation between giving and taking behaviors and professional networking. The more years individuals spend in a company, the better they know their colleagues. Based on this, individuals decide if it is worth or not to develop a relationship with them. When it comes to creative job requirements, our findings are in line with Agrell and Gustafson (1994) and Mumford and Gustafson (1988), which argue that social influences, such as social labeling are important in order to stimulate an interactive process between colleagues and other team members.

### **Limitations and directions for further research**

The cross-lagged design of measuring independent and dependent variables at different time periods employed in our study may be viewed as strength in our research because it can eliminate some of the potential common method biases (Podsakoff et al., 2003). However, the present study does contain a number of potential limitations that must be taken into consideration when findings are interpreted.

Research often encounters problem of common method biases, which means an alternative explanation for the observed relationship (Siemsen, Roth, &

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Oliveira, 2010). Collecting data at two different time periods might reduce the chances of common method biases, however, we cannot be certain that common method biases have been avoided, and should be taken into consideration when interpreting findings (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Another source of common method biases is self-assessment. The critics emphasize that this type of assessment is an inaccurate method in research (Paulhus & Vazire, 2007). Both of the measurement included in this research study are based on respondents reporting their perception of how and what they will do in particular situations or on how they perceive their work. The self-assessment can lead to social desirability, which means that the respondents answer in a particular way in order to present themselves positively. Moreover, contextual factors such as participants' current mood, and environmental disturbances, such as stress could have an impact on the responses (Pennebaker, Stone, Turkkan, Bachrach, Jobe, Kurtzman, & Cain, 1999).

Furthermore, our research has not examined the causality of the relationships, whether one variable actually causes the other, and this can be viewed as a limitation. It should therefore always be counted an additional variable, which can have a potential influence (Pallant, 2016). Consequently, longitudinal or experimental studies are argued to better examine causality (Zapf, Dormann, & Frese, 1996).

Give and Take measure is a contextual measure, which can also imply other limitations, such as detailed contextual information. The answers of the participants can be partly influenced by situational norms or cultural differences rather than stable interaction styles. In our research, we noticed this in scenario 3, where less than 2% of our respondents answered the taking behavior option, suggesting that this might be something underlying social norm related to this particular scenario. Moreover, in our study, only 22.1% of the participants made 9 or more consistent choices across the 15 Give and Take scenarios.

Moreover, our study contained a shorter version of Wolff and Moser (2009) measurement scale. The measurement scale has a lower reliability for the internal facets of networking compared to the external facets (building internal:  $\alpha = .62$ , using internal  $\alpha = .67$ ), which should be considered when findings are interpreted. This means that the results in our study might not be consistent over time for the two facets.

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The first survey in our study included both Likert-scale and forced-choice measures. The second survey included only Likert-scale measures. Both of the measures are linked to potential limitations. Forced-choice format was introduced as an attempt to minimize response biases, which is found in the Likert-scales (Joubert, Inceoglu, Dowdeswell & Lin, 2015). However, a limitation with forced-choice measures is that they might produce Ipsative data, which leads to distorted scale relationships and possible problematic psychometric properties (Brown & Maydeu-Olivares, 2011; Meade, 2004)

Our research also entails some limitations with regards to the sample. The sample does not involve random selection, which means it is a non-probabilistic sample. This does not necessary mean that our sample is not representative for the population we collected data, but it does means that our sample cannot depend upon the rationale of probability theory (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Continuing, when counting the amount for the industries represented, the highest was 41.5% from business, followed by 14% from administration, 14% from engineering and IT, 9.3% from sales and marketing, 6.9% in a category called “others”. Our sample had also 205 respondents from Norway, 86 from Romania, 6 from Sweden, UK, U.S., India and 88 from other countries. Due to low numbers in multiple industries and countries, it is difficult to generalize and claim that our findings are representative for each population (Hair Jr., Black, Babin & Anderson, 2013).

In addition, the category called “others” might be a reason for not finding similarities or differences between countries (this group represented more than twenty-five countries). The sample size can be argued as large, however, an appropriate sample size depends on what the target investigation is (Pallant, 2016). When comparing the sample size to similar studies such as Utz et a. (2014) and Wolff and Moser (2009), one may argue that we should have had a larger sample size in order to better examine the relationship between the reciprocal behaviors and professional networking.

Our suggestions for further research is to perform research concerning the otherish and selfless givers, in order to spot differences in how these profiles build networks. These differences might also provide more evidence for a more clear comparison between giving, matching, and taking behavior. Currently there is no measurement instrument to identify otherish and selfless givers, and Grant (2013) identified them through interviews. This means there is a gap concerning the two givers that future quantitative researchers should seek to fill.

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The Give and Take measure can also be done in 360-way. Implying that ten people rate an individual's behavior in the 15 scenarios. This might be a more objective way of rating of individual behaviors. Additionally, other potential moderators such as, size of the company, spontaneous and instrumental motives, autonomy, work demands, or role ambiguity could be included to explore the strength of the relation between professional networking and the Give and Take measurement.

Furthermore, it could be interesting to perform a similar study with a larger sample across various sectors, occupations and cultures, in order to identify possible similarities or dissimilarities. We would also recommend doing a longitudinal and exploratory research in order to investigate the causal coherence of similar relationships.

### **Practical implications**

The findings in our research offer several practical implications. First of all, our research results confirm preliminary findings that giving and taking behaviors vary in professional settings. Consistently using a predominant behavior can have an impact on the relationship one develops, by strengthening or jeopardizing it. Our first suggestion is that individuals should adopt a "sharing is caring philosophy" and focus on building networks, which have both depth and strength. By doing this, they will have the possibility to share new ideas, tangible resources and exchange knowledge in order to benefit the others and create value in their networks.

Moreover, by exploring common interests with other people, individuals can fully tap into finding ways how they can create valuable outcomes both for themselves and for the others. By adopting this type of successful giving behavior, they will maintain relations with colleagues. The importance of our suggestion is expanded in the existing literature on career success. For instance, according to Wolff and Moser (2009), maintaining internal contacts represents an important predictor of job satisfaction and salary growth.

Furthermore, developing giving behavior can encourage others to do the same. This might eliminate the burden of competition, which exists in some organizations. By drawing a relation between giving behavior and professional networking, we add to the literature highlighting the importance of fostering cooperative relations for attainment of mutually beneficial outcomes, as opposed to following one's own self-interests (Baker, 2000). From an organizational

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perspective, the willingness of employees to help each other represents a stepping-stone of effective collaboration, quality improvement, and service excellence (Grant, 2013).

In addition, our findings provide evidence that taking behavior negatively affects the relationships individuals create with their colleagues and with external parties. Even if predominantly adopting a taking behavior might help individuals get faster promotions, on the long term, this type of behavior will have negative consequences on the individuals who are using it (Grant, 2013). For example, our findings show that acting as a taker will hinder the cooperation with other colleagues. At the same time, our study further adds to previous research, which shows that taking behavior will hinder the reputation of an individual on the long term.

Based on our findings that giving behavior contributes to more building, maintaining internal contacts, we suggest to managers to foster internal networking within their organizations by promoting a giving culture. Studies reflect that higher rates of giving are predictors of increased unit profitability, productivity, efficiency, customer satisfaction, lower costs and turnover rates. A practical tool of promoting giving behavior is the so called “reciprocity ring” exercise where each employees can make requests and help each other fulfill them by using their knowledge, resources and connections (Grant, 2013).

In conclusion, the main take away for practitioners is that the “sharing is caring philosophy” is not only beneficial for the individuals, but for the organizations too. Generous networking behavior can foster good relationships among the employees, which have positive implications for the organizations. At the same time, the proven relation between reciprocal behaviors and professional networking highlights the fact that the success of individuals is bounded to how they approach interactions with others.

### **Conclusion**

Our study contributes to the literature of the newly developed reciprocal behaviors and their relationship to structural and functional differences of professional networking (building, using, maintaining contacts inside and outside the organization). The findings show that both giving and taking behaviors are related to professional networking. More specifically, we tested and found that giving behavior is positively correlated with building, maintaining internal

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contacts, and using external contacts. Taking behavior is negatively correlated with maintaining internal contacts and to building and using external contacts.

Secondly, we found that task interdependence strengthens the relationship between giving and taking behaviors and five facets of professional networking. In this way, our study can be seen as a contribution to social behavior and networking literature, as it illuminates the importance of why and how individuals interact with each other, as a determinant of their success. To sum up, we conclude that a “sharing is caring philosophy,” strengthens previous research which emphasizes that giving behavior is beneficial for both individual’s success, as well as organizations outcomes (Grant, 2013; Podsakoff et al., 2013).

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## **Appendix**

### **Appendix 1. Preliminary thesis report**

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# BI Norwegian Business School

## Preliminary Thesis Report

- Giver, Matchers, and Takers: Instrumental vs. Spontaneous Networking Behavior at Work -

**GRA 19003**

Submission Date:

15.01.2016

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Program:

Master of Science in Leadership and Organizational Psychology

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**Table of Content**

<b>Abstract.....</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>1.0 Introduction.....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>2.0 Theoretical Background/ Literature review.....</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>2.1 Reciprocity Styles: Givers, matchers, and takers.....</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>2.2 Types of networking behavior: Instrumental vs. Spontaneous...4</b>	
<b>2.3 Task complexity.....</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>2.4 Task interdependence.....</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>2.5 Creativity.....</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>3.0 Proposed Research Model.....</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>4.0 Research Method.....</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>5.0 Timetable.....</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>References.....</b>	<b>14</b>

**Abstract**

The purpose of this research is to contribute to the existing literature regarding the newly developed typology of relational behaviors and measurement scale established by Grant (2013) called: givers, takers and matchers. In this research paper, we would like to investigate the type of networking behaviors (instrumental versus spontaneous) givers, takers and matchers most frequently engage in at their working place. The study also aims to test if task complexity, task interdependence, and creativity predict which networking styles (instrumental versus spontaneous) will be used less or more frequently for the different reciprocity styles, in particular the givers. In this way, we consider that our thesis can shed a light on the empirical research regarding different types of networking behaviors of givers, takers and matchers. In addition, we would like to use task complexity, task interdependence, and creativity, as moderators, to investigate if the relationships between reciprocity style and networking behavior are strengthened or weakened. Our research intends to use quantitative measurement tools, one designed by Grant (2013) and the other designed by Casciaro, Gino and Kouchaki (2014). The data will be collected at two times, with a time lag in between, in order to avoid biases such as social desirability or priming effect from one questionnaire to the next questionnaire.

## **1.0 Introduction**

The time when stable employment was characterized by one to two jobs over a work-life has come to an end. Over the years work-life has changed and people's career is now separate from the organizational career, which have in turned intensified the importance of interpersonal relations. As a result individuals feel an increasingly need to nurture relationships as part of their career strategy (Kim, 2013). The network one creates is crucial when seeking information about new job opportunities and is also related to income, and promotion (Forrest & Dougherty, 2001). In the early 2000's, the importance of networking started to become increasingly known, but there were little knowledge about the attributes of those engaging in networking behaviors (Forrest & Dougherty, 2001). Ever since, the importance of networking and how social networks impact the individuals has been an ongoing research topic.

Social networking is the terminology used to better understand social behavior; it can be characterized by the different interactions between people and the behaviors that are being expressed. By this mean, social networking is defined by Whiting and de Janasz (2004; 5) as, "*building and nurturing of personal and professional relationships to create a system of information, contacts, and support thought to be crucial for career and personal success*". In the social networking literature, there is a need to shed more light on the reasons why individuals create and maintain ties in their networks. In this way, practitioners can have a better understanding of how network-related behaviors influence the psychological experience of individuals performing them (Casciaro et al., 2014).

Networking behaviors can be defined as individuals' attempts to create and maintain relations with other people in order to have access to personal and professional resources, such as social support, strategic information, or career success. Based on their approach and content, networking behaviors fall into two categories, personal versus professional, instrumental versus spontaneous (Casciaro et al., 2014). The employees' social network can be meaningful for an organization in multiple ways; networks can be internal in the organization as well as external (go beyond the organization), which can increase members' exposure and personal learning. The exposure and learning might in turn affect the employee's understanding of organizational practice, skill development, and provide role clarity (Lankau & Scandura, 2002).

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Furthermore, in the book, “Give & Take: Why Helping Others Drives our Success”, the author stresses the importance of how people interact with each other, as a driver for their success. Grant (2013) states that networking encompasses three main advantages: it gives access to private information, skills, and power. This is in line with the existing literature, as of social determinism and individual agency. The existing literature also reflects social relationship patterns, predicting different stable outcomes such as access to resources, well-being, performance, and success (Giddens, 1984; Bourdieu, 1990; Archer, 1995; Wolff & Moser, 2009).

But do networking behaviors vary depending on the job givers, matchers, takers are doing? When the job requires them to be creative or if the task interdependency and complexity are high, do people act differently in terms of reciprocity style and networking behavior?

## **2.0 Theoretical Background/ Literature review**

### **2.1 Reciprocity Styles: Givers, matchers, and takers**

Individuals can be viewed differently based on their social behavior, characteristics, and social relationship. When reviewing the literature, there is pointed out a variety of categories based on this. For instance, Eisenberger, Cotterell and Marvel (1987) looked into what makes individuals being stingy or generous when returning help. It is suggested a universal ethical requirement that people return the amount of helped given, to establish mutually beneficial social relationship. However, Pruitt (1968) discovered that individuals in the beginning of a developing social relationship often give each other more help than previously received. In the research Eisenberger et al., (1987) characterize creditors as those individuals that violate the reciprocity norm, by giving more. In this way, creditors take advantage of the situation by expecting to receive even more back in the future. Creditors’ ideology reflects a constant search for opportunities to put other people in debt. By forecasting which people possess resources, creditors might chose to help if they consider them useful in the future (Eisenberger et al., 1987).

Over the past three decades social scientists have discovered that people differ in their preferences for reciprocity. Allen and Eby (2012) present another framework established by researchers studying relationships. This framework identifies three categories of social behavior, which are called communal, social

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exchange, and exploitive. Communal relationships - are established by people who feel responsibility to fulfill other's needs, and benefits to others might be given without an expectation of returning the benefits in response. The strength can vary - the greater the motivation to fulfill the needs of the communal partner, the stronger the communal strength becomes. The communal relationship has also been referred to as high-quality connections by the research of Dutton and Rugins (2007).

The second relationship is called exchange relationships, which are those benefits given in response to past received *or* benefits expected in return in the future. It implies series of exchanges, which generate obligations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; 4). Exchange relationship can be done economical or social; economic exchange are based on tangible resources, while social exchange are based on socio-emotional resources, and are often been considered to be of higher quality. The third type of relationship is called the exploitative, and is purely motivated by self-interest and gain of benefits for the person initiating the relationship. In the workplace literature, this type of relationship is used to describe an abusive supervisor. Researchers have also pointed out that most relationships do not fit one category, but have elements from each, which also concerned these three relationships categorizations (Allen & Eby, 2012).

Moreover, Grant (2013) has later developed these three fundamental styles of social interaction and given them “new” names. Grant (2013) has called the three reciprocity styles; *givers*, *takers*, and *matchers* and claims that these ways of approaching social interactions affect how people behave and succeed in their professional life. In this sense, he defines *givers* as those individuals who are always willing to help and support others, without having any expectations that they will get something in return. Givers operate in a manner where the benefits of giving to others outweigh the personal cost. Contrary, *takers* is a label used for those individual who are focused on getting the most out of the interactions they engage in, and are often more self-oriented. The takers are also described as individuals who want to help others if they think or know they will receive more than they give (Grant, 2013).

The difference between givers and takers is not measured in how much money they send or donate, but rather a difference in their attitude and actions towards other people. As a giver, it is about striving to be generous by sharing your time, knowledge, energy, skills, ideas, and connections to other people that

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other could have benefits from. While the third category is drawn from the fact that people are not purely a giver or a taker, but often adapt to a third style called *matchers*. Matchers strive to preserve an equal balance between giving and getting. They are described as trying to maintain a balance of giving and receiving and believe in fairness. They might give other people help, but protect themselves by seeking reciprocity. Grant's three reciprocity styles however, are not explained as being rigid - people might find themselves shifting from one style to another, as people often tend to have different work roles and relationships (Grant, 2013).

Furthermore, one of the main learning's from the book "Give and Take" is that self-interest and other-interest are not two mutually exclusive concepts. Grant (2013) presents individuals throughout the book that scores high in both self and other-interest, and he calls the successful givers "otherish". The "otherish" givers are individuals that care about helping others, but on the same time maintain their own goals that serve their own achievements. Grant (2013) also characterizes another type of givers, which are associations to high risks of burnout and they are called "selfless givers". "Selfless givers" are driven by a pathological altruism and are more other-oriented.

Utz, Muscanel and Goritz (2014) have investigated these newly developed concepts further and concluded that givers, takers and matchers could possibly be a measurement, and can be used in order to better understand the dynamic of interpersonal relations, especially in professional contexts. Continuing, they shaped the idea that givers, takers and matchers can be personality constructs and a predictor for resources and information sharing. Additionally, the research they conducted also found that takers show less willingness to share information and resource in comparison to givers. Nevertheless, Utz et al., (2014) research reflects that the givers, takers and matchers construct correlates with other related theoretical constructs such as social value orientation, narcissism, and reciprocity.

## ***2.2 Types of networking behavior: instrumental vs. spontaneous***

The way social networks impact the individual and the collective outcomes is reflected by a spectrum of theoretical concepts, starting with structural determinism to individual agency (Giddens, 1984; Bourdieu, 1990; Archer, 1995). Structural determinism refers to an individual position in the social structure and emphasizes that relatively stable patterns of social relationships of that individual can lead to different outcomes, such as access to resources, well-being and

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performance. Structural determinism also implies that the behavior of an individual, part of a social network is bounded to the opportunities and constraints of that structure. On the opposite, the agency view of social behavior presumes that the individuals are the ones who shape their role in the social structure when they become part of social interactions, and when they purposefully make social connections with others (Casciaro et al., 2014). Another perspective on how individuals shape and maintain ties with each other is given by Granovetter (1973), which highlights the significance of weak and strong ties between individuals. According to Granovetter (1973), weak ties are important as they facilitate the integration of the individual into their communities by giving the access to larger variety of opportunities, than strong ties produces.

In the network literature, there is an overall distinction between instrumental/task related ties and expressive/personal ties (Fombrun, 1982; Lincoln & Miller, 1979). Instrumental ties present the exchange of resources related to the job, such as information, advice, expertise, and material resources (Fombrun, 1982; Lincoln & Miller, 1979). Instrumental ties reflect a variety of functions, including career direction and guidance, exposure to management, support for tasks, and advocacy for promotion (Kram, 1985). On the other hand, expressive ties provide friendship and social support. At the same time, instrumental network ties can overlap with expressive ties, as peer relationships could be a source of instrumental support and developmental advice, process called multiplexity (Ibarra, 1993). Another perspective, provided by Kilduff and Tsai (2003) explains how interactions change over time by making a distinction between goal directed and serendipitous ties.

Given the fact that organizational network research papers need to shed more light on the reasons why individuals create and maintain ties in their networks, a more thorough debate on the role of agency (purposeful) and structure (emergent mechanisms) behaviors is needed. Answering the question of why individuals create and maintain social ties could contribute to a better understanding of how network related behaviors influence the psychological experience of individuals performing them (Casciaro et al., 2014). For instance, *self-perception theory* underlines that people's actions can have an impact on how people draw conclusions about their own character (Bem, 1982; Prelec & Bonder, 2003). Generally, individuals choose those behaviors, which can reflect positively on them. Morality is one primary dimension upon which individuals make

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evaluations about themselves and others (Cuddy, Fiske & Glick, 2008). Therefore, developing and nurturing social ties facilitates networking behaviors, which can provide a variety of signals to the individual's moral self-concept. Networking behaviors can lead to negative self-attributions when behaviors are hard to justify to oneself, induce guilt, and the "feeling of dirtiness". On the other hand, helping other peoples is not enough to label the moral worth of an action, as the action needs to be driven by altruism, rather than selfishness to be morally pure, and lead to "clean feelings" (Casciaro et al., 2014; Blum 1980; Singer, 1995; Williams, 1973).

In order to better explore the different types of networking behavior that givers, matchers and takers engage in, the framework suggested by Casciaro et al. (2014) will be used. This framework highlights four types of social behavior, based on their content (personal and professional) and approach (spontaneous and instrumental). *Personal ties* reflect symmetry; they lack direct reciprocity and encompass a belonging motive. *Professional ties* are driven by self-interest rather than altruism, and they do not encompass expectation of symmetry. The benefits are given mainly because of expectation of getting comparable benefits in return. *Instrumental ties* refer to those who proactively engage in networking behaviors, which are initiated by people who have a specific intention of getting something in favor for themselves in the future. *Spontaneous ties* refer to those interactions where there is no specific intention before initiating them. These types of ties are more contingent to situations, as a result of the interactions with other people, and/or as a result of the initiate other people may take (Casciaro et al., 2014).

The likelihood and frequency of engaging in different networking behaviors is bounded to gender, race, authority, education, socioeconomic background, as well as personality traits. For example, Forret and Dougherty (2001) argued that gender, socioeconomic background, extroversion, and attitudes towards workplace politics were correlated with the networking behaviors of managers and professionals, such as maintaining contacts, socializing, engaging in professional activities, participating in community, and increasing internal visibility. Wanberg, Kanfer, and Banas (2000) identified that extroversion and consciousness are predictors of network intensity. In order to shed more light into the literature, this paper is investigating the likelihood and frequency of professional ties, based on their approach, instrumental vs. spontaneous of newly

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developed personality measures, givers, takers and matchers. Thus, the possible hypothesis from this will be:

**Hypothesis 1.1:** *Givers engage more often in spontaneous professional networking than takers do.*

**Hypothesis 1.2:** *Givers engage more often in spontaneous professional networking than matchers do.*

**Hypothesis 2. 1:** *Givers engage less often in instrumental professional networking than takers.*

**Hypothesis 2.2:** *Givers engage less often in instrumental professional networking than matchers.*

### **2.3 Task complexity**

The concept of task has long been considered central to study of human behavior in organization (Wood, 1986). The established definitions of task complexity have a tradition to consider tasks as an individual-level concept, but it is also now considered as a collaborative concept between multiple actors, e.g. across organizational units (Haerem, Pentland, & Miller, 2015). From an individual-level concept, job complexity is defined in several ways. One perspective is presented in Perrow (1961) and Van de Ven and Delbecq (1976) who argue that a complex job implies mental processes such as solving problems, use of technical knowledge, and applying discretion. Other researchers, such as Hackman and Oldham (1980) explain that perceived job complexity reveals an employee belief on how much intrinsically interesting and challenging a job can be. At the same time, beliefs regarding the job complexity can also be developed based on high levels of variety, significance, identity, feedback and autonomy. However, researchers such as Van Der Vegt et al. (2000) emphasize that this approach is rather subjective, so that two employees working on the same task can have different perceptions regarding its complexity. This happens as a result of the difference between their processing capabilities, personal interests, familiarity with the job and span of attention.

The second perspective on task complexity argues that task complexity is the result of an interaction of network of events and actions performed by an actor or several actors at a certain moment in time. The events can generate information cues, which can be processed by people, machines or organizational sub-units (Latour, 2005). Tasks encompass three elements: products, acts, and information

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cues. These elements are used to shape three analytical aspects of task complexity: component complexity, coordinative complexity, and dynamic complexity (Wood, 1986; Haerem et al., 2015). Component complexity refers to all the steps needed to complete a task, and it implies that the number of steps required completing a task, and their interdependency is direct proportional with its complexity. Coordinative complexity reflects the connections between required previous actions, which transform task inputs into task products. The longer the sequence of the dependencies between actions is, the more complex the task becomes. Dynamic complexity is the result of the changes in component and coordinative complexity, and it encompasses the necessary changes in the actions and information cues to which the person performing the task must adapt (Wood, 1986; Haerem et al., 2015).

Ties can be created while performing different tasks and in this sense; task complexity implies that individuals need to exchange information cues in order to perform several actions to complete the task. Therefore, when the complexity of the tasks is high, individuals are focused on finding solutions to solve the task, and, thus, initiate instrumental ties with their co-workers to complete their own work.

**Hypothesis 3.1:** *Task complexity moderates the relationship between givers and their networking behavior: givers engage in more instrumental professional networking when most of the work consists of complex tasks.*

#### **2.4 Task interdependence**

Interdependence in an organizational unit will be analyzed by the extent to which individuals working in one unit are dependent upon each other to perform their own job. The greater the degree of task-related collaboration of shared tasks among employees the greater the interdependence will be (Mohr, 1971; Thompson, 1967). Interdependence between employees is often the cause of teamwork (Cartwright & Zander, 1968; Shea & Guzzo, 1987). Interdependence takes place as a result of a variety of factors, such as: specific tasks and technology, uncertainty of the tasks and the environment, role variation, how skills and resources are distributed among groups, how goals are set and accomplished, and how feedback is given and performance is rewarded (Tjosvold, 1986; Wageman, 1995).

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Furthermore, *task* interdependence refers to the extent in which individuals in a group must exchange information and resources and/or cooperate together in order to complete their work (Brass, 1985; Kiggundu, 1983; Thompson, 1967). Task interdependence usually increases as the work becomes more difficult and/or when the individual demand more assistance from co-workers to perform their work. Task interdependence is either analyzed on a group (e.g. Jehn, 1995; Mohr, 1971; Slocum & Sims, 1980) or individual level (e.g. Brass, 1985; Kiggundu, 1983; Pearce & Gregersen, 1991). At the group level, interdependence is reflected in the overall characteristics of the team. This means that the individuals in that specific team are assumed to react in a unified way to task interdependence conditions. On the other hand, when task interdependence is studied at individual level, it is characterized by the individual's job characteristics, and is not affected by the primary group or organizational factors (Van Der Vegt et al., 2000).

Research on task interdependence has found that it is positively related to team satisfaction and team commitment, rather than job satisfaction and job commitment of the individuals in a team. Van der Vegt et al. (1998) also found that task interdependence is positively related to feelings of responsibility of co-workers work instead of the individual's own work. The positive correlation between task interdependence, team satisfaction and team commitment emphasize that task interdependence contributes to the satisfaction on the social needs of the individuals who are part of the team (Van Der Vegt et al., 2000).

Task interdependence implies collaboration between individuals at the workplace while performing different tasks, as part of an end product. In this sense, we hypothesis that high interdependency will motivate the individuals to act more in line with spontaneous networking tie as all employees are working toward to complete a common end result. This leads to the following hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 3.2:** *Task interdependence moderates the relationship between givers and their networking behavior: givers engage in **even more** spontaneous professional networking when most of their work consists of task interdependence.*

## **2.5 Creativity**

Creativity plays a central role in the organizations as it contributes to organizational innovation, effectiveness and survival in the increasingly dynamic global business environment (Kijkuit & Van den Ende, 2007). Initial research on creativity was focused mainly on defining creativity as an individual trait, but

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recent research focus more on how contextual factors within the organization can have an impact on the individual's creative activity (Smith & Shalley, 2003). Creativity in an organizational context is seen as the creation of novel and potentially useful ideas, which contributes to improvement of product, services, processes and procedures by an individual or group of individuals working together (Amabile, 1988; Ford & Gioia, 2000; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Shalley, 1991; Zhou, 1998; Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993). Each job requires some dose of creativity, so that it is important to better understand what creative outcomes might imply, in order to foster and measure creativity (Shalley, Gilson, & Blum, 2000; Unsworth, 2001).

The level of creativity differs according to the type of job one performs. For instance, for jobs performed by R&D professionals, high levels of creativity are desired and needed. On the other hand, for jobs such as assembly line workers or cashiers, an incremental change on how the work is performed can be a desirable creative outcome (Shalley & Gilson, 2004). For explaining which factors hinder or stimulate the employees' creativity, series of general theoretical frameworks were drafted, such as the work by Amabile (1988, 1996) and Woodman et al. (1993). These models emphasize why context in which people work plays an important role for their creativity. At the same time, they highlight that creativity, is partially, a social process, a perspective which is supported by a limited, but growing collection of empirical research (Smith & Shalley, 2003). In order to better explain how creativity can take place, the two modes have grouped major components of work context into *individual, job, group or team, and organizational level* factors.

Individual creativity is considered to be a function of personality factors (broad interests, independence of judgment, autonomy, firm sense of self as creative), cognitive styles and abilities (problem solving, problem construction, combination, idea evaluation skills, the collection and application of diverse information, an accurate memory, use of effective heuristics, ability and inclination to engage in deep concentration for long periods of time), relevant task domain expertise (education, experience, training, task familiarity), motivation (intrinsic motivation, e.g. feeling of competence and self determination), and social and contextual influences (trial and error organizational culture, job rotation) (Amabile, 1988, 1996; Woodman et al.,1993).

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Job creativity are considered to be driven by job characteristics, role expectations and goals, sufficient resources, rewards, supervisory support, and external organization of work (Amabile, 1988, 1996). According to Oldham and Cummings (1996), job characteristics represent a central component that managers need to take into consideration in order to promote creativity. The job design can enhance employees' intrinsic motivation, which can lead to creative output at the working place (Shalley & Gilson, 2004). Group or team creativity can be the result of the social context and group composition. According to Agrell and Gustafson (1994) and Mumford and Gustafson (1988), social influences, such as social labeling are important in order to stimulate an interactive process between colleagues and other team members. For instance, Ford and Gioia (2000) argues that employees take into consideration cues from their colleagues in their work environment in order to shape views about their ability to be creative.

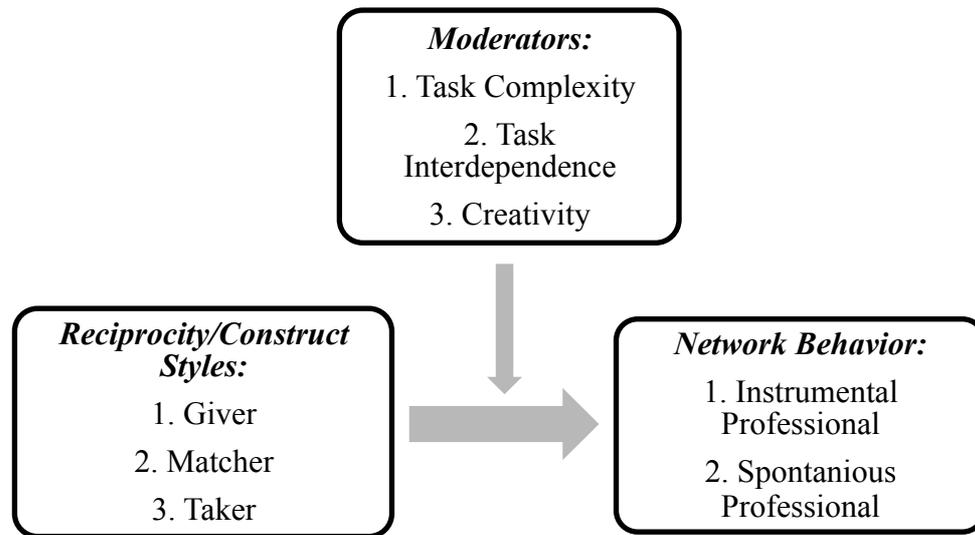
Other studies, such as Madjar, Oldham, and Pratt (2002) explored the effects of work and non-work support for creativity and concluded that support from both coworkers and supervisors, as well as from family and friends were positively correlated with employees' creativity. When it comes to group composition, researchers consider this as a precondition to creative performance (Amabile, 1988; Woodman et al., 1993).

Organizational factors that support creativity refer to organizational climate and human resource practices. According to Amabile et al. (1996) and Woodman et al. (1993) there are series of different characteristics, such as level of uncertainty avoidance, risk taking, promotion and recognition of creativity, open and flat organizational structure which can stimulate or hinder creativity. When it comes to human resource practices, such as selection, placement, training and rewarding, Amabile et al. (1996) argue that these need to be harmonized, so that employees are encouraged to be creative, and are informed what is expected of them, and for what they will be rewarded. Following the perspective that creativity is triggered by the ties individual create when exchanging ideas, knowledge and skills, this paper will explore more on the role of creativity as a moderator for the frequency of instrumental vs. spontaneous ties that givers initiate. For these reasons we therefore suggests the hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 3.3:** *Creativity moderates the relationship between givers and their networking behavior: givers engage in **even more** spontaneous networking behavior when the job requires creativity.*

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### 3.0 Proposed Research Model



### 4.0 Research Method

In order to test the suggested model, quantitative methods will be used. The sample of participants will include individuals, who are employed, and possible control variables will include gender, age, educational level, years work experience, work sector. First, a questionnaire will be handed out, which will categorize the participants as givers, takers, or matchers. This questionnaire is available on Adam Grant's website and is acknowledged as a valid tool by Utz et al. (2014). Secondly, we intend to investigate the frequency of participants' professional networking behaviors, based on the approach instrumental versus spontaneous. The measurement tool for this will be derived from the method used by Casciaro et al. (2014). In order to test the moderating effect of creativity, a possible measurement will be the 13-item scale developed by Zhou and George (2001). In order to test the moderating effect for task complexity and task interdependence, a possible measurement, which might be taken into consideration, is the one suggested by Dean and Snell (1991). The data will be collected at two times, with a time lag in between, in order to avoid biases such as social desirability or priming effect from one questionnaire to the next questionnaire.

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**5.0 Timetable**

	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September
Improvement of Theory								
Choose the Selected Group of Participants								
Collection of Data 1								
Collection of Data 2								
Analyzing Data								
Write Discussion and Result Section								
First Submission					June 10 <sup>th</sup>			
Editing and Rewriting								
Final Submission								September 1 <sup>st</sup>

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