The Relationship between Organizational Culture and Employee Conflict: Evidence from Higher Education Institutions in Pakistan

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Abstract

This study intends to examine the association between organizational culture and employee conflict in the context of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Pakistan. Data were collected with a proportionate random sampling technique from the lecturers, assistant professors, associate professors and professors in HEIs of Pakistan. A total of 400 questionnaires were distributed, and usable questionnaires were 240. Results of this study shows a positive relationship between 1) hierarchy culture and employee conflict, and 2) market culture and employee conflict. Results also revealed a negative association between 1) adhocracy culture and employee conflict, and 2) clan culture and employee conflict. Lastly, limitations and suggestions for future research are provided.

Keywords: Organizational Culture; Employee Conflict

Introduction

Major and continued dynamic changes in the social, political, technological and economic environments at global and micro levels create an uncertain and complex environment for organizations to operate. Increasing uncertainty and complexity in the operating environment of organizations provide fertile ground for the onset of conflict at the workplace. Conflict can be defined as a form of disagreement or argument, or an incompatibility in the views, opinions and principles of two or more individuals. Indeed, an increase in the incidence of conflict amongst employees is to be expected due to this dynamic economic, social and political organizational environment (De Dreu & Weingart, 2002). Employee conflict is an area of interest when discussing organizational behaviour and the management of human resources. Employee conflict is important both from the employee perspective as well as the organizational perceptive. Conflict has diverse effect on employee performance. Literature indicated that there are different types of conflict with both positive and negative effects on employee performance in an organization (de Wit *et al.*, 2012).

Contemporary organizations are vulnerable to employees' conflicts. Therefore, organizations are consistently looking for new ideas to manage employee conflicts in order to safeguard the employee performance. Most studies highlighted organizational culture as one of the important factors that can cause employees' conflicts at work (Bell, 2007; Harrison *et al.*, 2002; Peeters, Rutte, *et al.*, 2006; Peeters, Tuijl, *et al.*, 2006). Culture can cause employee's conflicts either directly or indirectly. Organizations are looking to regulate

employees' behaviours in the workplace through incorporating organizational culture. The employee learns from organizational culture and ultimately behaves in a certain way guided by the culture. Hofstede (1980) defines culture as collective programs that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another. Foster-Fishman and Keys (1997) proposed, that the direction of the team members' behaviour is developed by the collective method of understanding that is called organizational culture. Individuals recognize organizational working and behaviour with the help of a blueprint of common principles and attitudes in the organization, which are usually developed through the organizational culture.

Previous literature on the relationship between organizational culture and employee conflict are rare (De Dreu & Beersma, 2005). Limited efforts have been made by the researchers to explore the relationship of different dimensions of organizational culture and employee conflicts (Mukhtar, 2012). Thus, this study focuses on the impact of culture on the employee's conflicts to fill this gap. Hence, objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between organizational culture and employee conflicts in the context of higher education institutions in Pakistan.

Literature Review

Organizational Culture: According to Hofstede (1980) culture is the "collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes the members of one category of people from another." Hofstede also divided culture into four layers (or four main elements): symbols, heroes, rituals and values. Research at the four layers is critical for organizational managers, because it can affect a business or an operation at different degrees and in diverse ways. An onion diagram model of organizational culture was developed by Hofstede *et al.* (1997) and is presented in Figure 1.
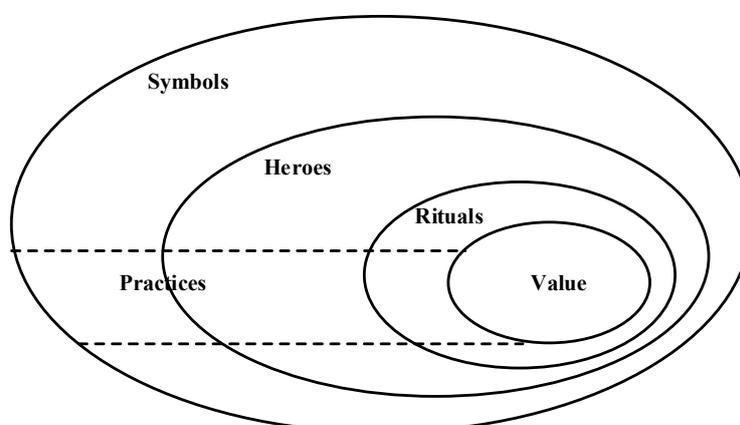

Figure 1:   Four Layers of Culture
Source: Hofstede *et al.* (1997)

Figure 1 shows that values form the core of culture. Values are intimately connected with moral and ethical codes (Brown, 1988) and determine what people think ought to be done and identify 'likes' and 'dislikes' for both employers and employees. Rituals are collective activities which are considered socially essential and heroes are the people who possess characteristics which are highly prized and are often the "winners" or those who get on in an organization. According to Deal and Kennedy (1982) the hero is a great motivator. The magician, the person everyone will count on when things get tough. Symbols are the most overt element of culture; gestures, objects, words or acts that signify something different or wider from the others, and which have meaning for an individual or a group. Similarly, Johnson *et al.* (2008) presented a cultural web (see Figure 2), so that to enable people to

completely understand the culture of an organization. The cultural web is a useful ideal tool to make links with the political, symbolic and structural aspects of the organization, and it can be guided by the development of strategy.
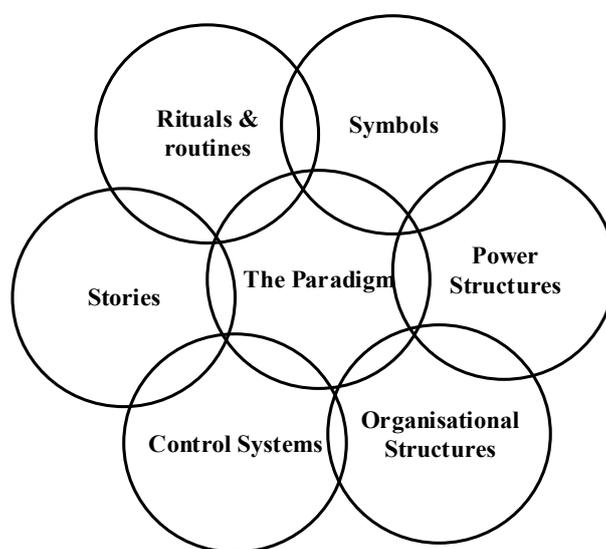

Figure 2: Cultural Web
Source: Johnson *et al.* (2008)

In the cultural web, there are seven key elements that are interlinked. At the center, lies the paradigm or commonly held beliefs and values of the organization, and the seven elements (routine, rituals, stories, symbols, control systems, power structures and organizational structure) could be formed in the different developmental period of an organization. In practice, these assumptions, beliefs and values are mostly established by the leaders of an organization and present a powerful set of forces, such as the seven key elements, which are deep, broad and stable. They result in behaviours that serve as a guide to employees about what is considered appropriate or inappropriate behavior in the organization. Moreover, in the context of the current study, organizational culture is the way an organization focuses on internal integration or external integration and the structure of the organization either organic or mechanistic, which program behaviours of the individuals at the workplace.

For organizational culture previous literature shows four types, consistency, adaptability, mission and involvement (Denison & Mishra, 1995). Daft (2014), proposes it as adaptability, clan, achievement and bureaucratic while Wallach (1983), presented it as bureaucratic, innovative and supportive as cited by Yiing and Ahmad (2009). Cameron *et al.* (1991) presented four very well-known types of market, hierarchy, clan and adhocracy cultures. Cameron *et al.* (1991) uses competing values framework developed by Campbell (1979), which is frequently used in research, to distribute the four items in 100 points. Deshpandé *et al.* (1993) also developed the instrument which was a modification of Cameron *et al.* (1991), using the seven point Likert scale. According to Deshpandé *et al.* (1993) the model of market, adhocracy, clan and hierarchy was also used by many researchers. These culture types are representative of either the internal integration or external positioning, either flexibility and individuality or stability and control (Aktaş *et al.*, 2011; Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

Clan culture focuses on internal preservation and elasticity, care for own employees and for clients. It is family like well knitted and goal oriented. The leader is like a mentor. Cooperation, cohesiveness and faithfulness are appreciated. Hierarchy culture also

concentrates on the internal preservation with a need for solidity and control. This is a culture with formal standards, procedures and rules. This is a bureaucratic environment. Success is measured by the individual's task achievement within the procedures and control of the system. External positioning with a high degree of elasticity and freedom is focused upon by innovative culture. Here, leaders are like entrepreneurs. This is like a temporary organization where teams are created and dismissed with the new assignments. Innovation and creativity is the key in this type of the organizational culture. Market or competitive culture concentrates on external protection with the requirement of steadiness and power. Earning profit from the market competition is the key in the market culture. Success is measured on the achievements from the market for the organization (Aktaş *et al.*, 2011; Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Mohammadi *et al.*, 2010). These types of culture are summarized in Figure 3.
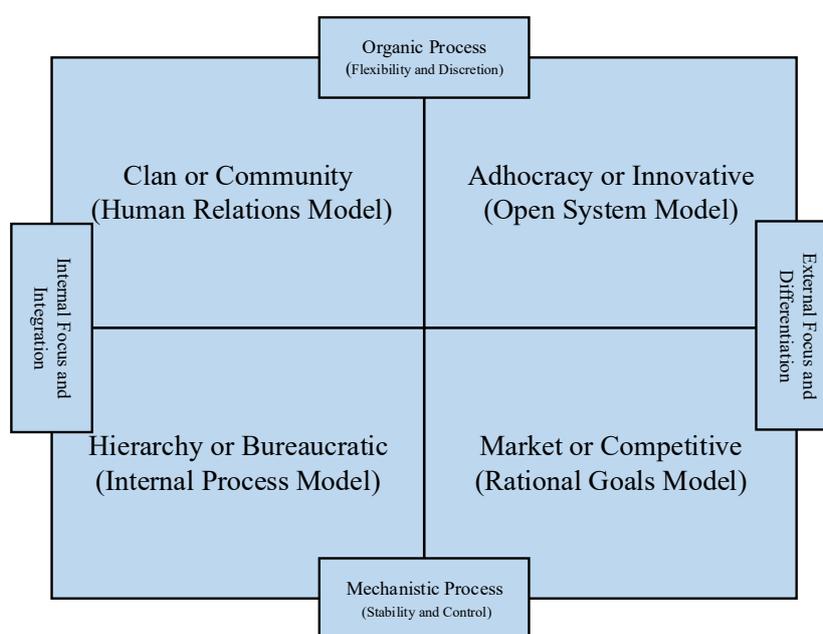

Figure 3: Framework of Organizational Culture Types
Adapted from Cameron and Quinn (2005)

Figure 3 provides framework for the organizational culture of HEIs. First on the x-axis from left to right figure shows the culture shifted from internal integration to the external focus and the vertical axis shows the culture from mechanical to organic. Thus, the organizational culture of HEIs that tends to show internal integration and exhibits organic structure named clan or community culture of HEIs. The organizational culture of HEIs with a mechanistic structure and internal focus is called hierarchy or bureaucratic culture of HEI. Similarly, according to Figure 3, the organizational culture of HEIs in Pakistan with an external focus and an organic structure is called adhocracy or innovative, while an external focus with a mechanistic structure is named as a market or competitive organizational culture.

Employee Conflict: The term employee's conflict is used in different ways, reflecting the diverse levels at which different conflicts exist (Puck & Pregernig, 2014). The recent definition by de Wit *et al.* (2012) indicated the three broad typologies of employee conflict are apparent, i.e. relationship, task, and process conflicts. Relationship conflict occurs when interpersonal incompatibilities exist among employees of an organization. This type of conflict often includes differences of opinion and preferences regarding non task issues (e.g. religion, politics and fashion) as well as personality differences. While early studies used the concepts of relationship conflict interchangeably with emotional or affective conflict

(Guetzkow & Gyr, 1954). However, recent studies have differentiated the relationship conflicts from the intellectual, emotional or affective conflict (de Wit *et al.*, 2012). In other words, both relationship and task conflict may be characterized by strong or weak emotional components. In response, researchers have turned to the term "relationship conflict" as a separate dimension of emotional conflict (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Jehn (1994) also found that task conflict was unrelated to personal issues. For example, an employee can have a different preference regarding food and/or politicans. Granted, many relationship conflicts do evoke emotional responses (as do task conflicts) but to clarify the association between conflict and performance, researchers choose to separately examine the topic of the conflict (i.e. the task, the process or the relationship).

While covering many different things (i.e. cognitive conflict, substantive conflict, content conflict and realistic conflict), task conflict is consistently defined as disagreement among group members about the task being performed. Task conflict pertains to conflicts of ideas in the group and disagreement about the content or an issue related to the task. Task conflict exists when there is disagreement among group members about the content of the tasks being performed, including differences in viewpoints, ideas and opinions. Employees often describe these conflicts as "work conflict", "work disagreements" and "task problems". Examples of task conflicts are: "The discussion was about how to correctly calculate relative capacity utilization. We couldn't agree. Everyone had his or her own viewpoint and argued for it." And "Some people were sure that the future strategy should focus on the super-premium market, while others felt the focus should be the minority market. There were different interpretations of the key issues that we debated for a long time" (Jehn, 1994, p. 235). The key concept is that task conflict is focused on the work or task at hand, in contrast to relationship conflict which focuses on non-task issues.

Process conflict is a third type of conflict which surfaced in organizational conflict research (Jehn *et al.*, 1997a; Jehn, 1997; Jehn *et al.*, 1997b; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Jehn *et al.*, 1999). Although, process conflict has been present in past studies (Kelley & Thibaut, 1969; Rapoport, 1961), but limited studies have incorporated process conflicts separate from task conflict within their research (Jehn *et al.*, 2015; O'Neill *et al.*, 2013). Most of the past research viewed task conflicts as separate organizational issue or a combination of tasks and process issues (Amason, 1996; Cosier & Rose, 1977; Jehn, 1995; Schweiger *et al.*, 1989). Previous studies (Amason, 1996; Cosier & Rose, 1977; Jehn, 1995; Schweiger *et al.*, 1989) do not consider the process conflict itself as a type of the employee conflict. Process conflict is more focused on means of completing a task rather than focusing on the substance or task itself. Examples of process conflicts are the disagreement about the composition of work team, task responsibilities, resource distribution and activities scheduling to perform a task effectively. For example when different researchers are disagreeing about data interpretation and the meaning of the results, they are experiencing task conflict. If they argue about who is responsible for writing up the final report and who will make the presentation, they are having a process conflict.

A multidimensional scaling study of group conflict (Jehn, 1992) found that employees often discussed "administrative conflicts." Group members differentiated between conflicts over task content issues (e.g. debates over marketing proposals) and administrative issues such as delegating resources and duties. In an ethnographic study of work groups, Jehn (1997) labeled these "process" conflicts and defined them as conflicts about "how task accomplishment should proceed in the work unit, who is responsible for what and how things should be delegated." Employees mentioned "reorganization disagreements," "responsibility disagreements" and "disagreeing about utilizing people." According to Kabanoff (1991) process conflict type is similar to the distributive conflict used in the past studies. Process conflict is also similar with procedural complexity (Kramer, 1991). Kabanoff (1991) defined

distributive conflict as political argument about rules that tells the allocation resources to the task. On the other hand, task conflict refers to disagreement over the task itself. Finally, procedural complexity included conflicts over group means, such as the role responsibilities and exchange of resources. Researchers, therefore, believe that it is critical to examine task and process conflict as separate constructs, in addition to relationship conflict, to more adequately theorize the relationship between conflict and its outcomes. However, the recent definitions separated the process conflict from task conflict (O'Neill *et al.*, 2013).

Organizational Culture and Employee Conflict: Organizational culture and its relation to an employee's performance, job satisfaction and other attributes has always been an important area of research (Ebrahimpour *et al.*, 2011; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). Studies show that organizational culture impacts upon an employee's performance, satisfaction and turnover (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010; San Park & Hyun Kim, 2009). Chatman and Jehn (1994) described how different organizations have different organizational cultures. Values, actions and behaviors make an organizational culture while employees of an organization share and follow it (Saeed *et al.*, 2010). It is proven in management research that organizational culture relates to many employees and organizational outcomes (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Sheridan, 1992).

Culture has an important part in the organizational outcomes as proposed by (Marcoulides & Heck, 1993). Employees' behaviour and attitude are influenced by organizational culture (Marcoulides & Heck, 1993). Zhang and Zheng (2009) describe the importance of job performance and job satisfaction in the literature on human resource management. Employees' satisfaction may be enhanced and a positive work environment with team work can be created by a constructive organizational culture which leads to personal satisfaction and organizational goals (San Park & Hyun Kim, 2009).

A culture characterized by high power distance accepts wider differences in power, and employees are expected to show a great deal of respect for those in authority. In contrast, a culture of low power distance plays down inequalities as much as possible. Recently, many organizations have adopted some sort of empowerment initiative in their workforce. However, there are still many organizations that have implemented the so called empowerment programs, but failed because they did not understand what a successful implementation actually requires.

Organizational culture has four types. These types are hierarchy, market, adhocracy and clan. Each type is related to the organizational focus on the internal to external integration and organizational structure i.e. mechanistic to organic (Aktaş *et al.*, 2011; Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Although studies are agree on the relationship of the impact of organizational culture on employee conflict. However, still it is neglected in the literature that what type of culture (Cook *et al.*, 2013; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Gergen, 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Turban & Cheung, 2012) is more relevant to employee conflict in the context of social exchange.

Hierarchy culture refers to the organizational culture that focuses on internal integration and mechanistic structure of the organization (Garland, 2001). In the hierarchy culture employees need to strictly follow the rules, policies and span of control. This provides the lesser chance for the employees to be indulged in the employee conflicts. Mostly employees are not working closely upon a given task as hierarchy culture less likely to nourish team management at the workplace (Baker & Warren, 2016). Employee conflict is inherent whenever employees are required to work interdependently, such as within workplace teams (Bradley *et al.*, 2015). However, hierarchy culture limits the interaction of individuals at workplace as result chances of employee conflicts are low. Thus, it can be concluded that: *H1a: Hierarchy culture influences employee conflicts.*

The term market culture describes organizational system of control in which behaviors are constrained by negotiated terms of exchange (Andreou *et al.*, 2016). In this culture, the relationship between individual and organization is contractual. Obligations of each party are specified in advance. This may lead to the lower chances of arising the conflict among the employees and organizations. The individual is responsible for some level of performance, and the organization promises a given level of rewards in return. The scenario is clear for both that results into the higher level of commitment to work to get promised rewards. The contract, renewed annually if each party adequately performs its obligations, is utilitarian, since each party uses the other as a means of furthering its own goals. Rather than promoting a feeling of membership in a social system, the market culture encourages a strong sense of independence and individuality in which everyone pursues his or her own interests. For this reason, the workers are more likely not to be engaged in situation where their performance suffer. Thus, the chances of the employee conflict are reduced. So, researcher concluded from the discussion that: *H1b: Market culture influences employee conflicts.*

Adhocracy culture emphasize on employee discretion, external focus and concern for differentiation. The adhocracy culture focuses on the employee creativity (Behfar *et al.*, 2008). Recently, studies acknowledge that the organizations success is now envisioned in terms of innovation and creativity with a future-forward posture (Tharp, 2009). The culture that facilitates the creativity more evident of less employee conflict. Mostly, organizations focus is to develop products and services that are differentiable based on innovation. This is the reason employee in such organization mostly spend their time in developing new ideas and products. Adhocracy organizational culture value flexibility, adaptability, and thrive in achieving high performance standards by bringing creativity and innovation (Duke II & Edet, 2012). This reduces the possibility of the employee conflicts. Thus, discussion leads to the hypothesis: *H1c: Adhocracy culture influences employee conflicts.*

The clan culture portrays an organization that concentrates on internal maintenance with flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity for customers (Berrio, 2003). Mostly focus on employee relationships and interdependence in task. task complexity comes from work on non-routine and interdependent tasks (Shin *et al.*, 2016). Routine tasks are performed frequently over time with little variation, whereas non-routine tasks change often and are performed infrequently. Evidence suggests non-routine tasks benefit from task conflict, with all the evidence consistently indicating a positive relationship between task conflict and team performance (Jehn, 1995). High interdependence among teammates may also facilitate the manifestation of the beneficial effects of conflict, because the more complex the task, the more interdependent the team typically becomes (Cunningham & Waltemyer, 2007). The clan culture may lead to the higher level of employee interdependency and understanding. Thus, there is higher possibility of the reduced employee conflicts. So, it can be concluded that:
H1d: Clan culture influences employee conflicts

Methodology

Sampling: A proportionate random sampling technique was applied for the selection of Higher Educational Institutes. Sixteen Higher Educational Institutes comprised of 9 public and 7 private institutes. Sampling plans for HEIs are illustrated in table 1 and table 2.

Table 1. Sampling Plan for Public Sector HEIs

Region	Total Number of HEIs	Percentage to the population	Sample Size (HEIs)	Respondents from each HEI	Total Respondents
Federal	24	27%	2	15	30
Punjab	20	22%	2	15	30
Sindh	17	19%	2	15	30
KPK	19	21%	2	15	30
Balochistan	6	7%	1	15	15
AJK	4	4%	0	15	0
TOTAL	90	100%	9	-	135

Table 2. Sampling Plan for Private Sector HEIs

Region	Total Number of HEIs	Percentage to the population	Sample Size (HEIs)	Respondents from each HEI	Total Respondents
Federal	6	9%	1	15	15
Punjab	22	31%	2	15	30
Sindh	29	41%	3	15	45
Khyber Pakhtunkhuwa	10	14%	1	15	15
Balochistan	1	1%	0	15	0
Azad Jammu and Kashmir	2	3%	0	15	0
TOTAL	70	100%	7		105

The researchers collected data proportionate sampling. First column of the table 1 and 2 shows the regions of Pakistan followed by the number of HEIs in each region and percentage to the population. A random sample of 240 faculty members (Lecturers, Assistant Professors, Associate Professors and Professors) recognized by HEC (Pakistan) were the participants in this study. The survey conducted on a random basis. Questionnaires were distributed without any discrimination/bias. At first stage researcher randomly chosen the respondent universities. For this purpose, researcher utilized the available list at www.hec.gov.pk to collect the list of all 160 universities. Furthermore, researcher utilized the randomizer website to choose the respondent universities. For the next stage researcher has collected email address for the faculty members of the selected universities from the website and randomly asked then to fill the questionnaire. Fifteen questionnaires per university were distributed and the potential respondents were provided with a full briefing by the researcher himself.

Instruments: The scale of organizational culture was adapted from Cameron and Quinn (2005). Organizational culture refers to the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one organization from another. This includes shared beliefs, values and practices that distinguish one organization from another. Organizational culture is composed of shared beliefs, values and norms among employees at the work place. The study

operationalized the construct of organizational culture on the basis of organizational focus criteria to measure the nature of the culture prevailing in the HEIs. These criteria are mainly based on dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, the management of employees, organization glue, strategic emphasis and the criteria for success. These characteristics of the organizational culture will be used to measure the four types of culture in the organization. These types are clan, adhocracy, market and hierarchy culture. The scale consists of 24 items, 6 items to measure each type of organizational culture.

Employee conflict scale was adapted from Jehn and Mannix (2001). Conflict is broadly defined as an understanding by the parties involved in discrepancies, conflicting wishes and interpersonal inappropriateness (Boulding, 1962). Mack and Snyder (1957) define conflict as a *"Particular kind of social interaction process between parties who have mutually exclusive or incompatible values"* (p. 212). More precisely, employee conflicts are the disagreements among employees of an organization either due to work related or personality related issues. The study considers three major types of conflicts to measure the construct. These types are task conflict, relationship conflict and process conflict. Jehn and Mannix (2001) used 14 items to measure these types of conflicts, 6 items to measure task conflict, 4 to measure process conflict and 4 to measure relationship conflict.

Results

Measurement model of this study reported χ^2= 1310.476, DF=709, CMIN/DF=1.848, RMR=0.038, GFI=0.868, AGFI=0.848, TLI=0.896, CFI=0.905, RMR=0.038 and RMSEA=0.047, as shown in Table 3. These values indicated a good model fit for the measurement validation.

Table 3 Measurement Model of All Constructs

Statistics	Fit Indices	Acceptable Threshold value	Achieved Value before modifications	Achieved Value after modifications
Absolute Fit	CMIN	---	1626.87	1310.476
	DF	---	714	709
	CMIN/ DF	<5	2.279	1.848
	GFI	>0.900	0.845	0.868
	RMR	<0.050	0.038	0.038
	RMSEA	<0.080	0.057	0.047
Incremental Fit	NFI	>0.900	0.772	0.816
	TLI	>0.900	0.843	0.896
	CFI	>0.900	0.856	0.905
Parsimony Fit	AGFI	>0.800	0.822	0.848

CMIN= Minimum Chi-square, DF= Degree of Freedom, GFI= Goodness of Fit Index, RMR= Root Mean Square Residual, RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, NFI= Normed Fit Index, TLI= Tucker Lewis Index, CFI= Comparative Fit Index, AGFI= Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index.

Convergent Validity: Convergent validity is the construct indicators that reflect a large amount of the mutual proportion of variance among factors. It determines the amount of correlation among the measures of the same concept (Arbuckle, 2011; Hair, 2010; Rasli, 2006). Convergent validity deals with construct loadings, Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and construct reliabilities. Average variance extracted is the sum of the square of standardized factor loadings to represent how much variation in each item is explained by latent. The average variance extracted is the average percentage of variation explained by the measurement items in a construct. The standard value of AVE is 0.50 or greater.

Average Variance Extraction (AVE): Average variance extraction (AVE) cannot be computed through AMOS 21. Therefore, AVE was calculated through excel macros for the validity. Table 4 shows the average variance extraction of each construct and results showed that all the constructs have more than 0.50 of average variance extraction, that shows all the constructs have a sufficient amount of convergent validity. The range of average variation extractions is 0.525 to 0.662.

Composite Reliability (CR): To compute the reliabilities of the variables, standardized factor loadings were utilized for each variable. Similar to AVE, the CR value are also derived through excel macros. Table 4 shows the construct reliability value of each variable. The threshold value of the construct reliability is 0.70 or above (Blumberg *et al.*, 2011; Cooper & Schindler, 2003; Rasli, 2006). Table 4 shows that all constructs have the adequate reliability of all constructs ranges from 0. 757 to 0.887. Therefore, the current study does not violate the convergent validity of the constructs.

Discriminant Validity: Discriminant validity referred to the extent to which an instrument contains a construct that was truly distinct from all others. Discriminant validity is the degree to which similar constructs have distinct values. In this type of validity the responses are measured without cross loading in terms of latent constructs (Arbuckle, 2011; Hair, 2010; Rasli, 2006) Discriminant validity is violated when the correlation among exogenous constructs is more than 0.85 (Blumberg *et al.*, 2011; Rasli, 2006) . In discriminant validity, the value of the square root of the average variance extraction should exceed the value of the inter-construct correlation. Table 4 shows the inter-construct correlations which are obtained from the AMOS 21 output.

Table 4 represents the inter-construct correlation of each variable and the squared root of AVE. Results indicate that all the constructs have adequate discriminant validity as the square root of average variance extracted is greater than the inter-construct correlation of each variable and also the values of the inter construct are less than 0.85. It means that the results provide sufficient evidence of discriminant validity of the constructs.

Table 4 Measurement Model Analysis

Constructs	CR	AVE	Organizational Culture	Employee Conflicts
Organizational Culture	0.887	0.662	0.814 [a]	
Employee Conflict	0.757	0.525	-0.702	0.725 [a]

[a] Square root of AVE is listed in the diagonals,

The current study used structural equation modeling (SEM) using AMOS 21. The fitness indices values showed a good model fit as the value of CMIN/DF was 2.113, GFI was reported 0.917, AGFI was reported 0.895, NFI was reported 0.951 and CFI was reported 0.9331, whilst value of RMSEA was 0.033 and RMR was reported 0.051. This indicates a good model fit. The current study used four cultural dimensions. Thus, first hypothesis was subdivided into four hypotheses. H1a states that hierarchy culture has an effect on employee conflicts. The standardized path coefficient hierarchy culture➜ employee conflict was 0.43, the unstandardized coefficient was 0.313, t value 7.143 and the significance value 0.000. Thus hypothesis H1a has been accepted and the study established a positive relationship between the hierarchy culture and employee conflict. H1b states that market culture has an effect on employee conflicts. So the standardized path coefficient market culture➜ employee conflict was 0.52, the unstandardized coefficient was 0.432, t value 11.774 and the significance value 0.000. Thus hypothesis H1b has been accepted and the study established a positive relationship between the market culture and employee conflict. H1c states that adhocracy culture has an effect on employee conflicts. So the standardized path coefficient adhocracy culture➜ employee conflict was -0.16, the unstandardized coefficient was -0.213, t value -3.224 and the significance value 0.000. Thus hypothesis H1c has been accepted and the study established a negative relationship between the hierarchy culture and employee conflict. H1d states that clan culture has an effect on employee conflicts. So the standardized path coefficient clan culture➜ employee conflict was -0.10, the unstandardized coefficient was -0.087, t value -2.134 and the significance value 0.009. Thus hypothesis H1d has been accepted and the study established a negative relationship between the clan culture and employee conflict.

Table 4.14   Path Analysis for Structural Model 1

Path	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Hierarchy Culture➜ Employee Conflict	0.430	0.0603	7.143	0.000
Market Culture➜ Employee Conflict	0.520	0.044	11.744	0.000
Adhocracy Culture➜ Employee Conflict	-0.16	0.049	-3.224	0.000
Clan Culture➜ Employee Conflict	-0.10	0.046	-2.134	0.009

Discussion

Organizational culture often develops confusion in the organizational perspective (Bell, 2007; Peeters, Rutte, *et al.*, 2006; Peeters, Tuijl, *et al.*, 2006). Especially in the context of HEIs in Pakistan where the culture is more dynamic as compared to other sectors of the economy due to high level of students' intake and multicultural academic staff over the years. This shows the higher chances of emergence of conflicts among the employees of the HEIs in Pakistan.

The present study used four dimensions of the HEI culture based on the level of external or internal focus of the organization and organizational structure to determine the HEI culture type. Cameron and Quinn (2005), described quadruple culture approach based on organizational approach (Shafiq & Qureshi, 2014). Furthermore, hypotheses were developed to test the relationship of each cultural dimension with employee conflicts. First hypothesis states that the hierarchy culture has a relationship with employee conflicts. Results indicated that the hierarchy culture has a positive relationship with employee conflicts. Hierarchy culture limit low-ranking group members from voicing their opinions and concerns (Anicich

et al., 2015). This lack of participative voice can produce negative outcomes like employee conflicts. Another possible factor of the higher level of employee conflicts in the hierarchy culture is the employee sense of reduce feelings of psychological safety and they become more conservative about the group communication that enhance their conflicts with others and lower their performance (Guzzo & Dickson, 1996). In contrast, when hierarchies allow lower ranked individuals to speak up and share relevant information, groups can effectively identify critical errors and prevent them from having adverse consequences (Naveh *et al.*, 2006). Similarly, in the context of the Pakistani HEIs the employee conflict may arise if the HEIs tends to follow a hierarchy culture with the organization that limits the freedom of the expression and more towards a mechanical structure of the HEI. Moreover, the possibilities of relationship conflicts are higher in those organizations which focus on the mechanistic culture. Thus, hierarchy culture and market culture are more exposed to process and relationship conflicts rather than task conflicts. Thus, employee may have more conflicts as compare to the other organizational cultures.

Yet in the face of such conflict, some teams thrive, whereas others suffer. As team-based tasks continue to increase in popularity, it is imperative that an examination of the underlying boundary conditions be undertaken to better assess under which circumstances team performance improves because of conflict, or the negative effects of conflict are minimized.

The results of the hypothesis indicated that he adhocracy culture has negative relationship with employee conflicts. This is the reason most of the modern organizations are adapting the adhocracy culture that allow them to be more innovative (Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara & Ting-Ding, 2016). The main characteristics of the adhocracy culture are found in hotels that focus on external aspects but seek a high degree of flexibility and innovation. Most of the employees perceive the hotel as a dynamic and entrepreneurial place that emphasizes innovation and progress (Hartnell *et al.*, 2011). Thus, adhocracy HEI culture can lead employees support each other to stay in the frontline, they are willing to be daring and like to take risks. Due to their idealistic and novel vision, which leads the staff to be creative and take risks, adhocracy values are expected to have a positive effect on workplace relationship quality. Thus, the employee conflicts may be reduced. Chuang *et al.* (2004) offered a model of conflict based on the homogeneity of members' values within an organization. They argued that organizations whose members held diverse interpretations of organizational values were more likely to experience conflict than organizations with a more homogenous set of value interpretations. This suggests a dichotomy that is salient to this study: conflict is more likely to develop in innovative organizations than other types. The characteristics of innovative organizations, i.e. individual achievement and entrepreneurial drive, suggest a diversity of values and personal goals create an environment for conflict to develop. Supporting this contention, Goncalo and Staw (2006) found that organizational cultures stressing individual achievement and creative innovation were more likely to experience destructive conflict and opportunism. Based on these studies, innovative organizations are expected to have a higher incidence of conflict relative to hierarchy and clan organizations.

Finally, the last hypothesis suggested that he clan culture can be useful in lowering the employee conflicts in HEIs of Pakistan. The clan culture of HEIs refers to the internal integration focus and organic or flexible organizational structure. This type of HEI culture is vulnerable to the task conflicts. However, the chances of the emergence of relationship and process conflicts are also higher. Innovative or adhocracy culture is more focused on differentiation or external focus and welcomes the new ideas and methods in the HEIs, thus higher chances of task conflicts in the innovative culture of the HEIs.

Limitations of the Study: Probability sampling technique was used in this research, selected 266 respondents from HEIs of Pakistan and by referral that limits its generalizability. Interpretive errors could ascend because of diversity in the level of the respondents in grasping the language in which survey was conducted. Furthermore, the present study is specific to the HEIs and may not be applicable in any other industry. Geographically, this study is specific to the HEIs of Pakistan but a small sample was taken to overcome the time and monetary limitations, thus as culture impacts employee attributes accordingly, so this study can be generalized to other counties and environments. Other industries and geographical places should replicate this research, rather generalizing the findings of the present study to another industry or another country. Cross sectional research, that is a onetime relationship of different variables, was studied in this research. According to Igbaria *et al.* (1997) cause and effect, longitudinal research can be performed, to reveal the before and after effects of an environmental change, on the same population and sample size, to analyze the impacts of treatment.

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