Thesis for the Degree of Master of Business Administration

The Effects of Informal Hoesik on Team-Member Exchange (TMX) and Knowledge Sharing in Korean Companies

by

Michelle Fadjar Boediman

Department of Business Administration

The Graduate School

Pukyong National University

February 2024

The Effects of Informal Hoesik on Team-Member Exchange (TMX) and Knowledge Sharing in Korean Companies

(한국 직장 내 회식이 팀원 간 교환관계와 지식 공유에 미치는 영향)

Advisor : Prof. Young Joe Kim

Co-Advisor : Prof. Heesun Chae

by

Michelle Fadjar Boediman

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

Master of Business Administration

in Department of Business Administration, The Graduate School,

Pukyong National University

February, 2024

The Effects of Informal Hoesik on Team-Member Exchange (TMX) and Knowledge Sharing in Korean Companies

A thesis

by

Michelle Fadjar Boediman

Approved by :

_____

(Chairman) Dr. Inyong Shin

_____

(Member) Dr. Heesun Chae

_____

(Member) Dr. Young Joe Kim

February, 2024

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

The Effects of Informal Hoesik on Team-Member Exchange (TMX) and Knowledge Sharing in Korean Companies

Michelle Fadjar Boediman

in Department of Business Administration,
The Graduate School,
Pukyong National University

Abstract

The cultural tradition of "Hoesik," where individuals gather for meals or drinks, deeply embeds itself within South Korean workplaces, fostering community, idea sharing, and social networks. Despite its significance, there have been only limited research exploring its impact on organizations and employees. This study addresses this gap by investigating hoesik's pervasive influence on team dynamics, specifically team-member exchange (TMX) and knowledge sharing in workplaces. Analyzing informal hoesik, known for its spontaneity and flexibility, the study explores its impact on relationship-building, TMX, and knowledge sharing.

Applying the social exchange theory (SET) and the too-much-of-a-good-thing effect (TMGT), this study examines a non-linear relationship between informal hoesik frequency with TMX and knowledge sharing. This study suggests a moderate amount of hoesik frequency will positively correlate to TMX and knowledge sharing, but over a certain point higher frequency will lead to negative outcomes. Furthermore, applying the self-determination theory, this study includes informal hoesik characteristics (autonomy and openness) as moderators that improve the primary relationships. Specifically, autonomy in participating in informal hoesik and open communication during these gatherings positively moderates the relationships between informal hoesik frequency, TMX, and knowledge sharing. Such as, individuals with higher levels of informal hoesik autonomy and openness may exhibit stronger relationships in this context.

The hypotheses in this study were tested using the data collected from an online survey involving 332 employees from Korean companies. The findings revealed a non-linear relationship between informal hoesik frequency towards TMX and knowledge sharing, displaying a decreasing trend beyond a certain threshold of hoesik frequency. Among the four moderation effects examined, openness significantly moderated the nonlinear relationship between frequency of hoesik and knowledge sharing and TMX. Individuals with higher levels of openness exhibited stronger relationships with a less pronounced diminishing trend.

The present findings hold substantial significance in the existing literature, offering valuable insights into Korean hoesik culture and its influence on member exchanges and knowledge sharing. This study expands on prior research by shedding light on hoesik's broader impact, emphasizing its role in shaping employee exchange behaviors and knowledge sharing, beyond its traditionally understood negative aspects. In addition, by utilizing social exchange theory and TMGT, it uncovers how informal hoesik frequency influences member exchanges, warning against excessive sessions and highlighting the moderating influence of hoesik characteristics. Furthermore, this research fills gaps by identifying structural issues within hoesik culture and recommending avenues for improvement. It also contributes to the TMX and knowledge sharing literature by exploring how this unique cultural practice affects organizational behaviors.

The practical implications underscore the need for balancing hoesik frequency, promoting open communication during hoesik gatherings, and adapting these practices to evolving perspectives. These insights offer the potential to enhance hoesik practices and positively impact team dynamics and knowledge sharing within organizational settings. Although there are several limitations, including a cross-sectional design and reliance on self-reporting, this study significantly progresses our comprehension of hoesik culture by exploring its connection to organizational exchange behavior. The compelling outcomes of this research are expected to contribute to inspire further investigation, encouraging a more profound exploration of how hoesik culture shapes organizational dynamics and influences employee behaviors.

Keyword : Hoesik, Team-member Exchange (TMX), Knowledge sharing, Autonomy, Openness

I. Introduction

1. Research Background

Hoesik, or hwisik, is a deeply ingrained cultural tradition within South Korean organizations and enterprises. "Hoesik" refers to gatherings where people come together to share a meal or drink (Im, 2018). From an organizational perspective, hoesik serves as a social event where employees congregate to encourage idea exchange and nurture social networks. The company or higher-ranking individuals often sponsor hoesik to facilitate communication among team members (Cakar & Kim, 2015). Korean society has a strong sense of community, emphasizing the notion that "our company people are like one family." In a society that favors gatherings over solitude, hoesik has evolved into an unchanging community culture (Kwak & Hong, 2008). However, this gathering culture is only partially seen as a positive culture. South Korean Hoesik culture traditionally embodies a non-coercive atmosphere characterized by late-night discussions about work-related matters or personal concerns over drinks. This distinctive cultural practice is an integral and unchanging part of the Korean lifestyle and work culture (Im, 2018; Lee, 2017). In a survey conducted by 'Saramin' in 2017 on why people are dissatisfied with hoesik, 52% responded, 'I had to be with an uncomfortable person,' 63,8% responded, 'because I could not have personal time after work.' In addition to that, 50,9% responded because it interfered with my work the next day, and 35.5% responded 'because of low alcohol consumption.' 56.6%, or 1 out of 2 people, are stressed because of hoesik, and 6 out of 10 people feel burdened (Saramin, 2017).

Notwithstanding these varying viewpoints, hoesik culture remains perceived as an essential and unchanging element of Korean organizational culture. It is widely believed that hoesik is necessary to manage relationships among colleagues and superiors (Lee, 2017). Despite its significance, few research studies have dived on hoesik culture, particularly its influence on organizations and employees (Jeong, 2022; Shim, 2017; Lee, 2017). Recent years have witnessed a handful of studies dedicated to South Korean hoesik culture, often highlighting its potential negative consequences on work-life balance and employee well-being (Lee, 2017; Shim, 2017; Cakar & Kim, 2015). There is research on the different reactions towards drinking parties and

understanding the function of alcohol-induced social gathering (Lee. et al., 2006; Lee. et al., 2007), Korean drinking culture in the workplace (Cakar & Kim, 2015), hoesik from women point of view (Seo, 2005), hoesik paradigm change (Shim, 2017).

Lee (2017) and Jeong (2022) focus on an organization's hoesik culture toward human resources. Lee's research examined the non-coercive hoesik culture's effect on one's intention to quit, and Jeong investigated police members' perception of improving hoesik culture. As we can see, the multifaceted nature of hoesik gatherings has yet to be fully explored, particularly concerning their original goal and positive impact on team dynamics and sharing behavior within organizational settings. Although much research mentions how hoesik brings people together and builds exchange relationships (e.g., Jeong, 2022; Im, 2018; Lee, 2017; Shim, 2017; Cakar & Kim, 2015), there is no actual research on the subject. This study aims to bridge this gap by delving into the positive effects of hoesik. In order to uncover the positive aspects of hoesik, we have taken a deeper look at certain critical components in the realm of organizational behavior. Building on the primary objective of hoesik as team dynamics and sharing behavior, we focus on team-member exchange (TMX) and knowledge sharing—a topic widely discussed in organizational management research.

Hoesik can be categorized into formal and informal styles. Formal hoesik is characterized by its structured and formalized framework. In contrast, informal hoesik is characterized by a spontaneous approach and flexibility, encouraging the employees to release stress and associate with the team over food and drinks (Im, 2018). Informal hoesik events, as mentioned, would serve as an opportunity for employees to build and strengthen their relationships (Oh, Chung & Labianca, 2004). This study brought a new direction of analyzing hoesik by distinguishing the two designs of hoesik and delved into the socialization aim of informal hoesik events. An informal hoesik event is an informal socialization tool for sharing information, building personal relationships, and strengthening group norms and values in a non-working environment (Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Van Maneen, 1978). Additionally, it serves as a stimulant for enhanced team synergy by fostering casual exchanges among team members, enabling the sharing of narratives and past encounters, and potentially fostering greater cooperation and mutual comprehension within the work environment (Oh, 2002; Kim, 2014).

This study uses social exchange theory to argue that informal hoesik frequency will lead to TMX and knowledge sharing among employees. Social exchange theory explains how individuals base their actions and decisions by evaluating the benefits and costs of their actions and would likely behave towards the expected rewards (Blau, 1964). Frequent informal hoesik events foster a network of stronger connections beyond the workplace, cultivating solidarity, reciprocity norms, and heightened trust among team members, discouraging self-serving behaviors in line with social exchange theory (Granovetter, 1985; Krackhardt, 1999; Portes & Sensenbrenner, 1993). This heightened sense of reciprocity norms and trust, rooted in social exchange theory, encourages knowledge sharing among group members and fuels an expectation that this shared knowledge will eventually circulate within the group (e.g., Edmondson, 1999; Kramer et al., 2001).

Furthermore, Team-Member Exchange (TMX) embodies this concept of social exchange within a team context, illustrating how team members assess reciprocity in their contributions and what they receive in return from colleagues (Seers et al., 1995). This exchange dynamic within the team underscores the significance of frequent informal hoesik gatherings in fostering a culture of support and recognition among team members (Banks et al., 2014). Past studies emphasize the pivotal role of workplace relationships in fostering both TMX and knowledge-sharing, highlighting that close relationships among employees cultivate a readiness to assist and support fellow team members, positively influencing both TMX and knowledge-sharing behaviors (Sias et al., 2012; Sias &Gallager, 2009).

However, as mentioned above - surveys and research indicate that employees do not consistently find these gatherings enjoyable. Many perceive hoesik as time-consuming and burdensome, impacting their time negatively. This suggests that the connection between hoesik frequency, TMX, and knowledge sharing may not follow a straightforward positive linear pattern. This research seeks to unravel the complex balance where the regularity of social gatherings amplifies positive interactions while avoiding the tipping point where excess begins to disturb the intended benefits. Consequently, this study explores the optimal configuration for hoesik events and the reasons behind the negative perceptions associated with these gatherings.

Too much of a good thing (TMGT) effect highlights how surpassing a certain threshold with predictor variables can yield unnecessary surplus or negative consequences like decreased individual

or organizational performance (Pierce & Aguinis, 2013). Regarding informal hoesik frequency, excessive sessions may compromise employee well-being and disrupt their work (Jeong, 2022; EMBRAIN, 2020; 2022). In addition, an excessive number of these gatherings may result in overly familiar and redundant social connections. Continuous engagement with the same social circle may reach a point where the information shared becomes less novel and diverse, limiting exposure to diverse insights and resources beyond that immediate circle, hindering access to innovation, and reducing motivation for knowledge sharing (Granovetter, 1973; Burt, 2004; Novoselova, 2017). Thus, this study discusses how the relationship between informal hoesik frequency towards TMX and knowledge sharing may be non-linear.

Lastly, considering other aspects of informal hoesik that could affect the relationship, we analyze how autonomy characteristics before and during informal hoesik may moderate the relationship between informal hoesik frequency, TMX, and knowledge sharing. Autonomy before the hoesik event refers to employees' freedom to participate. Meanwhile, autonomy during the event refers to the freedom of speech or openness for employees to exchange with each other. This study builds this argument by using self-determination theory. According to self-determination theory, basic psychological needs must be fulfilled for an individual to feel motivated-autonomy, competence, and relatedness- (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The two dependent variables in this study, TMX being the relationship aspects and knowledge sharing being the behavioral aspect, are related to self-determination theory (Gagné et al., 2019; Knee et al., 2013; Gagné, 2009; La Guardia & Patrick, 2008). Based on the SDT theory, greater autonomy is translated into greater openness and flexibility in relationships, while more control and pressure are related to higher distancing and avoidance, along with more negative effects on personal functioning (La Guardia & Patrick, 2008).

Therefore, the study proposes that moderate autonomy and openness within informal hoesik events will positively increase the relationship between informal hoesik frequency towards TMX and knowledge sharing. Jeong (2022) attempted to figure out this research question, yet their sampling within Korean police organizations limited the result. Different organization types and sectors could have different hoesik cultures and guidelines, so the research could only partially see the hoesik culture. Thus, we add theoretical contribution by answering this call-out to examine hoesik from a different point of view and using a bigger sampling by not focusing on one organization type or sector.

2. Research Questions

In this study I would like to investigate the impact of hoesik frequency on member-exchange and knowledge sharing behavior within South Korean organizations, with a specific emphasis on the relationship being a non-linear model, and whether hoesik characteristic – autonomy and openness- could change the outcome of the desired objectives. Through this study I would like to answer the following questions:

1. How does hoesik frequency impact the interpersonal relationships among employees and their sharing or exchange behavior?
2. Does hoesik frequency have a non-linear relationship towards TMX and knowledge sharing?
3. How does hoesik autonomy and openness moderate the relationship between hoesik frequency and favorable outcomes in organizational settings?

II. Theoretical Framework

1. Hoesik

1.1 Definition of Hoesik

Hoesik (會食) is written in the Chinese character for gathering, meaning, and eating, literally translated into 'a group of people gathering to eat together or 'a gathering' (Namuwiki). Hoesik was originally based on the work "Hoe-min" from the Joseon period (In, 2018). "Hoe-min" was shaped to foster a sense of unity among the monarchs and officials of the Joseon period. Over time, the prevalent interpretation transitioned from "Hoe-min" to "Hoesik." This transformation underscores that Hoesik is more than just an individual gathering, as it symbolizes the idea of the king and his subjects coming together to live and dine as one.

Hoesik culture, which is unavailable in the Western part of the globe, has caused much controversy within Korean society. However, there are only a few existing studies on the concept, reality, and history of Hoesik (Talantseva, 2018). Through previous studies, there have been similar yet different definitions of hoesik. For example, hoesik is defined by Lee (2017) as gathering in one place to eat and drink together or an act to have a meeting to eliminate factors that can decline work effectiveness (e.g., work stress, workplace conflicts) and increase teamwork or intimacy between members under the same group. Shim (2015) views hoesik as a culture-defining it as the behavior pattern of members who seek to promote unity among employees, share stories that could not be said during work, or clear up rumors, acting as a lubricant for work life and making life rich and beautiful. Jeong (2022), taking a similar concept of culture, defined hoesik culture as a behavior pattern or attitude shared by participants when several people eat together.

Other scholars mentioning hoesik in their studies take the view of the driving situation, explaining it as eating/drinking fests involving multiple rounds at multiple venues or drinking parties (Cha, 2012; Lee et al., 2006;2007; Park, 2009; Cakar & Kim; 2015). A similar expression in English will be *a company or staff get-together, a company dinner, a work-related dinner, a corporate dinner, a group dinner, a team dinner, a business dinner, a company outing, a company night out, and a staff dinner*. However, none of these expressions could fully express the true

meaning of hoesik. Get-togethers have an informal meaning rather than the meaning of hoesik. Business dinner refers to a formal dinner with guests and a company outing. However, similar in terms of gathering outside the company for unity, it is a more appropriate expression for a pep rally as it is mostly held outdoors in groups (In, 2018). In this study, I would like to take the original definition of hoesik being “a group of people gathering to eat together” and focus on it as an activity and behavior rather than a culture.

1.2 Similar Culture in Other Countries

Although hoesik culture is deeply rooted in South Korea, its essence of fostering social connections and strengthening professional relationships resonates far beyond its borders. Similar cultural phenomena, crafted to socialize and foster camaraderie, flourish globally. These diverse communal gatherings, such as Japan's 'nomikai,' China's 'gàn bēi,' and analogous customs in other nations, echo the spirit of hoesik while embodying unique cultural nuances (Noviana, 2018; Szto, 2013). In Japan, there is a similar concept called "nomikai" which involves after-work drinking parties where coworkers gather at izakayas (Japanese pubs) to socialize and bond outside of the office environment (Noviana, 2018). These gatherings are similar to hoesik in fostering team spirit and improving colleague relationships (McDonald & Sylvester, 2014). China also has similar work-related gatherings known as "gàn bēi" (干杯), which involve toasting and drinking with coworkers or business associates (Szto, 2013). These events often occur after work hours and serve as opportunities for networking and team bonding (Wang et al., 2023).

In Spain, there is the tradition of "sobremesa," where people linger at the table after a meal, engaging in conversation and bonding with family or friends (Talburt & Stewart, 1999). This tradition emphasizes the importance of socializing and spending quality time together (Randolph, 2018). Italy has a comparable custom called "aperitivo," a drink/light meal that takes place at the end of the workday as a kind of warm-up to dinner. It's a social gathering where friends or colleagues gather to relax, chat, and unwind after work (Schiller, 2022). In Germany, there is the concept of "Feierabend," which, according to the dictionary, signifies the end of the workday and the time to relax and socialize. People often gather at pubs or beer gardens to unwind and socialize with coworkers or friends (Gordon et al., 2012).

1.3 Several Issues on Hoesik

Looking back over the years, we can see how hoesik is deeply rooted within Korean organizations and how people's opinions change around it. Back in the 1980's hoesik started to have the image of drinking alcohol or binge drinking, influenced by Korean traditional army cultures (In, 2018). Influenced by traditional Korean military customs, individuals of lower rank traditionally felt compelled to drink in the presence of their superiors. This practice often involved heavy drinking, notably through the consumption of 'bomb shots' or 'poktanju,' which combined beverages like beer with spirits or soju with spirits (In, 2018). However, a shift occurred in the 1990s with the emergence of a movement promoting responsible drinking habits. This change was propelled by the IMF economic crisis, leading to a cultural trend of avoiding social gatherings centered around drinking (In, 2018).

According to In (2018), based on news around hoesik back in the 90s, the social atmosphere of the late 90s was characterized by the IMF economic crisis, which led to a decline in the people's consumption life, and most office workers did not have frequent hoesik. Even when they did have hoesik, they had to do 'Dutch pay' to reduce the burden on each other. Since early 1997, companies also have been rushing to implement competency performance systems. Therefore, the number of office workers who focus on investing in self-development instead of having hoesik after work has increased. On the other hand, there are still high-ranking people in large corporations who have company dinners two or three times a week, and the phenomenon of the rich getting richer while the poor get poorer has begun to become evident even at company dinners.

From early 2000 to 2004, there began to talk about issues such as mixing alcohol, glass passing, sexual harassment, et cetera., pushing companies and organizations to improve the hoesik culture, which is a typical male culture. According to a news report by HanKyung News back in 2006, The content of the campaign included six clauses, such as 'Do not force or encourage drinking,' 'Do not ignore sexual harassment,' and 'Do not go to decadent and entertainment establishments such as single bars and room salons that sexually objectify women.' et cetera. Changes in hoesik culture were noticeable by 2006; most young office workers preferred hoesik with music, leisure, and food instead of the traditional hoesik culture represented by alcohol (Herald Pop, 2006).

According to the results of a survey on hoesik culture in September 2006 conducted by Hana Financial Group on 1,150 employees of group companies through its company newsletter, the most preferred type of hoesik was a 'cultural type' hoesik where people enjoy movie, theater, or musicals. In particular, 97.1% of the respondents thought that cultural dinner parties help with team harmony by enabling in-depth conversations. Therefore, it was pointed out that 'well-being hoesik' is a development step from traditional hoesik and has become a new trend.

While the government and organizations continued building cultural hoesik, in September 2016, the South Korean government enforced a new law called the "Kim Young-ran law," an anti-corruption law aimed at curbing graft and promoting transparency in both the public and private sectors. The law specifically targets instances of bribery, influence-peddling, and other forms of corruption by regulating the giving and receiving of gifts or meals among public officials, journalists, and private sector employees (Jung et al., 2017). With the enactment of the Kim Young-ran law, companies attempted to revise their hoesik customs by decreasing after-work entertainment cultures and giving employees more freedom to whether or not to attend the events (Sun, 2016; In, 2018). Office workers have been influenced by this social atmosphere and are increasingly simplifying hoesik or using lunch hours to have hoesik. Lunchtime hoesik features food rather than alcohol; thus, anyone can participate without any pressure, and the employee attendance rate is high as personal schedules are less affected, which is a major advantage. In addition, holding a hoesik at lunchtime frees up dinner time and allows employees to lead their own lives more freely, making it popular among office workers (In, 2018).

Recently, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the Korean government implemented the law of no gathering after 8 o'clock to reduce infection and make sure people go home after finishing their work. However, at least 22% of the participants indicated that Hoesiks is "still ongoing" (Embrain, 2020), showing that hoesik is viewed not merely as a casual event for dining, socializing, and singing together but rather as a vital "ceremony" within organizations, akin to practices in quasi-kingdoms (Pak, 2021). For over two years, opportunities for hoesik decreased, creating a hiatus. This hiatus, marked by the absence of obligatory hoesik, served as an opportunity for a change in the perception of the hoesik culture (Embrain, 2020). Changes in the hoesik culture were detected in its frequency, evolving types, increased autonomy in participation methods, varying sizes, and a noticeable shift towards a

less alcohol-centric atmosphere. According to Jeong (2022), the frequency of these gatherings notably decreased, accompanied by a growing recognition that company dinners need not exclusively revolve around alcoholic beverages or elaborate meals. In addition, there is a growing participation in using digital technology, smaller group gatherings, and shorter hoesik duration. With this fast evolution of hoesik culture, there is a need for scholars and organizations to keep up with the current trend to understand the effect of hoesik and how it could affect organization members.

1.4 Variety of Hoesik

Following the evolution of hoesik culture, a notable transformation has occurred, shifting from its traditional focus solely on post-work drinking and dining to various cultural activities or communal meals without alcohol (Sun, 2016; In, 2018; Shim, 2017). Hoesik could be categorized based on their formats by reviewing surveys and research from 2016 to 2023. Foremost among these is the 'dinner hoesik,' representing the original form characterized by collective dining and alcohol consumption after working hours. Subsequently, the 'lunch hoesik' has gained prominence, utilizing the lunchtime slot for activities, enabling broader participation without encroaching on personal after-work hours. The burgeoning popularity of 'cultural hoesik' involves group gatherings to watch movies, theater performances, or musicals, marking a significant shift in recent years. Other variations encompass 'leisure/sports hoesik,' encompassing activities such as gaming, bowling, mountain climbing, fishing, or engaging in sports collectively. Lastly, 'experience hoesik' involves team members participating in theme park adventures or other immersive experiences.

Hoesik could also be broadly categorized into two distinct styles: formal and informal. Each style offers a distinct experience and serves varying purposes within Korean corporate culture. According to the formality and informality definition by Van Maneen (1978) and Irvine (1979), I establish the outline of formal and informal hoesik by how it is hosted and structured and its situational focus. Formal hoesik, as the name suggests, adheres to a structured and formalized framework. Hoesiks are often scheduled to coincide with specific company milestones or events, such as anniversaries or promotions (In, 2018). In the formal setting, there is a distinct emphasis on hierarchy. Superiors are expected to take the lead and make toasts, while employees typically

display a reserved demeanor, addressing their superiors with formal titles and expressions (Cha, 2012). Formal hoesik are known for their extravagance, often using significant expenses. Organizations usually supported the expenses for venues and food. Formal hoesik primarily serves as a platform to maintain and strengthen business relationships (In, 2018). It is an occasion for superiors to express gratitude and for subordinates to demonstrate respect and loyalty (Lee et al., 2007).

Informal hoesik, on the other hand, takes a more flexible and spontaneous approach. These gatherings can occur without prior scheduling, initiated by employees rather than being arranged by the company. Unlike formal hoesik, informal hoesik promotes equality and informality (Cakar & Kim, 2015) by having relaxed interactions among colleagues where addressing one another by first names is common. Informal hoesik allows colleagues to connect more personally, sharing stories and forming genuine friendships (Oh, 2002). Informal hoesik are generally more budget-friendly, with attendees often sharing expenses or contributing potluck-style dishes (In, 2018). It places a greater emphasis on the well-being of employees, intending to alleviate work-related stress, boost morale, and provide a platform for enjoyment, relaxation, and team bonding (Cakar & Kim, 2015). While formal hoesik serves its purpose during official recognition and structured goal-setting, informal hoesik is crucial in enhancing team cohesion, reducing stress, and fostering authentic social interaction among colleagues. Both styles of hoesik coexist in the Korean corporate landscape, each catering to specific needs and serving as integral components of the workplace culture. Despite their differences, no literature distinguishes the two hoesik styles to examine their effects despite their differences. This study acknowledges this gap in the literature and focuses on the effect of informal hoesik on organizational behavior.

1.5 Literature on Hoesik

Individualism and collectivism serve as fundamental dimensions that theoretically explain the variations in cultural orientation (Triandis & Harry, 2022); these orientations greatly influence attitudes towards hoesik. Hoesik is deeply entrenched in cultures emphasizing activity, typically associated with a collectivist orientation rather than individualistic values (Lee & Jae, 2002). In contrast, due to its strong individualistic cultural characteristics, the Western world lacks this communal dining concept, particularly with colleagues, superiors, and

subordinates (Jeong, 2022). A few research papers in Western societies explore the factors contributing to drinking subcultures. Cosper (1979) suggests that job identity, group cohesion, and age-related factors significantly contribute to the emergence of these subcultures. Additionally, Ames et al. (2000) highlight the pivotal role of coworkers, friends, and neighborhood connections in shaping drinking behaviors. Moreover, Trace and Sonnenstuhl (1988) argue that this drinking subculture intertwines with organizational culture, influencing normative behaviors and attitudes toward alcohol consumption within the workplace. However, finding a study related to formal or informal hoesik in the workplace, such as Korea, was difficult.

Similar to Western societies, academically, most research around hoesik focuses only on the drinking aspect and its effect, not the activity itself. Several studies have examined drinking behavior within organizations (Lee et al., 2006;2007; Park, 2009; Cakar & Kim, 2015; Talantseva, 2018). Lee et al.'s (2006,2007) and Park's (2009) studies examined the reasons for participation and consequences of drinking parties on working adults and undergraduates. The results show that most respondents participate due to friends' invitations and the outcomes of socializing with others. Talantseva (2018), Baek (1999), Kim (2005), and Jang (2016) researched different demographic characteristics, opinions, and effects towards hoesik, showing gender and nationality affecting the results differently. Other studies on drinking problems included how drinking behavior affects work performance and the relationship between workplace characteristics and worker drinking problems (Jae, 2010; Kim, 2015). Cakar and Kim's (2015) research highlighted how hoesik was important in workplace socialization, especially in Korean organizations. The study suggests that although through hoesik, colleagues often support and motivate each other while exchanging thoughts and expanding their social connections, frequent hoesik sessions and heavy drinking in hoesik settings pose a threat not just to the health of employees but also jeopardize the long-term viability of organizations.

In recent years, we have seen research on developing the hoesik culture; as such, it will bring positive outcomes for organizations (In, 2018; Lee, 2017; Shim, 2017; Jeong, 2022). In the (2018) research, the author suggested new ways to enhance hoesik for employees, such as cultural events, mainly by utilizing party-focused events. Reflecting the social trends and meeting the needs of employees would increase the satisfaction and loyalty of employees and strengthen the organization's

cohesion for improvements in work efficiencies. Lee's (2017) research examined the non-coercive hoesik culture effect on employees' job satisfaction and turnover intention. The result suggested that semi-coercive social gathering was negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to one's intention to quit, showing that the collectivist nature of hoesik culture is not truly accepted by employees. Shim (2017) did qualitative research on hoesik culture paradigm. The research analyzed the structural problems of hoesik and suggested an attainable model for better hoesik culture. From the research, we can see that the hoesik desired by employees includes get-togethers for sports or cultural activities besides drinking and hoesik, where the subordinate employees can select the menus, places, and schedules. The employees do not favor hoesik that ends too late and want to expand the social relationships by clarifying the purpose of hoesik.

Jeong (2022) investigated members of police organizations' perception of improving hoesik culture. The author derived six indicator factors from diagnosing hoesik culture: ' me factor,' 'cost factor,' and 'relationship improvement (dining effect). 'voluntary factor,' 'atmospheric factor,' and 'after-effect factor.' Analyzing the effect of the derived factors on the satisfaction of heosik culture shows that the 'time factor' had the greatest influence on hoesik satisfaction, followed by the 'after-effect factor' and 'cost factor'. The results suggest that there is a need for an attitude to accept the change in the company dinner culture according to the change of the times. Thus, research related to hoesik, one of Korea's unique organizational cultures, is limited. Studies mostly focused on alcohol consumption among employees and how drinking affects the health or work of employees, motives behind employees' drinking habits, and cultural differences in drinking based on generations or gender among employees (In, 2018). This shows the need for scholars to dig deeper into the problem and effect of hoesik on organizations and their members.

1.6 Hoesik as Organizational Socialization Tool

The organizational socialization process involves individuals acquiring the necessary social knowledge and skills to undertake specific roles within an organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Van Maanen, 1978). Organizational socialization encompasses the acquisition or enhancement of fresh competencies, insights, capabilities, perspectives, principles, and relationships, alongside the establishment

of suitable frameworks for interpreting and understanding within the organizational context (Chao et al., 1994a; Chatman, 1991; De Vos et al., 2003; Louis, 1980; Thomas & Anderson, 1998). Most research in this area concentrates on the socialization of new employees, yet a growing list of researchers suggested it should be regarded as a continuous learning process throughout an individual's career (Schein, 1971; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Chao et al., 1994; Cakar & Kim, 2015). Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) tactics model is widely used for comprehending organizational socialization. They identified six bipolar tactics used by organizations to shape the understanding of newcomers regarding their work roles: collective vs. individual, formal vs. informal, sequential vs. random, fixed vs. variable, serial vs. disjunctive, and investiture vs. divestiture. Hoesik can be characterized as collective since it involves a gathering of employees; informal because it allows for relaxed social interaction; random, non-linear, and disjunctive as it does not follow a set sequence or schedule; and divestiture because the shared group norms during these sessions could shape employee behaviors in alignment with organizational preferences (Cakar & Kim, 2015).

Saks and Ashforth (1997) suggest that building relationships with other coworkers and learning organizational norms could happen in "different events" and not only through formal training or orientation sessions. Van Maneen (1978) suggested that the formality of socialization depends on whether the socialization setting is work-related and how much the employee role is presented. According to Shim (2017), hoesik culture could be characterized as a practice aimed at fostering employee unity, promoting story-sharing, addressing unspoken workplace issues, facilitating work-life balance, and adding fulfillment to employees' lives. This characteristic of informal hoesik of sharing information, building personal relationships, and strengthening group norms and values in a non-working environment makes it an informal socialization event for employees, aligning with previous studies (Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Van Maneen, 1978). Hoesik also offers distinct advantages, notably in building strong interpersonal connections among colleagues. It provides a platform outside the office for interactions, fostering camaraderie and trust, ultimately contributing to a harmonious work environment (Alper, 2009). Moreover, it catalyzes improved team dynamics by facilitating relaxed interactions where team members share stories and experiences, potentially leading to enhanced

collaboration and mutual understanding in the workplace (Oh, 2002; Kim, 2014).

1.7 The Dark Side of Hoesik

Hoesik is known to have many positive sides other than being an organizational socialization tool, such as providing a valuable break from routine, helping employees to unwind and alleviate stress, improving employees' overall well-being, and maintaining the cultural significance of South Korean organizational values (Kwak & Hong, 2008; Cakar & Kim, 2015; Lee et al. 2006,2007; Park & Lee, 2011). However, there are challenges associated with hoesik. It often intertwines with drinking culture and can extend late into the night, creating employee fatigue, disrupting their work-life balance, and perpetuating a culture of organizational subservience beyond formal work hours (Lee, 2017). Attendance may feel obligatory, causing pressure and potential disengagement, particularly among younger employees who view it as an extension of work rather than genuine social interaction (Park & Lee, 2011). Criticism of hoesik also centers on its association with alcohol consumption. Frequent binge drinking during hoesik sessions poses threats to productivity and well-being, contributing to work-life imbalance and reduced family time among employees (OECD, 2013; Chae, 2015). Additionally, it can reinforce hierarchical structures, promoting group identity while sidelining individual differences and isolating non-participants (Lee, 2004).

The pressure to participate in hoesik can have professional and social implications, affecting friendships, access to information, and career progress (Park & Kim, 2010). This participation often feels compelled rather than a genuine choice, underlining the challenge of balancing work and personal life due to hoesik's obligations (Park & Lee, 2011). There are even instances of extreme consequences, including tragic accidents due to excessive alcohol consumption during these gatherings (Jeon, 2013; Kim, 2013; Shin, 2015; Kim, 2014). hoesik embodies both positive and negative aspects of South Korean corporate culture. While it facilitates strong relationships, teamwork, and stress relief, hoesik also presents challenges through forced participation, alcohol-centric rituals, and a lack of open communication. Striking a balance between upholding its cultural significance and addressing employees' needs is crucial for hoesik's evolution. Encouraging unity and

togetherness must align with respecting individual employee choices and preferences.

2. Team-member Exchange (TMX)

2.1 The Concept of TMX

TMX explores the reciprocal exchange mechanism wherein an individual contributes to a team while simultaneously receiving contributions from the team (Seers, 1989). Within this exchange dynamic, team members offer ideas, feedback, and support to each other, establishing a mutual give-and-take relationship (Seers, 1989). The fundamental premise in TMX studies is that employees perceive their team based on its collective identity, treating the team as a unified psychological entity (Jacobs, 1970; Seers, 1989). In other words, TMX focuses on interactions with the entire team rather than individual interactions among team members (Banks et al., 2014; Seers, 1989). TMX, originally conceived as a team-oriented counterpart to leader-member exchange (LMX) (Seers, 1989), is a relational leadership approach that delves into the distinctive dyadic exchange connection between a leader and a follower (Graen, 1976). However, there exist three key distinctions between these two constructs.

Firstly, TMX theory operates under the premise that employees perceive their team as a cohesive psychological entity (Seers, 1989). As opposed to leader-member exchange (LMX; Graen, 1976), which is centered on dyadic relationships, TMX investigates the perceived exchange between an employee and the entirety of their team, considering the team as a unified whole. Second, TMX and LMX differ in the nature of resources involved in their exchanges. While both leaders and team members can share ideas, guidance, and assistance (Graen, 1976; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Seers, 1989), leaders can provide organizational resources like promotions, salary increases, and bonuses to employees (Liao et al., 2010). However, as team members lack access to these resources, TMX tends to evoke fewer emotional responses and fairness concerns than LMX (Liao et al., 2010).

Lastly, TMX exhibits distinct effects on certain outcomes beyond what is attributed to LMX (Banks et al., 2013; Liao et al., 2010). For instance, TMX shows a notable additional influence, surpassing LMX, on factors such as self-efficacy (Liao et al., 2010), creativity (Liao et al.,

2010), organizational commitment (Banks et al., 2013), and job satisfaction (Banks et al., 2013). Consequently, although both constructs involve reciprocal exchanges fostering a sense of mutual give-and-take, developing an individualized comprehension of TMX and LMX becomes crucial because each holds distinct significance and impact within the organizational context. TMX was initially built as a concept operating at the individual level, where each team member has a distinct perception of their exchange relationships (Seers, 1989). However, as research evolved, it has become increasingly evident that TMX holds significant implications not only for individual performance and achievement (Banks et al., 2013) but also for the overall functioning and success of the team (e.g., Jordan et al., 2002; Alge et al., 2013). Thus, again, the importance of TMX research within organizational studies is underlined.

2.2 TMX Structure and Measurements

According to Seers' (1989) conceptualization, Tse and Dasborough (2008) build qualitative research to extinguish two types of Team-Member Exchanges (TMX): task-oriented and relation-oriented exchanges (Tse & Dasborough, 2008). Task-oriented Exchanges involve sharing ideas, providing feedback, and exchanging information and knowledge, while relation-oriented exchanges include assistance, empathy, support, shared values, intimate relationships, personal sharing, friendships, and encouragement (Tse & Dasborough, 2008). They suggested that low-quality TMX primarily comprises a limited number of task-centric exchanges, whereas high-quality TMX encompasses task-oriented and relation-oriented interactions (Tse et al., 2008). In high-quality TMX settings, relationships foster recognition, appreciation, encouragement, mutual respect, and trust among team members. At the same time, low-quality TMX tends to lack mutual respect, trust, and cooperative interactions among team members (Love & Forret, 2008).

However, based on Seers' (1989) view and Seers's (1995) definition, TMX can be identified into three dimensions: meeting, exchange, and cohesiveness. The meeting dimension of TMX relates to the efficiency of team gatherings. These meetings are pivotal avenues for team members to exchange information, propose ideas, offer recommendations, and collectively address issues (Seers, 1989). Meeting effectiveness is gauged by the purposefulness of team meetings, ensuring effective organization and achieving desired

outcomes (Jiang & Chen, 2018). The exchange dimension signifies a mutually reciprocal interaction involving both a team member and the team itself (Seers et al., 1995). This interaction involves team members willingly and spontaneously offering support, feedback, and sharing ideas. In return, these members receive information, aid, and acknowledgment from their team counterparts (Seers, 1989). Essentially, exchange represents the collaborative actions of team members learning from each other and openly communicating their emotions, thoughts, and viewpoints (Chiaburu et al., 2013).

Cohesiveness signifies a sense of togetherness, encompassing cooperation, commitment, and positive interdependence among team members (Abu Bakar & Sheer, 2013). Cohesion can also be divided into emotional and goal-oriented tool cohesion, which is essential for efficient teamwork (Tziner & Vardi, 1982). Seers (1989) suggested that the combined three dimensions form the essence of TMX. He developed a measuring scale comprising 18 items, with the exchange dimension encompassing 10 items, while the meeting and cohesion dimensions each included four items (Seers, 1989). However, in the newer research, Seers et al. (1995) contended that the exchange dimension is the most dependable predictor for assessing the TMX concept. Thus, in their 1995 study, only 11 measurement items were utilized to gauge TMX quality. Half of these 11 items evaluated the contributions made by members to the team, while the other half assessed the support received by members of the team. This study used the same measurement to focus on the exchange between team members.

2.3 TMX and Social Exchange Theory

Scholars have been using different theories to explore the mechanism of TMX, such as social exchange theory (Chae, 2015; Monica Hu et al., 2012; Farmer et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014; Liao et al., 2013), reciprocity theory (Chae, 2015; Monica Hu et al., 2012), social interaction theory (Lam, 2022; Sherony & Green, 2022), social identity theory (Farmer et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2014), Social Network Theory (Abu Bakar & Sheer, 2013), social interdependence theory (de Jong et al., 2014), cooperation and competition theory (Wang et al., 2014), fairness and social comparison theory (Herdman et al, 2014) et cetera. Of all the theories applied in TMX research, social exchange theory and reciprocity theory stand out as the most commonly used.

Social exchange theory forms the pillar of TMX by highlighting how interactions among team members foster mutual commitment and obligation over time. Social exchange theory examines social behavior through an economic lens, emphasizing the relationship between input and output (Blau, 1964). This theory redefines interpersonal communication as a form of social exchange, highlighting the pursuit of benefits and avoidance of harm as fundamental human behavior drivers. Within interactions, individuals strive to maximize benefits and satisfaction and minimize costs or sacrifices, ultimately rooted in self-interest (Blau, 1964). Social exchange theory centers on long-term, unspoken obligations, promoting socialization in both personal and professional realms. It underscores the exchange of trust, assistance, and feedback between individuals, fostering mutual obligations and trust within informal relationships (Haynie, 2012; O'Connor & Crowley, 2012). This theory elucidates the ongoing exchange of resources among individuals. It suggests that a higher perceived quality of workplace exchanges corresponds to a greater inclination toward altruistic behaviors within these relationships (Loi et al., 2009).

The theory of reciprocity, created from social exchange theory, emphasizes the reciprocal norm as a fundamental principle within social exchange relationships and is extensively employed in organizational research (Zhang et al., 2015). This theory posits that individuals tend to reciprocate actions based on what others have done to them. For instance, in response to support and assistance received, an individual might engage in cooperative and altruistic behaviors, known as positive reciprocal actions, while negative treatment might evoke negative responses from individuals (Monica Hu et al., 2012). In organizational research, reciprocity serves as a potent motivator significantly influencing employees' behaviors (Fehr & Kirchsteiger, 1997). It promotes consistency in collective actions and motivates organizational behaviors, contributing to organizational performance (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). Therefore, we can point out that TMX embodies a social exchange behavior rooted in reciprocity.

2.4 Antecedents of TMX

TMX, or Team Member Exchange, is influenced by various factors that play important roles in shaping the quality of interactions among team members. These influencing factors are divided into three aspects: individual, team, and situational. Individual levels include

workplace friendship, emotional intelligence, team orientation, organizational justice, and leader-member exchange. Workplace friendship refers to the development of close relationships within the workplace, fostering a willingness among employees to collaborate and spend time working together as colleagues (Sias et al., 2012; Sias & Avdeyeva, 2009). Empirical findings reveal that establishing friendships beyond formal associations leads to mutual assistance and support among individuals, significantly enhancing the quality of TMX with other team members (Banks et al., 2014; Schermuly & Meyer, 2016).

According to Palmer et al. (2012) and Mayer et al. (2012), emotional intelligence refers to an individual's capacity to manage emotions, comprehend others' feelings, and regulate their emotional responses. Higher emotional intelligence enables individuals to navigate relationships effectively, potentially fostering superior TMX by facilitating better team connections (Brackett et al., 2006). Team orientation; team-oriented individuals demonstrate a strong commitment to team goals and effective collaboration within a team setting (Chen et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2014; Mohamed & Angell, 2004). Research indicates that team-oriented members contribute positively to teamwork and can significantly influence the overall team dynamics, potentially enhancing the quality of TMX (Mohamed & Angell, 2004).

Organizational justice emphasizes fair treatment within an organization based on individual abilities, experiences, and contributions (Bjerkness & Cheng, 2014; Greenberg, 1990). A strong sense of organizational justice cultivates positive colleague relationships, contributing to optimistic and constructive TMX (Murphy et al., 2003; Hubbell & Assad, 2005; Bjerknes & Cheng, 2014). Leader-member exchange between supervisor and subordinates could be an example to the work team (Herdman et al., 2014). Suppose a leader forms a high or low-quality LMX connection with employees A and B. In that case, it will subsequently influence the development of high or low-quality TMX relationships among employees A and B, aligning with the established LMX relationship (Sherony & Green, 2002). This suggests that the exchange dynamics between leaders and other team members could directly impact the exchange relationships among team members themselves (Hooper & Martin, 2008)

In the team level we have team characteristic and group cohesion. Team can be divided into four types according to time and duration of the team's establishment: future team, past team, long-term team, and temporary team (Alge et al., 2003). Alge et al. (2003) highlighted that

individuals within long-term teams tend to invest greater time and effort in fostering interpersonal connections. Members of such long-term teams are more inclined to share information, offer guidance and feedback when needed, and provide assistance to team members facing challenges. This inclination indicates a higher likelihood of developing high-quality TMX (Alge et al., 2003). Furthermore, team size can impact TMX relationships (Ismail et al., 2012). In larger teams, given the constraints of time and energy among team members, individuals may develop higher-quality TMX relationships with specific members while maintaining lower-quality relationships with others (Gajendran & Aparna, 2012). Group Cohesion, defined as a dynamic process which is reflected in the tendency for a group to stick together and remain united in the pursuit of its instrumental objectives and/or for the satisfaction of member affective needs (Carron et al., 1998). Research indicates that group cohesion enhances the exchange of information and resources among members, increasing the probability of team members engaging in additional supportive actions, like assisting others (Marziali et al.,1997). As a result, this contributes to the enhancement of the quality of TMX (Team Member Exchange) relationships.

Situational factors influencing TMX is task characteristics and leadership style. Tasks that demand information exchange, knowledge sharing, and complex problem-solving tend to foster higher-quality TMX (Chae et al., 2015; George et al., 2016). Increased task complexity and innovation correlate with heightened TMX relationships, indicating that intricate and innovative tasks often stimulate more robust exchanges among team members (George et al., 2016; Hoegl & Gemuenden, 2001). Leadership style; different leadership styles impact TMX in various ways. Transformational leadership, focusing on engaging subordinates with team objectives and inspiring creativity and dedication, fosters a conducive environment for effective TMX (Zheng, Xie & Wu, 2017; Huang, Duan & Zhao, 2014; Zou et al., 2015). According to Zou et al. (2015) service leadership is effective in fostering a compassionate team environment by reinforcing team identification, a shared vision, and collaborative activities. This leadership style instills a sense of obligation and responsibility among individuals to offer support and aid to their fellow team members. In this study I would like to examine the individual factor to induce TMX through workplace friendship, building on the nature of informal hoesik of socialization and communication, providing opportunities for individuals to build the relationship outside work environment.

3. Knowledge Sharing

3.1 Knowledge Definition and Knowledge Management Process

Knowledge, often depicted as the cumulative repository of ideas, experiences, beliefs, and emotions within a society or an organization (Satija, 2008), embodies a multifaceted essence. Davenport and Prusak (1998) portray knowledge as a fluid amalgamation of framed experiences, values, contextual information, and expert insights that furnishes a framework for assimilating new information. They emphasize its origin and application within the minds of individuals. Nonaka (1994) argue that knowledge is essentially a justified true belief that enhances an entity's capability to act effectively. Borgatti & Cross (2003) classify knowledge into distinct categories: "know what" pertains to content, "know how" refers to processes, and "know who" involves knowledge about one's network, including oneself, in achieving a goal (Soekijad, 2005). Moreover, the differentiation between explicit and tacit knowledge, highlighted by Nonaka & Takeuchi (1996), is significant. Explicit knowledge, being expressible and encodable, is relatively straightforward to convey, while tacit knowledge remains internal to individuals and cannot be easily articulated. For instance, explaining the intricate details of riding a bike is challenging; instead, one can create conditions that enable others to develop this skill themselves (Klein, 2008).

A consensus among various authors (Nonaka, 1994; Brown & Duguid, 2001; Grover & Davenport, 2001) underscores that knowledge originates in human minds, is context-specific, and evolves dynamically through social interactions and networks. Recognizing knowledge as the paramount resource of organizations (Grant, 1996; Davenport & Prusak, 1998) has led to the emergence of knowledge management—an area focused on effectively capturing, storing, and disseminating this valuable resource within organizations. Cabrera and Cabrera (2005) draw a parallel between societal and organizational prosperity, highlighting that just as societies thrive on exchanging ideas and experiences, organizations flourish when knowledge flows freely among their members. Within knowledge literature, individual knowledge is deemed the most fundamental knowledge, as the organization's employees own knowledge, and only individuals can possess and analyze the knowledge

(Nonaka, 1994; Polanyi & Sen, 1983; Blackler, 1995; Huber, 1991). This underscores the important role of knowledge management in both societal and organizational contexts as a catalyst for growth and development.

Knowledge management encompasses the strategic handling of knowledge within organizations, including activities like gathering, converting, applying, and protecting internal and external knowledge assets (Gold et al., 2001). Lytras et al. (2002) further emphasize its systematic nature, emphasizing the explicit application of knowledge to enhance organizational effectiveness and extract value from knowledge assets. This approach fosters innovation, augments performance, and enhances customer value. In essence, knowledge management involves the systematic process of acquiring, storing, sharing, and utilizing both implicit and explicit knowledge among employees, which is crucial for their tasks (Schultze & Leidner, 2002; Alavi et al., 2005; Massey & Montoya-Weiss, 2006). The primary objective of knowledge management is to facilitate organizations in recognizing their knowledge resources and shape that knowledge to optimize its effective and efficient utilization (Newell et al., 2004; Alavi et al., 2005). Effective knowledge management system typically goes through four main steps: knowledge creation, knowledge storage, knowledge sharing, and knowledge application (Turner et al., 2012; Fong & Choi,2009; Zaim, 2006; Kayworth & Leidner, 2004).

Knowledge creation or acquisition involves introducing new knowledge or updating the existing knowledge within an organization, encompassing both explicit and implicit knowledge. This requires seeking new information and insights from both internal and external sources (Chen & Edgington, 2005; Cepeda-Carrion et al., 2012). This process holds substantial importance as it fosters innovation and serves as a vital contributor to an organization's ongoing success (Bhatt, 2000; Malhotra, 2000). Knowledge storage involves organizing and maintaining this knowledge to ensure easy accessibility (Massey & Montoya-Weiss, 2006; Heisig, 2009; Ling et al., 2009). According to Nemati (2002), knowledge storage is crucial for effective usage and the ability to reuse knowledge. Knowledge sharing is exchanging and distributing knowledge among individuals or networks, within groups, or from individuals to explicit sources (Alavi et al., 2005). This is an important process of KM in organizational settings; organizations must ensure the transformation of tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge to prevent losing the tacit knowledge (Ko et al., 2005; Massey & Montoya-Weiss,

2006; Eskerod & Skriver, 2007; Ajmal & Koskinen, 2008; Pirkkalainen & Pawlowski, 2013). Lastly, knowledge application refers to using knowledge to build strategic directions, address problems and decision-making, enhance efficiency, and minimize expenses (Markus et al., 2002; Orlikowski, 2002).

3.2 The Concept of Knowledge Sharing

Within the knowledge management process, knowledge sharing has been recognized as a primary issue in knowledge management. According to Ipe (2003), knowledge sharing among individuals involves transforming an individual's knowledge into a format that others can comprehend, absorb, and utilize. Using the term 'sharing' suggests that presenting one's knowledge in a way usable by others requires conscious action by the individual possessing that knowledge. Similarly, Srivastava (2006) enhances it into a team environment, defining knowledge sharing as a process where team members share task-relevant ideas, information, and suggestions. King (2006) expands this concept, defining it as the knowledge exchange among individuals, teams, and organizations. Meanwhile, Bosua & and Scheepers (2007) describe knowledge sharing as a two-way process involving learning by observation, listening and asking, sharing ideas, giving advice, recognizing cues, and adopting behavior patterns.

For this research, the definition by Srivastava is adopted as it emphasizes the interactive nature of knowledge sharing. King (2006) also distinguishes the concept of knowledge sharing from knowledge transfer, a common misunderstanding in knowledge management studies. They pointed out that transfer implies focus and unidirectional nature, while knowledge sharing has a multidirectional and open nature without a specific objective. Ipe (2003) suggested a crucial difference between knowledge sharing among individuals and knowledge transfer, which is used mostly for knowledge movement between larger entities in organizations. They added that understanding individual knowledge sharing is fundamental in grasping the broader organizational knowledge sharing processes.

While Argote, McEvily & and Reagans (2003) highlight factors such as ability, motivation, and opportunity influencing knowledge sharing, Ipe (2003) focuses on four key factors: the nature of knowledge, motivation, opportunities, and work environment culture. The nature of knowledge significantly impacts its sharing, whether explicit or tacit, and

its perceived value influences whether individuals are inclined to share it. Motivation to share involves both internal and external factors. While internal factors include perceived power from knowledge and the reciprocity that results from sharing, external factors come from relationships with the recipient and rewards for sharing. Opportunities to share explains how knowledge sharing could be formal (e.g., training programs, structured work teams, and technology-based systems) or informal (e.g., personal relationships, social networks). The work environment culture plays a pivotal role, as the overall organizational culture shapes the factors above influencing knowledge sharing. Ipe's (2003) research also highlights that informal channels are primary in sharing knowledge, significantly influenced by the prevailing culture within the work environment.

3.3 Knowledge Sharing and Social Exchange Theory

Several theories have been applied to study knowledge-sharing behavior; some of the most commonly used theories are the theory of reasoned action (TRA), the theory of planned behavior (TPB), social capital theory and social exchange theory (SET) (Wang & Noe, 2010). Among these theories, SET is the most commonly used to explain knowledge-sharing behavior due to its fundamental premise of reciprocity in exchanges (Liang et al.,2008). SET perceives knowledge sharing as an activity driven by the anticipation of reciprocal benefits. Thibaut and Kelley (1959) argue that individuals participate in social exchanges expecting reciprocity, aiming for improved reputation, influence over others, altruistic tendencies, and a perception of effectiveness, along with direct rewards. To support that theory, Davenport and Prusak (1998) have highlighted several perceived benefits that influence individuals' decisions to share knowledge, such as potential future reciprocation, status elevation, job security, and career advancement. Therefore, knowledge sharing tends to increase when individuals anticipate receiving certain future benefits through reciprocal actions (Cabrera and Cabrera, 2005). Chiu et al. (2006) investigated how interpersonal factors like social interaction, trust, and the norm of reciprocity impact knowledge sharing behaviors.

In their meta-analysis of the correlation between knowledge-sharing behavior and social exchange factors, Liang et al. (2008) examined intrinsic motivation, organizational commitment, social interaction, trust, organizational support, and rewards system as the

social exchange factors influencing knowledge-sharing behavior. The study's results revealed a positive association between social exchange factors and knowledge sharing, aligning with the theory's predictions. Most constructs within the social exchange theory showed a capacity to influence an individual's knowledge-sharing behavior. Notably, organizational commitment exhibited the highest correlation among the social exchange factors. Within interpersonal factors, trust emerged as the most influential factor driving individuals to share their knowledge. In addition, examining the moderating role of IT facilitation, the study shows that IT facilitation moderates social interaction and trust, showing the importance of face-to-face socialization between members.

3.4 Antecedents of Knowledge Sharing

Based on the recent literature review on knowledge sharing behavior by Hidayat et al. (2023), this section summarized the antecedents of knowledge sharing behavior studies into two categories: individual and organizational. Individual factors include behaviors, emotions, and interpersonal connections that contribute to the organizational culture. On the other hand, organizational factors pertain to the organizational culture and its support for knowledge-sharing behavior among its employees. The review lists studies on knowledge-sharing antecedents based on studies publicized in 2018-2022. Table 2-1 shows a list of knowledge-sharing antecedent studies.

Collaboration involves mutual interactions among employees, supporting each other to solve work-related issues (Chión et al.,2020; Rahadhi & Suzianti, 2020). This engagement fosters willingness among employees to collaborate, make joint decisions, share knowledge, and offer support, resulting in mutual growth and improved performance (Osupile & Makambe, 2021; Alshwayat et al., 2021). Trust is crucial in relationships, encouraging knowledge sharing (Osupile & Makambe, 2021). It is defined as a bond fostering the exchange of sensitive information based on mutual respect and understanding, ultimately enhancing knowledge-sharing dynamics (Alshwayat et al., 2021). Teamwork signifies a group's concerted effort toward shared goals while aligning individual roles to achieve these objectives (AlShamsi & Ajmal, 2018). Openness denotes a willingness to contribute to problem-solving and intellectual endeavors, fostering a desire to assist others (Aljuwaiber, 2020). Fairness signifies equitable treatment within the organization, impacting employee perception of organizational conduct

(Rahadhi & Suzianti, 2020). Intrinsic or extrinsic motivation positively influences knowledge-sharing processes, impacting an organization's competitive edge (Anwar et al., 2019). A manageable workload allows employees time to share knowledge and innovate, contributing to idea generation (Anwar et al., 2019).

The learning culture entails practices maintaining organizational learning, like post-project evaluations and lessons (Chión et al., 2020; AlShamsi & Ajmal, 2018). Innovation culture is essential for sustained productivity and competitive advantage (Arsawan et al., 2022; Alamil et al., 2019). Social interaction refers to the quality of employee relationships (Nguyen, 2020). Strong social interaction between workers facilitates quicker information exchange and knowledge sharing (Anwar et al., 2019; Anwar et al., 2019). Top management support is critical in building knowledge-sharing behavior; it involves management making strategic initiatives, resource allocation, training, and performance evaluation (Nguyen, 2020; Blouch et al., 2021; Chión et al., 2020). Rewards, both hard and soft, incentivize regular knowledge sharing, with hard rewards associated with extrinsic motivation (like financial incentives) and soft rewards with intrinsic motivation (such as recognition) (Anwar et al., 2019; Natu & Aparicio, 2022). Leadership is pivotal in nurturing an organizational culture that encourages knowledge sharing, requiring adaptable strategies and fostering a collaborative environment (Yi, 2019).

<Table 2-1> Antecedents of Knowledge Sharing

Category	Factors	References
Individual Factors	Collaboration	Osupile & Makambe, 2021; Chión et al.,2020; AlShamsi & Ajmal, 2018; Alshwayat et al., 2021; Rahadhi & Suzianti, 2020
	Trust	Osupile & Makambe, 2021; Alshwayat et al., 2021; Anwar et al., 2019; Natu & Aparicio, 2022
	Teamwork	AlShamsi & Ajmal, 2018
	Openness	AlShamsi & Ajmal, 2018; Aljuwaiber, 2020
	Fairness	Rahadhi & Suzianti, 2020
	Motivation	Osupile & Makambe, 2021; Anwar et al., 2019; Anwar et al., 2019; Natu & Aparicio, 2022
	Workload	Anwar et al., 2019
	Learning Culture	Chión et al., 2020; AlShamsi & Ajmal, 2018; Aljuwaiber, 2020; Alamil et al., 2019
	Innovation Culture	Arsawan etal., 2022; Rahadhi & Suzianti, 2020; Alamil et al., 2019
	Social Interaction	Nguyen, 2020; Anwar et al., 2019; Anwar et al., 2019
Organizational Factors	Top Management Support	Nguyen, 2020; Blouch et al., 2021; Chión et al., 2020; AlShamsi & Ajmal, 2018; Aljuwaiber, 2020
	Rewards	Osupile & Makambe, 2021; Anwar et al., 2019; Friedrich et al., 2020; Natu & Aparicio, 2022
	Leadership	Yi, 2019; Blouch et al., 2021

4. Research Model and Hypothesis

4.1 Hypothesis

4.1.1 Too Much of a Good Thing (TMGT) Effect

The TMGT effect, a paradox prevalent in organizational dynamics, suggests that factors presumed to bring benefits, if they surpass a certain threshold, can lead to adverse outcomes (Pierce & Aguinis, 2013). Initially, positive factors exert a linear and favorable impact, but upon exceeding a critical level, their positive influence diminishes, sometimes resulting in undesired consequences like reduced individual and organizational performance. This paradox has garnered substantial attention in the personnel organization field. Early studies (Baron, 1986) hinted at how an interviewee's self-expression could trigger the TMGT effect in the interviewer. Recent theoretical explorations incorporating Aristotle's philosophy and epistemological perspectives (Grant & Schwartz, 2011; Hambrick, 2007; Pierce & Aguinis, 2013) have sought to establish and delve into the TMGT effect, leading to empirical analysis across various research areas. Studies have investigated personal characteristics such as efficacy and personality (Le et al., 2011; Park, 2006), as well as organizational factors like time management and absorption capacity (Rapp, Bachrach, & Rapp, 2013; Wales, Parisa, & Patel, 2013), shedding light on their impact within this context.

4.1.2 Informal Hoesik Frequency and TMX

Informal hoesik event, following the original intention of unity and community, acting as a socialization and communication tool for employees, provided a scene where employees could talk and get to know each other outside their job and tasks (Cakar & Kim, 2015; Lee et al., 2007). Informal hoesik does not have an exact agenda, unlike formal hoesik, which means a more flexible atmosphere and more chances for deeper communication (Irvine, 1979). With the change of venues, informal hoesik can focus more on relationships' informal and expressive aspects. An informal hoesik could increase the trust between relationship members and provide time, opportunity, and motivation to strengthen and expand the relationship (Oh, Chung, & Labianca, 2004). The strength of ties or the relationship between individuals is a

combination of time, emotional intensity, intimacy, reciprocal services, and frequency of contact (Granovetter, 1973). Frequent informal hoesik events, based on Granovetter's theory, would build stronger ties between employees by having to spend more time together and higher intimacy from the change of venues. According to the social exchange theory, as the quality of social interactions is perceived as higher, there is a stronger inclination to act selflessly and generously within that relationship (Aisyah et al., 2023). Foreshowing higher informal gathering frequency could make employees more likely to exchange with one another.

Social exchange theory describes how individuals offer assistance, share opinions, and engage socially due to their perception of a mutual give-and-take (Blau, 1964). Team-Member Exchange (TMX) shows this social exchange idea within a team setting. It represents how team members perceive the level of reciprocity in their contributions of ideas, feedback, and aid to others, as well as what they receive in return from fellow team members (Seers et al., 1995). This exchange dynamic among team members underscores the importance of frequent informal hoesik events in nurturing a culture of support and acknowledgment within the team (Banks et al., 2014). Additionally, previous studies have highlighted the pivotal role of workplace relationships in inducing TMX. The formation of close relationships among employees fosters a willingness to assist and support other team members, ultimately contributing positively to TMX (Sias et al., 2012; Sias & Avdeyeva, 2009). Thus, the continuation and increased frequency of informal hoesik events can be seen as a critical factor in building workplace relationships, promoting trust, and nurturing an environment where team members willingly support and collaborate, all of which are critical elements contributing to the positive dynamics of Team-Member Exchange (TMX).

However, an excessive frequency of informal hoesik might veer into counterproductive territories, potentially leading to a non-linear relationship with TMX. The too-much-of-a-good-thing effect (TMTG effect) explains how predictor variables going beyond inflection points is never desirable as it either results in unnecessary surplus without added benefits or, even worse, leads to negative consequences such as decreased individual or organizational performance (Pierce & Aguinis, 2013). In the case of informal hoesik frequency, the excessive frequency could mitigate employees' well-being and interfere with their work (Jeong, 2022; EMBRAIN, 2020;2022). Research shows that the

frequency of informal hoesik is an important factor that influences employees' drinking behavior and drinking problems, proving a moderate frequency is needed (Lee & Jeong, 2002). A survey of 1000 office workers on hoesik culture back in 2022 regarding hoesik events shows that 51.4% of respondents feel hoesik is stressful, with the main reasons being 'disruption of personal time' and 'meeting an uncomfortable person'. In addition, when asked how they feel about hoesik, 53.4% answered that it was bothersome, and 44.8% were uncomfortable with it (EMBRAIN, 2022). Another survey of 1013 office workers asked their opinion on the changing hoesik after COVID-19. More than 90% of respondents answered that they were 'satisfied' with the changes. Particularly, 'less hoesik frequency' and 'shorter duration of hoesik' are the cause of satisfaction (Incruit, 2022). These results show how hoesik or informal hoesik events could be stressful, and less frequency is preferred.

TMGT effect research around human resources management also shows excessive involvement can prove detrimental even for individuals adept at efficiently handling and controlling their energy. This over-engagement has the potential to exhaust energy and, consequently, increase the risk of burnout among employees and decrease their willingness to engage in organizational behaviors (Halbesleben et al., 2009). Combining previous research on informal hoesik frequency and possible positive and negative aspects with the preference for moderate frequency and possible negative effect from excessive hoesik, I hypothesize

Hypothesis 1 : Informal hoesik frequency will have a non-linear relationship with TMX

4.1.3 Informal Hoesik Frequency and Knowledge Sharing

Social capital, a concept within social network studies is often described as the information, norms of reciprocity, and trust attached to one's social network (Woolcock, 1998). Social capital is deeply embedded in the position or structure of one's social network; a shift in the relationship would shift the types of resources transferred within it (Feld, 1981; Cook et al., 2013). Oh, Chung and Labianca (2004) mentioned the importance of socializing outside the workplace in building social capital. When team members engage in social interactions beyond the workplace, it creates a network of interconnected social

exchanges where specific individuals emerge as reliable partners for exchange, offering resources and support when needed. This network would enhance trust, create opportunities, and motivate them to elevate the extent of their social exchanges. Frequent contact within social networks also contributes to forming social capital, encompassing the benefits of acquaintanceship and participation within a network (Maness, 2017).

Informal hoesik acting as a socialization and communication tool for employees could be the stage where a connection initially established for basic work-related information sharing can evolve into a relationship used for task advice, political backing, strategic insights, and emotional support through the extended ties beyond the confines of the workplace (Oh, Chung & Labianca, 2004). A survey of 1000 office workers on hoesik culture back in 2022 regarding hoesik events shows the advantages people take from hoesik events regarding relationship building and improvement, along with getting information (EMBRAIN, 2022). The extent of individuals' networks and the strength of their connections showed a positive correlation with both the diversity and regularity of their engagements (Robinson & Stubberud, 2009). In a scenario where more informal socializing connects every member outside the workplace, we anticipate heightened solidarity, stronger reciprocity norms, elevated trust, and a tendency to discourage self-serving behaviors compared to groups lacking such ties (Granovetter, 1985; Krackhardt, 1999; Portes & Sensenbrenner, 1993). With higher sense or reciprocity norms and trust –as outlined in social exchange theory– it will encourage knowledge sharing among group members, expecting it to eventually circle back within the group (e.g., Edmondson, 1999; Kramer et al., 2001).

However, a potential non-linear relationship exists between the frequency of these informal hoesik and knowledge-sharing behaviors. Following the concept of the TMGT effect, although frequent informal hoesik frequency partakes in building social ties and social capital, an excessive number of hoesik may lead to the formation of overly familiar and redundant social ties. When individuals consistently engage in frequent social interactions with the same group circle, they might reach a point of diminishing returns regarding the novelty and diversity of information shared (Granovetter, 1973; Burt, 1992; Novoselova, 2017). Granovetter (1973) mentioned how weak ties often link social groups, offering access to distinct information and resources. The overwhelming closure within groups, especially in informal ties, not only enhances the

identification and contentment within the group but also establishes strong norms discouraging connections with individuals outside the group. Other research also indicates that a high degree of contact and exclusivity within a group, characterized by ongoing and concentrated interactions among the same members, may restrict access to innovative insights and diverse resources from beyond the immediate circle (Brewer, 1979; Portes & Sensenbrenner, 1993). Following the concept of social exchange, this phenomenon could lead to a reduced motivation for knowledge sharing, as interactions might become repetitive, lacking new insights or perspectives. Excessive hoesik could also build ingroup biases, reducing the value of information from outside the closed circle and blocking knowledge acquirement and sharing (Coser, 1956; Pruitt & Rubin, 1986; Simmel, 1955; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). In essence, while moderate informal hoesik frequency promotes diverse interactions and knowledge sharing, an excess of informal hoesik might lead to information redundancy, narrowing perspectives, and hindering rather than fostering knowledge sharing among team members. Thus, I hypothesize

Hypothesis 2 : Informal hoesik frequency will have a non-linear relationship with knowledge sharing

4.1.4 Moderating Effects of Informal Hoesik Characteristics

As mentioned above, informal hoesik served as a socialization tool, a chance for people to build up a relationship and communicate with one another. However, the relationship between informal hoesik towards TMX and knowledge sharing is not simply based on the frequency but also on how hoesik is constructed and done (Jeong, 2022; Cakar & Kim, 2015). Jeong's (2022) research developed six indicators to diagnose hoesik culture: 'time factor,' 'cost factor,' and 'relationship improvement (dining effect). 'voluntary factor,' 'atmospheric factor,' and 'after-effect factor.' Based on the six indicators and hugely criticized hoesik structure, this study used the self-determination theory to suggest that informal hoesik characteristics, especially in the essence of before and during the event, should influence the relationship between informal hoesik frequency and TMX and knowledge sharing.

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is a comprehensive theory exploring human motivation and personality, emphasizing individuals' inherent drive for growth and their fundamental psychological needs. It

delves into the motivation guiding people's decisions when external factors are not in play, spotlighting the extent to which human actions are self-propelled and autonomously driven (Ryan & Deci, 2000;2017; Deci & Ryan, 2012). In the recent review of SDT by Ryan and Deci (2017), the authors discussed SDT research relevant to the workplace. The review focused on the distinction between autonomous and controlled motivation and the theory of three basic psychological needs (competence, autonomy, and relatedness). Ryan and Deci (2017) described autonomous motivation as individuals actively participating in an activity with complete willingness, personal volition, and a sense of choice. In addition, the authors explained that when individuals comprehend the significance and meaning of their roles, experience a sense of ownership and independence in executing tasks, and receive explicit feedback and assistance, they tend to exhibit higher autonomous motivation. Consequently, they demonstrate consistent and improved performance, enhanced learning, and better adaptation. However, controlling motivation, whether through rewards tied to conditions or hierarchical power structures, can lead to a focus on external factors that limit employees' efforts.

Another fundamental theory of SDT is the need for competence, autonomy, and relatedness (White, 1959; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; de Charms, 1968), which are crucial for employees' psychological health, well-being, and function in social settings (Ryan, 1995). Research on SDT has frequently observed that environmental aspects such as job design and workplaces that fulfill these needs influence autonomous motivation, psychological and physical wellness, and enhanced performance (Deci & Ryan, 2000). These three needs are commonly treated as a collective unit, although numerous studies have specifically analyzed support for autonomy alone (Baard et al., 2004; Richer et al., 2022). Notably, when an organization and its managers endorse autonomy, employees' support and fulfillment of all three fundamental psychological needs tend to correlate strongly (Deci & Ryan, 2017), primarily because authorities endorsing autonomy demonstrate attentiveness and backing for others' needs. Additionally, when employees experience a sense of autonomy, they seek means to fulfill their other psychological needs autonomously (Deci & Ryan, 2017). This study would like to apply the theory to the informal hoesik, where informal hoesik autonomy will moderate the relationships between informal hoesik frequency with TMX and knowledge sharing.

4.1.5 Autonomy of Informal Hoesik as Moderator

Autonomy within informal hoesik gatherings participation has become a significant concern in Korean organizational culture. As mentioned in Lee's (2017) studies, Korean organizations' culture of non-coercive gathering or hoesik shows a positive effect on the intention to quit and a negative effect on job satisfaction. Addressing this concern, in 2019, the Korean government announced the addition of the "52-hour work week" and "Prevent Bullying in the Workplace" acts (Ingi Jang, 2020). Following the enactment of 52 working hours and workplace bullying prevention, SARAMIN (2019) surveyed office workers about their autonomy in hoesik participation. Out of 10, 6 respondents answered that they could refuse,' marking a substantial increase from prior statistics. However, despite legislative changes and shifts due to the COVID-19 pandemic, around 18% still felt obligated to attend hoesik sessions, while over 50% attended voluntarily yet felt pressured, indicating the persistence of autonomy-related challenges (EMBRAIN, 2021). Lee's (2006) and Park's (2009) research on hoesik participation also shows that most employees showed low self-efficacy in making decisions to participate in hoesik, mainly having to comply with a friend or supervisor's expectation to attend.

Jeong's (2022) hoesik assessment framework, particularly the 'voluntary factor,' underscores the significance of autonomy in participation. Factors such as the freedom to participate, disadvantages associated with non-participation, and the compulsion to attend subsequent rounds emerged as critical contributors to hoesik satisfaction, corroborating earlier findings. Although informal hoesik is a socialization tool for employees to exchange and share information, excessive participation can lead to stress and hinder the intended outcomes. Drawing from past studies, it is evident that limited autonomy in informal hoesik participation correlates with negative repercussions, including job dissatisfaction, dissatisfaction with the hoesik itself, and heightened intentions to quit. Insufficient autonomy, coupled with a high frequency of informal hoesik sessions, may exacerbate stress and diminish employees' motivation to engage in these exchanges within the informal hoesik setting.

Considering the two dependent variables in this study—TMX and knowledge sharing—which have been linked to the Self-Determination Theory (Gagné, 2019; Knee et al., 2013; Gagné, 2009 La Guardia & Patrick, 2008), it is established that greater autonomy contributes to

enhanced openness and flexibility in relationships. Conversely, increased control and pressure tend to foster distancing and avoidance, negatively impacting personal functioning (La Guardia & Patrick, 2008). Gagné (2009) explored the impact of HR practices on meeting psychological needs and its effect on motivation for knowledge sharing. The author suggested that fulfilling these needs in a workplace environment could significantly influence an individual's motivation to share knowledge among colleagues. Thus, I hypothesize

Hypothesis 3-1 : Autonomy of informal hoesik positively moderates the non-linear relationship between informal hoesik frequency and TMX, such that the relation is stronger for individuals with higher informal hoesik autonomy

Hypothesis 3-2 : Autonomy of informal hoesik my positively moderates the non-linear relationship between informal hoesik frequency and knowledge sharing, such that the relation is stronger for individuals with higher informal hoesik autonomy

4.1.6 Openness of Informal Hoesik as Moderator

Autonomy aspects in informal hoesik does not only on the participation but also the autonomy within the informal hoesik event itself. Autonomy in communication, or how to open the communication environment, is another crucial problem noted in Hoesik's research (Jeong, 2022; Shim, 2017; Cakar & Kim, 2015; Seo, 2015). While informal hoesik is supposed to be a place where you can talk about your inner thoughts in a comfortable atmosphere and let go of buried feelings, there are reported many cases of hoesik where there is no two-way conversation, but rather, employees need to listen to supervisors' complaints and general speeches (Shim, 2017). This one-way conversation or top-down communication pattern in hoesik limits team spirit and forces collectivism (Cakar & Kim, 2015). Another factor from Jeong's (2022) hoesik assessment framework was 'atmospheric factor.' The author explains how the more negative people feel about the hoesik atmosphere (the need to go along supervisor's mood, offensive jokes, taking turns in starting cheers, et cetera), the more negative and unsatisfied they feel towards the organization or team hoesik culture.

Wanseob Shin (2017) established a theoretical model regarding hoesik culture. The author analyzed the structural issues of hoesik and

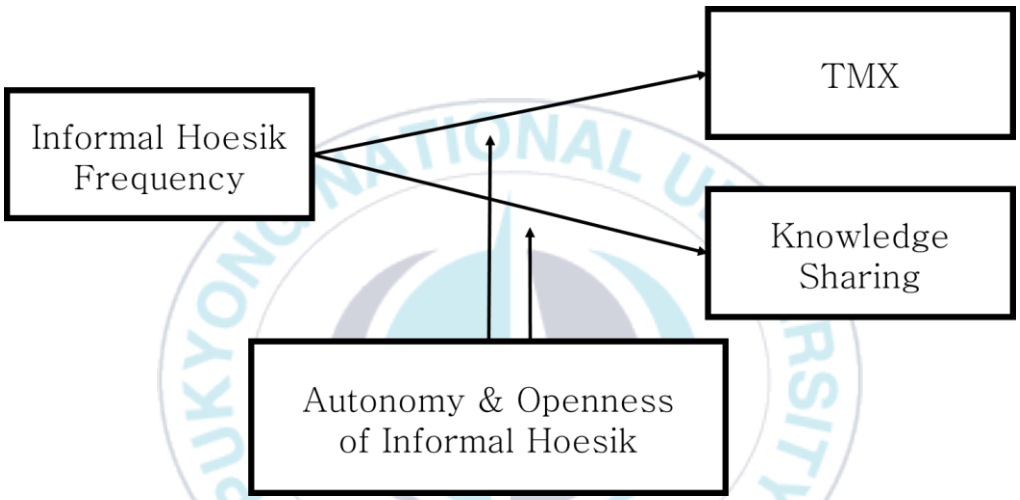
desired hoesik by employees to suggest an attainable model for hoesik. Among the problems, we can see communication problems such as loss of other social relationships and lack of purpose for get-togethers. In the data collected, one respondent explained how they aimed to have a discussion during hoesik, but it ended with only an eating and drinking event. Another respondent expressed their pity on how hoesik conversations are controlled by supervisors and sometimes end up in bullying and back-talking, which could raise misunderstanding and emotional turmoil between employees. In the questioning regarding the desired hoesik structure, all respondent mentioned their desire for open communication ("..an atmosphere where employees can talk easily..", "..a chance to talk and get to know each other through hoesik.." et cetera.).

A culture of open dialogue and transparent communication during frequent hoesik sessions can significantly influence TMX in various ways. It can foster improved relationship quality among team members by nurturing meaningful interactions, building trust, and fostering a deeper understanding of each other's perspectives. Furthermore, this open communication atmosphere encourages collaboration, problem-solving, and increased knowledge sharing among employees. As team members engage in open discussions, they may align more closely with the organization's culture, values, and communication norms, potentially enhancing the quality of TMX through strengthened relationships, enriched collaboration, and a deeper understanding among colleagues (Shim, 2017; Jeong, 2022). On the other hand, without the open communication aspect, frequent informal hoesik sessions will not be able to build strong relationships or trust among team members. This lack of open communication could also lead to misunderstanding, misinterpretations, and a lack of clarity regarding each other's perspectives (Shim, 2017; Cakar & Kim, 2015). The absence of open communication within frequent hoesik sessions might lead to weakened relationships, reduced trust, limited collaboration, and a lack of alignment with the organizational culture, potentially impacting team dynamics and overall effectiveness. Thus, I hypothesize

Hypothesis 4-1 : Openness of informal hoesik positively moderates the non-linear relationship between informal hoesik frequency and TMX, such that the relation is stronger for individuals with higher informal hoesik openness

Hypothesis 4-2 : Openness of informal hoesik positively moderates the non-linear relationship between informal hoesik frequency and knowledge sharing, such that the relation is stronger for individuals with higher informal hoesik openness

4.2 Research Model



<Figure 2-1> Research Model

III. Research Method

1. Data Collection

I implemented an online survey aimed at individuals employed in Korean organizations. The online survey was administered via a Google Form link, commencing on October 5th, 2023, and remained open for two weeks. The survey link was available in Korean and English to accommodate foreign workers in Korea. Several native speakers proofread Korean and English questionnaires before being released to the public. The survey received 388 responses, with 316 coming from the Korean survey and 72 from the English survey. A meticulous screening process was employed to ensure the reliability of the data and eliminate anomalous responses. The research analysis was conducted following this screening process using a final dataset comprising 332 responses.

The questionnaire was structured as a self-reporting instrument. The survey included 89 questions, with 39 questions regarding research variables and 17 possible variables. Demographic variables, serving as control variables, included two questions about organizational characteristics and 12 questions concerning personal characteristics. To gain insight into the recent trends in hoesik, 18 questions related to informal hoesik experiences were also included in the survey, such as "What do you think is the positive/negative aspect of informal hoesik?" and "How satisfied are you with your informal hoesik?". This study employed a variety of statistical techniques for analysis. SPSS 26.0 was utilized for demographic characteristic frequency analysis, exploratory factor analysis, and reliability analysis to assess the validity and reliability of the variables. Correlation and regression analyses were conducted to validate the research hypotheses and examine the relationships between the variables. Process Macro was employed as an auxiliary analysis method to ascertain mediation and moderation effects. Furthermore, SPSS AMOS was employed to assess the model fit of my research model.

2. Measurements

The objective of this research is to examine how informal hoesik gatherings impact team-member exchange and knowledge sharing while investigating how informal hoesik characteristics moderate the relationship between the frequency of informal hoesik gatherings and result variables. In this context, informal hoesik frequency is the independent variable, with TMX and knowledge sharing as the dependent variables. Informal hoesik autonomy and openness act as moderating variables. Below are the definitions and measurements of these variables.

2.1 Hoesik Frequency

Hoesik Frequency can be described as the degree of frequency someone feels about their hoesik event. Hoesik Frequency was divided into two sub-factors, Formal and Informal, with one question each. The degree was gauged using a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 being 'Never' and 5 being 'Always'. A description was put above the questions to establish the difference between formal and informal hoesik. Formal hoesik is hosted by the company, and expenses are supported and announced in advance, while informal hoesik is the ones that are held without prior notice or official budget support from the company.

2.2 Team-Member Exchange

Team-member exchange is defined as the quality and nature of an individual's interpersonal relationships and interactions with their team members. The variable was measured using 11-items from Seers et al. (1995) (α = .85). The items measure the extent of reciprocity an individual member feels in an exchange relationship with his or her team members. Sample items on the scale are "I often make suggestions about better work methods to other team members", "I often ask other team members for help", and "Other members of my team understand my problems and needs".

2.3 Knowledge Sharing

Knowledge sharing refers to the voluntary act of employees sharing their expertise, information, ideas, and experiences with their colleagues within the organization. To measure knowledge sharing behavior, I derived the item from Srivastava et al. (2006) (α = .94). Seven items measure the extent of knowledge sharing and information-sharing behavior between team members. A sample item on the scale is "I share my special knowledge and expertise with others," "I exchange information, knowledge, and sharing of skills with my coworkers," and "I share lots of information with others".

2.4 Autonomy of Informal Hoesik

Informal hoesik Characteristics are divided into two sub-contexts of autonomy and openness. Autonomy refers to individuals' perception of their ability to engage actively and willingly in organization-sponsored social events and activities without constraints or inhibitions, such as the informal hoesik event. There are five items used to measure autonomy, where three items were made to match this research, and two items were based on previous research by Lee (2017) on non-coercive hoesik degree (α = .728). A sample item on the scale is "many of our members reluctantly attend social gatherings" and "I have thought that not attending social gatherings may have a negative impact on how I am evaluated."

2.5 Openness of Informal Hoesik

Openness is how individuals perceive a relaxed, open, and inclusive environment during organizational social gatherings. Park and Lee's (2009) 3 item-scale (α = .79), developed to understand people's behavior towards drinking events, was used to understand the extent of open communication within hoesik events. A sample item from the scale is "I feel that conversations in a group have depth conversation" and "I can freely express myself in group conversations." In addition, three new items were made to scale whether there are some boundaries in communication from hierarchy within groups. The items I developed are "There are clear hierarchical relationships even at social gatherings" and "Unlike at work, everyone speaks freely about their thoughts at

social gatherings." A total of 6 items were then used to measure openness.

2.6 Control Variables

The current analysis controlled for various demographic variables to eliminate possible alternative interpretations. Past studies indicated that individual traits like age, gender, nationality, education, employment status, team tenure, and team size might influence the impact on hoesik frequency as well as TMX and knowledge sharing (Lin, 2007; Srivatsava et al., 2006; Alge et al., 2003; Gajendran & Aparna, 2012; Talantseva, 2018). Gender and nationality were dummy coded (0=Female, 1=Male and 0=Korean, 1=Others). Age, educational level, employment status, team tenure, and team size were measured as a categorical variable, and the coded list is available in <Table 4-1>.

3. Sample Characteristics

For this research, we conducted an online survey targeting office workers in South Korea to find out the relationship between informal hoesik, team-member exchange, and knowledge-sharing behavior. As a small population of foreigners working in Korea exists, I did not bind the sample to Koreans only. The compositions of the sample personal characteristics are presented in <Table 3-2>. The table shows that most of the respondents are female (52.1%) as opposed to male (47.9%). By nationality, Korean nationals comprise the majority of the respondents, with 232 respondents (69.9%), while 100 others represent 30.1% of the group. Looking at the age composition, the scale of respondents falls into the "20-29" age group for 164 (49.4%). The "30-39" age group is the next largest with 117 (35.2%). A smaller percentage of respondents are aged "40-49" with 23 (6.9%) and "More than 50" with 28(8.4%).

By their married status, the majority of respondents are "Unmarried," with 241 (72.6%) responses, while 27.4% are "Married." Moreover, among the married respondents, we can see that 70 people (21.1%) have one or more children. "4-year college" is the most common educational level, with 226 (68.1%). Other categories include "Masters Degree" 66 responses (19.9%), "High School" 18 responses (5.4%), "Doctorate Degree" 13 responses (3.9%), and "2-year college" 9

responses (2.7%). The composition of job roles is made with 219 staff respondents (66.0%). Other roles include "Team Leader" (14.2%), "Manager" (8.7%), "Director" (8.1%), and "Intern" (3.0%). By their employment status, 288 (86.7%) are employed full-time, while 44(13.3%) are part-time.

Majority of the respondents have an average organization tenure of"2-5 years" with 161 people (48.5%), followed by "1 year and less" with 106 people (31.9%), "6-9 years" 43 people (13.0%), "10-19 years" 10 people (3.0%), and "more than 20 years" 12 people (3.6%). A similar response can be seen in the team tenure category, with "2-5 years" being the most common team tenure with 162 people (48.8%), followed by "1 year and less" 139 people (41.9%), "6-9 years" 17 people (5.1%), "10-19 years" 10 people (3.0%), and "more than 20 years" with the least response of 4 people (1.2%). Most respondents teams have "Less than 10" people (71.7%). Smaller percentages of teams fall into the "11-20 people" (21.1%), "21-30 people" (4.5%), "31-40 people" (1.8%), and "more than 40 people" (0.9%) categories.

For organization characteristics, we received various responses. In the organization type, the majority are employed in a private enterprise with 122 people (36.7%), followed by 113 people (34%) in a general enterprise, 53 people (15%) in a foreign-owned enterprise, 33 people (9.9%) in public institutions and 11 people in other organization types such as educational institutions, project team, and art practician. Majority of respondents of 119 people (35.8%) are employed in the service industry, while 70 people (21%) are in manufacturing, 33 people in (9.9%) finance, 31 people (9.3%) in communications/IT, and 24 people (7.2%) in distribution. Fifty-five respondents work in various fashion, arts, contracting, and research sectors.

<Table 3-1> Demographics

Category	Group	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	173	52.1
	Male	159	47.9
Nationality	Korean	232	69.9
	Others	100	30.1
Age	20-29	164	49.4
	30-39	117	35.2
	40-49	23	6.9
	More than 50	28	8.4
Marital Status	Married	91	27.4
	Unmarried	241	72.6
Family member	No child	262	78.9
	1 or more children	70	21.1
Educational Level	High School	18	5.4
	2-year college	9	2.7
	4-year college	226	68.1
	Masters Degree	66	19.9
	Doctorate Degree	13	3.9
Job Position	Intern	10	3.0
	Staff	219	66.0
	Team Leader	47	14.2
	Manager	29	8.7
	Director	27	8.1
Team Tenure	1 year and less	139	41.9
	2-5 years	162	48.8
	6-9 years	17	5.1
	10-19 years	10	3.0
	more than 20 years	4	1.2
Team Size	Less than 10	238	71.7
	11-20 people	70	21.1
	21-30 people	15	4.5
	31-40 people	6	1.8
	more than 40 people	3	.9

4. Validity and Reliability

4.1 Factor Analysis and Validity Test

To assess the validity of variables before conducting hypothesis testing, an Exploratory Factor Analysis was conducted. Principal component analysis and the VARIMAX method were employed to rotate the factor matrix. Factors with eigenvalues of 1 or higher and a variable-factor correlation of .5 or more were selected for inclusion. <Table 3-2> presents the outcomes of the factor analysis, following the exclusion of questions that could compromise the validity of the measured factors. Consequently, four distinct factors were derived. The total variance explained by these factors amounted to 72.911%, and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sample adequacy was .919 (p=.000).

The first factor, labeled "TMX," quantifies the quality of an employee's interactions with their co-workers or teams. This factor comprises all 11 questions. The second factor, "Knowledge Sharing," gauges how much employees willingly share their knowledge and expertise with their colleagues. Out of 7 questions, two questions were removed (V-2 If I have some special knowledge about how to perform the task, I am likely to tell others about it; and V-7 I freely provides other members with hard-to-find knowledge or specialized skills) and 5 were selected after identifying inconsistencies with the intended concept. The third factor, "Openness," measures the degree of open communication within "hoesik. Out of 6 questions, one question, "III-11 I think our group conversations cover various topics," was inconsistent with the intended concept and was excluded from this factor. Five questions were retained to measure the concept effectively. The fourth factor, "Autonomy," assesses the extent to which individuals can decide whether to participate in "hoesik" gatherings. One inconsistent question was removed (III-2 Many members of our team reluctantly attend social gatherings). A total of 4 questions were used to compose the variable.

<Table 3-2> Factor Analysis

Category		Factors			
Variable	Question	1	2	3	4
Informal Hoesik Autonomy	F1	.313	.009	.237	**.830**
	F3	.223	.016	.239	**.810**
	F4	.212	.015	.315	**.618**
	F5	.314	.039	.175	**.815**
Informal Hoesik Openness	O1	.298	.007	**.814**	.296
	O2	.062	.164	**.841**	.095
	O3	.239	-.059	**.714**	.103
	O4	.169	.055	**.801**	.281
	O5	.282	-.052	**.818**	.264
TMX	T1	**.619**	.207	.125	.367
	T2	**.750**	.083	.130	.211
	T3	**.760**	.203	.055	.245
	T4	**.759**	.172	.197	.226
	T5	**.828**	.164	.186	.135
	T6	**.781**	.222	.172	.164
	T7	**.849**	.148	.119	.069
	T8	**.775**	.129	.225	.140
	T9	**.841**	.170	.192	.255
	T10	**.839**	.123	.156	.182
	T11	**.811**	.138	.187	.098
Knowledge Sharing	K1	.195	**.852**	-.056	.044
	K3	.179	**.766**	.159	.086
	K5	.202	**.824**	.021	-.026
	K6	.176	**.874**	.002	-.004
	K7	.168	**.863**	-.003	.017
Eigen value		10.888	3.665	2.245	1.429
Percentage of variance : %		43.552	14.660	8.981	5.718
Cumulative percentage : %		43.552	58.212	67.193	72.911
KMO and Bartlett's Test : Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy : .919 (p=.000)					

N : 332

4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Furthermore, this study employed confirmatory factor analysis to assess the fit of the model. Model fit is considered satisfactory when the ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom (χ^2/df) is three or less and when TLI and CFI values exceed .9, while RMSEA between .08 and .1 are considered borderline (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; MacCallum et al., 1996; Kline, 2005). Results in <Table 3-3> indicate that the fit of my research model, composed of four factors, is deemed the most favorable.

Notably, although the ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom slightly exceeds the threshold of 3, they remain at an acceptable level by the requirement suggested by Marsh & Hocevar (1985) with a value less than 5. Importantly, it is observed that the four-factor model demonstrates the most suitable fit when compared to alternative models with three or two factors. This suggests that while certain variables may share similarities, categorizing them into distinct factors results in an improved model fit. Thus, this study is continued on the four-factor model for its analysis and interpretation.

<Table 3-3> Model Fit Analysis

Model	Factors	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Research Model	4 factors (IHA, IHO, TMX, KS)	1014.760	316	3.211	.901	.911	.082
Alternative Model 1	3 factors (IHA+ IHO, TMX, KS)	1736.789	319	5.444	.800	.819	.116
Alternative Model 2	2 factors (IHA+ IHO, TMX+ KS)	2927.942	321	9.121	.635	.667	.157
Alternative Model 3	2 factors (IHA+ IHO+ TMX, KS)	2610.032	321	8.130	.680	.707	.147

IHA= Informal hoesik autonomy, IHO= Informal hoesik openness, TMX= Team-member exchange, KS= Knowledge sharing

TLI= Tucker-Lewis coefficient, CFI= Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA= Root mean square error of approximation

4.3 Reliability Test

The reliability of the research variables was evaluated, and the results are presented in <Table 3-4>. A reliability coefficient of Cronbach's alpha exceeding .70 indicates reliability (Hair et al., 2006). All four variables met this reliability standard, confirming the reliability of the questions used for assessment.

<Table 3-4> Reliability Analysis

Variable	Factor	Item	Cronbach's Alpha α
Dependent Variables	Knowledge Sharing	5	.909
	TMX	11	.957
Moderator	Informal Hoesik Autonomy	4	.880
	Informal Hoesik Openness	5	.905

IV. Results

1. Informal Hoesik

1.1 Informal Hoesik Characteristics

The research results reveal interesting insights into the preferences and opinions of the respondents regarding informal hoesik. Regarding hoesik frequency, we can see the difference between formal and informal hoesik, with informal hoesik being more frequent, with an average of 3.1 times over the last three months, and formal hoesik average of 1.3. The least informal hoesik frequency counted as 0, and the most frequent was 36 times. On yearly frequency, formal hoesik mostly happens 1-2 times yearly, similar to informal hoesik. However, we can see a big difference in the more frequent number; in the 2-3 times a month group, informal hoesik respondents are three times bigger than formal hoesik respondents, again showing informal hoesik happens more frequently than formal hoesik. A majority of informal hoesik are led or hosted by a "Supervisor" (48.2%) or a "Team Member" (44.9%). A smaller percentage of respondents prefer to lead or host the gatherings themselves ("Yourself," 6.9%). Regarding the quality of informal hoesik, there is a wide range of opinions among the respondents. The majority of them perceive this hoesik as "Fair" (39.8%), while a significant portion also considers them to be "Good" (21.4%) or "Poor" (21.7%). However, it is worth noting that many research results on hoesik are "Very poor" (11.1%), indicating room for improvement.

Satisfaction levels with informal hoesik vary among the surveyed group. A majority of respondents express being "Satisfied" (43.1%) with this hoesik, while a smaller but still significant portion falls under categories like "Unsatisfied" (12.0%), "Neutral" (32.5%) and "Very Satisfied" (9.9%). A minority of respondents express being "Very unsatisfied" (2.4%), suggesting the presence of a range of experiences and feelings toward these gatherings. Regarding the appropriate frequency of informal hoesik, "Once a month" is the most favored choice (44.0%), while "1-2 times per quarter" (32.5%) and "1-2 times per year" (11.1%) are also followed behind. Few respondents prefer more frequent hoesik, highlighting diverse opinions on how often such gatherings should occur.

When it comes to the most common hoesik types, "Dinner (alcohol included)" can be seen leading the way (67.5%). Other common types include "Lunch" (13.6%) and "Dinner (non-alcohol)" (11.7%). However, respondents' actual preferences for appropriate hoesik types vary, with "Dinner (alcohol included)" only reaching 92 people (27.7%) compared to the bigger number on the actual process, "Lunch" (24.1%), and "Dinner (non-alcohol)" (23.5%) also being the top choices. Other options, such as "Tea time," "Cultural performances," and "Leisure sports," reflect a diverse set of preferences within the group.

The research also explored informal hoesik rounds and ending times. The majority of respondents are comfortable with up to "2nd round" (59.0%) for hoesik rounds, while others are content with "1 round only" (30.3%). A smaller percentage is open to "Up to third round and more" (10.7%). Ending times for informal hoesik vary, with a significant percentage ending "After 10 PM" (41.8%), while other common ending times include "After 9 PM" (20.6%) and "Before 8 PM" (8.5%). Preferences for the appropriate number of rounds and ending times are somewhat balanced, with "1 round" (55.7%) and "2nd rounds" (43.7%) being the favored options for hoesik rounds, and "After 9 PM" (52.9%) and "After 8 PM" (19.9%) being popular choices for ending times.

1.2 Thoughts on Informal Hoesik

To further investigate individuals' perceptions of informal hoesik gatherings, I investigated their overall impressions of these gatherings, their perceived advantages and disadvantages, and the factors contributing to their satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The survey outcomes reveal that most respondents view informal hoesik gatherings as enjoyable (43.1%) and interesting (40.4%). Nevertheless, a noteworthy portion of some participants also regard bothersome (33.7%) and uncomfortable (19.3%). When analyzing the positive aspects of hoesik, two key themes emerge prominently. Firstly, respondents frequently cite these gatherings as an opportunity to cultivate friendships within the workplace. Simultaneously, they consider them a disruption to their personal time, which is the primary negative aspect reported. Regarding satisfaction factors, the most prominent contributor is fostering a good atmosphere among team members. Additionally, not feeling compelled to consume alcohol and experiencing no pressure to attend these gatherings are noted as sources of satisfaction.

<Table 4-1> Informal Hoesik Characteristics

Category	Group	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Formal Hoesik Frequency	Never	84	25.3
	Rarely	106	31.9
	Sometimes	92	27.7
	Often	49	14.8
	Always	1	.3
Formal Hoesik Number	1-2 times per year	135	40.7
	1-2 times per	104	31.3
	once a month	76	22.9
	2-3 times a month	16	4.8
	more than 4 times a	1	.3
Informal Hoesik Frequency	Never	89	26.8
	Rarely	66	19.9
	Sometimes	82	24.7
	Often	85	25.6
	Always	10	3.0
Informal Hoesik Number	1-2 times per year	104	31.3
	1-2 times per	87	26.2
	once a month	43	13.0
	2-3 times a month	70	21.1
	more than 4 times a	28	8.4
Informal Hoesik Host	Supervisor	160	48.2
	Team Member	149	44.9
	Yourself	23	6.9
Thoughts on Informal Hoesik	Very poor	37	11.1
	Poor	72	21.7
	Fair	132	39.8
	Good	71	21.4
	Excellent	20	6.0
Satisfaction on Informal Hoesik	Very unsatisfied	8	2.4
	Unsatisfied	40	12.0
	Neutral	108	32.5
	Satisfied	143	43.1
	Very Satisfied	33	9.9
Appropriate Frequency for Informal Hoesik	1-2 times per year	37	11.1
	1-2 times per quarter	108	32.5
	once a month	146	44.0
	2-3 times a month	39	11.7
	more than 4 times a month	2	.6

Informal Hoesik Type	Dinner (alcohol included)	261	78.6
	Dinner (non-alcohol)	92	27.7
	Lunch	89	26.8
	Tea time	67	20.2
	Cultural performances	41	12.3
	Leisure sports	75	22.6
	Others	11	3.3
Most Common Hoesik Type	Dinner (alcohol included)	224	67.5
	Dinner (non-alcohol)	39	11.7
	Lunch	45	13.6
	Tea time (Tea/Cafe/Drinks and Snacks)	14	4.2
Appropriate Hoesik Type	Dinner (alcohol included)	92	27.7
	Dinner (non-alcohol)	78	23.5
	Lunch	80	24.1
	Tea time	45	13.6
	Cultural performances	18	5.4
	Leisure sports	19	5.7
Informal Hoesik Rounds	1 round only	96	30.3
	Up to 2nd round	187	59.0
	Up to 3rd round and more	34	10.7
Ending Point	Before 8PM	27	8.5
	After 8PM	30	9.5
	After 9PM	65	20.6
	After 10PM	132	41.8
	After 11PM	62	19.6
Appropriate Hoesik Rounds	1 round	185	55.7
	2nd rounds	145	43.7
	More than 3 rounds	2	.6
Appropriate Ending Point	Before 8PM	37	11.2
	After 8PM	66	19.9
	After 9PM	175	52.9
	After 10PM	36	10.9
	After 11PM	17	5.1

Conversely, sources of dissatisfaction include the perception that hoesik functions as an extension of work, concerns about gatherings concluding late, and feelings of compulsion or pressure to consume alcohol. These findings provide valuable insights into hoesik culture areas that require improvement for employees to align with their desired objectives. In summary, the research outcomes shed light on the multifaceted nature of informal hoesik gatherings and the diverse perspectives held by employees. By identifying the key drivers of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, organizations can better tailor their hoesik practices to meet the needs and preferences of their workforce, ultimately contributing to a more harmonious and effective work environment.

2. Correlation Analysis

The correlation between the independent variables, mediator variables, control variables, dependent variables, and demographic variables included in the model of this study are shown in <Table 4-1>, as well as the average and standard deviation of the variables. Nationality was positively (+) related to informal gathering frequency ($r=.141$, $p<.05$), informal gathering autonomy ($r=.150$, $p<.01$), informal gathering openness ($r=.196$, $p<.01$), and knowledge sharing ($r=.118$, $p<.05$). In other words, we can see that foreign workers have a more autonomous and open hoesik characteristic, held more gatherings and have a higher level of sharing knowledge than Korean workers.

Age, as expected, is negatively (-) related to marital status ($r=-.678$, $p<.01$) and positively (+) related to job role ($r=.716$, $p<.01$), organization tenure ($r=.659$, $p<.01$) and team tenure ($r=.522$, $p<.01$); showing how people with older age are more likely to be married, held a higher position in the company and have been working longer for the organization or team. Employment status was negatively (-) related towards TMX ($r=-.116$, $p<.05$) and knowledge sharing ($r=-.110$, $p<.05$). Through this, we can see that part-time workers are more likely to feel less exchange towards their co-workers or team members.

Formal hoesik frequency is highly correlated with informal hoesik frequency ($r=.510$, $p<.01$), yet not enough to say the two are identical. Formal hoesik frequency also shows a significant correlation with my research variables. Therefore, to require the exact relationship between informal hoesik frequency with TMX and knowledge sharing, controlling formal hoesik frequency is necessary.

Looking at the correlation between informal hoesik frequency and other variables, in addition to age, informal hoesik frequency is also related to educational level ($r=.186$, $p<.01$), organization tenure ($r=.130$, $p<.05$), team tenure ($r=.114$, $p<.05$), and team size ($r=.109$, $p<.05$). This significant correlation points out that people with higher educational level, longer organization, and team tenure, and have bigger team size are more likely to experience a higher frequency of informal hoesik. Organization tenure and team tenure show a high level of correlation of $r=.750$, $p<.01$, with the two variables showing a similar level of correlation towards the other variable. Organization and team tenure also show a positive relation towards knowledge sharing ($r=.167$, $p<.01$) ($r=.114$, $p<.05$). In other words, longer time in an organization or team, which leads to more experience is more likely to encourage people to share their experience and knowledge willingly.

<Table 4-2> Correlation Analysis

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Gender	.479	.500																
2. Nationality	.305	.461	-.250**															
3. Age	.738	.911	.290**	-.129*														
6. Educational level	2.146	.764	.232**	.229**	.481**	-.294**	.300**											
8. Employment status	.131	.338	-.209**	.076	-.166**	.057	-.092	-.311**	-.226**									
10. Team tenure	.723	.785	.121*	.099	.522**	-.383**	.317**	.338**	.351**	-.162**	.749**							
11. Team size	.393	.742	.051	-.030	.017	.004	.025	.001	-.057	-.060	.040	.051						
12. Formal hoesik freq	2.332	1.018	.173**	.012	.025	-.001	-.031	.134*	.003	-.109*	.031	.150**	.069					
13. Informal hoesik freq	2.579	1.206	.066	.138*	.063	-.050	.034	.190**	.019	-.104	.133*	.115*	.107	.510**				
14. I.H. Autonomy	2.337	.911	-.006	.128*	-.033	.029	-.011	.014	.046	-.021	.019	.023	.070	.174**	.283**			
15. I.H. Openness	3.095	1.147	-.046	.192**	-.066	.004	.002	.023	-.030	-.016	.031	.091	-.019	.224**	.243**	.553**		
16. TMX	3.297	.993	.046	.007	.025	-.029	-.011	.065	.100	-.116*	.095	.077	.106	.311**	.401**	.550**	.466**	
17. Knowledge sharing	3.248	1.092	-.060	.125*	.008	.016	.011	.072	.062	-.110*	.174**	.123*	.006	.043	.123*	.126*	.116*	.398**

N=332, two-tailed

*p<.05 **p<.01

Gender : 0=Female, 1=Male

Nationality : 0=Korean, 1=Others

Age : 0=20-29, 1=30-39, 2=40-49, 3=More than 50

Marital status : 0=Married, 1=Unmarried

Family member : 0=No child, 1=1 or more children

Educational level : 0=Highschool, 1=2-year college,2=4-year college,3=Masters degree, 4= Doctorate degree

Job position : 0=Intern, 1=Staff, 2=Team leader, 3=Manager, 4=Director

Employment Status : 0=Full time, 1=Part time

Organization tenure : 0=1 year and less, 1=2-5years, 3=6-9years, 4=10-19 years, 5=More than 20 years

Team tenure : 0=1 year and less, 1=2-5years, 3=6-9years, 4=10-19 years, 5=More than 20 years

Team size : 0=Less than 10, 1=11-20 people, 3=21-30 people, 4=31-40 people, 5=More than 40 people

3. Hypothesis Testing

This study conducted hierarchical regression analysis using SPSS 26.0 to verify the research hypothesis and additionally used Process Macro to verify moderating effects. First, I examined collinearity statistics, including tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF), for each variable to check whether multicollinearity problems between variables occurred. The analysis results showed that, overall, there was no multicollinearity problem (tolerance limit > .1, VIF < 10). and to avoid the further problem of multicollinearity, the interaction item between informal hoesik frequency with informal hoesik autonomy and openness was calculated using the mean centering method. In the first model on <Table 4-2> and <Table 4-3>, control variables were introduced to check how each control variable affected the dependent variable. Next, the research variables were sequentially introduced to verify the research hypothesis.

3.1 Informal Hoesik Frequency and TMX

In the regression analysis result towards TMX in <Table 4-2>, <Model 1> shows the effect of control variables introduced. Out of every control variable, formal hoesik frequency (β=.299, p<.001) shows a significant positive effect towards TMX. Displaying formal hoesik events also helps manifest TMX.

Hypothesis 1 proposes a non-linear relationship between informal hoesik frequency and TMX. To support a non-linear relationship, the effect for informal hoesik frequency should be positive, and the effect for informal hoesik frequency squared should be negative and significant, along with a significant increase in the model's explained variance. The results in <Model 3> in <Table 4-2> show that at moderate levels of informal hoesik frequency, TMX was maximized (ΔR^2=.207, p<.001), suggesting support for the hypothesized non-linear relationship between informal hoesik frequency and TMX, and thus hypothesis 1 is accepted. The non-linear effect of informal hoesik frequency towards knowledge sharing is shown in <Figure 4-1>.

<Table 4-3> Regression Analysis Towards TMX

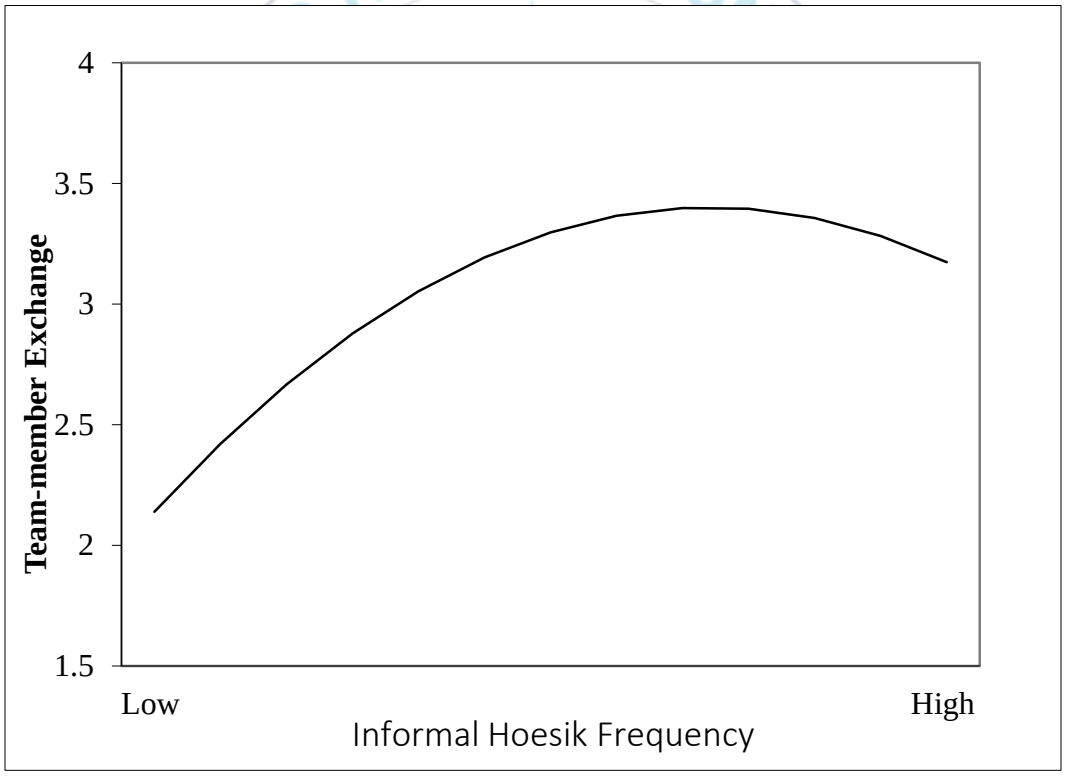
DV : Team-Member Exchange	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Control Variables :					
Gender	-.028	.046	.032	.044	.040
Nationality	.005	-.099†	-.156**	-.151**	-.147**
Age	.005	-.050	-.021	-.015	-.019
Education	-.004	-.025	.009	.009	.021
Employment status	-.083	-.087†	-.074†	-.074†	-.073†
Team tenure	.016	.050	.024	.010	.010
Team Size	.081	.045	.043	.048	.050
Formal hoesik freq	.299***	.129*	.084†	.090†	.093†
Independent Variable:					
Informal hoesik freq		.345***	.223***	.224***	.200***
Informal hoesik freq^2		-.285***	-.221***	-.235***	-.249***
Moderating Variable:					
I.H. Autonomy			.337***	.335***	.242**
I.H. Openness			.215***	.219***	.076
Independent*Moderator					
Frequency * Autonomy				-.010	-.018
Frequency * Openness				.083	.079
Frequency^2 * Autonomy					.109
Frequency^2 * Openness					.184*
R^2	.111	.258	.465	.470	.493
ΔR^2	.111***	.147***	.207***	.006	.023**
F	4.985***	11.007***	22.811***	19.863***	18.918***

N = 332

† p<.10 *p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

3.2 Informal Hoesik Frequency and Knowledge Sharing

Using the same process to test the effect of informal hoesik frequency towards knowledge sharing, I first input the control variables as shown in <Model 6> of <Table 4-3>. Employment status was shown to have a significant negative effect at 10% yet not significant at 5% (β=-.114, p<.1) towards knowledge sharing. From these results, full-time workers have a higher knowledge-sharing behavior. On the other hand, Team tenure showed a significant positive effect (β=.121, p<.1) towards knowledge sharing, meaning people with longer team tenure have a higher knowledge sharing behavior.



<Figure 4-1> Non-linear relationship between Frequency of Informal Hoesik and TMX

In <Model 7>, we can see the effect informal hoesik frequency has on knowledge sharing with β=.122, p<.1. Through this, we can conclude that

informal hoesik frequency does affect knowledge sharing positively, although not significant at 5% level of significance. The result of non-linear analysis came out as significant (β=-.185, p=.003), and the increase of explanatory power was ΔR^2 .039 and p-value of .003, showing that there is a non-linear relationship between informal hoesik frequency and knowledge sharing; thus hypothesis 2 was accepted. The non-linear effect of informal hoesik frequency towards knowledge sharing is shown in <Figure 4-2>. From the relationship graph, we can see that although more frequency leads to more knowledge sharing, it would induce a negative effect towards knowledge sharing above the excessive amount.

3.3 The Moderating Role of Informal Hoesik Autonomy and Openness

In hypotheses 3 and 4, I would like to test the moderating role of informal hoesik autonomy and openness on the non-linear relationship between informal hoesik frequency to TMX and knowledge sharing. To examine this hypothesis after inputting each of autonomy and openness in <Model 3> and <Model 8>, I calculate the interaction between informal hoesik frequency with autonomy and informal hoesik frequency with openness using the mean centering method and include it in the regression model.

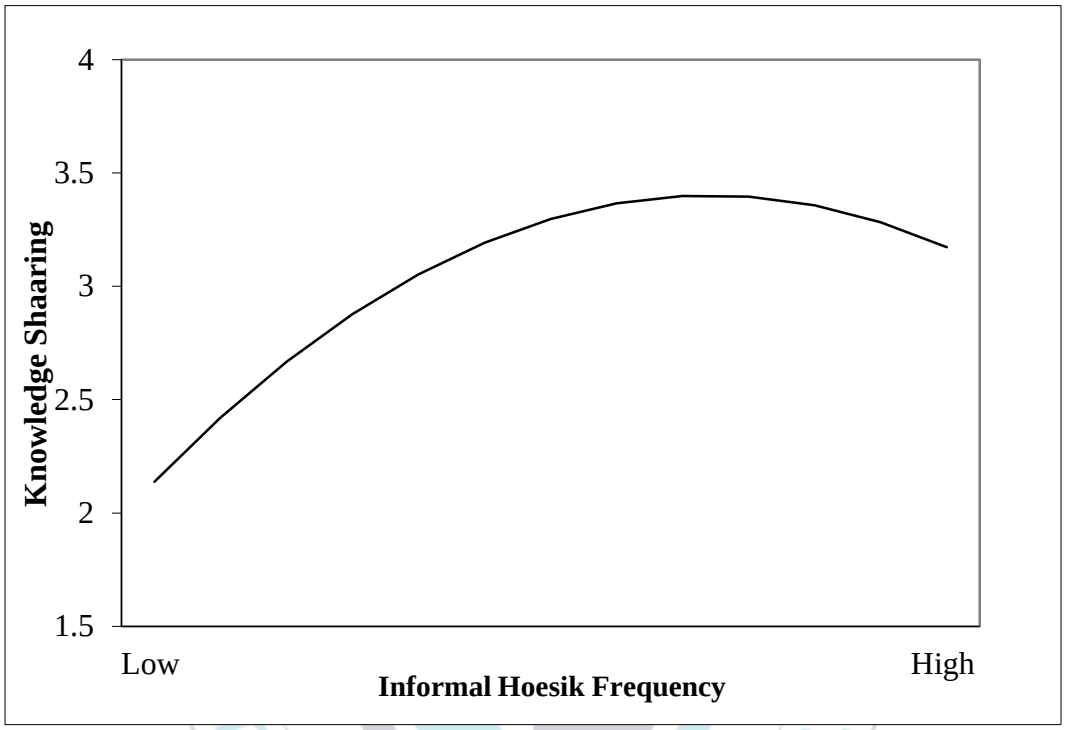
In <Model 3> of <Table 4-2> informal hoesik autonomy (β=.337, p<.001), and informal hoesik openness (β=.215, p<.001); shows significant positive effect towards TMX. Comparing the explanatory power (ΔR^2) of <Model 3> and <Model 2>, we can see an increase of .207 (p<.001) showing significance. In other words, the higher the informal hoesik autonomy degree is, the higher the quality of TMX will be reached, as well as for informal hoesik openness. However, as shown in <Model 8> of <Table 4-3>, we see no significant effect from autonomy and openness towards knowledge sharing, meaning that whether autonomy and openness are high or low, it is most likely not to change the result of knowledge sharing.

<Table 4-4> Regression Analysis Towards Knowledge Sharing

DV : Knowledge Sharing	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10
Control Variables :					
Gender	-.066	-.021	-.023	-.024	-.026
Nationality	.097	.042	.034	.033	.033
Age	-.047	-.078	-.074	-.069	-.072
Education	.008	.003	.008	.006	.009
Employment status	-.114†	-.120*	-.118*	-.116*	-.116*
Team tenure	.121†	.140*	.137*	.127†	.129†
Team Size	-.002	-.017	-.018	-.013	-.013
Formal hoesik frequency	.023	-.037	-.043	-.038	-.038
Independent Variable:					
Informal hoesik freq		.122†	.104	.099	.093
Informal hoesik freq^2		-.185**	-.176**	-.178**	-.178**
Moderating Variable:					
I.H. Autonomy			.052	.055	.010
I.H. Openness			.029	.030	.011
Independent*Moderator					
Frequency * Autonomy				-.062	-.067
Frequency * Openness				.069	.069
Frequency^2 * Autonomy					.058
Frequency^2 * Openness					.022
R^2	.045	.084	.088	.092	.093
ΔR^2	.045†	.039**	.004	.051	.047
F	1.869†	2.889**	2.533**	2.257**	2.003*

N = 332

† p<.10 *p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

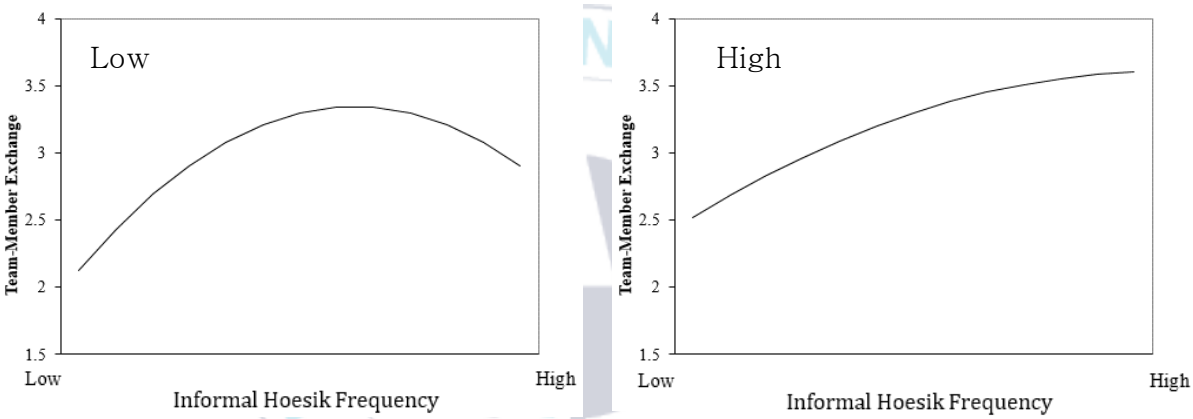


<Figure 4-2> Non-linear relationship between Frequency of Informal Hoesik and Knowledge Sharing

In the result from <Model 4> and <Model 9>, the interaction item of informal hoesik frequency and autonomy (β=-.010, p=.850) show no significant effect towards TMX, and no significant effect towards knowledge sharing(β=-.062, p=.351). The same goes for the interaction item of informal hoesik frequency and openness towards TMX (β=.083, p=.106) and knowledge sharing (β=.069, p=.304). This result shows that autonomy and openness do not affect the relationship between informal hoesik frequency and TMX. However, hypothesis 3 and 4 analysis in <Model 5> and <Model 10> shows a moderation effect of informal hoesik openness towards TMX. With β=.184, p=.024, and a .023 increase in the explanatory power, we can conclude that hypothesis 3-2 is accepted. No significant effect was detected on the moderation effect of autonomy towards TMX, knowledge sharing, and openness towards knowledge sharing; thus, hypotheses 3-1, 4-1, and 4-2 are rejected.

To show the moderating effect, I divided the group into two groups with a low level of openness and a group with a high level of openness and

compared the two. After dividing the two groups and initiating regression analysis, both results are significant with (β=-.442, p=.000) and (β=-.148, p=.044). The difference between groups can be seen in <Figure 4-3>. Thus, openness moderates the non-linear relationship between informal hoesik frequency and TMX, whereas, in a higher level of openness situation, informal hoesik frequency shows a higher positive effect towards TMX. <Table 4-4> presents the result of the bootstrapping analysis conducted using Process Macro v4.2.



<Figure 4-3> Moderating Effect of Informal Hoesik Openness

<Table 4-5> Bootstrapping Analysis 1

Independent variable	Informal hoesik frequency-squared
Dependent variable	TMX
Moderator	Informal hoesik openness

Moderator level	Conditional indirect effect	Product of coefficients			Bootstrapping bias-corrected 95% confidence interval	
		SE	z	P	Lower	Upper
Lo (Mean -1SD)	**-.332**	**.058**	**-5.770**	**.000**	-.446	-.219
	-.170	**.038**	**-4.493**	**.000**	-.244	-.096
Hi (Mean +1SD)	-.008	.048	-.161	.872	-.103	.870

3.4 Additional Analysis 1 : TMX as Mediator

The quality of TMX, characterized by trust, collaboration, and reciprocity among team members, serves as a conducive environment for knowledge sharing. Individuals within a team with higher TMX are more likely to openly exchange information, ideas, and experiences, leading to increased knowledge sharing (Seers, 1989). Liu et al. (2011) suggested that TMX fosters stronger commitment among employees towards their teams. Moreover, Liden, Wayne, and Sparrowe (2000) highlighted that individuals with higher TMX tend to have increased chances to exchange knowledge and resources. In contrast, those with weaker TMX encounter fewer exchanges of ideas necessary for task completion. Consequently, elevated TMX facilitates the exchange of skills and knowledge within teams and across the organization (Kipkosgei, 2020). As TMX has been linked to knowledge sharing in other research, I did an additional analysis to see whether TMX might mediate the relationship between informal hoesik frequency and knowledge sharing.

To examine the mediating role of TMX towards the relationship between informal hoesik frequency and knowledge sharing, we added TMX into the regression analysis towards knowledge sharing. In the mediated model, the Informal hoesik frequency effect (β=-.075, $p>.1$) comes out as insignificant, while the TMX effect (β=.429, $p<.001$) comes out significantly positive towards knowledge sharing. Comparing the mediated model and direct model shows a significant increase of explanatory power (ΔR^2) by .152 ($p<.001$). With TMX as a moderating variable in the model, the dependent variable effect becomes insignificant. Thus, we can conclude that TMX fully mediates the relationship between informal hoesik frequency and knowledge sharing. To further test the mediation effect of TMX, we conclude a bootstrapping test using Process Macro. As shown in <Table 4-5>, the indirect relationship of informal hoesik frequency -> TMX -> knowledge sharing comes out as significant with lower limit confidence interval and upper limit confidence interval value ≠ 0.

<Table 4-6> Bootstrapping Analysis 2

Indirect Relationships	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
IHF -> TMX -> Knowledge sharing	0.1528	0.031	0.0949	0.2223

VI. Conclusion

1. Results and Discussion

This study conducted an empirical analysis to verify the moderating role of informal hoesik characteristics in the non-linear relationship between informal hoesik frequency towards TMX and knowledge sharing. A survey targeted office workers in South Korea with experience with hoesik events. Based on the responses of 332 people collected through the survey, statistical analysis was conducted using SPSS 26.0 and Process Macro 4.2. Here are the findings we took from our analysis. First, the study observed a positive shift in people's perceptions of hoesik, evident in higher satisfaction rates and a more favorable view of its significance for organizational growth, particularly among younger participants compared to earlier studies (Lee, 2017; Shim, 2017). This evolution likely stems from changes in laws governing organizational culture and hoesik practices, compounded by a two-year hiatus due to the impact of COVID-19 (Jeong, 2022).

Second, it was confirmed that informal hoesik frequency has a non-linear effect on TMX and knowledge sharing. In other words, the more frequent informal hoesik is, the more TMX and knowledge sharing behavior is done. However, we also found a negative effect beyond a certain threshold for informal hoesik frequency. Aligning with the TMGT effect, although a moderate informal hoesik might have positive results, an excessive amount of hoesik led to declining returns and negatively affected TMX and knowledge sharing (Halbesleben et al., 2009; Pierce & Aguinis, 2013). Show the importance of looking for balance in informal hoesik frequency to prevent burnout and disturbance in employees' personal lives.

Third, although it was not included in our hypothesis, formal hoesik frequency also positively affected TMX, although smaller than informal hoesik frequency. This explains that although it is built with a formal objective and structure, doing formal hoesik could also increase the exchange of members. As formal hoesik could also be held at an organizational level, we could expect the exchange from people in the same team and outside groups with different expertise, possibly expanding one's social capital (Oh, Chung & Labianca, 2004). This result aligns with previous

studies on hoesik, whether formal or informal and serves as a socialization tool for organizations (Cakar & Kim, 2015). Exploring the effect of formal hoesik on organizational-level behavior or individual relationships will be an assignment for future studies.

There is also the significant positive effect of informal hoesik frequency towards TMX, showing that a linear relationship between the two is also possible. In addition, there is a significant positive effect of TMX on knowledge sharing, aligning with previous studies (Liu et al., 2011; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrow, 2000; Kipkosgei, 2020). Based on the additional analysis of TMX as a mediator, this study confirmed that informal hoesik frequency could not positively affect knowledge sharing directly but through the mediation role of TMX. In other words, the more frequently informal hoesik is held- it does not increase the knowledge sharing between members. However, through the exchange between members from frequent informal hoesik gatherings, employees or team members might be more inclined to share knowledge with those they have a strong relationship. Furthermore, this result highlighted the significance of TMX in organizational behavior. Thus, focusing on building TMX within the organization or group should be the organization's main goal, and human resource management to get the bigger picture.

Lastly, although our findings on the moderating effect on the autonomy aspects in informal hoesik participation were not found, the insignificance result indicates that attendance autonomy was not a significant problem hindering employees from building their exchange with one another. This might be due to the flexible nature of informal hoesik and the changing perspectives regarding hoesik participation (Cakar & Kim, 2015; In, 2018). However, openness shows a significant moderating effect, confirming the importance of autonomy within informal hoesik gatherings. This result underlines the importance of openness in informal hoesik sessions, suggesting that fostering an environment of open communication and transparency during these gatherings significantly impacts the relationship between hoesik frequency and TMX. This implies that when team members engage in open dialogue and transparent communication during frequent hoesik sessions, it significantly influences the quality of relationships within the team. Furthermore, in the low openness situation, the non-linear relationship between informal hoesik frequency and TMX can be described as inverted-shaped, highlighting the positive effect

changing into a negative with higher frequency. The relationship does not show a declining effect in the high openness situation despite the high frequency. In other words, with moderate openness or autonomy during informal hoesik gatherings, the negative effect of excessive hoesik frequency could be canceled.

2. Theoretical Implications

This study makes several significant contributions to the existing literature. Firstly, it extends the understanding of Korean hoesik culture by examining its influence on members' exchange behavior and knowledge-sharing practices. Prior studies often emphasized Hoesik's organizational and socialization goals (Cakar & Kim, 2015; Jeong, 2022; Shim, 2017). However, the impact of hoesik, especially beyond its negative or drinking aspects, on employee exchange and sharing behaviors lacked comprehensive analysis. Thus, this research illuminates the value of embracing moderate hoesik culture in comprehending member exchange and knowledge sharing, highlighting the significance of hoesik types and characteristics in shaping exchange behavior.

Secondly, this study employs Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964) in conjunction with the Too-Much-of-a-Good-Thing effect (TMGT) (Pierce & Aguinis, 2013) to offer insights into the effect of informal hoesik frequency on member exchange behavior. The study suggests that informal hoesik frequency positively influences members' exchange behavior but warns of a negative effect beyond a moderate level. Furthermore, it identifies informal hoesik characteristics like autonomy and openness as moderators that strengthen primary relationships.

Thirdly, the research addresses a gap in existing studies (Jeong, 2022; Lee, 2017; Shim, 2017) by identifying structural issues within hoesik culture and proposing measures for improvement. This study establishes indicators for diagnosing hoesik enhancement through empirical research and analysis, overcoming prior research limitations. Additionally, by collecting a more extensive and diverse sample, the study addresses prior criticisms concerning hoesik examination with limited sample diversity.

Lastly, this research contributes to the literature on Team-Member Exchange (TMX) and knowledge sharing by exploring the impact of a unique

organizational culture. While previous studies mainly focused on factors like job design, organizational support, and justice (e.g., Bjerkness & Cheng, 2014; Greenberg, 1990; Chae et al., 2015; George et al., 2016; Chión et al., 2020; AlShamsi & Ajmal, 2018), this study delves into the distinct culture of Korean hoesik, indicating that culturally separated work practices can significantly influence employee behaviors. Specifically, the study reveals how hoesik culture significantly influences TMX, indirectly affecting knowledge sharing. This finding suggests new avenues for exploring the impact of organizational or country-specific cultures on exchange behaviors within the workplace.

3. Practical Implications

This study yields significant practical implications for organizations striving to enhance member exchange and foster knowledge sharing—a cornerstone for team performance, organizational effectiveness, and productivity (Arthur et al., 2005; Collins et al., 2006; Cummings, 2004; Hansen, 2002; Lin, 2007; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2009). It accentuates hoesik gatherings as potent socialization tools influencing exchange behaviors. Striking a balance in their frequency emerges as crucial; while these events can stimulate positive exchanges, excessive sessions may yield diminishing returns and adversely affect employee well-being. It is pivotal for organizational leaders to strategically adjust hoesik frequency to prevent employee burnout and personal disruptions. Moreover, this research uncovers the overlooked potential of formal hoesik gatherings in fostering cross-team interactions and knowledge sharing. By encouraging formal hoesik sessions between teams, organizations can bridge inter-group relationships and expand the diversity of shared knowledge (Oh, Chung & Labianca, 2004). This could be a valuable strategy for harnessing diverse expertise within the organization.

Furthermore, emphasizing openness and transparent communication during hoesik sessions is a practical approach to fortify team relationships and counteract the negative impacts of excessive hoesik frequency. These insights might be adaptable to other organizational contexts, influencing outcomes beyond hoesik events. Lastly, adapting hoesik practices to align with evolving perspectives remains vital, particularly among younger

participants. This ensures these gatherings' relevance and contribution to positive organizational growth. Understanding these moderating factors refines hoesik practices and bolsters team dynamics and knowledge sharing within organizational settings. Recognizing and leveraging these implications could significantly benefit organizations in shaping effective hoesik practices and enhancing their overall performance.

4. Limitations and Recommendation for Future Research

The study has limitations that need consideration. Its cross-sectional design, typical of quantitative research, does not establish causality conclusively. While I proposed that informal hoesik frequency influences TMX and knowledge sharing, there is a possibility that individuals with higher TMX and knowledge sharing might be more inclined to hold or attend hoesik. Moreover, autonomy and openness levels might precede higher hoesik frequency; the absence of pressure to attend and a great hoesik atmosphere could drive participation (Shim, 2017; Lee, 2006). A longitudinal study is necessary to ascertain causality within this framework. Furthermore, the reliance on online surveys resulted in data collected through self-report measures. Such studies are prone to biased responses despite efforts to ensure anonymity and stress the importance of honest responses. Future research could counter this by gathering data from individuals' supervisors for a more accurate perspective. Alternatively, conducting research at a team level might align better with individual reports.

While this study focused on Hoesik's original goals of unity and communication, a vast terrain in this area is yet to be explored. It primarily examined exchange variables, but hoesik, as a gathering place for team members, likely has numerous positive effects on organizations (In, 2018; Jeong, 2022). For instance, investigating leader-member exchanges concerning hoesik, mostly hosted by group leaders, could yield insights into organizational behavior. Additionally, individual traits such as political skill, personality, or intrinsic motivation might moderate the effects of hoesik (Roberts, 2006; Munyon et al., 2015; McAllister et al., 2018; Landis, 2016), warranting further exploration in future research. In addition, due to the study's primary focus on informal hoesik events, although the result

revealed a significant positive association between formal hoesik frequency and TMX, this positive association was not extensively explored or analyzed profoundly. This finding poses a promising avenue for future research in understanding the dynamics and impact of formal hoesik gatherings on team interactions, knowledge sharing, and overall team dynamics. Future studies could investigate the structure, content, and format of formal hoesik sessions to ascertain their role in fostering positive team relationships and knowledge sharing. Examining factors such as the agenda, leadership roles, communication patterns, and participation dynamics within formal hoesik gatherings could provide deeper insights into their potential impact on organizational behavior. Exploring this aspect of formal hoesik events could enhance our understanding of diverse socialization mechanisms within organizations, potentially uncovering additional dimensions contributing to team cohesion, collaboration, and knowledge sharing.

In conclusion, this study significantly contributes to our understanding of Korea's hoesik culture by scrutinizing its impact on member exchanges and knowledge-sharing behaviors. Adopting social exchange theory and the TMGT effect, this research investigates the non-linear correlation between informal hoesik frequency. It explores the autonomy and openness aspects within hoesik to enhance primary relationships. Despite its limitations, the compelling findings of this study are anticipated to stimulate further research, fostering a deeper exploration of how hoesik culture influences organizational dynamics and employee behaviors.

References

Abu Bakar, H., & Sheer, V. C. (2013). The mediating role of perceived cooperative communication in the relationship between interpersonal exchange relationships and perceived group cohesion. *Management Communication Quarterly*, *27*(3), 443-465.

Aisyah, N., Setyaningrum, R. P., Budiarti, E., Cempena, I. B., & Suhardi, S. (2023). Meta-Analysis Review of Servant Leadership and Team Member Exchange (TMX) Theory. *JPPI (Jurnal Penelitian Pendidikan Indonesia), 9*(1), 403-419.

Ajmal, M. M., & Koskinen, K. U. (2008). Knowledge transfer in project-based organizations: an organizational culture perspective. *Project Management Journal*, *39*(1), 7-15.

Alamil, H., Renukappa, S., Alosaimi, H., & Al Nabt, S. (2019, April). Drivers for Sharing Knowledge in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Construction Industry: An Empirical Study. In *Proceedings of the 2019 3rd International Conference on Information System and Data Mining* (pp. 109-113).

Alavi, M., & Leidner, D. E. (2001). Knowledge management and knowledge management systems: Conceptual foundations and research issues. *MIS Quarterly*, 107-136

Alavi, M., Kayworth, T. R., & Leidner, D. E. (2005). An empirical examination of the influence of organizational culture on knowledge management practices. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *22*(3), 191-224.

Alge, B. J., Wiethoff, C., & Klein, H. J. (2003). When does the medium matter? Knowledge-building experiences and opportunities in decision-making teams. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *91*(1), 26-37.

Aljuwaiber, A. (2020). Business development through knowledge sharing among members of sectoral committees. *Business Process Management Journal*, *26*(6), 1349-1377.

Alper, Tim (2009, January 2). [Living in Korea] Benefits of community culture - Hoesik. *Hankyoreh*

AlShamsi, O., & Ajmal, M. (2018). Critical factors for knowledge sharing in technology-intensive organizations: evidence from UAE service sector. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *22*(2), 384-412.

Alshwayat, D., MacVaugh, J. A., & Akbar, H. (2021). A multi-level perspective on trust, collaboration and knowledge sharing cultures in a highly formalized organization. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *25*(9), 2220-2244.

Ames, G. M., Grube, J. W., & Moore, R. S. (2000). Social control and workplace drinking norms: a comparison of two organizational cultures. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, *61*(2), 203-219.

Anwar, R., Rehman, M., Wang, K. S., & Hashmani, M. A. (2019). Systematic literature review of knowledge sharing barriers and facilitators in global software development organizations using concept maps. *IEEE Access*, *7*, 24231-24247.

Anwar, R., Rehman, M., Wang, K. S., Hashmani, M. A., & Shamim, A. (2019). Investigation of knowledge sharing behavior in global software development organizations using social cognitive theory. *IEEE Access*, *7*, 71286-71298.

Argote, L., McEvily, B., & Reagans, R. (2003). Managing knowledge in organizations: An integrative framework and review of emerging themes. *Management Science*, *49*(4), 571-582.

Arsawan, I. W. E., Koval, V., Rajiani, I., Rustiarini, N. W., Supartha, W. G., & Suryantini, N. P. S. (2022). Leveraging knowledge sharing and innovation culture into SMEs sustainable competitive advantage. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, *71*(2), 405-428.

Arthur, Jeffrey B., & Christopher L. Huntley. (2015). Ramping up the organizational learning curve: Assessing the impact of deliberate learning on organizational performance under gainsharing. *Academy of Management Journal 48.6*: 1159-1170.

Aubke, F., Wöber, K., Scott, N., & Baggio, R. (2014). Knowledge sharing in revenue management teams: Antecedents and consequences of group cohesion. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 41*, 149-157.

Baek, Y. A. (1999). Gender Differences in the Impact of Alcohol Consumption on Job Performance Among Working Adults. *Unpublished master's thesis*. Keimyung University Graduate School of Women.

Banks, G. C., Batchelor, J. H., Seers, A., O'Boyle Jr, E. H., Pollack, J. M., & Gower, K. (2014). What does team–member exchange bring to the party? A meta-analytic review of team and leader social exchange. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *35*(2), 273-295.

Baron, R. A. (1986). Self-Presentation in Job Interviews: When There Can Be "Too Much of a Good Thing" 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *16*(1), 16-28.

Baumgartner, H., & Homburg, C. (1996). Applications of structural equation modeling in marketing and consumer research: A review. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, *13*(2), 139-161.

Bhatt, G. D. (2000). Organizing knowledge in the knowledge development cycle. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *4*(1), 15-26.

Bjerknes, M. and Cheng, H. (2014) The Effects of Organizational Justice on Organizational Citizenship Behavior in the Chinese Context the Mediating Effects of Social Exchange Relationship. *Public Personnel Management, 43*, 301-313.

Blackler, F. (1995). Knowledge, knowledge work and organizations: An overview and interpretation. *Organization Studies*, *16*(6), 1021-1046.

Blau, P. M. (1964). Justice in social exchange. *Sociological Inquiry,* 34(2), 193-206.

Blouch, R., Yasmeen, A., Khan, M. M., & Shakeel, W. (2021). Unleashing knowledge sharing in a developing country: A case of healthcare industry. *Global Knowledge, Memory and Communication*, *70*(1/2), 60-78.

Borgatti, S. P., & Cross, R. (2003). A relational view of information seeking and learning in social networks. *Management Science*, *49*(4), 432-445.

Bosua, R., & Scheepers, R. (2007). Towards a model to explain knowledge sharing in complex organizational environments. *Knowledge Management Research & Practice*, *5*(2), 93-109.

Brackett, M. A., Rivers, S. E., Shiffman, S., Lerner, N., & Salovey, P. (2006). Relating emotional abilities to social functioning: a comparison of self-report and performance measures of emotional intelligence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *91*(4), 780.

Brewer, M. B. (1979). In-group bias in the minimal intergroup situation: A cognitive-motivational analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *86*: 307-324

Brown, J. S., & Duguid, P. (2001). Knowledge and organization: A social-practice perspective. *Organization Science*, *12*(2), 198-213.

Burt, R. S. (2000). The network structure of social capital. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *22*, 345-423.

Burt, R. S. (2004). From structural holes: The social structure of competition. *The New Economic Sociology: a Reader*, 325-348

Cabrera, Elizabeth F., & Angel Cabrera. (2005). Fostering knowledge sharing through people management practices. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management 16.5*: 720-735.

Cakar, U., & Kim, H. (2015). Korea's Drinking Culture: When an Organizational Tool Threatens Workplace Well-being. *Turkish Journal of Business Ethics*, *8*(2).

Carron, A.V., Brawley, L.R. and Widmeyer, W.N. (1998). Measurement of cohesion in sport and exercise. In *Advances in Sport and Exercise Psychology Measurement* (edited byJ.L. Duda), pp. 213-226. Morgantown, WV: FitnessInformation Technology.

Cashman, J., Dansereau Jr, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1976). Organizational understructure and leadership: A longitudinal investigation of the managerial role-making process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, *15*(2), 278-296.

Cepeda-Carrion, G., Cegarra-Navarro, J. G., & Jimenez-Jimenez, D. (2012). The effect of absorptive capacity on innovativeness: Context and information systems capability as catalysts. *British Journal of Management*, *23*(1), 110-129.

Cha, C. (2012, May 25). Business traveler's guide to surviving a Korean drinking session. *CNN*.

Chae, J. E. (2015, April 24). Tired fathers "we would like to spend time with our kids but…" Less than 3 out of 10 workers leave the office at regular time. *Korea Times*. [채지은. 피곤한 아빠들 "아이와 놀고 싶지만…" 정시 퇴근은 10 명중 3 명도 안돼.코리아 타임즈. 2015-04-24]

Chae, S., Seo, Y., & Lee, K. C. (2015). Effects of task complexity on individual creativity through knowledge interaction: A comparison of temporary and permanent teams. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *42*, 138-148.

Chao, G. T., O'Leary-Kelly, A. M., Wolf, S., Klein, H. J., & Gardner, P. D. (1994). Organizational socialization: Its content and consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*(5), 730-743.

Chatman, J. A. (1991). Matching People and Organizations: Selection and Socialization in Public Accounting Firms.. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 459-484.

Chen, A. N., & Edgington, T. M. (2005). Assessing value in organizational knowledge creation: Considerations for knowledge workers. *MIS Quarterly*, 279-309.

Chen, C., & Liu, X. (2022). Relative team-member exchange, affective organizational commitment and innovative behavior: The moderating role of team-member exchange differentiation. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *13*, 948578.

Chen, G., & Klimoski, R. J. (2003). The impact of expectations on newcomer performance in teams as mediated by work characteristics, social exchanges, and empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal*, *46*(5), 591-607.

Chen, Z., Zhu, J., & Zhou, M. (2015). How does a servant leader fuel the service fire? A multilevel model of servant leadership, individual self identity, group competition climate, and customer service performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(2), 511.

Chiaburu, D. S., Lorinkova, N. M., & Van Dyne, L. (2013). Employees' social context and change-oriented citizenship: A meta-analysis of leader, coworker, and organizational influences. *Group and Organization Management*, *38*(3), 291-333.

Chión, S. J., Charles, V., & Morales, J. (2020). The impact of organisational culture, organisational structure and technological infrastructure on process improvement through knowledge sharing. *Business Process Management Journal*, *26*(6), 1443-1472.

Chiu, Chao-Min, Meng-Hsiang Hsu, & Eric TG Wang. (2006). Understanding knowledge sharing in virtual communities: An integration of social capital and social cognitive theories. *Decision Support Systems 42.3* (2006): 1872-1888.

Collins, Christopher J., and Ken G. Smith. (2006). Knowledge exchange and combination: The role of human resource practices in the performance of high-technology firms. *Academy of Management Journal 49.3*: 544-560.

Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: a meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(3), 425.

Cook, K. S., Cheshire, C., Rice, E. R., & Nakagawa, S. (2013). Social exchange theory. *Handbook of Social Psychology*, 61-88.

Cooper-Thomas, H. D., & Anderson, N. (2005). Organizational socialization: A field study into socialization success and rate. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, *13*(2), 116-128.

Coser, L. A. (1956). The functions of social conflict (Vol. 9). *Routledge*.

Cosper, R. (1979). Drinking as conformity; a critique of sociological literature on occupational differences in drinking. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, *40*(9), 868-891.

Cowan, R., & Jonard, N. (2007). Structural holes, innovation and the distribution of ideas. *Journal of Economic Interaction and Coordination*, *2*, 93-110.

Cross, R., Parker, A., Prusak, L., & Borgatti, S. P. (2001). Knowing what we know: Supporting knowledge creation and sharing in social networks. *Organizational Dynamics, 30*(2), 100-120.

Cummings, Jonathon N. (2004). Work groups, structural diversity, and knowledge sharing in a global organization. *Management science 50.3*: 352-364.

Davenport, T. H., & Prusak, L. (1998). Working knowledge: How organizations manage what they know. *Harvard Business Press*.

de Jong, J. P., Curşeu, P. L., & Leenders, R. T. A. (2014). When do bad apples not spoil the barrel? Negative relationships in teams, team performance, and buffering mechanisms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *99*(3), 514.

De Vos, A., Buyens, D., & Schalk, R. (2003). Psychological contract development during organizational socialization: Adaptation to reality and the role of reciprocity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *24*(5), 537-559.

Deci, E., & Ryan, R. (2008). Self-determination theory: A macrotheory of human motivation, development, and health. *Canadian Psychology, 49*, 182-185.

Dixon, N. M. (2000). Common knowledge: How companies thrive by sharing what they know. *Boston: Harvard Business School Press*

Doll, W. J., Xia, W., & Torkzadeh, G. (1994). A confirmatory factor analysis of the end-user computing satisfaction instrument. *MIS Quarterly*, 453-461.

Driskell, J. E., Salas, E., & Johnston, J. (1999). Does stress lead to a loss of team perspective?. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, *3*(4), 291.

Edmondson, A. (1999). Psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 44*: 350 -383.

Eskerod, P., & Skriver, H. J. (2007). Organizational culture restraining in-house knowledge transfer between project managers a case study. *Project Management Journal*, *38*(1), 110-122.

Farmer, S. M., Van Dyne, L., & Kamdar, D. (2015). The contextualized self: How team-member exchange leads to coworker identification and helping OCB. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(2), 583.

Fehr, E., Gächter, S., & Kirchsteiger, G. (1997). Reciprocity as a contract enforcement device: Experimental evidence. *Econometrica: Journal of the Econometric Society*, 833-860.

Fischer, C. S. (1982). Networks and places: Social relations in the urban setting. *New York: Free Press*.

Fong, P. S., & Choi, S. K. (2009). The processes of knowledge management in professional services firms in the construction industry: a critical assessment of both theory and practice. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *13*(2), 110-126.

Gagné, M. (2009). A model of knowledge-sharing motivation. *Human Resource Management, 48*, 571-589.

Gagné, M., Tian, A., Soo, C., Zhang, B., Ho, K., & Hosszu, K. (2019). Different motivations for knowledge sharing and hiding: The role of motivating work design. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*.

Gajendran, R. S., & Joshi, A. (2012). Innovation in globally distributed teams: The role of LMX, communication frequency, and member influence on team decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *97*(6), 1252.

George, G., Howard-Grenville, J., Joshi, A., & Tihanyi, L. (2016). Understanding and tackling societal grand challenges through management research. *Academy of Management Journal*, *59*(6), 1880-1895.

Gold, A. H., Malhotra, A., & Segars, A. H. (2001). Knowledge management: An organizational capabilities perspective. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *18*(1), 185-214.

Gordon, R., Heim, D., & MacAskill, S. (2012). Rethinking drinking cultures: A review of drinking cultures and a reconstructed dimensional approach. *Public Health, 126*(1), 3-11.

Graen, G. B. (1976). Role-making processes within complex organizations. *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*.

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multilevel multi-domain perspective. *Leadership Quarterly, 6*(2), 219-247.

Granovetter, M. S. (1973). The strength of weak ties. *American Journal of Sociology, 78*(6), 1360-1380.

Granovetter, M. S. (1985). Economic action and social structure: The problem of embeddedness. *American Journal of Sociology, 91*: 481-510.

Grant, A. M., & Schwartz, B. (2011). Too much of a good thing: The challenge and opportunity of the inverted U. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *6*(1), 61-76.

Grant, R. M. (1996). Toward a knowledge-based theory of the firm. *Strategic Management Journal, 17*(S2), 109- 122

Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management*, *16*(2), 399-432.

Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., Anderson, R.E. & Tatham, R.L. (2006), Multivariate Data Analysis, 6th ed., *Pearson Prentice-Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ.*

Hambrick, D. C. (2007). The field of management's devotion to theory: Too much of a good thing?. *Academy of Management Journal*, *50*(6), 1346-1352.

Hansen, M. T. (1999). The search-transfer problem: The role of weak ties in sharing knowledge across organization subunits. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 44*(1), 82-111.

Hansen, M. T. (2002) Knowledge networks: Explaining effective knowledge sharing in multiunit companies. *Organization Science 13.3*: 232-248

Hansen, S. D., Alge, B. J., Brown, M. E., Jackson, C. L., & Dunford, B. B. (2013). Ethical leadership: Assessing the value of a multifoci social exchange perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *115*, 435-449.

Haynie, J. J. (2012). Core-self evaluations and team performance: The role of team-member exchange. *Small Group Research*, *43*(3), 315-329.

Heisig, P. (2009). Harmonisation of knowledge management–comparing 160 KM frameworks around the globe. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *13*(4), 4-31.

Herald Pop (2002, June 30). 9 out of 10 young office workers prefer a new company dinner culture

Herdman, A. O., Yang, J., & Arthur, J. B. (2017). How does leader–member exchange disparity affect teamwork behavior and effectiveness in work groups? The moderating role of leader–leader exchange. *Journal of Management*, *43*(5), 1498-1523.

Hidayat, I. N., Hartanto, A., & Sensuse, D. I. (2023). Organizational Culture Factors to Improve Knowledge Sharing Process: A Systematic Literature Review. *Indonesian Journal of Computer Science*, *12*(6).

Hoegl, M., & Wagner, S. M. (2005). Buyer-supplier collaboration in product development projects. *Journal of Management, 31*(4), 530-548.

Hooper, D. T., & Martin, R. (2008). Beyond personal leader–member exchange (LMX) quality: The effects of perceived LMX variability on employee reactions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *19*(1), 20-30.

Huang, N., Duan, Z., & Zhao, Y. (2014). Leader-following consensus of second-order non-linear multi-agent systems with directed intermittent communication. *IET Control Theory & Applications*, *8*(10), 782-795.

Hubbell, A. P., & Chory-Assad, R. M. (2005). Motivating factors: Perceptions of justice and their relationship with managerial and organizational trust. *Communication studies*, *56*(1), 47-70.

Huber, G. P. (1991). Organizational learning: The contributing processes and the literatures. *Organization Science*, *2*(1), 88-115.

Ilies, R., Fulmer, I. S., Spitzmuller, M., & Johnson, M. D. (2009). Personality and citizenship behavior: the mediating role of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(4), 945.

Ilies, R., Nahrgang, J. D., & Morgeson, F. P. (2007). Leader-member exchange and citizenship behaviors: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(1), 269.

In, M. H. (2018). A study on the development of a party-centered drinking culture for employees. *Unpublished master's thesis*, Sungshin Women's University.

Ipe, M. (2003). Knowledge sharing in organizations: A conceptual framework. *Human Resource Development Review*, *2*(4), 337-359.

Irvine, J. T. (1979). Formality and informality in communicative events. *American Anthropologist*, *81*(4), 773-790.

Ismail, N. Q. A., Hamzah, M. H., Ngah, K., Mustaffa, J., Zakaria, Z., & Noordin, N. (2012). Work unit context: The dyadic, team members relationships and group outcomes in a Malaysian organization. *Business Management Dynamics*, *1*(10), 22.

Jacobs, T. O. (1971). Leadership and exchange in formal organization. *Human Resources Research Organization.*

Jang, I. K. (2020). Criticism of the Labor Relations Laws of the Moon Jae-in Government. *Labor and Society Science*, *(13)*, 157-175.

Jang, O. S. (2016). Study of Korean Corporate Drinking Culture Education Content Using TV Dramas. *Unpublished master's thesis*. Hankuk University of Foreign Studies.

Jashapara, A. (2005). The emerging discourse of knowledge management: A new dawn for information science research? *Journal of Information Science, 31*(2), 136-148

Jegal, J. (2010). Structural relationship between employee drinking problems and workplace characteristics. *Unpublished master's thesis*. Inje University.

Jiang, Y., & Chen, C. C. (2018). Integrating knowledge activities for team innovation: Effects of transformational leadership. *Journal of Management*, *44*(5), 1819-1847.

Jin, B. G. (2013, May 14). Death lying on railroad after hoesik, ruled out as industrial accident. *Naeil Sinmun.* [진병기, 회식후 철로에 누워 사망 '산재'. 내일신문. 2013-05-14]

Jordan, M. H., Feild, H. S., & Armenakis, A. A. (2002). The relationship of group process variables and team performance: A team-level analysis in a field setting. *Small Group Research, 33*(1), 121-150.

Jung, C. W. (2022). A study on improving the drinking culture of police organizations. *Police Studies Research*, *22*(3), 93-116.

Jung, K. D., Jung, J. H., Kim, M. J., & Cho, M. H. (2017). Analysis of the Policy Decision Process of the Kim Young-ran Law. *Korean Society and Administration Studies, 28*(2), 217-245.

Kamdar, D., & Van Dyne, L. (2007). The joint effects of personality and workplace social exchange relationships in predicting task performance and citizenship performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(5), 1286.

Kayworth, T., & Leidner, D. (2004). Organizational culture as a knowledge resource. *Handbook on Knowledge Management 1: Knowledge Matters*, 235-252.

Keup, L., Bruning, N. S., & Seers, A. (2004). Members, leaders and the team: Extending LMX to co-worker relationships. *The Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, *21*(1), 1-14.

Kim, D. C. (2014, November 12). A factory worker in Changwon has died because of dyspnea after hoesik. *Idomin.com* [김두천, 창원 한 전자공장 직원 회식뒤 호흡곤란 사망. 경남도민일보. 2014-11-12]

Kim, G. S. (2013, November 28). The court ruled death after excessive drinking in hoesik as industrial accident. *News1 Korea*. [김규신, 법원 '회식자리 과음후 사망 산업재해'. 뉴스 1 코리아. 2013-11-28]

Kim, H. (2014). Ask a Korean dude: An authoritative and irreverent guide to the Korea experience. *Seoul: Seoul Selection*

Kim, H. J. (2018, March 13). "The hoesik culture changed by the Me too movement". *Hankookilbo* [김형준, "노래방 2 차 없다" 미투가 바꾼 회식 풍속도. 한국일보. 2018-03-13]

Kim, J. S. (2005). Why is Forcing Someone to Drink at Work Gatherings Considered Sexual Harassment? *Nanumteo, Korea Sexual Violence Counseling Center*, 17-19.

King W. R. (2006). Knowledge sharing. In *Encyclopedia of Knowledge*, Schwartz, D. (ed.). Idea Group Publishing: Hershy, PA

Knee, C., Hadden, B., Porter, B., & Rodriguez, L. (2013). Self-Determination Theory and Romantic Relationship Processes. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 17*, 307-324.

Ko, D. G., Kirsch, L. J., & King, W. R. (2005). Antecedents of knowledge transfer from consultants to clients in enterprise system implementations. *MIS Quarterly*, 59-85.

Kogut, B., & Zander, U. (1992). Knowledge of the firm, combinative capabilities, and the replication of technology. *Organization Science, 3*(3), 383-397

Korea Research Association & EMBRAIN. (2020). Evaluation of workplace drinking culture and post-COVID-19 drinking culture among office workers. *Research report 5*

Korea Research Association & EMBRAIN. (2022). Evaluation of workplace drinking culture and post-COVID-19 drinking culture among office workers. *Research Report 7*

Krackhardt, D. (1992). The strength of strong ties: The importance of philos in organizations. In N. Nohria & R. G. Eccles (Eds.), Networks and Organizations: Structure, Form and Action (pp. 216-239). *Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press*

Krackhardt, D. (1999). The ties that torture: Simmelian tie analysis in organizations. *Research in the Sociology of Organizations*, *16*(1), 183-210.

Kramer, R. M., Hanna, B. A., Su, S., & Wei, J. (2001). Collective identity, collective trust, and social capital: Linking group identification and group cooperation, *Groups at Work: Theory and Research* (pp. 173-196).

Kwak, H. J., & Hong, S. I. (2008). A study on the establishment of the 'Korean-style party': Focusing on case comparisons of 'global parties' and domestic situations. *Journal of the Korea Entertainment Industry Association*, *2*(2), 278-293.

La Guardia, J., & Patrick, H. (2008). Self-Determination Theory as a Fundamental Theory of Close Relationships. *Canadian Psychology, 49*, 201-209.

Labianca, G., Umphress, E. E., & Kaufmann, J. (2000). A preliminary test of the negative asymmetry hypothesis in workplace social networks. In *60th Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management, Toronto*.

Landis, B. (2016). Personality and social networks in organizations: A review and future directions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 37*

Le, H., Oh, I. S., Robbins, S. B., Ilies, R., Holland, E., & Westrick, P. (2011). Too much of a good thing: curvilinear relationships between personality traits and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(1), 113.

Lee, D. W., Park, H. S., Lee, T. S., Kim, M. K., & Kim, Y. H. (2006). Korean Working Adults; and Undergraduates' Attitudes Towards, and Self-efficacy in Joining Drinking Parties. *Social Behavior and Personality: an International Journal*, *34*(5), 487-498.

Lee, D. W., Park, H. S., Lee, T. S., Kim, M. K., & Kim, Y. H. (2007). Functions of social gatherings involving alcohol consumption with coworkers in Korea. *Asian Journal of Communication*, *17*(3), 266-285.

Lee, H. J., & Jegal, J. (2002). Survey research for the development of a program for workplace drinking problems. *Korea Center for Drinking Culture Studies*, *Research Report*, pp.1-163.

Lee, H. R. (2017). The impact of semi-coercive drinking culture on turnover intention and job satisfaction: An analysis of the moderating effect of person-organization fit. *Korean Management Consulting Review, 17*(3), 47-56

Lee, S. G. (2004). Social drinking as a ritual: A cultural interpretation. *Media, Gender & Culture*, 1, 39-77.

Liang, T. P., Liu, C. C., & Wu, C. H. (2008). Can social exchange theory explain individual knowledge-sharing behavior? A meta-analysis. *ICIS 2008 Proceedings*. 171

Liao, F. Y., Yang, L. Q., Wang, M., Drown, D., & Shi, J. (2013). Team-member exchange and work engagement: Does personality make a difference?. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *28*, 63-77.

Liao, H., Liu, D., & Loi, R. (2010). Looking at both sides of the social exchange coin: A social cognitive perspective on the joint effects of relationship quality and differentiation on creativity. *Academy of Management Journal*, *53*(5), 1090-1109.

Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., & Sparrow, R. T. (2000). An examination of the mediating role of psychological empowerment on the relations between the job, interpersonal relationships, and work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 407-416.

Lin, Hsiu-Fen. (2007). Knowledge sharing and firm innovation capability: an empirical study. *International Journal of manpower*.

Liu, C. H., Chiu, S. C., & Chiu, C. L. (2010). Intranetwork Relationships, Creativity, Knowledge Diversification, and Network Position. *Social Behavior & Personality: an International Journal*, *38*(9).

Loi, R., Mao, Y., & Ngo, H. Y. (2009). Linking leader-member exchange and employee work outcomes: The mediating role of organizational social and economic exchange. *Management and Organization Review*, *5*(3), 401-422.

Louis, M. R. (1980). Surprise and sense making: What newcomers experience in entering unfamiliar organizational settings. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 226-251.

Love, M. S., & Forret, M. (2008). Exchange relationships at work: An examination of the relationship between team-member exchange and supervisor reports of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, *14*(4), 342-352.

Lytras, M. D., Pouloudi, A., & Poulymenakou, A. (2002). Knowledge management convergence-expanding learning frontiers. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *6*(1), 40-51.

MacCallum, R. C., Browne, M. W., & Sugawara, H. M. (1996). Power analysis and determination of sample size for covariance structure modeling. *Psychological Methods*, *1*(2), 130.

Malhotra, Y. (Ed.). (2000). Knowledge management and virtual organizations. *IGI Global*.

Maness, M. (2017). A Theory of Strong Ties, Weak Ties, and Activity Behavior: Leisure Activity Variety and Frequency. *Transportation Research Record, 2665*, 30-39.

Markus, M. L., Majchrzak, A., & Gasser, L. (2002). A design theory for systems that support emergent knowledge processes. *MIS Quarterly*, 179-212.

Marsh, H. W., & Hocevar, D. (1985). Application of confirmatory factor analysis to the study of self-concept: First-and higher order factor models and their invariance across groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, *97*(3), 562.

Marziali, E., Munroe-Blum, H., & McCleary, L. (1997). The contribution of group cohesion and group alliance to the outcome of group psychotherapy. *International Journal of Group Psychotherapy*, *47*(4), 475-497.

Massey, A. P., & Montoya-Weiss, M. M. (2006). Unraveling the temporal fabric of knowledge conversion: A model of media selection and use. *MIS Quarterly*, 99-114.

Mathews, K. E., & Canon, L. K. (1975). Environmental noise level as a determinant of helping behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *32*(4), 571.

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., Panter, A. T., & Salovey, P. (2012). The growing significance of hot intelligences. *American Psychologist, 67*, 502-503

McAllister, C., Ellen, B., & Ferris, G. (2018). Social Influence Opportunity Recognition, Evaluation, and Capitalization: Increased Theoretical Specification Through Political Skill's Dimensional Dynamics. *Journal of Management, 44*, 1926-1952.

McDonald, B., & Sylvester, K. (2014). Learning to get drunk: The importance of drinking in Japanese university sports clubs. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, *49*(3-4), 331-345.

Mesmer-Magnus, Jessica R., & Leslie A. DeChurch. (2009) Information sharing and team performance: a meta analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 94.2: 535.

Mike Randolph (25 April 2018). "A uniquely Spanish part of the meal". *BBC Travel*.

Mohammed, S., & Angell, L. C. (2004). Surface-and deep-level diversity in workgroups: Examining the moderating effects of team orientation and team process on relationship conflict. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *25*(8), 1015-1039.

Monica Hu, M. L., Ou, T. L., Chiou, H. J., & Lin, L. C. (2012). Effects of social exchange and trust on knowledge sharing and service innovation. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, *40*(5), 783-800.

Mullen, B., Bryant, B., & Driskell, J. E. (1997). Presence of others and arousal: An integration. *Group dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, *1*(1), 52.

Munyon, T., Summers, J., Thompson, K., & Ferris, G. (2015). Political Skill and Work Outcomes: A Theoretical Extension, Meta-Analytic Investigation, and Agenda for the Future. *Personnel Psychology, 68*, 143-184.

Murphy, K. (2003). Procedural justice and tax compliance. *Australian Journal of Social Issues (Australian Council of Social Service)*, *38*(3).

Natu, S., & Aparicio, M. (2022). Analyzing knowledge sharing behaviors in virtual teams: Practical evidence from digitalized workplaces. *Journal of Innovation & Knowledge*, *7*(4), 100248.

Nazim, M., & B. Mukherjee. (2016). Factors critical to the success of knowledge management. *Knowledge Management in Libraries concepts, Tools and Approaches*: 263-286

Nemati, H. R., Steiger, D. M., Iyer, L. S., & Herschel, R. T. (2002). Knowledge warehouse: an architectural integration of knowledge management, decision support, artificial intelligence and data warehousing. *Decision Support Systems*, *33*(2), 143-161.

Newell, S., Tansley, C., & Huang, J. (2004). Social capital and knowledge integration in an ERP project team: the importance of bridging and bonding. *British Journal of Management*, *15*(S1), 43-57.

Nguyen, T. M. (2020). Do extrinsic motivation and organisational culture additively strengthen intrinsic motivation in online knowledge sharing? An empirical study. *VINE Journal of Information and Knowledge Management Systems*, *50*(1), 75-93.

Nonaka, I. (1994). A dynamic theory of organizational knowledge creation. *Organization Science, 5*(1), 14-37.

Nonaka, L., Takeuchi, H., & Umemoto, K. (1996). A theory of organizational knowledge creation. *International Journal of Technology Management*, *11*(7-8), 833-845.

Noviana, F. (2018). The Need for Introducing Japanese Manners to Caregiver Candidates for the Elderly in Japan. *International Conference on Japanese Language Education, Literature and Culture 2018*

Novoselova, O. A. (2017). Endogenous Network Effects in Multiplex Interorganizational Relationships: Critical Review. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2017, No. 1, p. 10980). Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510: Academy of Management.

O'Connor, E. P., & Crowley-Henry, M. (2019). Exploring the relationship between exclusive talent management, perceived organizational justice and employee engagement: Bridging the literature. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *156*, 903-917.

OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) (2013). Better life index - Edition 2013.

Oh, H., Chung, M. H., & Labianca, G. (2004). Group social capital and group effectiveness: The role of informal socializing ties. *Academy of Management Journal*, *47*(6), 860-875.

Oh, J. H. (2002). Korean's leisure and drinking culture. *Korean Journal of Social Issues*, 3(2), 67-94.

Orlikowski, W. J. (2002). Knowing in practice: Enacting a collective capability in distributed organizing. *Organization Science*, *13*(3), 249-273.

Osupile, K., & Makambe, U. (2021). The nexus between organisational culture and knowledge sharing in a government department in Botswana. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, *34*(2), 118-136.

Pak Noja (Vladimir Tikhonov), (2021, February 21). “Hoesik” as ritual of hierarchical obedience. *Hankyoreh.hani.co.kr*

Palmer, B. R., Gignac, G., Manocha, R., & Stough, C. (2005). A psychometric evaluation of the Mayer–Salovey–Caruso emotional intelligence test version 2.0. *Intelligence*, *33*(3), 285–305.

Park, H. J., & Jung, J. C. (2014). The mediating role of organizational attractiveness in the relationship between person-organization fit and proactive behavior. *Management Consulting Research*, *14*(1), 75-99.

Park, H. S., & Lee, D. W. (2011). Alcohol-related social gatherings with coworkers: intentions to behave and intentions to not behave. *Journal of Pacific Rim Psychology*, 5(2), 53–64.

Park, I., & Kim, Y. (2010). Constructing a questionnaire on male workers' sobriety behavior: Based on Ajzen's theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Korean Academy of Community Health Nursing*, *21*(2), 156–168.

Park, W. W., & Baek, Y. J. (2006). Side effects of group efficacy on group performance. *Journal of Management Studies (경영학연구), 35*(5), 1427-1448.

Perry-Smith, Jill E. (2006) Social yet creative: The role of social relationships in facilitating individual creativity. *Academy of Management Journal 49.1*: 85-101.

Pierce, J. R., & Aguinis, H. (2013). The too-much-of-a-good-thing effect in management. *Journal of Management, 39*(2), 313-338.

Pirkkalainen, H., & Pawlowski, J. M. (2014). Global social knowledge management–understanding barriers for global workers utilizing social software. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *30*, 637-647.

Polanyi, M., & Sen, A. (1983). The Tacit Dimension.[Repr.]. *Gloucester, Mass: Smith*.

Portes, A., & Sensenbrenner, J. (1993). Embeddedness and immigration: Notes on the social determinants of economic action. *American Journal of Sociology*, *98*: 1320 –50.

Pruit, D. G., & Rubin, J. Z. (1986). Social conflict: escalation, stalemate and settlement. *A Textbook of Social Psychology*, 268-269.

Rahadhi, A., & Suzianti, A. (2020). Knowledge Sharing Strategy for Indonesian Millennial Workforce. In *Proceedings of the 3rd Asia Pacific Conference on Research in Industrial and Systems Engineering* (pp. 30-36).

Rapp, A. A., Bachrach, D. G., & Rapp, T. L. (2013). The influence of time management skill on the curvilinear relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and task performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *98*(4), 668.

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: a review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(4), 698.

Roberts, B. (2006). Personality Development and Organizational Behavior. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 27*, 1-40.

Robinson, S., & Stubberud, H. (2009). Sources of Advice in Entrepreneurship: Gender Differences in Business Owners' Social Networks. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship, 13*, 83.

Ronald S.. Burt. (1992). Structural holes: the social structure of competition. *Harvard University Press*.

Saks, A. M., & Ashforth, B. E. (1997). Organizational socialization: Making sense of the past and present as a prologue for the future. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *51*(2), 234-279.

Saramin (2017). Who is company dinner meant for? *saramincorp.co.kr* [사람인. 누구를 위한 회식인가".2017]

Saramin (2019, October 22). 6 out of 10 office workers have the right to refuse company dinners! *saramincorp.co.kr* [사람인. 직장인 10 명 중 6 명 '회식 거부권' 행사 가능해!. 2019-10-22]

Satija, M. P. (2008). Mapping of social sciences in the Colon Classification.

Satija, M. P., Madalli, D. P., & Dutta, B. (2014). Modes of growth of subjects. *KO Knowledge Organization*, *41*(3), 195-204.

Schein, E. H. (1971). The individual, the organization, and the career: A conceptual scheme. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 7*(4), 401-426

Schermuly, C. C., & Meyer, B. (2016). Good relationships at work: The effects of Leader-Member Exchange and Team-Member Exchange on psychological empowerment, emotional exhaustion, and depression. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *37*(5), 673-691.

Schiller, A. (2022). Informal Social Organisations, Friendship and Belonging: New Research on Expatriates in Puglia, Italy. *Journal of Intercultural Studies, 43*(5), 675-685.

Schultze, U., & Leidner, D. E. (2002). Studying knowledge management in information systems research: discourses and theoretical assumptions. *MIS Quarterly*, 213-242.

Seers, A. (1989). Team-member exchange quality: A new construct for role-making research. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *43*(1), 118-135.

Seers, A., Petty, M. M., & Cashman, J. F. (1995). Team-member exchange under team and traditional management: A naturally occurring quasi-experiment. *Group and Organization Management*, *20*(1), 18-38.

Seo, M. J. (2005). Standards for judging workplace sexual harassment - Is coercion to drink at company dinners considered sexual harassment?. *Publication of the Korea Sexual Violence Counseling Center*, 56-61.

Seungduk, K. O., & Aeree, S. O. H. N. (2018). Behaviors and culture of drinking among Korean people. *Iranian journal of public health*, *47*(Suppl 1), 47.

Sherony, K. M., & Green, S. G. (2002). Coworker exchange: relationships between coworkers, leader-member exchange, and work attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(3), 542.

Shim, W. S. (2017). Establishment of a modeling for paradigm shift and new practical directions in the drinking culture: A qualitative approach focusing on structural problems and improvement directions. *Journal of Cultural Industry Research*, *17*(4), 25-32.

Shin, J. H. (2006, April 2). Companies participate in 'changing company dinner culture'. HanKyung News. [신지홍. '회식문화 바꾸기'에 기업들 동참. 한국경제. 2006-04-02]

Sias, P. M., & Gallagher, E. (2009). Developing, maintaining and disengaging from workplace friendships.. *Friends and enemies in organizations: A work psychology perspective*, 78-100

Sias, P. M., Pedersen, H., Gallagher, E. B., & Kopaneva, I. (2012). Workplace friendship in the electronically connected organization. *Human Communication Research*, *38*(3), 253-279.

Soekijad, M. (2005). Dare to share: Knowledge sharing professionals in coopetitive networks. *Delft: Doctoral Dissertation at TU Delft*

Spender, J. C., & Grant, R. M. (1996). Knowledge and the firm: Overview. *Strategic Management Journal*, *17*(S2), 5-9.

Spreitzer, G. M. (2008). Taking stock: A review of more than twenty years of research on empowerment at work. *Handbook of Organizational Behavior*, *1*, 54-72.

Srivastava, Abhishek, Kathryn M. Bartol, & Edwin A. Locke (2006). "Empowering leadership in management teams: Effects on knowledge sharing, efficacy, and performance." *Academy of Management Journal 49.6*: 1239- 1251.

Srivastava, U. R., & Singh, V. (2015). Individual and group level antecedents of team-member exchange (TMX) and its associated outcomes. *International Journal of Management Excellence*, *5*(1), 567-583.

Sun, MyeongSu (2016, October 27). "Changes in Hoesik after the Kim Young-ran Act was enforced". *Khanbiz.* [선명수. 회식은 동료와 간단히, 귀가는 일찍… '영란법 이후' 빅데이터 분석해보니. 경향신문.2016-10-27]

Surbhi, S. (2020) Difference between explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge. *Keydifference.com*

Szto, M. (2013). Contract in my soup: Chinese contract formation and ritual eating and drunkenness. *Pace Int'l L. Rev., 25*, 1.

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1978). Intergroup behavior. *Introducing Social Psychology*, *401*, 466.

Talantseva Valeriia (2018). A Study on the Perception toward Korean Corporate Dinner Culture in the Global Era. *Unpublished master's thesis*. The Academy of Korean Studies

Talburt, S., & Stewart, M. A. (1999). What's the Subject of Study Abroad?: Race, Gender, and" Living Culture". *The Modern Language Journal, 83*(2), 163-175.

Thibaut, J., & Kelley, H. H. (1959). *The social psychology of groups*. New York: Wiley, 1959.

Triandis, Harry C. (2002). Subjective culture. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture, 2*(2), 1-12.

Trice, H. M., & Sonnenstuhl, W. J. (1988). Drinking behavior and risk factors related to the work place: Implications for research and prevention. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, *24*(4), 327-346.

Tse, H. H., & Dasborough, M. T. (2008). A study of exchange and emotions in team member relationships. *Group and Organization Management*, *33*(2), 194-215.

Turner, J. R., Zimmerman, T., & Allen, J. M. (2012). Teams as a sub-process for knowledge management. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *16*(6), 963-977.

Tziner, A., & Vardi, Y. (1982). Effects of command style and group cohesiveness on the performance effectiveness of self-selected tank crews. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *67*(6), 769.

Van Maanen, J. (1978). People processing: Strategies of organizational socialization. *Organizational Dynamics, 7*(1), 19-36.

Van Maanen, J. E., & Schein, E. H. (1979). Toward a theory of organizational socialization.

van Woerkom, M., Sanders, K. (2010) The Romance of Learning from Disagreement. The Effect of Cohesiveness and Disagreement on Knowledge Sharing Behavior and Individual Performance Within Teams. *J Bus Psychol 25,* 139– 149

Varun Grover, T. H. D. (2001). General perspectives on knowledge management: Fostering a research agenda. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *18*(1), 5-21.

Vigoda-Gadot, E. (2007). Leadership style, organizational politics, and employees' performance: An empirical examination of two competing models. *Personnel Review*, *36*(5), 661-683.

Wai Ling, C., Sandhu, M. S., & Kishore Jain, K. (2009). Knowledge sharing in an American multinational company based in Malaysia. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, *21*(2), 125-142.

Wales, W. J., Parida, V., & Patel, P. C. (2013). Too much of a good thing? Absorptive capacity, firm performance, and the moderating role of entrepreneurial orientation. *Strategic Management Journal*, *34*(5), 622-633.

Wang, J., Huang, C., Xu, L., & Zhang, J. (2023). Drinking into friends: Alcohol drinking culture and CEO social connections. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization, 212*, 982-995.

Wang, S., & Noe, R. A. (2010). Knowledge sharing: A review and directions for future research. *Human Resource Management Review*, *20*(2), 115-131.

Wang, Z., Li, C., Wu, J., & Liu, L. (2014). The mediating effect of cooperative goals on the relationship between team orientation and team member exchange. *Social Behavior and Personality: an International Journal*, *42*(4), 685-693.

Wech, B. A. (2003). Effect of team-member exchange on individual-level performance, organizational citizenship behavior-individual, and job satisfaction beyond the influence of leader-member exchange. In *Southern Management Association 2003 Meeting* (p. 523).

Yi, Z. (2019). A leader's approaches to fostering a culture of knowledge sharing in an information organization. *Library Management*, *40*(8/9), 593-600.

Yun, I., Kim, S. G., Jung, S., & Borhanian, S. (2013). A study on police stressors, coping strategies, and somatization symptoms among South Korean frontline police officers. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 36*(4), 787-802.

Zaim, H. (2006). Knowledge management implementation in IZGAZ. *Journal of Economic and Social Research*, *8*(2), 1-25.

Zhang, Y., Wang, X., & Zhang, X. (2015). A Literature Review of Differentiated Transformational Leadership and Prospects. *Foreign Economies and Management*, *37*, 43-53.

Zheng, J., Wu, G., & Xie, H. (2017). Impacts of leadership on project-based organizational innovation performance: The mediator of knowledge sharing and moderator of social capital. *Sustainability*, *9*(10), 1893.

Zins, Chaim. (2004). Knowledge organization: An epistemological perspective. *Knowledge Organization 31.1*: 49- 54.

Zou, W. C., Tian, Q., & Liu, J. (2015). Servant leadership, social exchange relationships, and follower's helping behavior: Positive reciprocity belief matters. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *51*, 147-156.

한국 직장 내 회식이 팀원 간 교환관계와 지식 공유에 미치는 영향

Michelle Fadjar Boediman

부경대학교 대학원 경영학과

요약

본 논문은 한국의 기업 문화인 '회식'의 조직 내 영향에 초점을 맞추고 있다. '회식'은 한국에서 기업 내 커뮤니티, 아이디어 공유, 그리고 사회적 네트워크 형성에 중요한 문화적 전통으로 자리매김하고 있다. 본 연구는 '회식'이 팀 교환관계에 미치는 영향을 탐구하여 이를 보완하고자 한다. 구체적으로, 비공식적인 회식이 팀원 간 교환관계(TMX)와 지식 공유에 미치는 영향을 살펴보고자 한다. 사회 교환 이론 (SET)과 too-much-of-a-good-thing (TMGT) 효과를 적용하여 비공식적인 회식 빈도와 TMX, 지식 공유 간의 비선형 관계를 조사하고자 한다. 적당한 회식 빈도는 TMX 와 지식 공유와 긍정적인 관계를 가지고 있지만, 과한 회식 빈도는 부정적인 결과를 초래할 수 있다는 것을 검토하고자 한다. 또한, 가지 결정 이론 (SDT)을 바탕으로 자율성과 개방성이라는 회식 특성을 상황 변수로 삼아 비공식적인 회식 빈도, TMX, 지식 공유 간의 관계를 더 개선할 수 있다는 것을 밝혀내고자 한다.

본 연구는 한국에서 회식을 경험해본 332 명의 직장인을 대상으로 온라인 설문을 진행하여, 데이터 분석을 실시하였다. 결과는 비공식적 회식 빈도와 TMX, 지식 공유 간의 관계는 비선형으로 나타났고, 일정 빈도 이상으로 늘어날 경우 관계가 부정적으로 변화하는 경향이 있다. 또한, 비공식적인 회식 개방성은 비공식적 회식 빈도와 TMX 간의 비선형 관계를 유의하게 조절했다. 개방성이 높은 집단에는 더 강한 관계를 나타내고 경향이 중화된다. 본 연구 결과는 한국의 회식 문화와 팀원 간 교환관계, 지식 공유에 미치는 영향에 대한 중요한 통찰을 제공한다. 또한, 사회 교환 이론과 TMGT 효과를 활용하여 과분한 회식 빈도는 부정적인 결과를 초래할 수 있다는 것을 입증하였다. 더불어, 본 연구는 회식 문화 내 구조적 문제를 확인하고 개선 방안을 제시함으로써 기여하고 있다. 그리고 이 독특한 문화적 관행이 조직 행동에 어떻게 영향을 미치는지 탐구함으로써 TMX 와 지식 공유 문헌에 기여하였다.

본 연구의 실무적 시점으로 회식 빈도를 균형 있게 유지하고, 공식적 회식을 팀 간 상호작용에 활용하며, 회식 중에 개방적인 의사소통을 장려함으로써 조직 내 팀 역동성과 지식 공유를 개선해야 한다는 점을 강조한다. 이러한 통찰력은 회식 관행을 개선하고 조직적 설정 내 팀 역동성과 지식 공유에 긍정적 영향을 미칠 수 있는 가능성을 제시하고자 한다. 본 연구는 횡단적 설계와 자체 보고에 따른 한계점을 가지고 있다. 향후에 연구는 이러한 한계점을 보완하고 회식 문화와 조직적 교환 행동 간의 관계 및 영향에 대한 이해가 한층 깊어지기를 기대해 본다.

키워드 : 회식, 팀원간의 교환관계 (TMX), 지식공유, 자율성, 개방성

Appendix

1. Korean survey

직장 내 회식의 특성과 문화에 관한 조사 설문지

안녕하십니까, 본 설문지는 직장 내 '회식의 특성과 문화'에 관한 연구를 위해 작성되었습니다.
본 설문에 대한 귀하의 응답은 오직 연구자가 학문적 목적으로만 사용될 것이며, 익명으로 처리되므로 특정 개인이나 조직의 특성은 절대로 노출되지 않습니다. 귀하나 소속 조직에 대한 어떠한 정보도 공개되지 않으며, 이로 인한 불이익도 없을 것임을 약속드립니다.
귀하의 응답은 저의 연구에 매우 소중한 자료가 되므로 문항 수가 다소 많더라도 성실한 작성을 부탁드립니다.
본 설문에 참여해주셔서 진심으로 감사드립니다.

부경대학교 대학원 경영학과 석사과정
연구자 : 미셸
연락처 : 010-3022-8326 / Mchellef96@pukyong.ac.kr

직장 내 회식은 회사에서 공지하고 회식비를 지원하는 등 회사가 주최하는 공식 회식, 그리고 회사의 사전 공지나 공식적인 예산 지원 없이 이루어지는 비공식 회식으로 나누어 볼 수 있습니다.

다음은 공식적인 회식과 관련된 질문 입니다. 다음을 읽고 귀하의 팀 내 상황에 대해 답해 주시기 바랍니다.

1. 귀하의 팀은 공식적인 회식의 빈도가 어떻게 됩니까?	(1) 거의 하지 않는 편	(2) 별로 하지 않는 편	(3) 보통	(4) 자주 하는 편	(5) 매우 자주 하는편

다음은 비공식적인 회식과 관련된 질문 입니다. 다음을 읽고 귀하의 팀 내 상황과 본인의 생각에 대해 답해 주시기 바랍니다.

1. 귀하의 팀은 비공식적인 회식의 빈도가 어떻게 됩니까?	(1) 거의 하지 않는 편	(2) 별로 하지 않는 편	(3) 보통	(4) 자주 하는 편	(5) 매우 자주 하는편

다음은 비공식 회식 문화에 대한 질문입니다. 다음을 읽고 귀하의 팀내 상황과 가장 일치거나 유사한 곳에 표시해 주시기 바랍니다. (1=전혀 그렇지 않다, 2=그렇지 않다, 3=보통이다, 4=그렇다, 5=매우 그렇다)					
항목					
1. 우리 팀에서는 회식 일정과 참석 여부 등을 구성원들이 자율적으로 결정한다	1	2	3	4	5
2. 많은 구성원이 마지못해 회식에 참석한다 ®	1	2	3	4	5
3. 우리 팀은 회식 참여에 있어 자율적인 편이다	1	2	3	4	5
4. 나는 회식에 불참하는 것이 평가에 부정적인 영향을 줄지도 모른다는 생각을 한 적이 있다 ®	1	2	3	4	5
5. 팀 회식에 참여하는 경우 2-3 차까지 참여해야 한다는 부담감을 갖는 편이다 ®	1	2	3	4	5
6. 직장 안에서와 달리 회식 자리에서는 누구나 자신의 생각을 자유롭게 얘기한다	1	2	3	4	5
7. 회식 자리에서도 직장에서와 마찬가지로 상하관계가 분명하다 ®	1	2	3	4	5
8. 회식 자리에서도 상사가 대화를 주도한다 ®	1	2	3	4	5
9. 나는 회식 시간에 나누는 대화가 깊이가 있다고 느낀다.	1	2	3	4	5
10. 나는 회식 시간에 내 생각을 자유롭게 표현할 수 있다	1	2	3	4	5
11. 우리 팀은 회식할 때 다양한 주제를 다룬다	1	2	3	4	5

다음은 귀하의 현재 소속된 팀과 개인특성 대한 질문 입니다. 다음을 읽고 귀하의 생각에 가장 일치거나 유사한 곳에 표시해 주시기 바랍니다. (1=전혀 그렇지 않다, 2=그렇지 않다, 3=보통이다, 4=그렇다, 5=매우 그렇다)					
항목					
1. 나는 종종 팀 구성원들에게 더 나은 일 처리 방법을 제안한다.	1	2	3	4	5
2. 팀 구성원들은 내가 그들이 하는 일에 영향을 미칠 때 나에게 알려준다.	1	2	3	4	5
3. 나는 팀 구성원들이 내가 하는 일에 영향을 미칠 때 그들에게 알려준다.	1	2	3	4	5
4. 팀 구성원들은 나의 잠재력을 인정한다.	1	2	3	4	5
5. 팀 구성원들은 내가 부딪힌 문제를 이해한다.	1	2	3	4	5
6. 나는 팀 구성원들과 맡은 업무를 바꾸는데 유연하게 대처한다	1	2	3	4	5
7. 팀 구성원들은 나와 맡은 업무를 바꾸는데 유연하게 대처한다.	1	2	3	4	5
8. 나는 종종 팀 구성원들에게 도움을 요청한다	1	2	3	4	5
9. 나는 종종 자발적으로 팀 구성원들을 도와준다	1	2	3	4	5
10. 나는 팀 구성원들에게 주어진 업무를 대신 기꺼이 완수한다.	1	2	3	4	5
11. 팀 구성원들은 나에게 주어진 업무를 대신 기꺼이 완수한다.	1	2	3	4	5
12. 내가 가지고 있는 특수한 지식이나 노하우를 팀 구성원들과 공유한다.	1	2	3	4	5
13. 내가 알고 있는 업무 수행 방법을 팀 구성원들에게 기꺼이 알려준다.	1	2	3	4	5
14. 나만의 정보, 지식, 또는 기술을 팀 구성원들과 교환하고 공유한다.	1	2	3	4	5
15. 나는 찾기 힘든 지식이나 특수한 기술을 팀 구성원들에게 자유롭게 제공한다.	1	2	3	4	5
16. 나는 업무수행 방식 또는 전략을 개발하는 데 있어 팀 구성원들을 도와준다.	1	2	3	4	5
17. 나는 많은 정보를 팀 구성원들과 공유한다.	1	2	3	4	5
18. 나는 팀 구성원들에게 제안을 많이 한다.	1	2	3	4	5

다음은 귀하의 인구통계 특성에 관한 질문입니다. 각 문항에 대해 해당번호에 표시해 주거나 간략히 기입해 주시기 바랍니다.					
1. 귀하의 성별은?	(1) 여	(2) 남			
2. 귀하의 국적은?	(1) 한국	(2) 중국	(3) 인도네시아	(4) 그외에 아시아 국가	(5) 아시아 외부 국가
3. 귀하의 연령은?	( )세				
4. 귀하의 결혼 상태는?	(1) 기혼	(2) 미혼			
5. 자녀의 수?	(1) 0	(2) 1	(3) 2	(4) 3+	
6. 최종학력?	(1) 고졸	(2) 학사 (2 년제)	(3) 학사 (4 년제)	(4) 석사	(5) 박사
7. 귀하의 직위는?	(1) 인턴	(2) 사원	(3) 대리	(4) 과장	(5) 부장/이사
8. 귀하의 고용 형태는?	(1) 정규직	(2) 비정규직			
9. 귀하의 조직(기업)에서의 근속기간은?	( )년( )월				
10. 현재 '상사'와의 근무 기간은?	( )년( )월				
11. 현재 '팀'에서의 근무 기간은?	( )년( )월				

다음은 귀하의 조직의 특성 관한 질문입니다. 각 문항에 대해 해당번호에 표시해 주거나 간략히 기입해 주시기 바랍니다.					
1. 귀하의 조직은 어떤 유형입니까?	(1) 민간기업	(2) 외국투자기업	(3) 일반기업	(4) 공공기관	(5) 기타
2. 귀하의 조직은 어떤 업종입니까?	(1) 제조업	(2) 서비스업	(3) 유통업	(4) 금융업	(5) 정보통신/IT
3. 귀하가 소속된 팀의 구성원은 몇 명입니까?	( )명				

2. English Survey

Questionnaire on Company Social Gathering Characteristics and Culture

This questionnaire was prepared for research on 'Company Social Gathering Characteristic and Culture'. Your responses to this survey will be used by researchers only for academic purposes and will be treated anonymously. We promise that no information about you or your organization will be disclosed and there will be no disadvantages as a result. The following questionnaire will require approximately 5 - 10 minutes to complete. We hope for your sincere answers as it will be very valuable data for our research. Thank you very much for participating in this survey. Pukyong National University Graduate School Department of Business Administration, Master's Course Researcher : Michelle Fadjar Contact Info : 010-3022-8326 / Mchellef96@pukyong.ac.kr

Company Social Gathering can be divided into formal event in which hosted by the company, expenses supported and announced in advanced, and informal event which are held without prior notice or official budget support from the company.					
The following are questions regarding Team Formal Gathering. Please read the following questions and respond according to your team situation.					
1. How often does your team have formal gathering event?	(1) Never	(2) Rarely	(3) Sometimes	(4) Often	(5) Always

The following are questions regarding Team Informal Gathering. Please read the following questions and respond according to your team situation.					
1. How often does your team have informal gathering event?	(1) Never	(2) Rarely	(3) Sometimes	(4) Often	(5) Always

The following are questions regarding Team Informal Gathering. Please read the following questions and respond according to your team situation. (1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree)					
Item					
1. Our team have flexibility in deciding on social gatherings schedule and attendance	1	2	3	4	5
2. Many members of our team reluctantly attend social gatherings ®	1	2	3	4	5
3. Our team offers flexibility in participating in social gatherings	1	2	3	4	5
4. I have thought that not attending social gatherings may have a negative impact on how I am evaluated. ®	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel pressured to participate until 2-3 rounds when attending our team's social gatherings. ®	1	2	3	4	5
6. Unlike at work, everyone speaks freely about their thoughts at social gatherings	1	2	3	4	5
7. There are clear hierarchical relationship even at social gatherings ®	1	2	3	4	5
8. Supervisors tend to dominates the conversation at social gatherings ®	1	2	3	4	5
9. I feel that conversations in the group have depth	1	2	3	4	5
10. I can express myself freely in group conversations	1	2	3	4	5
11. I think that our group conversations cover various topic	1	2	3	4	5

The following are statements regarding your team and personal characteristic. Please read the following and rate your level of agreement with each statement. (1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree)					
Item					
1. I often make suggestions about better work methods to other team members	1	2	3	4	5
2. Other members of my team usually let me know when I do something that makes their jobs easier (or harder)	1	2	3	4	5
3. I often let other team members know when they have done something that makes my job easier (or harder)?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Other members of my team recognize my potential	1	2	3	4	5
5. Other members of my team understand my problems and needs	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am flexible about switching job responsibilities to make things easier for other team members	1	2	3	4	5
7. Other members of my team are flexible about switching job responsibilities to make things easier for me	1	2	3	4	5
8. I often ask other team members for help	1	2	3	4	5
9. I often volunteer to help others on my team	1	2	3	4	5
10. I am willing to finish work that had been assigned to others	1	2	3	4	5
11. Other members of my team are willing to help finish work that was assigned to me	1	2	3	4	5
12. I share my special knowledge and expertise with others	1	2	3	4	5
13. If I have some special knowledge about how to perform the task, I am likely to tell others about it.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I exchange information, knowledge, and sharing of skills with my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I freely provides other members with hard-to-find knowledge or specialized skills.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I help others in developing relevant strategies.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I shares lots of information with others.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I offers lots of suggestions to others.	1	2	3	4	5

The following are questions regarding demographic characteristics. For each question, please mark the appropriate number or write briefly					
1. What is your gender?	(1) Female	(2) Male			
2. Where are you from?	(1) Korea	(2) China	(3) Indonesia	(4) Other Asia countries	(5) Countries outside Asia
3. How old are you?	( )years old				
4. What is your marital status?	(1) Married	(2) Unmarried			
5. How many children do you have?	(1) 0	(2) 1	(3) 2	(4) 3+	
6. What is your highest level of education?	(1) High school	(2) 2 year-College	(3) 4 year-college	(4) Master's Degree	(5) Doctorate Degree
7. What is your job role?	(1) Intern	(2) Staff	(3) Team leader	(4) Manager	(5) Director
8. What is your employment status?	(1) Full-time	(2) Part-time			
9. How long is your job tenure?	( )years( )months				
10. How long have you been working with your current supervisor?	( )years( )months				
11. How long have you been working with your current team?	( )years( )months				

The following are questions regarding the characteristics of your organization. For each question, please mark the appropriate number or write briefly					
1. What is the type of your organization?	(1) Private enterprise	(2) Foreign-owned enterprise	(3) General enterprise	(4) Public institutions	(5) Others
2. What is your organization's sector of business?	(1) Manufacturing	(2) Service	(3) Distribution	(4) Finance	(5) Communication / IT
3. How many employees do your team have?	( )person				