Good soldiers and good actors: The influence of motivation and culture on the

outcomes of organisational citizenship behaviours

Aurora Watters, BSc., MSc

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Abstract

Past research on organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) has often prescribed to a number of preconceived assumptions predominately focused on the positive aspects of OCB performance. Using a sequential mixed-method approach, this thesis tests some of these assumptions considering whether researchers, organisations and other stakeholder should subscribe to the notion that OCBs are always positive. Specifically, the thesis examines how OCBs are conceptualised by the employees who experience them in their organisational lives and the extent that culture plays in performance and outcomes of OCB. Study one interviewed five British and five Asian participants on their experiences and conceptualisation of OCBs. The interviews were analysed using the Grounded Theory approach which allowed two main theories to emerge from the data. Firstly, congruence or incongruence of employee and supervisor perceptions of OCB as in or extra role effects the motivation, performance and outcomes. Secondly, employees perform impression management motivated OCBs to facilitate the obtainment of their goals. In addition, cultural differences between the responses of the British and Asian participants were found, suggesting a more complex cultural relationship. Based on these findings, the second study presented OCB and impression management scenarios to 64 British participants and 70 Indonesian participants. The results of this study found that participants were able to distinguish between OCB and impression management behaviours. In addition, the perception of these behaviours as OCB or impression management affected the outcome of the behaviours. British participants' ratings of the effect of OCB and impression management behaviours were found to be more distinct than their Indonesian counterparts, suggesting that Indonesian employees may be more accepting of their co-workers performance of impression management behaviours. The final study examined the relationship between OCB motives, performance and outcomes of OCB performance by 141 Indonesian employees. Results showed that prosocial motives predicted the performance of affiliative and challenging behaviours; however other OCB motives did not predict OCB performance. In addition, affiliative and challenging behaviours predicted positive outcomes for employees, while compulsory

citizenship behaviours were associated with negative outcomes. Collectivists and individualists were found to react in converse manners to the performance of affiliative and challenging behaviours. The findings of this thesis found some support for the basic assumptions of OCBs; however, the findings also found contradictions to the assumptions, as well as identifying cultural differences in the conceptualisation, performance and outcomes to OCB performance.

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Chapter 1

Introduction to Organisational Citizenship behaviours

The way organisations function has undergone radical changes over the last century, triggered by the advancement of technology, changes in legislation, globalisation and other factors. Today's market has become intensely competitive, with organisations not only competing with organisations within their own country but competing on a global level. Countries that were previously considered 'less developed' have now become emerging economies, providing cheaper products and services and not necessarily at the cost of quality. These emerging economies have threatened many organisations, forcing them to undergo radical changes to adapt to the changing markets. Globalisation has resulted in the free movement of labour, with people relocating for jobs and organisations shifting production to reduce costs, creating culturally diverse work forces in organisations. For organisations to survive in today's market place they must maintain a competitive edge over other organisations. Mahoney and Pandain (1992) highlighted that organisations perform effectively not because they possess better resources than their competitors; rather that they are able to make better use of them. This means ensuring that they are using their equipment to its full potential, reducing the cost of production, etc. However for most organisations, one of its greatest resources is often not working to its fullest potential, that being the organisation's human and social capital, its employees. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) have suggested that an organisation's social capital is the key to a sustainable competitive advantage over other organisations. Katz's (1964) paper put forth the view that for organisations to be effective they need employees who go above and beyond the call of duty, who do more than their formal job description. It is presumably through this desire to improve organisational effectiveness that has led researchers to investigate organisational citizenship behaviours over the last twenty years.

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Organ and the development of Organisational Citizenship behaviours

Katz (1964) hypothesised that there were three types of behaviours that were essential for the successful functioning of an organisation. Firstly, people decide to join and remain in the organisation. Secondly, the employees perform their prescribed job roles in a reliable manner. Finally, employees must display 'innovative' and 'spontaneous' behaviours that go beyond their prescribed job role, which Katz named 'extra-role behaviours'. Speaking on the last category, Katz believed that an organisation could not depend on employees solely performing their prescribed job behaviours; every organisation was dependant on the cooperation and goodwill gestures amongst their employees. Katz's concept of extra-role behaviours was used by Organ (1977) as a means of explaining why earlier studies had only found a weak relationship between employees' attitudes and work performance. Organ believed that this modest relationship was due to situational constraints, such as technology and work flow processes, that limited an employee's ability to modify their performance of their prescribed in-role behaviours. Organ believed that employees were more likely to express their attitudes through extra-role behaviours, as employees have greater control over these behaviours. Drawing upon Katz's (1964) concept of extra-role behaviours, Bateman and Organ (1983) and Smith, Organ and Near (1983) developed the construct of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). To support Organ's (1977) hypothesis that job satisfaction was linked with job performance, Smith et al (1983) sought to identify the behaviours that arise out of employee's job satisfaction. To achieve this, Smith et al (1983) interviewed lower level managers at their organisation asking them:

"What kind of things do you like to have people in your group do, but you know that you can't actually force them to do, can't promise any tangible rewards for doing it, and can't punish them for not doing it?" (Organ, 1997, p. 93)

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A pool of behaviours was created from the data collected from the interviews, and managers were then asked to think of an employee who worked for them and rate how characteristic each of the behaviours was for that employee. A factor analysis of these ratings indicated two factors which were developed into the first two dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviours. The first factor was labelled 'altruism', which they defined as a type of helping behaviour which was aimed directly at a specific person (Smith et al, 1983). These included behaviours such as, helping a co-worker who had been absent or helping to orientate new employees even though it was not required of them. The second factor was labelled 'general compliance', which differed from altruism as it was not directed at a specific person but rather doing things for the sake of the organisation. General compliance included behaviours such as being punctual or not engaging in idle chit chat; these behaviours encapsulated the norms associated with being a good worker (LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002).

Organ (1988) defined OCB as an "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation. By discretionary, we mean that the behaviour is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person's employment contract with the organisation; the behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable" (p.4). Organ presented the idea of a social exchange relationship between the organisation and its employees. When the organisation's practises resulted in favourable attitudes, the employee feels obligated to contribute back to the organisation. Since there is little leeway within the job's formal requirements, employees respond by displaying behaviours that lie outside of the formal reward structure, namely with OCBs.

Five years after the development of the two dimension model of OCBs, Organ (1988) expanded the original framework into a five dimension model. Along with the original

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dimensions of altruism and general compliance (which is also known as conscientiousness), Organ added courtesy, sportsmanship and civic virtue. Courtesy refers to behaviours that prevent problems within the organisation, such as passing on information that might be useful to co-workers. It can also include just checking with co-workers before performing something that would affect their work. Organ postulated that courtesy would benefit the flow of work especially on interdependent work activities and help prevent arguments. Sportsmanship refers to employees tolerating the annoyances and inconveniences of organisational life without "complaining...railing against real or imagined slights, and making a federal case out of small potatoes" (Organ, 1988, p. 11). Finally, civic virtue refers to involvement in the political process of the organisation; that the employee responsibly participates in organisational life. This includes expressing opinions, reading and responding to mail, attendance at meetings and keeping up to date with organisational developments and issues.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) were some of the first researchers to develop Organ's (1988) five dimension into a scale, which has been used in many empirical studies of organisational citizenship behaviours (e.g. MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Fetter, 1991; Moorman, 1991, 1993; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). While many researchers use Organ's (1988) five dimension model of OCB, other researchers have suggested other ways to conceptualise the dimensions of OCBs. The second major conceptualization of OCB was proposed by Williams and Anderson (1991). They proposed that OCBs should be categorised on the basis of the direction or target of the behaviours. The first dimension is that of OCB-O, behaviours that benefit the organisation in general, such as adhering to the rules. The second dimension is that of OCB-I, behaviours which benefit specific individuals which in turn would contribute to the organisation. Williams and Anderson (1991) developed the alternative conceptualisation of the division of OCB because they felt that Organ's (1988) dimension of altruism and compliance contradicted his conceptualisation of OCBs with regards to the behaviours not being rewarded. They believed that compliance could be performed with the expectation of rewards or for the avoidance of punishment.

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Organ viewed the performance of OCBs by employees represented an investment in the social environment of the organisation, supporting the 'psychological and social context' (Organ, 1997: p.91) of work. These behaviours are believed to promote the welfare of the employee, group or organisation that the behaviour is directed at. Organ believed that it was these contributions that went 'the extra mile' aggregate over time that led to increased organisational effectiveness (Organ & Konovsky, 1989). OCB may indeed enhance organisational performance through a number of different means. He believed that OCB performance reduced the need to devote scarce resources for maintenance functions and would free up these resources for more productive purposes (Organ, 1988; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). In addition it is thought that OCB enhances group cohesion as it helps to support the interdependencies between team members which results in increased collective outcomes (Smith et al, 1983; George & Bettenhausen, 1990). Organ's views were supported by empirical studies that found links with job satisfaction and the performance of OCBs (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith et al, 1983). The performance of OCB has been described as 'good solider syndrome' (Bateman & Organ, 1983) describing the 'good soldiers' as employees who are loyal, compliant and go beyond the call of duty for the sake of the system (Smith et al, 1983). With the belief that performance of OCBs by employees contributed to a positive work environment and increased organisational effectiveness it has led to 'organisational citizenship behaviours' becoming an increasingly popular area of research with more than 300 studies examining its antecedents and effects. In this time researchers have found constructs such as organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1984; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), individualism and collectivism (Wagner & Mooch, 1986; Earley, 1989; Moorman & Blakely, 1995), job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983) and leadership (Deluga, 1995) to be associated with OCB.

All of the previous research on OCBs has been based on four basic assumptions. Firstly, organisational citizenship behaviours lie outside of an employees required job roles.

Secondly, that performance of OCBs originates from non self-serving motives, i.e. organisational commitment or job satisfaction. Thirdly, that OCB facilitates organisational functioning, and finally, that OCBs ultimately benefit the employees. However, recently a few studies have started to question these assumptions and therefore the studies that are based on these assumptions (Bolino, 1999; Vigoda-Gadot, 2006). Many researchers have also called Organ's definition of OCB into question, resulting in Organ (1997) reconsidering its definition. With this in mind it seems crucial to re-examine OCB and the assumptions that it is based on in order to ensure the validity of research on organisational citizenship behaviour.

Non self-serving motives for OCB performance

The first assumption of organisational citizenship behaviours is that they are performed out of the 'good will' of the individual, and that they are spontaneous and genuine behaviours. To further explain the reasoning behind the performance of OCB some researchers have used a combination of the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). Organ (1990) hypothesised that when an individual enters an organisation they assume a social exchange relationship; if the employees believe that the organisation is supportive and treats them fairly they will reciprocate. Employees are presumed to reciprocate using OCBs as it is a behaviour within their control; they can choose to perform the behaviour or withhold it without fear of sanctions or formal incentives to perform the behaviour (Organ, 1988). If individuals believe they are being treated unfairly by the organisation they can adjust their relationship with the organisation by withholding these discretionary behaviours and limit themselves to their formally prescribed job behaviours. Many studies have cited a strong relationship between perceptions of fairness and the performance of OCBs (Fahr, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990; Moorman, 1991; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993; Cardona, Lawrence, & Bentler, 2004). These theories all assume that OCBs are performed as part of a 'good will' relationship between the individual and the organisation. However, researchers have not

fully explored the possibility that performance of OCB can stem from anything other than a non self-serving motive. OCB performance may arise as a proactive behaviour as the individual chooses to engage in the behaviours as a means to satisfy other motives (Penner, Midili & Kegelmeyer, 1997). Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Hui (1993) have recognized that some individuals would perform OCBs as a means to make themselves 'look good' within the organisation. It must be acknowledged that individuals may perform OCBs when they perceive they are treated fairly or believe they are supported by management and their supervisor, in addition to believing that their performance can lead to important outcomes, such as pay rises or promotions.

Impression Management

Impression management refers to behaviours used by an individual to influence the perceptions others have of them (Rosenfeld, Giacalone & Riordan, 1994). Researchers have commented on the overlap between OCB and impression management (Bolino, 1999; Eastman, 1994; Rioux & Penner, 2001). Bolino (1999) went on to suggest that impression management is a strong motivational force behind OCB performance. It has been found that employees believe that the performance of citizenship behaviours will enhance their image and supervisors will view them as a 'good solider' (Ferris, Judge, Rowland & Fitzgibbons, 1994; Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000; Rioux & Penner, 2001). While OCB behaviours have been defined as not being formally rewarded, reward appears to also be a motivational force behind OCB performance. This has been supported by Haworth and Levy (2001) who found that employees were more likely to engage in OCBs when they believed that the behaviours would be rewarded. In addition, Hui et al, (2000) found that employees were more likely to engage in OCB when they believed that it was instrumental for gaining a promotion; what's more, employees who viewed OCBs as instrumental were also more likely to decrease their OCB performance once promotion decisions had been made.

Employees engage in impression management in the hope of influencing the perceptions other people have of them (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Rosenfeld et al, 1994). The use of OCBs as a form of impression management can make employees appear as friendly, hardworking and cooperative colleagues (Ferris et al, 1994) and it appears that these behaviours do indeed influence the perceptions of others. Employees who engage in high levels of OCB are more liked by their supervisor and can receive higher performance ratings (Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1994;Allen & Rush, 1998; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). In many cases the OCBs performed may not have contributed to the organisational performance and it has been argued that supervisors place undue weight on OCB performance in performance reviews (Podsakoff et al, 1993). Previous research has noted that supervisors' evaluation of employees' behaviour can be subject to many biases (Lefkowitz, 2000). However, Vandenberg, Lance and Taylor (2005) argued that ratings of OCBs are "governed by many of the same cognitive processing mechanisms underlying the appraisal of non OCB performance dimensions" (p.111), therefore highlighting that supervisor ratings of OCB performance are likely to be biased, just like the ratings on non OCB performance dimensions. With this in mind, supervisors should be careful when rating employees' performance, so as to be sure that the employees are truly 'good soldiers' rather than employees who are good at impression management tactics (Bolino, 1999; Rioux & Penner, 2001).

OCBs are supposed to improve cooperation and cohesion within teams; however with self promotion as a motive, it might have the opposite effect. If employees perceive their co-workers' OCB performance as motivated by impression management it could lead to a politicized workplace, especially when this behaviour is rewarded (Bolino & Turnley, 2003). The employees using citizenship behaviours as a means of self promotion are less likely to be seen as team players or good citizens (Bolino, Varela, Bande & Turnley, 2006). When OCB performance is tied in with performance evaluations, it can potentially have negative outcomes such as diminished trust in supervisors, undermining motivation, and lowering the perceptions of fairness (Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1994). Managers must

be especially careful when using OCB performance as the basis for reward or promotion as they risk alienating their employees if the OCB performance is used as a means of impression management (Bolino & Turnley, 2003).

OCB as discretionary behaviours

OCB in-role behaviours or extra role behaviours

Researchers in recent years have found that organisations are requiring more of their employees, calling on them to work longer hours and, thanks to technology, be in contact with the organisation even when they are away from the office (Bond, Galinsky, & Swanberg, 1997). Employees frequently go beyond the call of duty for the organisation, but not out of perceptions of fairness or commitment to the organisation. Often the employee believes that the behaviours are necessary and if not performed could derail their career (Bolino & Turnely, 2003). While according to Organ's definition, OCBs are behaviours that lie outside an employee's formally rewarded job duties, empirical evidence has found that many employees view OCBs as part of their job (Morrison, 1994; Pond, Nacoste, Mohr, & Rodriguez, 1997; Lam, Hui, & Law, 1999). This has led many critics to argue over which behaviours are actually OCB or extra-role behaviours versus what are required in-role behaviours. The term 'extra-role' is too ambiguous to identify behaviours that fall in this category across employees, context and time (Graham, 1991; Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994). What may be more important is what the employee perceives to be in-role or extra-role behaviours. Morrison (1994) stated that "roles in organisations are rarely fixed and that the role perceptions evolve as employees and supervisors negotiate the scope of work activities" (p. 1544). However, Morrison also noted that in organisations where OCB performance is common place, the distinction between in-role and extra-role behaviours can be ill defined and subject to multiple interpretations. Morrison's study found that how an individual defines an activity as in-role or extra-role is an important determinant of their behaviour. "If an employee defines

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helping co-workers as in-role behaviour, he or she will conceptualize the behaviour very differently than an extra-role behaviour and will perceive a different set of incentives surrounding the helping behaviour" (p.1544). Several studies have found that if an employee defines their job roles loosely they are more likely to view OCBs as in-role behaviours and are more likely to perform OCB when they are perceived to be in-role rather than extra-role (Morrison, 1994; Kidder, 2002; Tepper & Taylor, 2003). Tepper, Lockhard and Hoobler (2001) results supported these studies and found that role definition moderated the relationship between justice and OCB; the relationship between justice and OCB was strongest amongst participants who defined OCB as an extra role behaviour compared to those who defined it as in-role behaviour.

OCB is discretionary

With increased emphasis on the benefits of OCB performance to the organisation and its employees, OCB has become a popular concept in management research. This has resulted in managers attempting to encourage the performance of OCBs (Bolino & Turnley, 2003). However, the strategies managers could adopt to promote OCBs may have negative consequences for the employees and organisation (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). As mentioned previously, by Organ's (1988) definition, employees should be free to perform or withhold OCB performance, without fear of sanctions or formal incentives. In addition, many researchers chose to focus only on the prosocial motives behind the performance of OCBs, in which they are performed out of the 'good will' of the employees. Vigoda-Gadot (2007), on the other hand, has challenged the conventional view of OCB and has proposed that not all OCB performance is voluntary by nature. At times employees can be subject to "coercive managerial strategies or coercive social pressure by peers" (p.378). In an article on the BBC news website (June 2007), a city lawyer (who wished to remain anonymous) talked about the conditions she was working under, "Technically, our working hours were 9:30 am to 5:30 pm with an hour for lunch, but since we were 'invited' to sign a written waiver of our rights under the EU working time directive, that

was entirely academic." The city lawyer continues to talk about the pressure placed on employees by management to work longer hours, not take time off for meals and deal with clients late into the night. This characterises an increasingly common occurrence, which Vigoda-Gadot (2006) named 'compulsory citizenship behaviour' or CCB. To Vigoda-Gadot (2007), CCB represented "a much darker and destructive side of OCB" (p.378). In the case of CCB, the performance of the behaviour emerges as a response to external pressure placed on the employee. Managers or even co-workers can pressurize the individual to perform behaviours that are outside the scope of their job description, leaving the employee feeling as if they are in no position to refuse. This pressure can at times be hostile, but even if it is not, the individual may perform the CCB out of fear of what might happen in the future if they refuse. Employees may feel that if they refuse they will not be considered a team player and not willing to help their co-workers which will reduce their chances of receiving valued rewards or in some cases even keeping their job (Zellars, Tepper & Duffy, 2002). As in the earlier example of the city law firm, and indeed many other organisations, CCB has created a social atmosphere in which working beyond the formal working hours, without any formal compensation, is considered the accepted norm (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). Some employees will yield to CCB as the accepted norm, while others will view them as abusive. It is these employees who assess CCBs as abusive that are expected to regard CCBs in a negative manner, both in their performance and psychologically (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006). The results of Vigoda-Gadot's (2007) study found that when individuals felt that they were forced into performing what they view as extra role behaviours, it can produce negative work outcomes. Over two thirds of the participants reported that CCBs were common in the workplace and that refusing to perform these behaviours was considered unacceptable. In addition, it was found that CCBs led to higher levels of job stress and burnout, increased intention to leave, and stronger perception of organisational politics; lower levels of job satisfaction and innovation were also reported. It is the multiple interpretation of what constitutes in-role or extra-role behaviours that produces a feeling of 'abusive supervision' in employees who feel they are being forced to perform behaviours they did not originally want to engage in (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006). The results of these studies suggest that while OCBs

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may produce organisational benefits, it must be encouraged in a legitimate manner, such as enhancing perceptions of fairness and trust, improved communication or improved organisational climate (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007).

OCB facilitates effective functioning

Over time organisations have continued to grow in size and complexity, resulting in many organisations adopting a flatter, team based organisational structure. Teams, rather than individual employees have become the basic building blocks of organisations, allowing them to respond quicker to the changing environment (Cohen & Bailey, 1997), and with the increase of an interdependent nature of work and team based organisations, cooperation and cohesion in teams has become especially important (Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999). It has been suggested that citizenship behaviour enhances organisational performance through its ability to manage the interdependencies between employees, resulting in an improved team output (Smith, et al, 1983; Organ, 1988). Organ cited many other reasons behind the assumption that OCB performance over time will increase organisational performance (Organ, 1988), such as by freeing up resources for more productive purposes. Essentially, some researchers believe the OCBs facilitate effective functioning because they "lubricate the social machinery of the organisation" (Smith et al, 1983, p. 654), however clear theoretical basis for such a claim (Bolino, Turnely & Bloodgood, 2002) and sufficient empirical evidence appears to be lacking.

Empirical evidence of OCBs effect on organisational performance

Many studies into the antecedents of citizenship behaviour have been justified by the fact that OCBs enhance organisational performance; however, there is limited empirical evidence to support this claim. Speaking on the relationship between OCB and organisation performance, Borman and Motowidlo said that it is "typically logical and

conceptual rather than empirical" (1993, p. 88). One study that has examined the relationship between work unit performance and citizenship behaviour was performed by Karambayya (1989). Participants were taken from 18 work groups from 12 different organisations and were mainly white collar and professional employees. Results found higher levels of citizenship behaviours in the teams that were rated as having higher levels of performance and satisfaction. Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) have also examined the relationship between OCB and organisational performance. With a sample taken from 116 agencies in an insurance company, they found that OCB accounted for almost 17% of the variance in agency performance levels. However, while they found that some citizenship behaviour dimensions, namely civic virtue and sportsmanship, had a positive effect on unit performance, helping behaviour was found to have a negative relationship with unit performance. Their study was also limited by the fact that the data was cross sectional and only revealed the effect of citizenship behaviour at one particular point in time. This makes it difficult to assess whether it was the citizenship behaviour displayed at the time that had the effect on unit performance. While there does appear to be some evidence that citizenship behaviour is correlated with some aspects of organisational performance it is rather limited. In addition to this, there also appears to be some instances in which OCB is unrelated to organisational performance and at times may have a negative impact on organizational functioning (Bolino et al, 2004).

OCB detracting from organisational effectiveness

Based on the belief that citizenship behaviours support the social and psychological environment of the workplace, management often encourage employees to help one another and perform other citizenship behaviours. However, often ignored by researchers, citizenship behaviours may at times prove costly for organisations. As mentioned previously, the cost of citizenship behaviours are likely to outweigh the benefits gained when they are performed instead of in-role duties (Bolino et al, 2004). They also may prove problematic if individuals are helping out when they have little knowledge of the

area. As OCBs are not formally recognised by the organisation's reward system there is no means of assessing the quality of these behaviours (Bolino & Turnely, 2003). In a workplace where citizenship behaviours are encouraged, employees may feel obliged to help colleagues even when they have no training in that area; this could lead to them providing incorrect information or even creating a larger problem. Citizenship behaviour can also be costly for an organisation if they rely on their employees going beyond the call of duty rather than hiring additional employees instead. Anecdotal evidence, gathered in 10 large US firms, found that the time spent by their employees helping their co-workers with their computing problems cost these firms between $6000 and $15,000 a year for every computer in the organisation (Bulkeley, 1992). While this evidence is purely anecdotal it does suggest that in some organisations it may be more cost effective to hire additional staff rather than relying on their current staff, especially when it could take them away from their in-role duties or having them help in areas in which they may have limited knowledge. It has been suggested by researchers that high levels of OCBs are a sign of a healthy organisation; however, it might also be a sign of significant problems in the organisation (Bolino et al, 2004). If employees are frequently called upon to perform citizenship behaviours it may be a reflection of inadequate training in the organisation or that the organisation is not being selective enough in its hiring practices. It has also been noted that when layoffs have occurred in an organisation, it can result in the organisation being dependent on the remaining employees to perform behaviours that are not in their job scope to make up for the organisation's losses (Brockner, 1992; Conlin, 2002). While this may not cause much harm in the short term, continually having to perform tasks outside ones formal job description without any formal recognition can result in dissatisfaction, burnout and a higher turnover rate (Bolino & Turnely, 2003).

OCB benefits the employees

Citizenship behaviours have been presented as a behaviour that enhances the organisations effectiveness, but ultimately benefits the employees (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al, 2000).

It is believed that when an organisation has a high level of citizenship behaviour it creates a positive working climate for the employees; in addition, it has also been assumed that OCB supports the interpersonal relationships between employees, which are especially important today with the increase of team based organisations (Organ, 1988).

Escalating OCB

By Organ's (1988) definition of OCBs, these are behaviours that the employee has control over, and they can choose whether they want to perform it or not without fear of sanctions or being formally rewarded. However, citizenship behaviours are often used by employees as a means by which they can 'stand out' from their co-workers (Bolino et al, 2004). By performing citizenship behaviours, an employee hopes to appear as a 'good citizen' and also convey his otherwise unobserved capabilities to his supervisor. While other researchers have used the social exchange theory to explain the performance of citizenship behaviours, Salamon and Deutsch (2006) have suggested an alternative explanation. Drawing from evolutionary psychology they have presented the handicap principle (Zahavi, 1977; Grafen, 1990) to explain individuals' motivations for engaging in these so called voluntary acts. Organisational citizenship behaviours can be quite costly for individuals to engage in, as they require time and effort to be performed. However Salamon and Deutsch (2006) proposed that individuals engage in these behaviours because they convey a credible signal to observers about the capabilities of the individuals that are otherwise unobservable. Employees who want to stand out from the crowd will engage in levels of OCBs high enough for them to be noticed, but also high enough that it will be unlikely that co-workers could also engage in them or attempt to imitate them. However, this competition to stand out from the crowd can lead to employees competing with each other to be seen as the best organisational citizen (Bolino & Turnley, 2003). Escalating citizenship occurs when employees must continually increase their acts of citizenship, continually doing more and more to be seen as going above and beyond the call of duty and be viewed as an exceptional employee. A few studies have suggested that

organisations are now more likely to encourage their employees to put in longer hours, be more assessable to the organisation and work hard for the organisation (Schor, 1991; Reich, 2001). This has pushed employees to display higher levels of citizenship behaviour in order to be viewed as exceptional, as some citizenship behaviours become an accepted norm. Escalating citizenship is likely to be associated with numerous negative outcomes for the employee such as role overload, higher levels of stress, and work-family conflict (Bolino et al, 2004; Bolino & Turnely, 2003).

Overload and OCB

In their paper, Van Dyne, Cummings, and Parks (1995) stated that, "although Organ (1990) defines OCB as positive in terms of both intent and outcome, it is possible to imagine intendedly positive acts of extra role behaviour that have negative outcomes" (p. 278). While there has been much discussion on the effects of citizenship behaviour, this predominantly focuses on the positive effects it may have. Most researches have overlooked any negative impact that OCB may have on employees (Bolino & Turnley, 2005). The effects that OCBs have on employees have mainly focused on the how they may enhance appraisal ratings or help with the progression of an employee's career (Podsakoff et al, 2000). Past research has found that high levels of work effort can have a detrimental effect on the employee's well being (Williams, 1999), which does suggest that if an employee was engaging in high levels of citizenship behaviour it could potentially lead to negative outcomes.

Many organisations are demanding more of their employees, and as Williams (1999) put it, the ideal worker for most organisations is one who "works full time and overtime and takes little or no time off for childbearing and child rearing" (p. 1). Welbourne, Johnson and Erez (1998) have proposed that employees have two key job roles, the job-holder role and the organisational member role. The job-holder role comprises all the responsibilities and duties entailed as part of their formally prescribed job role. The organisational member role represents all the duties involved in the employee being a 'good

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organizational citizen'. Employees often feel pressurised to fulfil both these job roles (Perlow, 1998); especially since individuals that do fulfil both roles successfully often receive higher performance ratings and are more likely to be considered for promotions than those who chose not to fulfil the roles or fail to do so (Werner, 1994; Allen & Rush, 1998). Having to fulfil the organizational member role, while maintaining the required job-holder role, requires more of the employee's resources, namely their time and energy, which they may not have to give (Bolino & Turnely, 2005). It is perceivable that an employee can suffer role overload, in which they feel that there are too many responsibilities or duties to be completed with limited time and other constraints on them (Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970). In their meta-analysis of OCB, Organ and Ryan (1995) indicated that high levels of citizenship behaviour could result in an employee feeling overloaded and contribute to his stress levels. One of the few studies investigating the effect of citizenship behaviour on employees was performed by Bolino and Turnley (2005). Focusing on individual initiative, a specific type of OCB that is made up of task related behaviours, "at a level that is so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary flavour," (Podsakoff et al, 2000, p.524) found that high levels of individual initiative were related to higher levels of role overload, job stress and work-family conflict. They concluded that there may be some personal cost associated with 'good soldier syndrome' (Organ, 1988).

It has been suggested that rewards gained by taking on additional responsibilities and activities associated with citizenship behaviours may outweigh any of the costs associated with the additional stress that might occur from performing these behaviours (Sieber, 1974). So while higher levels of OCB may be associated with role overload, stress and work family conflict, the gains from higher performance ratings and career progression may offset these negative outcomes (Bolino & Turnley, 2005). More research is needed to better understand under what conditions citizenship behaviour results in negative outcomes for employees (Bolino et al, 2004).

Constructive deviant behaviours

Sportsmanship, one of the dimensions of citizenship behaviour, refers to employees tolerating annoyances and inconveniences without complaining. This therefore puts importance on an employee's ability to remain silent and not voicing their concerns. While it has been put forth as a behaviour that positively effects the organisation and its employees, it may not always be the case. In certain circumstances, citizenship behaviours, which have been defined as positive productive behaviours for the organisation, can have negative outcomes. Equally, behaviours that have been defined as counterproductive work behaviours or deviant behaviours can actually have a positive effect on the organisation. Deviant behaviour has been defined as a behaviour that goes against the norm (Bord, 1976). While this definition allows for a positive and negative interpretation of the behaviour (Galperin, 2003; Warren, 2003), most of the previous literature has conceptualized deviant behaviours as causing harm to the organisation (Galperin & Burke, 2006). Similarly, counterproductive work behaviours (CWB) have been described as behaviours that harm or intend to harm the organisation or the organisational stakeholders (Spector & Fox, 2005), combining many different behaviours into one dimension (Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh & Kessler, 2006). In both these research areas, some behaviours that fall within these dimensions can have positive outcomes. Constructive deviance is described as behaviour that challenges the existing organisational norms in order to help the organisation. Behaviours such as whistle blowing fall into this category, by deviating from the norm of silence, which normally is promoted as a citizenship behaviour; an employee who voices their concerns can prevent organisational failure and even save lives by doing so (Warren, 2003).

Within the organisational citizenship literature, helping behaviours have been presented as a prized behaviour to have within an organisation. Helping behaviours assist in supporting work in today's organisations which require employees to cooperate and work interdependently. However, it is also important for an organisation to possess behaviours

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that can help facilitate change (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). "No organizational planning

can foresee all contingencies within its own operations, can anticipate with perfect

accuracy all environmental changes, or can control perfectly all human variability...An

organization which depends solely upon its blueprint of prescribed behaviour is a very

fragile social system," (Katz & Kahn, 1966, p. 338). While this statement promotes the

use of extra-role behaviours to help an organisation survive, it more importantly promotes

employee innovation to aid organisations in adapting to unforeseen changes. In these cases

innovative behaviour should be prized by organisations as it looks to redefine the

"knowledge, strategies, and mission of a work role" (Staw & Boettger, 1990, p. 536).

Previous research has suggested that employees who complain about an organisation's

improper actions or procedures can improve the organisation's well being in the long term

(Graham, 1986; Near & Micelli, 1987). With that, challenging organisational practices are

important to organisations when they need to be dynamic and adapt to ongoing changes.

The literature on organisational citizenship behaviours has predominately focused on the

performance of helping behaviours (Moon, Van Dyne, & Wrobel, 2005), which suggests

that we are missing out on a whole range of other organisational citizenship behaviours

that could be equally advantageous to the organisations; this coupled with the overtly

positive stance of OCB research, suggests that researchers are not viewing the whole

picture.

Aims of the research

Organisational citizenship behaviour was defined by Organ (1988) as an "individual

behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward

system, and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation" (p.4).

While there is no doubt that there are employee and organisational gains from the

performance of OCBs, it must also be considered that there are times at which it can have

a negative impact. Based on past research it is clear that many researchers have

overlooked other plausible explanations for OCB performance (other than being

performed for prosocial motives) and often ignored any negative outcomes. Much of the research that has been performed over the last twenty years has been based on four basic assumptions: (1) OCBs originate from non self-serving motives, (2) it is discretionary, (3) it facilitates organisational functioning and finally, (3) that it ultimately benefits the employees (Bolino et al, 2004). Based on the findings of a few researchers, it is clear that we should be cautious of any findings that have been made when the research has been based on these assumptions.

First and foremost, it is important to examine citizenship behaviours away from possible antecedents and potential outcomes. While the definition of OCB has been expanded recently after it was acknowledged that OCBs are recognized and rewarded (Allen & Rush, 1998) and how they are perceived can affect the performance and outcome (Morrison, 1994), a better grounding is needed before more research is performed. Morrison (1994) noted that the lines between in-role and extra-role behaviours are often blurry and suggests that they are not clear, distinct concepts. In addition, how an employee conceptualises the behaviour can affect the way they perceive the behaviour and its outcomes. With that in mind, it seems the first task at hand is to better understand how employees and managers conceptualise OCBs. Organisations are demanding more of their employees, and many behaviours that were once thought of as 'going beyond the call of duty' are now the accepted norm. It is important to investigate how OCBs are perceived by the stakeholders and if they conceptualise it differently. Vigoda-Gadot (2006, 2007) presented the concept of compulsory citizenship behaviours, which highlighted that how the behaviour is perceived can affect the outcome of the behaviour. When a citizenship behaviour is considered in-role, an employee is more likely to engage in the behaviour; while those who considered the behaviours to be extra-role are more likely to experience negative outcomes when they believe the behaviour is compulsory. The overall aim of this research is to investigate organisational citizenship behaviours without the preconceived assumptions and to arrive at a clearer view of this blurry concept.

Chapter 2

The Influence of Culture

The Cultural Bias in Psychology

The early years of psychology were dominated by Western psychologists, a majority of whom originated from the United States, leading to most of the research conducted into human behaviours being performed in the United States (Seagall, Dasen, Berry & Poortinga, 1990). "The vast majority of psychological research and practice has been developed and now takes place in the industrialized world; this includes primarily Europe and North America but also those other parts of the world settled from, or influenced by, these societies. Usually excluded are the vast populations of Africa and Asia, as well as those in Oceania and South America" (Berry, Irvine, & Hunt, 1988, p.1). This is not a criticism of the United States or Western psychologists and research, rather a concern for the monopoly of research by a single cultural viewpoint. As noted by Seagall et al (1990) "There is a very real danger that psychologists, by limiting their attention to the behaviours of individuals in a single society (however complex that society might be), may lose sight altogether of culture itself. The scientist, no less than the most unsophisticated layperson who knows only his or her own society, becomes prey to ethnocentric judgements" (p.30-31). By focusing research on the view points of individuals from a single society, researchers label effects that are influenced by the culture of the society as examples of universal human nature. Thankfully, psychology has started to consider the importance of culture as a determinant of human behaviour, with many researchers testing psychological phenomena across cultures before establishing them as psychological principles.

Occupation psychology was also affected by this 'historical baggage' (Arnold, Silvester, Patterson, Robertson, Cooper & Burnes, 2005) with the majority of early studies

dominated by American researchers, who conducted research frequently within their own country (in predominately large organisations) whose workforce was frequently ethnically homogeneous and predominately male (Hogan & Emler, 1978). However, this conflicts with one of the main goals of psychological research, which is to develop theories that can be applied to different populations. To achieve this goal, theories have to be tested in a wide range of situations and cultures. "In no other way can we be certain that what we believe to be...regularisations are not merely peculiarities, the product of some limited set of historical or cultural or political circumstances" (Kohn, 1987, p.713).

In the 1960s cultural factors were largely ignored in occupational psychology (Barrett & Bass, 1976). However, by the 1970s researchers became aware that organisational behaviour varied across countries and cultures (Massie & Luytjes, 1972). Research has found that the applications of management techniques developed in one country, may not deliver the same results in another country (Adler, 1997). Lammers and Hickson (1979) suggested that the careless application of occupational psychology in various cultures could actually be dangerous due to the differences in organisational operations and behaviour. Thankfully, occupational psychology has acknowledged that the development of theories has to take cultural factors into consideration (Triandis, 1976; Silverthorne, 2005).

The way organisations operate has changed considerably since the early days of occupational psychology. In the past, organisations would be competing with other organisations within their own domestic market. Now, organisations compete in a global economy. The rise of globalisation has resulted in an increased number of multinational organisations, culturally diverse workforces, mergers of organisations based in different countries and numerous other issues for organisations to deal with. In addition, organisations have had to adapt to rapidly changing technology and telecommunications (Erez, 1994).

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Technology has improved the flow of information through advances in communication, which allows organisations to adapt to the changing environment. Technology has made it easier for employees to work from home and still keep in touch with the office. It has also allowed organisations to expand their operations to foreign countries. However, the changes brought on by globalisation and technology have accelerated the need for organisations to address the different values and behaviours in diverse cultures. For occupational psychology to further our understanding of work behaviour, it is essential that we acknowledge and study the effects of culture.

What is Culture?

Anyone who has travelled to another country has probably noticed the differences between their home and the foreign place they were visiting. A British businessman on a working trip to Japan may outstretch his hand to greet his Japanese colleague, while the Japanese businessman may bow instead. Providing examples of cultural differences is far easier than providing an all encompassing definition of culture. Culture is studied in a wide range of disciplines including anthropology, sociology and psychology, all of which have provided different definitions and descriptions of what culture is. Lucian Pye (1997) described culture as an 'elusive' concept; however, many researchers have provided definitions of culture which allow us to better understand the concept. Anthropologists Kroeber and Kluckohn (1952) compiled a list of over 150 definitions of culture in their book *Culture: A Critical Review of Concepts and Definitions*. From this, they formulated their own definition of culture, which is one of the most commonly accepted and comprehensive definitions of culture:

"Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups,

including their embodiment in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other as conditioning elements of further action. " (p.181)

Triandis (1994) defined culture as "...a set of human made objective and subjective elements that in the past have increased the probability of survival and resulted in satisfactions from the participants in an ecological niche, and thus became shared among those who could communicate with each other because they had a common language and they lived in the same time and place" (p.23). The objective elements of culture would be objects of culture that are tangible such as architecture or the type of food eaten. Subjective elements of culture are the human elements, such as the social, religious, political and economic practices of a culture. Triandis' definition also notes that culture aids in human survival and is passed from generation to generation. Most of the definitions of culture share common features; the idea of a group of people with shared beliefs, values, and behaviours that are passed through generations. Perhaps the most concise definition of culture is that of Berry, Poortinga, Segal and Dasen (2002) who defined culture as 'the shared way of life of a group of people' (p.2). While defining what culture is, it is also important to note what culture is not. Culture is not always the same as nationality or race. There are many diverse nations such as the United States or Singapore that include many different cultural groups.

With our ever increasingly interconnected world, people are more aware of cultural differences. If you were to meet a Thai person who pressed their palms together in a prayer like fashion, many people would recognise it as the tradition greeting used in Thailand called *wai*. However, with the increasing exposure to other cultures through tourism, multinational companies, migration and advancing technology these unique cultures may not be as stable as before. People who were once fairly isolated from other cultures are now being influenced by the dissemination of pop culture. However, on the

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other hand, there is also evidence of 'global separation' (Shiraev & Levy, 2010, p. 23).

Many countries have split along religious and ethnic lines, with ethnic and religious groups demanding independence. This division of culture through ethnic or religious lines protects their culture as they strongly define themselves on these differences. Regardless of 'global separation' or the dissemination of pop culture, culture still plays an important role in occupational research, and we should acknowledge the differences between people and the effects they may have on work behaviour.

Hofstede's cultural typologies

Since the 1980s there has been a myriad of cultural or cross-cultural studies in organisational research. A major catalyst to the upsurge in research was Geert Hofstede's (1980a) book *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work Related Values.* Hofstede's cultural typologies developed in his 1980s study proved to be highly significant as it gave cultural studies a theoretical framework to work from and made it possible to perform comparative research (Gelfand, Erez & Aycan, 2007). Hofstede's cultural typologies were developed using data from over 116,000 surveys from over 88,000 employees working for IBM in 40 countries. Hofstede began collecting data in 1967 continuing till 1969 and again in 1971 to 1973. Once the data was collected the scores were averaged for each country and then analysed using a factor analysis technique, isolating the key factors. From his analysis, Hofstede created his cultural typologies; four bipolar dimensions that could be used to describe cultural differences.

Power Distance: Power distance was defined by Hofstede as "the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organisations is distributed unequally" (1980b, p. 45). In organisations, this translates to a hierarchy between employees - a distance between senior employees and their subordinates. In cultures high in power distance, such as Malaysia, Philippines, Mexico and China, subordinates accept their position in the organisation and respect their superiors. In these cultures, it is

accepted that those higher in the organisational hierarchy have the power to make decisions and prescribe rules and procedures. In cultures that are low in power distance (e.g. Austria, Israel and Denmark) managers in organisations are more willing to share their authority.

Uncertainty Avoidance: Hofstede defined uncertainty avoidance as "the extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and tries to avoid these situations by providing greater career stability, establishing more formal rules, not tolerating deviant ideas and behaviours, and believing in absolute truths and the attainment of expertise" (1980b, p.35). Uncertainty avoidance measures the degree to which individuals prefer structure to a lack of structure. Countries high in uncertainty avoidance (such as Greece, Portugal and Japan) tend to be uncomfortable with risk and lack of structure. To deal with this, cultures high in uncertainty avoidance will create laws and rules to avoid the risks. This can also be seen through lifetime employment, which is common in Japan (Silverthorne, 2005). Countries low in uncertainty avoidance (such as Singapore, Sweden and Hong Kong) are more accepting of changes and are happy to try new things; this can be demonstrated through job mobility.

Individualism – Collectivism: Individualism is defined as "a loosely knit social framework in which people are supposed to take care of themselves and of their immediate families only". Collectivism "is characterized by a tight social framework in which people distinguish between in-groups and out-groups, they expect their in-group to look after them, and in exchange for that they feel they owe absolute loyalty to it" (Hofstede, 1980b, p. 45). The dimension can also be thought of as the degree to which an individual prefers to work alone rather than in a group. In cultures high in individualism, such as the United States, Australia and the United Kingdom, people often put their own goals ahead of the goals of the group. In addition, cultures high in individualism value personal achievement, autonomy and innovation. Cultures high in collectivism, such as Guatemala, Pakistan and Indonesia, value loyalty and maintaining personal relationships

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and social harmony. Collectivist individuals will put the needs and goals of the group ahead of their own personal goals.

Masculinity – Femininity: Masculinity is defined as "the extent to which the dominant values in society are "masculine" – that is, assertiveness, the acquisition of money and things, and not caring for others, the quality of life, or people" (Hofstede, 1980b, p. 46). This dimension is bipolar, so femininity is defined as the opposite of masculinity; dominant values in Feminine cultures would be concern for others and sensitivity. Cultures that are high in masculinity, such as Japan, Hungry and Austria, are likely to be male dominated, especially in higher management; whereas, cultures high in femininity, such as Sweden, Norway and the Netherlands, are more likely to have women in senior and professional positions.

It was suggested that due to the fact that Hofstede is Dutch, the values would be biased towards the west. Testing this possibility the Chinese Culture Connection (1987) created a survey based on Chinese values. The researchers found little support for Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance dimension; instead they identified a different fourth dimension which they labelled Confucian dynamism. This dimension reflected the teachings of Confucius and a core set of Asian values including time orientation and thrift versus conspicuous expenditure. Confucianism, the Chinese ethical and philosophical system, has been attributed to the long term success of Japan and other South East Asian countries (Yeung & Tung, 1996). Hofstede and Bond (1988) had also considered the Western bias and had conducted a Chinese value survey which also found similar findings. Confucian dynamism is also sometimes labelled long-and short-term orientation because high scores on the scales are associated with future-oriented beliefs, while low scores are associated with past or present beliefs.

Long Term Orientation: This dimension was added to Hofstede's other four dimensions. A high score on long term orientation implies a 'future orientation'; they value persistence, hierarchical relationships, thrift and having a sense of shame. It has been found that The People's Republic of China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan and South Korea score highly on long term orientation (Hofstede, 1997). Japan is a country known for its focus on the long term when investing in industries to maintain competitiveness with other countries (Lenway & Murtha, 1994). A low score indicates an orientation towards the present and past; they value stability, personal steadiness, saving face, respect for tradition and the reciprocation of favours. Pakistan, Nigeria, United Kingdom and the United States had low scores on long term orientation.

In general, Hofstede has had a great deal of support for his cultural typologies, although it is not without its critics. One of the major criticisms of Hofstede's work is the way it was developed, as it was not designed to measure culture. When Hofstede designed his questionnaires for the employees of IBM, it was designed to measure employee's satisfaction, morale and their perception of work. The creations of the cultural dimensions were an afterthought after the data had been collected (Silverthorne, 2005). Roberts and Boyacigiller (1984) highlighted that Hofstede's work was not grounded in any theoretical framework based on previous cultural theory; which has led some researchers to criticise Hofstede's use of exploratory factor analysis. Rather than testing a specific hypothesis, the statistical analysis tested a variety of options until it got a fit (Fink & Monge, 1985). This suggests that Hofstede's cultural typology was just taking advantages of unforeseen correlations that appeared in the data. Further, Hofstede's sample was taken from employees in just one organisation, IBM. While having participants all from one multinational organisation allows for comparisons of employees in different countries it does ignore any within country cultural heterogeneity (Sivakumar & Nakata, 2001). Another issue regarding Hofstede's research is that culture is subject to change over time. Hofstede's study of the employees of IBM was conducted between 1969 and 1973, and now that the research is almost 40 years old, would the questionnaire generate the same

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results if conducted today? Since then, the speed of change in technology and globalisation has meant that countries are more easily influenced by other nations, thereby it could affect how some countries score on Hofstede's dimensions. Finally, some could criticise Hofstede for reducing the complexity of culture to only four or five dimensions. However, it is this simplification of culture to a few dimensions that has allowed the growth of cultural and cross-cultural research within psychology.

Since the creation of Hofstede's cultural typologies there have been a myriad of studies using the dimensions. Power distance and individualism-collectivism have received the most attention from researchers and these dimensions have been used to study the effect of culture on organisations. The individualism-collectivism dimension has been most frequently used to compare Eastern and Western cultures (Chan, 1994). Early work was dominated by studies performed in the United States and other Western countries. It is thought that individualism is more prevalent in Western societies, with the United States considered the quintessential individualistic culture (Oyserman, Coon & Kemmelmeier, 2002), because since its independence, 'life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness' has been a corner stone of American life. It is a society that advocates a person's freedom, individual choice and equal opportunities (Lukes, 1973; Inglehart, 1997). The 'American Dream' allows any enterprising and hardworking individual to obtain their personal goals and desires.

On the other hand, Eastern countries are considered to be collectivist societies. Many Eastern cultures have been influenced by the teaching of Confucius, stressing the importance of dedication to one's in-group. This is especially true for China where Confucianism has been deep rooted in their culture for over two thousand years (Chen & Chung, 1994). Part of Confucius' teachings stresses the importance of hierarchically and fundamental relationships or 'Wu Lun' (emperor-subject, husband-wife, parent-child, older brother-younger brother, and older friend-younger friend relationships) (Farh, Earley & Lin, 1997). This highlights that in collectivist societies, individuals define themselves in

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terms of their family, country, and in-group. These teachings extend to the organisation as the organisation is considered a 'family' and managers are considered 'surrogate parents' to the employees. The relationship between manager and employees is that of a family patriarch who has to take care of his family members. In return the employee will be loyal to his employers (Redding, 1990; Farh & Chung, 2000).

Individualism- Collectivism framework

Researchers have long acknowledged that cooperation is crucial to the successful running of an organisation (Barnard, 1938). Therefore it is understandable that individualism and collectivism has attracted such interest. Individualism-collectivism can be thought of as the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups, which in turn would affect the degree of cooperation in teams. In his research on individualism-collectivism Triandis (1995) summarised four attributes that define the dimension: definition of self, personal versus group goals, the emphasis on exchange rather than communal relationships and importance of attitudes and norms as determinants of social behaviour. Individualists define themselves as an autonomous being, while collectivists define themselves in terms of their belonging to in-groups (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Individualistic cultures are characterised by their independence from in-groups, competition, freedom, and define their success through their own personal achievements. However, collectivist cultures are characterised by interdependence, security, obedience and in-group harmony and define their success through the achievements of their in-group (Earley & Gibson, 1998).

Ramamorthy and Flood (2004) stated that the defining feature of Individualism-Collectivism is the difference in emphasis placed on personal goals versus collective goals. Individualistic individuals will place greater emphasis on achieving personal goals in comparison to individuals who have a collectivist orientation. It is when the goals of the individual and the goals of the group are in conflict an individual's individualist collectivist orientation becomes apparent. Individualists find it permissible to place their

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own goals ahead of the goals of the group to satisfy their own individual needs (Ramamoorthy & Carroll, 1998). However a person with a collectivist orientation will feel obliged to forsake the attainment of their own personal goals for the better good of the group. They will look out for the well being of the group and help with the attainment of the group's goals, even if their own personal interests have to be ignored. This sense of obligation to the group can also be seen in the emphasis collectivists will place on maintaining group harmony and avoiding conflict to ensure the stability of their in-group (Cox, Lobel & McLeod, 1991). On the other hand, individualists, who define themselves in terms of their own achievements and autonomy, will cut ties with their in-group if they feel the group is interfering with the obtaining of their goals, or feel their needs are not being met (Earley & Gibson, 1998). These differences in attitudes are reflected in the career paths of individualist and collectivist employees. Individualistic individuals tend to have career paths that are based on personal achievement and will leave an in-group to join another group to ensure these achievements; while collectivists tend to have careers that are based on tenure and commitment to the organisation they work for. Parkes, Bochner, & Schneider (2001) supported this point as they found that collectivists tended to have longer tenure than individualistic orientated individuals and they were also more likely to exhibit greater commitment to the organisation. In addition, much research has found that collectivist orientations are associated with loyalty and commitment to teamwork (Wagner, 1995; Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2000).

Individualism and Collectivism as Individual Differences

Hofstede (1980a) presented his cultural typologies as fundamental differences between cultures. While Hofstede developed these cultural dimensions from the responses of individuals, he used it to compare the cultures of various countries. He highlighted that some cultures were highly individualistic, such as the United States, while other cultures were highly collectivist, such as Indonesia. In the past most research using the

individualist collectivist dimensions have been at the national level. However, researchers presented considerable evidence that the difference between collectivists and individualists may exist not only between nations, but also within nations in the form of an individual difference (Hui & Triandis, 1986; Triandis, 1995; Wagner, 1995). It was noted by Hui and Triandis (1986) that cultures which are labelled as individualist or collectivist are simply cultures in which the majority of individuals have individualistic or collectivist orientations. Researchers have also stressed the importance of moving away from generalising country's cultures to an individual difference approach. Researchers have come to acknowledge that variance within a culture does exist. A British employee who spent their childhood living in Thailand is likely to be more collectivist than a British employee who has never left the United Kingdom. Keith (2011) suggested that using individualism collectivism as an individual measure would allow researchers to avoid stereotyping cultures and allow researchers to account for the occurrence of individualistic individuals in collectivist cultures and vice versa. Kwantes, Karam, Kuo and Towson (2008) highlighted that research using cultural variables can lead to spurious conclusions if researchers inappropriately cross levels of analysis; for example, measuring culture at the societal level and assuming that those values applied to all individuals in a sample drawn from that society or that results from a sample of individuals applies to the society as a whole.

The mixing of culture and experiences is becoming increasingly widespread and common; it is no longer enough to know the nationality of the person to account for their orientation (Triandis & Singelis, 1998). In addition, Earley and Mosakowski (1995) argued that the individual level analysis has advantages over country level analysis. They suggested that it allows a more direct connection to the area of culture being studied, as it measures the relative degree of value that culture adds, rather than the generalised level of culture according to nationality. However, Kwantes et al (2008) highlighted that there are some drawbacks from studying culture at a single level of analysis. Firstly, when studying individualism and collectivism as an individual difference, researchers would be unable to

rule out the effect of variables at other levels of analysis. Secondly, research using a single level of measurement would be unable to argue that the effects found are the result of cultural effects rather than just individual differences. Regardless of this, currently most research studies now examine individualism and collectivism at the individual levels (Oyserman et al, 2002).

Traindis, Chan, Bhawuk, Iwao and Shina (1995) stressed that when measuring individualism and collectivism at the individual level of analysis, researchers should use terms to clarify the type of cultural data being used. Markus and Kitayama (1991) suggested the use of 'independence' and 'interdependence' to describe the individual levels of analysis compared to the use of country- or society-level comparisons. More widely known are the terms proposed by Triandis (1995), who coined the terms 'idiocentrism' and 'allocentrism' as the individual level equivalent of individualism and collectivism. However, while most research is performed at the individual level, neither of the terms suggested have attained common usage in the literature. While the use of the terms may have not caught on, research has embraced the use of individualism and collectivism as individual differences. This has allowed researchers to acknowledge that not all members of a culture share the same perspective and ideas, especially important with the increase in culturally diverse workforces.

Individualism-Collectivism and the Organisation

Individualism-collectivism has been subject to numerous studies in psychology, using it to identify cultural differences in family life, adolescent aggression, religion and mental health to name a few. Even within occupational psychology, it has been used in a wide range of research topics such as, economic growth, groups, rewards and leadership. These studies aim to look at the impact of the individualism collectivism dimension on organisational performance. With a better understanding of the effect of culture it is assumed that managers can make adjustments to work behaviours and practices to ensure

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they fit the cultural context (Earley & Gibson, 1998). One area of particular interest in relation to individualism and collectivism is that of organisational citizenship behaviours. As mentioned in the previous chapter, OCBs are considered to be desirable behaviours for employees (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000) and have been considered as vitally important for the functioning of organisations (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983). Organisational citizenship behaviours have been linked with job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith et al, 1983), organisational commitment (Organ & Ryan, 1995), and perceptions of fairness (Becker, 1992). Kwantes et al (2008) highlighted that there has been a limited amount of research examining the role of culture in the performance of OCB, exemplified by Podsakoff et al (2000) and LePine, Erez & Johnson (2002) not including culture as an antecedent to the performance of citizenship behaviours in their reviews and meta-analysis of the OCB literature. This is despite the fact that researchers have found evidence in differences in the performance of OCBs by individualist and collectivist employees. Moorman and Blakely (1995) found that collectivist employees were more likely to perform organisational citizenship behaviours than their individualistic counterparts. They postulated that the difference in performance was due to the values and norms associated with a collectivist orientation, as a collectivist would feel obligated to ensure the welfare of their in-group which could be obtained through the performance of OCBs.

One of the values associated with individualistic employees is a preoccupation with their rights (Earley & Gibson, 1998). Individualistic employees are also self-orientated, and these values make them sensitive to the way the organisation treats and rewards them (Erdogan & Liden, 2006). As mentioned in the previous chapter, Organ proposed that organisational citizenship behaviours were performed as a social exchange between the employee and the organisation (Organ, 1988, 1990). For individualistic employees, OCBs are performed as a social exchange when they perceive they are being treated fairly. However, if an individualistic employee perceives they are being treated unfairly it could result in them reducing their performance of OCBs or withdrawing from the social

exchange altogether (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Researchers have found that the relationship between perception of fairness and the performance of OCBs is weaker for collectivists. Collectivist employees have a higher threshold for injustice than their individualistic counterparts (Ergodan & Liden, 2006). It is thought that because collectivists place a premium on maintaining the welfare of their in-group they feel obligated to perform OCBs regardless of the cost to themselves.

Similar results were found when examining the relationship between organisational commitment and the performance of OCBs. Organ and Ryan (1995) found that employees who were highly committed to their organisation were more likely to engage in helping behaviours than those with low levels of organisational commitment. While this might reflect the relationship for individualistic employees, Francesco and Chen (2004) found that the relationship between organisation commitment and the performance of OCBs was weaker for collectivist employees. This belief that collectivists felt they were obligated to perform OCBs was further strengthened by the findings of Blakely, Andrews and Moorman (2005). Blakely et al found that Chinese employees were more likely than Canadian employees to view OCBs as in-role behaviour and that they would perform them without the typical antecedents associated with OCB performance. It was suggested that this was due to the Chinese employee's collectivist orientation, and that collectivist employees were likely to view the performance of OCBs as part of their duty to ensure the goals of their in-group. Due to collectivists association with obligation and loyalty to their in-group it has led some researchers to question if OCBs would exist for collectivist employees. They suggested that collectivists would perceive OCBs as in-role behaviours that they were obligated to perform to advance the goals of the organisation and maintain a harmonious relationship (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). All these findings suggest that there are great differences in perception and performance of OCBs between individualistic and collectivist employees.

The importance of Asian culture

Examining the differences between Western and Eastern cultures has become increasingly important due to the growing influence Asian countries have on the world. Asia makes up more than half of the world's population and out of almost seven billion people, four billion of those live in Asian countries. In addition, Asia also contains three of the top five most populous countries in the world (China, India and Indonesia). These growing populations have also had a great influence on the world through their growing economies. Following on from the success of the Japanese economy was the 'Asian Tigers,' whose rapid growth was considered a miracle. The Asian Tigers (Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea and Taiwan) have experienced extraordinary economic growth with highly educated and skilled workforces over the last 50 years, which allowed them to compete with the rich Western countries (Paldam, 2003). Many of these countries came from a traditional agricultural society and within one generation transformed themselves into rapidly growing industrialised economies. While the bubble of their extraordinary growth was burst in the 1997 Asian financial crisis, the power of the Asian economies is on the rise again.

While the world is currently experiencing the worst recession in the last half century, economists have stated that it is the Asian economies that will lead the world out of this recession (International Monetary Fund, 2010). Although many Western economies are suffering with high levels of unemployment and business closures, many Asian economies have managed to rebound from the recession. The head of IMF's Asia and Pacific Department, Anoop Singh, stated that Asian economies' share of the world's growth is likely to increase, making Asia an economic powerhouse over the next few decades (IMF Survey Online, 2010). Based on current trends, the IMF estimated that by 2030, Asia's economy will be larger than that of the United States and the European Union combined.

The past bias of Western culture on psychological research has meant that many of the assumptions of organisational citizenship behaviours were based solely on Western

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samples and as mentioned previously, this dominance of the West in research could have resulted in cultural forces being misinterpreted as being true for all individuals. With the rising of influence of Asian culture on the global economy coupled with the effects of globalisation, it is important to ensure that organisational citizenship behaviour research addresses the effects of culture. This thesis hopes to investigate the impact of culture on the performance of organisational citizenship behaviours and address the past assumptions of OCB research.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Research Methods in Psychology

Our understanding of the world around us has progressed thanks to the use of science. From the Latin 'scientia' meaning knowledge, science is a system of acquiring knowledge through the use of testable explanations and predictions. The techniques and methodology used in natural sciences can be applied to other disciplines. Psychology, as an area of research, grew when scientific methods were applied to our desire to understand the mind. The human mind is still one of the most complex "machines" on earth, and computers are yet to match the complexity found in our brains. However, the mind is a mysterious being, and we cannot look into the private thoughts, dreams, or emotions of anyone, and this is why psychologists have used a scientific approach to better understand these thoughts and behaviours. To address the questions that psychologists pose, a number of research methods have been developed; certain research questions require specific approaches and it is the psychologist's task to match the problem with the right approach (Creswell, 2003).

Quantitative and Qualitative approaches

Research methods differ on a number of points; type of data elicited, technique of elicitation, type of design for monitoring change, amount of manipulation and quantitative or qualitative use of data (Breakwell, Hammond, Fife-Schaw & Smith, 2006). Treatment of the data as quantitative or qualitative creates the greatest divide between research methodologies. Psychology is dominated by quantitative research methods, in part due to the fact that it was the use of quantification that allowed psychology to grow as a research area (Howitt & Cramer, 2008). Investigators using quantitative research methods tend to use a positivist approach to the development of knowledge (Creswell, 2003; Johnson &

Onwuegbuzle, 2004). In addition, these research methods take an empirical approach to the acquisition of knowledge, as it involves the quantifying or measurement of the phenomenon (Charles & Mertler, 2002; Breakwell et al 2006; Langdrige & Hagger-Johnson, 2009). Quantitative purists believe that research should be objective (Johnson & Onwuegbuzle, 2004), and should be concerned with the testing of predictions rather than simply describing the object of study (Langdrige & Hagger-Johnson, 2009). The quantitative approach provides the researcher with precision and control; they are able to isolate the variables to determine magnitude and frequency of the relationship between the variables. To add to this control, the research is often conducted in highly controlled settings, such as laboratories, allowing the researcher to reduce any external influences that may affect the results (Langdrige & Hagger-Johnson, 2009). The quantitative approach lies at the heart of psychological research because of the control it provides researchers, allowing them to produce objective and time- and context-free generalizations (Nagel, 1986). However, quantitative research does have its opponents who believe that it fails to capture the complexity of human nature (Langdrige & Hagger-Johnson, 2009; Howitt & Cramer, 2008), treating participants as isolatable from their social context, and as part of a collective, often ignoring differences that make people unique (Coolican, 2004) (see Table 1 for a more complete list of the strengths and weaknesses of quantitative approaches).

Table 1 Strengths and Weaknesses of Quantitative Research Adapted from Johnson & Onwuegbuzle (2004)

Strengths	Weaknesses
• Provides precise numerical data	• Fails to capture the complexity of human nature
• Allows the testing and validating of theories	• Phenomena may be missed because of focus on theory or hypothesis testing
• Generalization of research findings (when random samples of sufficient size are used)	• The results produced may be too abstract for the applications to specific situations, contexts or individuals
• Researchers can construct experiments that limit the effects of extraneous variables	• Research is often conducted in unnatural and artificial settings
• Data collection methods are often quick to administer and to a large number of people	• Categories used by researchers may not reflect participants understandings
• Data analysis tends to be relatively quick (with the use of statistical software)	
• Limits the effect of the researcher on the results	

Qualitative research is often defined as the opposite of quantitative research measures, as it does not use statistics and is subjective in nature. Investigators using qualitative approaches usually take a constructivist (Guba & Lincoln, 1982; Creswell, 2003) or an advocacy/participatory (Creswell, 2003; Mertens, 2003) perspective. It is, "an inquiry process of understanding" in which researchers develop a "complex, holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting" (Creswell, 1998, p. 15). This approach is not only concerned with meaning, but it is also concerned with describing the qualities of a phenomenon (Langdrige & Hagger-Johnson, 2009). Qualitative research uses methods of inquiry such as case studies, grounded theory studies, narratives, phenomenologies or ethnographies; the data collected is open ended with the primary aim of developing themes or theories from the data (Creswell, 2003). Supporters of qualitative methods believe that quantification can miss crucial aspects of the phenomenon being studied. They also believe that the human experience is too intricate to be reduced to a few variables, which can occur in quantitative research (Howitt & Cramer, 2008). Qualitative research approaches acknowledge that people have different experiences and even a group of people who may have witnessed the same event, may interpret the event differently, thus showing that qualitative research acknowledges the uniqueness of individuals. These research methods can therefore produce unexpected insights from participants that may not have come to light if they were using quantitative research measures and just ticking boxes in a questionnaire, for example. This allows researchers to get an 'insider perspective' on the object of their study.

However, qualitative research methods, rather than quantitative research methods, are more dependent on the skills of the researchers. Parker (1994, p. 2) defined qualitative research methods as "the interpretative study of a specified issue or problem in which the researcher is central to the sense that is made". Therefore the findings of qualitative research are dependent on the researchers' interpretation of that data. It has been argued that qualitative research can be biased by the researcher's own preconceptions. Advocates of qualitative research argue that what is known cannot be separated from the 'knower', as

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they are the only source of reality (Guba, 1990, as seen in Johnson & Onwuegbuzle, 2004). However, even in quantitative research, preconceptions can be problematic, as researchers continually narrow their research aims based on empirical evidence, which may lead to the ignoring of other key factors as participants were never provided with the opportunity to respond. A qualitative approach to research allows the investigator to gain an individual's point of view and rich descriptive data, immersed in the everyday life of participants. However, advocates of quantitative research argue that 'rich descriptive data' is another way of implying anecdotal and unstructured data. They argue that qualitative data lacks replicability and generalisation due to their small sample size and that the traditional notions of validity and reliability cannot be applied to the data (Langdrige & Hagger-Johnson, 2009). (See Table 2 for a complete list of strengths and weaknesses of qualitative approaches)

Table 2 Strengths and Weaknesses of Qualitative research adapted from Johnson & Onwuegbuzle (2004)

Strengths	Weaknesses
- Effective in describing complex phenomena - Provides the participant's personal understanding and experience of the phenomena - Can be used to identify how the participant interprets the constructs under study - Useful for study of a small number of cases in depth - Data analysis is based on participants' categories of meaning - Can richly describe phenomena in the specific context it is based in - Produces rich and detailed data	- Results cannot be generalized to other people or settings - It is difficult to make predictions from the data - Data collection is generally more time consuming that quantitative methods - Data analysis can be more time consuming - The results can be influenced by the researcher's personal biases

Mixed Methods

Supporters of quantitative and qualitative research paradigms have been at loggerheads for the last century (Johnson & Onwuegbuzle, 2004), with "one professing the superiority of 'deep, rich observational data' and the other the virtues of 'hard, generalizable'...data" (Sieber, 1973, p.1335). While the differences between the two research paradigms are

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often stressed, the similarities between the two approaches are often overlooked (Johnson & Onwuegbuzle, 2004). Firstly, both approaches address research questions through the use of empirical observation. Quantitative and qualitative methods "describe their data, construct explanatory arguments from their data, and speculate about why the outcomes they observed happened as they did" (Sechrest & Sidani, 1995, p. 78). Secondly, both approaches include safeguards to minimise confirmation bias and other sources of bias (Sandelowski, 1986). Finally, it was suggested by Dzurec and Abraham (1993, p. 75) that "the objectives, scope, and nature of inquiry are consistent across methods and across paradigms."

A third research paradigm of mixed methods has been championed to help bridge the gap between the debating camps of qualitative and quantitative research (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). Johnson & Onwuegbuzle (2004) defined mixed methods research as "...the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study" (p.17). In addition, they stated that the aim of mixed methods was to maximize the strengths of both approaches while reducing the weaknesses. One of the first instances of mixed methods was used by Campbell and Fiske (1959) who used multiple methods in their study of the validation of psychological traits. Sieber (1973) highlighted that while Campbell and Fiske used different quantitative approaches to rule out method effects, their multiple methods approach encouraged other researchers to do the same. Following on from this, it was suggested the combination of methodologies could be used in the same study of a phenomenon (Denzin, 1978), which was named triangulation. It was suggested that quantitative and qualitative approaches could complement each other as the use of both approaches could, "uncover some unique variance which otherwise may have been neglected by a single method" (Jick, 1979, p. 603). Other reasons for the use of mixed methods have been postulated; for example, the results produced from one methodology can be used to develop or inform the other method to be used (Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 1989). As time has passed, mixed methods have gained more attention and is considered to be a viable research approach (Hanson, Creswell, Plano Clark, Petska &

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Creswell, 2005). For a list of strengths and weaknesses of the mixed method approach see

Table 3.

Table 3 Strengths and Weaknesses of Mixed Methods research adapted from Johnson & Onwuegbuzle (2004)

Strengths	Weaknesses
• Research can gain from the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative approaches	• More time consuming
• Can answer a broad range of research questions	• Requires familiarity with both quantitative and qualitative methods
• Can generate and test a grounded theory	• Faces criticism from methodological purists who believe research should only be performed within one research paradigm
• Use the strengths of one method to overcome the weakness of another method	• May be more expensive to carry out
• Provide stronger evidence through convergence of findings	• May require a research team if two or more methods are performed concurrently
• Add insight that might have been missed if only one approach had been used	

A principle of mixed method research is that researchers should utilize a research design that can most efficiently answer their research question. Greene et al (1989) discussed five main rationales for conducting mixed method research: (1) triangulation (i.e., corroboration of findings from different methods); (2) complementarity (i.e., using a different method to clarify the findings of another method); (3) initiation (i.e., contradictions or outliers in the results that lead to the re-framing of the research question); (4) development (i.e., the findings of one methodology inform the other method); and (5) expansion (i.e.; using different methods to expand the range of research). With this in mind, investigators can determine if mixed methods would be an appropriate means of addressing their research question. If it is the best means to address the research question, the investigator must consider three issues: priority, implementation, and integration when designing their research (Creswell, Plano Clark, Guttman and Hanson, 2003). Priority refers to whether quantitative or qualitative methods are given priority in the study. Implementation refers to whether the quantitative or qualitative approaches are

performed sequentially, in parallel or concurrently. Finally, integration refers to which stage of the research process the quantitative and qualitative data is mixed.

Thesis Methodology Rationale

This study adopted a sequential exploratory strategy (See Figure 1 for Sequential Exploration Strategy Design of this thesis), which is a two phase design with the intent that the results of the first method will inform the second method (Greene et al, 1989). The first phase of the design is a qualitative design, which is best suited to exploration; this was then be followed by a quantitative approach. The premise of this design is that the phenomena requires exploration (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2006), which can be for a number of reasons; for example, a researcher wants to see if results are suitable to generalize results to different groups (Morse, 1991), to identify important variables to be studied in a quantitative approach, or to explore a phenomenon in depth and then measure its prevalence (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2006).

The sequential exploratory strategy was adopted after a review of the literature highlighted a number of issues within organisational citizenship behaviour research. Firstly, a number of researchers have found contradictions to the traditional assumption of OCB conceptualisation and performance, bringing into question if OCB research indeed portrays actual citizenship behaviours accurately. Secondly, along with the contradiction to the assumptions of OCB, there is very little understanding of the relationship between cultural related variables and OCB conceptualisation and performance. While this approach does require a substantial length of time to complete the qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2003), it does give the study the ability to explore organisational citizenship behaviours for individualist and collectivist employees and then expand on the findings of the first study to a more generalizable quantitative study.

Phase	Procedure	Rationale
Qualitative Data Collection	Semi Structured Interviews	To elicit participants' conceptualisation of OCBs
Qualitative Data Analysis	Grounded Theory	To allow theories to emerge which are grounded in the data
Quantitative Data Collection	Questionnaire	To expand on findings from the grounded theory and test if they can be generalized to a larger number of people
Quantitative Data Analysis	Statistical analysis of the data using ANOVA	To allow the comparison of group means to identify any differences between the conditions
Quantitative Data Collection	Questionnaire	To allow expansion of the findings of study 1 and 2
Quantitative Data Analysis	Statistical analysis of the data using multiple regression	To determine if certain motivations predicted the performance of citizenship behaviour

Figure 1 Sequential Exploration Strategy Design of Thesis

Study 1 – Methodology Rationale

The aim of the first study was to gain an understanding of how employees perceived organisational citizenship behaviours and their performance. Denzin and Lincoln (2000) listed the five defining characteristics of qualitative research, which included, capturing the individual's perspective and the examination of constraints of everyday life. With this

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in mind, a qualitative approach seemed the most appropriate to capture employees' perspective of citizenship behaviour and how they experience it in their context. As De Waele and Harre (1979) said, "By taking the participants' interpretations seriously we avoid the falsification of reality which occurs when self-reports are confined to the replies to questionnaires etc. which have been designed in advance by the investigation" (p. 182). To prevent forcing the data to fit into preconceptions about organisational citizenship behaviour, a grounded theory approach was chosen as it allows theories to emerge from the data rather than being influenced by the preconception of past research. In addition, due to the desire not to be influence by preconceived notions of organisational citizenship behaviours, no previously devised OCB frameworks were used to guide the participants, rather participants were allowed to express any behaviour they believed to be OCBs.

Grounded Theory

Grounded theory is a methodology that emphasises the generation of theory which is 'grounded' in the data rather than imposed prior to data collection (Charmaz, 1995). The grounded theory method was developed by sociologists Glaser and Strauss during their research into people who were dying in hospitals (Glaser & Strauss, 1965, 1968; Strauss & Glaser, 1970). In the 1960s, hospital staff very seldom discussed or acknowledged dying with seriously ill patients. Glaser and Strauss investigated how dying occurred in a variety of hospital settings - from oncology to neonatal departments. They observed how and when terminally ill patients knew they were dying, and how they dealt with the news (Glaser & Strauss, 1965). Glaser and Strauss wanted to develop a methodology that allowed them to move from data to theory. The theories that would be developed would be specific to the context and grounded in the data rather than rely on the constructs of pre-existing theories. These methods and an emphasis on the development of theories from research grounded in the data were outlined to other researchers with Glaser and Strauss's publication of *The Discovery of Grounded Theory* (1967). The development of grounded theory came at a time in sociological research when quantitative research methods were

dominant. Despite sociology's long history with qualitative methods, they were considered anecdotal, biased, unsystematic and impressionistic. Much of the social research took a positivism approach to research and stressed the use of hypothetico-deductive methods, or in other words, testing a theory from a deduced hypothesis. *The Discovery of Grounded Theory* was a challenge to the orthodoxy by presenting a systematic approach to qualitative research. The work of Glaser and Strauss helped legitimise qualitative research methods as a credible choice of methodological approach in its own right (Charmaz, 1995). This opened social research up to the real-world and naturalistic data collection, and gave researchers a means to collect and analyse the data.

Much of psychology's history has been characterised by the use of hypothetico-deductive methods. In this method, theories are derived from hypothesis, which are then empirically tested. Ground theory on the other hand presents a different approach, as it does not discount the use of hypothetico-deductive methods, but rather objects to the 'overly abstracted and untestable social theory' (Howitt & Crammer, 2008, p. 320). The grounded theory approach requires theory to develop from a researcher's understanding of the complexity of the research topic, and by weaving the complex data into a coherent whole. Theories are not tested within grounded theory, but rather the researchers' attempt to create a theory which fits the categories which can also be applied to new data. The end product of grounded theory is a theory which provides an explanatory framework to aid with understanding the phenomena being researched. One of the major differences between the grounded theory approach and the hypothetico-deductive method is that developing the theory is a constant and on-going process. A grounded theorist would collect data from one case and begin the analysis process and then use the findings of this analysis to guide the data collection of the next participant, rather than collecting the data from all participants and then performing the analysis. Charmaz (1995) highlighted a number of the distinguishing characteristics of grounded theory. These include the delay of conducting a literature review until after the completion of the analysis, the integration of data collection and data analysis, theoretical sampling of participants, analysis and

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coding driven by the data, memo writing and finally, the development of theories during each step of the data collection and analysis.

Literature Review

In most research methods, the literature review is carried out before the planning of the study. Researchers examine the previous literature on a topic and try to build on the findings of past studies, thereby advancing the research area. However, the grounded theory method advocates performing the literature review after the data has been collected and the memo writing has been completed. Grounded theory stresses the point that the theory should be grounded in the data, and not based on the findings of any previous studies. It is thought that the researcher should take a 'tabula rasa' approach, so as not to be influenced by past literature when performing analysis of the data and thereby concentrating on the theory emerging from the data. Glaser and Strauss (1967) believed that the literature review should be used to assess the adequacy of the analysis of the data. The analysis may be integrated into the past literature, but if it fails to deal with the past literature, then the researcher may need to look at a reformulation of the analysis. However, some researchers have advocated other approaches, such as skimming the literature to provide a framework to identify the main features of the topic being studied. Breakwell et at (2006) highlighted that the avoidance of the literature review until the end of the analysis is to ensure that researchers would not approach the study with preconceptions about the topic. However, he believed that this did not mean ignoring prior research completely. By reviewing the previous literature it allows the researchers to avoid repeating studies that have already been performed. The use of the prior literature will allow researchers to develop a maximally useful research question. Willig (2004) also highlighted that grounded theory may be used in situations where there were gaps in the research literature. It may be that most past studies have used quantitative methods, and this could mean that certain research questions were not adequately answered. The thesis use of a sequential exploration strategy was due to the questions raised by other

researchers over the main assumptions of organisational citizenship behaviours. Organisational citizenship behaviours were originally developed from qualitative interviews performed by Smith, Organ and Near (1983). In these interviews, Smith et al interviewed several lower level managers and asked them to provide examples of helpful behaviours that were not a requirement of the job. It was from these qualitative interviews that the first measure of OCBs was developed, which subsequently led to a wealth of quantitative research. A return to the qualitative approach, could address some of the discrepancies noted in the first chapter, however, this decision was made once an in depth review of the literature had been performed. While there is some debate as to how much of the prior literature should be used before the start of research, what remains is the principle that a researcher should not be tied to any particular theoretical position. Breakwell et al suggested that the researcher should take the position of 'theoretical agnosticism' rather than 'theoretical ignorance' (2006, p. 350). To adhere to the principles of grounded theory, care was taken to ensure that the data collection and analysis was not influenced by the past literature.

Data Collection and Theoretical Sampling

Grounded theory does not require any particular type of data, but some forms of data are better than others. Interviews are the most commonly used type of data but researchers could also use transcripts from focus groups, field notes or documentary sources (Breakwell et al, 2006; Howitt & Cramer, 2008). However, Charmaz (1995, p. 33) recommends that the data used should be 'full' or 'thick' written descriptions. This does mean that most of the data used in quantitative research would be unsuitable for grounded theory, as it does not provide the detail required. Data collection for study 1 utilized semi structured interviews, to allow the elicitation of 'full' and 'thick' descriptions by the participants. This type of interview uses an interview schedule with a list of predetermined questions; however, it does not rely on the rigorous application of the schedule. If a participant brings up a point of interest, it can be elaborated on, to allow the discovery of concepts that may have been missed with the use of quantitative methods.

Grounded theory data collection and data analysis are interwoven, as the data analysis will shape data collection. Based on the themes and theories emerging from the analysis, researchers may return and collect more data. Like many other qualitative research methods, grounded theory uses non-probability sampling, and in particular, theoretical sampling:

"Theoretical sampling is the process of data collection for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes and analyzes his (sic) data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his theory as it emerges. This process of data collection is controlled by the emerging theory" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 45).

Sampling, in quantitative research methods, is guided by the need to create a demographically representative subset of the population to create data that can be comparable. Sampling in grounded theory is purposive rather than representative, and used to build up the emerging theories from the analysis. The sampling may focus on a particular individual, re-interviewing them to further discuss points they brought up, or interviewing a range of people, or by simply focusing on a particular issue. Theoretical sampling is to continue until theoretical saturation is reached. Theoretical saturation is:

"...to gather data until each category is saturated. This means until (a) no new or relevant data seems to emerge regarding a category, (b) the category is well developed in terms of its properties and dimensions demonstrating variation and (c) the relationships among categories are well established and validated." (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p.212).

The use of theoretical sampling is beneficial as it reduces the chance of the researcher amassing large amounts of data that may be irrelevant to the topic. However, theoretical sampling should be conducted in the later stages of analysis, as performing it too soon could risk imposing theoretical concepts on the data too early in the process (Charmaz, 1995).

Open Coding, Categories and Constant Comparison

Once the researcher has collected a sufficient amount of data, the next step is to begin coding. Coding is common to most forms of qualitative research; however, the coding for grounded theory is different from some other forms of coding within qualitative research. Content analysis creates coding criteria prior to the collection of data, and from there the researcher will record the frequencies of each instance of the code and this will then be tabulated or analysed statistically. Content analysis has been criticized as researchers could try to force their observations into ill-fitting categories. This goes against the main principle of grounded theory, which indicates that theories should be grounded in the data. To counteract the risk of forcing theory to fit the data, grounded theory uses open coding or substantive coding. Open coding involves the researcher examining the data closely, whereby going line by line will create a code based on the content of that line and what it 'represents' (Potter, 1997). The use of open coding ensures that the researchers' feet are kept firmly grounded in the data (Howitt & Cramer, 2008) and prevents the researcher from over-interpreting the data and incorrectly attributing 'motives, fears, or unresolved personal issues' (Charmaz, 1995, p.37) to the participants. With the creation of codes, the researcher has to ensure that the codes 'fit the data', and that the codes describe the item or activity correctly. Open coding will generate a large list of concepts, and some of these concepts will reoccur within the data. To organise this expanding list of codes, the researcher will try to organise these codes into categories. Categories ground together codes that share central features or characteristics. Early categories tend to be of a low level of abstraction, with a description of the codes they include. For example, a category labelled 'emotion' could include codes of anger, sadness, and happiness. As the analysis progresses, categories will develop at higher levels of abstraction, thus moving from descriptive to analytic. Willig (2004) explained that researchers should utilize the words of the participants when developing the categories as it helps researchers avoid implanting existing theories into the analysis. To allow the theory to emerge from the data, constant comparison is used. Constant comparison ensures that the researcher does not continually build up categories, but also breaks them down into smaller units of meaning. Constant comparison involves the researcher looking for similarities and differences between and

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within the categories and codes and is performed over the lifetime of the project. Comparison between two categories may reveal that they cannot be differentiated and should be combined to form one category. Researchers would also look for differences within categories which may result in the creation of subcategories, the revision of the category, or the creation of a new separate category (Langdrige & Hagger-Johnson, 2009). Having developed categories and established the relationship between the categories, a researcher needs to start negative case analysis (e.g. cases that do not fit). Identifying these negative cases allows researchers to elaborate the emerging theory and add depth to the theory. The aim of constant comparison and negative case analysis is to develop the categories and the relationships between these categories which in turn will aid the theory to emerge from the data.

Theoretical Memo Writing

Memo writing is the stage in which researchers explore the data rather than describe and categorise it (Howitt & Cramer, 2008). With the build up of codes and categories, theoretical memos aid the researcher to push the theoretical development forward. Memo writing starts at the beginning of analysis and continues to the very end. The memos act as a reflection of the data; they are the researchers' thoughts about anything regarding the development of theory. Unlike the categories which have to 'fit the data', memos can take any form. They can be hunches, questions regarding a new sample, thoughts on the refinements of categories or explanations of modifications made. They are thought to lie at the heart of theory generation, stimulating the researcher's theoretical sensitivity and creativity, and helping researchers determine which categories are the most important for further analysis (Breakwell et al, 2006). In addition they also act as a public record of the researcher's thought progression to the eventual theory generation. The memos can be recorded in a notebook which logs how the categories may be linked together, charting the relationships and interdependencies. The memos should also be linked with the data, and they should include an archetypal example from the data, supporting the hunches and insights written about in the memo. Memos can also take the form of diagrams; a flow

diagram could be used to display the key concepts and how they relate to each other. When discussing how researchers should perform theoretical memo writing, Kathy Charmaz (1995) made the following suggestion:

"If you are at a loss about what to write about, look for the codes that you have used repeatedly in your data collection. Then start elaborating on these codes. Keep collecting data, keep coding and keep refining your idea through writing more and further developed memos" (p. 43).

The descriptions of grounded theory methodology often consider theoretical memo writing as the transitional stage between the coding of the data and the theory generation. However, as stated previously, the memo writing is conducted throughout the data analysis process. The generation of theory is not produced because of a sudden spark of divine inspiration; it is developed from the application of the grounded theory principles and the work of the researcher. Grounded theory is not sequential but rather a back and forward process of constant examination and refinement of ideas and concepts. Memo writing helps researchers to explore the concepts that emerge from the data and aids with eventually turning the data into theory.

Development of Theory

The most critical stage of grounded theory is when theoretical saturation is reached, and the researcher now focuses on the important core categories, coding, and the relationship between them with the aim of generating a theory. Strauss and Corbin (1994) defined theory as the following: "Theory consists of plausible relationships proposed among concepts and set of concepts" (p.278). Theory generation is not only the key to the grounded theory method, but Glaser and Strauss (1967) believed it should also yield more general theories.

"Since substantive theory is grounded in research on one particular substantive area (work, juvenile delinquency, medical education, mental health) it might be taken to apply only to that specific area. A theory at such a conceptual level, however, may have important general implications and relevance, and become almost automatically a springboard or stepping stone to the development of a grounded formal (or as it is more usually said, 'general') theory...Substantive theory is a strategic link in the formulation and generation of grounded formal theory. We believe that although formal theory can be generated directly from the data, it is more desirable, and usually necessary, to start the formal theory from a substantive one" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 79)

However there is a danger with the process from substantive theory to general theory, as the theory becomes more general, it will become less and less grounded in the data. However, this problem could be minimised if the researcher engages in constant comparison, as this should reduce the risk of developing a theory that goes far beyond the data. Glaser and Strauss (1967) believed that the development of the theory was not the end of the research process. "When generation of theory is the aim, however, one is constantly alert to emergent perspectives, which will change and develop his theory. These perspectives can easily occur on the final day of study or when the manuscript is reviewed in page proof: so the published word is not the final one, but only a pause in the never ending process of generating theory" (p. 40).

The Strengths and Weaknesses of Grounded Theory

One of the great virtues of grounded theory is that it "...encourages a slow motion reading of text and transcripts that should avoid the common qualitative research trap of trawling a set of transcripts for quotes to illustrate preconceived ideas" (Potter, 1998, p. 127). Grounded theory methods advocate that the codes and categories should 'fit the data' rather than trying to make the data fit the codes and categories, thus allowing researchers to create a rich and detailed view into a participant's world. While we cannot be sure that the theory generated from grounded theory methods is not influenced by preconceived

ideas, the use of the guidelines proposed by Glaser and Strauss should minimise the effect any preconceived idea may have on the emergent theory. Grounded theory allows researchers to capture a participant's world with rich detail; detail that may have been lost if quantitative methods were used. However, some researchers have criticised the quality of information that can be gathered from its use. "The method is at its best where there is an issue that is tractable from a relatively common sense actor's perspective...the theoretical notions developed are close to the everyday notions of the participant...how far is grounding derived not from theorizing but from reproducing common sense theories as if they were analytic conclusions?" (Potter, 1998, p.127). This is a criticism that could be applied to any qualitative method that gives the participant a voice, but it could be argued that it is the 'common sense' actor's perspective that is the strength of qualitative methods. The use of qualitative methods that give the participant a voice can lead to astonishing unexpected insights into a phenomenon.

Howitt and Cramer (2008) suggested that the use of grounded theory encourages a collection of pointless data. With the delay of the literature review until after the data has been collected and the theoretical memos written, it could leave researchers with no clear criteria to decide what topics to research before the data collection begins. In addition, this also suggests that there is a risk that the method could generate little useful information for the amount of time and effort required to perform grounded theory. This would be intensified if the researcher has failed to produce an appropriate research question, and so uses grounded theory as the only available choice for analysis. However, as mentioned previously, there are arguments for performing a skimming of the literature review before data collection so as to give researchers a framework to begin with, as long as they do not tie themselves to a particular theoretical viewpoint. These points were not an issue for study 1, as the literature review had been conducted prior to data collection and in addition a concrete research question had been established.

A major debate among grounded theorists is whether to use the full version or the abbreviated method. The full version of grounded theory requires a lot of time and effort

by the researcher, which has led many researchers to use the grounded theory methods on the analysis once the data has been collected. This means that the first stage of grounded theory where data collection and analysis are merged is being abandoned by some researchers; therefore it would mean that the researcher is unable to go back to collect more data if they wish to broaden or refine the analysis. Willig (2004) stated that the abbreviated version should never be a researcher's first choice; it should only be used in situations when time and resources prevent the researcher from using the full version. Charmaz (1995, p.30-31) argued that the full version of grounded theory observes the world from the 'outside in', taking an objectivist position focusing on the social process; while the abbreviated version examines the world 'from inside out', with a subjective position focusing on how the world appears to the participant. While the debate between the use of the full version and the abbreviated version continues, Glaser and Strauss (1967) did invite their readers to use the grounded theory guidelines flexibly in their own way. Study 1 adopted the abbreviated method due to issues regarding ordering effects on the analysis of the data. Two groups of participants were interviewed, one group of British participants and another group of Asian participants. If the full version of grounded theory was to be used, there would be questions regarding which group of participant's data should be analysed first. The aim of this study was to identify both British and Asian employees' experience of organisational citizenship behaviours without forcing the preconceived assumptions of OCBs on their conceptualisation of the concept. If the British participants' interviews were analysed first, there is a risk that their responses would affect the data collection of the Asian participants (and vice versa). Therefore, all data was collected before the data analysis process was begun; however, the data analysis process did attempt to stay as close to the tenets of grounded theory as possible.

Regardless of the criticism placed on grounded theory, it is an extremely useful tool for researchers who would like to capture the rich details of participants' lives. It also facilitates the generation of theory that is grounded in the data rather than being influenced by theories generated using quantitative methods that may not truly capture the complexity of human nature.

Study 2 – Methodology Rationale

The second study examined some of the features that were identified from the participant responses in the first study. Based on the responses of participants from the first study regarding their various conceptualisations of organisational citizenship behaviours, it was decided that the following two studies would adopt the model presented by Williams and Anderson (1991). Their model categorised organisational citizenship behaviours by the target of their behaviours, the organisation or individuals.

A quasi experimental approach was chosen for the second study, as it would allow a quantitative examination of these features in real world setting without the random allocation of participants.

Quasi Experimental Design

As mentioned earlier in the chapter, psychology embraced the experimental methods imported from the natural sciences in an effort to produce robust findings. Pavlov (1927) believed that "experimental investigation...should lay a solid foundation for the future of true science of psychology". These experimental methods have become the backbone of psychological research as they provide a clear route to testing hypotheses. In addition they also allow the researcher control over the independent variables and participant allocation in the hope of allowing researchers to identify what is responsible for any changes in the dependent variable. When performing research, investigators must be careful when designing experiments to ensure that the effects of any possible external influences are minimised. This is in order to ensure that any change in the dependent variable is due to the manipulations of the independent variable, rather than any unknown or unmeasurable variable. An experiment is when a researcher has complete control over the independent variable and they control the effect of extraneous variables (Langdrige & Hagger-Johnson, 2009).

There are many advantages to the experimental approach and it is considered the gold standard among the scientific community, but we must remember that it is not the only means of generating useful data. True experiments provide the best method to draw casual inferences with confidence. However, it is not always possible to carry out a true experiment because of the research question and practical or ethical issues. In these situations a researcher may carry out what is known as a quasi-experimental design, which, "...resemble experiments but are weak on some of the characteristics. Quasi-experiments include a comparison of at least two levels of independent variables, but the manipulation is not always under the experimenter's control" (Raulin & Graziano, 1994, p. 1124). Quasi-experimental design should not be seen as inferior to true experimental design. The use of a quasi-experimental design may be the next logical step to test if findings from laboratory based experiments are true in a real world setting. There are two main ways in which quasi-experiments differ from true experiments. Firstly, the researcher has no control over the manipulation of the independent variable, and secondly, it is not possible to randomly allocate participants to groups.

There are a number of research questions that cannot be answered using true experiments because participants cannot be randomly allocated to groups for practical reasons or because it would be unethical to do so. If a researcher was studying the effects of divorce on young children, they would compare children whose parents have divorced, with children whose parents are still married. There would be no possibility of randomly allocating children to the divorce or non-divorced parent groups. By the very nature of social and applied psychological research, research in the field often means that it is not possible to allocate participants into the conditions at random. In the case of study 2, participants could not be randomly allocated to groups, as the groups being investigated were country based (United Kingdom and Indonesia) and culture based (Individualist and Collectivist). Study 2 used country and cultural orientation as independent variables, which of course cannot be manipulated by the researcher. The final independent variable was that of the scenario designs that were manipulated. Six scenarios were created presenting three scenarios in which a co-worker used OCBs and three scenarios where

impression management behaviours were performed. Participants were asked to read the scenario and rate if they perceived the behaviours were OCBs or impression management (for more information on the development of the scenarios, refer to study 2 methodology section).

Study 3 – Methodological Rationale

Findings from study 1 and study 2 were used to shape the development of study 3, which investigated the effect of motivation on the choice of type of citizenship behaviours to be performed.

Correlational Studies

Correlational studies are described as 'non-experimental', as the variables are not manipulated by the researcher (for example, the independent variables could be gender, which of course cannot be manipulated by the researcher); instead the researcher uses correlations and regressions to study the association between the independent and dependent variables.

To study the effect of violence on television, a researcher could distribute questionnaires to a large number of people asking them about the amount of violent programmes they watch and to what extent they acted aggressively in different situations. The researcher would be looking for an association between the two variables; the term association is used to emphasise the correlational study design as it is difficult (if not impossible) to infer causality. If a researcher found that there was an association between violent programmes and aggression, it would suggest that watching violent programmes on television would cause aggressive behaviour. However, the causality could operate in the opposite direction with aggressive people choosing to watch more violent programmes than individuals who are less aggressive. There may also be a third variable which

accounts for the association between the two variables. For example, it may be that people from lower socio-economic backgrounds watch more television programmes in general than people from higher socio-economic backgrounds, and it is their socio-economic situation that causes them to behave more aggressively. If that was true, it would mean that violent television programs would have not affected an already aggressive behaviour.

There are a number of reasons researchers would use correlational studies. Firstly, they can be used because many hypotheses cannot be studied using experimental methods. For example, if a researcher is investigating the effects of smoking on health, they cannot force one group of participants to smoke, and force another group not to smoke. Instead, this hypothesis can be investigated by examining the correlations between the number of cigarettes smoked and the probability of suffering ill health by using individuals who already smoke. Secondly, the use of correlational studies allows researchers to gather large amounts of data on a number of variables more rapidly and efficiently than it would be possible with an experimental design. It is for these reasons that a correlational design was selected for study 3. Once again, this study focused on individualism and collectivism as determinates of behaviour, which could not be randomly allocated. In addition, the correlational design also allowed the collection of data on a number of variables quite efficiently.

One of the major limitations of correlational studies is the difficulty in establishing cause and effect. Researchers using correlational studies are simply observing the differences that may exist between two variables, but there is no way that they can isolate the true casual variable. For example, if we are looking at differences in performance between male and female participants on self-estimation of IQ, there may be other variables that are related that could have a confounding effect. We only know that there is some sort of relationship between the variables but our evidence does not permit us to make inferences about cause or its direction. While correlation studies are generally thought of as inferior to experimental design, they are often the best we can hope for in many real world

situations; however, we must be careful when trying to interpret the results of these studies.

Additional methodological issues for Study 2 and Study 3

Both study 2 and study 3 were conducted using on line questionnaires, which brings up a number of additional methodological issues.

Questionnaires

Questionnaires are a popular means of data collection and while they may seem quick and easy to devise, many psychological scales may take months, if not years, for a researcher to devise, pilot, standardise and implement, taking time and effort to ensure the scale has reliability and validity. Questionnaires are research tools that allow researchers to gather structured information about the occurrence of a particular behaviour, opinions, beliefs or attitudes. They are particularly useful when the researcher wants to measure something that is not directly observable or not precisely definable, such as a theoretical construct. They are a particularly valuable method of data collection, allowing researchers to gather data from a large number of people relatively quickly and efficiently; but this may be at the expense of detailed and in-depth information. Proponents of qualitative research methods have stressed that the use of qualitative research designs allows researchers to elicit the true beliefs of participants. Questionnaires, on the other hand, often have to balance the trade off between the simplicity of the questions, to ensure an adequate number of responses, and the depth of information that is collected. However, a good questionnaire should be able to maximise the quality of data collected without increasing the size of the questionnaire unnecessarily.

Devising a Good Questionnaire

Questionnaires should be as short as possible, making it quick and easy for participants to complete, unless there is a strong reason for doing otherwise. For this reason, all questions included in both study 2 and study 3 had a rationale for their inclusion. In addition, the language of the questionnaire should be appropriate for the sample that will be used; the wording of a questionnaire aimed at schoolchildren would be greatly different to one aimed at middle managers at a finance company. The use of technical terms should be avoided; however, if the technical term cannot be substituted, an explanation of the term should be provided. In the case of study 2, participants were required to rate if the scenario was an organisational citizenship behaviour or an impression management motivated behaviour. As it was possible that the participants may not be familiar with these concepts, a definition was provided for the term.

Both study 2 and study 3 utilized closed questions rather than open ended questions. Open ended question gives the respondent the scope to answer in whatever way they feel is appropriate. On the other hand, closed questions give the respondent a set number of responses, and they answer the questions by selecting one or more of the choices. A common criticism of closed questions is that they limit the possible responses, and in a worst case scenario, it could mean that a researcher could collect data that had little meaning to the respondent, as they were forced to pick a response that is not true to them. Open-ended questions generate more detailed information than closed questions, and provide responses that express the participant's true feelings, but, this is at a cost. The use of open-ended questions can increase the length of time it takes to complete the questionnaire, but also makes the responses more difficult to score and analyse. On the other hand, however, closed questions enable the quick collection of reliable information which is also easy to analyse. To ensure that the questionnaire gave the respondents the appropriate choices of responses and that the scales selected were suitable, the interviews from study 1 were kept in mind.

Response Scales

There are a number of response scales available to the researcher, such as the equal appearing intervals (Thurstone, 1931), the semantic differential (Osgood, Suci & Tannenbaum, 1957) or summanted ratings (Likert, 1932). Both study 2 and study 3 utilized the summated, or Likert scale as it is more commonly known, in which the respondents are asked to specify their level of agreement to each of the statements presented, from strongly agree to strongly disagree, usually on a five point scale (sometimes seven or more). The respondents score on each of these items is then added up to give the respondent's overall attitude score.

The Likert scale is popular in psychological research as it is easy to construct, administer, score and analyse the data. However, there are some concerns over the 'undecided' response, as it is ambiguous. If a respondent picks the 'undecided' score does it imply that they have a neutral position, no opinion on the statement, or does it imply an 'on the fence' position with the respondent torn between feeling for and against the statement? The respondent could even have picked the 'undecided' response because they feel that the statement does not apply to them at all. In addition, a respondent with a score in the middle of the distribution is quite ambiguous. The score could reflect that the participant has responded to a lot of the statements with 'undecided'; or their score could comprise of a collection of responses that are strongly for and against the statements, which could indicate that the scale is in fact measuring two different attitudes.

Issues within Questionnaires Development

Another issue that has to be controlled is response set or response bias, which is a type of cognitive bias which can influence the way participants respond to the questions. One example of this is social desirability, where a respondent will attempt to answer the questions in a way that makes them 'look good'. This could be that the respondent is attempting to answer in a way that portrays them in the best light, giving responses to 'please the researcher' or just honest responses that are positively biased. Responding in a

socially desirable manner does not always involve the participant lying; often people will respond in that manner without realising it. Some researchers attempt to counter this by including a social desirability (sometimes known as a 'lie') scale, which consists of a series of questions that if a respondent was to consistently answer these questions in a positive manner they would be thought of as being too 'saintly' to be realistic and often excluded from the analysis. The inclusion of a social desirability scale would depend on the topic of research. Some topics may not require a social desirability scale, for example, psychological concepts that the participant would be unaware of. While social desirability is a concern for both the questionnaires, the topic of research does concern organisational citizenship behaviours and impression management motives. One of the issues of contention in OCB research is that they can be performed for impression management reasons; with that in mind, any individuals who have high levels of impression management motives are likely to respond in a socially desirable manner, as they are concerned with maintaining their image. However, even if this is the case, an individual who is motivated by impression management motives, may respond to the questionnaire in a way that may reflect how they would act in their working environment. In addition, as the participant information stresses that their responses are confidential and anonymous, this could encourage more honest responses.

Another issue to consider is that of response acquiescence, which is a tendency to agree with all the statements presented in a scale. The easiest way for researchers to deal with this problem is to make some of the questions negatively worded. Providing a mix of positively and negatively worded questions will keep the questions unpredictable and force a respondent to think about each question or at the very least, a respondent who always agrees with all the statements will have a neutral score, rather than an extremely high score. All scales used in study 2 and study 3 included both positive and negatively worded items to avoid response acquiescence.

Demand characteristics should also be considered. Orne (1962) defined demand characteristics as "the totality of cues which convey an experimental hypothesis to the

subjects" (p.779). When a participant volunteers to take part in a study, it has been argued that they want to cooperate with the researcher and help the researcher achieve the results the researcher was 'looking for' (Langdrige & Hagger-Johnson, 2009). If the participant is aware of the research hypotheses or tries to guess the nature of the experiment, they may respond in a manner to confirm the hypothesis in order to be a 'good' participant and not ruin the research. This unnatural responding can compromise the ecological validity of the research (Orne, 1962). In one of his studies Ornes' participants were willing to spend several hours adding numbers on a number sheet and then to tear them up once the sheet was completed. It is thought that the participants believed the experiment was a test of endurance and that motivated them to keep going. While a true experiment can randomly allocate participants in a double blind manner, this is not always possible in the case of quasi-experimental design. In this case, researchers must be aware of the effect demand characteristics can have on the results and attempt to keep the true agenda of the research hidden from the participants. It must also be taken into consideration that this thesis aims to identify the effect of cultural related variables on OCBs. Collectivist individuals are driven to place the needs of their in-group over their own needs. It could be that the employees who choose to participate in the studies may be more collectively orientated, as they may believe that helping with the research could help their organisation; which could affect the response of the participants. Measuring individualism and collectivism as an individual difference may help to reduce an over representation of collectivist in the sample.

Establishing Reliability and Validity

Many scales attempt to measure variables for which there is no universally agreed measure; therefore, researchers have to ensure the measurement is accurate and consistent. Researchers have to establish external reliability and internal reliability. Studies 2 and 3 use psychological scales which have been developed by other psychologists. Scales selected to be used for the questionnaires were assessed for their suitability to measure the desired concept and the scales reliability. In addition, once the questionnaire had been

performed the Cronbach's Alpha was also assessed using statistical software. The Cronbach's Alpha (Cronbach, 1951) is the equivalent of the average of all the possible split half reliability values that could be calculated (Coolican, 2004). Values of 0.70 or higher are considered acceptable; however tests that require participants to think inwardly about their responses are likely to have a lower internal consistency than tests of ability. Values of 0.60 or higher are sometimes considered acceptable (Youngman, 1979).

While a researcher may have established that a test has high reliability, it may be lacking in validity, that is, it may not be measuring what it was originally intended to measure. As Kline (2000) highlighted, establishing reliability is necessary but this alone is not sufficient to demonstrate that the test has validity; however, a scale cannot be valid if it is not reliable. This was a concern for the scenario design of study 2. A scale's validity can be assessed in a number of ways. The most basic test of validity is that of face validity; a test has face validity if it is obvious what it is measuring or basically does it 'look valid?' Kline (2000) argued that the strength of face validity is that it has the potential for motivating test takers, who may be able to see what the test is measuring and deem the test worthwhile. However, the weakness of a test with strong face validity, is that it becomes easier to fake and more susceptible to demand characteristics. Another type of validity that was used in the scenario design was content validity which involves "the systematic examination of the test content to determine whether it covers a representative sample of the behaviour domain to be measured" (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997, p. 114). This typically involves subject matter experts (SME's) evaluating the test items against the specifications of the test; using their expertise in the topic area, they will judge if the test has tested for all aspects of the concept or if the test items are disproportionately weighted towards one aspect of the domain compared to others. Subject matter experts were used to assess OCB and impression management behaviours to be included in the scenarios, which will be discussed further in the study 2 methodology section.

Issues with Translation

The previous section illustrated some of the issues researchers are faced with when designing a questionnaire; trying to translate a questionnaire into another language which may have an altogether different cultural outlook can be equally problematic for researchers. Rogler (1999) provided an example of issues that might arise through translation from the Diagnostic Interview Schedule (DIS). Rogler tried to translate the question 'I felt I could not shake off the blues even with help from my family or friends' from English to Spanish, which he found quite problematic. When translating text from one language to another, the translator will try to stay as close to the original wording as possible; however problems can arise with the use of colloquialisms. How does one translate 'the blues' into Spanish? *Azul* is the Spanish equivalent of the word 'blue'; however the meaning of 'the blues' does not survive the translation. Rogler eventually translated the item by rewording it to 'I could not get over feeling sad even with help from my family or friends'. While a translator would not normally deviate from the original wording, in some cases, there are no alternatives (Beins, 2009), rather than translating word for word, we translate the meaning of the statement.

To ensure the comparability of items from one language to another, back translation is often used (Brislin, 1970; Banville, Desrosiers and Genet-Volet, 2000). Back translation involves translating the item from the original language to another language, and this is then followed by another translator translating the document back into the original language; this ensures that the meaning is not lost in translation. This was performed for the questionnaires used in study 2 and study 3 to ensure that the meaning was not lost in translation. Translation was not an issue for study 1. As the translation of an interview would be an especially difficult task and would require an interpreter, which would in itself cause concern for the translation of meaning, participants were recruited from MBA programs at universities. This allowed for the recruitment of participants who were proficient in the English language.

E-Research

The term e-research refers to research conducted on the internet, and this includes searching for literature, publication, dissemination of research in web journals, but more often is used to refer to data collection methods. It has become increasingly common for researchers to use the internet as a means of data collection, with most of this done in the form of on-line questionnaires. One of the main concerns regarding e-research is the representative nature of the sample; while internet usage is becoming more accessible, there is still a worry that internet users would represent individuals with a higher socio-economic background. However, this was not a concern for study 2 and 3, as the sample had already been organised (employees from selected organisations) and the use of on line questionnaires just provided a more convenient means of response. In addition, the use of on line questionnaires verses the traditional paper pencil test was chosen as it could mean that participants felt more reassured that their supervisors would not see their responses, as it has been found that some participants may be willing to take part in on-line based research or provide more honest responses due to the anonymity provided, especially with sensitive research topics (Turner, Ku, Rogers, Lindberg, Pleck, & Stonenstein, 1998).

There are obvious advantages to conducting questionnaires on line, such as, larger sample sizes, low cost, reduction in missing data, ability to export data directly to statistical programmes, ability to circulate the link to the questionnaires via email lists, and the ability to access hard to reach communities (Rhodes, Bowie & Hergenrather, 2003; Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava & John, 2004; Whitehead, 2007). However, e-research and data collection do introduce certain issues with regard to data collection. Researchers have to consider respondents submitting multiple responses or mischievous submissions (Buchanan, 2000; Gosling et al, 2004). However, some of the current on-line questionnaire websites do give researchers some control over this issue by providing features to only allow one response per computer, logging the IP address of repeat responders, or providing a unique URL address for e-mail invitations to the survey (while maintaining respondent's anonymity). For the questionnaires in study 2 and study 3 only one response per computer was allowed to prevent multiple responses.

The ease of use of on-line questionnaires for the researcher has resulted in a proliferation of web studies and other forms of on-line research (e.g. website pop-ups asking users to fill in a short survey about the website). This means that people may become increasingly frustrated and annoyed with the idea of filling out questionnaires, especially from unsolicited sources (Langridge & Hagger-Johnson, 2009). Accessing potential participants from a trusted 'gatekeeper' and participant information sheet (which may be included in an e-mail) that fully outlines why people should spend time on the questionnaire can address this issue. Access to participants for the questionnaire was granted through a 'gatekeeper' in the organisation who forwarded employees an e mail with a link to the questionnaire, the participant information and in addition a note from themselves encouraging employees to read the information and consider participating.

The use of on line questionnaires may make it easier for participants to drop out compared with the traditional paper and pencil method (Langridge & Hagger-Johnson, 2009). Researchers have to also consider if they will use the recorded data of incomplete questionnaires or just exclude any incomplete questionnaires. To avoid the issue of incomplete questionnaires and missing data in studies 2 and 3, the answering of all questions were required by the on line questionnaire and in addition, any incomplete questionnaires were discarded.

Gosling et al's (2004) analysis suggested that data collected via the internet was as good quality as those provided by the traditional paper and pencil methods; while on-line data collection methods have their limitations, so do the traditional paper and pencil methods. In addition, they suggested that on-line data collection methods also served to stimulate the public's interest in psychology by involving a much broader range of society in research, and not just the typical student based samples.

Conclusion

The use of a mixed method design seemed the most appropriate for the aims of this thesis. While most of organisational citizenship behaviour research is conducted using

quantitative methods, the discrepancies found in the research suggested that there was a

risk that researchers were conceptualising OCBs in a manner that did not capture how

employees actually viewed OCBs. The use of a qualitative approach in the first study

allowed for an exploration of OCBs as the employees' experienced it in their own context.

Finally, the findings of this qualitative approach allowed the development of two

quantitative studies that were built from the participants' view of citizenship behaviours;

thus hopefully allowing quantifiable results that reflect the experiences of individualist

and collectivist employees.

Chapter 4

Employees' conceptualisations and experiences of organizational citizenship behaviours

Introduction

As mentioned in the literary review chapter, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has traditionally been viewed as a virtuous construct with its motives pure, and its outcomes for both the organisation and its employees, positive and advantageous. However, as the research literature on OCB expanded, questions began to be raised with regard to the constraints of its definition. OCBs had been defined as behaviours that an employee could choose to perform and they were not constrained in their performance such as with their job tasks, and these behaviours would not be openly rewarded and ultimately would benefit the organisation (Organ, 1988). However, researchers started to acknowledge that the lines between mandatory behaviours and discretionary behaviours were blurry and ill defined (Morrison, 1994; Lam, Hui & Law, 1999), and too ambiguous to identify the behaviours that fall in this category across employees, context and time (Graham, 1991; Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994). These questions over the constraints of the OCB definition led Organ (1997) to revise his definition of OCB to: "behaviours [that] do not support the technical core itself so much as they support the broader organisational, social and psychological environment in which the technical core must function" (p.73). This revision was designed to rectify some of the issues that arose from his original definition. While this definition allows for behaviours that may be considered as in-role and behaviours that may be rewarded to be included in the construct, issues surrounding OCB are ever present.

Due to the dynamic nature of organisations, the classification of OCBs as extra-role or in-role is constantly changing for employees and while Organ's 1997 definition of OCB allows for these variations, there has been little thought as to how this impacts employees. Morrison (1994) found that how an individual defines an activity as in-role or extra-role is an important determinant of their behaviour. In cultural examinations of the performance of OCB, a significant relationship between nationality and employees' defining OCBs as in-role or extra-role has been found (Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Blakely, Andrews & Moorman, 2005), with employees with a collectivist orientation more likely to view OCBs as in-role than individualistic orientated employees (Blakely et al, 2005).

This suggests that a more appropriate approach to OCB research is to focus on how employees and their managers conceptualise OCB and its performance. In addition, a better understanding of how employees conceptualize OCB could also aid our understanding of employees' motivations for performing citizenship behaviours. The conventional view of OCB theorizes that the motivation behind its performance is down to the 'good will' of the employee, who performs OCBs as part of a social exchange with the organisation (Organ, 1990). While a majority of the research has assumed that OCB arises out of the 'good will' of the employee, it has been acknowledged that some employees may perform OCBs in order to make themselves 'look good' in the eyes of their co-workers and supervisor (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Hui, 1993). Furthermore, researchers have commented on the overlap between OCB and impression management, which has been defined as a type of behaviour that attempts to manipulate others' perceptions of them (Tedeschi & Riess, 1981). While the early literature on impression management was concerned with disingenuousness and devious uses of the behaviour, impression management behaviours are not necessarily good or bad (Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Schlenker & Weigold, 1992; Rosenfeld, Giacalone & Riordan, 1995) and citizenship behaviours may be used by individuals to achieve their impression management goals. Fandt and Ferris (1990) believed that OCBs irrespective of their motives are likely to improve organisational performance. However, Schnake (1991) countered this by

suggesting that OCBs motivated purely by self interest would in the long term have deleterious results for the organisation. While employees may use citizenship behaviours as a form of impression management, what may be more significant is how the citizenship behaviour is implemented. Snell and Wong (2007) put forth the idea of 'pseudo-OCB', in which an individual may use OCB for impression management purposes without essentially engaging in citizenship behaviours.

Aim of Study

Much of OCB research has sought out antecedents to its performance or positive outcomes resulting from its performance, while there has been little focus on how individuals conceptualize OCB. This study does not aim to dismiss the previous literature on OCB, but rather examines OCB away from the literature's preconceived motives and consequences. The aim of this study is to investigate how employees perceive organisational citizenship behaviours; and additionally, to identify their motives for its performance and the outcomes they have experienced. With this in mind research questions were developed to examine:

1. How do employees conceptualize organisational citizenship behaviours? Specifically,

   a. What are their motivations to performing OCBs

   b. What outcomes have they experienced from performing OCBs (including both positive and negative outcomes)

2. How does cultural orientation effect the conceptualization of OCB and its motives and outcomes?

Method

Design and methodology

Since the aim of this study is to explore in detail employees' experiences and perception of organisational citizenship behaviour, a qualitative design was viewed as the most appropriate method to use. A Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) approach was used, which allowed for the development and refinement of relevant concepts, leading to the emergence of theory from the data with the aim of developing a better understanding of employees' conceptualisation of OCBs. The abbreviated version of Grounded Theory, rather than the full version, was used. As mentioned in the previous methodology chapter, the abbreviated version was used to avoid any order effects on the data collection and analysis. However, the data collection and analysis did attempt to adhere to the main principle by allowing the theory to emerge from the data rather than forcing the data to fit preconceived notions of OCBs.

Sample

Participants were recruited from two universities in the East Midlands region of the United Kingdom through a letter sent to university departments that offer postgraduate courses. As one of the aims was to identify if cultural orientation would affect the conceptualisation of OCBs, participants were recruited from countries that had dominant collectivist or individualistic orientations. According to Hofstede (1988) cultural dimensions, the United Kingdom rates as a highly individualistic nation; therefore, British participants were recruited to represent the individualistic orientation. To represent collectivist countries Asian participants were recruited, as Asian countries rate highly as collectivist countries (Hofstede, 1988). In addition, the two groups of participants were required to have at least 1 year work experience in the United Kingdom or 1 year work experience in an Asian country. Postgraduate university students on MBA programmes

were chosen as the Asian participants would have had relevant work experience within collectivist countries and likely exposure to the performance of OCBs and in addition would be proficient in English and therefore translation of interview transcripts would not be an issue. Within the United Kingdom sample group, there were three male participants and two female participants, while the Asian sample group had one male participant and four female participants, who originated from Malaysia, Indonesia, Hong Kong and Taiwan.

Procedure

Participants were recruited through a letter distributed by their departments which gave a brief overview of the research and what would be involved if they chose to participate. Participants were also made aware that they would be taking part in an interview that would last approximately 50 minutes which would be recorded. They were informed that the interview would be transcribed, and once completed, the recording of their interview would be deleted and the transcript would be kept securely. In addition, each participant was assigned a participant code, to ensure that any information provided would remain anonymous and confidential. The participant code consisted of 3 characters, the first refers to which sample the participant belongs to: H to refer to a United Kingdom participant and A to refer to an Asian participant. The second character refers to the sex of the participant (i.e. M for male and F for female) and the final number refers to the order in which they were interviewed.

As mentioned previously in the methodology chapter, a semi structured interview was used and the interview schedule was devised with Grounded Theory principles in mind, which states that theories should be 'grounded' in the data collected rather than relying on pre-existing theories, constructs or categories (Willig, 2004).

The primary aim of this study was to investigate employees' conceptualization of citizenship behaviours; however, the term 'organisational citizenship behaviours' is not a common one and is not well known outside of Occupational psychology and Business Management research. Organ's original definition defined it as, 'individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation' (1988, p.4). It has been argued that the definition should be independent of presumed motives or consequences of the behaviour (Podsakoff et al, 1993; Bolino, Turnley & Nichoff, 2004). While Organ's (1997) revised definition of citizenship behaviours does not include motives or consequences it may be too unclear and ambiguous for participants unfamiliar with OCB to identify behaviours that they view as OCBs. For these reasons, a definition of citizenship behaviours was devised that allowed participants to understand what citizenship behaviours are and which attempted to minimize the reference to in-role or extra-role and the consequences. The definition given to participants was as follows:

The purpose of my research is to investigate employee performance of what we call organisational citizenship behaviours. They have been described as productive behaviours that go above and beyond the call of duty for an employee. They are typically directed towards their co-workers, but sometimes can be directed towards the organisation itself. Employees who perform these behaviours are usually seen as good citizens within the organisation who perform at levels above what is formally required by the organisation.

In the interview the participants were asked if they could give an example of a behaviour that they believed would fall into the OCB category, and if they had trouble identifying behaviours, prompts were offered. After an example of the behaviour was identified, participants were asked why it was performed and what the outcomes of its performance

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were for them and the organisation. The line of questions was repeated until an hour was up or they were no longer able to provide any more examples. The full interview schedule can be found in Appendix 1.

Data Analysis

Once the interviews were transcribed, transcripts from the United Kingdom sample were read several times and salient themes underlined. Open coding was used, creating codes using terms either the participants used or ones that had been generated by the researcher. This was continued until categories emerged from the data and quotations that illustrated the categories were collated. This process was then repeated for the transcripts from the Asian sample. This was followed by constant comparison, allowing for categories to develop, establishing the relationships between categories and identifying the properties of each of the categories. Attention was given to compare and contrast the categories found from the United Kingdom and Asian samples, highlighting when similar or distinct categories emerged. Throughout this process theoretical memo writing was used to aid with the emergence of theory from the data.

Results

The findings from the interviews will be presented in two sections based on the two theories that emerged from the analysis of the transcripts:

1. The perception of OCBs as in-role or extra-role by employees and their supervisors, will affect the motivation, performance and outcome of the behaviours

2. OCB can be performed with impression management motives to facilitate the obtainment of employee goals

OCB as extra-role or in-role behaviours

While the traditional view of OCB presents itself as an extra-role behaviour, it appears that employees' perceptions of OCB are far less fixed, with employees viewing certain OCBs as extra-role, while others are viewed as required behaviours. What seems more important is how their perception of OCB as in-role or extra-role corresponds with their perceptions of how their supervisor or the organisation perceives the OCB as in or extra role.

When OCB is seen as extra-role by both manager and employee

When both the employee and their manager view OCBs as an extra-role behaviour, the motivations and outcomes of OCB performance appear to be closest to the original conceptualisation of citizenship behaviour. This was most commonly found within the United Kingdom sample, where frequently the manager and employee viewed OCBs as extra role behaviours which employees had a choice to perform and could not be forced to perform the behaviour. In these situations, where there is the choice to perform these behaviours, trust between the employee and their manager appears to be an important factor in its performance.

'...[it] means that if I ask them to do something, if there is something that is outside the norm, then, yeah they will generally do what was ask, as long as its not demanded of them...I wouldn't expect anyone to do anything I was not prepared to do. And if I am not prepared to...work silly hours on a regular basis, I don't expect others to...' (HM2)

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When the behaviour is viewed as extra role by all involved, then employees have the ability to say no to their supervisor if they are asked to perform a behaviour that is outside their regular job duties.

'...sometimes you get asked to do something that you may think are a bit trivial. Like today I had to make a recycling box and I am pretty sure at the interview stage there was no mention of origami, which I got in graced [sic] into today. You can say no, but at the end of the day the job will be given to someone else...' (HM3)

Employees in these situations have the ability to refuse to perform an OCB that is asked of them and without fear of serious repercussions.

A: 'Do you think there would be any negative outcomes if you said no?'

HM3: 'If you did it enough times and you know, you get branded as having a bad attitude, but I mean if I am genuinely busy I would say no. It would get passed down to another. I don't think there would be any real repercussions.'

In addition, employees also have the ability to negotiate and discuss with supervisors about any OCB behaviour that is asked of them.

'If it is something quite small then I will do it, but if it means taking me out of my job for a number of days, a week or two, then it gets a bit more difficult because you have to say to them "this isn't in my job and you need to realise the impact it is going to have on my work if you want me to do something else' (HF2)

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Participants also discussed the importance of acknowledging employees for performing citizenship behaviours when they are perceived to be an extra-role behaviour.

'Let's face it, the organisation, as they are performing above and beyond, can generally benefit, I don't think there is a downside other than if they are not rewarding these behaviours they can become disillusioned, disenchanted, disengaged, but that's the kind of organisational challenges isn't it...' (HM1)

While financial rewards to employees who have excelled are not always possible, participants have highlighted that acknowledgement in any form is important to employee motivation.

'I am a firm believer that if something has gone wrong then you confront it and so on, but equally if something has been done right, 'you did a good job there', sometimes that's all it really needs. You are not always in the position to actually financially reward or reward in any other way, but as long as you recognised the work that has been put in, the effort or the results that's come out, then hopefully that would motivate on to improved performance, etc.' (HM2)

'Someone who has done particularly well and perhaps if what they have done has had an impact on their home life for a period of time. I think it's sort of financial, but to say to them, get yourself out for a meal with your wife or something and bring me the receipt, so in financial terms it's not a lot of cash but it very much a piece of recognition that both them and their family can see' (HM1)

Two participants mentioned recognition of employees' performance through awards given to members of staff that embody the organisational values and mission statement or whose performance is believed to deserve recognition by their co-workers.

'I think in terms of recognition we have...the shine award. The shine award...it's a bi-monthly award to team members within the organisation who anybody feels...deserve recognition...so it's not just raised and acknowledged, they were presented with their award...it's a full award evening with dinner and professional presenter.' (HF1)

It appears that those participants who viewed citizenship behaviours as extra-role behaviours have clear job descriptions and understanding of which tasks fall into required behaviours and which would be optional. When participants have this clear understanding, they are free to decide what behaviours they would or would not like to perform.

'...I can reject [sic] because by that time I know all the things we need to follow, the policy, the procedure, it's not one of my duties, why do I have to do that? ...Yeah because we have a handbook of all the things you have to do for this job, if they did not write down there, so I can reject [sic]...' (AF2)

When OCB is seen as extra-role by employees and in-role by their managers

All of the Asian participants gave examples in which they performed behaviours that they viewed were extra-role citizenship behaviours, but they felt were perceived as in-role by their managers or the organisation. In many cases the participant believed they or their co-workers were asked to perform a behaviour that lay outside of their job specification.

'One of our friends basically she is the deputy dean of the academics and because she is single, she is young, not married yet ...people always ask her to sit in meetings where she is totally unrelated to... I think it's unfair for her...' (AF3)

Unlike the experience of many of the United Kingdom participants, participants in the Asian sample feel they are unable to refuse to perform many of these tasks.

'I think even in our culture we just have [sic], we are told we have to follow our supervisor's instructions. Just basically just [sic] do everything our supervisor says, not to say no too often or you will have a bad impression [sic]' (AF1)

Often participants sited fear of repercussions as the reason for their inability to say no to supervisors or managers.

'Because my supervisor asked me to do so, of course you can reject, but see what happen when you reject...The outcome, the teacher will say, the supervisor, my boss will say, he might say, 'okay' but you never know something in his mind [sic]. He can't do anything but he can do something in the future. If you want to go for another job and you need a reference letter, see what I am going to write on top. You worry about that, you worry so you just stop, you can't say no. It is one of the outcomes that might happen if you reject' (AF2)

Participants fear the outcomes that might arise if they did say no to a task given by a supervisor; threats such as not being considered for promotions, rewards or even the threat of being fired.

One Asian participant recounted that in her former job in a hospital, employees were made to complete 30 hours of 'voluntary' work. She perceived this voluntary work as tasks that lay outside her job description yet being forced to perform them left her feeling wronged and unjustly treated by the organisation.

AF2: '...You are forcing me to do that, it is unfair, it is not one of my duties. You do a job in a health organisation, doesn't mean you have to enjoy [sic].'

A: 'Do you think you would have been more willing or happy to do it if it was not forced 'volunteering'?

AF2: 'I would be more happy [sic] and enjoy it'

While participants may feel unfairly treated by feeling forced to perform behaviours they view are extra-role, four of participants dealt with this through various techniques. Three of the Asian participants, when discussing the ability to say no to supervisors, commented on the use of avoidance to deal with these situations without confronting their supervisor.

'No, they can work around it, they can avoid it, do something that makes them do the job, but to say no in front of them, no' (AM1)

'...sometimes you can reject a little bit, just reject, just say 'I think another person can take this job', you can't say 'no I am busy, I can't do this.' (AF2)

Other participants appear to positively frame the situation in a way that reduces the perception of being unfairly treated.

'...if we have the idea that wasn't part of our job or [sic] we just help as a favour, we put them in a later pile priority. We will still do it but we will have a different attitude.' (AF1)

AM1: '[in a] previous institution, like I said, I was actually a research officer but they, but my superior said, asked me to do treasury. It's like very, I don't really like holding money and stuff like that, so it was like a burden to me I don't really enjoy at all.'

A: 'Especially with Indonesia, there are so many notes to hold!'

AM1: 'I know, since I was in school, I also rejected the treasury position, I don't like it. But sometimes your worse [sic], yeah, but it's a good, I mean, as an outcome I get a new experience, because I don't have any experience before that but its something you have to do if your supervisor says so'

Asian participants also recounted examples in which they have or know of friends and co-workers who have performed personal favours for their supervisors that lie outside of their prescribed job roles. The performance of personal favours may be used as a means of ensuring a positive relationship with their supervisor and attempting to prevent any future negative outcomes.

'My friends [sic] working in financial sector, he just help with his supervisors personal things, like doing something like booking the flight ticket for her...Or even when his supervisor, his supervisor is a lady, her [child] is getting baptised, my friend helped her with designing the card, the invitation card. (AF1)

A lack of clarity of ones' job duties can affect the performance of OCBs, as participants may feel the behaviour is an extra-role behaviour; however job ambiguity results in

participants feeling unsure of where it lies and therefore feel they may be obligated to perform the behaviour.

'It is not really clear cut what your duties are...It is really difficult thing. I have to say sometimes were not very conscious of what we are doing, like this is not part of our job or this is part of our job. We just do everything; we did not have a very clear idea of our job.'
(AF1)

When OCB is seen as in-role by both employee and supervisor

Some citizenship behaviours that are traditionally seen as extra-role behaviours were seen as required in-role behaviours by some participants. In these cases the participants felt that these behaviours were required behaviours and therefore felt obligated to perform these behaviours out of a sense of duty.

'The main reason is, we [are] helping our friends, so, the other side I think, I think it's something we should do with our co-workers' (AM1)

In these situations, an understanding of one's job scope also plays a key role in the performance of OCB behaviours.

'...like outside of my job scope, no, cause I don't have a set job scope. Yeah, so we are just asked to do whatever and anything that is related to work.' (AF4)

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When OCBs are viewed as required behaviours of the employees, it is unlikely they will get any acknowledgement or reward for its performance.

'For positive outcomes, I think we only get credit because we are working on something that you are supposed to do. I don't think so.' (AM1)

Overlap between citizenship behaviours and impression management

Impression management is a technique by which employees attempt to manipulate other people's perceptions of themselves. The literature on impression management views it as neither good nor bad and the responses of the participants reflect that. It appears that there is an overlap between OCB and impression management behaviours, as participants use the performance of OCBs to influence how others view them.

A: 'so your motivation is just helping out, anything else motivates you to do it?'

HF2: 'Mainly just helping out, I suppose it could look good on your performance review.'

A: Do you think that motivates you sometimes? If I do this it will reflect well on me and I may get a good appraisal.

HF2: 'Yes, I think so, it does, I am afraid.'

For some participants, it appears that the performance of OCBs as a form of impression management becomes crucial for progression in their career due to the ways their organisation measures performance.

'So there is there piece about [sic], and also the part about people who are better at

appearing to performing better than others, particularly if they can't be any genuine

metrics attached to the roles they have. So, in other words, yes I have seen many people

that can talk a good game. I have seen many people that just put their head down and get

on with it.' (HM1)

One participant discussed that in his current organisation he had no experience of
impression management behaviours; one reason he gave for this was the objective
measures of performance used in the organisation.

'I don't think I would, cause I don't think it necessarily make any difference, its very much

driven by your results, so I think that would be rather than any kind of superficial acts to

be seen going out of your way. Obviously, it's not a bad thing but I think on its own it

wouldn't get you anywhere' (HM3)

However, another participant recounted that in her workplace, subjective measures of
performance were used, and that employees do not necessarily have a chance to work one
on one with those who make these subjective judgements of their performance.

'The firm does say it is a lot to do with perception, after all you are consultants, you need

to come off that way. Because that is how you are graded as well, you don't get to work

with everyone, when they, at the end of the year when they rank every consultant, it is

based on their perceptions of you. If you have never worked with them they don't know

what their work style is like, but you do stuff where the right people see you doing stuff,

although, that is definitely going to help you stand out...If they're are smart about it and

they get the right people looking at them, doing it at the right times, rather than doing it

anytime and just hoping someone will see them. But if I were to do it I would find someone who is influential and really show it to them, that I can do all these things...' (AF4)

In these cases impression management is used to display an employee's ability that might not normally be observed by others. The size of the team or department you work in seems to also have an impact on the performance of impression management.

'I have to be honest, because of my own personal experience, I operate in a relatively small team initially, and therefore it was not obvious that was happening. However in a larger team, in a head office environment the stake holders you come into contact with, aren't necessarily people you meet from one month to the next but they can have quite an influence on what happens to you and what happens to your plans. So therefore yes, it becomes more important to know what buttons to press with those people, if you want what you are proposing to go through and if you want to be well thought of I guess.'
(HM1)

The size of a team an employee works in also seems to affect how impression management is perceived, as co-workers feel better able to distinguish between genuine performance of OCBs and false performances.

'I think it's a personality thing, with these people, I think that is why it doesn't really effect anything badly because you are a small group and you are around each other all the time and you know that is just part of their character, rather than, yeah you know when someone is fakely [sic] trying to impress...It is very easy to see through that sort of nonsense.' (HM3)

However, while participants gave examples of impression management where genuine OCBs were performed, participants have also given examples in which they attempt to enhance their image by pretending to perform citizenship behaviours.

'The most obvious thing is that you just try to stay as late, yeah late. So who leaves the latest is considered the most hard working one, even though we are just staying doing nothing sometimes.' (AF1)

'...my boss is Chinese educated, so she judges how much work you have by how early you leave. If you leave early the next day she will just pile on more for work for you, so to avoid that, to avoid getting more work, I stay back a little bit longer than normal, like later than normal, so I don't get more work...just pretend to look busy.' (AF4)

Impression management can have a positive effect when the behaviour performed is a genuine citizenship behaviour; however, when the behaviour is perceived to be disingenuous it can have negative effects for co-workers and the organisation.

'Direct experience, the experience would be my line manager; his interpersonal skills are low down on the list. What he does is e-mails and a number of them are timed in at nine thirty in the evening. I have actually had five to midnight and twenty past one in the morning. And there not just to me, these are the e-mails are copied around the organisation, they are on, cc-ed everywhere and particularly ones that are cc-ed to senior management, they are timed late in the evening or alternatively incredibly early in the morning. And part of you questions whether they are literarily doing it at that time to be seen, part of you queries whether or not they haven't got the time to do the job in the daytime and then of course you question the work life balance...My colleagues that I have spoken to don't think so, we have an incredibly low opinion that kind of action because

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it's a contrived action...if anything it de-motivates or that's been my experience. My team have been very much de-motivated by seeing someone else do that.' (HM2)

'...she will write down the supervisors schedule on her table and the supervisor in she is in, if the supervisor is out she is out...She matches the supervisors time, she does this kind of thing for two years...So the supervisor says she is really, really study hard [sic]. We know everything but we can't tell our supervisor, they will think we are lying...We just dislike her, we will just gossip about her in the office...no one wants to work with her.' (AF2)

Almost all of the participants had experiences of impression management and it appears that the outcomes from the performance of these behaviours are dependent on how they perceive the behaviours. When the behaviour is viewed to be false it can result in a de-motivated and conflict oriented work environment. However, when an employee perceives the behaviour to be authentic, it can have positive outcomes.

'For that case I don't want because it is like fake, but if the people really study hard, for example, another office and they only do the statistics, it's really hard. Come at night, they are leaving at 10, I said 'woah', they never take rest, I will say 'wow' they are really good'. When sometimes I want to be a lazy person, if I just go there I will just feel 'yes I need to work more'. Because I know they are really studying hard, not just fake...' (AF2)

'...we have a guy, a totally different guy, his working day starts at six thirty because he spent an awful lot of time in the Middle East, Saudi Arabia, I think, and some time in South Africa. The working practice out there was start work very early in the morning till something like lunchtime. He still works, starts work six thirty in the morning, there is no one else in till eight thirty. And of course he will raise queries at seven o'clock in the

morning and so on by e-mail so you can respond to them as soon as you come in, but he also leaves at four thirty which is in his contracted hours. So you accept that is his way of working. The other guy who is the line manager, who is doing these late night e-mails, his queries get a totally different response from those who receive them. Yes, de-motivates, Steve, on the other hand, who is the early morning guy, tends to get everyone on his side and everyone will help him out. But its different personalities as well, it's not just the time but also the person you are dealing with.' (HM2)

Discussion

It has been argued that much of the literature on OCB has been guided by four basic assumptions: OCBs arise from non self-serving motives; OCBs facilitate effective functioning; OCBs ultimately benefit employees (Bolino et al, 2004); and OCBs are extra-role behaviours. However, this study indicates that these traditional views may not be reflected in employee conceptualisations. Le Pine, Erez and Johnson (2002) suggested that research should move its focus away from identifying antecedents and outcomes and instead focus on a greater understanding of the OCB construct. This is supported by the recent attention given to the definition of OCB in regards to it being an in-role or extra role behaviour. In this debate some researchers have proposed to remove 'extra-role' from the definition (Organ, 1997), while other researchers have maintained the importance of including the qualifier, insisting that it is important for the constructs validity (Van Dyne, Cummings & Park, 1995). Regardless of the choice between including or excluding the extra role qualifier, how an employee perceives a citizenship behaviour as in- or extra-role is important to understanding their motivation to perform the behaviour (Morrision, 1994; Kwantes, Karam, Kuo & Towson, 2008).

In this study, many of the participants struggled to give examples of behaviours that they thought would fall into the OCB category and this may be in part due to the fluctuating nature of citizenship behaviours as in-role or extra-role behaviours. Morrison (1994) argued that the boundary between in-role and extra-role behaviours are often hazy and

therefore subject to multiple interpretations. Making reference to the research of role making (Graen, 1976) and social information processing (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), Morrison (1994) emphasised that jobs were socially constructed rather than defined objectively. Therefore, even in similar work contexts the conceptualisation of OCBs can vary across employees and between subordinates and their supervisors. In addition, Morison (1994) advocated understanding how an employee defined their job responsibilities if researchers wanted to understand the motivational basis behind OCB performance. The responses of the participants emphasised that citizenship behaviours can be viewed as both required and discretionary behaviours and these differences in perceptions varied across employees and supervisors. With this in mind it is important to acknowledge that OCBs could be viewed as in-role or extra-role behaviours, as it plays an important role in explaining and predicting employees' OCB performance (Morrison, 1994; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Tepper, Lockhart & Hoobler, 2001; Van Dyne & Butler Ellis, 2004, Kamdar, McAllister & Turban, 2006). Increasing evidence illustrates that employees are more likely to perform citizenship behaviours when it is viewed as an in role behaviour rather than as a discretionary behaviour (Morrison, 1994; Tepper & Taylor, 2003; Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler & Purcell, 2004; Kamdar et al, 2006). Morrison (1994) believed that many employees who engage in OCB performance do so because they believe the behaviour is in-role and generally employees will attempt to perform all the tasks they view as defined in their job role (Kamdar et al, 2006). The results of these studies and the findings of this study highlight that our understanding of OCB performance may be enhanced if we recognise the differences in perceptions employees and their managers may have of citizenship behaviours as required or discretionary behaviours.

As previously mentioned, when both the employee and the supervisor perceive the behaviour to be extra-role, the antecedents and outcomes of the performance of OCB appear to be as described in the original conceptualization of citizenship behaviour. All of the participants from the United Kingdom and one participant from the Asian sample were

able to give an example of when both the employee and supervisor viewed an OCB as extra-role. For these participants, the performance of citizenship behaviour was extra-role where they could chose to perform or refuse to perform without the fear of repercussions. If a supervisor had asked them to perform the behaviour, they felt able to say no to them or negotiate with the supervisor if they felt they did not want to perform the behaviour.

Previous research has found that when employees define OCBs as discretionary they engage in OCBs more when they perceive they are being treated fairly and perform less when procedural justice is low (Tepper et al, 2001; Kamdar et al, 2006). Tepper et al (2001) went on to argue that the effects of fair supervisor treatment on OCB performance were strongest when OCBs were perceived to be extra-role. Given that, in these situations perceptions of justice, trust and fair treatment by supervisors would be an important contributing factor in OCB performance, which was supported by the responses of the participants in the United Kingdom sample. Farh, Earley and Lin (1997) remarked that an organisation was expected to pay a 'fair day's wage' in exchange for an employee's 'fair day's work'; however, over time if an employee is consistently treated fairly the economic exchange between the employee and organisation will tend to shift to a social exchange relationship (Organ, 1990; Graham & Organ, 1993; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). According to the norm of reciprocity employees who are receiving favourable treatment may often feel obligated to reciprocate and 'repay' their fair treatment (Gouldner, 1960; Blau, 1964). Organ (1988) believed that employees, engaged in a social exchange with their organisation, would reciprocate through the performance of citizenship behaviours without worrying if they would be directly compensated. By contrast, if the employee felt they were being treated unfairly, they would withdraw from the relationship and may narrow their actions to only involve the official tasks as dictated on the job description (Tepper et al, 2001; Zellars, Tepper & Duffy, 2002; Tepper & Taylor, 2003; Blakely et al, 2005).

Participants in the United Kingdom sample reported either being rewarded or rewarding the performance of extra-role behaviour. Three of the participants who had a supervisory role indicated the importance of acknowledging employees for going beyond the call of duty to ensure they continued to motivate their subordinates thus supporting previous findings that suggest that managers are aware of the benefits of OCB performance and therefore informally reward its performance (Allen & Rush, 1998; Hui, Lam & Law, 2000). In addition, Podsakoff et al (1993) proposed that managers may deliberately reward employees who engage in high levels of OCBs as an act of reciprocation and a means of inciting OCB performance in other employees. Responses from the interviews illustrated that rewards for the performance of OCBs were often not financial in nature, but rather in the form of acknowledgment and praise, which appears to reinforce the desire for employees to be 'good soldiers' and also reinforces the idea that the organisation treats their employees fairly. It also may be that the United Kingdom organisations perceive these OCBs as extra-role behaviours which they believe are necessary for effective performance and therefore feel it is essential to encourage their employees to perform these behaviours. The responses from the United Kingdom participants seem to support the idea that employees with an individualistic orientation are more willing to perform OCBs when they perceive they are being treated fairly (Organ, 1990). Researchers have argued that individualistic employees are more sensitive to the way the organisation treats and rewards them (Erdogan & Liden, 2006) as individualists are self-orientated and are preoccupied with their own rights (Earley & Gibson, 1998). For individualistic employees, OCBs are performed as a social exchange when they perceive they are being treated fairly. They are unlikely to remain in relationships when their own needs are not met (Erdogan & Liden, 2006), which adds support to the idea of supervisors acknowledging and praising OCB performance. Many of the participants in the United Kingdom sample cited social exchange and goodwill as reasons why they performed citizenship behaviour. While in the Asian sample, none of the participants gave examples in which they were rewarded or praised for their performance of citizenship behaviours, suggesting that these behaviours may be viewed as in-role behaviours which an employee is required to perform.

Differences between collectivist and individualistic orientated employees' performance of organisational citizenship behaviour have been found in past research, with collectivist employees being more likely to perform OCBs (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). While individualistic employees may perform OCBs as a form of reciprocating fair treatment, collectivists are believed to have a different set of motivations behind their performance. Individuals with a collectivist orientation identify themselves as a member of a group and will prioritize the goals of the group over their own personal goals (Triandis, 1995). For collectivist employees the relationship between organisational commitment or perceptions of fairness and OCB is weaker, as it is believed that collectivists perform OCBs out of a sense of obligation to their in-group and organisation (Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Francesco & Chen, 2004). Blakely et al (2005) found that Chinese employees were more likely than Canadian employees to view OCBs as in-role behaviours and that they would perform them without the typical antecedents associated with OCB performance. It was suggested that this was due to the Chinese employee's collectivist orientation, that collectivistic employees were likely to view the performance of OCBs as part of their duty to ensure the goals of their in-group. Collectivists place a premium on maintaining harmonious relationships and loyalty to their in-group, and it is for this reason that it is believed that collectivist employees have a higher threshold to injustice than individualistic employees (Ergodan & Liden, 2006). While individualistic employees may reduce their performance of OCBs or withdraw from the social exchange if they perceive they are being treated unfairly, it is believed that collectivists will continue to maintain the relationship, even if it is no longer beneficial to the employee (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Past research has supported the view that collectivists perform OCBs, which they view as in-role behaviours due to a sense of loyalty and obligation to their in-group which in turn results in collectivist employees having a higher threshold to injustice. Some researchers have even questioned if OCBs would exist for collectivist employees as it is believed that they would perceive OCBs as in-role behaviours that they were obligated to perform to advance the goals of the organisation and maintain harmonious relations (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). With this in mind, collectivists may not have the same motivation to perform OCBs as individualistic employees who view them as extra-role

behaviours. However, while some Asian participants did perceive some OCBs to be a requirement of the job, they were able to provide examples in which they perceived an OCB to be extra-role. In these situations they felt that while they perceived the behaviour to be extra-role, they felt that the supervisor perceived them to be in-role and often cited feeling pressure to perform these OCBs. The responses of the participants brings us to question whether collectivist employees perform OCBs out of a sense of duty and if they do have a higher threshold for injustice or rather do they have a greater fear of the repercussions for actively seeking to address the imbalance.

As previously mentioned, the traditional definition of citizenship behaviours defines it as a discretionary behaviour that an employee is free to perform or not perform it without fear of the repercussions. Vigoda-Gadot (2006, 2007) disputed this view and presented the idea of compulsory citizenship behaviours (CCB) in which employees may be pressurised by supervisors or co-workers to perform citizenship behaviours. In his study (2007) he found that two thirds of participants had reported that CCBs were common place in their work environment and that refusing to perform these tasks was unacceptable. The sample for this study was taken from teachers from 13 Israeli schools and according to Hofstede (1985) Israel is an individualistic culture. No studies as of yet have sought to examine cultural differences in CCB performance, but from the responses of the participants in this study it appears to be more prevalent in collectivist cultures. Asian participants reported being unable to say no to a supervisor's request even if they felt the behaviour was outside their prescribed job roles. They feared that by refusing to perform citizenship behaviours they would be subjected to a number of negative outcomes, such as being seen as not a team player, not being considered for promotions or rewards and even feared for their job. Whether these threats would have been carried out or not, the fear of repercussions appears to have altered their performance of OCBs. This counters the view that collectivist employers have higher thresholds for justice, due to their devotion to their in-groups; rather they may have a greater fear of repercussions for trying to redress the balance than individualistic employees.

Researchers investigating the effects of perceptions of justice on OCB performance have always assumed that withholding the performance of citizenship behaviours is effortless for employees (Kamdar et al, 2006). Kamdar et al (2006) highlighted that it is extremely difficult for employees to 'work to rule', as the norms of many work groups assume a certain basic level of OCB performance. Withdrawing from the performance of citizenship behaviours is especially difficult if the employee feels personally responsible for the performance of these behaviours, whether by personal choice or the expectations of co-workers. Individualistic employees prefer to use confrontational procedures when they perceive unfair treatment, while collectivists tend to use harmony inducing procedures to deal with the perceptions of unfairness (Leung, Au, Fernadez-Dols & Iwawaki, 1992). Rather than retaliate to unfair treatment and withdraw the performance of OCBs, collectivists tend to resort to soft tactics due to the importance placed on harmonious relationships (Erdogan & Liden, 2006). Erdogan and Liden (2006) found collectivistic employees tended to use unassertive and covert means such as ingratiation. It has been found that the use of ingratiation is culturally specific, with it being common practice in places such as India (Pandey, 1981). Participant responses supported the view that collectivists used covert tactics to respond to unfair treatment through the use of avoidance, positive framing and ingratiation. Often participants stated that they would attempt to avoid the work or give the work a lower priority, but to say no to their supervisor was unacceptable. Many of the Asian participants cited doing personal favours for their supervisor or used other supervisor focused behaviour as a means of ingratiating themselves to their supervisor, not with career advancement aims but rather attempting to prevent any future unfair treatment. While the performance of personal favours may prevent punishment and other negative outcomes, it is often at the expense of organisational performance (Wortman & Linsenmier, 1977). In addition, Erdogan and Liden (2006) highlighted that the use of these covert tactics could create a situation in which managers were unaware of unfair treatment, allowing the performance of CCBs to continue. This therefore would create a situation where an organisation could have a high level of OCB performance, but with negative outcomes for the employees and the organisation.

While the use of impression management techniques was common within the collectivist sample, it was also common place amongst the United Kingdom sample. Impression management describes behaviours used by an actor to create or maintain an image held by a target audience (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997). Recently, researchers have commented on the overlap between OCB and impression management behaviours (Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Eastman, 1994; Ferris, Judge, Rowland & Fitzgibbons, 1994; Bolino, 1999; Rioux & Penner, 2001). Responses from participants illustrate that employees are aware that the performance of citizenship behaviours can make them 'look good' in the eyes of their supervisors and co-workers. Their responses also highlight that there are certain factors that appear to foster or suppress the performance of impression management behaviours. Ferris, Bhawuk, Fedor and Judge (1995) claimed that self-serving OCBs would be used in situations in which career advancement decisions were subjective and subject to the personal biases of the decision makers. In addition, Zivnuska, Kacmar, Witt, Carlson and Bratton (2004) believed that if an employee perceives their performance is measured using objective measures, it is unlikely that impression management will be used. These views were supported by the responses of the participants who gave examples in which impression management tactics were not used when objective measures of performance were in place and examples in which impression management was used when evaluations were influenced by subjective measures. In these situations it appears that employees are aware of the influence that OCBs can have on subjective evaluations, especially in situations in which they may not have the opportunity to otherwise display their abilities. The performance of citizenship behaviours can allow employees the opportunity to display their talents and abilities, allowing them to appear more competent to their supervisors and other senior staff members (Stevens, 1997). Examples were given by a participant in which she was evaluated on her performance by staff members she did not often have an opportunity to work with; she stated the importance of showing her abilities when these staff members could observe them. The situation in her organisation fostered the use of impression management, which supports the findings of Barsness, Diekmann, and Seidel (2005) who found that employees who worked remotely from their supervisors were more

likely to engage in higher levels of impression management behaviours compared to employees who worked more centrally.

Research into the outcomes of impression management has often focused on the outcome for the actor performing the behaviours or the effects of impression management performance on supervisor's performance ratings of the actor. What is lacking in the area is research examining the effects of impression management performance on co-workers who are not the target of the behaviours but rather bystanders who witness the performance. When behaviours are seen as driven purely by self-serving motives it is likely that it will result in negative outcomes (Jones & Pittman, 1982). Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler and Ensley (2004) suggested that co-workers will scorn employees whose behaviour is seen to be performed entirely for impression management purposes. The results of this study seem to support this view with participants expressing contempt for co-workers who they believe are performing behaviours for impression management purposes. Examples given by participants demonstrated the negative outcomes that can occur when co-worker's OCB like behaviours are believed to be disingenuous, such as de-motivating team members and hostility towards the co-worker. It does appear that employees' perceptions influence the outcomes of these behaviours because when participants perceived a co-workers performance of OCBs as genuine, co-workers are motivated to follow their example and positive outcomes for the employees and the organisation can emerge.

There has been much debate over whether OCBs motivated by self interest are beneficial or detrimental to an organisation's performance. With Podsakoff et al (1993) suggesting: "Does it really matter why an employee comes to work extra early or stays extra late? As long as the employee is really working, it should enhance the effectiveness of the organisation" (p.33). However, Snell and Wong (2007) argued that there are occasions where an employee may pretend to perform OCBs (termed pseudo-OCBs) in order to be seen as a good citizen without expending the full amount of time and energy needed to

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perform the genuine behaviour. In the current study, two participants gave examples of staying late in their office to satisfy their supervisors and look like good employees, while not actually engaging in work. The performance of pseudo-OCBs could be detrimental to organisational performance, as they do not contribute to organisational effectiveness and if co-workers are aware of these behaviours, could result in discordant teams. It is apparent that managers need to be aware of the distinction between impression management tactics which implement actual citizenship behaviours and those that just imitate these behaviours.

While the results of this study have demonstrated participants' everyday experiences with organisational citizenship behaviours, we must be aware of the limitations of qualitative methods. Firstly, only a small sample size was used; five British participants and five Asian participants. This, coupled with the difficulty of replicability of qualitative methods, means that the results cannot be generalised to other people or settings. However, with the use of mixed methods, the next two quantitative studies will build on these findings, with the subsequent results being more generalisable. In addition, while a grounded theory approach was taken, which emphasises allowing theory to emerge from the data rather than be influenced by preconceived notions, there is still a risk with qualitative methods that the results were influenced by the researcher's personal biases. However, all attempts were made to allow the participants to express their personal experiences rather than reflecting the interviewer's personal experiences.

The results of this study supported some findings from past citizenship behaviour research but also countered some of the traditional assumptions made of OCB performance. What this study has illustrated is that employees' performance of organisational citizenship behaviours is more complex than previously thought. It can have positive, as well as negative outcomes, performed out of good will, as well as for self-serving reasons, and it may be considered going beyond the call of duty, as well as being considered part of an employee's prescribed job roles. The findings of this study emphasises not the importance

of a definition that is able to categorise OCBs across contexts, but rather the importance of acknowledging employees' and supervisors' perceptions of citizenship behaviours. It is these individual perceptions of citizenship behaviours that influence an employee's motivations, performance and outcomes. What also became apparent is some studies use of quantitative methods had not allowed the full picture of OCB performance to become visible, especially in the case of collectivist employees performance of citizenship behaviours. While this study did not take individual measures of participants' orientation as individualist or collectivistic employees, it did sample participants from countries that are predominately collectivist or individualist. While Hui and Triandis (1986) highlighted that cultures which are labelled as individualistic or collectivist are simply cultures in which the majority of the individuals have an individualist or collectivist orientation, we can assume that the participants all worked in countries in which collectivist or individualist orientations were dominant. As previously mentioned in the chapter on culture, Kwantes et al (2008) illustrated the dangers of spurious conclusions that can arise with inappropriate cross levels of analysis. For that reason, the next studies will measure individualism and collectivism to confirm that differences in culture that were found are true as an individual difference. Past studies illustrated employees from collectivist cultures as performing OCBs out of a sense of loyalty and obligation, leading researchers to questions if these behaviours could be considered OCBs or rather, part of their prescribed job roles (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). However from the responses of participants from the Asian samples it appears that the performance of citizenship behaviours often arise out of fear of negative outcomes if they are not performed or as a function of impression management tactics. A better understanding of the performance of citizenship behaviour in both individualistic and collectivist employees is needed, especially with the free flow of labour and cultural changes occurring in many countries. In addition this study also highlights that OCB performance is intertwined with impression management performance. However, past research has often focused on the outcomes for the actors themselves or their target, and limited research has been done examining the effect on the audience who witness the performance of impression management behaviours. To better understand OCBs, we need to understand how employees perceive

co-workers' performance of citizenship behaviours and outcomes that may arise from

these different perceptions.

Chapter 5

Employees' perceptions of other 'good soldiers' and 'good actors'

Introduction

When discussing the qualities that a good soldier should have in the armed forces, qualities such as integrity, motivation, dedication, a strong work ethic and a sense of service before self, are often listed. While these qualities serve well in the military, they also serve well in an organisation, and that is presumably why Bateman and Organ (1983) coined the term to describe employees who engage in high levels of OCBs. Research has found that 'good soldiers' who perform organisational citizenship behaviours are valued by the organisations they work for, and have been traditionally thought to perform these behaviours because of dispositional factors or a sense of obligation to the organisation (Bolino, 1999). Due to the value that many organisations place on OCB performance, 'good soldiers' who engage in OCBs are often rewarded for their performance and are likely to be perceived favourably by others (Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Eastman, 1994; Ferris, Judge, Rowland & Fitzgibbons, 1994). The traditional view of OCBs is one of selfless acts performed for the benefit of co-workers or the organisation (Bateman & Organ, 1983). However, others suggest OCBs can be performed for self-serving motives (Bolino, 1999, Rioux & Penner, 2001). Employees themselves are aware that the performance of OCBs can make them 'look good' in the eyes of their supervisors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Hui, 1993). This was also supported by the responses from the participants in Study 1, as for example, a female British participant stated that helping behaviours could also look good on her performance review. Due to the benefits that can be gained from the performance of OCBs, employees can perform these for self-serving motives, making these OCBs more akin to impression management tactics. However, further research into the negative effects of OCBs or their overlap with impression management tactics and the outcomes this can

have, have largely been overlooked and this is reflected with the overly positive terms associated with OCBs, such as altruism, civic virtue, courtesy, conscientiousness and sportsmanship (Banki, 2010).

Impression management (IM) is "a conscious or unconscious attempt to control images projected in real or imagined social interactions" (Schlenker, 1980, p. 6). Rioux and Penner (2001) identified that the desire to gain rewards and avoid looking bad were motivations behind impression management performance. Impression management can be used to get a job, achieve career success, influence supervisors' evaluations or even just appear to be a good citizen in the organisation. These descriptions of impression management make it seem like the antithesis of OCBs and, unlikely that an employee or researcher would confuse them. For example, Jim asks his supervisor if he would like him to stay late in the office to help finish this month's accounts. Jim could be just a 'good soldier' who wants to ensure their department is efficient and meets all their deadlines. However, Jim could be a 'good actor' who is assisting his supervisor because he knows staff appraisals are coming up and wants to ensure his supervisor notices his hard work. This example illustrates the overlap between citizenship behaviours and impression management techniques (Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Eastman, 1994; Ferris et al, 1994; Bolino, 1999; Rioux & Penner, 2001) and that the performance of OCBs can be based on altruistic or instrumental motives (Eastman, 1994). Although organisational citizenship behaviours and impression management are conceptually distinct constructs, the overlap between them is also illustrated in the items used to measure the constructs. Many items included in measures of impression management are rather similar to items that measure citizenship behaviours, leading Bolino and Turnley (1999) to conclude that the major difference between the two constructs is the motivation behind the behaviour. Without the motives behind citizenship behaviours being revealed it can lead researchers to mistakenly code impression management behaviours as citizenship behaviours (Schnake, 1991).

However, if an employee genuinely completed the task for his or her supervisor, does his or her motivation really matter? There has been much debate over whether OCBs

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motivated by self interest are beneficial or detrimental to an organisation's performance. "Does it really matter why an employee comes to work extra early or stays extra late? As long as the employee is really working, it should enhance the effectiveness of the organisation" (Podsakoff et al, 1993, p.33). However, Snell and Wong (2007) argue that there are occasions where an employee may pretend to perform OCBs (termed Pseudo-OCBs) in order to be seen as a good citizen without expending the full amount of time and energy required to perform the genuine behaviour. Some evidence of this emerged in Study 1. Here, two participants gave examples of staying late in their office to satisfy their supervisor and look like good employees, while not actually engaging in work. The performance of pseudo-OCBs could be detrimental to organisational performance, as they do not contribute to organisational effectiveness. Further, what may be equally damaging to the organisation is the effect pseudo-OCBs may have on co-workers. If co-workers are aware of the performance of pseudo-OCBs, negative outcomes such as discordant teams and creating hostile work environments could emerge.

Both organisational citizenship behaviour and impression management literature has often focused on the outcomes for the actor performing the behaviours, such as on performance ratings, or the effects on the target of the behaviour, which usually is the employee's supervisor (Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Podsakoff et al 1993; Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Bolino, Varela, Bande & Turnley, 2006; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). In addition there has only been a limited amount of research conducted on how peers react to being the target of OCBs with or without impression management motives. It is important to consider peer reactions as the performance of OCBs amongst peers not only affects their interpersonal relationships, but also the group dynamic. Thus the performance of OCBs between two peers not only affects their interpersonal relationship but also impacts on other employees in the team who observe the behaviour even if they were not involved in the interaction (Banki, 2010). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000) found that the performance of OCBs creates support, job satisfaction and commitment for employees, all of which are positive outcomes for employees. However, the reaction to the performance of OCBs may be dependent on the perceived motives of the behaviour.

Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler and Ensley (2004) found that employee job satisfaction was negatively related to levels of received OCBs when they perceived the behaviours to be self-serving. When employees observed their peers performing OCBs with the intention of influencing their supervisor, they may become threatened by their peers' display of their skills (Rosenfeld, Giacalone & Riordan, 1995). This could create tension within the team making other group members defensive and reluctant to communicate, hampering cohesion and trust in the group (Banki, 2010). Therefore, research has indicated that employees may have a negative reaction to their peers performing OCBs with impression management motives. Employees engage in impression management in the hope of influencing the perceptions others have of them (Jones & Pittman, 1982). If an employee's aim is to 'look good' in the eyes of their supervisor, they could possibly engage in behaviours that display their skills and abilities. With their display of abilities one could assume that there is a possibility that bystanders may also observe their impression management tactics, as well as the target of their behaviour. As noted previously, it can be hard to accurately attribute people's motivation behind the performance of citizenship behaviours (Eastman, 1994), but these attributions have important implications for the employees' working relationships and coordination and cooperation between team members (Snell & Wong, 1997). Past research indicates that employees may react negatively to displays of OCBs when there are perceived motives. This alludes to the fact that employees might try to discern the motivation behind other employees' behaviour, allowing them to determine how to react.

Hypothesis 1: Participants will be able to distinguish impression management behaviour from organisational citizenship behaviour

Previous studies have shown that employees who perform citizenship behaviours are likely to develop a positive image in the eyes of their co-workers and supervisors (Bolino, 1999). In addition, Flynn (2003) found that employees who engage in high levels of citizenship behaviours earned higher levels of social status from their peers.

However, when behaviours are seen as driven purely by self-serving motives, it is likely that it will result in negative outcomes (Jones & Pittman, 1982). In addition, Tepper et al (2004) suggested that co-workers would scorn employees whose behaviour was seen to be performed entirely for impression management purposes. This was supported by the participants from the first study who expressed contempt for co-workers who they believed were performing behaviours for impression management purposes. Examples given by participants demonstrated the negative outcomes that can occur when co-worker's OCB-like behaviours are believed to be disingenuous, such as de-motivating team members and creating hostility towards the co-worker. It does appear that employees' perceptions influenced the outcome of these behaviours because when an employee perceived a co-worker's performance of OCBs as genuine, employees were motivated to follow their example and positive outcomes for the employees and the organization can emerge. Therefore, the second hypothesis to be tested is:

Hypothesis 2: Scenarios presenting Organisational citizenship behaviours will be perceived more positively than impression management scenarios.

As mentioned previously, the development of Hofstede's (1980) cultural typologies resulted in a surge in cross cultural research. One area of cross cultural research that has flourished is the study of Asian collectivist cultures, resulting in many studies examining the effects of cultural orientation on employee attitudes and behaviours (Ramamoorthy, Kulkarni, Gupta & Flood, 2007). When originally conceptualised by Hofstede, collectivism and individualism were bi-polar cultural values; currently most studies examine collectivism and individualism as multi dimensional individual differences. Collectivistic employees are characterised by a strong emphasis on subordinating their personal interests to the goals of their in-group, interdependence, 'fitting in' and maintaining positive group relations. While individualistic employees tend to emphasise the attainment of their own personal goals over the goals of the group, they are independent and distinguish themselves from others in a positive manner (Traindis, 1995).

In the infancy of OCB research, the majority of studies utilized samples from Western countries, in which a majority of employees would have an individualistic orientation. However, research using collectivist and individualist samples has highlighted that there are differences in OCB antecedents, performance and outcomes in individualistic versus collectivist cultures and/or employees (Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Fancesco & Chen, 2004; Blakely, Srivastava, & Moorman, 2005). Research has found that collectivist employees were more likely to perform OCBs than their individualistic counterparts, and in addition they also found that collectivists were also more likely to view OCBs as in-role behaviours than individualists (Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Blakely et al, 2005).

Researchers believed this was due to collectivists placing a strong value on maintaining harmony and loyalty to their in-group, which results in collectivist employees feeling obligated to perform OCBs. This led some researchers to question if citizenship behaviours would even exist for collectivist employees (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). The results of these studies examining Asian collectivist employees created a view of Asian employees as the model 'good citizen'. There is an almost folklore view of Asian employees as always happy to perform beyond the call of duty, never complaining against unjust treatment and always loyal and dedicated to their organisation.

However, responses from the interviews in the first study suggest that collectivist employees may not always perform OCBs out of a sense of duty but rather out of a fear of the repercussions that may arise if they do not perform citizenship behaviours. Vigoda-Gadot (2006, 2007) introduced the concept of compulsory citizenship behaviours (CCB), in which employees feel forced to perform citizenship behaviours. While there have been no studies investigating any cultural differences that might exist in CCBs, the results of study 1 indicate that it might be more prevalent in collectivist cultures. As previously mentioned, unlike individualistic employees, collectivists will respond to injustice with unassertive and covert means, such as ingratiation (Erdogan & Liden, 2006). Asian participants in study 1 cited examples in which they performed citizenship behaviours as a means by which to create a favourable image in the eyes of their supervisors, and at the

same time, in the hope of protecting themselves from future negative outcomes. While the British participants gave examples of co-workers using impression management motivated citizenship behaviours as a means of affecting career progress through influencing promotion decisions.

This suggests that not only do collectivist and individualist employees differ in their performance of OCBs, but they may also differ in their performance and use of impression management tactics. With individualist employees' concern over the achievement of their personal goals, they are more likely to be promotion focused than collectivists (Lee, Aaker, & Gardner, 2000). Collectivists, in contrast, whose primary goal is to 'fit in' and maintain group harmony, are thought to be more focused in avoiding situations that would be detrimental to group cohesion and the attainment of group goals (Elliot, Chirkov, Kim, & Sheldon, 2001). Lalwani, Shrum and Chiu (2009) found that collectivist orientations were related to the performance of impression management behaviours but individualistic orientations were not; while individualist orientations were related to self deceptive enhancement but collectivism was not. These results suggest that collectivist employees may use impression management behaviours as a means of avoiding any future negative outcomes and allowing themselves to appear to conform to the social norms. While individualistic employees' performance of impression management behaviours are used in a promotion focused manner, thus aiding them in attaining their personal goals. For employees with collectivist orientation, their perceptions of impression management and OCBs may be more closely aligned than individualistic employees, as it appears that their performance of impression management tactics may be more akin to an in-role behaviour to ensure their survival in the organisation.

Hypothesis 3a: Individualists will be more sensitive when distinguishing between OCBs and IM behaviours.

Hypothesis 3b: British participants will be more sensitive distinguishing between OCBs and IM behaviours.

While it has been predicted that Individualist and British participants will be more sensitive when distinguishing between OCB and IM behaviours, there has been limited attention in the literature paid to the effect of culture on the outcomes of these behaviours. Study 1 highlighted that the Asian and British participants differ in their performance and use of OCBs and IM behaviours; it would be fair to assume that these differences may have an effect on the subsequent outcomes.

Hypothesis 4: Culture (Individualism and collectivism) and country will affect the outcomes from the performance of impression management and organisational citizenship behaviours.

As previously mentioned, OCBs and impression management behaviours can overlap. With the risk of negative outcomes that can arise, it is important to understand if employees do make the distinction between these two behaviours. In addition, understanding how employees react to their co-workers engaging in OCBs or impression management behaviours, is important for organisational success. If employees react in a negative manner to impression management motivated behaviour, organisations may consider means by which they can discourage these open displays of impression management behaviours. Study 1 highlighted differences in British and Asian participants' conceptualisation of both OCB and impression management motivated behaviours, including different aims from the performance of impression management behaviours. This study aims to also identify any cultural differences in employee categorisation of OCBs and impression management behaviours and subsequently, if these differences effect the outcomes that might arise.

Method

Sample

Participants in this study were sampled from the United Kingdom and Indonesian

branches of a large multi-national bank. A response rate was unable to be calculated due

to the organisation's desire to distribute the links to the questionnaire via their own

'gatekeeper', to prevent the disclosure of employee's e-mail addresses. After gaining access

to the organisation, employees were e-mailed information about the study, their rights as

participants and a link to an on-line questionnaire. A total of 123 employees from the

United Kingdom started the questionnaire, with a total of 64 British employees completing

the questionnaire, a completion rate of 52% completion rate. A total of 81 Indonesian

employees began the questionnaire, with a total of 70 Indonesian completing the full

questionnaire, a completion rate of 87.5%. In the group of British participants there were

31 males (48%) and 33 (52%) were female, with a mean age of 33 years. The Indonesian

group was made up of 28 males (40%) and 42 (60%) females with a mean age of 36.

Measures

Individualism-Collectivism

Individualist collectivist orientation was measured using Earley's (1993) 10 item scale.

This scale comprises an earlier scale created by Erez and Earley (1987) and Triandis and

colleagues (Triandis, Bontempo, Betancourt, Bond, Leung, Brenes, Georgas, Hui, Marin,

Setiadi, Sinha, Verma, Spangenberg, Touzard & Montmollin, 1986; Triandis, Bontempo,

Villareal, Asai & Lucca, 1988). Items of the scale include items such as 'employees like to

work in a group rather than by themselves' and 'only those who depend upon themselves

get ahead in life'. Participants were asked to rate their responses ranging from 1 (strongly

disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This scale has been used in many cross cultural studies

(Erez & Earley, 1987; Earley, 1989; Earley, 1993) and has been found to be

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psychometrically valid with a Cronbach's alpha of .91. Responses were coded so that a high score indicated collectivist beliefs and a low score indicated individualistic beliefs.

Scenario Design

To measure participants ability to distinguish between OCB and impression management motivated behaviours and their perceptions of the outcomes a scenario design was utilized. Scenarios were created in which behaviours were presented to participants which had been manipulated to illustrate OCB or impression management behaviours. Other independent variables used were the participants' country of origin (two levels – United Kingdom or Indonesia) and cultural orientation (two levels – individualist or collectivist). Participants were presented with the scenarios, such as, "Imagine that in the organisation you work for there is a co-worker who seems to take interest in your supervisor's personal life and compliments them on their appearance" (See appendix 2 for OCB and impression management scenarios). They were then asked "do you think your co-workers behaviour is…" and presented with a definition of OCBs and impression management and were asked to rate the scenario as OCB, impression management or in-between the two statements. Participants were then asked to rate the extent to which they thought the behaviours in the scenario would affect organisational performance, the performer of the behaviour and other employees, rating the effect from not at all to a great deal.

To create the scenarios, a number of items were taken from Bolino, Varela, Bande and Turnley's (2006) scale of impression management behaviours and Kwantes, Karma, Juo and Towson's (2008) scale of organisational citizenship behaviours, ensuring at least two items from each subsection of the scales were used. These selected items were then presented in a card sorting task to five experts from the area of occupational psychology. They were asked to sort the items into categories of organisational citizenship behaviour items, impression management items or unsure after being shown a definition of each of the concepts. Items that all five of the experts agreed upon were then set aside to be used as potential items for the scenario design.

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The items which all of the experts agreed upon in the card sorting task were then used to develop scenarios to be used in the questionnaire. Some of the items were similar (such as 'being punctual every day' and 'arriving early to prepare for the day) and were combined to create a scenario. Six scenarios were created, three scenarios taken from impression management items and three taken from organisational citizenship behaviour items.

Procedure

Since the questionnaire aimed to assess the effect of cultural orientation, participants from Indonesia were used, and for that reason the questionnaire was translated into the Indonesian language. To ensure that the translation did not affect the meaning of the questions, back translation was utilized. The first set of back translated questions, revealed issues with the translation, so the questionnaire was back translated once more. To ensure that the questionnaire was appropriately translated, and in addition to checking the back translation copy, native Indonesian speakers from the University of Nottingham were asked to read through the Indonesian version of the questionnaire, to ensure the wording was correct.

Once the questionnaire was developed and the Indonesian version was translated, the study was piloted on 10 British participants and 13 Indonesian participants. The pilot study also included a comments section to pick up any problems participants were having with the questionnaire. No major problems were found with the questionnaire. However, the final questionnaire did have one additional question which asked participants if they were born in the country which they were currently working in.

Due to the multicultural nature of many multi-national companies, it is likely that many of the employees may be foreign nationals working overseas. While it is important to acknowledge that organisations may have a diverse workforce, this study wanted to ensure that the results would not be distorted by employees who have not originated from the culture they are currently working in. While individualism and collectivism can be an

individual difference, a person who was born and raised in an collectivist culture but currently working in an individualist culture may have different responses from those who have always resided in that country. So participants were asked if they were born in the country they were currently working in. If they answered yes, the survey would continue, but however if they answered no, they were thanked for their time and the questionnaire would end. Within the Indonesian sample all participants answered yes to the question. While in the United Kingdom sample, of the 119 participants that answered the question, 80 participants said yes (67.2%) and 39 were not born in the country they were currently working in (32.8%).

Results

Table 4 presents the mean scores of the participants' ratings of the scenarios as presenting OCB or IM behaviours. Mixed design ANOVAs were performed to evaluate the differences between the ratings of the OCB and impression management scenarios and any differences in the ratings by participant's country or cultural orientation.

Table 4 Mean Scores of participants' Ratings of the Scenarios as OCB or IM across country and cultural orientation

	Scenario OCB	Scenario IM
UK	1.58	4.10
Indonesian	2.17	3.64
Total	1.89	3.86
Individualist	1.96	3.85
Collectivist	1.84	3.87
Total	1.89	3.86

Note: a low score signifies OCB behaviour and a high score as an IM behaviour

As predicted by the first hypothesis, participants were able to distinguish between impression management and organisational citizenship behaviour scenarios. Significant main effects of behaviour were found when examining participants rating of the scenarios and their country of origin, $F_{(1,132)}= 429.46$, $p <.001$, with a large effect size (partial Eta squared = 0.77). This result illustrates firstly, that the manipulation of the scenarios was

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successful. Secondly, it shows that there were significant differences in participants mean scores of OCB scenarios and impression management scenarios. There was no main effect of country on the ratings, $F_{(1,132)}= 0.68$, ns, as ignoring the scenario behaviours, there were no significant differences in the ratings of the two countries.

In addition the mixed design ANOVA of the ratings of the scenarios and the participants cultural orientation also found a main effect, $F_{(1,132)}= 339.03$, $p<.001$, the behaviours accounted for 72% of the overall variance.

Table 5 Mean scores of outcome ratings by UK and Indonesian participants

	Organisational performance		Co-worker		Other Employees	
	UK	Indonesia	UK	Indonesia	UK	Indonesia
OCB	4.31	4.24	4.05	4.10	4.14	4.02
IM	1.74	2.09	2.81	2.74	1.72	2.00

Table 6 Mean scores of outcome ratings by Individualist and Collectivist participants

	Organisational performance		Co-worker		Other Employees	
	Ind	Col	Ind	Col	Ind	Col
OCB	4.22	4.32	3.98	4.15	4.02	4.13
IM	2.06	1.81	2.84	2.72	2.01	1.75

The second hypothesis predicted that participants would rate the outcomes of impression management and OCB scenarios differently. Tables 5 and 6 present the mean scores of the variables. Results of the mixed design ANOVAs performed found significant main effects for all outcome ratings of the scenarios. When rating the effect of the scenario behaviour on organisational performance, significant main effects were found when examining participants' country of origin and their cultural orientation; $F_{(1, 132)}=654.15$, $p<.001$ and $F_{(1,132)}=628.92$, $p<.001$ respectively, and in both cases the scenario behaviours accounted for 83% of the overall variance. In addition, there was no main effect of country or cultural orientation on ratings. Participants rated impression management scenarios as having little positive effect on organisational performance, while OCB scenarios were

rated as having a positive effect on the organisation's performance. When rating the effect the scenarios behaviours would have on the person performing them, participants rated the effects of OCB and impression management behaviours significantly different. The mixed design ANOVA examining participants ratings and their country of origin, found a significant main effect, $F(1,132)=168.70$, $p<.001$, and a significant main effect was also found when examining the rating and cultural orientation, $F(1,132)=167.17$, $p<.001$, and in both cases the behaviours accounted for 56% of the overall variance. No main effect of country or culture was found; $F(1,132)=1.04$, ns and $F(1,132)=0.62$, ns. Participants' mean scores illustrated that participants thought that impression management behaviours would have little benefit for the co-workers performing the behaviour, whilst OCBs would benefit the performer.

The final of the outcome ratings assesses to what extent participants think their co-workers performance of the scenario behaviour will benefit other employees in the organisation. The mean scores of the participants' ratings showed that participants seemed to believe that impression management behaviours would not have beneficial effects for other employees in the organisation; while participants thought that organisational citizenship behaviours would have a beneficial effect on other employees in the organisation. Significant differences between participants' ratings of the OCB and impression management scenarios were found when performing the mixed design ANOVAs. When looking at the ratings and participants' country of origins, a significant main effect was found, $F(1,132)=621.19$, $p<.001$, with a partial Eta squared of 0.83, accounting for 83% of the variance. There was no significant main effect of country on ratings, $F(1, 132)=1.14$, ns. In addition, when looking at ratings and participants' cultural orientation, a significant main effect was also found $F(1,132)=600.80$, $p<.001$, which accounted for 82% of the variance.

This study also aimed to investigate if culture effected participants' perceptions. Hypothesis 3a and 3b propositioned that cultural orientation and country of origin would affect the way participants distinguished between OCB and impression management

scenarios. Hypothesis 3b was partly supported. When examining participants' ratings of

the scenarios and their country of origin a significant interaction effect was found,

$F(1,132)=28.80$, $p<.001$; the effect size was small to moderate. The partial Eta squared

was 0.18, which indicates that the interaction of behaviour and country accounted for 18%

of the overall variance. Figure 2 shows the interaction between participants' ratings of the

scenario behaviours and their country of origin. From the results we see that the

Indonesian participants appear to view the impression management and OCB scenarios as

more similar than the British participants. No significant interactions effect was found

when looking at the participants' ratings and their cultural orientation, $F(1,132)=0.44$, ns,

providing no support for hypothesis 3a.
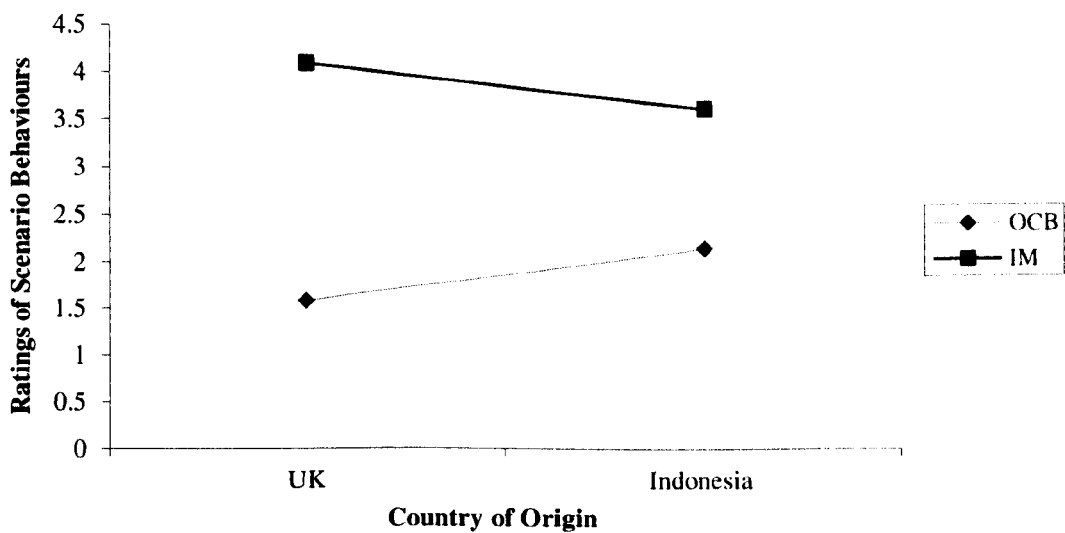
Figure 2 Interaction Effect of Country of Origin on ratings of Scenario behaviours

The final hypothesis of this study predicted that culture would affect participants' ratings

of the outcomes from co-workers' performance of impression management and

organisational citizenship behaviours, and this too was partially supported by the results.

The effect of the performance of IM or OCB scenarios on organisational performance was

found to have a significant interaction effect between the Indonesian and United Kingdom

participants and their ratings, $F(1,132)=5.06$, $p<.02$, accounting for 3.7% of the overall

variance. As you can see in Figure 3, Indonesian participants rated the effects of

impression management on organisational performance more highly than the British participants; while the ratings of OCB between the two countries were almost identical. When comparing the ratings by the participants' individualistic or collectivist orientations, no significant interaction effect was found, $F(1,132)=3.39$, ns.
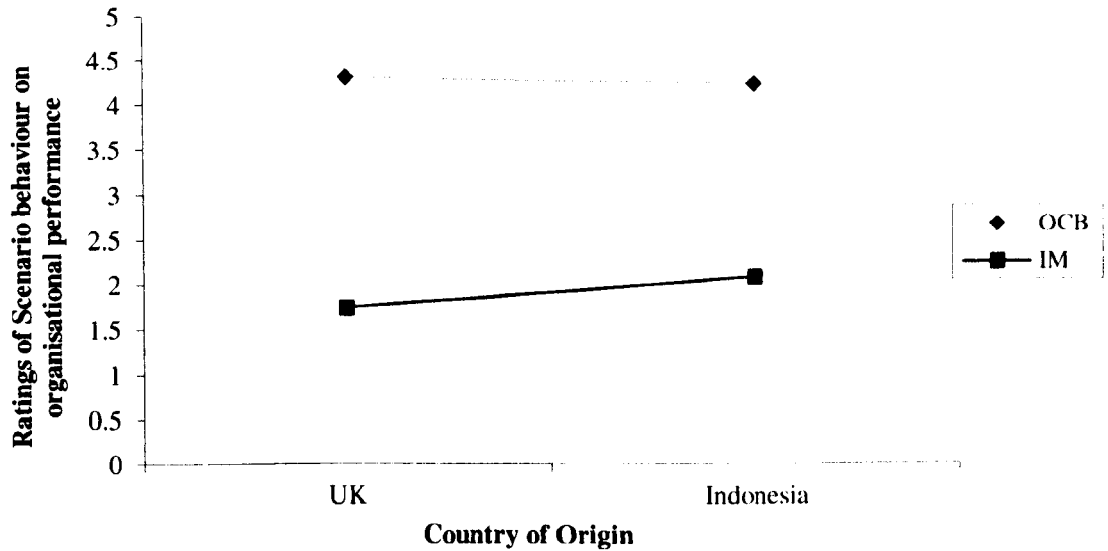
Figure 3 Interaction Effect of Country of Origin on ratings of the effect of Scenario Behaviours on Organisational Performance

While a significant difference was found between participants' rating of the effect OCB and impression management scenarios had on the co-workers performing them, no significant interaction effect was found. There was no difference found between participants' ratings of the effect when comparing them by their country of origin, $F(1,132) = 0.35$, ns, or their cultural orientation, $F(1,132)=1.99$, ns. Finally, significant interaction effects were found when comparing the effects of the co-workers performance of OCB and impression management behaviours on other employees, as seen in Figure 4 and 5. When comparing employees by their country of origin and their ratings, the mixed design ANOVA found a significant interaction effect, $F(1,132)=4.74$, $p<.03$, with a partial Eta squared of 0.04. Once again there was a larger gap between the British participants' ratings of effect of OCB and impression management. The participants' cultural orientation also appears to have an effect on their ratings of the outcome of the behaviours as they too have a significant interaction effect, $F(1,132)=4.09$, $p<.045$, with a partial Eta

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squared of 0.03. However, it was expected that the Individualists ratings would be similar to the British participants. However, their ratings were more aligned with the Indonesian participants, as they also had a smaller gap in the ratings of the effects of OCBs and impression management behaviours.
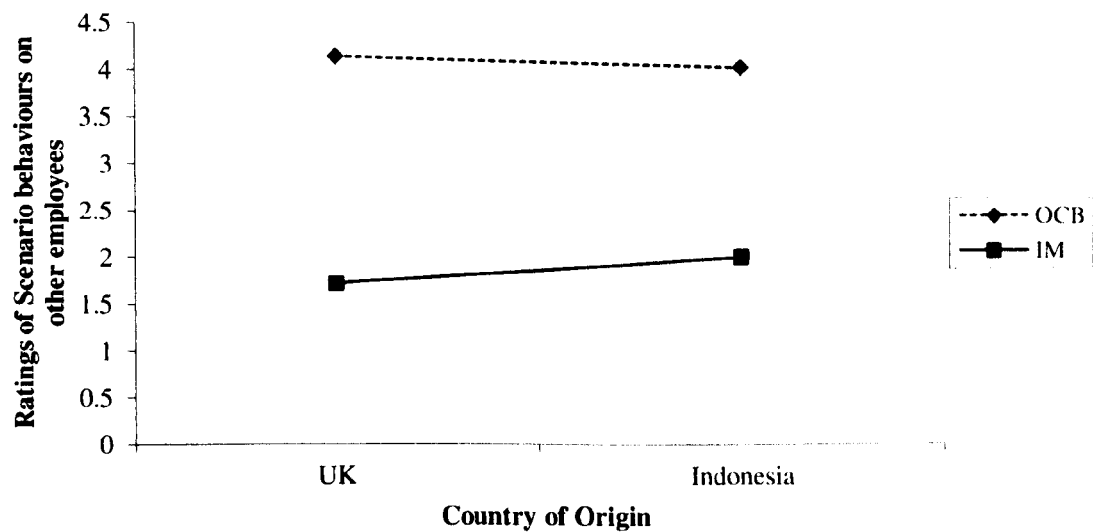
Figure 4 *Interaction Effect of Country of Origin on Ratings of the Effect of Scenario Behaviours on Other Employees*
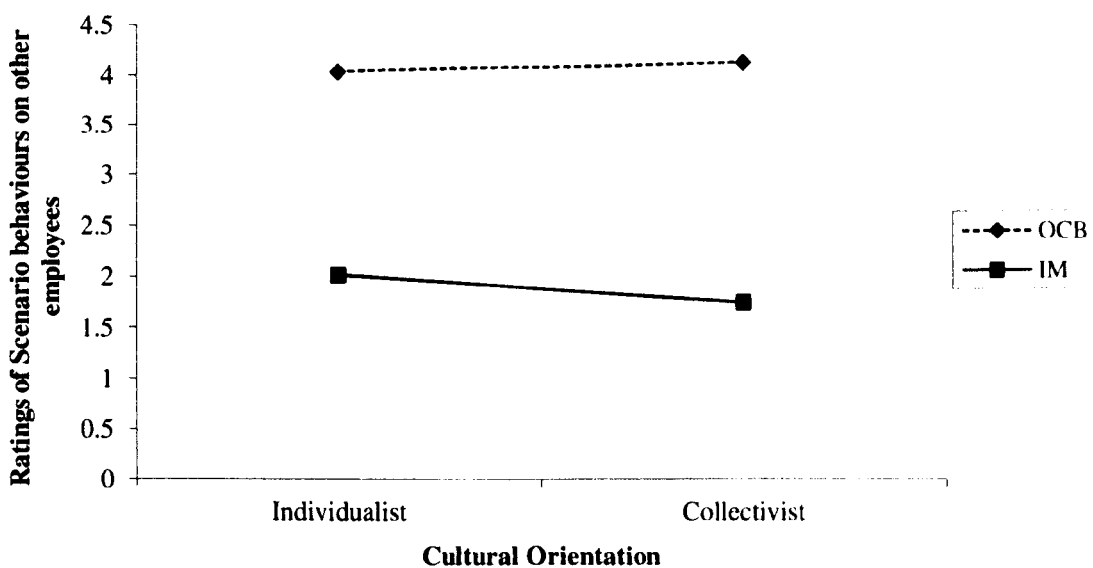
Figure 5 *Interaction Effect of Cultural Orientation on Ratings of the Effect of the Scenario Behaviours on Other Employees*

Discussion

The aim of this study was to get a better understanding of employees' ability to categorise co-workers' performance of citizenship or impression management motivated behaviours and how this in turn affects the outcome. Another aim of the study was to explore if cultural differences would affect employees perceptions of these behaviours. Consistent with the first hypothesis, it was found that participants were able to distinguish between OCB and impression management behaviours in the scenarios. Hypothesis 3b was also supported as Indonesian participants appeared to view impression management and OCB scenarios as more similar than the British participants. However, hypothesis 3a was not supported as no significant interaction effect was found between individualism collectivism and the mean scores of OCB and impression management scenarios.

The scenarios presenting citizenship behaviours were perceived more positively than those presenting impression management behaviours, thus supporting the second hypothesis. Participants rated the citizenship behaviours as having a positive benefit to organisational performance, the performer and other employees; while impression management was rated as having no benefit to the outcome measures. The fourth hypothesis, which predicted that culture would affect the outcomes of the scenarios, was partially supported. A significant interaction effect was found between participants' country of origin and their ratings of the scenarios effect on organisational performance. British and Indonesian participants had near identical ratings of the effect of OCBs on organisational performance, thus rating it as having a great deal of benefit to organisational performance. However, Indonesian participants rated the effect of impression management on organisational performance more highly than participants from the United Kingdom. No significant interaction effect was found between participants' individualist or collectivist orientation and their rating of the effect of the scenarios on organisational performance. The next outcome measure aimed to examine participants' views on how OCB or impression management behaviours would benefit the performer. No cultural differences (by country or individualist collectivist orientation) were found; however, results did show that participants across groups viewed the effects of the behaviours as being very different. Citizenship

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behaviours were rated as having a great deal of benefit for the performer, while impression management behaviours would have little benefit to the performer. The final outcome measure was used to investigate the effect the scenario would have on other employees. Participants rated OCBs as having a beneficial effect on other employees, while impression management behaviours would not benefit other employees. Participants' country of origin was found to have a moderating effect on ratings of the effect of the scenario behaviours on other employees. British participants rated OCBs and IM behaviours quite differently, leaving a much larger gap between their ratings compared to the Indonesian participants. A significant interaction effect was also found between participants' cultural orientations and their ratings of the effect of the scenario behaviours on other employees. It was found that collectivist participants rated the behaviours as being more different than the individualistic employees, which was opposite to what was expected. Since Indonesia is a more collectivist country, it was expected that the collectivist results would be aligned with the results of the Indonesian participants.

Research has found that engaging in citizenship behaviours is positively related to performance evaluations and reward allocation decisions (Allen & Rush, 1998; Johnson, Erez, Kiker, & Motowidlo, 2002; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff & Blume, 2009), which suggests that organisations value OCBs. However, before organisations engage in ways to foster this performance, more attention should be given to the potential negative consequences that may arise when employees engage in citizenship behaviours. Negative consequences may arise as a result of the overlap that exists between OCBs and impression management motivated behaviours. The potentially positive outcomes from employees engaging in OCBs, makes their performance desirable to employees with impression management motives. Researchers are divided over the consequences of self-serving OCBs, with Podsakoff et al (1993) arguing that motivation does not matter as long as the employee performs the behaviour, while Schnake (1991) believes that it will produce negative outcomes for the organisation. While the debate continues on the contribution to organisational performance self-serving OCBs have, negative consequences may arise due to co-workers perceptions of the behaviour. This study

illustrates that employees do differentiate between citizenship behaviours and impression management behaviours and as a result this affects the subsequent outcome of the behaviour.

The results show variation in the ratings of the outcomes of the impression management scenarios across country and cultures, while the ratings of the outcomes of OCBs almost remained the same across participants' culture and countries. Participants viewed OCBs as contributing to organisational performance and having benefits to the performer and other employees, indicating that citizenship behaviours are perceived most positively. In addition, the similar ratings across cultures suggest that citizenship behaviours are perceived positively universally. Flynn (2003) found that those who engaged in high levels of citizenship behaviours attained higher levels of social status amongst their peers. It is easy to imagine that employees will be well liked by their co-workers if they go beyond their formal job requirements to aid their department in meeting deadlines. A participant from the first study explained that seeing a co-worker working very hard motivated her to put more effort in her own work, therefore suggesting that when an employee sees a co-worker performing what they believe to be a genuine OCB, it has the potential to lead to positive outcomes such as increased organisational performance and at the same time making them well liked in the workplace.

It has been found that the use of impression management tactics is common place in organisations (Bolino & Turnley, 1999) and it is likely that all employees will use impression management tactics at some point. However, studies, and the results of this study, have shown that employees appear to be quite critical of their use. Researchers have speculated that perceiving a co-worker's behaviour as being motivated by impression management would result in dysfunctional outcomes. Tepper et al (2004) supported this view by finding that an employee's job satisfaction was negatively related to levels of received OCB when they perceive the behaviour to be self-serving, believing that employees would scorn co-workers who they believe to be performing the behaviour entirely for impression management purposes. It has been hypothesised that this negative

reaction may be due to co-workers feeling threatened by the employees' use of impression management to display their skills and abilities aimed at senior staff (Rosenfeld et al, 1995). Employees' negative reaction to the performance of OCBs with impression management motives has deeper implications, as their use not only affects the interpersonal relationship between the performer and target, but also alters the group dynamics, which in turn could create tension within the team (Banki, 2010).

Participants appear to be critical of the use of impression management motivated behaviours, and this is reflected in their ratings of impression management scenarios. As stated earlier, impression management scenarios were rated as having little benefit to organisational performance, the performer and other employees. In addition to these findings, cultural differences in the ratings of the impression management scenarios were also found. Impression management can be used by employees to achieve career success, influence their supervisor's evaluations, allow the employee to appear as a 'good soldier' or even be used to protect the employee from negative outcomes through ingratiation. With the wide range of uses of impression management tactics, it has been suggested that there are cultural differences in their use.

Lee et al (2000) postulated that with individualistic employees' concern over the attainment of their own goals, they would be more likely to be promotion focused than collectivist employees. Collectivist, on the other hand, are likely to be concerned in 'fitting in' and maintaining group harmony as well as avoiding situations that would be detrimental to group cohesion (Elliot et al, 2001). Study 1 provided examples whereby Asian participants cited examples in which their performance of OCBs were used as means to create a favourable image in the eyes of their supervisor, with the aim of protecting themselves from any future negative outcomes; while British participants gave examples of co-workers using impression management as a means of influencing promotion decisions. If this is the case, it may be that Asian employees would be accustomed to impression management behaviours being used to ingratiate employees with their supervisor to ensure their survival and therefore be more accommodating to the

behaviour; while British employees would be more suspicious of behaviour they perceived to be motivated by impression management, as it could be viewed as competition to their own career progression.

The results of this study suggest that cultural differences in the perceptions of impression management behaviours do exist. Indonesian participants rated impression management as having more effect on organisational performance than British participants. This difference in ratings was also found in Indonesian and British participants rating of the effect of the scenario behaviours on other employees. It may be that for British participants the use of impression management motivated behaviour is viewed with disdain due to the fact it can be used to influence promotion decisions and could be seen as a threat to their own career progression; while Indonesian participants may view their use as slightly more acceptable. Based on the examples provided by participants in the first study, impression management could be used to ensure employees 'look good' in the eyes of their supervisor to avoid future negative outcomes. With that in mind, avoiding negative outcomes may be more acceptable to other employees as it promotes a harmonious environment in the organisation, which would be beneficial to the organisation.

The results only partially supported the hypothesis that culture affects the outcomes of the scenario behaviours. No cultural differences were found when examining participants' ratings of the effect of the scenario behaviours on the performer. However, the results do reinforce the positive perception of citizenship behaviours and the negative perceptions associated with the performance of impression management behaviours. While research has proved that impression management tactics can be beneficial to the performer (Judge & Bretz, 1994; Wayne & Liden, 1995; Bolino et al, 2006), the results suggest that participants have a different view. Participants rated OCBs as having a great deal of effect on the performer, while impression management was rated as having little effect on the performer. The ratings illustrate the contrasting perceptions of OCBs and impression management. Participants' rating of impression management as having little effect on the

performer perhaps reflects participants' negative perceptions of the behaviour rather than their genuine thoughts on how it benefits the performer.

It appears that the performance of OCBs is generally received positively, with performers gaining higher social status (Flynn, 2003) and citizenship behaviours being viewed as beneficial to the organisation, the performer and other employees. These findings support the view proposed by Organ (1988, 1995), that high levels of citizenship behaviours would create a positive climate in the workplace. With the promise of harmonious work environments and improved effectiveness and efficiency, it is understandable that many organisations encourage the performance of OCBs. Organisations have promoted the use of OCBs, whether knowingly or unknowingly, through reward allocation decisions, performance evaluations and other rewards given to employees who engage in OCBs. However, organisations have to be careful how they foster employees' use of citizenship behaviours. As previously mentioned, the benefits that can be acquired through the performance of organisational citizenship behaviours makes them desirable to employees with impression management motives. The result of this study illustrate that the performance of behaviours with impression management motives can threaten organisational harmony. Supporting the findings of Tepper et al (2004) and Jones and Pittman (1982), the performance of impression management behaviours can result in negative outcomes and lead to co-workers scorning the employees utilizing citizenship behaviours to achieve their goals.

Based on the results of this study, British organisations should take extra care with fostering citizenship behaviours and avoiding the use of impression management motivated behaviours. Results showed participants have a dichotomous view of OCBs and impression management, that OCBs were associated with positive outcomes, while impression management were associated with negative outcomes. This suggests employees have a critical view of impression management, which could result in fractured working environments, fostering distrust, competitive attitudes and a lack of cooperation between employees. To avoid this, organisations could foster OCB performance through

the creation of a supportive working environment and encouraging a social exchange between themselves and their employees, and by creating an environment where employees are happy to give back to their organisation and co-workers. In addition, the use of objective measures of performance will also discourage the use of impression management motives (Zivnuska, Kacmar, Witt, Carlson & Bratton, 2004). Indonesian organisations should also be cautious when encouraging the use of OCBs, as the results suggest that their conceptualisation of OCBs and impression management behaviours differ from those of their British counterparts. Indonesian results suggest a slightly higher tolerance for the performance of impression management. One explanation for this view is that their performance of impression management is used as ingratiation rather than career progression. Study 1 participants highlighted the need to ingratiate oneself with the supervisor as a means of protecting themselves from future negative outcomes.

The results of this study did illustrate that culture has an effect on perception and outcomes from the performance of OCBs and impression management motivated behaviours. However, while results showed that a participant's country of origin had an effect on outcome ratings, there was little support for the effect cultural orientation had. It may be that an individual employee's cultural orientation is less important than the cultural orientation of the majority. If an employee has an individualistic orientation but works in an organisation where the majority of the employees have a collectivist orientation, they may have to conform to the norms of the majority. In recent years we have seen more people relocating for education and employment. A testament to this can be found in the responders in the United Kingdom sample, where, of the 119 employees that responded to my questionnaire, 32.8% of the employees said they were not born in the United Kingdom. These employees may be working in an organisation where their cultural orientation may not be aligned with the majority of the employees. This study did not include the respondents who were not born in the country they currently work in as it would add too many additional cultural factors to consider. A future study could investigate the effects of a diverse work force on their perceptions and performance of citizenship behaviours, and to identify if employees have to adhere to the norms of the

cultural majority. However, this lack of significant interaction effects for individualism collectivism may be due to the measure used. When examining the results of the individualism collectivism measure, a number of participants scored towards the middle of the scale making it hard to interpret if the participant was a collectivist or individualist. Participants were divided into individualist and collectivist groups using a cut off point at the 50th percentile. However, this did mean that a number of participants were close to the median yet were placed into one of the two groups. This study was limited by the smaller sample size; future research may need to have a larger sample size to allow researchers to only use participants who scored in the top and bottom quartiles.

Participants in the study rated the outcomes of the performance of organisational citizenship behaviours positively and rated impression management motivated behaviours as having little effect, and this included the benefits for the people performing them. While this illustrated the differences in their perceptions of the behaviour, these differences may have been more apparent if participants were able to rate the effects of the behaviour as having negative outcomes. Participants were asked to what extent they thought the behaviour would affect the outcome measures and were given choices ranging from 'not at all' to 'a great deal'. If participants were given the option of the behaviours having a great deal of effect to having a negative effect, the differences between their perceptions of OCBs and impression management behaviours would be stronger.

Despite the potential limitations of the study, evidence was found that illustrates participants' ability to distinguish between OCBs and impression management behaviours and how these categorisations of the behaviours affect the outcomes. In addition, evidence of cultural influences on these perceptions was also found. The results of this study highlighted the importance of not exclusively focusing on the effects of the performance of these behaviours on supervisors, but also on employees who may witness their co-workers performing OCBs and perceived impression management behaviours. This also highlights the importance of not simply focusing on the antecedents to citizenship performance, but also as to how their performance affects the employees. In addition it

emphasises the importance to consider cultural differences in the perceptions of OCBs and impression management behaviours. Early research into the use of OCBs by collectivist employees, suggested that OCBs may not exist for collectivist employees (Moorman & Blakely, 1995), due to their loyalty to their in-group OCBs would be akin to an in-role behaviour. However, study 1 highlighted the occurrence of compulsory citizenship behaviours amongst Asian employees, citing an inability to say no to supervisors and the use of ingratiation to prevent future negative outcomes. This study's results identified differences in perceptions of the outcomes that would arise from the use of OCBs and impression management behaviours. These two studies have emphasised the importance to gain a better understanding of how various cultures conceptualise and perform citizenship behaviours. Current research in citizenship behaviours have highlighted the need to move away from previous assumptions. It does appear from the results, that Asian employees do indeed conceptualise and use OCBs differently from their western counterparts. The next step is to examine if indeed Asian employees are motivated to perform OCBs through prosocial motives (the traditional assumption), impression management or compulsory citizenship behaviours and if these motivations affect their choice of types of citizenship behaviours and subsequent outcomes.

Chapter 6

The interaction of motives, citizenship behaviours and outcomes in individualist and collectivist employees

Introduction

Motives of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

As discussed in the first chapter, since Bateman and Organ (1983) coined the term organisational citizenship behaviour, it has received increasing attention and has been thought of by some researchers as one of the most desirable employee behaviours (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Smith, Organ and Near (1983) theorised that for an organisation to function successfully, their employees must be willing to go beyond their formally prescribed job roles; therefore emphasizing OCBs as key to organisational success. Identifying the causes of these behaviours became an important factor, as understanding the motivations behind the behaviours would allow organisations to foster the performance of OCBs.

Early research assumed that employees engaged in OCBs as a reaction or response to their perceptions of their job and organisation (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Dispositional factors and social exchange theory were frequently used to explain the motivation behind OCB performance (Bolino et al, 1999; Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006). The early beliefs regarding the motivations behind OCB performance were biased towards the positive, and it may be that this was due to the fact that researchers were guided by the definition of OCBs which stated that it was "...not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system..." (Organ, 1988, p. 4), which precluded the performance of OCBs for personal gain. The focus of the positive aspect of OCBs is exemplified by the inclusion of altruism as one of Organ's five dimensions of OCBs (Organ, 1988). This view that OCBs

were synonymous with prosocial behaviour is highlighted by Smith et al (1983, p.652) discussing antecedents of OCBs by maintaining that "...because much of what we call citizenship behaviour has an altruistic character, it seemed worthwhile to explore the social psychology literature for determinants of altruism." As the literature developed, other antecedents to OCB performance were found, such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceived fairness, conscientiousness, and agreeableness (Organ & Ryan, 1995), and all of these antecedents have a positive connotation, reinforcing the view that OCB performance stems from "desirable forces within individuals, their work groups or their organisations" (Bolino, Turnely & Niehoff, 2004, p. 235).

While the majority of the early OCB research was fixated on the positive aspects of OCBs, some researchers started to question if OCBs could arise from self-serving motives. For example Podsakoff, McKenzie & Hui (1993) found that employees were aware of the benefits that can arise from OCB performance and acknowledged that some employees may engage in OCB performance to make themselves 'look good'. Bolino et al (2004) highlighted that while researchers had started making observations which countered the prevailing notions of OCBs, often these observations only appeared as footnotes or concluding thoughts, never as the primary focus of research. Now however, more researchers were starting to focus on other aspects of OCBs, rather than persisting in their overtly positive portrayal. Penner, Midili and Kegelmeyer (1997) proposed that the performance of OCBs did not have to be just reactionary; it could also be a proactive behaviour used by employees to achieve their goals and meet certain needs, and as a result researchers started including self-serving motives as causes of OCB performance (Eastman, 1994; Bolino, 1999; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Bolino et al, 2004). Bolino (1999) highlighted that there was an overlap between the performance of OCBs and impression management tactics. Engagement in OCBs can be image enhancing and make the employee 'look good', which in turn could result in benefits to the employee (Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Eastman, 1994; Bolino, 1999). Employees who perform high levels of OCBs would be seen as good citizens in the organisation or a 'good soldier' (Bateman & Organ, 1983). With the knowledge of the image enhancing effect of OCBs, some employees may

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not be 'good soldiers' doing good, but rather they may be 'good actors' trying to look good.

Podsakoff et al (1993) suggested it was not only employees who were aware of the benefits that could be gained through the performance of OCBs; organisations were also keyed into this outcome. Organ and his colleagues (Organ, 1988; Organ & Ryan, 1995) proposed that OCBs create a positive climate in the workplace and in addition improve the effectiveness and efficiency of the organisation. This perhaps explains the value placed on OCBs by organisations and why many organisations encourage their performance (Bolino & Tunley, 2003). OCBs can be encouraged through organisations creating a culture or climate of OCB by treating their employees fairly, supporting their needs and ensuring they have a satisfying work environment, which in turn encourages employees to be good citizens (Chen, Lin, Tung & Ko, 2008). Organisations can also encourage their employees through the norms of the organisation with statements about how employees should behave or through stories of other employees' admirable behaviour (Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010). However, there are times that OCBs are not implicitly encouraged - when employees feel pressure by supervisors or co-workers to comply. Vigoda-Gadot (2006, 2007) introduced the concept of compulsory citizenship behaviours, in which OCBs emerge as a response to external pressure placed on the employee. While the pressure placed on employees by their supervisors or co-workers is not physical or a direct threat on the employees, there is an implied hostility which can cause a sense of an inability to refuse (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007) and although not largely considered in the literature as a motivation behind OCB performance, it does represent an explanation behind some employees OCB performance.

Dimensions of Citizenship behaviours

Katz (1964) proposed that for an organisation to function successfully their employees must display innovative and spontaneous behaviours that go beyond their prescribed job roles. As mentioned in the literature review chapter, there have been a number of

researchers who have developed alternatives to Organ's (1988) five dimension framework of OCB - one such example is provide by Van Dyne, Cummings and Parks (1995) who combined the work of Katz (1964) and Organ's (1988) categorisation of OCB to create a typology of OCBs that distinguished affiliative behaviours from challenging behaviours. Affiliative citizenship behaviours (such as helping co-workers, being courteous or working additional hours) maintain the status quo by supporting the existing work process (Van Dyne et al, 1995). They are interpersonal and aim to be cooperative (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Grant & Mayer, 2009) and are especially important in completing tasks that require employees to work together as a team (Choi, 2007). Challenging citizenship behaviours, on the other hand, aim to challenge the status quo by questioning and improving upon existing work processes and relationships (Van Dyne et al, 1995). They are change orientated (unlike affiliative behaviours which are other oriented) and can create conflict and damage relationships (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

The term 'helping' may be seen as an archetypal example of an affiliative behaviour in that it is not only seen as 'non controversial' but it helps to develop and maintain relationships (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Helping behaviours are also one of the most frequently studied forms of OCB and is often held up as the quintessential example of citizenship behaviours. While affiliative citizenship behaviours have received a great deal of attention by researchers, challenging citizenship behaviours have been studied far less often (McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison & Turban, 2007). Yet it has been argued that the literature should broaden its scope to also include behaviours that aim to improve organisational performance (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Morrision & Phelps, 1999). These challenging citizenship behaviours that aim to improve organisational functioning include voice. Van Dyne and LePine (1998) defined voice as "...making innovative suggestions or change and recommending modifications to standard procedures even when others disagree" (p.109). Research into OCBs has generally focused its attention on affiliative behaviours, while much less attention has been paid to innovative behaviours such as challenging citizenship behaviours (Moon, Van Dyne & Wrobel, 2005). Choi (2007) argued against the emphasis on affiliative behaviours, stating that a positive

working environment and hard working employees may not be sufficient to improve

organisational performance. This is exemplified though a statement of Straw and Boettger

(1990) that "a worker who goes beyond the call of duty to accomplish a misconceived job

may actually be more dangerous to an organisation than a more mundane performer"

(p.537). Organisations need employees who go beyond the call of duty but they also need

employees who will identify problems or suggest more effective ways to operate.

Relating back to the theories of Katz (1964), organisations need innovation and voice to

allow them to remain dynamic and flexible in this time of increasing competition (Frese,

Fay, Hilburger, Leng & Tag, 1997; Bettencourt, 2004).

Employee Motivation and Citizenship Behaviours

The motives for OCBs are many and complex, and although research has moved away

from the idea that other-serving motives originated out of an employee's 'good will', there

is still some way to go to identifying these motives and how they might affect their

performance of OCBs. Research has established that citizenship behaviours are predicted

by prosocial motives (Rioux & Penner, 2001), but more investigation is needed to

understand how the motivation effects the choice of citizenship behaviour. It is thought

that employees who have prosocial motives will be more likely to engage in self

sacrificing behaviours and prioritise the needs of co-workers and the organisations ahead

of their own needs (Barry & Friedman, 1998; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004). This suggests

that employees will engage in both other oriented behaviours, such as helping, and

behaviours that can help the organisations, such as voice. Van Dyne and LePine (1998)

characterised affiliative behaviours as 'it's okay', as employees are upholding the status

quo, while challenging behaviours were characterised as 'it could be better', as employees

are threatening the status quo. Engaging in behaviours such as voice is the fuel for change

in an organisation, as they set out to challenge work processes to improve the

organisation. However, the performance of voice can also run the risk of harming an

employee's reputation, as it can create conflict and damage relationships (Ashford,

Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Grant and Mayer (2009) highlighted that prosocial motives can be a 'double edged sword' for employees as they are inclined to both affiliative and challenging citizenship behaviours. Employees with prosocial motives engage in organisational citizenship behaviours because of a desire to help others, as well as the organisation (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Barry & Friedman, 1998); as a result they are less likely to be concerned with the benefits they might receive or the personal consequences from performing OCBs and instead perform citizenship behaviours because "it is the right thing to do" (Halbesleben, Bowler, Bolino, Turnley, 2010, p. 1458). Consequently, employees with strong prosocial motives are likely to ignore the risks to their own reputation and put the needs of the organisation and their co-workers ahead of their own needs. As such, the first goal of the study is to test the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Employees with strong prosocial motives will engage in both affiliative and challenging citizenship behaviours.

High self monitors have been described as 'social chameleons' who are aware of the suitability of the image they project and change their behaviour and attitudes to suit the situations they find themselves in (Snyder, 1974, 1987). In addition, employees with strong impression management motives are careful to avoid creating a negative image in the eyes of others (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Leary & Kowalski, 1990). Employees are aware of the benefits that can be gained through the performance of OCBs; furthermore, employees who perform high levels of citizenship behaviours are also found to achieve higher levels of social status from their co-workers (Flynn, 2003). Bolino (1999) argued that citizenship behaviours were not just carried out by 'good soldiers' who aim to help other people, but also by 'good actors' who aim to help improve their image in the eyes of others. Halbesleben et al (2010) highlighted that employees with impression management motives are likely to be selective with the citizenship behaviours they choose to perform in order to control the consequences of its performance. For example, employees with impression management concerns may choose to take on a project that is certain to

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succeed for which they will receive praise and acknowledgement, without any thought if it would benefit the organisation or not. In addition, Grant and Mayer (2009) highlighted that employees with impression management motives would avoid forms of challenging citizenship behaviours (e.g. voice) in order to ingratiate themselves with co-workers without the risk of 'rocking the boat'. With this in mind, employees with impression management motives should be more likely to engage in citizenship behaviours but may restrict their behaviours to those that will not harm their reputation. This leads to the second research hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2: *Impression management motives will be positively related to affiliative citizenship behaviour.*

Both prosocial and impression management motives predict the performance of citizenship behaviours (Rioux & Penner, 2001). However, these motives have tended to be regarded as independent and not as interacting. Employees may well be 'good soldiers' or 'good actors', but "it is likely that individuals' motives generally are mixed" (Bolino, 1999, p.83). Indeed, Rioux and Penner (2001) found a positive correlation between prosocial motives and impression management motives. Rather than treating these motives as separate and independent of each other, researchers have started to debate if employees can be 'good soldiers' as well as 'good actors'. Grant and Mayer (2009) posited that employees with prosocial and impression management motives, would be drawn to perform citizenship behaviours as it would allow the employee to 'do good' and 'look good'.

With a desire to help others and improve their own image, impression management can strengthen the relationship between prosocial motives and affiliative citizenship behaviours (Grant & Mayer, 2009). Challenging citizenship behaviours could risk an employee's reputation with their supervisor and co-workers, while affiliative citizenship behaviours would allow the employee to help their organisation and co-worker and yet ensure their reputation remains intact.

Hypothesis 3: Impression management motives will strengthen the relationship between prosocial motives and the performance of affiliative citizenship behaviours.

Motivation and Outcomes

As mentioned in the first chapter, Organ (1977) conceptualised OCBs as a means of explaining the lack of relationship between employee attitudes and job performance. As he explained, employees were constrained by their in role job tasks and they were more likely to express attitudes, such as job satisfaction, through the performance of extra role behaviours which they have greater control over. This has resulted in job satisfaction being the most frequently studied correlate of OCB, which has found substantial support for a relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs (e.g. Bateman & Organ, 1983; Motowidlo, 1984; Puffer, 1987; Williams & Anderson, 1991; Organ & Lingle, 1995; Schappe, 1998). Bateman and Organ (1983) found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and supervisory ratings of OCBs. While Williams and Anderson (1991) found that the cognitive component of job satisfaction predicted the performance of OCB-I and OCB-O. Smith et al (1983) suggested that individuals who were in a positive mood would be more likely to behave altruistically; therefore, they believed that some proportion of OCB performance could be explained by employee job satisfaction. However, the dominant explanation for the link between OCBs and job satisfaction is social exchange, as when an employee is satisfied with their job they will reciprocate with the performance of OCBs (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Most of the studies list job satisfaction as an antecedent of OCBs, in that job satisfaction predicts the performance of OCBs (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Williams & Anderson, 1991). However, the performance of citizenship behaviours could lead to employees feeling satisfied with their job, as they feel content because they have managed to contribute to their organisation and co-workers, which could in turn make them valued members of the organisation. Therefore it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 4: The performance of helping and voice behaviours be positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to job stress.

If employees feel satisfaction through the performance of citizenship behaviours, it would be assumed that this relationship would be stronger for employees with prosocial motives, as they are compelled to contribute to their organisation and co-workers, thereby the performance of citizenship behaviours would be the fulfilment of this desire. In addition, studies have found that supervisors tend to respond positively to citizenship behaviours and believe that it is linked with an employee's overall job performance (Podsakoff et al, 1993; Organ et al, 2006). The performance of citizenship behaviours may lead supervisors to believe that the employee is more motivated and committed to the organisation (Shore, Barksdale & Shore, 1995); which could explain the positive relationship between OCB performance and performance evaluations and managers' reward allocation (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). The positive outcomes associated with OCBs suggest that employees with impression management motives are likely to be satisfied with their job, as the performance of OCBs may contribute towards the obtainment of their goals. Bateman and Organ (1983) believed that when employees were satisfied with their job, they would respond as 'good soldiers' and would engage in OCBs to help co-workers and the organisation. From this, it would be expected that employees with prosocial motives or impression management motives are likely to be satisfied with their jobs as their performance of OCBs is fulfilling their goal of contributing to their organisation and co-workers or fulfilling their own personal goals.

Hypothesis 5: OCB motives will moderate the relationship between OCBs and job satisfaction and job stress

Podsakoff et al (2000) believed that an organisation where OCBs were common would make the organisation a more attractive place to work, allowing them to attract and retain the best workers. As noted previously, studies examining the outcomes of OCBs have mainly focused on the positive outcomes for the organisation and its employees. In their

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meta-analysis, Organ and Ryan (1995) suggested that employees who engage in high levels of citizenship behaviours may feel overloaded. Since then, studies have started to acknowledge more of the potential negative implications of OCB performance, such as feeling overloaded, stress, and work-family conflict (Bolino et al, 2004; Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Bolino et al, 2010). Greater job demands are placed on employees, and they are expected to work longer hours, be more active in organisational life and with the advent of e-mail and third and fourth generation mobile phones, to be in contact and work even when away from the office (Hochschild, 1997; Reich, 2001; Felman, 2002; Major, Klein & Ehrheart, 2002; Brett & Stroh, 2003; Bolino et al, 2010). With organisations encouraging employees to be 'good soldiers' there is a danger that they are expected to engage in high levels of task performance and take on roles outside their official job description which could contribute to role overload and could make the organisation less attractive to employees (Bolino et al, 2010). This suggests that 'job creep' may be occurring more often in organisations, which Van Dyne and Ellis (2004, p. 184) define as the "gradual and informal expansion of role responsibilities where discretionary contributions (such as OCB) become viewed as in-role obligations by supervisors and peers". When OCBs are commonplace in an organisation, it can make the lines that distinguish between in role and citizenship behaviours blurry (Morrison, 1994). The ill defined nature of in role and extra role behaviours can make them subject to multiple interpretations which in turn can affect employees' job satisfaction and job stress levels (Jackson & Schuler, 1985).

The imprecise division between in role and citizenship behaviour may foster the occurrence of compulsory citizenship behaviours. Spector and Fox (2005) suggested that the performance of OCBs itself can lead to the occurrence of compulsory citizenship behaviours. They believed that when an employee voluntarily took on extra tasks, it could lead to supervisors and co-workers expecting them to continue their performance of these voluntary behaviours. In addition, the pressure to achieve higher levels of OCBs to remain competitive may increase the likelihood that managers may use compulsory citizenship behaviours (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006). When employees feel they are being coerced to

perform these 'compulsory' behaviours that they perceive to sit outside of their prescribed job roles, it may result in higher levels of job stress and burn out, lower levels of job satisfaction, and intention to leave the organisation (Vigoda-Gadot 2007). While, compulsory citizenship behaviour may increase employee's intention to leave the organisation, Tepper (2000) highlighted that employees who are targets of abusive behaviours may still remain in the organisation because they feel they are powerless to rectify the situation or may be economically depended on the abuser. With the current economic climate, many employees could be facing compulsory citizenship behaviours, but unable to leave their organisation, thereby resulting in their dissatisfaction with their jobs and dysfunctional work outcomes.

Hypothesis 6: Compulsory citizenship will be associated with higher levels of job stress and lower levels of job satisfaction.

The effects of culture on motivation, performance and outcomes

The literature and the results from study 1 and study 2 have illustrated that cultural differences exist in the perception and performance of citizenship behaviours (Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Francesco & Chen, 2004; Blakely, Srivastava & Moorman, 2005). While OCB research has progressed by broadening its scope and focusing on the negative aspects associated with OCB performance, the research examining the cultural differences is still lagging behind. Bond (1999, p. 3-4) argued that national culture was of the greatest importance to global organisations: "simply exporting cultural norms is not possible today without conflict". While Grant and Mayer (2009) have highlighted the effect motivation has on employees' choice of citizenship behaviour to perform and Bolino et al (2010) illustrated the consequences of citizenship pressure on employees, both included only samples from the United States. We cannot be sure if these findings are universal for all employees and therefore it is crucial that we expand our research to consider the cultural differences that might arise. Study 2 highlighted that Indonesian participants differ in their conceptualisation of OCBs and IM motivated behaviours to their western counterparts.

This study hopes to extend the work of previous researchers such as Grant and Mayer (2009), Bolino et al (2010), Vigoda-Gadot (2006, 2007) to examine if their findings can be extended to collectivist Asian employees or if cultural differences are present.

As mentioned previously in the culture chapter, Hofstede (1980) presented individualism collectivism and the other three dimensions of his cultural typology as differences between countries, rather than individuals. Hui and Triandis (1986) noted that cultures which have been labelled as collectivist or individualist are simply cultures in which the majority of individuals have collectivist or individualistic orientations. Traindis and his colleagues stressed the differences between individualism and collectivism at the national level and at the individual level (Triandis, Leung, Villareal & Clack, 1985; Triandis, Chan, Bhawuk, Iwao, & Sinha, 1995). To differentiate between them, he suggested that when studied at the individual level, individualism and collectivism should be called idiocentrism and allocentrism, respectively (Triandis et al, 1985; Smith & Bond, 1999). Currently most research studies now examine individualism and collectivism at the individual level (Oyserman, Coon & Kemmelmeier, 2002); however, the terms 'idiocentrism' and 'allocentrism' have not come into common usage. Examining individualism and collectivism at the individual level allows researchers to acknowledge that while overall trends may exist within a culture towards individualism or collectivism, variances within a culture do exist (Wasit, 2003). It is easy to imagine, for example, that an Indonesian employee who spent three years at university in the United Kingdom may be more idiocentric. With the increasing diversity within organisations, it is important to take within country cultural differences into consideration.

A study of individualism and collectivism at the individual level will allow researchers to gauge the degree to which overall national cultural orientation affects employees at the individual level. For example, an individualistic employee could be influenced by working in an environment dominated by collectivist co-workers, and if this was the case, we would expect to see no substantial difference between the responses of individualist or collectivist employees. However, due to the importance that individualists place on

personal rights and freedoms, it is unlikely that they will feel forced to conform to the norms of others. Therefore, differences in the performance of collectivist and individualist employees are expected.

Moorman and Blakely (1995) found that collectivists were more likely to perform OCBs than their individualistic counterparts, which they postulated was due to collectivists feeling obligated to ensure the welfare of their in group regardless of the cost to themselves. The sample of this study was taken from a financial services organisation in the south eastern United States, with Moorman and Blakely measuring individualism and collectivism as an individual difference. In Moorman and Blakely's (1995) study, it could be assumed that collectivists are most likely to be a minority in the organisation, as the United States is known to be a more individualistic nation (Hofstede, 1980). In a country like Indonesia, where a majority of individuals have a collectivist orientation, it may be that the dominance of collectivist orientation would lead the propensity for performing OCBs to be strengthened; this in turn could strengthen the relationship between prosocial motives and the performance of affiliative and challenging behaviours.

Hypothesis 7: Collectivism will strengthen the relationship between OCB motives and the performance of affiliative and challenging behaviours.

Hui, Yee, and Eastman (1995) found that collectivism was associated with higher levels of job satisfaction than individualistic employees. Hui and Yee (1999) supported these previous findings, and in addition found that the link between collectivism and job satisfaction was stronger within workgroups where co-workers encouraged and helped each other than in workgroups in which support and collaboration was lacking. This suggests that the link between collectivism and job satisfaction would be stronger within collectivist organisations and cultures; therefore a collectivist employee in an Indonesian organisation is likely to be more satisfied in their job, due to the mutual support and collaboration associated with collectivist individuals. In addition, it is likely that collectivist orientations may also affect the types of behaviours an employee prefer to

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perform. Collectivists are characterised by their desire to maintain group harmony (Hofstede, 1980b), therefore they are likely to avoid challenging behaviours as they run the risk of 'rocking the boat' (Grant and Mayer, 2009). Collectivists may prefer helping behaviours as they are interpersonal and aim support the existing working environment (Van Dyne et al, 1995). Individualists, on the other hand may favour challenging behaviours as they would allow them to set themselves apart from other employees through suggesting ways to improve existing work process, leading to the hypothesis:

Hypothesis 8: Collectivism will moderate the relationship between OCBs and the outcomes measures; with collectivists responding more positively to affiliative behaviours and individualists responding more positively to challenging behaviours.

Method

Sample

Participants in this study were sampled from the Indonesian branch of a large multi-national bank. A response rate was unable to be calculated due to the organisation's desire to distribute the links to the questionnaire via their own 'gatekeeper', to prevent the disclosure of employee's e-mail addresses. A total of 186 employees started the questionnaire, with a total of 141 employees completing the questionnaire, a completion rate of 75.81%. The mean age of the sample was 33 years and was made up of 55 male employees (39%) and 86 female employees (61%).

Measures

Voice and helping

Voice and helping behaviours were measured using Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) 13 item scale (four items measuring in-role behaviour performance were omitted as they were not relevant to this study). We replaced "This particular co-worker" in the original

wording of the items to 'I' so participants would be rating their own behaviour. Seven of the items examined employees' helping behaviours with statements like 'I help others in this group learn about the work' and 'I volunteer to do things for this work group' ($\alpha = .96$). Six of the items assessed employees' use of voice behaviours with items such as 'I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group'. This measure was found to have a Cronbach's Alpha of .96.

Citizenship motives

Citizenship motives were measured using Rioux and Penner's (2001) 20 item scale (10 items measuring organisational concern were excluded from this study as they were not relevant to this study, as impression management and prosocial motives were the main focus of the study). Ten items rated participant's prosocial values behind their performance of citizenship behaviours with items such as 'because I feel it is important to help those in need' ($\alpha = .92$). The rest of the items measure impression management motives with such items as 'to avoid looking bad in front of others' ($\alpha = .93$).

Compulsory Citizenship Behaviour (CCB)

Vigoda-Gadot's (2007) measure of CCB was used to measure participants' performance of citizenship behaviour which they felt they were under pressure to perform. The scale consisted of 5 items, with items such as 'The management in this organisation puts pressure on employees to engage in extra-role work activities beyond their formal job tasks.' Participants were ask to report the frequency of the behaviour in their work place on a scale from 1 (never) to 5 (always). The reliability of this scale was .85.

Job Stress

Motowidlo, Packard and Manning's (1986) four item scale was used to measure participants' job stress. Participants rated items such as 'My job is extremely stressful' on a five point scale, ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). This scale was found to have a Cronbach's alpha of .78.

Individualism-Collectivism orientation

Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson and Zapata-Phelan's (2006) scale was used to measure participants' levels of individualism and collectivism. The scale instructs participants to 'think about the work group to which you currently belong, and have belonged to in the past' and then respond to the items with their level of agreement. Participants rated their responses on a 5 point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree) to items such as 'I preferred to work in those groups rather than working alone'. The Cronbach's Alpha for this measure was .91.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured using three items from the overall satisfaction subscale from the Michigan Organisational Assessment questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh, 1979). Respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement, to items such as 'All in all, I am satisfied with my job', using a five point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). The Cronbach's Alpha for this measure was .66.

Procedure

An online questionnaire was developed which collected participants' responses to their demographic information, self report of their performance of helping and voice behaviours, impression management and prosocial motives, compulsory citizenship behaviour and finally a measure of collectivism. As this questionnaire was completed by Indonesian employees it was translated from English to Indonesian, using a back translation process. Once the questionnaire had been translated to Indonesian and back into English, it was checked to ensure that the meaning of questions had not been altered. In addition, similar to study 2, the questionnaire was also read through by native Indonesian speakers from the University of Nottingham to make certain the wording was correct.

This questionnaire also asked participants if they were born in the country they were currently working in. As mentioned in study 2, this was to ensure that the results would not be distorted by overseas employees, as this study focuses on individual differences of culture within Indonesian employees. If participants answered yes to the question, the survey would continue. However, if they answered no, they would be thanked for their time and the questionnaire would end. Only 1 participant answered 'no' to the question and was excluded from the study.

Employees of the multi-national bank were sent an e-mail containing information about the study, including their rights as a participant, and a link to the online questionnaire. The e-mail also contained information letting the potential participants know the purpose of the research, the approximate length of time the questionnaire would take, and that their responses would remain confidential and anonymous.

Results

Means, standard deviations and correlations for variables appear in Table 7. As expected a correlation between prosocial motives and helping and voice was found. Impression management was not correlated with the citizenship behaviours, but was found to be correlated with prosocial motives and compulsory citizenship behaviours. Also expected, based on the literature review, job satisfaction was positively correlated with helping, voice, prosocial motives and collectivism, while negatively correlated with job stress. Job Stress was found to be negatively correlated with helping, voice and prosocial motives, while positively correlated with compulsory citizenship behaviours. Finally, collectivism was found to be positively correlated with the performance of voice and helping behaviours and prosocial motives.

A hierarchical regression on the data was used to examine the prediction of helping behaviour by prosocial and impression management motives, and compulsory citizenship behaviours. To control for the demographic variables, gender, age, and tenure were

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entered in the first step. In the second step of the multiple regression prosocial motives, impression management motives and compulsory citizenship behaviours were added. These same steps were followed replacing helping as the criterion with voice. Table 8 illustrates the R, R^2, F and standardised Beta values for the prediction of helping and voice behaviours.

In the first multiple regression performed with helping as the criterion, the demographic variables of age, gender and tenure were first entered and accounted for 3.6% of the variance. Prosocial motives, impression management motives and CCB were then entered into the multiple regression and accounted for a further unique 5.8% of the variance after controlling for demographics ($F(3,134)= 2.87$, $p<0.05$). Looking at the individual standardised beta values, prosocial motives was found to be significant ($\beta=0.26$, $p<0.01$). The second multiple regression performed had voice as the criterion with the same variables inputted. The demographic variables, age, gender and tenure, accounted for 1.5% of the variance. The prosocial motives, impression management motives and compulsory citizenship behaviour variables significantly accounted for an incremental 5.7% of the variance, ($F(3,134)=2.75$, $p<0.05$). Once again prosocial motives variable was a significant predictor of voice (see table 8).

Table 7 Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Helping	5.49	1.21	(.96)							
2. Voice	5.48	1.24	.93**	(.96)						
3. Prosocial Motives	4.75	.76	.24**	.24**	(.92)					
4. Impression Management	3.51	1.15	.07	.06	.38**	(.93)				
5. CCB	2.90	1.06	.00	.00	.02	.53**	(.85)			
6. Stress	3.05	0.78	-.21*	-.21*	-.22**	-.05	.26**	(.78)		
7. Job Satisfaction	3.79	0.73	.31**	.36**	.21*	-.04	-.28**	-.44**	(.66)	
8. Collectivism	3.66	0.53	.34**	.32**	.40**	.08	-.07	-.14	.26**	(.91)

Note: Internal consistency values (Cronbach's alphas) appear across the diagonal in parentheses

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

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The results of the correlation found that prosocial motives had a significant relationship with helping and voice; in addition, the hierarchical multiple regression found that prosocial motives predicted helping and voice behaviours, thus providing support for the first hypothesis. The second hypothesis which predicted impression management motives would be positively related to the performance of affiliative behaviours, however this was not supported as no significant relationship was found between impression management and the performance of helping or voice behaviours.

Table 8 Hierarchical regression for motives as predictors of helping and voice

	Helping	Voice
	B	B
Step 1		
Gender	.10	.02
Age	-.10	-.07
Tenure	.20	.15
R	.191	.124
R^2	.036	.015
F (3,137)	1.73	0.71
Step 2		
Gender	.10	.02
Age	-.08	-.04
Tenure	.19	.14
Prosocial	.26 **	.26 **
Impression Management	-.08	-.07
CCB	.06	.05
R	.308	.269
R^2	.095	.072
R^2 Change	.058	.057
F(3,134)	2.87 *	2.75 *

* Significant at the 0.05 level
** Significant at the 0.01 level

The third hypothesis proposed that impression management motives would strengthen the relationship between prosocial motives and affiliative behaviours. To investigate this relationship hierarchical multiple regressions analyses were performed. Following Aikins

and West (1999) prosocial motives and impression management motives were centred

prior to being entered into the first step of the multiple regression. On step two the

interaction terms were entered. Prosocial motives and impression management variables in

the first step accounted for 6% of the variables, $F(2, 138)=4.37$, $p<0.01$. The inclusion of

the interaction term of prosocial motives multiplied by impression management did not

account for any additional variance, with an R^2 Change of .000, $F(3,137)=2.90$, $p<0.03$,

providing no support to the third hypothesis (See table 9).

Table 9 Hierarchical regression for motives as predictors of helping

	Helping
	B
Step 1	
Prosocial	.25 **
Impression Management	-.03
R	.244
R^2	.06
F(2, 138)	4.37 **
Step 2	
Prosocial	.26**
Impression Management	-.03
Prosocial x IM	.01
R	.244
R^2	.060
R^2 Change	.000
F(3, 137)	2.90*

* Significant at the 0.05 level

** Significant at the 0.01 level

Hierarchal multiple regressions were also performed using the outcome variables as

criteria. With job satisfaction as the criterion it was found that demographic variables

accounted for 14.4% of the variance, $F(3,137)=7.60$, $p<0.001$. Age was found to have a

significant relationship with job satisfaction (see table 10). Helping, prosocial motives,

impression management motives, and CCB accounted for a further unique 16.2% of the

variance, $F(7,133)= 8.34$, $p<0.001$. Looking at the individual standardised beta values,

helping was found to significantly predict job satisfaction ($\beta=.28$, $p<0.001$), while CCB was found to significantly negatively predict job satisfaction ($\beta=-.24$, $p<0.01$). When job stressed was used as the criterion variables, the demographic variables accounted for 1.9% of the variance. Helping and the motivation variables accounted for a further unique 16.2% of the variance, $F_{(7,133)}=6.59$, $p<0.001$. Helping was found to significantly negatively predict job stress ($\beta=-.17$, $p<0.05$) and CCB was found to significantly predict job stress ($\beta=.37$, $p<0.001$).

The same regressions were performed replacing helping as a predictor with voice behaviours. Voice and the motivation variables were found to account for 18.7% of the variance in job satisfaction, $F_{(7,133)}$, $p<0.001$. Voice was found to significantly predict job satisfaction, while CCB significantly negatively predicted job satisfaction (see table 6.5). In addition, when job stress was used as the criterion variables, voice was found to significantly negatively predict job stress and CCB significantly predicted job stress (see table 6.5). These results support the fourth hypothesis which predicted the performance of helping and voice behaviours would be positively related to higher levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of job stress. In addition, these results also provide support to the sixth hypothesis, which postulated that CCBs would be associated with higher levels of job stress and lower levels of job satisfaction (see tables 10 and 11). In the third stage of these multiple regressions interaction terms between the OCBs and motives were entered. No support was found for the fifth hypothesis which predicted that the OCB motives would moderate the relationship between OCBs and job satisfaction and job stress (see tables 10 and 11).

Table 10 Hierarchical regression for motives and helping behaviours as predictors of job satisfaction and job stress

	Job Satisfaction	Job Stress
	B	β
Step 1		
Gender	-.02	-.06
Age	.35 ***	-.08
Tenure	.05	-.05
R	.378	.136
R²	.143	.019
F(3,137)	7.60 ***	.864
Step 2		
Gender	.001	-.10
Age	.37 ***	-.09
Tenure	-.07	.07
Help	.28 ***	-.17 *
Prosocial	.15	-.14
Impression Management	.03	-.19
CCB	-.24 **	.37 ***
R	.552	.425
R²	.305	.181
R² Change	.162	.162
F (7, 133)	8.34 ***	6.59 ***
Step 3		
Gender	.002	-.11
Age	.37 ***	-.11
Tenure	-.07	.10
Help	.27 **	-.13
Prosocial	.16	-.16
Impression Management	.03	-.18
CCB	-.23 **	.39 ***
Help x Prosocial	.009	-.05
Help x IM	.006	-.09
Help x CCB	-.027	-.03
R	.553	.441
R²	.306	.195
R² Change	.001	.014
F (10, 130)	5.73 ***	3.14 ***

* Significant at the 0.05 level
** Significant at the 0.01 level
*** Significant at the 0.001 level

Table 11 Hierarchical regression for motives and voice behaviours as predictors of job satisfaction and job stress

	Job Satisfaction	Job Stress
	B	B
Step 1		
Gender	-.02	-.06
Age	.35 ***	-.08
Tenure	.051	-.05
R	.378	.136
R²	.143	.019
F(3,137)	7.60 ***	.86
Step 2		
Gender	.02	-.12
Age	.36 ***	-.08
Tenure	-.06	.07
Voice	.32 ***	-.17 *
Prosocial	.15	-.14
Impression Management	.04	-.19
CCB	-.24 **	.37 ***
R	.574	.429
R²	.330	.184
R² Change	.187	.165
F (7, 133)	9.35 ***	4.28 ***
Step 3		
Gender	.03	-.11
Age	.36 ***	-.09
Tenure	-.05	.08
Voice	.34 ***	-.16
Prosocial	.14	-.15
Impression Management	.04	-.16
CCB	-.24 **	.38 ***
Voice x Prosocial	-.01	.06
Voice x IM	-.03	-.13
Voice x CCB	.002	-.001
R	.575	.441
R²	.331	.194
R² Change	.001	.011
F (10, 130)	6.44 ***	3.14 ***

* Significant at the 0.05 level
** Significant at the 0.01 level
*** Significant at the 0.001 level

The final two hypotheses examined the effect of individualism and collectivism on the variables. The seventh hypothesis postulated that collectivism would strengthen the relationship between affiliative and challenging behaviours and prosocial motives. The hierarchal multiple regressions were performed, with helping as the criterion. Once again, to control for the demographic variables, they were entered in the first step of the regression. In the second step, the mean centred prosocial motives, impression management motives, CCB and collectivism were entered. In the third step the mean centred interaction terms were added. These same steps were followed replacing helping as the criterion with voice. The variance accounted for by the demographic variables was the same as those performed in the first multiple regression performed. In the second step when the motivational variables and collectivism were added to the regression and accounted for 12.5% of the variance, $F(4,133)=4.96$, $p<0.001$. Looking at the individual standardised beta values, collectivism was found to be significant ($\beta=0.29$, $p<0.001$), illustrating that collectivism predicts the performance of helping behaviours. However, with the inclusion of collectivism into the multiple regression, prosocial motives was no longer a significant predictor of the performance of helping behaviours. The regression was performed with voice as the criterion which found that the prosocial motives, impression management motives, CCB and collectivism variables accounted for 11.7% of the variance, $F(4,133)=4.47$, $p<0.01$. Collectivism was found to be a significant predictor of the performance of voice behaviours (see table 12). Once again, with the inclusion of the collectivism variables, prosocial motives were no longer a significant predictor of voice. To test the seventh hypothesis, interaction terms were created by multiplying collectivism with the motivational variables. While collectivism was a predictor of helping and voice, no significant relationship was found between the interaction terms and helping and voice, providing no support for the hypothesis.

Table 12 Hierarchical regression for motives as predictors of helping and voice

	Helping	Voice
	B	B
Step 1		
Gender	.10	.02
Age	-.10	-.07
Tenure	.20	.15
R	.191	.124
R^2	.036	.015
F (3,137)	1.73	0.71
Step 2		
Gender	.11	.03
Age	-.12	-.08
Tenure	.18	.13
Prosocial	.14	.14
Impression Management	-.06	-.05
CCB	.06	.06
Collectivism	.29***	.27**
R	.402	.364
R^2	.161	.132
R^2 Change	.125	.117
F(7,133)	3.66 ***	2.89 **
Step 3		
Gender	.11	.03
Age	-.11	-.07
Tenure	.17	.13
Prosocial	.15	.15
Impression Management	-.08	-.07
CCB	.08	.07
Collectivism	.28**	.27**
Prosocial x Collectivist	-.01	-.04
IM x Collectivism	.08	.07
CCB x Collectivism	-.11	-.09
R	.415	.374
R^2	.172	.140
R^2 Change	.011	.008
F(10,130)	2.71 **	2.12*

* Significant at the 0.05 level

** Significant at the 0.01 level

*** Significant at the 0.001 level

The final hypothesis predicted that collectivism would moderate the relationship between the citizenship behaviours and job satisfaction and job stress, with collectivist employees responding positively to affiliative behaviours and individualists responding positively to challenging behaviours. To test this hypothesis, two hierarchal multiple regression were performed using job satisfaction and job stress as criterion. To control for the demographic variables, they were entered in the first step of the regression. In the second step, the mean centred help, voice, and collectivism variables were entered. In the third step the mean centred interaction terms were added. The variance accounted for by the demographic variables was the same as the previous multiple regressions performed. Help, voice and collectivism accounted for 13.5% of the variance of job satisfaction, $F(7,133)=8.58$, $p<0.001$. Looking at the individual standardised beta values voice was found to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction (see table 13). With job stress as the criterion variable no significant relationship between help, voice or collectivism was found. In the third step of the regression collectivism was found to significantly interact with helping and voice. Collectivism was found to moderate the relationship between helping and job satisfaction (see figure 6).
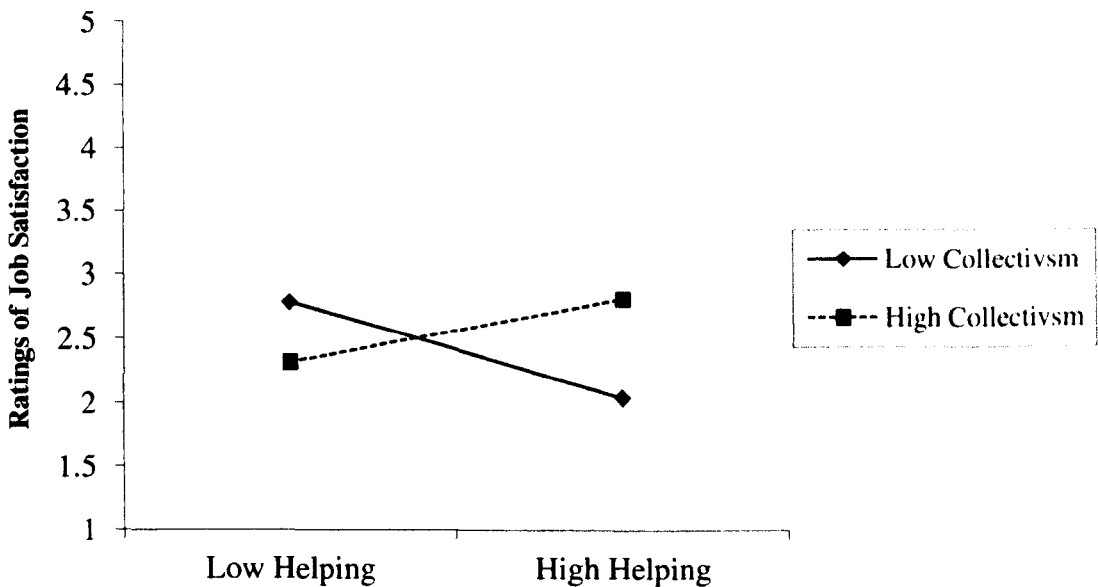
Figure 6 *Moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between helping and job satisfaction*

Table 13 Hierarchical regression for collectivism, helping and voice behaviours as predictors of job satisfaction and job stress

	Job Satisfaction	Job Stress
	β	β
Step 1		
Gender	-.02	-.06
Age	.35 ***	-.07
Tenure	.05	-.05
R	.378	.136
R²	.143	.019
F(3,137)	7.60 ***	.864
Step 2		
Gender	.009	-.07
Age	.35 ***	-.09
Tenure	.00	-.01
Help	-.18	-.04
Voice	.47 *	-.15
Collectivism	.12	-.07
R	.527	.255
R²	.278	.065
R² Change	.135	.046
F (7, 133)	8.58 ***	1.55
Step 3		
Gender	.008	-.07
Age	.37 ***	-.13
Tenure	-.03	.04
Help	-.09	-.18
Voice	.38	-.007
Collectivism	.10	-.02
Collectivism x Help	.44 *	-.78 ***
Collectivism x Voice	-.44 *	.71 **
R	.551	.380
R²	.303	.145
R² Change	.026	.080
F (10, 130)	7.19 ***	2.79 **

* Significant at the 0.05 level
** Significant at the 0.01 level
*** Significant at the 0.001 level

The results suggest that collectivist employees would experience higher levels of job

satisfaction the more helping behaviours they perform; while individualistic employees

would experience lower levels of job satisfaction when they increase their performance of

helping behaviours.

Collectivism was also found to moderate the relationship between the performance of

voice behaviours and job satisfaction (see figure 7). These results suggest that collectivist

employees' job satisfaction is relatively stable whether they are performing high or low

levels of voice. However, individualistic employees' job satisfaction increased the higher

their performance of voice behaviours.
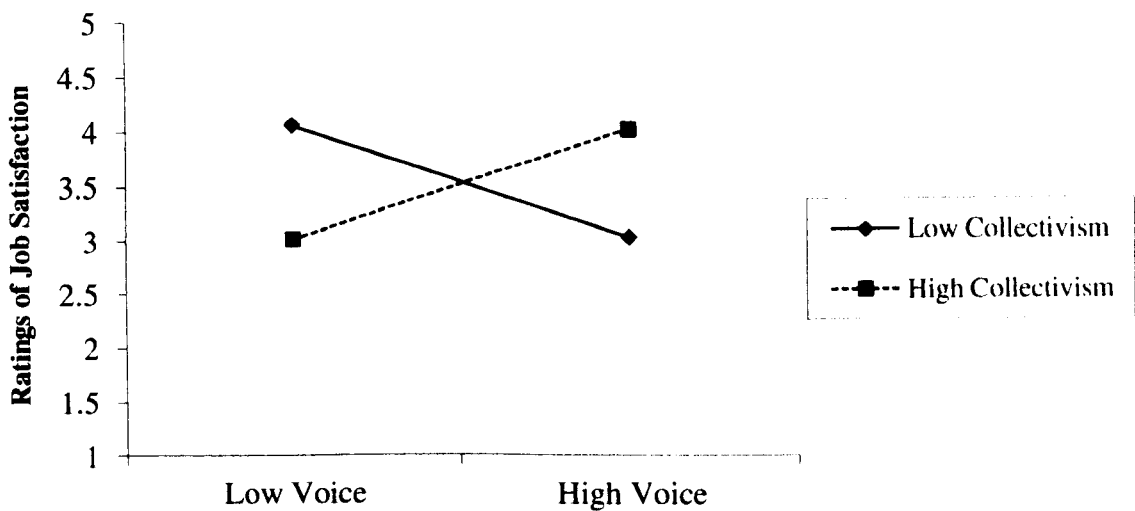
Figure 7 Moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between voice and job satisfaction

Collectivism was also found to moderate the relationship between the citizenship

behaviours and job stress. When collectivist employees engage in higher levels of helping

behaviours their levels of job stress decrease; however individualistic employees' levels of

job stress increase the higher their levels of helping behaviours (see figure 8). Figure 9

illustrates the moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between voice and job

stress. The results suggest that as collectivist employees increase their performance of

voice behaviours their stress levels increase. However, the opposite relationship was found in individualistic employees, as they increase their performance of voice behaviours, their levels of job stress decrease.

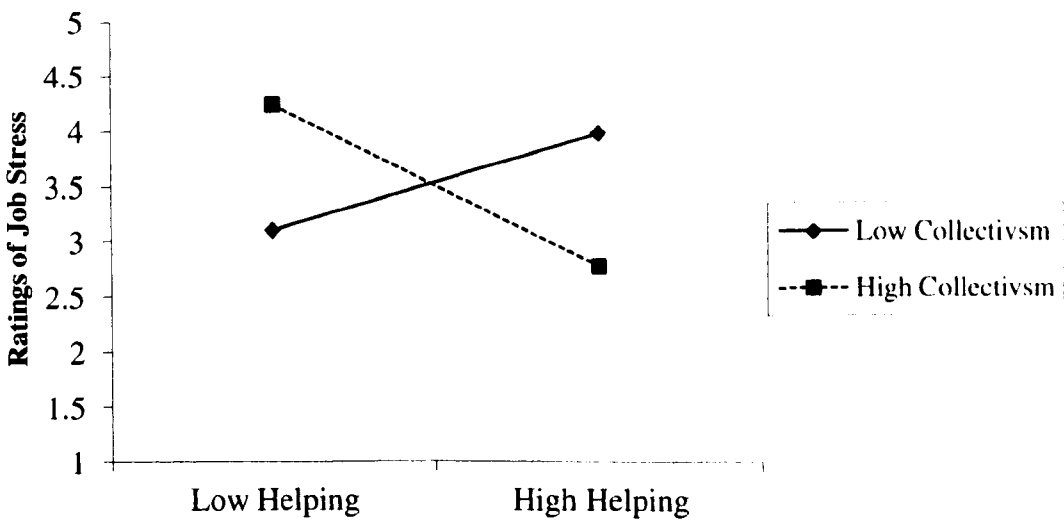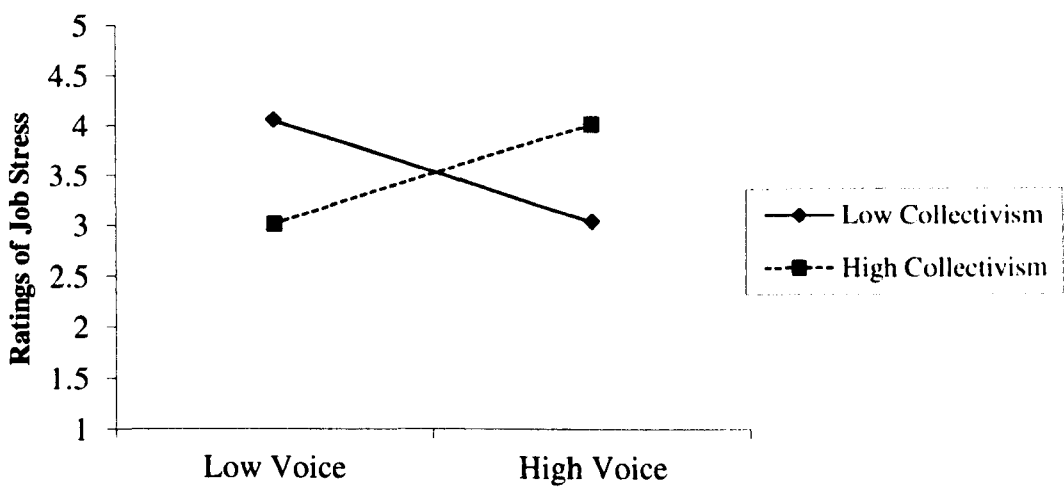**Figure 8 Moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between helping and job stress**

Figure 9 Moderating effect of collectivism on the relationship between voice and job stress

Discussion

The aim of this study was to identify if the motivation behind the performance of OCBs would affect the type of citizenship behaviour performed and the outcomes. In addition, this study hoped to identify if culture played a role in the motivation, performance and outcomes of citizenship behaviours. Consistent with the first hypothesis, prosocial motives were found to predict the performance of helping and voice behaviours. However, no support was found for the hypothesis which predicted that impression management motives would be positively related to the performance of affiliative behaviours. This study also wanted to identify if the findings of Grant and Mayer (2009) would extend to a collectivist sample. They found that impression management motives strengthened the relationship between prosocial motives and the performance of affiliative behaviours; however, this study found no evidence to support their findings. Furthermore, it was found that impression management motives were positively correlated with prosocial motives and compulsory citizenship behaviours. No relationship was found between prosocial motives and compulsory citizenship behaviours.

The relationship between organisational citizenship behaviours and job satisfaction and job stress were also investigated. In support of the fourth hypothesis, it was found that voice and helping behaviours significantly predicted job satisfaction and negatively predicted job stress. The fifth hypothesis predicted that the OCB motives would moderate the relationship between OCBs and job satisfaction and job stress; however, no evidence was found in support of this relationship. As anticipated, compulsory citizenship behaviours were found to be a significant predictor of job stress and negatively predicted job satisfaction.

The final two hypotheses examined the findings in relation to employees' individualist or collectivist orientation. It was hypothesised that collectivism would strengthen the relationship between the citizenship behaviours and the underlying motivations. No evidence was found to support this claim; however, collectivism was found to be a significant predictor of the performance of helping and voice behaviours. The final hypothesis predicted that collectivism would moderate the relationship between OCBs and the outcome measures of job satisfaction and job stress. The results supported this hypothesis as it was found that collectivism did

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indeed moderate the relationship between helping and voice behaviours and job satisfaction and job stress.

This study found that prosocial motives predicted the performance of both affiliative and challenging behaviours. This finding was expected, as past research had suggested that individuals with prosocial motives would be driven to engage in citizenship behaviours to help their fellow co-workers and the organisation (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988); with helping behaviours as citizenship behaviours which can directly benefit co-workers and voice behaviours that can be performed to help the organisation. The study's findings did not provide support for the assertion that impression management motives would be related to the performance of affiliative behaviours and in addition would strengthen the relationship between prosocial motives and the performance of affiliative behaviours, as suggested by Grant and Mayer (2009). Impression management motives did not predict the performance of helping or voice behaviours, despite the fact that past literature had illustrated that impression management can motivate the performance of citizenship behaviours (Eastman, 1994; Bolino, 1999; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Bolino et al, 2004). While researchers have acknowledged that OCBs can be performed for self-serving motives, when Rioux and Penner (2001) were investigating motives on OCB performance, they found that impression management did not correlate with any of the five OCB dimensions; however, impression management motives were found to account for a significant amount of the variance in ratings of sportsmanship. Impression management is concerned with maintaining a desired image; however, that image is dependent on the individual. It may be that the relationship between impression management motives and the performance of OCBs is dependent on what behaviours the employee's organisation values. As Rioux and Penner (2001) suggested, additional research is needed to understand what role impression management has in the performance of OCBs.

In addition, the results found that prosocial motives were correlated with impression management motives, suggesting that employees could indeed be 'good soldiers' and 'good actors' with the aim of doing good to look good. In addition, impression management was found to be correlated with compulsory citizenship behaviours. It may be that when a

supervisor is pressuring an employee to perform certain citizenship behaviours, the employee comes to view these behaviours as important to the supervisor and therefore useful in their attainment of their goals. Spector and Fox (2005) stated that "...when an individual experiences an OCB-eliciting demand in situations where he or she sees a benefit, the demand might well be seen as a welcome opportunity" (p.135). No link was found between prosocial motives and compulsory citizenship behaviours, suggesting that when an employee feels pressured they are unlikely to feel like giving back to the organisation who they feel is coercing them.

The performance of helping and voice behaviours were found to predict job satisfaction and negatively predict job stress. Past literature has found that job satisfaction predicts the performance of citizenship behaviours (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith et al, 1983; Williams & Anderson, 1991) and postulated that this relationship was a product of a social exchange between the organisation and its employees. It was suggested that when an employee felt satisfied with their job, they would repay the organisation by the performance of citizenship behaviours (Organ, 1988). However, as postulated by this study, this relationship could also work in reverse, and that the performance of citizenship behaviours could result in the employees feeling satisfied in their job. As highlighted by Flynn (2003), employees who engage in high levels of citizenship behaviours are found to obtain higher levels of social status from their co-workers. An employee who performs citizenship behaviours may become a valued member of the team and this sense of value could result in the employee experiencing satisfaction with their job and lower levels of job stress. However, this relationship between the performance of citizenship behaviours and job satisfaction and stress may be dependent on how the employee conceptualises the behaviour. The results of this study also found that compulsory citizenship behaviours significantly predicted job stress and negatively predicted job satisfaction. These findings suggest that if an employee feels they are under pressure to perform behaviours that lie outside their job requirements, it is likely they will become unsatisfied with the situation. It was postulated that OCB motives would strengthen the relationship between citizenship behaviours and job satisfaction and stress, however, no evidence was found to support this prediction. This suggests that, excluding compulsory

citizenship behaviours, it is the actual performance of the citizenship behaviour that is more important on the outcome, rather than the motivation behind the performance. Organisations must be aware of the negative consequences that are associated with compulsory citizenship behaviours. If an organisation wants to prevent the CCBs, managers should be in complete agreement with the employees about the boundaries of formal tasks, where in role behaviours end and extra role behaviours begin. This should be done as part of the formal contract between the organisation and the employee when they are hired. These boundaries should not only be made clear to newcomers to an organisation but also to tenured employees. As mentioned by Spector and Fox (2005), the behaviours which an employee once performed voluntarily as an extra role task, could lead supervisors and co-workers expecting the employee to continue performing these behaviours, making them no longer voluntary.

Past research has found differences in the performance of OCBs by individualist and collectivist employees (Moorman and Blakely, 1995); one of the aims of this study was to identify if these cultural differences extended to the motivation behind OCB performance, the choice of citizenship behaviour and the outcomes as a result of the motivation choice. No evidence of a moderating effect of cultural orientation on the motivation and type of citizenship behaviour performed was found. However, collectivism was found to predict the performance of helping and voice behaviours. Moorman and Blakely (1995) postulated that the differences in OCB performance by collectivist employees were due to their feeling obligated to ensure the welfare of their in group. In addition, when collectivism was added to the regression, prosocial motives were no longer a significant predictor of voice or helping, and this suggested that the collectivist employee's feeling of obligation towards their in group, would go beyond the prosocially motivated employee's need to help co-workers. Perhaps collectivist employees feel the performance of helping and voice behaviours as a necessity to ensure the welfare of their in group.

The final hypothesis was supported by the findings of this study, as it found that collectivism moderated the relationship between citizenship behaviours and the outcome measures. The results show that collectivist and individualist employees have different reactions to the

performance of helping and voice behaviours. When collectivist employees increase their performance of helping behaviours, they appear to experience higher job satisfaction and lower levels of stress. However the opposite was true for individualist employees whose stress levels increased and job satisfaction levels decreased with the increase of helping behaviours. In the case of voice behaviours, it was found that individualists' levels of job stress decreased and job satisfaction increased with higher levels of voice behaviours. While the collectivist employees experienced similar levels of job satisfaction whether performing high or low levels of voice behaviours, when they performed more voice behaviour they experienced higher levels of job stress. This suggests that voice and helping behaviours are valued differently by collectivist and individualists. Perhaps, collectivists respond positively to helping behaviours because of their emphasis on maintaining group harmony (Earley & Gibson, 1998); they engage in these affiliative behaviours as they focus on maintaining the status quo (Van Dyne et al, 1995). As mentioned earlier the performance of voice behaviours could risk an employee's reputation, as the performance of voice behaviour could damage relationships and create conflict by 'rocking the boat' through challenging the existing work process (Ashford et al, 1998; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). For a collectivist, the performance of voice behaviours may appear too risky for them. While for an individualist employee, who is characterised by their independence from in groups and focusing on obtaining personal goals (Earley & Gibson, 1998), the performance of voice behaviours may be more appealing, as they aim to improve the existing work process which in turn may result in the employee being seen as an exceptionally motivated employee. If an organisation wanted to encourage the performance of voice behaviours to allow them to remain dynamic and flexible (Katz, 1964) within a majority collectivist orientated organisation, they may have to create an environment in which the collectivist employee feels safe to perform these behaviours without the fear of risking their in group harmony or their place within the in group. These findings suggest that while past research has found differences in the performance of OCBs between individualist and collectivist employees, these differences may go deeper than just differences in the frequency of performance. This stresses the importance of further investigation on the effect of culture on organisational citizenship behaviours.

No support was found for the moderating effect of impression management on prosocial motives and the performance of affiliative behaviours, which was found in the Grant and Mayer (2009) study. The lack of support for the findings of Grant and Mayer's (2009) study may be due to differences in the procedure, for example they used a different measure of helping and used a snowball sampling procedure in their second study. However, the differences in the finding may be down to differences in the culture of the samples, with Grant and Mayer's sample coming from the United States and this study's sample coming from Indonesia. While some cultural effects were found at the individual level, with differences found in collectivist and individualist performance, the overall differences in the findings between this study and Grant and Mayer's may be due to the fact that the study was performed in a country that is a majority collectivist country. Hofstede, Bond and Luk (1993) emphasised that culture related variables can be measured on multiple levels, so identifying what level of analysis is to be used is a major factor for consideration by researchers investigating the effects of culture. As mentioned in the culture chapter, researchers have to be careful when investigating culture, so they do not inappropriately cross levels of analysis (Kwantest, Karam, Kuo & Towson, 2008); this can occur when culture is measured on a national level and the cultural values are applied to all individuals of the sample or when results from a study that measures culture as an individual difference then attempts to generalize the findings on the culture as a whole. While this study was able to find that collectivist orientation (measured as an individual difference) was a significant predictor of the performance of helping and voice, we can only question if the overall findings were a result of the fact that the sample was from Indonesia. In addition, the measurement of individualism and collectivism as an individual difference also has to be considered. As mentioned before, Moorman and Blakely (1995) is frequently cited as an example of differences in the performance of OCBs by individualist and collectivist employee; these differences were found in a sample from the United States, which is an individualistic country. We must also consider the effect the overall dominant cultural orientation has on the individual differences. Does the dominant country's culture affect the response on the individual level? A future study should contain a sample from two countries (one country that is dominated by collectivism and one individualistically dominant country) and then measure individualism and collectivism on the individual level. This would allow

researchers to compare the score of collectivists within a dominantly collectivist country with collectivists based in an individualistic country and identify if the overall national cultural orientation affects the response on the individual level. For now, researchers must be careful to acknowledge the level of analysis that is used in cultural research when interpreting the results.

A potential issue within the study is the high correlation between the helping and voice scales, .93, suggesting that they may not be unique scales. Both scales were constructed by Van Dyne and LePine (1998); they reported the correlation between their self reported helping and voice scale at .63, their peer rated scale of voice and help at .78 and finally their supervisor rated measure of voice and helping at .81. The higher correlation between the self reported measure of voice and helping in this study may be due to the differences in nationality of the sample, with Van Dyne and LePine's sample coming from the United States.

This research offers important practical implications for organisations. With the finding that prosocial motives predict the performance of voice and helping behaviours, managers should attempt to create a positive working environment where employees feel they are treated fairly; which in turn could lead to a social exchange relationship between the employee and the organisation, as they feel they should 'pay back' the fair treatment they receive. This stressed the avoidance of creating compulsory citizenship behaviours, which can lead to job stress and lower levels of job satisfaction. Negotiating which tasks are in an employee's formal job role and then perhaps rewards for extra role behaviours would create an environment in which employees feel they are treated fairly and rewarded when they go beyond the call of duty. Organisations must be aware that employees can be 'good soldiers' and 'good actors' at the same time, therefore, the performance of behaviours that are perceived by managers to be impression management motives may not always be perceived as being disingenuous.

Chapter 7

Discussion

The goal of this thesis was never to reject the past findings of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) research, as meta-analyses of OCB have illustrated considerable support for this concept (Organ & Ryan, 1997; LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002; Hoffman, Blair, Meriac & Woehr, 2007; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff & Blume, 2009). Rather, the goal was to emphasise a need to broaden the scope of research, and to gain a more complete picture of OCBs in organisations. As addressed in the literature review chapter, much of the research in OCBs is based on four basic assumptions and in recent years, some researchers have begun to question these assumptions (Bolino, 1999; Bolino, Turnley & Niehoff, 2004; Vigoda-Gadot, 2006, 2007). The issues regarding the assumptions do bring up questions on the validity of OCB research, but they also emphasise the narrowing in OCB research that has occurred. The presumed positive view of citizenship behaviours has meant that much of the research has ignored any of the potentially negative aspects of OCBs. Therefore, the overall aim of the thesis was to examine OCB away from the preconceived notions and to attempt to uncover how employees conceptualise it. The secondary aim was to identify what role culture played in the performance and outcomes of citizenship behaviours. As discussed in the second chapter, the early research within psychology was limited by a lack of acknowledgment of the influence cultural differences may have. While most of the research within psychology has attempted to catch up and acknowledge the effect cultural related variables may have on psychological concepts and theories, OCB research is still somewhat lagging behind. As highlighted by Kwantes, Karam, Kuo and Towson (2008) there has been only a limited recognition on the effects of culture on OCBs. This is exemplified by culture not being listed as an antecedent of OCB in the meta-analyses by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000) and LePine et al (2002); despite researchers such as Moorman and Blakely (1995) finding differences in the performance of OCBs by individuals from different cultures. Much of the research on OCB has been based on Western samples, which may lead us to question if the findings actually represent the conceptualisation and performance of OCBs by individualistic employees, rather

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than being representative of all employees' conceptualisations of OCBs. The importance of identifying the effect of culture on OCB performance has been accelerated by the growing influence of Asia on the global economy, as the International Monetary Fund (IMF Survey Online, 2010) predicted that by 2030 Asia's economy would be larger than that of the United States and the European Union combined.

Utilizing the sequential exploratory strategy of mixed methods, this thesis sought to explore how employees actually conceptualise OCBs, away from the four basic assumptions. The findings from the qualitative approach led to the development of two quantitative studies that expanded on emergent theories. While the findings of the three studies did find some support for the four basic assumptions, the findings also highlighted the limitations posed by the assumptions.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviours as extra role behaviours

The first of the four basic assumptions is that organisational citizenship behaviours are extra-role behaviours. This first assumption comes from Organ's (1988) definition of OCBs as behaviours that lie outside of an employees prescribed job roles. However, as mentioned previously, it has come to be accepted that OCBs can be extra-role or in-role behaviours, with Morrison (1994) stating that it is more important to consider how the employee perceived the behaviour. One of the theories to emerge from the first study of this thesis took this a step further by suggesting that it may be more important to consider how both the employee and their supervisor perceive the OCB, and if these perceptions are congruent or incongruent. These congruent or incongruent perceptions of OCBs as in-role or extra-role appear to affect how citizenship behaviours are perceived and also affect the outcomes of the behaviours. The British participants in the first study provided examples in which OCBs were perceived by both them and their supervisor as extra-role behaviours, and when this was the case the behaviours had positive connotations. As both the employee and their supervisor perceived these behaviours as lying outside the prescribed job roles, it is therefore seen as a sign that the employee is a 'good solider' in the organisation who is willing to go beyond the call of duty. In

these situations, it appears that the employee has a clear understanding of what tasks are entailed in their job.

In past research, identifying cultural factors that affect the performance of OCBs, the collectivist employee has often been painted as the quintessential example of a dedicated and loyal employee, who is always willing to go beyond the call of duty for their organisation, which they perceived to be their in-group. The mixture of this characterisation of collectivist employees and study findings had lead researchers to question if organisational citizenship behaviours would even exist to these employees, as OCBs would appear to them as required components of their job role as they ensure the harmony of their in-group (Moorman & Blakley, 1995). However, the responses of the participants in the first study suggested that this may not be the actual experience of collectivist employees. Many of the Asian participants cited examples of incongruent perceptions of OCBs between them and their supervisor. They indeed felt they were obligated to perform citizenship behaviours, but not out of a sense of duty to their in-group, but rather due to perceived pressure from their supervisor. The results of the first study suggested that it is important to acknowledge that citizenship behaviours can be perceived as in-role or extra-role, but these perceptions may not be shared by co-workers or the employee's supervisor, which can affect the conceptualisation and performance of the behaviours. This perhaps could be due to Western employees having a clear idea of their prescribed job roles, while Asian employees may be uncertain of what is actually entailed in their job. In addition, the results of the first study emphasised the need to investigate further the cultural differences in the conceptualisation and performance of OCBs. As mentioned earlier, it may be that previous quantitative questionnaires addressing Asian employees' perception of OCBs as in-role or extra-role may have captured their view that the behaviours were required but missed the reason behind these perceptions.

OCBs are performed with non self-serving motives

There are many examples of OCBs performed by 'good soldiers' arising from positive attitudes or a supportive working environment. British participants in study 1, provided

examples of a more cyclical social exchange relationship with their organisation. Some employees performed OCBs out of a sense of good will to the organisation and some of the participants' organisations responded to the performance of OCB with praise and reward. Results from the third study found that the Indonesian employees' prosocial motives predicted the performance of affiliative and challenging behaviours; in addition, these citizenship behaviours also predicted job satisfaction and negatively predicted job stress. These results suggest that Organ's (1988) conceptualisation of OCBs as a response to employees' attitudes is indeed a motivation behind the performance of OCBs. However, as many researchers currently acknowledge, it is not the only motivational force behind the performance of OCBs. Many researchers have highlighted an overlap between citizenship behaviours and impression management motivated behaviours and that OCBs can be motivated by impression management tactics (Eastman, 1994; Bolino, 1999; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Bolino et al, 2004). In these cases the employee is thought of as a 'good actor' who attempts to control the image others have of them (Rosenfeld, Giacalone & Riordan, 1995). As noted from the responses of participants in study 1 and evidence from the second study, the performance of OCBs can be associated with rewards and increased social status. In addition, the first and second study suggests that employees are also able to distinguish when a co-worker is performing OCBs with prosocial motives versus performing OCBs with impression management motives. As in the first study both Asian and British participants provided examples in which they believed that a co-worker was attempting to appear as a good citizen in the organisation but was only performing the behaviour with the intention of looking good, highlighting that employees are aware that fellow employees can be 'good actors' who perform OCBs with the intention of appearing as 'good soldiers'. Often impression management behaviours are characterised as devious and underhanded or at its worst, as pseudo citizenship behaviours. While their performance can be disingenuous, they can also be used with a more positive and less underhanded purpose. Participants from the first study also cited examples in which their performance of OCBs was intertwined with impression management motives. In these cases, citizenship behaviours were used to display their skills and abilities to their supervisor or ingratiate themselves with their supervisor to prevent future negative outcomes. Participants may be aware of the benefits to their co-workers and organisation that can be gained through

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the performance of citizenship behaviours and realise that 'doing good' in the organisation can also make them 'look good'. To some extent this was supported by the third study, as prosocial motives were found to be correlated with impression management motives. Bolino (1999) and Grant and Mayer (2009) have suggested that it is most likely that employees' performance of citizenship behaviours are likely to be a mixture of prosocial and impression management motives.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the performance of organisational citizenship behaviours can also be a response to perceived pressure from co-workers or the employee's supervisor. The Asian participants in study 1 provided examples of occasions in which they felt they were pressured by their supervisor to perform citizenship behaviours and believed that refusing to perform these behaviours could potentially lead to negative outcomes, thereby making compulsory citizenship behaviours another potential motive behind the performance of OCBs. However, while the participants of study 1 alluded to impression management and compulsory citizenship behaviours as reasons behind OCB performance, the final study found that impression management and CCBs did not predict the performance of helping or voice behaviours. This suggests that the relationship between these alternative motives and organisational citizenship behaviours may be more complex than the relationship between prosocial motives and OCBs.

The performance of OCBs ultimately benefits the employee

Organ (1988) postulated that the performance of OCBs creates a positive working environment for employees. This seems to be a logical conclusion, considering the links between job satisfaction and the performance of organisational citizenship behaviours. As mentioned earlier, the performance of helping and voice behaviours was found to predict job satisfaction and negatively predict job stress in the final study. This could be due to the high social status that can be gained by high performances of OCBs (Flynn, 2003) or that the employees feel satisfied as a result of contributing to their organisation and work groups. Also, British participants from study 1 cited examples of employees being rewarded for the performance of

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OCBs, as it represented going beyond the call of duty for the organisation. However, as highlighted by Bolino et al (2004), organisations may have to be cautious in situations where OCBs appear to flourish as there are potential negative outcomes that could arise for employees. Asian participants from the first study expressed their dissatisfaction with situations in which they felt they were forced to perform citizenship behaviours. They felt they were unable to refuse their supervisors and were helpless due to a lack of control over these 'extra role' behaviours. The results of the final study confirmed the potential negative consequences of compulsory citizenship behaviours, as they were found to predict job stress and negatively predicted job satisfaction. However, prosocial motives and impression management motives were not found to predict job satisfaction or job stress. Perhaps, excluding compulsory citizenship behaviours, motives may not have a strong influence on the outcomes of OCB performance and instead, the choice of behaviour to perform has a stronger influence on the outcomes for employees. However, the motives behind OCB performance appear to have a strong effect on the co-workers who observe the performance of citizenship behaviours. The first study highlighted that the performance of OCBs can result in co-workers feeling motivated and inspired by their performance. However, the responses of some participants also illustrated that the performance of OCBs perceived to be motivated by impression management can result in distrust, a reduction in motivation and discordant teams. These findings were followed up in the second study, which found differences in perceived outcomes of organisational citizenship scenarios and impression management scenarios. Organisational citizenship behaviours were perceived to have a more positive outcome than impression management behaviours; the OCB scenarios were rated as having a great deal of benefit to the performer, their co-workers and the organisation's performance. The second study also found differences in these ratings by countries. While the ratings of the outcomes of OCB scenarios by the British and Indonesian participants were quite similar, they differed however on their ratings of impression management scenarios. It was found that the Indonesian participants rated the impression management scenarios as having more of an effect on organisational performance than the British participants. The British participants also rated OCBs as having a great deal of effect on other employees, while rating impression management as not having a great deal of effect on other employees. The gap between the

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ratings of these scenarios was much smaller in the ratings made by the Indonesian participants. Based on the findings of the first study, which found that the Asian participants tended to use impression management as a form of ingratiation to protect themselves from potential negative outcomes, it may be because of this ingratiation tactic that they are more approving of the use of impression management tactics than their British counterparts. The same effect was expected to be found between the collectivist and individualist participants; however, it was found that collectivists rated the effect of impression management and OCB scenarios on other employees with greater difference than the individualistic employees. This unexpected finding may be due to the fact that the division of participants as collectivist and individualist was between two countries, suggesting that perhaps nationality was affecting the ratings of the collectivist and individualists. The different reaction to the OCB and impression management scenarios may be due to how the participants perceived impression management tactics. As mentioned earlier, impression management motivated behaviours can be viewed as disingenuous. However, they may also be disliked by other employees because they feel threatened by the blatant display of the employee's skills and abilities, which may place pressure on the employee to increase their own performance of OCBs or OCB like behaviours.

The final study examined collectivism and individualism within one country, to identify if differences in performance between individualists and collectivists could be observed as within culture differences. While collectivism was not found to moderate the relationship between motivation and the performance of voice or helping behaviours, it was found to moderate the relationship between the citizenship behaviours and the outcome measures. Collectivist employees appear to respond positively to the performance of helping behaviours, while responding negatively to the performance of voice behaviours. Past research has suggested that employees with impression management motives may avoid the performance of voice behaviours as it may risk their reputation (Grant and Mayer, 2009). However, the avoidance, or at the very least displeasure, of performing voice behaviours may also affect collectivist employees, as they fear it may upset the status quo. In addition, collectivists may fear suggesting ways to improve organisational performance to their supervisors, as it could suggest that their superior was unaware of the issue. Individualists, on the other hand, had

higher levels of job satisfaction as their performance of voice behaviours increased, and lower levels of job satisfaction as their performance of helping behaviours increased. Individualists are characterised by a preoccupation with the obtainment of their own personal goals and with that in mind, the performance of helping behaviours, may seem like a waste of their time and energy, especially if it takes them way from working towards their goals. The performance of voice may be viewed by individualistic Indonesian employees as behaviours that make them stand out of the crowd and aid them with achieving their own goals, thereby, making them happier employees for performing them. It must also be remembered that these findings were found within a sample of Indonesian employees; this highlights that even within a majority collectivist country, individualist and collectivist employees can respond in vastly different ways to the performance of various types of OCBs, leading to positive outcomes for some and negative outcomes for others.

OCBs facilitate effective organisational functioning

Bateman and Organ (1983) believed that the performance of OCB was essential for the effective functioning of organisations. Indeed, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) postulated that OCBs "support the organisational, social and psychological environment in which the technical core must function" (p.73) which in turn encouraged more effective functioning. However, they also stated that the relationship between the performance of OCBs and organisational performance is, "typically logical and conceptual rather than empirical" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p.88). While this thesis did not investigate the effect of OCBs on objective measures of organisational performance, the results did suggest ways in which the performance of OCBs may facilitate as well as damage organisational performance. Evidence from the first and second study of the thesis suggests that when a co-worker's performance of OCBs are perceived to be genuine, it can lead to greater cooperation and harmonious and motivated teams. However, when the co-worker is perceived to have performed impression management motivated behaviours it can lead to negative outcomes through the creation of distrust amongst team members. In addition, this thesis, especially in the third study, illustrated the dangers associated with the performance of compulsory citizenship behaviours, which were

found to predict job stress and negatively predict job satisfaction. In times of economic uncertainty, employees are likely to remain in an organisation even if they perceive that they are being treated unfairly, which could result in employees retaliating with counterproductive or deviant work behaviours (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Fox, Spector & Miles, 2001). Finally, while the debate regarding the effect of OCBs on organisational performance continues, it must be remembered that the performance of OCBs does require the employee's time and energy and can take them away from their required job task, which in turn could hamper organisational performance.

Contributions to the literature

As mentioned at the start of the chapter, the aim of this thesis was to move away from the four basic assumptions of OCBs and embrace a more complete view of OCBs. The results of the three studies has emphasised some of the aspects that are missing from the literature. Changes to the definition of organisational citizenship behaviours will not mend the issues that face the research area and research cannot just concentrate simply on identifying new antecedents. Instead, as highlighted by the results of this thesis, research should instead focus on how OCBs are actually experienced. The findings have emphasised and furthered Morrison's (1994) assertion of the importance of acknowledging the differences in perception of OCBs as in- or extra-role behaviours as these differences in perceptions have a strong influence on the behaviour's conceptualisation, performance and outcome. While OCB research has acknowledged the variety of motives that can drive OCB performance, there has been little attention paid to the effects of these motives. The results from the three studies have illustrated that the motives do have an effect on organisational performance and on the employees of the organisation. Finally, the findings have also emphasised that OCBs are not always the saintly behaviours that Organ (1988) originally conceptualised; the studies have highlighted that the performance of OCBs can have both positive and negative implications. Overall, the thesis has progressed the organisational citizenship behaviour literature by presenting a more full and rounded picture of OCBs in organisations.

The thesis has also contributed to the OCB literature by advancing the understanding of the relationship between culture and OCBs. The findings have highlighted that the cultural differences in OCBs are not just a matter of differences in the frequency of performance by Asian and Western employees. The results of the three studies illustrate that the cultural differences effect the conceptualisation, motivation, and performance and can result in different outcomes for the employees. The first study found that Asian employees conceptualised OCBs differently than their Western counterparts, often viewing OCBs as forced components of their job, behaviours that would not be rewarded and refusing to perform them would result in negative outcomes for themselves. The second study found that Indonesian employees appeared to view OCBs and impression management and their effects as more similar than their British counterparts, which was suggested was perhaps due to Asian employees using impression management behaviours as a means to prevent future negative outcomes rather than for career progression purposes. In addition, the third study has highlighted that these cultural differences not only exist between cultures but also exists within cultures. The individualist and collectivist Indonesian employees responded differently to the performance of affiliative and challenging behaviours, despite working in the same organisation. These findings are especially important with the advent of multinational organisations and also within OCB and occupational psychology research, as it is no longer a matter of saying that management techniques may not be transferred from one country to another, they may not be applicable to different groups of employees within the same work environment.

Strengths and Limitations

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the aim of this thesis was to identify how employees conceptualised OCBs and in addition, to address the role culture plays in these conceptualisations. As highlighted by Kwantes et al (2008) and Hofstede, Bond and Luk (1993) the choice of which level of analysis to used is critical in cultural research. The first study of this thesis allowed for the initial exploration of any cultural differences that might be present in the conceptualisation of OCBs. Here, nationality was used as a proxy for culture.

as it was assumed that the responses of the British participants reflected the perspective of individualistic employees, and the Asian participants reflected a collectivist orientation. However, as mentioned in the chapter discussing cultural issues, a collectivist or individualistic country is simply a country in which the majority of people have a collectivist or individualistic orientation (Hui & Triandis, 1986). With differences found between the responses of the British and Asian participants in the first study, the second study of the thesis attempted to address the cultural differences by comparing country level responses with individualism and collectivism measured as an individual difference. While differences were found between the British and Indonesian employees, there were only limited findings that suggested differences between the collectivist and individualist responses. These results could suggest that only differences between countries exist and that there are very limited differences between the individualist and collectivist conceptualisation of organisational citizenship behaviours. However, due to the small sample size, rather than having British collectivists and individualists compared with Indonesian collectivists and individualists, the study compared the responses of collectivist and individualist participants regardless of their country of origin. The final study focused on just Indonesian employees, measuring individualism and collectivism at the individual level, thereby allowing identification of any within country cultural differences.

Overall, this thesis has investigated culture as a national difference, an individual difference between countries and finally an individual difference within a single country; however a number of issues regarding the investigation of culture still remain. One of these issues is the measurement of individualism and collectivism, as the results of these measures in the second and third study found that a number of participants scored towards the middle of the scale. Participants were divided into individualist and collectivist groups using a cut off point at the 50th percentile; however, this does mean that a number of the participants were closer to the median but were labelled as collectivist or individualist. In an ideal situation the sample size would be large enough to only include participants who scored in the top and bottom quartiles. In addition, there is a possibility that despite all the various sampling techniques, studies may still be missing responses from the most individualistic employees. As discussed earlier,

individualists are more concerned with the obtainment of their own personal goals and place their own needs ahead of the needs of others. It is unlikely therefore that a highly individualistic employee would respond to an appeal for participants to take part in a study, as in the participant information sheet, it would stress participants' confidentiality and anonymity. It may be that unless their supervisor is aware that they are making the effort to participate, they would see no real reason to take part. However, collectivist employees may see taking part in research as a means of helping their organisation and in group operate more efficiently, thereby making their effort worthwhile.

Another limitation of this study was the use of self report measures in the final study. Although it is logical to collect self report measures of collectivism, job satisfaction, job stress or motives for OCB performance, however, the ratings of performance of citizenship behaviours are often provided by supervisors or peers. Some researchers have criticised the use of self report measures of OCBs. However, LePine et al (2002) have advocated that researchers should use theory and logic to decide on the source of OCB ratings. Vandenberg, Lance and Taylor (2004) highlighted that reports of OCB performance are often biased. In addition, as highlighted by participants in the first study, supervisors may not always have the opportunity to directly observe an employee's performance of OCBs. Also, Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller and Johnson (2009) found that the self ratings of OCBs may be an accurate measure of citizenship behaviours that may be unobservable or difficult to be observed by others. Finally, a number of other studies have also used self reported measures of OCBs (Dineen, Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2006; Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006; Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap & Suazo, 2010).

Future Studies

With the dominance of research identifying antecedence or motives of helping behaviour, perhaps future research should identify which OCBs are most likely to facilitate organisational functioning, which behaviours benefit employees the most and which are most likely to cause negative outcomes for the organisation. Furthermore, a future study should also identify if any of these relationships are moderated by cultural related variables, extending the findings of the

final study. The results of this thesis have illustrated that there are indeed cultural differences in not just the performance but also the conceptualisation of organisational citizenship behaviours. A larger sample size would allow a multi level comparison of culture, by comparing, for example British collectivists and individualists with Indonesian collectivist and individualist employees. This is especially important with the increasingly diverse work forces that are common in many organisations, as illustrated in study 2, as 32.8% of the people that responded to the request for participants in the British organisation were not born in the United Kingdom. In addition, examining OCBs with a multi level model approach would allow for a greater understanding of the impact cultural values have on the perception and performance of OCBs. For example, a future study could expand on the findings of study 3, which found that collectivism moderated the relationship between citizenship behaviours and outcomes in Indonesian employees. If this was investigated on a multi level model, it could be discovered whether similar findings could be found in a majority individualistic country, and identify if the findings are unique to individualistic and collectivist employees in a collectivist country or experienced by all individualist and collectivist employees.

Future studies are also needed to examine the outcomes of impression management motives, as seen from this thesis, impression management motivated OCBs can be performed for a variety of reasons, from career progression to protection from future negative outcomes. More research is needed to understand under what conditions impression management motives result in the performance of genuine OCBs or pseudo OCBs. Finally, as mentioned at the start of this chapter, OCB research needs to be broadened to investigate both the positive and negative aspects of citizenship behaviours. One negative aspect of OCBs that needs more attention is that of compulsory citizenship behaviours due to the potential damage they could cause to employees and the organisation. A future study could examine the source of CCBs, perhaps the CCB from an employee's co-worker or supervisor would produce different responses to the pressure. The final study found that impression management and compulsory citizenship behaviour were correlated, and another avenue of research could examine if CCBs were intertwined with impression management motives would lessen the effect on job stress and job satisfaction. If an employee perceives the behaviours they are under pressure to perform can

improve their chance of achieving their personal goals would they be more willing to perform these behaviours?

Practical Implications

Organisations have to consider the fact that they may be managing a multi cultural workforce with different cultural orientations, even if their employees were all born in the same country. One employee who defines his job narrowly may be working alongside an employee who defines his job roles more broadly. As noted by Kwantes et al (2008) this difference in perception of citizenship behaviours as being in role or extra role differences could affect a wide range of aspects within the organisation, such as performance appraisals, reward allocations which in turn can affect employees' perceptions of justice, job satisfaction and effect employee withdrawal, and intention to leave. Research has found that there are positive connotations and outcomes from the performance of organisational citizenship behaviours; they have been found to predict job satisfaction and lower job stress. In addition, co-workers may be inspired by employees who are 'good soldiers' and be motivated to follow their example. However, before an organisation attempts to foster the performance of OCBs by any means possible they have to be aware of the possible negative outcomes that can result from the performance of OCBs. Therefore, if an organisation wants to foster the performance of OCBs and limit any potential outcomes, they should proceed with caution. Firstly, organisations should decide which types of behaviours they value in their employees. An organisation should also establish with their employee what their job role entails, establishing explicitly which behaviours are a required aspect of the job and which behaviours lie outside of their job role. By establishing this, it should prevent the rise of compulsory citizenship behaviours, an issue faced by the Asian participants in the first study. In addition, organisations may want to consider acknowledging the performance of OCBs; this can be in the form of simple praise to actual financial rewards. This may help maintain a social exchange relationship between the organisation and its employees. Organisations also need to consider the type of OCBs they want to encourage; for example, if teamwork plays an important component in the functioning of the organisation, they may prefer to encourage the

performance of helping behaviours to ensure cooperation and effective teamwork. On the other hand, an organisation may want to ensure they remain dynamic and flexible in the face of increasing competition; in this case, they may want to encourage the performance of voice behaviours as a means of improving the work process. As noted in the results of the third study, it appears that the performance of these behaviours by collectivist and individualistic employees can produce vastly different outcomes. For collectivist employees, who appear to experience stress in relation to the performance of voice behaviours, organisations may have to work to foster the performance of these behaviours. This could be done by reframing voice as behaviours that help the organisation, by stressing the importance of these behaviours and that suggesting new ways to operate, or issues with the current work process would not be detrimental to their job. Organisations must also be aware that while impression management tactics are common place in most organisations (Bolino and Turnley, 1999), they can be perceived as disingenuous by others employees which in turn can have negative outcomes for the organisation. Therefore, organisations may want to discourage their performance by creating a working environment that limits their use. As mentioned in the first study this could be achieved through smaller team sizes or objective measures of performance. These few suggestions of ways to foster the performance of OCBs while attempting to limit any negative effects, stresses the caution organisations must pay when encouraging their performance, especially as the performance of OCBs can affect so many aspects of organisational life.

Conclusion

Organisational citizenship behaviours were presented as an employee's response to a social exchange relationship with their organisation, as extra role behaviours that were performed by the employee out of a sense of good will. However, the results of this thesis have highlighted that the conceptualisation and performance of OCBs is far more complex than this original conceptualisation. OCB research has experienced vast amounts of change since its conceptualisation almost 30 years ago, there have been changes to its definitions, questions over its basic assumptions and cultural differences have been identified. However, these contradictions within the OCB literature, such as the negative implications of its performance,

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do not mean we should dismiss the construct. Citizenship behaviours still play a valuable role within organisational success, especially in changing and competitive times; organisations need employees who will go beyond the call of duty for them. Furthermore, research into OCBs need to expand our understanding of the effect of culture, as it is not simply a matter of difference in frequencies in performance; there are differences in conceptualisations, performance and outcomes. As globalisation and the advancement of technology continues, organisations need to be aware that their employees who work next to each other may have vastly different generalised belief systems and these differences can create effects that have the potential to seep into every aspect of organisational life. While the research area of OCBs continues to grow, research should not seek to develop a better definition or discover more antecedents, but instead it should focus on how it is conceptualised by those who experience it.

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Appendix 1

Interview Schedule for Study 1

The purpose of my research is to investigate employees' performance of organisational citizenship behaviours. They have been described as productive work behaviours that go above and beyond the call of an employee's duties; they are typically directed towards their co-workers or the organization. Employees who perform these behaviours are thought to be good citizens within the organisation, who perform at levels above what is formally required.

1. In relation to that definition do you think you can give an example that would fit with the definition?

   Prompt: It can be something that you have seen another employee perform

   Prompt: They can include behaviours such as working weekends, helping your co-workers

2. Why do you think _____ is an example of organisational citizenship behaviour?

3. Why did you perform _____?

   or

   Why do you think they performed _____?

4. So when you did _____ what were the outcomes for you?

Prompt: Short term and Long term outcomes

Prompt: Any positive/negative outcomes

5. What were the outcomes for the organisation?

6. Can you give me another example that you think would fit with the organisational citizenship behaviours definition?

Appendix 2

OCB and Impression Management Scenarios from Study 2

Scenario One

Read the scenario below and answer the question that follow them

Imagine that in the organisation you work for, there is a co-worker who seems to take an interest in your supervisor's personal life and compliments them on their appearance.

	A productive behaviour that goes above and beyond the call of duty for an employee	Between the two statements	Used in an effort to influence the perceptions other have of him/her		
Do you think your co-worker's behaviour is:	1	2	3	4	5

Still in relation to the scenario above, please answer the following questions

	Not at all				A great deal
To what extent do you think their actions will help improve organisational performance	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you think this behaviour will benefit the co-worker?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you think their action will benefit other employees in the organisation?	1	2	3	4	5

Scenario Two

Imagine that in the organisation you work for, you know that your co-worker arrives early to work to prepare for the day and know that he/she is willing to come in early to work if required.

	A productive behaviour that goes above and beyond the call of duty for an employee	Between the two statements	Used in an effort to influence the perceptions other have of him/her		
Do you think your co-worker's behaviour is:	1	2	3	4	5

Still in relation to the scenario above, please answer the following questions

	Not at all				A great deal
To what extent do you think their actions will help improve organisational performance	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you think this behaviour will benefit the co-worker?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you think their action will benefit other employees in the organisation?	1	2	3	4	5

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Scenario Three

Imagine that in the organisation you work for, you have noticed that your co-worker makes the results of the tasks they are responsible for sound better than they actually are

	A productive behaviour that goes above and beyond the call of duty for an employee		Between the two statements	Used in an effort to influence the perceptions other have of him/her	
Do you think your co-worker's behaviour is:	1	2	3	4	5

Still in relation to the scenario above, please answer the following questions

	Not at all				A great deal
To what extent do you think their actions will help improve organisational performance	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you think this behaviour will benefit the co-worker?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you think their action will benefit other employees in the organisation?	1	2	3	4	5

Scenario Four

Read the scenario below and answer the question that follow them

Imagine that in the organisation you work for, you know that your co-worker tries to encourage people to try new ways to improve their performance and suggests new ways to improve the company.

	A productive behaviour that goes above and beyond the call of duty for an employee	Between the two statements	Used in an effort to influence the perceptions other have of him/her		
Do you think your co-worker's behaviour is:	1	2	3	4	5

Still in relation to the scenario above, please answer the following questions

	Not at all				A great deal
To what extent do you think their actions will help improve organisational performance	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you think this behaviour will benefit the co-worker?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you think their action will benefit other employees in the organisation?	1	2	3	4	5

Scenario Five

Imagine that in the organisation you work for your co-worker tends to agree with the supervisor's opinion when talking face-to-face, even though you have heard him/her disagree with this opinion when the supervisor is not there.

	A productive behaviour that goes above and beyond the call of duty for an employee	Between the two statements		Used in an effort to influence the perceptions other have of him/her
Do you think your co-worker's behaviour is:	1	2	3	4	5

Still in relation to the scenario above, please answer the following questions

	Not at all				A great deal
To what extent do you think their actions will help improve organisational performance	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you think this behaviour will benefit the co-worker?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you think their action will benefit other employees in the organisation?	1	2	3	4	5

Scenario Six

Read the scenario below and answer the question that follow them

Imagine that in the organisation you work for, your co-worker will offers or has offered to help you or other co-workers when you or they have a heavy workload or if you/they have been absent.

	A productive behaviour that goes above and beyond the call of duty for an employee		Between the two statements	Used in an effort to influence the perceptions other have of him/her	
Do you think your co-worker's behaviour is:	1	2	3	4	5

Still in relation to the scenario above, please answer the following questions

	Not at all				A great deal
To what extent do you think their actions will help improve organisational performance	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you think this behaviour will benefit the co-worker?	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent do you think their action will benefit other employees in the organisation?	1	2	3	4	5