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The Impact of Leadership and Work Environments on OCB

The extent to which an employee exhibits organizational citizenship behavior, or any behavior, is a function of the employee's ability, motivation, and opportunity. In part, an employee's motivation and ability are determined by the dispositional factors discussed in Chapter 4. In this chapter, we focus on what a leader can do to influence an employee's motivation, ability, or opportunity to engage in OCB through the leader's own behavior or by shaping the employee's environment. Motivation determines how hard an employee will *try to* engage in the behavior, and the combination of ability and opportunity determine whether the employee *can* successfully exhibit the behavior. We identify the specific conceptual/theoretical mechanisms through which a leader can influence the motivation, ability, or opportunity for employees to exhibit OCB, and we use these mechanisms to explain why different leader behaviors and environmental factors can evoke and sustain OCB. We also discuss possible directions for future research.

Theoretical Mechanisms for Explaining the Determinants of OCB

In our view, an employee's motivation to engage in OCB is determined by how much the employee wants to engage in the behavior and/or how much the employee feels that he or she ought to engage in the behavior. The employee might *want to* engage in the behavior: (a) for the employee's sake, (b) for the sake of others (both his or her leader and coworkers), and/or (c) for the sake of the organization itself. Employees may *want to* engage in citizenship behaviors for several

personal reasons. For example, they may find it satisfying to engage in some forms of citizenship behavior, perhaps because it enhances their self-esteem to think that they are the kind of people who would engage in these behaviors (e.g., helping others) or maybe because they like to be listened to by others or to have an impact on what happens in the organization (e.g., voice behaviors). Or, employees may want to engage in the behaviors because they think they may receive recognition or other forms of rewards for it. Other reasons for employees to engage in OCB include a desire to get others to like them or to obligate others to them.

Alternatively (or perhaps in addition to *wanting to engage* in OCB), employees might feel they *ought to engage* in OCB for several reasons. These include the fact that they feel it is their personal responsibility to exhibit OCB, they believe they owe it to others (their leader or coworkers), they believe they owe it to the organization, they feel that they have a moral obligation, and/or they believe it is expected of them based on social norms. As discussed in the next section, a leader can do a number of things to influence the extent to which employees want to or feel they ought to engage in citizenship behaviors.

Leaders can also take other steps to enhance the extent to which their employees *can* engage in OCB. For example, they can select employees who have a greater ability to exhibit OCB because of their dispositional characteristics (e.g., they are naturally conscientious, altruistic, and so on). Or, they can attempt to enhance employees' ability to exhibit OCB through training or modeling forms of the behavior. This is important because even highly motivated employees may not be able to exhibit some forms of OCB if they do not have the skills that enable them to do so.

Finally, leaders can try to shape the work environment to provide greater opportunities for OCB. Indeed, it would be hard for an employee to exhibit altruism if that employee had little contact with coworkers (and therefore no opportunities to observe their need for help) or if the work rules were so inflexible that the employee was prevented from helping coworkers. Similarly, employees would find it difficult to responsibly participate in the governance of the organization or to offer constructive suggestions (i.e., civic virtue) if there were no staff meetings or other forums for doing so. Thus, leaders can potentially enhance OCB by changing the structure of the tasks employees perform, the conditions under which they do their work, and/or human resource practices that govern their behavior.

The Effects of Leadership Behaviors on OCB

Instrumental and Supportive Leader Behaviors

The path-goal theory of leadership is based on the application of the expectancy model of motivation. According to expectancy theory, people choose the levels of effort that they wish to exert at work based on their assessment that increased effort will lead to increased performance, which in turn will lead to increased levels of reward. Within this context,

The motivational functions of the leader consist of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for their goal attainment, and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route." (House & Dessler, 1974, p. 31)

Thus, effective leaders are ones who motivate subordinates by clarifying the paths by which subordinates can attain their goals and who increase personal outcomes to subordinates when these goals have been reached. These outcomes might include greater pay, promotions, and/or recognition from the leader.

House and his colleagues (House, 1971; House & Dessler, 1974; House & Mitchell, 1974) identified four types of leader behaviors that fit within the path-goal framework, but the research literature has primarily focused on only two of them. The first, instrumental leadership behavior, entails the leader's clarification of what the leader expects of the subordinates and how they should accomplish their work. The second, supportive leadership behavior, encompasses the leader's expressions of concern for the personal well-being of his or her subordinates. Although the relationships between these behaviors and OCB is not a part of the original path-goal framework, Schnake, Cochran, and Dumler (see Schnake, Cochran, & Dumler, 1995; Schnake, Dumler, & Cochran, 1993) have argued that instrumental and supportive leader behaviors may influence OCB because they are likely to be perceived by employees as helping behaviors on the part of the leader that the employees would feel obligated to reciprocate. Supportive leader behavior may be viewed by employees as helpful because it indicates that the leader is concerned and looks out for the employee's welfare. Instrumental leader behavior may be seen as helpful to employees because it reduces their uncertainty about how to do their job. Another possibility is that because these behaviors are beneficial to employees and/or reduce uncertainty, they might cause employees to like their

supervisor more, which in turn would make the employees want to help the supervisor in any way that they can (e.g., by being a good sport, making constructive suggestions, etc.). This would be consistent with research on the functional roles of attitudes (e.g., Katz, 1960), which has demonstrated that people develop positive attitudes toward objects that reduce uncertainty and enhance stability. Although this is a subtle distinction, the difference is that in the former case, employees are motivated out of a sense of obligation, and in the latter case, they are motivated because of their liking for the supervisor.

Regardless of the precise mechanism involved, much evidence supports the hypotheses that instrumental and supportive leader behaviors are positively related to employee altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996a; Schnake, Cochran, & Dumler, 1995; Schnake, Dumler, & Cochran, 1993). In the work of Schnake et al. (1993) and Schnake et al. (1995), this finding held to be generally true even after controlling for employee perceptions of pay equity, job equity, intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, self-observation, self-expectation, and self goal-setting, although supportive leadership behavior tended to have stronger relationships with OCB than did instrumental leadership behavior. In the meta-analysis reported by Podsakoff et al. (1996a), this was also generally true even after controlling for a variety of other leader behaviors and subordinate, task and organizational characteristics.

Leader Reward and Punishment Behaviors

Another way that leaders attempt to motivate their subordinates is through the administration of rewards and punishments. Sometimes leaders administer these rewards and punishments contingent upon employee performance in an effort to shape the employee's behavior. However, leaders sometimes allocate rewards and punishments for other reasons. For example, leaders may sometimes reward (or punish) employees depending on if they like (or dislike) them, regardless of how well they have performed on the job. Or, supervisors may reward employees on the basis of other factors, such as the employee's seniority, the educational degree he or she holds, or the performance of the group that the employee belongs to (as opposed to the employee's individual contribution). Thus, a leader's contingent and noncontingent reward and punishment behavior is a key motivator of employee behavior.

However, these behaviors are likely to influence employee performance in different ways. For example, when leaders provide contingent rewards in the form of praise, commendation, and social approval that is based on employee performance, they are likely to be perceived as fair. As a result, the leader may also be more likely to be trusted, because confidence in the fairness and integrity of another person is the essence of trust. In addition, because this leader behavior involves a timely assessment (e.g., through praise) of an employee's performance, it should increase the employee's understanding of his or her role in the organization and lead to reduced role ambiguity. Similar arguments could be made for contingent punishment. This is important because fairness, trust, and role clarity are thought to be key determinants of OCB (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Treating employees fairly may motivate them to exhibit OCB because: (a) it produces a sense of unspecified obligation (Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999) that is repaid with OCB, (b) it builds trust and enhances employees' confidence that contributions to the organization (perhaps in the form of OCB) will be rewarded in the future, (c) it increases job satisfaction, and (d) employees like managers who are fair and may wish to reward them through OCB for their fairness. The relationship between role clarity and OCB is more complex because role clarity would only be expected to be related to OCB if the manager defines the employee's role broadly enough to include OCB. If the role is narrowly defined, enhanced role clarity might be expected to be negatively related to OCB because the narrow role definition makes it clearer that OCB is not part of the job. However, in Chapter 6 we review evidence that suggests that managers generally define employee performance more broadly to include OCB. Thus, there are a number of reasons why we would expect leader contingent reward and punishment behavior to be positively related to OCB.

Alternatively, when leaders administer punishments on a noncontingent basis, employees will likely perceive that as unfair, causing their liking for and trust in the leader to diminish. It will also decrease employee job satisfaction and will actually increase role ambiguity. Thus, for the reasons mentioned in the discussion of contingent rewards, noncontingent punishment is expected to decrease the motivation to exhibit OCB. When leaders administer rewards on a noncontingent basis, role ambiguity increases, but this action may not necessarily be perceived as unfair and may actually result in greater liking for the leader and greater

job satisfaction. Therefore, leader noncontingent reward behavior may increase OCB because it may still (a) engender an unspecified sense of obligation that may be reciprocated through OCB, (b) increase liking for the manager and the probability that employees may wish to reward him or her with OCB, and/or (c) increase job satisfaction.

Consistent with this discussion, empirical research generally shows that that contingent reward behavior is positively related to OCB (e.g., MacKenzie et al., 2001; Pillai et al., 1999; Podsakoff et al., 1996a; Podsakoff et al., 1990) and that noncontingent punishment behavior is negatively related to OCB (e.g., Podsakoff, Bommer, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2004; Podsakoff et al., 1996a). However, several studies have failed to find a relationship between leader contingent punishment behavior and OCB and have found only weak evidence of a relationship between noncontingent reward behavior and OCB (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 1996a; Podsakoff et al., 2004).

Transformational Leadership Behaviors

In contrast to the transactional give-and-take exchange process associated with leadership reward and punishment behaviors, transformational leadership involves fundamentally changing the values, goals, and aspirations of employees so that they are intrinsically motivated to perform their work because it is consistent with their values, rather than because it is externally motivated by the expectation that they will be rewarded for their efforts (e.g., Bass 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; House, 1977; Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987; Sashkin, 1988; Trice & Beyer, 1986). For example, as noted by Kuhnert and Lewis (1987), transformational leadership “is made possible when a leader’s end values (internal standards) are adopted by followers thereby producing changes in the attitudes, beliefs, and goals of followers” (p. 653). Similarly, as Bryman (1992) noted,

Transforming leadership entails both leaders and followers raising each other’s motivation and sense of purpose. This higher purpose is one in which the aims and aspirations of leaders and followers congeal into one . . . Both leaders and followers are changed in pursuit of goals which express aspirations in which they can identify themselves. (p. 95)

A review of the leadership literature by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) indicates that transformational leaders get followers to perform above and beyond expectations by articulating a

vision, providing an appropriate role model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, providing individualized support and intellectual stimulation, and expressing high performance expectations. These forms of behavior are quite different from the reward and punishment behaviors that are typically associated with transactional leadership. Articulating a vision represents behavior on the part of a leader that identifies and expresses a clear vision of the future of the group/unit/organization. Providing an appropriate model involves setting an example for employees to follow that is consistent with both the values the leader espouses and the goals of the organization. Fostering the acceptance of group goals promotes cooperation among subordinates and encourages them to work together toward a common goal, even at the expense of their personal goals and aspirations. In other words, leaders exhibiting this behavior emphasize collective identities and encourage self-sacrifice for the sake of the group. Providing individualized support represents behavior that indicates that the leader respects subordinates, oversees their individual development, and is concerned with their personal feelings and needs. Intellectual stimulation challenges employees to reexamine assumptions about their work and to find creative ways of improving their performance. High performance expectations represent leadership behavior that demonstrates high expectations for excellence, quality, and/or high performance on the part of employees.

Articulating a vision may influence OCB through a variety of mechanisms. First, it makes action oriented toward the accomplishment of the goals seem more meaningful and important, because it shows how work behavior fits into a bigger picture and/or creates a sense that the organization is moving forward (i.e., evolving) by showing where the organization is going and how it is going to get there. This may increase job satisfaction and an employee's motivation to want to do whatever it takes to achieve the goals articulated. This leader behavior may also motivate action by helping the employee gain a clearer understanding of his or her role and by providing a sense of hope for a better future. In addition, because leaders who exhibit this behavior are likely to be perceived as more competent and predictable, they are more likely to be liked and trusted. Liking and trust for the leader should increase an employee's motivation to expend extra effort to achieve the goals articulated.

Leaders who provide an appropriate model may also motivate OCB in different ways. For example, leaders who model the behavior (including OCB) they want their employees to perform may enhance OCB

because their modeling serves to establish norms/expectations of appropriate work behavior, thus increasing the likelihood that the employees will feel they ought to exhibit OCB. The leader's modeling of the behaviors he or she thinks are important would also result in greater role clarity and increased job satisfaction for the employees. In addition, if some of the behaviors that the leader models are citizenship behaviors, the demonstration of these behaviors by the leader may enhance the ability of employees to effectively exhibit OCB. Finally, leaders whose behavior is consistent with what they say is important will be liked and trusted more than leaders who "talk the talk but don't walk the walk." Employees are more likely to be willing to expend extra effort for leaders that they like and trust than for ones they don't.

As noted earlier, leaders who foster the acceptance of group goals promote cooperation among subordinates and encourage employees to work together toward a common goal. This behavior enhances employees' sense of a shared identity (i.e., increases the salience of collective identities) and increases the likelihood that pursuits oriented toward self-interest will be voluntarily abandoned for more altruistic or collectivist endeavors in the form of employee OCB. In addition, this behavior on the part of leaders is likely to increase employees' feeling that they ought to exhibit OCB because they are more responsible to the group. Finally, leaders who foster the acceptance of group goals may enhance role clarity by telling employees that they expect them to work together for the collective good. To the extent they are successful, they will encourage employees to exhibit OCB because employees will view OCB as part of their role.

Individualized support behavior on the part of a leader should enhance OCB for the same reasons that supportive leader behavior enhances OCB. Indeed, some have argued that individualized support and supportive leader behavior are indistinguishable (Hunt, 1991), and there is empirical evidence that they are highly correlated with each other (Seltzer & Bass, 1990). Others (Bass & Avolio, 1993) disagree, maintaining that individualized support is subtly different from supportive leader behavior. Regardless of whether they are or are not different, we believe that they encourage employees to engage in OCB in the same way and for the same reasons. For example, an employee is likely to view individualized support as helpful because it is an indication that the leader is concerned for that employee's welfare, which will cause the employee to like his or her supervisor more and make the employee

want to help the supervisor in any way possible. Individualized support should also increase employee job satisfaction, especially satisfaction with the supervisor, and cause the employee to want to reciprocate in the form of OCB.

The case for why high performance expectations and intellectual stimulation should be related to OCB is weaker than for the other forms of transformational leadership behavior. High performance expectations may increase OCB if citizenship behavior is an integral part of the leader's performance expectations. Expressing these expectations increases employees' perception that they are obligated to engage in citizenship behavior. In addition, a continual focus on performance expectations could heighten employees' sense of responsibility for work outcomes and motivate them to do whatever it takes (including OCB) to achieve them. Intellectual stimulation may only relate to a few forms of OCB, such as voice behavior. Leaders who encourage employees to think about problems that they otherwise would not have thought about or to think about new ways of solving old problems may also be implicitly encouraging employees to give voice to their suggestions or recommendations. Beyond this, it is not clear why intellectual stimulation should necessarily be related to OCB. Indeed, some reasoning suggests that it would be negatively related to OCB because it may lead to decreased liking for the leader (because she or he is seemingly never satisfied) and/or less trust in the leader (because the leader's behavior increases conflict and job stress and makes the leader seem less predictable).

To date, only a handful of studies have examined the effects of transformational leadership on OCB, and they have modeled the transformational leadership behaviors differently. Two studies (Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995; Pillai et al., 1999) used Bass's (1985) MLQ measure to represent the transformational leadership construct and combined all of the leadership dimensions. Two studies (MacKenzie et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 1990) combined articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, and fostering the acceptance of group goals into a "core transformational leadership" construct and left the other dimensions as separate constructs. And one study (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996b) modeled all of the dimensions as separate constructs. All of the studies show effects of transformational leadership on OCB. Moreover, four of the five studies (i.e., all the studies except Podsakoff et al., 1996b) show effects of transformational leadership on OCB, even while controlling for forms of transactional leadership behaviors.

In addition, trust has been identified as a key mediator of the relationships between transformational leadership behaviors and OCB in all three studies in which it was examined (MacKenzie et al., 2001; Pillai et al., 1999; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Podsakoff et al. (1990) found that after controlling for common method variance, trust mediated the positive impact of the core transformational leadership behaviors and individualized support on altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, and conscientiousness. Pillai et al. (1999) reported that trust (and procedural justice) mediated the effect of the transformational leadership behaviors (as a group) on OCBs (as a group). Finally, MacKenzie et al. (2001) found that trust mediated the positive effects of the core transformational leadership behaviors and individualized support on helping and sportsmanship, and the negative effect of intellectual stimulation on these two forms of OCB.

Podsakoff et al. (1996b) examined the relationships between the transformational leadership behaviors and OCB within the context of a variety of substitutes for leadership, but they did not examine the potential mediating effects of any variables on these relationships. However, because this study contained measures of trust, job satisfaction, and role ambiguity, and because we have suggested that all three of these may serve as potential mechanisms through which transformational leadership behaviors may influence OCB, we reanalyzed the data from this study to explore this issue. In our reanalysis, we modeled articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, and fostering group goals to represent a "core" transformational leadership construct, and we modeled the other three dimensions of transformational leadership (intellectual stimulation, high performance expectations, and individualized support) as individual constructs. This treatment is consistent with the manner in which both Podsakoff et al. (1990) and MacKenzie et al. (2001) modeled the transformational leadership behaviors.

The results of our analysis (see Figure 5.1) indicated that the core transformational leadership construct was positively related to role clarity, trust in the leader, and job satisfaction, and had: (a) positive indirect effects on sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness through job satisfaction and trust; (b) positive indirect effects on altruism and courtesy through job satisfaction; and (c) a positive direct effect on altruism. High performance expectations were positively related to role clarity and had a positive direct effect on courtesy, but no direct or indirect effects on the other OCBs. Individualized support was

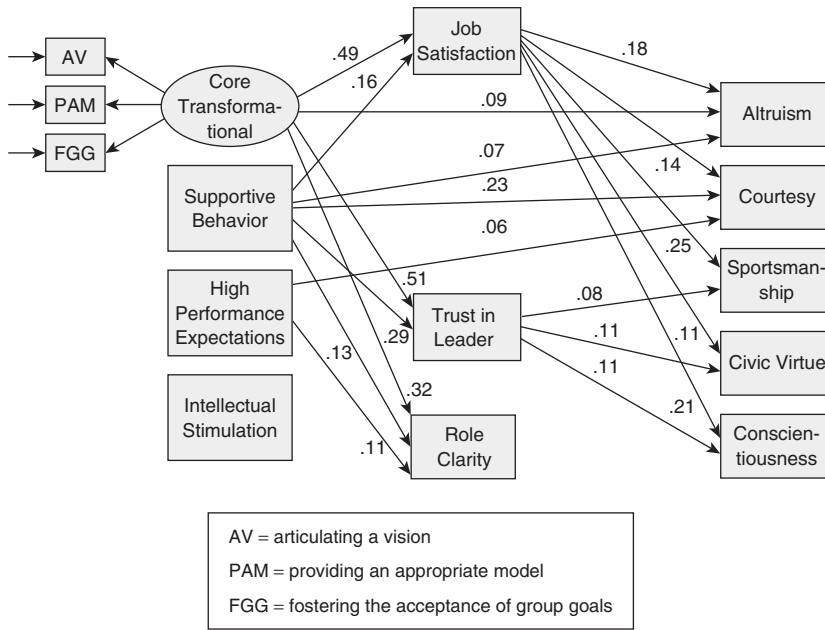


Figure 5.1 Mediators of the Effects of Transformational Leadership Behavior on OCB

positively related to role clarity, trust in the leader, and job satisfaction, and had: (a) positive indirect effects on sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness through job satisfaction and trust; (b) positive indirect effects on altruism and courtesy through job satisfaction; and (c) positive direct effects on altruism and courtesy. Intellectual stimulation was not related to any type of OCB or mediators. Thus, consistent with our expectations, these results indicate that trust in one's leader plays a key role in mediating the effects of the core transformational leadership behaviors and individualized support on OCB. The results also indicate that job satisfaction plays an important role in mediating these same relationships, even when controlling for the mediating effects of trust. This result is consistent with the theoretical statements of Organ (1988) but is inconsistent with the empirical findings of Podsakoff et al. (1990), who found that job satisfaction did not mediate the effects of transformational leadership behaviors on OCB when controlling for the mediating effects of trust. Finally, contrary to our expectations, role clarity was found to be unrelated to OCB.

Therefore, taken together, there is fairly strong evidence that trust mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB, and some evidence that job satisfaction and procedural justice do as well. However, at present, there is little empirical support for our expectation that role clarity mediates the relationship between these leadership behaviors and OCB. This is somewhat surprising. Because the evidence reviewed in Chapter 6 indicates that managers generally include OCB in their definition of an employee's overall performance, one might expect them to communicate these role expectations to their employees, thus increasing the relationship between role clarity and OCB. Of course, managers might not do a very good job of communicating these expectations to employees.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Relationships

Leader-member exchange theory is based on the assumption that leaders establish a social exchange relationship with their employees and that the nature of this exchange relationship influences the manner in which the leader treats each individual employee. Lower-quality exchange relationships between a leader and his or her employees are characterized by the leader's use of formal authority and average levels of employee performance. In contrast, high-quality exchange relationships involve mutual trust, support, and loyalty between the leader and his or her employees, enhanced levels of interpersonal attraction (i.e., liking), and bidirectional influence. Thus, employees in high-quality exchange relationships are motivated to exhibit higher levels of commitment, conscientiousness, and loyalty to their leaders in return for more favorable performance appraisals, promotions, and other rewards from their leaders. As noted by Wayne, Shore, Bommer, and Tetrick (2002), as the quality of the LMX relationship increases, OCB behavior increases:

From a social exchange perspective, a high-quality exchange may create a sense of obligation on the part of the subordinate to reciprocate in terms of behaviors valued by the supervisor. Consistent with this perspective, high-quality exchanges tend to be associated with employee behavior that benefits the supervisor and goes beyond the formal job duties (Liden & Graen, 1980). Subordinates may engage in OCB and perform at a high level to reciprocate for rewards and support provided by the supervisor, thus maintaining a balanced or equitable social exchange with the supervisor. (p. 593)

Thus, the quality of the exchange relationship motivates employees to engage in OCB by increasing their sense of obligation, desire to reciprocate, and trust in, liking for, and commitment to the leader. Although a growing body of evidence supports the hypothesized relationship between LMX and OCB (Deluga, 1998; Hui, Law, & Chen, 1999; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Tansky, 1993; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003; Wayne & Green, 1993; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997; Wayne et al., 2002), surprisingly little research has examined potential mediators of this relationship. One exception is the study by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1993) that reanalyzed correlational data reported by Tansky (1993) to examine the role of job satisfaction, fairness, and organizational commitment in mediating the effect of LMX on five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior (altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, sportsmanship, and conscientiousness). They found that LMX was positively related to employee perceptions of fairness, that fairness was positively related to job satisfaction, and that fairness and job satisfaction together completely mediated the effect of LMX on courtesy and civic virtue. In addition, LMX was positively related to altruism, sportsmanship, and conscientiousness, but the relationships were direct and were not mediated by job satisfaction, fairness, or organizational commitment. Thus, there is some evidence that fairness and job satisfaction mediate the relationship between LMX and some forms of OCB. However, it is important to recognize that the results reported by Podsakoff and MacKenzie are based on a reanalysis of data from only one study and that additional empirical research should examine in more detail the mechanisms through which LMX influences OCB.

Servant Leadership

Greenleaf (1970, 1973, 1997) originally developed the concept of servant leadership. For Greenleaf, the essence of leadership is recognizing that leaders have a moral responsibility to serve not only the needs of the organization but also the needs of their followers, customers, and society. With respect to their followers, servant leadership involves three things: nurturing, defending, and empowering. Servant leaders must attend to the needs of followers, help them to develop their capabilities, and help them to become more willing to accept their responsibilities. This requires that leaders must listen to followers, understand their needs and aspirations, and be willing to provide support to them. Rather than using power to control followers, the servant leader must

empower followers and encourage them to take responsibility for their actions. Establishing trust is a key element of servant leadership, and servant leaders do this by being honest and open with followers, behaving in a manner consistent the values they espouse, and demonstrating trust in their followers.

Greenleaf argued that followers of such leaders are inspired by the example set by their leaders to become servant leaders themselves. This style of leadership might encourage OCB on the part of followers for several reasons. First, as noted by Ehrhart (2004),

The behavior that servant-leaders model includes "serving" their subordinates by forming quality relationships with them and helping them grow and develop. Thus, units with servant-leaders should have members who will emulate this behavior in their interactions with each other and, thus, display higher levels of OCB (pp. 69–70).

This behavior should also help to establish social norms and set expectations of how members of the unit should interact.

Second, because followers observe the leader helping coworkers, they are likely to either be inspired to do the same or believe that they are expected to do the same. Third, because servant leadership involves providing personal support to followers, it would be reasonable to expect that they would be motivated to reciprocate by doing things (such as OCB) that will benefit the leader and help the leader achieve his or her goals and objectives. Finally, because servant leadership demonstrates that the leader has a genuine interest in the well-being of his or her followers, not simply as a means to the end of achieving higher performance but as an end in itself, followers are likely to trust and like servant leaders and feel they have been treated fairly. As a result, they are likely to be motivated to expend extra effort on behalf of the leader.

Despite the apparent relevance of servant leadership to organizational citizenship behavior and its longstanding presence in the literature, to our knowledge, only one study has examined its relationships with OCB. In this study, Ehrhart (2004) examined servant leadership and the procedural justice climate as predictors of OCB at the individual and unit level. He found that servant leadership influenced helping behavior and conscientiousness behavior at the individual level even when common method variance was controlled for and that these effects were partially mediated by perceptions of the procedural justice climate. He obtained similar results at the unit level, except that servant

leadership had only a direct effect on conscientiousness and did not have an indirect effect mediated by perceptions of procedural justice climate. Taken together, these results are promising because they show that servant leadership is related to OCB through perceptions of procedural justice climate, but there are several other mechanisms through which this style of leadership may influence citizenship behavior. Indeed, the fact that the mediation was only partial in Ehrhart's (2004) study reinforces this idea and suggests that future research on the mechanisms through which servant leadership influences OCB is warranted.

Leadership Empowerment Behavior

Another leadership behavior that researchers may expect to influence OCB is leadership empowerment. Researchers have conceptualized the empowerment construct in a variety of ways. For example, Spreitzer (1995) refers to empowerment as a psychological state in which individuals feel more able and competent, and Kirkman and Rosen (1997) define empowerment as a multidimensional construct that consists of the "empowered" individual feeling more "potent" and "autonomous," and his or her work having more "meaning" and "impact." Both of these conceptualizations deal with empowerment as an end state. On the other hand, Conger and Kanungo (1988) refer to empowerment not as a feeling or a result, but as a leadership behavior that fosters favorable outcomes such as follower persistence and self-efficacy. In this sense, empowerment is a "motivational construct" (Conger and Kanungo, 1988, p. 473) practiced by management with the intent of moving followers to action.

Considering the work of Conger and Kanungo (1988) and Hui (1994), we posit that leadership empowerment behaviors include enhancing the meaningfulness of the work, fostering participation in decision making, expressing confidence in high performance, and encouraging autonomy. *Enhancing the meaningfulness of work* is defined as behavior on the part of a leader that emphasizes the purpose and meaning of employees' work such that they identify themselves as being important members of the organization. *Fostering participation in decision making* means that a leader solicits inputs from employees in problem situations and invites their active involvement in the decision-making process. This includes creating opportunities for employees to express their job- or project-related opinions and to make joint decisions with their leader. *Expressing confidence in high performance* is behavior on the

part of a leader that communicates high expectations and that shows confidence in the employee's ability to meet those expectations. Finally, *encouraging autonomy* is behavior on the part of a leader that encourages employees to perform their jobs in the manner that they feel is most efficient. This is facilitated by giving employees the freedom to decide what needs to be done to perform their jobs with a minimum of managerial and organizational constraints.

Leader empowerment behaviors are expected to be positively related to OCB through a variety of mechanisms, depending on the specific empowerment behaviors. For example, when leaders express confidence in their employees, we expect that employees' perceptions of self-efficacy would increase, which would result in an increased motivation to exert extra effort, perhaps in the form of OCB. On the other hand, when leaders actively encourage employee autonomy and foster their participation in decision making, their sense of ownership and responsibility for work outcomes should increase, which will subsequently increase the likelihood that they will be willing to do whatever it takes (including OCB) to make the organizational successful. Finally, enhancing the meaningfulness of work should result in greater job satisfaction, which should lead to more OCB. Thus, to the extent that leader empowerment behaviors cause employees to become more satisfied with their jobs, more confident in their ability to perform, and to have a greater sense of responsibility for their work, employees will be willing to work harder and go beyond job-prescribed roles to make the organizational successful.

To our knowledge, only one study (Ahearne, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2004) has examined the effects of leadership empowerment behaviors on OCB, and it was conducted at the group rather than the individual level. Based on reasoning similar to that previously described, these authors hypothesized that leader empowerment behaviors would increase job satisfaction and sales team potency, subsequently resulting in more organizational citizenship behavior. Consistent with these expectations, Ahearne et al. (2004) found that encouraging autonomy, enhancing the meaningfulness of work, and expressing confidence in performance all had significant indirect effects on OCB that accounted for 58% of the variance in group-level citizenship behaviors. The effects on OCB of enhancing the meaningfulness of work and expressing confidence in high performance was mediated by both perceptions of group potency and group job satisfaction. In contrast, the effect of encouraging autonomy on OCB was mediated by group job satisfaction

only. Thus, this research suggests that leader empowerment behavior may have important effects on OCB and that it should receive more attention in future research.

The Effects of Task Characteristics on OCB

Although empirical research on the relationships between task characteristics and OCB has shown that task characteristics, like leadership behaviors, influence OCB, there has been little theoretical discussion in the literature of why this is the case. However, models of job and task characteristics (e.g., Dunham, 1979; Griffin, 1982; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Sims & Szilagyi, 1976) may provide some insights. These models have identified several task characteristics that influence employee motivation to perform the job, including task autonomy, significance, feedback, identity, variety (routinization), interdependence, goal interdependence, and the intrinsically satisfying nature of the task.

Building on the work of Turner and Lawrence (1965), Hackman and Lawler (1971) defined task autonomy as “the extent to which employees have a major say in scheduling their work, selecting the equipment they will use, and deciding on procedures to be followed” (p. 267). Task autonomy should enhance the employees’ sense of ownership and responsibility for work outcomes, thereby increasing their willingness to do whatever it takes (including OCB) to accomplish the task. Another possibility is that because autonomous tasks permit employees to have greater control, they are more satisfying (Langer, 1983). If so, this heightened job satisfaction may increase OCB. On the other hand, low task autonomy may foster learned helplessness (Seligman, 1975), which may decrease some forms of OCB (e.g., helping behavior, civic virtue, and voice).

Task identity, variety (routinization), and significance are likely to influence OCB by increasing employees’ perceptions of the meaningfulness of their work (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). According to Griffin (1982), *task identity* is the degree to which the job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work that is done from beginning to end with a visible outcome; *task variety* is the degree to which a job requires a variety of activities in carrying out the work and involves the use of several employee skills; and *task significance* is the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, whether they are inside or outside the organization. Tasks that are high in variety, significance, and identity are likely to be perceived as

more valuable and worthwhile than tasks that are highly routine, low in significance, and low in identity (i.e., tasks where the employee does not do the whole job). As a result, employees may be more satisfied and motivated to expend more energy and effort, perhaps in the form of OCB. Thus, task significance, identity, and variety can influence OCB by either increasing employees' perceptions of the meaningfulness of their work or their satisfaction with their work.

Task interdependence is "the extent to which an individual team member needs information, materials, and support from other team members to be able to carry out his or her job" (Van der Vegt, Van de Vliert, & Oosterhof, 2003, p. 717). Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) argued that task interdependence is likely to enhance OCB for a variety of reasons, including the fact that such tasks are likely to foster social norms of cooperation, make the need for collective social responsibility more salient to group members, and enhance group cohesiveness. More specifically, these authors note that

Reciprocal interdependence . . . requires frequent instances of spontaneous mutual adjustment in order to effect coordination. This requirement presumably fosters social norms of cooperation, helping, and sensitivity to others' needs and makes salient a collective sense of social responsibility (Krebs, 1970). At the same time, it tends to promote . . . higher levels of group cohesion than other task environments (Smith et al., 1983, pp. 655–656).

Building on the previous theoretical work of Smith et al. (1983) and Hackman and Oldham (1976), Pearce and Gregersen (1991) also argued that task interdependence should lead to an enhanced feeling of responsibility among group members toward the group and the organization that should motivate them to exhibit more OCB.

Another important task characteristic is its capacity to produce satisfaction and stimulate task involvement. Tasks with this characteristic (although to some extent this is really a reaction to a task rather than a property of the task itself) are called *intrinsically satisfying tasks* by Kerr and Jermier (1978). Obviously, tasks that possess this property would be expected to influence OCB through their impact on employee job satisfaction. Employees engaged in intrinsically satisfying tasks by definition find the performance of job-related activities to be more rewarding, and as a result, they are motivated to expend greater effort to achieve their task objectives.

Finally, performance feedback provided by the work itself is another property of the task that may affect OCB. Hackman and Oldham

(1976) define *task feedback* as “the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the individual obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his performance” (pp. 257–258). These researchers argued that task feedback has its biggest effect on employee performance through the knowledge it conveys to employees about the results of their effort. According to Kerr and Jermier (1978), task-provided feedback is important because it is often the most immediate, the most accurate, the most self-evaluation evoking, and most intrinsically motivating source of feedback. If a person is committed to task accomplishment, tasks that provide feedback are more self-rewarding and provide greater opportunities for improving performance through trial-and-error learning. These characteristics should enhance job satisfaction, which has been shown to be related to OCB (Organ & Ryan, 1995). We would speculate that task feedback might be more closely related to helping others with work-related problems and the aspect of civic virtue (or voice) that involves making constructive suggestions about how to improve task performance, because these behaviors may require greater knowledge of the factors contributing to task accomplishment than other forms of OCB.

Turning our attention now to the empirical data, the research evidence suggests that task feedback, task variety (routinization), and intrinsically satisfying tasks have significant positive relationships with OCB. Indeed, the meta-analysis reported by Podsakoff et al. (1996a) indicated that these three task characteristics generally explained a larger proportion of the variance in employee altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness than leader behaviors did. We previously suggested that job satisfaction should serve as one of the key mediators of the impact of all three of these task characteristics on OCB. Although we are not aware of any previous research addressing this issue, we reanalyzed the meta-analytic data published by Podsakoff et al. (1996a) to examine whether job satisfaction partially or completely mediates the impact of these three task characteristics on OCB.

As indicated in Figure 5.2, our reanalysis showed that task feedback had both direct and indirect effects (mediated by job satisfaction) on all five forms of OCB examined. Job satisfaction completely mediated the effect of task feedback on employee courtesy and partially mediated the effects of task feedback on altruism and sportsmanship. In addition, task feedback had direct effects on civic virtue and conscientiousness. A similar pattern of effects was observed for intrinsically satisfying

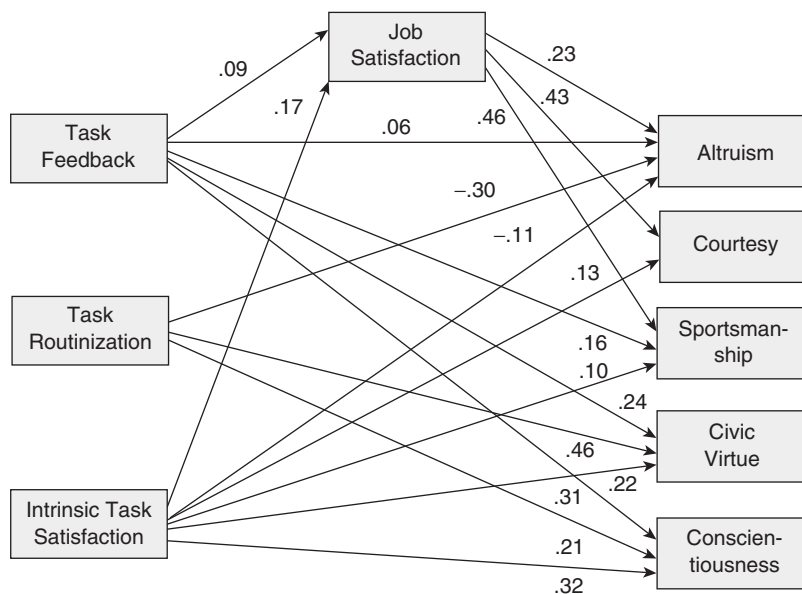


Figure 5.2 Mediators of the Effects of Task Characteristics on OCB

tasks. Job satisfaction partially mediated the effects of intrinsically satisfying tasks on altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship. Intrinsically satisfying tasks also had significant positive effects on civic virtue and conscientiousness. In contrast, none of the effects of task routinization on OCB were mediated by job satisfaction. Instead, task routinization had a direct negative effect on altruism and positive direct effects on civic virtue and conscientiousness.

Two studies (Pearce & Gregersen, 1991; Smith et al., 1983) examined the impact of task and goal interdependence on OCB. *Goal interdependence* is “the degree to which group members believe that they are assigned group goals or provided with group feedback” (Van der Vegt, Van de Vliert, & Oosterhof, 2003, p. 717). Contrary to their expectations, Smith et al. (1983) found no effect of task independence, either directly or indirectly through employee satisfaction, on either employee altruism or conscientiousness in a sample of bank employees. However, in a follow-up study conducted in a sample of health care and administrative employees in two hospitals, Pearce and Gregersen (1991) reported that felt responsibility completely mediated the relationships between both

reciprocal (task) interdependence and work independence and a measure of overall OCB. More specifically, these authors found that task independence increased group members' feeling of responsibility, work independence decreased feelings of felt responsibility, and felt responsibility enhanced OCB.

Pearce and Gregersen (1991) noted that the discrepancy between their findings and those reported by Smith et al. (1983) might be attributable to the fact that the Smith et al. study did not include a measure of felt responsibility. Another possibility is that the task interdependence measure used in the Smith et al. study was unreliable, which would have prevented this variable from being highly correlated with OCB. Indeed, the correlation matrix in the Smith et al. study indicates that the task interdependence measure was not correlated more than .08 with any of the substantive variables in the study, suggesting that low reliability may have been a problem. The reliability of the task interdependence scale may be questionable because it is fairly unusual; it requires respondents to interpret a pictogram and make a judgment of how well it compares to workflows in their unit. This possible problem suggests that additional research is needed on this topic before conclusions regarding the effects of task interdependence can be fully determined.

To our knowledge, no studies have examined the individual effects of task autonomy, task significance, or task identity on organizational citizenship behavior. However, several studies (Blakely, Andrews, & Fuller, 2003; Cardona, Lawrence, & Bentler, 2004; Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994) have examined the effect of one or more of these task characteristics, in combination with other task characteristics, on OCB. For example, Farh et al. (1990) examined the effects of these three task characteristics, in combination with task feedback and task variety, on OCB. They found that the combination of these five task characteristics (called *task scope*) had positive effects on both employee altruism and compliance, even after controlling for employees' perceptions of leadership fairness (measured by a combination of contingent reward and supportive leader behavior) and job satisfaction (measured by a combination of satisfaction with supervision and work satisfaction). In addition, their results indicate that neither leader fairness nor job satisfaction had an effect on compliance after controlling for task scope. The combination of these five task variables uniquely accounted for about 4% of the variance in altruism and 4% in compliance.

In a longitudinal study of employees working in a federal research facility, Blakely et al. (2003) examined the effects of self-monitoring behavior on OCB while controlling for the effects of a variety of variables, including measures of task autonomy, variety, significance, feedback, and identity. These researchers reported that the combination of these task characteristics had no significant effects on four measures of OCB in either time 1 or time 2 of the study, when the effects of self-monitoring, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceived organizational support were controlled.

Van Dyne et al. (1994) also examined the combined effects of all five of the task characteristics used in the Farh et al. (1990) and Blakely et al. (2003) studies on five types of OCB. In addition, Van Dyne et al. (1994) also examined the potential mediating effects of the nature of the covenantal relationship between the employee and the organization on the relationships between task characteristics and OCB. Building on Graham's (Graham, 1991; Graham & Organ, 1993) work on organizational covenants, Van Dyne et al. (1994) noted that

Political philosophy suggests that the nature of the relationship citizens have with their government is critical to their citizenship behavior. The active citizenship syndrome is based on covenantal relationship, which is characterized by open-ended commitment, mutual trust, and shared values (Bromley & Busching, 1988; Elazar, 1980; Graham, 1991; Graham & Organ, 1993; Grover, 1982). Covenants describe relationships of mutual commitment in which specific behaviors required to maintain the relationship or pursue common ends are not specifiable in advance (DePree, 1989). A covenant is "not a bargain but a pledge" (Rowley, 1962: 1515), a mutual promise by individuals to do their best to serve common values for an indefinite period. In contrast to contractual, exchange, or other instrumental relationships (Blau, 1964), covenants are existential; they focus on a state of being and involve intrinsically motivated effort rather than earning something or getting somewhere. . . . The more strongly a person identifies with the collective entity (such as a particular relationship or community) and feels valued and values the connection, the less that individual will rely on legal sanctions to resolve difficulties (Macneil, 1985) and the more he or she will be an active contributor to the community (Almond & Verba, 1963; Verba & Nie, 1972). Thus, covenant is conceptualized as a reciprocal relationship based on ties that bind individuals to their communities and communities to their members (Kanter, 1968). (Van Dyne et al., 1994, p. 768).

Van Dyne et al. (1994) then went on to argue that several task properties, such as task feedback, autonomy, completion (or identity), and meaningfulness (or significance) could be expected to influence OCB through their effects on employees' perceptions of the covenantal

relationship with the organization. For example, the authors argued that jobs that provide feedback to employees or that are made more meaningful to employees by making them aware of how their job contributes to the organization are likely to increase feelings of embeddedness in and accountability toward the organization and that that these feelings are characteristic of covenantal relationships.

Consistent with their expectations, Van Dyne et al. (1994) found a positive relationship between jobs that had higher motivating potential scores (i.e., jobs that were rated higher on autonomy, feedback, significance, variety, and identity) and employees' perceptions of their covenantal relationship with the organization. The researchers also found that the covenantal relationship generally served as a complete mediator of the relationships between the job characteristics and OCB. More specifically, they found that employees' perceptions of the covenantal relationship fully mediated the positive relationships between the job characteristics and organizational loyalty (i.e., the employee's tendency to support and defend the organization), functional participation (i.e., the employee's willingness to work beyond the level required by the organization), social participation (i.e., the employee's tendency to interact with others in the work setting), and advocacy participation (i.e., the employee's willingness to advocate change in the organization). However, the findings for advocacy participation should be qualified by the fact that the correlation between the task characteristics and advocacy participation, as well as the correlation between the measure of the employees' perception of the covenantal relationship and advocacy participation, were only marginally significant ($p < .10$) when both were entered in the regression equation at the same time. This finding suggests that neither one of these variables served as significant predictors of advocacy participation when they were both entered into the regression equation and traditional levels of significance (i.e., $p < .05$) were used. Nevertheless, taken together, the findings reported by Van Dyne et al. (1994) do provide some general support for the contention that the effects of task characteristics are mediated by employees' perception of the nature of the covenantal relationship they have with the organization.

Finally, Cardona et al. (2004) examined the relationship between task characteristics and OCB in two samples of physicians working in hospitals in Spain. These authors hypothesized that task feedback and autonomy influences OCB by enhancing affective commitment to the organization. They reported that the relationships between these

task characteristics and OCB in both of their samples were completely mediated by affective commitment and that affective commitment had effects on OCB even after controlling for the effects of normative and calculative commitment. However, common method biases (see Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) may have influenced the relationships reported in the Cardona et al. (2004) study, because all of the measures (i.e., task characteristics, organizational commitment, and OCBs) were obtained from the same source.

Although not included in most theories of task characteristics, another aspect of one's job that might influence OCB is role overload. According to Jex and Thomas (2003), *role overload* is the extent to which employees perceive the pace and amount of their work to be consistently demanding. Jex and Thomas (2003) argue that

When employees perceive that they have a demanding workload, their most likely response to this is to put all of their efforts into meeting the demands that this high level of workload presents. As a result, it is unlikely that employees would have a great deal of discretionary time. And hence there are fewer opportunities to engage in altruistic behavior to other employees. Another likely result of role overload is that employees experiencing this stressor will be less likely to devote themselves to the broader concerns of their work group. (p. 160)

This would suggest that role overload is negatively related to OCB because it reduces the amount of discretionary time available for engaging in OCB and because it reduces the employee's commitment to the group. As expected, Jex and Thomas (2003) found that overload was negatively related to employee altruism. However, they did not examine the potential mediating effects of group commitment on this relationship. Thus, future research directed at this issue may prove beneficial.

The Effects of Group Characteristics on OCB

In addition to leader behaviors and task characteristics, several group characteristics would be expected to influence OCB: group cohesiveness, the quality of the relationship between group members (team-member exchange), group potency, and perceived team support. In this section, we explore the theoretical rationale for why one might expect these group characteristics to be related to OCB and the empirical evidence of the extent to which this is true.

Group Cohesiveness

Group cohesiveness describes the affinity of group members for one another and their desire to remain part of the group. More specifically, George and Bettenhausen (1990) define group cohesiveness as

a relative property of groups that summarizes the extent to which a group coheres or hangs together (Shaw, 1981). Highly cohesive groups are characterized by heightened member attraction to the group, friendliness, mutual liking, cooperation, and positive feelings about carrying out the group's task (Janis, 1982; Shaw, 1981). Members of highly cohesive groups value their group membership and enjoy being a member of the group. (p. 700)

So, there are several reasons why cohesiveness might be positively related to organizational citizenship behavior. First, members of cohesive groups have stronger feelings of attraction toward each other than members of groups that lack cohesiveness, and therefore they are likely to be more willing to help each other when the need arises. Second, members of cohesive groups have a stronger desire to remain a part of the group, and therefore they are likely to be more careful to exhibit sportsmanship and loyalty toward other members of the group. Third, members of cohesive groups have a stronger sense of group identity than members of groups that lack cohesiveness, and therefore they are more likely to be willing to defend the group from outside threats and criticisms. Finally, members of highly cohesive groups are likely to be more satisfied (at least with their coworkers) and trust each other more than members of groups that lack cohesiveness, and consequently they may be more willing to exert extra effort in the form of OCB on behalf of their fellow group members.

In addition to the potential mediators of the relationship between group cohesiveness and OCB, George and Bettenhausen (1990) suggested that group cohesiveness may interact with group norms to influence OCB. More specifically, they hypothesize that group cohesiveness should be positively related to prosocial behavior more when the group's social norms endorse the importance of this behavior, because the pressure to conform to group norms is greater in highly cohesive groups than in less cohesive groups. Similar hypotheses regarding the potential interaction between group cohesiveness and social norms on OCB have been provided by Kidwell, Mossholder, and Bennett (1997). In addition, Kidwell et al. hypothesize that group cohesiveness may also enhance the impact of affective antecedents of OCB, like job satisfaction and commitment.

Generally speaking, the empirical evidence supports the expectation that group cohesiveness is related to OCB. For example, Podsakoff et al. (1996a) reported that group cohesiveness was significantly correlated with all five forms of OCB that they examined in their meta-analysis (altruism, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue, and conscientiousness). Importantly, this was also true for all of the OCB except for conscientiousness even after controlling for the effects of seven types of leader behavior and 12 other substitutes for leadership variables. Despite this encouraging evidence, virtually no research has examined whether liking for group members, the desire to remain a part of the group, group identity, satisfaction with coworkers, and/or trust in coworkers mediate the relationship between group cohesiveness and OCB.

However, some research has examined whether group cohesiveness moderates some of these variables on OCB. For example, George and Bettenhausen (1990) tested the simple main effect of group cohesiveness on prosocial behavior under conditions where they "had a priori reasons to believe that all of the groups endorsed a norm stressing the importance of the form of prosocial behavior under study" (p. 700). They reported that cohesiveness was related to prosocial behavior under these conditions, thus providing evidence consistent with the hypothesis that cohesiveness moderates the impact of social norms on prosocial behavior. A more direct test of the moderating effects of group cohesiveness was conducted by Kidwell et al. (1997). They found that cohesiveness at the group level influenced the effect of job satisfaction on OCB at the individual level for employee courtesy. However, they did not find support for the interaction of group cohesiveness with organizational commitment on this criterion variable. Taken together, these two studies provide some minimal support for the potential moderating effects of group cohesiveness, but more research examining a greater variety of OCB and a broader range of antecedents is needed.

Team-Member Exchange

Building on the framework of the leader-member exchange model, Seers (1989) noted that the relationships between team members (called *team member exchange*, or *TMX*) may also have an effect on the behavior of team members. According to Liden, Wayne, and Sparrowe (2000),

TMX represents an individual's overall perception of the exchanges with other members of the work group. As with LMXs, TMXs may vary in terms of the

content and process of exchange. Low TMXs are limited to exchanges required for the completion of work tasks, whereas high TMXs involve exchange of resources and support that extends beyond what is necessary for task completion. (p. 409)

Team-member exchange would be expected to enhance OCB for several reasons. First, the TMX construct itself is defined in terms of the quality of the relationship between team members, and some of the dimensions on which the quality is judged bear a strong resemblance to OCB. For example, Seers's (1989) TMX scale asks team members to rate "How often I volunteer extra help [to the team]" and "How willing I am to the finish work assigned to others." Both of these items capture the extent to which the individual doing the rating is willing to engage in helping behavior. Other items capture aspects of sportsmanship (e.g., "How flexible I am about switching jobs with others"), civic virtue (e.g., "How often I suggest better work methods to others"), and peacekeeping ("Meetings are good for resolving tension and conflict"). Second, TMX would be expected to enhance OCB because it should increase satisfaction with coworkers and perhaps with the work itself. Third, TMX should enhance OCB by increasing trust in coworkers, group cohesiveness, group commitment, and team members' general desire to exert extra effort on behalf of the team (e.g., interpersonal motivation). Finally, TMX should increase the strength of group norms for engaging in behaviors that improve the effectiveness of the group, including OCB.

In view of the many reasons that TMX might be expected to be related to OCB, it is surprising that, to our knowledge, that no research has directly tested this relationship. However, one study (Liden et al., 2000) examined the relationship between TMX and a measure of performance that included cooperation and prosocial behaviors (i.e., customer service). They found that TMX predicted performance, even after controlling for (among other variables) LMX and job characteristics. Beyond this, there is empirical evidence that TMX influences some of the mediators previously proposed, such as organizational commitment (Liden et al., 2000), satisfaction with coworkers (Seers, 1989), work satisfaction (Seers, 1989), group cohesiveness (Jordan, Feild, & Armenakis, 2002; Seers, 1989), and interpersonal motivation (Seers, 1989). However, none of these studies included any traditional measures of OCB. Therefore, research examining the effects of TMX on OCB, and the processes that mediate these effects, should be a high priority.

Group Potency

Guzzo, Yost, Campbell, and Shea (1993) define *group potency* as the collective belief of a group that it can be effective, and Kirkman and Rosen (1999) describe it as self-efficacy at the group level. Work in the self-efficacy literature argues that a major hurdle in goal accomplishment is coming to the realization that success is possible and attainable. When group members believe they will be able to achieve their joint objectives if they persevere, they will be more united and more willing to go above and beyond prescribed roles to do whatever it takes to actually reach their goals. Group members will also refuse to be derailed and will be willing to go the extra mile to tolerate less-than-ideal circumstances. They will help each other get through difficult times and support group members who are bogged down with extra work. Belief in the potency of the group will encourage group members to put the interest of the group ahead of individual interests and to do everything necessary to make the group successful, even if it means performing behaviors that are not required.

The relationship between group potency and OCB has been reported in one study (Ahearne et al., 2004), in which the authors examined the effects of group potency on group effort and OCB using data from a sample of 533 pharmaceutical sales teams. The findings indicated that group potency significantly increased OCB, but it did not increase group effort. The latter finding is surprising because one would think that increased perceptions of group potency or group efficacy would translate into greater effort. However, the findings reported by Ahearne et al. (2004) suggest that more potent teams strive to increase sales performance by working better together as a team and making each sales call count rather than by simply exerting greater effort by making more sales calls. These efforts to work together better as a team appear in the form of increased levels of OCB. Although Ahearne et al. did not expect the effects of potency on performance to be completely mediated by OCB, the fact that this was the case does not seem unreasonable, because one of the reasons that companies use sales teams is to create this type of synergy among team members.

Perceived Team Support

The final group variable that researchers have hypothesized to be related to OCB is perceived team support (PTS). According to Bishop,

Scott, and Burroughs (2000), *perceived team support* is the team-level analogue to perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986) and is defined as “the degree to which employees believe that the team values their contribution and cares for their well-being” (Bishop et al., 2000, p. 1114). Bishop et al. (2000) argue that when team members perceive that their teammates value their contribution to the team and care about their well-being, they are likely to reciprocate by putting forth greater effort on behalf of the team in the form of OCB. The authors suggest that this greater effort results from team members’ enhanced sense of commitment to the team caused by their perception of the team’s support for them. Thus, according to Bishop et al. (2000), commitment to the team mediates the effect of perceived team support on OCB.

Bishop et al. (2000) directly tested this hypothesis with a sample of 380 automotive production workers organized into 65 self-directed teams that controlled the pace of their own work, distributed tasks, and scheduled their own work breaks. Bishop et al. reported that team commitment fully mediated the relationship between perceived team support and OCB, and that this was true even after controlling for the effects of organizational commitment on OCB. Two additional studies (Bommer, Miles, & Grover, 2003; Deckop, Cirka, & Andersson, 2003) indirectly tested the effect of team member support on OCB. Deckop et al. (2003) measured team support by asking employees to assess the extent to which they were helped by other members of the team, and the researchers had supervisors rate the extent to which each person provided help to others on the team. The results indicated that the more help an individual received from other team members, the more the person was inclined to exhibit helping behavior toward his or her teammates ($r = .30$). This was true even after controlling for procedural, distributive, and interactional justice, organizational commitment, intrinsic motivation of the task, job level, and job tenure. Bommer et al. (2003) had supervisors rate the extent to which each individual in a group exhibited OCB and then examined the correlation between the rating for an individual and the average of the ratings of the other group members. They found that the average level of OCB exhibited by the group was positively correlated with the individual’s level of OCB ($r = .69$). Thus, although these are the only tests of the effect of perceived team support on OCB, they suggest that this group characteristic may be an important one to study in the future.

The Effects of Organizational Characteristics on OCB

Another major category of factors that may influence OCB is organizational characteristics. In this section, we discuss theoretical reasons why organizational characteristics like formalization, inflexibility, employee-supervisor distance, perceived organizational support, human resource practices, and organizational constraints should be related to OCB and the empirical evidence regarding these expected relationships.

Organizational Formalization and Inflexibility

Organizational formalization is often defined (Hall, 1991) as the extent to which an organization clearly specifies rules and procedures for dealing with various contingencies, whereas *organizational inflexibility* is defined as the extent to which the organization rigidly adheres to those rules and procedures. One would expect organizational formalization and inflexibility to influence a wide variety of factors, some of which may be expected to increase OCB and some of which may be expected to decrease it.

At first glance, one might expect highly formalized and inflexible rules and procedures to be disliked by employees, to reduce their job satisfaction (see Hall, 1991), and to have detrimental effects on OCB because they encourage employees to focus on formalized job procedures and requirements, perhaps to the exclusion of “extra-role” or citizenship behaviors (Organ, 1988). In addition, work rules may be so inflexible that they prevent employees from helping each other on the job or taking the initiative to implement new procedures that would improve performance. However, there may also be some compensating benefits of formalization/inflexibility. For example, organizational formalization and/or inflexibility may enhance perceptions of fairness and procedural justice because formal rules make the organization’s expectations clear (i.e., decrease role ambiguity and conflict), and inflexibility may be an indication that everyone is expected to play by the same rules, thereby increasing employee satisfaction, commitment, and trust in the organization. If this is the case, one would expect increased levels of OCB. Thus, there are reasons to believe that formalization and inflexibility may enhance OCB and some reasons to believe that they may diminish it. Which of these potential mechanisms is stronger is difficult to determine a priori.

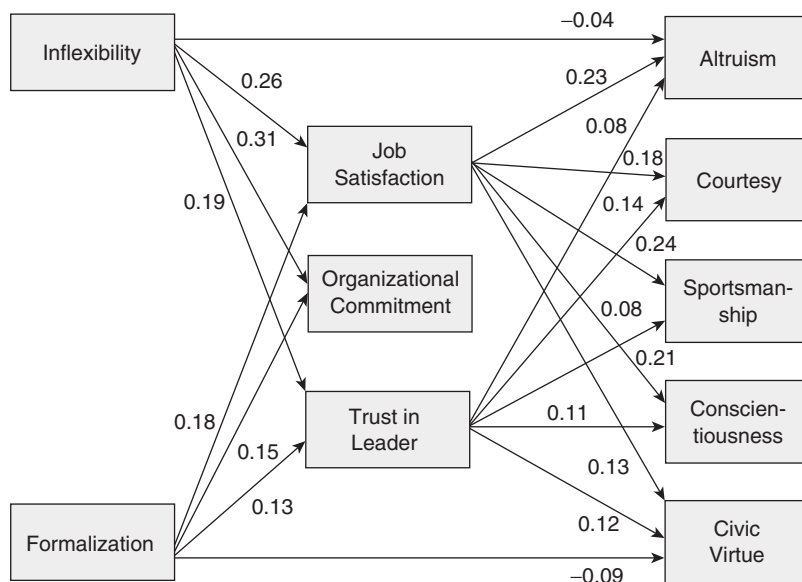


Figure 5.3 Mediators of the Effects of Formalization and Inflexibility on OCB

Unfortunately, to our knowledge, no study has examined the potential mediating effects of satisfaction, commitment, and/or trust on the relationship between organizational formalization/inflexibility and OCB. However, we reanalyzed the data published by Podsakoff et al. (1996a) to examine the potential mediating effects of these variables. We estimated a model in which organizational formalization and organizational inflexibility were hypothesized to indirectly influence OCB through their effects on employee satisfaction, commitment, and trust in the leader. The results of our analysis are reported in Figure 5.3.

As indicated in this figure, both organizational formalization and organizational inflexibility were positively related to employee job satisfaction, commitment, and trust, and they had positive indirect effects on all five types of OCB (altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue) through job satisfaction and trust. In addition, organizational inflexibility was also found to have a direct negative effect on employee altruism, and organizational formalization was found to have a direct negative effect on employee civic virtue. These latter findings are interesting because they suggest that the relationship between organizational inflexibility and employee altruism, and the relationship

between organizational formalization and civic virtue, are fairly complex. Although it is difficult to account for these complexities, it is possible to speculate that even though making everyone abide by the same set of formalized rules and procedures does make employees more satisfied and trusting of the organization (because everyone is treated equally) and subsequently enhances OCB, to the extent that these rules and procedures encourage employees to focus only on the formal requirements of their job and not deviate from them, they may decrease the employee's willingness to help others with work-related problems (altruism) and/or to play an active role in the organization (civic virtue). However, given that these results were obtained in only one study, additional research on these relationships is clearly warranted before these findings can be generalized to other research settings.

Perceived Organizational Support

Eisenberger and his colleagues (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) have noted that employers and employees have different perspectives on the nature of the employment relationship that must be reconciled if either is to achieve their goals. Because employers are generally concerned about productivity and costs, they value employees who are dedicated, loyal to the organization, productive, and less likely to quit their job. On the other hand, employees are generally more concerned about the organization's commitment to them, because being valued by the organization can lead to increased recognition, rewards, and benefits. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) suggest that one way to reconcile these different perspectives is through a social exchange process, in which employees trade their effort, loyalty, and commitment to the organization for the tangible benefits and rewards that the organization can provide. This form of social exchange is based on the norm of *reciprocity*, which obliges both the employee and the employer to reciprocate the favorable treatment they receive from each other, leading to beneficial outcomes for both.

According to organizational support theory (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), a key element for defining the nature of the relationship between the employer and employee is the employee's perception of the amount of support he or she is likely to receive from the organization (referred to as *perceived organizational support*, or POS). The theory assumes that the organization's readiness

to provide employees with the necessary aid to perform their jobs effectively, reward and recognize increased work effort, and provide for their socioemotional needs in times of stress determines employees' beliefs about the extent to which their organization values their contributions and is concerned about their well-being. The development of these beliefs result from the tendency of employees to view the treatment they receive by agents of the organization (i.e., supervisors) as an indication of the organization's intent rather than attributing these actions solely to the agent's own personal motives. After these beliefs are developed, they have the potential to influence an employee's behavior toward the organization through a variety of avenues:

Organizational support theory also addresses the psychological processes underlying consequences of POS. First, on the basis of the reciprocity norm, POS should produce a felt obligation to care about the organization's welfare and to help the organization reach its objectives. Second, the caring, approval, and respect connoted by POS should fulfill socioemotional needs, leading workers to incorporate organizational membership and role status into their social identity. Third, POS should strengthen employees' beliefs that the organization recognizes and rewards increased performance (i.e., performance-reward expectancies). These processes should have favorable outcomes both for employees (e.g., increased job satisfaction and heightened positive mood) and for the organization (e.g., increased affective commitment and performance, and reduced turnover). (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, p. 699).

This suggests that employees' perceptions of organizational support can influence OCB by increasing employees' sense of obligation and desire to reciprocate to the organization, fulfill their socioemotional needs, establish a social identity, and enhance their job satisfaction and commitment to the organization. In addition, Organ and Konovsky (1989) argued that the employees' perceptions of organizational support create a sense of trust that the organization will fulfill its obligation by acknowledging and rewarding efforts they make on its behalf, and we would expect this sense of trust to also increase employee OCB.

There is a fairly substantial amount of empirical support for the hypothesized relationship between POS and OCB (e.g., Bishop et al., 2000; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Liden, Wayne, Kraimer, & Sparrowe, 2003; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 2002; Wayne et al., 1997; Witt, 1991). Indeed, the results of the meta-analysis conducted by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) suggest that the average corrected

correlations between POS and both overall OCB or OCB directed at other individuals is .22, whereas the average corrected correlation between POS and OCB directed at the organization (after removing outliers from the analysis) is .29.

In addition to research on the direct relationship between perceived organizational support and OCB, some studies have examined potential mediators of this relationship. For example, Eisenberger et al. (2001) examined the potential mediating effect that employees' felt obligation toward the organization had on the relationship between perceived organizational support and OCB. Consistent with their expectations, they found that perceived organizational support was positively related to employees' felt obligation toward the organization and that felt obligation served as a complete mediator of the relationship between POS and employees' citizenship behavior. Eisenberger et al. also reported that POS influenced employees' affective commitment to the organization both directly and indirectly through its effects on felt responsibility. However, they did not examine the potential mediating effects of affective commitment on the relationship between POS and OCB.

Bishop et al. (2000) examined the potential mediating effects of organizational commitment on the relationship between perceived organizational support and an overall measure of OCB. They found that perceived organizational support was positively related to organizational commitment and that organizational commitment fully mediated the effects of POS on OCB. Similar results have been reported by both Liden et al. (2003) and Cardona et al. (2004). In a sample of 98 contingent (temporary) employees, Liden et al. (2003) found that organizational commitment mediated the relationship between POS and OCB and that an alternative model that included a direct path from POS to OCB did not fit their data significantly better than their hypothesized model (which did not include this path). Based on these findings, they argued that their hypothesized (fully mediated effects) model should be accepted over the alternative (partially mediated effects) model because it was more parsimonious.

Finally, Cardona et al. (2004) examined the mediating effect of normative commitment on the POS-OCB relationship in two samples of physicians working in Spain. They reported that normative commitment completely mediated the relationship between POS and OCB in both of their samples and that a two-group analysis constraining the relationships between POS and commitment and between commitment and OCB suggested that these relationships were not significantly

different across the two samples. These latter findings provide fairly compelling evidence regarding the equivalence of the mediating effects of normative commitment on the POS-OCB relationships in the two physician samples used in the Cardona et al. study. However, because all of the predictor and criterion measures used in this study were obtained from the same sources, it is difficult to know how much these findings were influenced by common method biases (see Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Williams & Brown, 1994).

Witt (1991) examined one potential moderator of the POS-OCB relationship. He argued that the relationship between employees' POS and OCB should be moderated by their exchange ideologies (i.e., their perception regarding the appropriateness of basing their concerns for the welfare of the organization on the favorability of the treatment they receive from it). More specifically, he hypothesized that the relationship between employees' perceptions of organizational support and their willingness to engage in OCB should be more positive for employees with a strong exchange ideology than for employees with a weak exchange ideology. Consistent with this expectation, he reported that, although the relationship between POS and OCB was strong and positive for employees in his sample who had a strong exchange ideology, it was weak and negative for employees who had a low-level exchange ideology. However, a word of caution regarding Witt's findings is probably in order, because his sample consisted of only 55 employees working in a small tool and dye company. Thus, the results of this study will have to be replicated in other settings with larger sample sizes before they can be generalized.

Despite the many studies that have found a link between POS and OCB, a few (Blakely et al., 2003; Lambert, 2000) have reported either no relationship or a negative relationship between POS and OCB after controlling for other variables. For example, in a longitudinal study of federal employees working in a government research facility, Blakely et al. (2003) examined the relationship between POS and four OCB dimensions (interpersonal helping, individual initiative, personal industry, and loyal boosterism). They reported that after controlling for the effects of self-monitoring, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, only the relationship between POS and loyal boosterism was significant.

Lambert's (2000) longitudinal study of 325 employees working in a manufacturing firm in the Midwest also did not support the expected positive relationship between POS and OCB. Lambert (2000) hypothesized that perceived organizational support should serve as a mediator

of the relationship between the employees' perceptions of the usefulness of the work-life benefits they received from their organization and the employees' subsequent OCB. Thus, unlike the other studies we have discussed up to this point, in which the authors were interested in the mediators of the POS-OCB relationship, in Lambert's study, POS served as a potential mediator of the relationship between another variable and OCB.

Lambert (2000) used measures of POS gathered from employees in 1991 to predict employees' submission of formal suggestions during the time periods from 1990–1991 and 1993–1994, attendance at quality meetings during a 6-month period in 1994, and self-ratings of employee interpersonal helping behavior in the 1994–1995 time period. She reported that although employees' perceptions of the usefulness of the work-life benefits they received from the organization were directly and positively related to perceived organizational support and all three forms of OCB measured in her study, POS was not related to either attendance at quality meetings or interpersonal usefulness and was negatively related to the number of suggestions submitted. These findings held true after controlling for a variety of factors, including demographic variables such as employee gender, seniority, nature of work; the number of previous suggestion submissions; previous supervisor ratings; perceived supervisor support; and the perceived usefulness of the benefits that the organization provided to the employees. Thus, although POS was found to mediate one of the three relationships between work-life benefits and OCB, the nature of the relationship between POS and the OCB in this case was the opposite of what would have been expected from prior research on the POS-OCB relationship.

Given the fairly consistent positive relationship reported between POS and OCB in previous research, it is somewhat difficult to account for the findings reported by Blakely et al. (2003) and Lambert (2000). However, Blakely et al. (2003) noted that even though the OCB scale used in their study had been used in previous research, its validity had not been established. Indeed, an examination of an initial report of the psychometric properties of the scale used in this study (see Moorman & Blakely, 1995) suggests that almost half (9 of 19) of the items in the scale had more than 50% error variance. Thus, it is possible that their measure of OCB lacked validity. In addition, Lambert (2000) offered several possible explanations for her unexpected findings: (a) organizational support may have caused employees to take the organization for granted and to feel less obligated to take the extra steps of making formal suggestions for improvement and attending quality meetings;

(b) employees who felt supported by the organization may have felt less need for improvement and thus were less likely to submit suggestions; and (c) organizational support may have been reciprocated through behaviors and attitudes not investigated in her study.

Yet another possibility for the general lack of support of the POS-OCB relationship that Lambert (2000) reported is the fairly long delay between the measurement of POS and two of the three citizenship behaviors included in this study. It appears from the description of the Lambert's study that the amount of time that transpired between the POS measure and the number of suggestions submitted and attendance at quality meetings ranged from two to three years. These fairly long periods of time may not correspond to the temporal relationships between POS and these variables. Thus, additional longitudinal research on the relationships between POS and these forms of OCB that examines different time lags may be worthwhile.

The results of the Lambert (2000) study notwithstanding, the general pattern of results previously reviewed (Bishop et al., 2000; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Liden et al., 2003; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 2002; Wayne et al., 1997; Witt, 1991) indicates that employee perceptions of the support that they receive from their organization are positively related to OCB and that their sense of obligation and their commitment to the organization are mediators of this relationship. This suggests that taking steps to enhance perceptions of organizational support may be an effective way to increase OCB.

Distance Between the Employee and Others in the Organization

Because OCB is often directed at others in the organization, another factor that may have an impact on the frequency of this behavior is the structural, psychological, and functional distance between the employee and others in the organization (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Napier & Ferris, 1993). Napier and Ferris (1993) describe these types of distances as follows:

- *Structural distance* is "aspects of distance brought about by physical structure (e.g., actual physical distance between the work spaces of the supervisor and subordinate), as well as organizational structure (e.g., the degree of centralization or span of management control) and supervision structure (e.g., the amount of task and social contact

between the supervisor and subordinate). The conceptual link which binds these variables is that they all are associated with the amount of interaction in the dyad which is allowed or encouraged” (p. 333).

- *Psychological distance* refers to the “psychological effects of actual and perceived demographic, cultural, and value differences between the supervisor and subordinate . . . [and] is hypothesized to consist of four logically related facets: demographic similarity, power distance, perceived similarity, and actual value similarity” (Napier and Ferris, 1993, pp. 328–329).

- *Functional distance* is the “degree of closeness and quality of the functional working relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate; in essence, whether the subordinate is a member of the in-group or the out-group of the supervisor. This dimension . . . describes the behavioral manifestations of distance in the functional, working relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate. The four dimensions hypothesized here to comprise functional distance are: affect, perceptual congruence, latitude, and relationship quality” (p. 337).

These types of distance would be expected to influence an individual’s motivation, ability, and opportunity to exhibit OCB. For example, when structural distance is high because an employee has infrequent contact with others in the organization and/or because the physical distance between them is great, the opportunity to engage in some forms of OCB (e.g., helping, voice, sportsmanship) may be less than when structural distance is low. Similarly, when psychological distance is high because the employee has little demographic, cultural, or value similarity to others in the organization, the employee may have less motivation or less ability to exhibit OCB than when psychological distance is low. In part, the effects of psychological distance and structural distance on OCB may be mediated by functional distance as predicted by Napier and Ferris (1993). We would expect this to be true especially for the affective (e.g., liking and trust) and relationship quality indicators (e.g., satisfaction with supervisor and satisfaction with the relationship) of functional distance. In addition, we would hypothesize that the effects of distance on OCB would also be mediated by organizational commitment, because the greater the structural, psychological, and functional distance, the less committed employees are likely to be, and commitment has been shown to be related to OCB.

Research that has examined the relationship between structural distance and OCB generally supports the notion that distance is negatively related to OCB. Indeed, Podsakoff et al. (1996a) reported that spatial distance (a form of structural distance) is negatively related to employee altruism, civic virtue, and conscientiousness, even after controlling for the effects of seven forms of leader behavior and 12 task, subordinate, and organizational characteristics. To the extent that certain aspects of functional distance overlap with some of the mediators previously discussed in this chapter (e.g., leader-member exchange relationship quality, and liking, trust, and satisfaction with the leader), we have already described evidence indicating that these variables are positively associated with OCB. However, we are not aware of any studies that have attempted to examine the relationships between psychological distance and OCB. Therefore, this might prove to be a fruitful avenue for future research.

Organizational Constraints

Organizational constraints are conditions that make it more difficult for employees to perform their jobs (Jex, Adams, Bachrach, & Sorenson, 2003; Peters & O'Connor, 1980). Such constraints might include a lack of tools, supplies, equipment, budgetary support, required help from others, training, time, and so on. These same constraints can also potentially limit the ability of employees to engage in OCB. For example, a lack of time, supplies, or training may diminish the ability of employees to help coworkers with work-related problems, responsibly participate in the governance of the organization, make constructive suggestions, and so forth. Organizational constraints may also diminish motivation to exhibit OCB. Jex et al. (2003) argue that although organizational constraints are a source of frustration,

Employees are typically expected to perform their jobs well despite being faced with constraints. Thus, it is typically in an employee's best interest to try to perform well despite these constraints. To do this, employees will typically focus on in-role behaviors and pay less attention to more discretionary extra-role behaviors. (p. 173)

This would suggest that organizational constraints should be negatively related to OCB because they motivate employees to focus greater attention on in-role behavior. However, Jex et al. qualify this prediction by arguing that they expect this to be true only when

affective commitment to the organization is low and that organizational constraints will be unrelated to OCB when affective commitment is high.

As Jex et al. (2003) predicted, organizational constraints were negatively related to altruism when employees had low levels of affective commitment to the organization. They argued that this is due to (a) the negative psychological reactions evoked by the constraints, (b) the tendency of uncommitted employees to respond to stressors by withholding extra-role behaviors rather than more highly monitored in-role behaviors, and (c) the possibility that individuals low in commitment may have narrower role boundaries and may focus more on what they perceive as in-role tasks when faced with organizational constraints.

However, contrary to their predictions, Jex et al. (2003) found that organizational constraints were positively related to altruism among those with high levels of affective commitment to the organization. The researchers speculated that when faced with organizational constraints, highly committed employees may engage in altruistic behavior to achieve their goals in spite of these constraints and/or to circumvent the constraints that they face. These results are interesting because they suggest that organizational commitment may be an important moderator of the effects of some organizational characteristics (e.g., organizational constraints) on OCB at the same time that it serves as a mediator of the effects of other organizational characteristics (e.g., organizational formalization, organizational inflexibility, and perceived organizational support) on OCB.

The Effects of Cultural Context on OCB

The majority of the research on OCB has been conducted in North America. However, given increased globalization researchers have become increasingly interested in the influence that a country's cultural context has on OCB. As noted by Paine and Organ (2000), cultural context may influence the applicability of OCB in a variety of ways:

It is possible that the cultural context itself may encourage or dissuade OCB-type performance, thus attenuating the effect of established antecedents of OCB as found in North American studies. It is likewise conceivable that national culture might influence those conditions (e.g., organizational commitment) that relate to OCB. Finally, culture might moderate the effects of antecedents (such as perceived fairness or satisfaction) that in the U.S. have been interpreted as having direct effects on OCB. (p. 46)

These authors noted that two dimensions of culture that would be expected to influence the perceptions and expressions of OCB are individualism-collectivism and power distance. Hofstede (1984) observed that individualistic cultures are characterized by loosely knit social structures in which people are responsible for taking care of themselves and their immediate families only. In contrast, collectivist cultures are characterized by tight social structures in which people distinguish between in-groups and out-groups and expect their in-group to be responsible for looking after them in exchange for their absolute loyalty to the in-group. Thus, collectivism does not necessarily imply an abandonment of concern for the individual's well-being or interest; rather, it is based on the assumption that maintaining the group's well-being is the best guarantee for the individual (Hofstede 1984).

According to Hofstede (1984), "The power distance between a boss B and a subordinate S is the difference between the extent to which B can determine the behavior of S and the extent to which S can determine the behavior of B" (p. 72). In cultures that accept a high level of power distance, the leaders have a greater ability to influence their subordinates than subordinates have to influence the leader. In contrast, in cultures where power distance is low, leaders and subordinates are more equal in their ability to influence each other.

Individualism-collectivism and power distance may influence how OCB is perceived as well as whether employees are inclined to demonstrate OCB. In addition, behaviors that appear on the surface to be the same may originate for different reasons or have different consequences. For example, collectivist cultures may be more likely than individualistic cultures to encourage behaviors that benefit the group and to view these behaviors as normative (i.e., expected). To the extent that this is true, one would expect OCB to be more common in collectivist cultures than in individualistic cultures and that OCB would be more likely to be perceived as a required part of the job in collectivist cultures.

Indeed, research by Lam, Hui, and Law (1999) indicates that participants from collectivist cultures like Hong Kong and Japan were significantly more likely to perceive the sportsmanship dimension of OCB to be a required part of the job than participants from individualistic cultures like Australia or the United States. In addition, participants from Hong Kong and Japan were significantly more likely to perceive the courtesy dimension of OCB to be a required part of the job than participants from Australia. However, no significant cultural differences were found in the extent to which the OCB dimensions of altruism,

conscientiousness, or civic virtue were seen as a required part of the job. Thus, this research provides partial support for the hypothesis that OCB is more common in collectivist cultures than in individualistic ones.

In addition, Paine and Organ (2000) argued that organizational commitment may be higher in collectivist cultures than in individualistic cultures because of the importance of the in-group in shaping perceptions of self-identity in collectivist societies. We might also speculate that collectivist cultures would have higher levels of trust in their leaders (because in these cultures people trust their leaders to provide for their well-being) and higher levels of group cohesiveness (because the values of these cultures emphasize collaboration, interdependence, and working together). If this is indeed true, these characteristics of collectivist cultures could contribute to a desire on the part of employees to perform OCB. Although this is an interesting possibility, to our knowledge there is no empirical research that has examined the relationship between this aspect of culture and these potential mediators of OCB.

Paine and Organ (2000) also noted that power distance and social stratification may affect perceptions of, and performance of, OCB. They argue that in low power distance cultures, the exchange between leader and subordinate is viewed as a social exchange, and the subordinate's perception of fair treatment in that exchange has a big effect on whether the employee exhibits OCB. Employees who do not perceive a fair exchange are unlikely to exhibit OCB. However, in high power distance cultures, employees are more likely to accept the fact that there will be differences in treatment based on criteria over which they have little control. As a result, employees may continue to exhibit OCB, even when treatment is not fair. Thus, power distance may moderate the relationship between employee perceptions of fairness and OCB.

In addition, employees may feel a greater sense of responsibility for work outcomes in cultures characterized by low levels of power distance (because the employees share power with the leader) than in cultures that are characterized by high levels of power distance (because the leader has all of the power). To the extent that this is true, it would imply that OCB may be higher in low power distance cultures. Furthermore, some forms of OCB may be more (or less) likely to occur in low power distance cultures than in high power distance cultures. For example, civic virtue (in the form of voice behavior), helping behavior, initiative, and self-development may be lower in cultures characterized

by high power distance relationships than in cultures with low power distance relationships because these behaviors may be seen as a challenge to leaders. In contrast, compliance and sportsmanship may be more common in high power distance cultures than in low power distance cultures because leaders have greater control over subordinates in these cultures.

Although we are not aware of a direct test of the moderating effects of either individualism-collectivism (IC) or power distance (PD) on the relationships between OCB and its antecedents, two studies (Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997; Hui, Lee, & Rousseau, 2004) examined the moderating effects of cultural traditionality and modernity (which are related to PD and IC respectively) on the relationships between OCB and its antecedents. Farh et al. (1997) examined the moderating effects of traditionality and modernity on the relationships between procedural, distributive, and interactional justice perceptions and OCB in a sample of Taiwanese electronics employees. According to these authors, in cultures characterized by traditionality, there is an emphasis on social ties between people and respect for authority figures. In addition, individuals occupying higher power positions are expected to have greater amounts of discretion over individuals occupying lower power positions (i.e., high power distance relationships). However, in cultures characterized by modernity, there is an emphasis on egalitarianism, open-mindedness, self-reliance, and the belief that everyone has certain basic human rights regardless of their position (i.e., high individualism-collectivism). Farh et al. (1997) went on to note that traditionality and modernity are not two ends of a continuum, and that cultures may reflect both traditionality (respect for hierarchy) and modernity (emphasis on self-reliance and individuality); in fact, they note that both of these cultural variables would be expected to moderate the relationships between employees' perceptions of fairness and OCB. They reasoned that because employees who endorse traditional values should engage in OCB according to their perceived roles in the organization and are not governed by their perceptions of whether they are treated fairly, there would be a weaker relationship between fairness perceptions and OCB for these employees than for those who endorse less traditional values. In addition, they reasoned that because employees who hold modern values believe that everyone has a right to receive rewards based on their contribution, the relationship between fairness perceptions and OCB should be stronger for those that hold these values than for those who don't.

In their study, Farh et al. (1997) measured five types of OCB, along with employees' perceptions of distributive justice, interactional justice, and two types procedural justice (the amount of participation employees are allowed to have in evaluation and reward decisions, and the presence of formal appeal mechanisms in the organization). They examined the interactive effects of the justice perceptions and traditionality, modernity, and employee gender on OCB. They reported that traditionality moderated 12 of the 20 relationships between justice perceptions and organizational citizenship behaviors, and that modernity moderated 11 of the 20 relationships between justice perceptions and OCB. Consistent with their hypotheses, they found that the relationship between perceptions of justice and OCB was stronger for groups low in traditionality than for groups high in traditionality, whereas the relationship between justice and OCB was stronger for groups high in modernity than for groups low in modernity. However, when all of the interactions between employees' perceptions of justice and traditionality, modernity, and gender were analyzed to determine which of the interactions had the strongest unique effects, they found that the interactions between traditionality and justice perceptions were generally the most potent. Farh et al. (1997) concluded that their findings regarding the moderating effects of traditionality suggest that for less traditional employees, justice perceptions are likely to stimulate OCB through the formation of a covenantal relationship of the employees to the organization, and that for traditionalists, justice perceptions are not critical because these employees establish their expressive tie to the organization through socialization concerning their role in society.

Taken together, the findings of Farh et al. (1997) and Lam et al. (1999) suggest that cultural context may, indeed, have important effects on OCB. However, because only a few studies have empirically examined the relationship between cultural characteristics and OCB, additional research is obviously needed before we can fully understand the impact of cultural variables on OCB.

Implications for Future Research

Need for Additional Research on the Key Mediating Mechanisms That Influence OCB

Throughout this chapter, we have discussed several mediators of the effects of leader behaviors, task characteristics, group characteristics,

organizational characteristics, and cultural context on OCB. The most prominent ones include trust (in one's leader or others in the organization), satisfaction (with supervision, coworkers, and the job itself), a sense of obligation or feeling of responsibility (for job outcomes, toward others, and/or toward the organization), the need to reciprocate, social norms/expectations, a sense of commitment (to the work group or organization), perceptions of fairness (procedural, distributive, and interactional), and liking for the supervisor. Although there has been a good deal of research on the relationships between some of these variables (e.g., satisfaction, trust and fairness) and OCB, we need a great deal more on the relationships between other variables (e.g., social norms/expectations, feelings of responsibility/obligation, liking for the supervisor) and OCB. Perhaps more importantly, we need much more empirical research testing which of these potential mediating mechanisms best accounts for the effects of leader behaviors, task characteristics, group characteristics, organizational characteristics, and cultural context on OCB. Beyond these commonly identified mediators, we think that it would also be worthwhile to investigate some of the less frequently studied mediators of the effects of task, group, and organizational characteristics, such as covenantal relationships, efficacy/potency, group identity, and group cohesiveness (as a mediator of the effects of other antecedents).

Are Leadership Behaviors and Group Process Variables the Cause (or the Consequence) of OCB?

In our discussion, we have assumed that leadership behaviors and task, group, and organizational characteristics enhance OCB. That is, we have assumed that these variables *cause* OCB to increase. However, because most of the research that has been reported to date has been cross-sectional in nature, it is possible that OCB may be the causal variable. For example, OCB on the part of employees might cause leaders to provide more support or encouragement to employees who help the leaders or others in the organization than to employees who do not engage in this form of OCB. This would be consistent with research (Farris & Lim, 1969; Lowin & Craig, 1968) demonstrating that subordinate task performance influences the manner in which leaders behave toward their subordinates. Likewise, it would seem logical that groups that engage in OCB directed at other group members will be more cohesive and have higher quality team-member exchange relationships

than groups that do not. This suggests that OCB may be a cause, as well as a consequence, of leadership support, team-member exchange, and group cohesiveness. Thus, there may be a reciprocal relationship between OCB and several of the “antecedent” variables discussed in this chapter. Longitudinal and laboratory research designed to examine the causal relationships between these variables would be beneficial.

What Other Implications Does Cultural Context Have for OCB Research?

Our review of the literature suggests that the majority of studies examining the antecedents of OCB have been conducted in the United States, although this has been changing in recent years. This U.S. focus to the literature raises several important questions for future research (Paine & Organ, 2000). For example, does OCB have the same meaning in other cultures, and are there different terms in other languages that describe the same phenomenon? Some evidence (Hui et al., 2004; Lam et al. 1999) suggests that the OCB dimensions of altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship captured by Podsakoff et al.’s (1990) scale are generalizable to other cultures, including Australia, Hong Kong, Japan, and China. However, research conducted by Farh et al. (1997) and Farh, Zhong, and Organ (2004) suggests that some culturally specific dimensions may exist as well. Another interesting topic for future research would be to investigate whether the antecedents and mediators of OCB differ across cultures. Indeed, Brockner (2003) has argued that examining these differences in the theoretical (mediating) mechanisms affecting important outcome variables (including OCB) is critical for understanding the effects of culture. We agree and believe that this would be an excellent topic for future research.