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Are all good soldier behaviors the same? Supporting multidimensionality of organizational citizenship behaviors based on rewards and roles

Sophia V Marinova

University of Illinois at Chicago, USA

Henry Moon

London Business School, UK

Linn Van Dyne

Michigan State University, USA

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Abstract

This article tests an integrative conceptual model of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) that combines two dominant distinctions in types of OCB (individual versus organizational target and promotive versus protective orientation). Challenging past research that has viewed OCB as unidimensional, we propose conceptually meaningful differences in the ways that employees perceive roles and rewards in relation to different dimensions of OCB. Results from four non-overlapping samples representing over 1550 employees support systematic similarities and differences between four specific types of OCB: helping, taking charge, compliance, and sportsmanship. We discuss theoretical and practical implications, emphasizing the value of future research that focuses on specific types of OCB.

Keywords

compliance, helping, organizational citizenship behaviors, rewards, role perceptions, sportsmanship, taking charge

Corresponding author:

Sophia V Marinova, Managerial Studies, University of Illinois at Chicago, 601 S Morgan Street, 2210 University Hall, Chicago, IL 60607, USA.

Email: smarinov@uic.edu

For nearly three-quarters of a century, scholars have emphasized the important influence that discretionary employee behaviors have on organizational viability (Katz, 1964). These behaviors, commonly referred to as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) (Organ, 1988; Smith et al., 1983), have elicited increased attention among researchers such that OCB-related publications increased 10-fold from 1983–8 to 1993–8 (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Concomitant with the growing interest in OCB, however, is increasing uneasiness among scholars regarding the conceptualization and measurement of OCB. Van Dyne et al. (1995) concluded that the literature had focused on antecedents and outcomes at the expense of fundamental conceptual issues. Podsakoff and colleagues' (2000) review of the OCB literature concluded that OCB research required a better understanding of the conceptual similarities and differences in various types of citizenship behavior. More recently, Organ et al. (2006) echoed these concerns and recommended that future research should continue to develop meaningful taxonomies of OCB.

Moon et al. (2005) noted that although the proposed number of dimensions of OCB has increased, empirical research on OCB has increasingly 'lumped' various OCB dimensions into a unitary construct. This divergence has created dissonance between the increasing complexity of citizenship theory and the increasing simplicity of citizenship measurement. For example, Hoffman et al.'s (2007) confirmatory factor analysis based on multiple OCB studies indicated a one-dimensional conceptualization, while other research demonstrated important differences in antecedents of specific forms of OCB (Ilies et al., 2007; LePine and Van Dyne, 2001; Van Dyne et al., 2008; Williams and Anderson, 1991).

The purpose of this article is to develop and test differential hypotheses for four general types of OCB highlighted in the 2 x 2 OCB framework introduced by Moon et al. (2005). This framework uses the distinctions of organizational versus interpersonal target and promotive versus protective focus to differentiate four fundamental types of OCB: taking charge, helping, compliance, and sportsmanship (see Figure 1). Unlike the majority of existing research that uses factor analysis to differentiate types of OCB (e.g. Podsakoff et al., 1990; Smith et al., 1983) or lists types of OCB based on conceptual definitions (Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000), the Moon et al. framework is noteworthy because it emphasizes conceptual differences in target of the behavior (organization vs individual: Ilies et al., 2007; Williams and Anderson, 1991) and orientation of the behavior (promotive vs protective: Van Dyne et al., 1995).

The main objective of the research is to go beyond documentation of differences in types of citizenship based on factor structures and instead explicate a set of systematic differences in dimensions of citizenship based on an underlying conceptual framework accounting for the degree to which they are thought to be 1) rewarded by the organization, and 2) a discretionary part of the formal job role. We conduct four studies involving data from over 1550 employees working in a wide variety of jobs in diverse organizations to assess our predictions.

Theoretical framework

OCB: Definition

Initially, organizational citizenship behaviors were defined as a set of presumably beneficial employee behaviors that were 1) discretionary in nature, and 2) not explicitly rewarded by the formal reward system (Organ, 1988). Specifically, these two characteristics were

used to distinguish citizenship from in-role job/task performance. More recent research, however, indicates the potential benefits of a more nuanced approach. First, an increasing amount of research shows that employees differ in the extent to which they view OCB as in-role behavior (IRB) versus extra-role behavior (ERB). For example, Morrison (1994) and Van Dyne et al. (2008) demonstrated that employees in the same job often differed in their role perceptions, defined as the extent a specific employee viewed a specific OCB as part of their role. Kamdar et al. (2006) demonstrated that individual differences influenced employee perceptions of the extent to which specific OCBs were viewed as in-role. Lam et al. (1999) provided evidence for differences in role perceptions across nations, supervisors, and subordinates, supporting the notion that OCBs are sometimes viewed as part of the work role. Second, research also demonstrates that OCB is sometimes viewed as rewarded by organizations. For example, even though Organ's (1988) initial conceptualization emphasized the absence of formal rewards for OCB, research demonstrates positive relationships between OCB and performance ratings (e.g. Allen and Rush, 1998; MacKenzie et al., 1999; Van Dyne and LePine, 1998; Whiting et al., 2008), as well as linkages for OCB with rewards and promotions (e.g. Allen, 2006). These results were confirmed in a recent comprehensive meta-analysis (Podsakoff et al., 2009).

In sum, although Organ initially defined OCBs as discretionary and not formally rewarded, current theory and empirical findings indicate the need for a more nuanced approach. Thus, a key contribution of our research is an explicit focus on how specific types of OCB differ in the extent to which they are viewed as in-role and/or as rewarded, a trend which represents the migration of OCB 'from discretionary to required' (Turnipseed and Wilson, 2009: 201).

OCB: Dimensions

Interpersonal versus organizational OCB An increasing amount of research differentiates OCB targeted at individuals versus OCB targeted at the organization (Spitzmuller et al., 2008; Williams and Anderson, 1991). This distinction is consistent with early OCB research of Smith and colleagues (1983) where managers described two types of positive behaviors not captured within formal job requirements: altruism, defined as helping behavior targeted directly at a specific individual, and general compliance, defined as conscientiousness targeted generally toward the organization. Williams and Anderson (1991) reinforced this distinction by contrasting OCB that benefits specific individuals (OCBI) with OCB that benefits the organization (OCBO). Research also shows differences in the nomological networks of OCBO and OCBI (Rioux and Penner, 2001) supported by meta-analytic findings demonstrating a stronger relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and OCBI versus OCBO (Ilies et al., 2007). Thus, the literature suggests that unique mechanisms drive organizationally targeted versus individually targeted types of OCB.

Promotive versus protective OCB A second important distinction in types of OCB is based on the orientation of the behavior. Based on a comprehensive and integrative review of the OCB literature, Podsakoff et al. (2000) contrasted two mechanisms through which OCB can enhance organizational effectiveness. First, OCB can facilitate change and enable the organization to adapt to its environment when unanticipated contingencies

arise. For instance, Katz (1964) in his essay on the motivational basis of organizational behavior proffered that organizations are dependent on innovative and spontaneous behaviors that help them adapt to the environment: 'The great paradox of a social organization is that it must not only reduce human variability to insure reliable role performance but that it must also allow room for some variability and in fact encourage it' (p. 132). Organ (1990) referred to these more proactive behaviors as the 'enactment of positive gestures and contributions' (p. 46). These proactive behaviors include spontaneously helping others when it is not explicitly specified as part of the job, speaking up and making constructively intended suggestions for change, and taking charge in situations where there is ambiguity and a lack of direction.

The second mechanism identified by Podsakoff et al. (2000) is OCB that has 'the quality of forbearance' (Organ, 1990: 46), which aims to protect and maintain the stability and smooth operations of the organization and ensure predictability (Katz, 1964). Continuity and predictability are important to organizational effectiveness because work is increasingly interdependent and employees must be able to rely on each other to accomplish work goals. These protective behaviors include careful attention to detail and follow-through, respect for organizational norms, tolerating small inconveniences, and facilitating resolution of conflict and differences of opinion. Finally, we note that although research that contrasts different types of promotive behavior is growing (e.g. Graham and Van Dyne, 2006; McAllister et al., 2007; LePine and Van Dyne, 2001; Van Dyne et al., 2008), additional work is needed that offers a theoretical treatment of the differences between promotive and protective forms of citizenship (Parker et al., 2006), as well as research that contrasts types of protective OCBs. Combining the two major characteristics of citizenship (interpersonal-organizational and promotive-protective) in work settings directs attention to four specific OCBs.

Helping as interpersonal and promotive citizenship behavior Organ (1988) began his book on OCB by describing how a co-worker helped him (interpersonal target) complete a challenging task, and as a result promoted organizational effectiveness (promotive focus). Helping behavior has been traditionally conceptualized as helpful work-related gestures toward co-workers (Organ, 1988; Van Dyne and Le Pine, 1998; Williams and Anderson, 1991). Organ and colleagues (2006) later emphasized helping and social exchange as crucial mechanisms that enhance organizational effectiveness. Helping a co-worker (interpersonal) promotes overall productivity by facilitating the performance of a particular individual (promotive). Furthermore, helping consists of actively engaging in cooperation and thus, goes beyond protecting the status quo to improve organizational functioning. Helping OCB includes assisting others with heavy workloads, taking the initiative to orient new employees, and assisting others in the group.

Sportsmanship as interpersonal and protective citizenship behavior Organ (1990) defined sportsmanship as willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining and later elaborated that good sports maintain a positive attitude even when things do not go their way (Organ et al., 2006). For example, some employees object strenuously to relatively small impositions, constraints, and inconveniences, whereas others are more flexible and willing to make the best of the situation. Sportsmanship is interpersonal because its proximal beneficiaries are co-workers who benefit from the maintenance of personal harmony. It is protective because it involves

not engaging in certain actions (e.g. not complaining). Organ (1990) referred to this as ‘what people refrain from doing’ (p. 47). Sportsmanship OCB includes refraining from complaining to others in the organization and serving as a peacemaker to reduce the influence of negative affective events in the workplace.

Compliance as organizational and protective citizenship behavior Organ et al. (2006) defined compliance as supporting organizational norms, with an emphasis on meeting the spirit of norms within cooperative systems. Thus, especially good attendance, avoiding excessive breaks, and being careful to focus productively on work during work hours support smooth operations within the organization. Accordingly, compliance is impersonal and focuses on obedience toward written and unwritten norms (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Specifically, compliance OCB is directed at the organization (organizational) and aims to support the status quo by carefully conforming to policies and procedures (protective). Compliance OCB includes being especially conscientious, not taking unnecessary breaks, and coming to work on time.

Taking charge as organizational and promotive citizenship behavior Morrison and Phelps (1999) defined taking charge as voluntary constructive efforts to effect organizationally functional change and emphasized its proactive, discretionary, and change-oriented (promotive) nature. In addition, taking charge is targeted at the organization because it aims to improve organizational effectiveness. Although taking charge goes beyond Organ’s (1988) initial conceptualization of OCB, it fits more recent conceptualizations of OCB that include voice, individual initiative, and making constructive suggestions (Organ et al., 2006). Taking charge includes taking initiative, speaking up with ideas for new projects (LePine and Van Dyne, 1998), and instituting new methods that promote effectiveness (Morrison and Phelps, 1999).

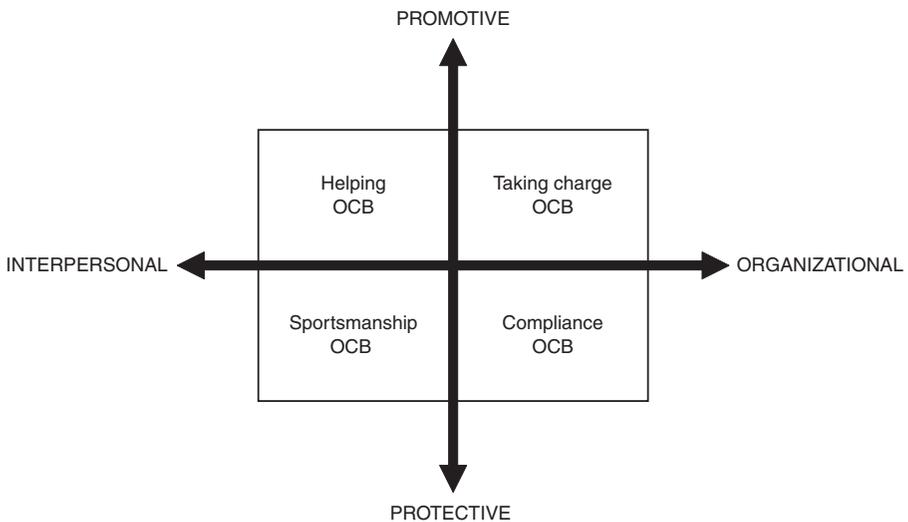


Figure 1 A conceptual framework depicting four types of OCB

OCB: Integrating definition and dimensions

Organ (1988) described two criteria for OCB: the extent to which it is viewed as rewarded, and the extent to which it is viewed as in-role. Although researchers have generally accepted the notion that there are meaningful differences in the degree to which specific OCBs are rewarded or considered in-role in organizations (Kamdar et al., 2006; McAllister et al., 2007; Morrison, 1994), research has not yet considered whether some types of OCB would be viewed as more rewarded or more in-role than other types of OCB. According to Organ et al. (2006), 'A major unresolved issue is . . . whether these forms [of OCB] that have already been identified are really distinct from each other' (p. 236). To address this issue, they urged scholars to predict and demonstrate that different types of OCB have contrasting relationships with other constructs in their nomological networks. Although research has begun to examine and demonstrate differences in the predictors and consequences of some types of OCB, it is surprising that scholars have not yet developed theoretical explanations for different relationships based on the extent to which specific OCBs are viewed as rewarded and/or in-role. Addressing this gap, we draw on these conceptual distinctions to serve as a foundation for differential predictions that support the conceptualization of OCB as multi-dimensional. It is important to note that we propose that various dimensions of OCBs differ from each other in the degree that they are perceived as in-role and rewarded by organizations, not that they are viewed as in-role or rewarded on par with classic task demands.

OCBs and rewards We return to the underlying characteristics of the Moon et al. (2005) framework in developing the logic for our proposed relationships between types of OCB and perceptions of rewards. We define rewards broadly to include implications for promotion, salary increases, and bonuses. Our basic argument is that organizationally targeted OCB is broader in scope and more directly focused on the task and the work than interpersonally targeted OCB (Williams and Anderson, 1991). Thus, supervisors, who are rewarded for accomplishing work goals and also have responsibility for determining rewards allocated to subordinates, should be especially likely to notice and value OCB efforts targeted at benefiting the organization. In addition, organizationally focused OCB signals the capabilities of employees and shows their commitment to the company in ways that should elicit positive evaluations (Shore et al., 1995).

Thus, we propose that the two organizationally targeted OCBs (compliance and taking charge) will be viewed as especially likely to be rewarded in organizations. When employees engage in high levels of compliance OCB, their behavior demonstrates conscientiousness, loyalty, and obedience to the spirit of organizational norms. Thus, supervisors can count on such employees to do their jobs responsibly and to require less monitoring. Likewise, when employees display high levels of taking charge, their initiative in working to improve procedures and speaking up with suggestions for constructive change should help supervisors to enhance efficiency and effectiveness of the unit.

In contrast, we propose that although the two interpersonally targeted OCBs (helping and sportsmanship) make important contributions to smooth work relationships (Settoon and Mossholder, 2002), these behaviors are fundamentally interpersonal, and are generally likely to be viewed as less rewarded when compared with organizationally targeted OCBs (Williams and Anderson, 1991). Although supervisors and employees undoubtedly value

helping and sportsmanship, we suggest that given the interpersonal nature of these OCBs, their instrumentality for organizational objectives may not always be as evident, thus, leading to less immediate relevance for organizational rewards. For instance, helping co-workers is not always apparent to the supervisors, and being a good sport among colleagues might go unnoticed by superiors. Moreover, investing significant time and energy in interpersonal OCB, such as assisting others (helping), can sometimes detract from the employee's own job duties (Bolino and Turnley, 2003). For instance, Bergeron (2007) applied a resource allocation perspective to OCB and argued that employees have limited time to allocate to task performance and OCB. Thus, interpersonal OCB, such as helping, reduces the resources (e.g. time) available for individual task performance, suggesting that employees may pay a price for being good citizens. In sum, owing to higher visibility and instrumentality, we predict that OCBO will be perceived as more rewarded than OCBI:

H1: Employees will view organizationally targeted OCB as more rewarded than interpersonally targeted OCB.

Returning to the other key characteristic in the Moon et al. (2005) framework, we also propose that employees will perceive differences in the rewards for promotive and protective OCB. As noted by Podsakoff et al. (2000), OCB can enhance organizational effectiveness through two different mechanisms: 1) protecting and maintaining smooth operations, and 2) facilitating change and adaptation to the environment. Given contemporary awareness that global competition creates dynamic environments, organizations increasingly recognize the importance of flexibility and continuous improvement. Promotive behaviors highlight proactive initiative of the employee (Parker et al., 2006; Van Dyne et al., 1995). Promotive behaviors show that employees actively want to make a difference and are willing to go beyond typical norms.

In sum, we predict that the two promotive OCBs (helping and taking charge) will be viewed as more rewarded than protective OCBs. When employees engage in high levels of taking charge OCB they notice opportunities to improve products, services, and processes and they speak up with suggestions for change. Likewise, when employees demonstrate high levels of helping OCB, they voluntarily assist newcomers learning their jobs and pitch in to help others with their work. In both cases these promotive behaviors illustrate especially high levels of initiative that should facilitate effectiveness in dynamic organizational contexts.

On the other hand, although supervisors and employees most likely recognize that compliance OCB and sportsmanship OCB are beneficial, we propose that the less proactive nature of these protective behaviors will cause employees to view them as less rewarded. In other words, we expect that employees will view protective behaviors as more routine than promotive behaviors because they protect and maintain the status quo. Also, conforming to the spirit of cooperative norms (compliance) and tolerating less than ideal circumstances (sportsmanship) are more easily overlooked and sometimes invisible to others. Hence, we predict:

H2: Employees will view promotive OCB as more rewarded than protective OCB.

Looking more closely at specific characteristics of the four types of OCB, we now focus on the unique characteristics of taking charge OCB. Competitive pressures have caused

many organizations to downsize and consolidate jobs while at the same time rewarding employees for demonstrating initiative and creativity in working toward organizational goals (Frese and Fay, 2001). This is consistent with the emphasis Morrison and Phelps (1999) and Parker et al. (2006) placed on initiative and proactivity in organizations. For instance, Crant (2000) summarized research on proactive behavior and concluded that proactive behavior enhances career success (e.g. salary, number of promotions over a career span). Grant and Ashford (2008) provided an integrative framework of proactivity at work and reviewed research suggesting that proactivity is increasingly reinforced in work organizations. Combining these arguments, we propose that because taking charge is both promotive and organizational in focus, the additive benefits of both characteristics should cause employees to view it as the most highly rewarded of the four types of OCB in the framework.

Looking at the three remaining types of OCB in the framework, we note that helping is promotive (but not organizational) and compliance is organizational (but not promotive). Thus, helping and compliance are characterized by one of the two most highly valued aspects of OCB. For this reason, we propose that they will be viewed as relatively equal in rewards, but less rewarded than taking charge. Finally, we predict that sportsmanship will be the least noticed, recognized, and rewarded because it is neither promotive nor organizational. Although being a good sport smoothes interpersonal relationships and contributes to continuity and stability of operations, sportsmanship is least likely to attract special attention and hence least likely to be viewed as rewarded. In sum, we propose:

H3a: Employees will view taking charge OCB as more rewarded than either helping OCB or compliance OCB.

H3b: Employees will view helping OCB and compliance OCB as more rewarded than sportsmanship OCB.

OCBs and roles Roles represent the set of expected recurring behaviors that facilitate organizational functioning by ensuring predictability. Roles are tied to job descriptions, but they are also more fluid than job descriptions because they are socially-constructed and context dependent (Biddle, 1979; Graen, 1976). Research demonstrates that OCBs cannot be reliably categorized as extra-role. On the contrary, Morrison (1994) found that supervisors and employees often defined OCBs as part of expected role behaviors. Since then, studies have shown that employees differ in their role perceptions and that OCB is more likely when it is viewed as in-role (McAllister et al., 2007; Van Dyne et al., 2008).

To date, however, although research increasingly contrasts correlates of different types of OCB (e.g. Parker et al., 2006; Van Dyne et al., 2008), we are not aware of theoretical or empirical research that focuses specifically on the extent to which contrasting types of OCB are viewed as in-role. Acknowledging the importance of role perceptions and responding to this gap, we now draw on the axes of the framework (individual-organizational and promotive-protective) to propose that the same behaviors that are viewed as more rewarded (organizational and promotive) will also be viewed as more in-role. Our basic argument is that perceptions of rewards and roles will tend to converge over time such that more rewarded behaviors will also be viewed as more in-role.

Specifically, we draw on role theory to argue that rewarded behaviors are viewed as more central to the job (Biddle, 1979). According to Graen (1976), roles emerge in an interdependent role system model where role demands are generated by situational demands, social/role-set demands (e.g. co-workers and supervisors), and personal demands. Thus, subjective perceptions of roles evolve. Since rewards send strong signals about behaviors that are valued, rewards reinforce behaviors and would cause employees to view rewarded behaviors as more in-role.

Applied to the OCB framework, we predict that organizationally targeted OCB will be viewed as more rewarded than interpersonally targeted OCB, and accordingly viewed as more in-role. In addition, we expect that managers will clearly communicate that organizationally targeted OCBs are important because they are necessary for organizational survival and success. In contrast, since interpersonal OCBs are more idiosyncratic and based on personal relationships (Ilies et al., 2007), we expect they will be viewed as less enforceable and less in-role compared with organizationally targeted OCBs:

H4: Employees will view organizationally targeted OCB as more in-role than interpersonally targeted OCB.

In parallel fashion to Hypothesis 2, we expect that employees will view promotive OCB as more in-role than protective OCB. Promotive behaviors are based on proactive initiative (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Since contemporary organizations tend to emphasize promotive behaviors as a source of competitive advantage, managers often work to increase employee perceptions of the breadth of their roles (Welbourne et al., 1998) and their role breadth self-efficacy (Parker et al., 2006). For example, Seibert and colleagues (2004) identified empowerment climate as one way to increase employee feelings of accountability. In contrast, since protective OCBs are less proactive, managers should be more likely to take them for granted and they will be more likely to emphasize promotive OCB as a role expectation:

H5: Employees will view promotive OCB as more in-role than protective OCB.

For our final predictions, we again use the framework to guide hypotheses on differences in employee perceptions of the extent to which each of the four types of OCB is viewed as in-role. In parallel with Hypothesis 3a, we view taking charge as having a unique combination of characteristics as it is both organizational and promotive – two characteristics increasingly emphasized in contemporary work organizations. As observed by Organ et al., this type of OCB is the most difficult to distinguish from in-role behavior, ‘because it differs more in degree than in kind’ (2006: 310). Accordingly, we predict that taking charge OCB will be viewed as the most in-role of the four types of OCB, owing to the additive combination of being organizational and promotive.

Helping and compliance each have one of the two key aspects of taking charge (helping is promotive and compliance is organizational). Consequently, we propose that helping and taking charge will be viewed as relatively similar in terms of in-role perceptions, but less in-role than taking charge, which is both promotive and organizational. Lastly, since it is interpersonal and protective we expect that sportsmanship is most likely to be viewed as a matter of personal choice. Thus, we propose it will be viewed as the least in-role:

H6a: Employees will view taking charge OCB as more in-role than either helping OCB or compliance OCB.

H6b: Employees will view helping OCB and compliance OCB as more in-role than sportsmanship OCB.

Method

Sample and procedure

We tested our hypotheses with data from four non-overlapping samples of employees enrolled in eight evening MBA classes (focal employees) at a large Mid-Atlantic university located in the US and their co-workers (total $n = 1555$). All participants were employed in organizations. To gain access to observer perspectives on OCB, focal employees were asked to approach random co-worker(s) and request their voluntary participation. All participants were reassured that all responses would be confidential and never be disclosed to anyone. Focal employees handed their completed questionnaires directly to researchers. Co-workers returned their responses in business reply envelopes addressed directly to the researchers. Employees worked in a wide range of organizations and held jobs in management, engineering, finance, hi-tech, sales, and government. Participation in the research was voluntary and participants had the right to withdraw at any time.

To increase the range of individuals surveyed and avoid common source bias, each sample was non-overlapping and addressed a different set of relationships. We used sample one data to conduct an exploratory factor analysis of the 20 items extracted from the OCB literature by Moon et al. (2005) that represent the four types of OCB in their framework. With sample two data, we examined a series of confirmatory factor analyses models. In the final two samples, we considered the substantive relationships proposed in our hypotheses. Sample three assessed the extent to which OCBs were viewed as rewarded and sample four assessed the extent to which OCBs were viewed as part of the role. Representative descriptive statistics show that respondents had an average age of 30.7 years ($SD = 6.88$), 2.33 years ($SD = 2.61$) of job-specific experience with their present employer, 4.10 years ($SD = 4.52$) of overall work experience in their organizations, and 6.27 years ($SD = 5.27$) years of general work experience in the occupation. Further, most respondents were male (67.6%), and 69.6 percent were White/Caucasian followed by 9.2 percent Asian, 7.7 percent Indian/Middle-Eastern, 6.2 percent African American, 4.9 percent Hispanic/Latino, and the remaining 2.3 percent Other.

Sample one: Exploratory factor analysis We obtained data from 268 employees for this sample; 141 of the final responses were from employees who were also enrolled as students (response rate of 83.4%). Participants rated the OCB of a specific co-worker using 20 items recommended by Moon et al. (2005) taken from existing OCB scales (Bennett and Robinson, 2000; MacKenzie et al., 1999; Morrison and Phelps, 1999; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Smith et al., 1983) that represent helping, taking charge, sportsmanship, and compliance.

Sample two: Confirmatory factor analysis Full-time employees enrolled in a part-time MBA program approached co-workers who knew their work behaviors, and then co-workers rated their peer's citizenship, which resulted in 792 final respondents (75% response rate).

Sample three: Rewards and OCB We then collected data from a non-overlapping sample of co-workers with a response rate of 81.5% for 237 final respondents to examine whether employees viewed some OCBs as more rewarded than others in their organization. Respondents answered, 'How important are the following behaviors to gain organizational rewards such as promotion, salary increases, and bonuses?' (1: not at all to 7: very important), for each OCB item. We summed responses for each OCB dimension.

Sample four: Role perceptions and OCB A fourth sample of employees ($n = 258$) who were also enrolled in the MBA program completed questionnaires on role perceptions (response rate was 93.8%). Questionnaires described in-role and extra-role behavior and then asked respondents to indicate the extent to which each citizenship item was an in-role part of their work (1: definitely extra-role, 7: definitely in-role).

Results

Exploratory factor analysis of sample one data demonstrated that three items had problematic cross-loadings so we dropped them. Table 1 lists items and factor loadings, demonstrating support for the four-factor structure (63.90 explained variance). All primary loadings were significant (.53–.90) with negligible cross loadings (.00–.14) suggesting a clean four-factor solution. Reliability estimates were .90 for helping, .90 taking charge, .84 for compliance, and .90 for sportsmanship.

Using sample two data, we used structural equation modeling to compare the fit of the theoretical four-factor model (helping, taking charge, compliance, and sportsmanship; $\chi^2 = 584.93$, 113 d.f., $p < .01$) to plausible alternative conceptualizations. The first alternative was the one-factor structure suggested by Hoffman et al. (2007) and LePine et al. (2002). The next two models tested whether either of the major dimensions (two factor models) might provide a superior fit to the data. The first two-factor model contrasted promotive versus protective OCB, while the second two-factor model contrasted organizational versus interpersonal OCB.

All fit indices in Table 2 show that the best-fitting model was the four-factor theoretical model of OCB, which had good fit (CFI = .95; IFI = .95), whereas the other models (one-factor and the two two-factor models) had CFI and IFI that did not reach recommended levels of .95. In addition, the SRMR value was below .05 only for the four-factor model and the RMSEA for the four-factor model was below 0.08, indicating fair fit (Browne and Cudeck, 1992). Jointly, these indices suggest the superiority of the four-factor model.

We then used change in χ^2 statistics to compare nested models. The two-factor models were both nested within the four-factor model. In addition, the one-factor model was nested in both two-factor models, as well as in the four-factor model. As Table 2 reports, the χ^2 difference between the one-factor and the two two-factor models was significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 1450.15$, 4 d.f., $p < .001$) for the promotive-protective model, as well as for the

Table 1 Sample one: Exploratory factor analysis of the OCB items

Item	Factor loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Helps others who have been absent.	.72	.04	.09	-.07
Helps others who have heavy workloads.	.86	.04	-.01	.04
Is always ready to help those around him/her.	.88	-.03	.01	-.01
Willingly gives his/her time to help others.	.86	.03	.03	.00
Willingly gives of his or her time to help others who have work-related problems.	.68	-.11	-.07	-.01
Makes innovative suggestions to improve the department.	-.01	-.76	.01	.03
Tries to adopt improved procedures for the work unit or department.	.00	-.83	.00	.05
Tries to institute new work methods that are more effective for this company.	.03	-.85	-.02	.02
Makes constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organization.	.04	-.76	.03	-.04
Tries to implement solutions to pressing organizational problems.	-.02	-.76	.02	-.10
Never comes in late without permission.	.07	.02	.76	.07
Never neglects to follow bosses' instructions.	-.01	.04	.75	.03
Never leaves work early without permission.	-.05	.06	.84	-.01
Conscientiously follows company rules and procedures.	.04	-.14	.64	-.08
Rarely misses work even when there is a legitimate reason to do so.	.09	-.05	.53	-.04
Acts as a peacemaker when others have disagreements.	.00	.03	.01	-.90
Is a stabilizing influence when others in the organization have disagreements.	.03	-.03	-.01	-.90
Eigenvalue (λ)	5.98	2.19	1.56	1.12
Percentage of variance explained (by the component)	35.19	12.90	9.20	6.60
Cumulative percentage of variance explained (% of variance)	35.19	48.10	57.30	63.90

Note. Principal axis factoring with oblique rotation. $N = 268$.

organizational-interpersonal model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 1589.26$, 4 d.f., $p < .001$), indicating that the two-factor models should be retained, rather than the one-factor model. The χ^2 difference between the one-factor and the four-factor model was also significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 4257.70$, 6 d.f., $p < .001$). Therefore, we rejected the simpler one-factor model in favor of the three other models. Next, we compared the two-factor models to the four-factor model. The chi-square difference statistics were significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 2807.55$, 2 d.f., $p < .001$, for the promotive-protective model; and $\Delta\chi^2 = 2668.44$, 2 d.f., $p < .001$, for the organizational-interpersonal model). As a result, we rejected the two-factor models in favor of the hypothesized four-factor model. In sum, all fit indices and comparative statistics support the superiority of the proposed four-factor structure. Table 3 summarizes the completely standardized loadings of the items on their respective factors. Loadings ranged from .70 to .92 (t -values 22.01 to 33.60, $p < .001$).

We used the last two samples to test our substantive predictions about rewards and roles. H1 predicted that OCB directed at the organization would be viewed as more rewarded than OCB directed at individuals. A planned comparison between the means for organizational and interpersonal rewards demonstrated a significant difference ($M_{\text{organizational}} = 4.89$ and $M_{\text{interpersonal}} = 4.49$, $t(1, 236) = 5.48$, $p < .01$), providing support

Table 2 Sample two: Comparison of factor structures

Structure	χ^2	d.f.	$\Delta\chi^2$ ^c	Δ d.f.	IFI	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA
1-factor	4842.63	119	–	–	.54	.54	.15	.22
2-factor ^a	3392.48	115	1450.15**	4	.68	.68	.14	.19
2-factor ^b	3253.37	115	1589.26**	4	.69	.69	.15	.19
4-factor (hypothesized)	584.93	113	4257.70**	6	.95	.95	.04	.07

Note. All χ^2 values are significant at $p < .01$. IFI = incremental fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

^apromotive versus protective OCB.

^borganizational versus interpersonal OCB.

^cThe change in χ^2 is based on comparisons between the one-factor model and the other three models.

Comparison between the four-factor model and the two two-factor models also produced significant $\Delta\chi^2$ (2a: 2807.55, 2 d.f., $p < .001$ and 2b: 2668.44, 2 d.f., $p < .001$).

$N = 792$.

** $p < .001$.

for H1. H2 predicted that promotive OCB would be viewed as more rewarded than protective OCB. A comparison of the means demonstrated a significant difference between reward perceptions for promotive OCB and protective OCB ($M_{\text{promotive}} = 4.80$ and $M_{\text{protective}} = 4.60$, $t(1, 236) = 2.82$, $p < .01$), supporting H2.

Table 3 Sample two: Confirmatory factor analysis

Item	Standardized loadings
Helps others who have been absent.	.74
Helps others who have heavy workloads.	.80
Is always ready to help those around him/her.	.92
Willingly gives his/her time to help others.	.91
Willingly gives of his or her time to help others who have work-related problems.	.84
Makes innovative suggestions to improve the department.	.82
Tries to adopt improved procedures for the work unit or department.	.88
Tries to institute new work methods that are more effective for this company.	.88
Makes constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organization.	.84
Tries to implement solutions to pressing organizational problems.	.70
Never comes in late without permission.	.86
Never neglects to follow bosses' instructions.	.75
Never leaves work early without permission.	.91
Conscientiously follows company rules and procedures.	.81
Rarely misses work even when there is a legitimate reason to do so.	.71
Acts as a peacemaker when others have disagreements.	.87
Is a stabilizing influence when others in the organization have disagreements.	.91

Note. Completely standardized loading.

$\chi^2 = 584.93$, 113 d.f., $p < .01$, IFI = .95, CFI = .95, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .07.

$N = 792$.

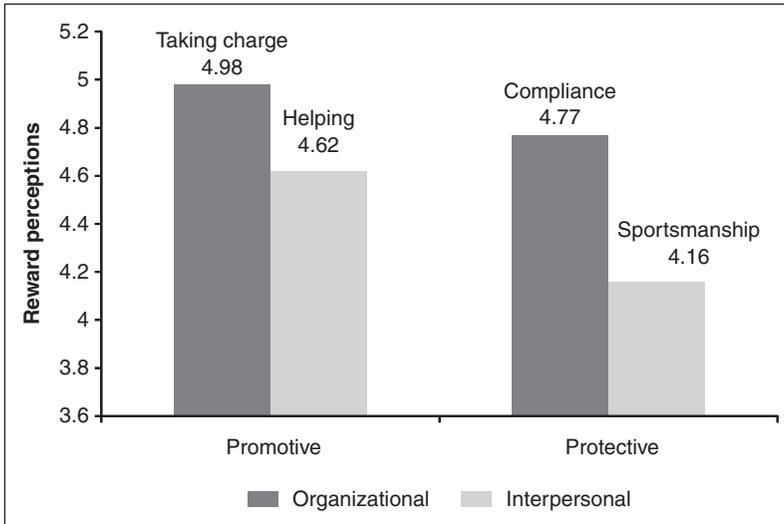


Figure 2 Differences in reward perceptions for four types of OCB

Results support H3a, which predicted that taking charge OCB would be viewed as more rewarded than either helping OCB ($M_{\text{taking charge}} = 4.98$ and $M_{\text{helping}} = 4.62$, $t(1, 236) = 4.23$, $p < .01$) or compliance OCB ($M_{\text{compliance}} = 4.77$, $t(1, 236) = 2.07$, $p < .05$). Planned comparisons also support H3b, which predicted that helping OCB ($M_{\text{helping}} = 4.62$ and $M_{\text{sportsmanship}} = 4.16$, $t(1, 236) = 5.86$, $p < .01$) and compliance OCB ($M_{\text{compliance}} = 4.77$ and $M_{\text{sportsmanship}} = 4.16$, $t(1, 236) = 5.81$, $p < .01$) would be viewed as more rewarded than sportsmanship OCB. Figure 2 illustrates these differences in reward perceptions.

H4 predicted that organizational OCB would be viewed as more in-role than interpersonal OCB. Results demonstrated that organizational OCB was viewed as more in-role than interpersonal OCB ($M_{\text{organizational}} = 5.29$ and $M_{\text{interpersonal}} = 4.73$, $t(1, 257) = 8.08$, $p < .01$), supporting H4. Results also support H5, demonstrating that promotive OCB was viewed as more in-role than protective OCB ($M_{\text{promotive}} = 5.30$ and $M_{\text{protective}} = 4.72$, $t(1, 257) = 7.99$, $p < .01$).

Finally, results support H6a, which predicted that taking charge OCB would be perceived as more in-role than either helping OCB ($M_{\text{taking charge}} = 5.59$ and $M_{\text{helping}} = 5.01$, $t(1, 257) = 6.61$, $p < .01$) or compliance OCB ($M_{\text{taking charge}} = 5.59$ and $M_{\text{compliance}} = 5.00$, $t(1, 257) = 6.00$, $p < .01$). Analysis also demonstrates support for H6b, which predicted that helping OCB ($M_{\text{helping}} = 5.01$ and $M_{\text{sportsmanship}} = 4.02$, $t(1, 257) = 9.37$, $p < .01$) and compliance OCB ($M_{\text{compliance}} = 5.00$ and $M_{\text{sportsmanship}} = 4.02$, $t(1, 257) = 8.35$, $p < .01$) would be perceived as more in-role than sportsmanship OCB. Figure 3 illustrates these differences in role perceptions.

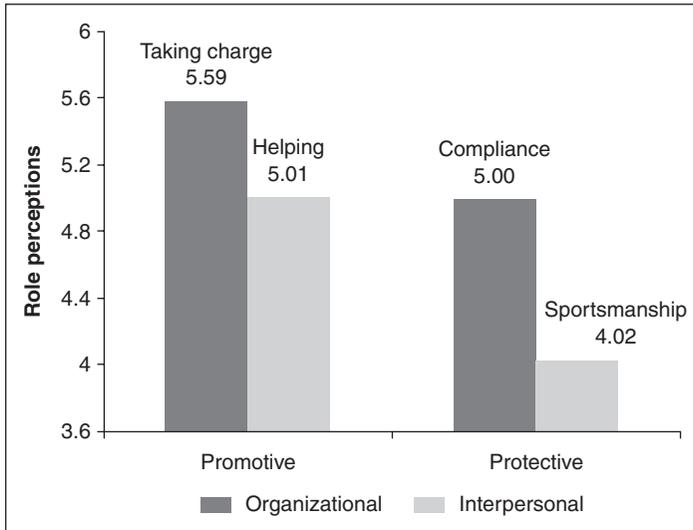


Figure 3 Differences in role perceptions for four types of OCB

Discussion

In this study, we developed differential hypotheses for employee perceptions of four conceptually differentiated types of OCB. Thus, we respond to calls for research on integrative frameworks with meaningful distinctions between types of citizenship behaviors (Organ et al., 2006; Spitzmuller et al., 2008). We tested these predictions with data from four samples (over 1500 employees working in a wide variety of jobs and organizations). To date, research on OCB as a multidimensional construct has taken one of two primary approaches. The first approach (e.g. Smith et al., 1983) delineated types of OCB based on factor analysis. The second approach (Van Dyne et al., 1995) delineated types of OCB based on a specific theoretical framework. The research we report in this article drew from both of these approaches by testing a conceptual integration of existing research based on the two most common distinctions in types of OCB: rewards and roles. More importantly, results from four samples demonstrated systematic differences in how types of OCB are perceived by employees in terms of organizational rewards and role requirements. Our findings have implications for future theory and practice.

Theoretical implications

Although the major OCB conceptual frameworks are multidimensional and differentiate particular types of OCB, most existing approaches list types of OCB and do not differentiate types of OCB based on fundamental conceptual differences (such as organizational/interpersonal and promotive/protective). Thus, although research often demonstrates

differences in antecedents for different types of OCB, these differential relationships are not clearly linked to systematic conceptual differences in types of OCB. In contrast, our research demonstrated systematic differences in how four types of OCB are viewed by employees.

In particular, results demonstrate that organizationally targeted OCBs are viewed as more rewarded and more in-role than interpersonally targeted OCBs. These findings add to the theory that suggests that the distinctions offered by Organ (1988) can be refined with respect to specific behaviors (Kamdar et al., 2006; McAllister et al., 2007). For example, results suggest that employees may engage in OCBO because it is rewarded and part of the job. Accordingly, the motivational forces driving OCBO may be more similar to those that drive task performance than previously acknowledged. Further, as noted by some researchers (Turnipseed and Wilson, 2009), this finding may reflect a trend where managers encourage employees to perform 'discretionary' behaviors and these behaviors gradually become viewed as more in-role and more rewarded. This could be the result of larger forces, such as environmental pressures to adapt to dynamic contexts. Future research should continue to examine the extent to which some OCBs are converging with in-role performance. It would also be important to consider the degree to which this convergence is functional/dysfunctional for employees and/or the organization (Van Dyne and Ellis, 2004). In comparison, OCBI was viewed as less rewarded and less in-role. Hence, the motivational forces behind OCBI may be more personal and consistent with relationship motives and/or altruistic motives. While research has established that OCB is often associated with rewards (Allen and Rush, 1998; Van Dyne and LePine, 1998), previous research has not considered distinctions between the rewards associated with different types of OCB.

Results also confirm predictions that promotive OCBs (taking charge and helping) were viewed as more rewarded and more in-role than protective OCBs (compliance and sportsmanship). This suggests different motivational forces for promotive versus protective OCB. Perhaps promotive OCB is influenced by situational factors, such as rewards and role expectations, whereas protective OCB is influenced more by individual characteristics (i.e. personal values, personal motives, and/or personality). Moreover, results demonstrated that sportsmanship, which is interpersonal and protective, was viewed as the least rewarded by employees, while taking charge, which is organizational and promotive, was viewed as most rewarded. Perhaps interpersonally targeted protective behaviors, such as sportsmanship, are the most idiosyncratic OCBs because they are the least responsive to contextual factors and primarily driven by personal characteristics.

To date, there has been debate on whether instrumental or internal motives are more effective predictors of OCB (Tyler and Blader, 2000). In contrast, our results show that some OCBs are more likely to be related to instrumental motives (rewards). Accordingly, our findings support a more nuanced conceptualization suggesting that instrumental motives may generally drive some types of OCB whereas internal motives may drive other types of OCB. Thus, the question is not whether instrumental motives are more important than internal motives. Instead, differentiating types of OCB in conceptually meaningful ways should help us move beyond simplistic either-or research debates.

Results of this research also have theoretical implications for research on role perceptions. Two recent studies have demonstrated that role perceptions differentially moderate

relationships between employee perceptions of their work situations (procedural justice and leader-member exchange) and different types of promotive OCB (McAllister et al., 2007; Van Dyne et al., 2008). None of this role perception research, however, has considered protective OCBs such as compliance or sportsmanship. Our research suggests that situational characteristics, such as roles and rewards, are associated with protective OCBs to a lesser degree. Accordingly, role perceptions that are grounded in the work situation may not have moderating effects on protective types of OCB, such as those demonstrated in prior research. Instead, our results indicate that personal characteristics may be more important moderators. This suggests that type of OCB may be an important boundary condition to the role perception effects.

Practical implications

To date, OCBs have frequently been lumped together empirically and treated as equally important and comparable indicators of overall OCB. Accordingly, some models of OCB have not adequately differentiated types of OCB or provided a conceptual foundation for explicating differences in antecedents and consequences for different types of OCB. This is problematic because it could mislead managers into adopting a 'one size fits all' approach that assumes all types of OCB are based on the same situational and individual characteristics. Instead, the first practical implication of our research is that managers should pay special attention to situational factors when they want to increase or decrease promotive OCB. For example, to increase taking charge, they can emphasize rewards and role breadth. In contrast, given that our results indicate that sportsmanship tends to be viewed as less rewarded and less in role, it is possible that it may depend more on personal motives or personality characteristics, such as conscientiousness, organizational concern motive, and tolerance.

A second practical implication is based on the implied relative importance of the different types of OCB. Results demonstrated that more conspicuous types of OCB, such as taking the initiative to suggest improvements, were viewed as more rewarded than protective behaviors, such as acting as a peacemaker. Given that participants in our studies worked in a wide variety of jobs in a wide variety of organizations, these employee perceptions are not limited to one particular setting. Instead, results should generalize broadly. At the same time, it is important for managers to become aware that they may unconsciously be sending signals that some types of OCB are more important than other types of OCB. While we do not question the value of promotive behaviors (such as helping OCB and taking charge OCB), one possible implication of our findings is that employees and organizations may pay less attention to protective behaviors – such as sportsmanship OCB and compliance OCB.

This finding has important practical implications because undervaluing protective behaviors may increase the frequency of inappropriate behaviors, such as intolerance, impatience, whining, poor attendance, and long breaks. Perhaps organizations and managers need to provide more rewards and reinforcement for protective behaviors. It is also possible that employees' perceptions are not fully aligned with managers' expectations. Managers should ensure that they communicate clearly what is valued in the organization. As noted by Katz (1964) and reinforced by Podsakoff et al. (2000), organizations need promotive behaviors

to facilitate adaptation, but they also need protective behaviors to facilitate stability, continuity, and predictability. Thus, managers should acknowledge the importance and value of promotive and protective OCBs.

A final practical implication is the importance of thinking about different types of OCB based on conceptually meaningful differences, such as those that form the basis of the integrated framework we used as our theoretical foundation. Accordingly, results suggest that managers need not try to keep up with research on the many different types of OCB (almost 30 potentially different types; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Instead, managers can focus on perceptions of rewards and roles and use this as a heuristic for simplifying their thinking about types of OCB in a meaningful manner that has implications for their own behavior.

Study limitations and future research

Although our findings are based on a large number of employees (in four different samples) working in actual organizations, our study is not without limitations. First, we delineated OCB behaviors based on two characteristics: promotive-protective and interpersonal-organizational. We note that this approach is intentionally over-simplified. These are only two of many possible characteristics that could be used to build a typology of OCB. We do not suggest that this is the only approach or that this is the best approach. Accordingly, research is needed on other conceptually meaningful ways to contrast types of OCB. For example, another option would be a typology based on costs and benefits. Some OCBs may be low in costs and benefits; others may be low in costs and high in benefits; others may be high in costs and low in benefits; and still others may be high in costs and benefits. It seems reasonable that these sorts of differences would influence antecedents and consequences.

Second, we focused on predictions for four specific, contrasting types of OCB. Thus, we did not consider all possible types of OCB. For example, Organ (1988) identified five basic types of OCB and Podsakoff and colleagues (2000) identified 30 types that they combined into seven more generic types of OCB. Given the large number of previously identified types of OCB, we recommend future empirical research that examines other types of OCB in the context of conceptually meaningful frameworks, such as the approach we used in this article. For example, Settoon and Mossholder (2002) differentiated task-focused interpersonal OCBs from person-focused interpersonal OCBs. Extending the logic of our typology and predictions, it would be worthwhile to investigate whether, for example, task-focused interpersonal OCBs are viewed as more in-role and more rewarded than person-focused interpersonal OCBs. It would also be useful for future research to consider employee motives for engaging in specific types of OCB and whether these vary based on the target of OCB. For example, help that is directed primarily at the supervisor can be a form of impression management. Our items avoid this because they focus on help that is directed at peers. We recommend future research on differences in rewards and roles when OCB is directed at the supervisor.

Third, we realize that some OCBs are most likely a more complex mix of promotive and protective characteristics or targeted at specific individuals and at the organization. We intentionally used a simplified approach to highlight differences in contrasting behaviors. We hope that future research considers more complex conceptualizations where OCBs sometimes have a mix of characteristics. Additionally, research could examine whether

behaviors in different quadrants are sometimes complementary and sometimes contradictory in nature. For instance, taking charge aims to improve organizational procedures and as a result may benefit other individuals indirectly, but in the short term may be viewed as interpersonally disruptive owing to its change-oriented nature (Milliken et al., 2003). Sportsmanship, on the other hand, may improve organizational processes by maintaining harmony rather than challenging the status quo. A good sport, however, may fail to detect opportunities and may not speak up with suggestions for improving organizational processes given the tendency not to complain. Viewed from this lens, both behaviors are beneficial but take very different approaches to improving effectiveness. We also recommend that future research expand the number of items used to assess sportsmanship, and that these items be positively worded to avoid methodological artifacts.

Our results should also be interpreted within the cultural context in which they were obtained. Specifically, the US context is more individualistic than other contexts. Taking charge may be viewed especially positively in individualistic cultures (Organ et al., 2006). On the other hand, maintaining harmony might be viewed as more valuable in collectivistic cultures. Although there is some initial research examining unique dimensions of citizenship behaviors in collectivistic contexts, as well as role perceptions within different cultures (Lam et al., 1999; Van Dyne et al., 2008), more research is needed on how culture may influence findings. Moreover, in the current research we developed parallel hypotheses about roles and rewards. This implies an instrumental linkage between what is perceived as rewarded and in-role. In a different cultural context, however, what is viewed as in-role may depend more on tradition than on instrumental motives.

Although our samples should have broad generalizability because they represent a diverse set of organizations and a diverse set of jobs and thus are not bounded by the organizational culture or norms of a particular organization, about one-third of the participants were full-time employees who were also enrolled in an MBA program. This may have created some similarities in the level of responsibilities and types of jobs held by these individuals. Thus, future research is needed on other samples, perhaps with controls for job level.

Organizational culture and organizational context may be another area ripe for exploration. For instance, does an adaptive organizational culture increase the relative importance of taking charge and does a bureaucratic culture decrease its relevance? We found meaningful differences across organizations (suggesting generalizability within an individualistic cultural setting). More fine-grained models are now needed that consider additional sources of variability in the extent to which OCBs are perceived as in-role and rewarded (Schnake, 1991). We recommend future research examining multiple dimensions of OCB across different organizational cultures and contexts.

Results of this research reveal that employees view taking charge OCB as the most related to rewards and roles. In contrast, they viewed sportsmanship OCB as the least related to rewards and roles. Interestingly, Moon et al. (2005) observed that out of 164 empirical studies of OCB published over 20 years (1983 to 2003), significantly less research has focused on taking charge OCB and sportsmanship OCB (in comparison with helping OCB and compliance OCB). Although recent research shows dramatically increased attention to promotive behaviors, such as taking charge and voice (Chiaburu et al., 2008; Detert and Burris, 2007; McAllister et al., 2007; Moon et al., 2008; Van Dyne et al., 2008; Whiting et al., 2008), there is little research on sportsmanship. Thus, we recommend additional

research aimed at uncovering nuances in predictors of different types of OCB – with special attention to behaviors that are protective and interpersonal (e.g. sportsmanship).

In conclusion, we advocate that researchers continue to enrich our understanding of OCB by contrasting types of OCB based on specific conceptual differences, such as those highlighted in our integrative framework. We also suggest additional research that identifies meaningful differences in the antecedents and consequences of different types of OCB. Overall, such an approach has exciting promise to increase the cumulative knowledge of systematic differences in types of OCB and the unique relevance of specific types of OCB.

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Sophia V Marinova is Assistant Professor of Managerial Studies at the College of Business Administration of University of Illinois at Chicago (PhD, University of Maryland). She is currently doing research in the areas of employee performance and organizational citizenship behaviors, individual and motivational differences, and multilevel processes in the workplace. She is especially interested in how factors at multiple levels jointly inform theories of workplace behaviors. Her work appears in scholarly and applied journals, such as *Organization Science*, *Personnel Psychology*, *Journal of International Business Studies* and *Human Resource Management Review*, among others. [Email: smarinov@uic.edu]

Henry Moon is Associate Professor of Organizational Behavior, London Business School (PhD, Michigan State University). He has several research streams including decision-making, personality, organizational citizenship behaviors, teams, and leadership. His research has been published in the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Academy of Management Journal*, and *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, as well as other premier outlets. He is serving on the editorial boards of *Academy of Management Journal* and *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*. [Email: hmoon@london.edu]

Linn Van Dyne, Professor, Michigan State University (PhD, University of Minnesota), has two major research programs: proactive employee behaviors involving initiative and cultural intelligence. She is Associate Editor of *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* and is on the editorial boards of *Academy of Management Journal*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Personnel Psychology*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *Human Relations*, and *Management and Organization Review*. She is a fellow in the Society of Organizational Behavior and has published in *Academy of Management Journal*, *Academy of Management Review*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *Human Relations*, and other outlets. Prior to becoming an academic, she held a variety of managerial positions (including Director of World-Wide Human Resources; Director of Compensation, Benefits, and International Personnel) in for-profit manufacturing firms and not-for-profit service organizations. [Email: vandyne@msu.edu]