

**SPECIFICATION AND EMPIRICAL ASSESSMENT OF
AN INTEGRATED MODEL OF EMPLOYEE
EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIORS**

By

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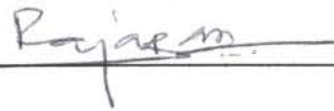
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

EMPLOYEE EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIORS: THEIR PLACE IN
ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Organizations are primarily created for the attainment of prespecified goals. They are, thus, rational expressions of instrumental action (Selznick, 1948). Employees are typically expected to perform mainly role-prescribed tasks which, through a coordinated chain of means and ends, are instrumental in the attainment of organizational goals (Simon, 1976). Employees, as a result, are allowed an opportunity for only a partial inclusion in organizations (Selznick, 1948) as performers of role-prescribed tasks.

This rational view of organizations, however, reflects only a part of the organizational reality. Organizations can not specify all task requirements a-priori (March & Simon, 1958). They, therefore, have to depend on spontaneous behaviors from employees that are not specified as a part of their formal organizational roles. These organizationally desired supra-role behaviors are necessary for organizational survival and effectiveness (Katz, 1964). Thus, one of the major concerns in managing organizational behavior is inducing employees to perform these supra-role behaviors.

Just as organizations expect and hope that employees would contribute beyond their role-required behaviors, employees also seek to broaden their behavioral range beyond the organizationally specified roles. This serves as an outlet for the expression of their sentiments and self-interests (Homans, 1947) and leads to the emergence of a social system around the organizational technical system (Selznick, 1948; 1957). This social system is based on employee sentiments and self-interests. Employees, thus, perform positive prosocial behaviors as an expression of their positive sentiments (George, 1991). They also perform negative behaviors, such as property destruction, as an expression of their negative sentiments (Robinson, 1993) or as a response to situations where their self-interests and organizational interests openly conflict. Similarly, while employees pursue their self-interests, they often seek to adopt extra-role and organizationally unsanctioned means such as favor-rendering forms of ingratiation behaviors (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980) to further their personal goals such as obtaining higher performance ratings. These behaviors that are organizationally unsanctioned and are used in the pursuit of individual self-interests constitute political behaviors (Drory & Romm, 1990).

Thus, on the one hand an organization depends on its employees for positive behaviors beyond their formal roles. On the other hand, employees seek to express their

sentiments and pursue their self-interests by performing positive, negative, and political extra-role behaviors (ERB). As a result, ERBs constitute an organizational reality beyond the role-centered conception of an employee's organizational behavior suggested in the rational perspectives of organizations (e.g., Simon, 1976). While positive ERBs are critical for sustaining and improving organizational effectiveness (Katz, 1964; Organ, 1988); negative ERBs, such as employee deviance, are estimated to cost between \$6 to \$200 billion annually (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Similarly, political ERBs also have costs associated with them in terms of employee frustration and demoralization (Kumar & Ghadially, 1989). Moreover, ERBs are of concrete importance also from an employee's perspective. For instance, positive ERBs of employees in the form of OCB have been found to influence their overall performance ratings just as much as do the in-role performance levels (Motowidlo & Scotter, 1994).

Existing Research Focus and the Issues to be Addressed in the Present Study

Consistent with this centrality of employee ERBs in organizational reality, it has recently drawn the attention of researchers. Three categories of ERBs are particularly prominent in existing research. These are; negative behaviors such as property destruction (e.g., Robinson &

Bennett, 1995), political behaviors such as ingratiation (e.g., Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980), and positive or organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) such as active participation and civic virtue (Graham, 1991; Organ, 1988).

Of these three categories of ERBs, the empirical study of OCB has received the most extensive and systematic research attention. The empirical study of employee political behaviors such as ingratiation has received relatively little attention in organizational contexts (Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991). In a similar vein, Robinson and Bennett (1995) note that very little empirical research has been done to study negative behaviors while extensive research activity has focused on studying OCBs. An overall review of existing research on these three forms of ERBs yields the following three observations.

First, these three categories of ERBs have not been integrated into a unified framework of employee ERB. Rather, researchers have adopted different theoretical perspectives and approaches to the study of these three categories of ERB. Second, though OCB is the most extensively studied category of ERBs, even here research has not been able to account for much variance in OCBs and findings on some of its antecedents have been inconsistent (Barr & Pawar, 1995). Third, OCB research has not yet provided a systematic explanation of the process leading to an employee's performance of OCBs though recent research has

begun to show progress on this front (e.g., Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). This limitation of OCB research also applies to research on the other two forms of ERB.

The present study focuses on these three main issues by making three related but distinct forms of contributions. First, it seeks to develop a model based on a systematically identified set of antecedents of OCB to explain the occurrence of OCBs. Second, it aims at providing a unified perspective to account for the occurrence of some main forms of ERBs including the three forms highlighted above (i.e., negative behaviors, political behaviors, and OCBs). Third, it seeks to specify the process leading to the occurrence of these ERBs by outlining and empirically validating the role of a potential mediating variable. Thus, the present study may help more accurately predict the occurrence of OCBs by incorporating in the model a comprehensive set of systematically identified antecedents. It may also help explain the occurrence of ERBs by outlining and testing a process view. It, therefore, seeks to meet two basic goals—enhancing predictive accuracy and improving explanatory power—of the theorization process (Dubin, 1969). Additionally, it would also comply with the percept of parsimony, which is an important consideration in theory building (Bacharach, 1989), by accounting for a broad range of ERBs through a common set of antecedents.

An Overview of the Present Study and Contents of this Dissertation

This dissertation has five chapters including the present chapter. Chapter 2 contains the details of the theory proposed in this dissertation. Chapter 3 describes various steps of the theory testing process adopted here. Chapter 4 presents the results obtained in this study. Chapter 5 outlines the conclusions and issues emerging from the study results, and highlights their research and managerial implications.

Theory building. The theory building process includes specification of units of a theory and relationships among them (Dubin, 1969). The proposed model has three categories of units -antecedent variables, mediating variables and employee ERBs or outcome variables. These units have been identified based on a review of the relevant existing research. The outcome variable category consists of four units -organizational citizenship behaviors, constructive utilitarian behaviors, political behaviors, and negative behaviors. These four constructs or units have been identified by drawing upon some of the prominent ERB forms studied in the existing research and by developing a typology of employee ERB. Based on the dimensions that specify these four units or constructs, the units in the mediating variable category have been derived. These units are: moral involvement, calculative involvement, and

alienative involvement. Finally, the units in the antecedent variable category have been identified using the properties of the organizational involvement and ERB constructs. These units are: organizational support perceptions, distributive justice, procedural justice, similarity of employee and organizational values, and the dispositional construct of social interest.

Subsequently, based on existing theoretical views and empirical findings, three sets of relationships -antecedent variables-ERB, antecedent variables-organizational involvement, and organizational involvement-ERB- are specified in the form of hypotheses. These hypotheses suggest relationships among various units of the proposed model. In addition to these relationships which suggest a set of associations or covariations, a process view linking the antecedents, organizational involvement, and ERBs is implied by adopting a premise that organizational involvement mediates the antecedent variables-ERB relationship.

Thus, the resulting theory is elaborate in terms of its breadth (James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982) in that it accounts for a broad range of effects (i.e., four forms of ERBs) and covers a comprehensive set of antecedents. It also provides a process perspective by outlining a mediational mechanism. The extent of mediation specified in a theory characterizes its depth (James et al., 1982). The proposed model suggests

a very basic and macro-mediational process. Thus, though it is not very high in terms of the depth dimension, it is beyond a purely molar level theory that specifies relationships among complex variables without identifying any mediating mechanisms. These three aspects -review of the existing relevant research, identification of theory units, and specification of hypotheses- are outlined in Chapter 2.

Theory testing. Empirical validity of the proposed model is assessed through a process consisting of several steps. Appropriate scales were designed or adopted for measuring the various variables in the model. The relevant psychometric properties of these scales were assessed. Data collection instruments used in the study were pretested at the study site. The data on extra-role behaviors and antecedent variables was obtained from two different sources to control the possible effect of common source variance. The study respondents who provided the data for this study were compared with nonrespondents to assess if the two groups differed significantly. The hypotheses specified in the theory building part were tested using a series of multiple regression analyses. The details of each of these aspects are described in chapter 3.

Results. The results are presented on psychometric properties of the measures used in the study, representativeness of the study sample, and on the tests of

hypotheses specified in the proposed model. These are presented in chapter 4.

Conclusions and Implications. The results of the study yielded several important conclusions. They also highlighted certain issues. These conclusions and issues emerging from the present study suggest certain implications for future research as well as for practicing managers. These conclusions, issues, and implications are outlined in chapter 5.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THE PROPOSED MODEL

EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIORS: EXISTING RESEARCH

Research on extra-role behaviors (ERBs) has attracted attention only very recently. About two decades ago, Organ (1977) suggested that in focusing on the satisfaction-performance relationship OB research might be ignoring some important forms of ERBs that are a result of employee satisfaction. This stimulated the first study of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) or positive employee behaviors by Bateman and Organ (1983). In the same year, Staw (1977) suggested that we must adopt an employee-oriented perspective of organizational behavior and study how employees actively influence organizational contexts to seek fulfillment of their self-interests. This highlighted the need for studying employee influence behaviors or political behaviors (PB) in organizational contexts. Research on both these ERBs -OCB and PB- has subsequently drawn systematic research attention. There is another category of ERB -negative behaviors- that has drawn the attention of OB researchers (e.g., Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Though it has received systematic research attention only very recently in OB, other areas such as criminology (e.g., Merriam, 1977) and industrial sociology (e.g., Sieh,

1987; Thompson, 1983) have studied it for quite some time (Hollinger & Clark, 1982).

While these behaviors fall in the common category of ERB and research attention came to be focused on them about the same time (i.e., early 90s), research on each of them has progressed in different directions and each has received different levels of research attention. As a result, the existing understanding of employee ERB is both unintegrated and nonuniform across these main forms of ERBs.

Thus, as a starting point toward the development of an integrated model of employee ERB, existing research on each of the above forms of ERB is briefly reviewed. OCB research is reviewed first, followed by political behavior research. Finally, negative behavior research is reviewed. This review serves three purposes. First, it outlines the existing level of understanding of each of these ERBs. Second, it highlights some underlying similarities across these ERBs. Third, it provides inputs for identifying conceptual dimensions that may help map various ERB forms in a single conceptual scheme, thus offering a potential nucleus for an integrated model of employee ERB.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Researchers have for a long time believed that employees are required to take an initiative beyond their role-prescribed activities. For instance, March and Simon

(1958) noted that an employee's behavioral requirements in an organization fall into three categories. The first category consists of a set of activities or behavioral requirements specified in the formal employment contract. Fulfillment of these requirements is a precondition for an employee's receipt of prespecified inducements/rewards. The second category includes behavioral requirements that are at the discretion of the organization and represents an employee's zone of indifference wherein he/she accepts the organizational authority to seek contributions not prespecified in the contract. The third category consists of behaviors that are at the discretion of an employee. This category, excluded from the employment contract and the zone of employee indifference surrounding it, reflects positive contributions or organizational citizenship behaviors. In a similar vein, Katz (1964) indicated that an organization requires several positive extra-role behaviors, termed as supra-role behaviors, for its survival and effective functioning. Approaching from a different perspective, Dansereau, Graen and, Haga (1975) outlined the process by which subordinate roles are broadened beyond formal role specifications. While the concern in this perspective was with inducing behaviors beyond contractually specified ones, the main focus remained on studying the quality of leader-member relationship that leads to such role broadening and the nature of the associated exchange

process that sustains it. Central to this research was, however, the premise that in organizational settings, leaders have to depend on their subordinates for contributions beyond the formal role specifications.

Consistent with the importance of employee contributions beyond role specified performance requirements, the first call for a systematic study of these positive and extra contributions of employees came from Organ (1977). Organ (1977) noted that managers have held the view that employee satisfaction is important while the empirical evidence suggests only a weak relationship between satisfaction and performance. He suggested that the managers' belief in the importance of employee satisfaction is rooted in the role of satisfaction in inducing positive contributions which enhance organizational effectiveness. He, therefore, suggested that OB researchers should assess the employee satisfaction-positive contribution relationship. Stimulated by this view, Bateman and Organ (1983) identified a set of positive employee behaviors and labelled them as organizational citizenship behaviors. In the same year, Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) provided a working definition for the OCB construct, operationalized it through a two-factor scale and studied its antecedents, thus formally commencing the research in positive ERBs or OCBs.

Focus of existing OCB research. OCB research has focused on three aspects. First, considerable research has

been carried out to specify the construct of OCB and identify its categories or dimensions. Researchers have specified the construct of OCB using three aspects -discretionary or extra-role nature of behavior, non-reward seeking or other-benefitting intent and organizationally functional consequences- (Organ, 1988; Schnake, 1991). The other-benefitting intent and organizationally functional consequences aspects make these behaviors positive while the discretionary aspect highlights their extra-role nature, thus specifying OCB as extra-role positive behaviors.

Simultaneously, research has specified other related constructs such as prosocial behaviors and spontaneous behaviors by using a subset of the above three dimensions. For instance, Brief and Motowidlo (1986) specified the construct of prosocial behavior (PSB) by adopting only the other-benefitting and non-reward-seeking aspects of the OCB definition. Graham (1991) specified the construct of political citizenship behavior by emphasizing the organizationally functional aspect of the OCB definition. George and Brief (1992) specified the construct of spontaneous behaviors by incorporating extra-role and organizationally functional aspects of the OCB definition. Since these OCB-related constructs use only a subset of the dimensions used to specify the OCB construct, they subsume a broader range of behaviors than does the OCB construct. They, thus, offer less constrained (and therefore more

inclusive) specifications of positive employee behaviors than does the OCB construct. While each of the above less constrained variants of the OCB construct has drawn some research attention, it is the OCB construct as specified above that has formed the central part of the existing OCB research.

The second focus of existing OCB research has been on identifying OCB categories and exploring OCB antecedents. The original specification of OCB (Smith et al., 1983) suggested two categories -altruism and generalized compliance or conscientiousness. The altruism dimension mainly reflects OCB directed at other organizational members while generalized compliance reflects OCB directed at an organization as an entity (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Subsequently, the OCB categories have been extended to include three additional categories of civic virtue, sportsmanship and courtesy (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1990; Organ, 1988). Behaviors such as avoiding complaints about petty inconvenience reflect sportsmanship form of OCB. Taking active steps to save others inconvenience represents the essence of courtesy. Taking an active interest in organizational affairs reflects civic virtue form of OCB.

Several antecedents of OCB have been studied in existing research. Researchers have either drawn upon the social psychology research on helping behaviors (e.g., Smith et al., 1983; Puffer, 1987) or derived antecedents by

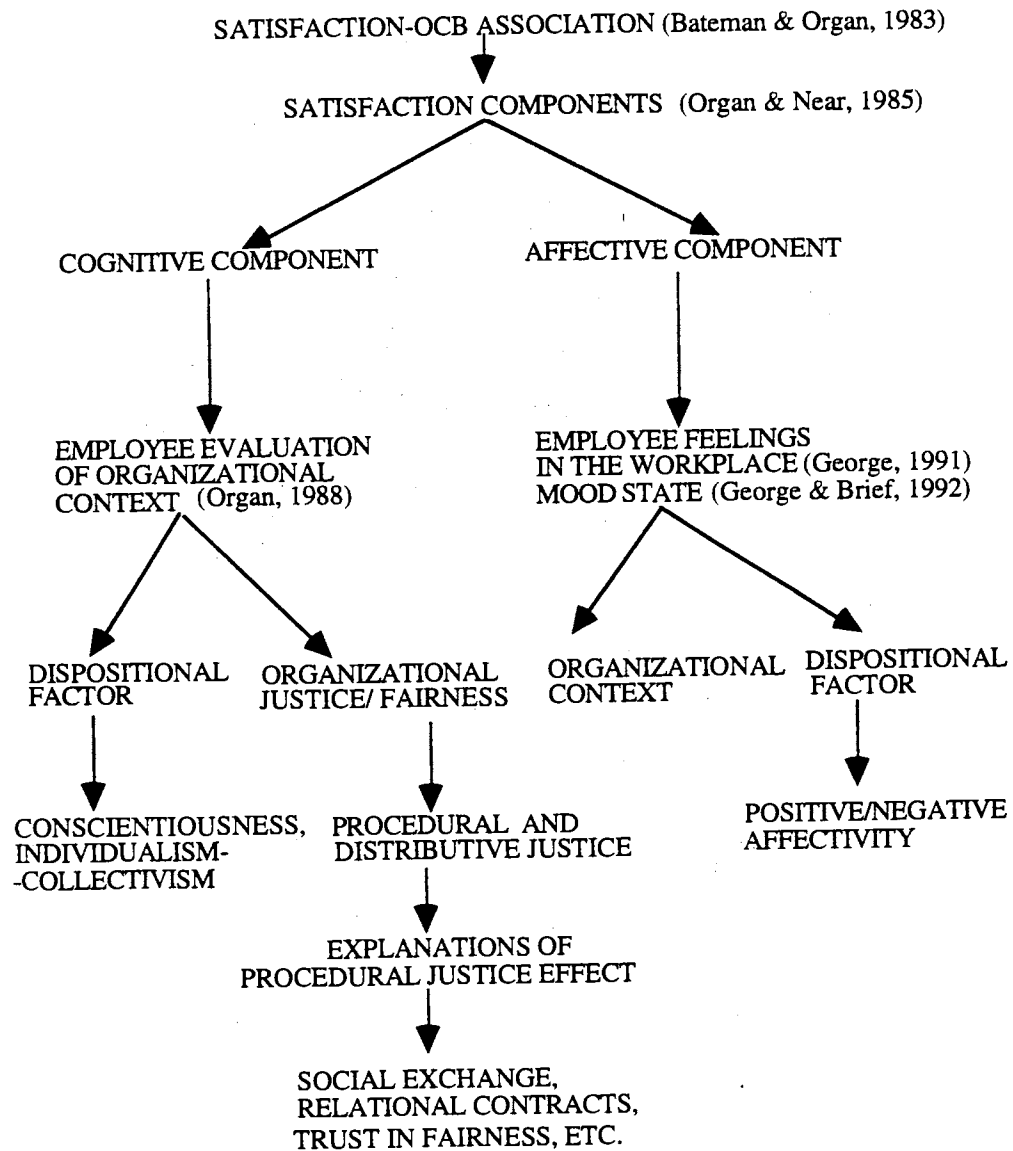
extending the pattern of findings in the previous OCB studies. A schematic outline of the evolution of the search for OCB antecedents is presented in Figure 1.

As outlined in Figure 1, OCB research began with the premise that satisfaction is likely to induce positive ERBs from employees (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983). Subsequently, Organ and Near (1985) noted that the measures of satisfaction have a considerable cognitive component in them. Based on the satisfaction-OCB relationship and the presence of a cognitive component in satisfaction measures, Organ and Konovsky (1989) suggested that OCBs are influenced by an employee's cognitive evaluation of an organizational context. OCBs are, therefore, reflective and deliberative behaviors rooted in an employee's cognitive assessment and judgment in contrast to the spontaneous nature of the one-time helping behaviors in general social settings. Organ (1988; 1990) further noted that some dispositional propensity, under the moderating influence of organizational context, leads to an employee's fairness judgment and induces OCB. This suggested the role of organizational fairness -a contextual factor- and some unspecified individual propensity -a dispositional factor- as two possible determinants of OCB. The subsequent OCB research refined and extended this view to explore OCB antecedents.

Extending the above view, Moorman (1991) empirically assessed the role of an employee's judgments of

FIGURE 1

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Research: An Overview



organizational fairness in predicting OCB. He operationalized organizational fairness judgment in terms of employee perceptions of organizational justice aspects including procedural and distributive justice. The findings confirmed fairness judgments-OCB relationship. Further, it was also confirmed through another study that the cognitive component of satisfaction has a predictive utility independent of the affective component of satisfaction while the affective component of satisfaction had no incremental predictive utility beyond that provided by the cognitive component. These findings have led to a greater emphasis on studying organizational justice-OCB relationship.

Based on the fairness-OCB relationship, researchers have offered three explanations of OCB. First, researchers have suggested that fairness leads to development of a social exchange relationship between an employee and organization (Moorman, 1991). A second explanation suggests that employees develop a relational contract with or trust in their supervisors (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994) which takes employees' exchange beyond the concern for point-to-point assessment of exchange fairness. Finally, some have suggested a group value model-based explanation (e.g., Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993). This model suggests that organizational fairness, and procedural justice in particular, assures employees that their dignity and self-respect are positively acknowledged by the organization. It

thus, conveys to employees that they are valued as an end or as human beings with self-respect and dignity, rather than merely as means to the end. This assurance leads to an employee's affective attachment to or identification with the organization. Thus, the most recent view in this research suggests that OCBs are induced by the development of a special quality of fairness-centered or trust-based relationship between employees and the organization or supervisors.

Consistent with these explanations, future OCB research can benefit by focusing on macromotives such as trust and commitment that characterize an employee's relationship with the organization and form a mediating state between organizational context antecedents and OCB (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). Konovsky and Pugh (1994) further suggest that OCB research can also benefit by incorporating both social exchange and nonsocial exchange antecedents leading to the development of a mediational state of macromotives that precedes OCB.

The research focusing on the other possible category of OCB antecedent -dispositional factor- has explored several dispositional variables such as neuroticism, extraversion, need for achievement and affiliation, demographic variables, conscientiousness, equity sensitivity and collectivism (Konovsky & Organ, in press; Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Puffer, 1987; Smith et al., 1983). A qualitative summary on

the study and predictive value of some of the dispositional antecedents covered in OCB research has been presented in Organ (1994). Organ's (1994) review suggests that dispositional variables such as equity sensitivity and agreeableness have had only marginal utility in predicting OCB. Organ (1994), based on his qualitative review, suggests that conscientiousness-related dispositional factor may be a useful predictor of OCB. Meta-analytic findings, however, indicate that "although research is limited, there appears to be a very low correlation between OCBs and conscientiousness" (Manogran & Conlon, 1994: 15). The most recent study on dispositional antecedents has found individualism-collectivism to be a significant predictor of OCB (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). The findings, however, suggest that the individualism-collectivism construct has a limited utility in predicting OCB. For instance, zero order correlations were significant for only four of the nine hypothesized relationships. Similarly, only four of the nine hypothesized paths -between three OCB dimensions and three aspects of individualism-collectivism- were significant after controlling for the common method variance. Also, the individualism-collectivism construct, as operationalized in existing research, taps only an individual's orientation toward a workgroup rather than a general social orientation or broad prosocial tendency. Thus, OCB research is yet to identify a dispositional

variable that may have a significant explanatory utility and predictive power.

The above outlined review of existing OCB research suggests that OCB antecedents should span across both contextual and dispositional variable categories. Among the contextual categories, there is a need to study both social exchange and non-social exchange variables. Further, the existing research also suggests that the effect of multiple antecedents may be effectively captured through the mediational states of macromotives reflecting employees' relationship with an organization. These insights provided by the existing OCB research will be built into the proposed integrated model to provide an explanatory framework for a range of ERB forms.

Political Behaviors

Staw (1977) noted that OB research had taken predominantly an organization-centered view of employee behaviors and overlooked the role of employees' attempts to seek fulfillment of their self-interests. He suggested a need for studying these employee influence processes. In a similar vein, Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson (1980: 440) noted that "organizational psychologists have not been particularly interested in studying the ways in which people at work influence their colleagues and superiors to obtain personal benefits or to satisfy organizational goals. For

the most part, interest has centered on the ways subordinates can be influenced to improve subordinate productivity and morale. The latter use of influence process is customarily called the study of leadership while the former can be called organizational politics."

Employee political behaviors (PB) have been defined in several ways reflecting functional, dysfunctional and neutral views of its consequences (Ferris, Bhawuk, Judge, & Fedor, 1994). Numerous definitions are, therefore, found in the literature. Extra-role and self-interest-serving aspects, however, are prominent in most of these definitions. For instance, Ashforth and Lee (1990: 622) adopted a definition of political behaviors as "discretionary social influence attempts that are intended to promote or protect the self-interests of individuals or groups and threaten self-interests of others." In a similar vein, Fandt and Ferris (1990: 141) view PBs as "opportunistic behavior engaged in for purposes of self-interest maximization." The informal or extra-role and self-interest seeking aspects of PBs are also highlighted by Drory and Romm (1990) who reviewed various perspectives and definitions of organizational politics. The above views, thus, suggest that employee PBs are extra-role behaviors, seek self-interest promotion or maximization and may be against others' interests.

While the definitional issues are still being resolved, the research on PBs has sought to address three areas -antecedents of PB, influence tactics that form PB category and consequences of PB (Ferris et al., 1994a; Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989). A substantial body of research has focused on identifying and categorizing various forms of influence tactics. Research, as a result, seems to have focused on finer or micro aspects of PB rather than linking the broader construct of PB to other related ERB constructs. This micro or political tactic-focused research has sought to specify taxonomies or typologies of influence tactics. Wayne and Ferris (1990) have suggested three classes of influence tactics -self-focused, job-focused and supervisor-focused. Kipnis et al. (1980) adopted an inductive approach to specify eight categories of influence tactics namely; ingratiation, rationality, assertiveness, sanctions, exchange, upward appeal, blocking, and coalitions. The micro focus of this research and its thrust on the specification of categories has taken this research toward identification of finer levels of behavioral forms within influence tactics. For instance, Kumar and Beyerlein (1991) drew upon Jones' (1964) work to operationalize four forms of sub-tactics within the ingratiation form of influence tactic.

The second main focus of the research on PB has been on exploring the possible antecedents. This research, similar

to OCB research, has focused on both dispositional and contextual antecedents. The dispositional antecedents suggested in this research include machiavellianism, self-monitoring, locus of control, insecurity, self-efficacy, need for power, and cognitive styles (Ferris et al., 1989; House, 1988; Pandey & Rastogi, 1981; Ralston, 1985). The contextual aspects covered include leadership style, task ambiguity, perceived effectiveness of PB, target susceptibility, organization structure characteristics, task involvement, presence of role models, perceptions of opportunities for PBs (Cheng, 1981; Deluga, 1988; Ferris et al., 1989; Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Liden & Mitchell, 1988; Pandey & Rastogi, 1981; Ralston, 1985). Most of the explanatory models of PB reflect the view that certain individual propensities under the conducive or suppressive influence of organizational contexts give rise to PBs; a view very close to that of OCB suggested by Organ (1988). An organizational context is regarded as the generator of opportunities and threats, source of ambiguities and uncertainty, provider of role models, reinforcer of instrumentalities, and creator of task interdependencies (e.g., Ferris et al., 1989; Ralston, 1985).

The third focus of this research has been on the assessment of consequences of PB. For employees, the consequences have been suggested in the form of alienation, personal mistrust (Kumar & Ghadially, 1989), positive

supervisory affect and better performance ratings (Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Ferris, Judge, Rowland, & Fitzgibbons, 1994). For an organization, the consequences have been suggested in the form of low morale (Kumar & Ghadially, 1989), and perceptions of inequity (Liden & Mitchell, 1988). Research on this aspect is at a preliminary stage as an instrument to measure perceptions of political behavior (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992) has been constructed only recently to prepare the ground for systematic research on the consequences of PB.

Negative Behaviors

The research on negative behaviors (NB) or deviant behaviors has been much less extensive and systematic than that on OCB and PB. These behaviors, however, pose important contingencies for effective organizational functioning as Beyer and Trice (1984: 742) noted that "formal organizations are social structures formed to coordinate the behaviors of members so that collectively they can attain some focused goal or purpose. Coordination is impossible if behaviors are completely unpredictable; thus coordination requires some degree of control over behaviors..... The major sources of unpredictability usually discussed in the organizational literature are technologies and environments of an organization. Another obvious source of unpredictability -largely ignored by

organizational researchers is the deviant behaviors of organizational members."

Hollinger and Clark (1982) proposed two forms of employee deviance -property deviance and production deviance. They indicated that "the first group, which we label property deviance, focuses on those instances where employees acquire or damage the tangible property or assets of the work organization without authorization (e.g., theft of tools, equipment or money from the workplace). The second category, production deviance, concerns not the physical property of the organization but rather behaviors which violate the formally proscribed norms delineating the minimal quality and quantity of work to be accomplished (e.g., tardiness, slow or sloppy workmanship, the use of alcohol or drugs at work)" (Hollinger & Clark, 1982: 333-334).

These behaviors are extra-role in that they are beyond an employee's work-role behavior such as using unauthorized time-saving tools (Hollinger & Clark, 1982), spreading negative rumors about the company, wasting company resources by turning up the heat and opening windows (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). These behaviors are neither prescribed nor proscribed as a part of employees' formal role specification and, thus, constitute extra-role behaviors. At the same time, they are organizationally dysfunctional in that they reduce predictability (Beyer & Trice, 1984) and are

economically costly. Merriam (1977: 383) reviewed the economic consequences of a specific form of employee negative behaviors -employee theft. Based on the data from The National Retail Merchant's Association he noted that for the firms in the survey "the elimination of employee theft could increase profit and dividends by 50 per cent." Negative behaviors, thus, share the extra-role aspect with OCB. They, however, stand in contrast with OCB by being organizationally dysfunctional. This is consistent with the view of employee deviance suggested by Robinson & Bennett (1995: 556) who define employee deviance as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members or both." They further note that "employee deviance is voluntary in that employees either lack the motivation to conform to normative expectations of the social context or become motivated to violate these expectations."

Unlike OCBs and PBs, these behaviors have not been studied as a distinct theoretical construct or substantive category of behaviors. This is reflected in Robinson & Bennett's (1995: 556) observation that there have been only a few studies examining workplace deviance and these have addressed "specific questions about particular types of deviant acts." They note that studies have looked exclusively at a single behavioral category such as sexual harassment or theft. They further note that existing

research remains scattered and no comprehensive theory or theories of workplace deviance have been developed.

There are two related research streams that have, however, indirectly or partly focused on negative or deviant behaviors and which show some signs of a systematic approach to the study of NB. First of these are studies that extended Hirschman's (1970) typology of responses to organizational decline. Hirschman (1970) noted that employees (and dissatisfied customers) can either abandon the organization they are dissatisfied with, voice their concerns to seek improvement or just remain loyal. Loyalty, in Hirschman's (1970) conceptualization, was mainly seen as a factor influencing the choice between exit and voice responses as he noted that "as a rule, then, loyalty holds exit at bay and activates voice" (Hirschman, 1970: 78). Robinson's (1993) interpretation of Hirschman's work is consistent with this. Farrell (1983), however, viewed Hirschman's work as suggesting loyalty as a separate category of response to dissatisfaction. In an extension of Hirschman's typology, Farrell (1983) developed a typology of employee behavioral responses to job dissatisfaction that included the above three categories namely; exit, voice, loyalty and incorporated a fourth category -neglect. Of these four categories, only the neglect category of responses partly overlaps with the negative behaviors such as psychological withdrawal or expression of general

disinterest. This research has explored the antecedents of an employee's choice among these behaviors. For instance, Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, and Mainous (1988) studied satisfaction, alternatives, and investments as the determinants of an employee's choice to adopt one of these behavioral options. Withey and Cooper (1989) also studied a similar set of antecedents to explain the factors that influence an employee's adoption of one or more of these options. In refining this typology further, Robinson (1993) dropped the loyalty category and added destruction and silence categories. She also replaced the exit and neglect categories with a single category of retreat. Her conceptualization, thus, included retreat, voice, silence and destruction as four categories of employee responses to dissatisfaction. The empirical pattern from her study, however, yielded exit, voice, silence, retreat, and destruction as five categories of responses to dissatisfaction of which neglect and destruction are NBs. Thus, the modifications in Hirschman's basic typology have brought it to have a gradually increasing overlap with NBs.

The second stream of research that indirectly or partly addressed NBs is based on an inductive approach. This approach also, like the first approach described above, studies negative behaviors as a part of employees' behavioral options in response to dissatisfaction. Fisher and Locke (1992) report a series of studies by Locke and his

associates where they attempted to inductively identify and categorize employee responses to dissatisfaction. Some of these categories include avoidance actions, defensive actions, passive-aggressive actions such as intentionally missing deadlines for projects, expressive actions such as "getting mad at other people on the job," and hostile actions. The other response categories identified in these studies are neutral or at least nonnegative such as persuasive expression or constructive problem solving. Similarly, Roznowsky and Hulin (1992) identified a set of behavioral families of employee responses to dissatisfaction. Some of these behavioral families such as psychological withdrawal or input reduction are close to the being NBs. In particular, they come close to the production deviance form of negative behaviors in Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology of deviant behaviors. The place of negative behaviors in these two research streams - research that extended Hirschman's typology and research stream that (in a partly inductive manner) identified the categories of employee responses to dissatisfaction- can be seen in Figure 2 where various categorizations of employee response to dissatisfaction are juxtaposed. Some of the typologies covered in Figure 2 have been listed in a table by Fisher and Locke (1992: 171). They, however, did not map them onto each other nor did they separate the domain of NBs in them.

FIGURE 2
The Place of Negative Behaviors in the Typologies of Employee Responses to Dissatisfaction

Hirschman (1970)	Farrell (1983)	Robinson (1993)	Locke and Associates	
			1	2
Loyalty *	Loyalty	-	-	-
Voice	Voice	Voice	Persuasive Actions	Constructive Protest or Problem Solving
Exit	Exit	Exit	Avoidance Actions	Physical Avoidance or Escape from Job as a Whole
-	Neglect	Retreat	Passive-Aggressive Actions	Avoidance of the Work Itself
-	-	Destruction	Expressive Actions, Hostile Actions	Defiance, Resistance to Authority; Aggression, Revenge, Retaliation
-	-	Silence	Defensive Actions	Psychological Adjustment

Negative or Deviant Behaviors

Note:

1. Some of the above individual typologies have been listed in a table by Fisher and Locke (1992: 171).
2. Fisher and Locke (1992), however, did not map these typologies onto each other as done here.

* As noted in Chapter 2, there are different views on whether loyalty is a distinct behavioral choice in Hirschman's (1970) typology.

Similar to OCB research which began with an attempt to highlight importance of employee satisfaction in inducing organizationally valuable employee behaviors, the above highlighted research stream (e.g., Fisher & Locke,, 1992) also focuses on establishing the significance of employee dissatisfaction in inducing certain, predominantly negative or nonpositive, behavioral responses. However, unlike OCB research which used satisfaction-OCB link to explore specific OCB antecedents and to propose retrospective theoretical explanations for their effect on OCB, this research has focused on devising better employee behavioral or response measures to help establish the utility of employee dissatisfaction in accounting for these refined behavioral measures. This focus on demonstrating the utility of the satisfaction construct rather than on devising explanatory schemes to account for employee NBs is reflected in Fisher and Locke's (1992) concluding remark on their assessment of the 'new look' research on employee satisfaction. They comment that "the new look research (on job satisfaction) somewhat rehabilitates the reputation of job satisfaction as an important predictor in organizational research" (Fisher & Locke, 1992: 192) (the text in parentheses is added).

The central argument in this research can be summarized as follows. There are two possible sets of options to enhance the predictive value of employee satisfaction.

First, the satisfaction measures can be made facet specific or retained in their general forms. Second, the outcome measures, that is, the behavioral responses, can be made into broader constructs or assessed in terms of concrete and specific behavioral instances. This research further notes that facet satisfaction measures have not been effective in terms of behavioral predictions (Fisher & Locke, 1992: 169). This leaves the research with the general satisfaction measures as the choice from the first option set. In the second option set -broader behavioral constructs versus specific behavioral items- it is not considered desirable to study specific behavioral forms as outcome variables because it impairs the theory development process through poor generalizability (Roznowski & Hulin, 1992). This leaves the researchers with broader behavioral constructs as the choice in the second option set. Thus, adopting general satisfaction measures from the first option set, this research seeks to demonstrate these measures' utility by identifying and adopting broad behavioral categories as the outcome or criterion variable. This has necessitated the generation of broad behavioral categories (e.g., Locke & Fisher, 1992) or behavioral families (e.g., Roznowski & Hulin, 1992). Consequently, a recurringly expressed need in this research is for more comprehensive categorizations or typologies of employee responses to dissatisfaction (satisfaction).

Thus, research on NBs is characterized by two approaches. One approach suggests a need for developing a systematic theory of deviant behaviors, and has proposed a definition and typology of deviant behaviors as a starting point (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The other approach focuses on an employee's behavioral responses to dissatisfaction and subsumes negative behaviors in it. It seeks to identify broad behavioral categories to establish a correspondence between the global satisfaction measures and broader behavioral response categories. The focus is on proposing categories of employee responses to dissatisfaction. This research stream proposes models in terms of the causal role of dissatisfaction which is moderated by several contextual variables and results in an employee's behavioral responses to dissatisfaction (e.g., Fisher & Locke, 1992). Thus, development of theoretical frameworks and empirical studies of NBs, as such, are largely overlooked in existing OB research.

Linkages Across the Three ERB Research Streams

The above review suggests that the research on these three forms of ERBs has progressed largely independently. There is no commonality either in the specification of these constructs or in the theoretical perspective used to explain them. Also, research in these areas has progressed unevenly and the existing understanding of them is, therefore,

unequal. This may be consistent with the middle range theory building process (Pinder & Moore, 1969) where these three domains are treated as distinct and each domain is studied with a separate approach. This will be appropriate only if these three domains are unrelated. They, however, do not seem to be.

The overlaps and commonalities across these domains are reflected in existing research on each of these ERB categories. Numerous researchers have noted the need for acknowledging surface similarities and true distinctions between OCBs and PBs. Organ (1988) suggested the need to distinguish ingratiation behaviors, referred to as "boot-licking" and other calculative behaviors, referred to as behaviors in the pursuit of "brownie points," from true OCB. Schnake (1991) also made similar suggestions. In contrast, researchers studying PBs have suggested that the distinction may be either highly significant or may not exist at all (e.g, Ferris et al., 1994a; Fandt & Ferris, 1990). Ferris et al. (1994a: 1) note that "these two constructs (i.e., OCB and PB) and the work associated with them have progressed in parallel but unrelated fashion. That is, there has been an apparent implicit assumption that politics and citizenship are quite distinct behaviors. Indeed, one might argue that at a surface level these constructs represent polar opposites with self-interested nature of politics reflecting the antithesis of altruistic

nature of citizenship" (the text in parentheses is added). They further note that "however, a closer examination of these two constructs reveals that in a number of cases, the actual behaviors specified to reflect politics and citizenship are quite similar, if not identical."

This uncomfortable position of apparent similarity and conceptual distinction is further reflected by their another observation that "conventional wisdom would suggest that organizational politics and organizational citizenship are separate and distinct constructs. Indeed, the self-interested nature of politics is likely to be regarded as the antithesis of altruistic depiction of citizenship. However, several scholars who have recently critically examined the citizenship construct, have questioned its apparent altruistic underpinnings" (Ferris et al., 1994: 13-14. This sentence has been edited for what seems to be a slight syntax and grammar-related problem with the one in the article). Here these researchers suggest merging the two categories by removing the nonreward-seeking and other-benefitting dimension in the specification of the OCB construct.

While this is an extreme option, Fandt and Ferris (1990: 140) suggest a more balanced view. They note that "at the one extreme, there has been research examining prosocial behavior which is performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of individuals, groups or

organizations toward which it is directed, and is compatible with organizational goals. Alternatively, there has been attention diverted to political behavior which is opportunistic behavior engaged in for the purpose of self-interest maximization." They suggest a more reasonable position that "both types of behaviors are exhibited in organizations" and that researchers need to carefully examine the distinction between them, and better articulate their antecedents and consequences.

Thus, some researchers have taken an ambivalent position on the distinctiveness of the OCB and PB constructs (e.g., Ferris et al., 1994a). Other researchers in the area of OCB as well as PB have acknowledged the existence of a fundamental distinction between OCB and PB. They have also expressed a need for preserving, articulating and sharpening this distinction through systematic construct specification and theorization (e.g., Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Organ, 1988; Schnake, 1991).

A similar, though substantially less pronounced, overlap can be observed between PB and NB also. For instance, Ashforth and Lee (1990) specified several defensive political behaviors which are, in fact, deviant behaviors in the typology of deviant behaviors developed by Robinson and Bennett (1995). Similarly, Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology of deviant behaviors includes both NBs and PBs (PBs as influence tactics) and have been

seemingly subsumed under the single term of deviant behaviors. While the key aspect of NBs is its organizationally dysfunctional consequences (Robinson & Bennett, 1995) or organization harming effects, the salient feature of PBs is self-interests maximization (Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Ferris et al., 1994a). Therefore, similar to the earlier highlighted need for distinguishing OCB and PB constructs from each other, PB and NB constructs also need to be conceptually distinguished from each other.

Thus, two major research requirements emerge from the above discussion of ERBs. First, there is a need for mapping a property space in which the ERB constructs -OCB, PB and NB- can be both individually identified and distinguished from each other. Second, the existence of the common property space, as hinted at by several OCB and PB researchers, underlying these constructs also suggests that the unrelated and unintegrated approaches to the study of these constructs as evidenced in existing ERB research may not be appropriate. This suggests a need for specifying an integrated theoretical framework for explaining the occurrence of the range of ERBs that occupy a common property space.

The proposed work will address these two issues. First, it will specify a typology to identify each of the ERB constructs under study and to distinguish them from each other. Second, it will outline an integrated model to

explain the occurrence of the ERB classes generated by the typology of ERB specified in step one. These two aspects are outlined in the subsequent sections.

EMPLOYEE EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIORS (ERBs): A TYPOLOGY

The above reviewed ERB research suggests a need for distinguishing different forms of ERBs. The development of classificatory or typological schemes is one of the means of defining scientific concepts, with each class in a typology representing a concept (Hempel, 1965). More importantly, each class and, therefore, the associated concept is related to other classes in terms of its position with respect to other classes on the dimensions used in specifying a typology. Thus, a typological scheme not only defines a set of concepts but also distinguishes them from each other. Considering that the constructs of OCB, PB and NB are interrelated but in need of clear and systematic distinction, specification of a typology of ERB could be a critical starting point for further theorization in ERB.

Critical to the exercise of typology construction is, however, the need for adopting appropriate dimensions. These dimensions should yield relevant concepts or classes that help distinguish the categories of empirical phenomena under study, in the present case ERB categories. Some guidance for adopting a set of dimensions in constructing a

typology of ERBs can be derived from the above review of ERB research.

Existing research suggests two critical aspects of employee behaviors -an employee's concern for self-interests and concern for organizational interests or well-being. The critical premise in the OCB research is that these behaviors are directed at others' well-being, including that of an organization, without seeking immediate rewards or self-interests maximization. Similarly, the salient characteristic of political behaviors is the focus on self-interests maximization at the cost of organizational interests or at least without having a concern for it. Thus, these two dimensions -an employee's concern for self-interests and concern for organizational interests- seem to be common across and central to both the constructs that existing research has found necessary and difficult to distinguish from each other. Further, NBS or deviant behaviors reflect a lack of concern for organizational interests in that these behaviors are meant to inflict a harm on the organization. Adoption of these two dimensions namely; an employee's concern for self-interests and organizational interests yields a classification scheme as summarized in Figure 3.

The purpose of constructing an ERB typology was to systematically specify a set of ERB constructs and to highlight their distinctions from each other. The

FIGURE 3
Employee Extra-Role Behaviors: A Typology

An Employee's Concern for Organizational Interests

		High	Low
An Employee's Concern for Self-Interests	High	Constructive Utilitarian Behaviors (CUB)	Political Behaviors (PB)
	Low	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB)	Negative Behaviors (NB)

significance of the above specified typology, therefore, can be judged by assessing its utility in tapping the essence of ERB categories under consideration and in distinguishing them from each other.

In the proposed classification scheme, OCBs are characterized as those ERBs that reflect an employee's high concern for organizational well-being and also by his/her low concern for self-interests. This is consistent with the existing OCB specification which highlights the centrality of other-benefitting aspect in OCB conceptualizations. Similarly, PBs are characterized by a high concern for self-interests and low concern for organizational interests in the proposed typology. This is also consistent with the organizationally dysfunctional, opportunistic, destructive, divisive, self-interests-seeking, and parochial aspects highlighted in the existing conceptualizations of PB (Ashforth & Lee, 1990; Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Ferris et al., 1994a). Further, it specifies NBs as those behaviors that reflect a low concern for organizational interests and where employees are not concerned about self-interests maximization either. This is consistent with the definition of NBs as the behaviors that harm an organization. NBs do not necessarily serve the concerned employee's self-interests. The absence of self-interests maximizing element in NBs is evident in behavioral forms such as sabotage, (Hollinger & Clark, 1982;

Thompson, 1983), finding fault with the organization (Ball, Trevino, & Sims, 1994), and spreading negative rumors about the organization (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

The proposed typology also introduces a fourth category termed as constructive utilitarian behaviors (CUB). The term CUB was first adopted by Barr and Pawar (1995) to label a class in their specification of a taxonomy associated with the OCB construct. They, however, noted that this class had not been defined in existing research and used the term CUB to merely label that undefined or vacant class. The proposed typology characterizes CUBs as those behaviors where employees seek to further both self and organizational interests. This category has a special utility in addressing some important concerns raised in existing ERB research.

This category taps the central part of the political citizenship behavior construct suggested by Graham (1991) and the "civic virtue" dimension of OCB modelled on it (MacKenzie et al., 1990; Moorman, 1993). The essence of political citizenship lies in responsible participation in organizational activities (Graham, 1991). Moorman (1993: 761) describes the "civic virtue" form of political citizenship as involving "responsible participation in the political life of the organization." Some of the behavioral examples used to characterize the civic virtue form of political citizenship include attending meetings, keeping

informed of the developments in the organization, seeking active participation in the organization's affairs (MacKenzie et al., 1990; Moorman, 1993).

These behaviors reflect an employee's concern for organizational interests without undermining self-interests. These behaviors are similar to OCB in that they seek to further organizational interests but distinct from OCB in that they do not have the altruistic or self-interest sacrificing or subordinating element in them. While the existing research has found it difficult to distinguish OCB from these forms of political behaviors, the proposed typology clearly provides two classes which help distinguish these constructs. These two classes in the proposed typology characterize positive behaviors performed as "good soldiers" (Organ, 1988) and "good citizens" (Graham, 1991). The former may reflect altruistic OCB while the latter rational OCB, termed as constructive utilitarian behaviors (CUB), having a blend of utilitarian and organizationally constructive aspects.

Further, the CUB category in the proposed typology also helps address issues concerning the similarities and distinctions between OCB and PB highlighted earlier. Researchers have noted that some PBs could be organizationally functional (e.g., Ferris et al., 1994a) and that an employee's pursuit of self-interests may be organizationally advantageous. They have also suggested

that the study of PBs has suffered from the negative interpretation attached to it. The proposed typology helps acknowledge the positive or constructive aspect of PB by separating employee political behaviors into conceptually two distinct classes. One class -PB- reflects self-interests-maximizing behaviors that ignore or undermine organizational interests while the other class -CUB- reflects behaviors that seek to balance and further both self and organizational interests.

The proposed typology, thus, not only helps distinguish the "good soldiership" forms of OCBs from the "good citizenship" forms of OCB but it also highlights the distinction between constructive and dysfunctional forms of employee political behaviors. The classes specified in the proposed typology, thus, represent significant constructs in that they conceptually organize the domain of ERB under consideration.

Typological Concepts, to be useful, also need to have empirical import (Hempel, 1965) in that it should be possible to link them to observable empirical referents. The four ERB concepts generated by the proposed typology seem to meet this requirement also. These concepts, except the CUB construct, bear a correspondence with the specifications of various forms of ERBs in existing research. These corresponding constructs have been operationalized in existing research and thus can be

regarded as having empirical referents. Further, approaching the problem of workplace behaviors from a behavioral perspective, Hodson (1991) identified employee behavioral patterns termed as good soldiers, smooth operators and saboteurs which are similar to the OCB, PB and NB constructs yielded in the proposed typology. Thus, the classes in the proposed typology do not merely reflect hypothetical categories as they are consistent with the readily operationalized ERB constructs and partially map onto the behavioral classes specified in another classification scheme. In summary, the proposed typology helps identify four important forms of ERBs within a common conceptual scheme. Each class, except the CUB class, in it reflects the essence of ERB specification suggested in the existing research. While being consistent with the existing specifications of the individual ERBs, the typology also clearly distinguishes each class of ERB from others and, thus, addresses some issues raised in existing research concerning the similarities and distinctions between the ERB constructs.

Some limitations typically associated with a typological specification, however, also need to be noted. Typological specifications, such as the one proposed here, involve selectivity in adoption of dimensions and, as a result, not all attributes of the objects under consideration are included in specifying the classes

(McKinney, 1966). This leads to abstraction of a few of the several possible properties of the objects under study. Such abstraction, however, is basic to the theorization process (Homans, 1947). Therefore, it is possible that an alternative set of dimensions can be adopted to specify a different conceptual scheme for identifying and distinguishing the ERBs under consideration. In specifying the proposed typology, here the focus has been on two goals. First, it was necessary to specify each ERB construct as consistent as possible with the existing definitions. This consistency would help integrate the insights cumulated from the past research with the understanding that may be yielded from the proposed study. Second, it was also considered necessary to clearly outline the distinctions among various forms of ERBs. As outlined above, the dimensions adopted here serve both these goals.

These four ERBs identified in the typological scheme constitute the four units in the outcome part in the proposed model of employee ERB. The other parts of model - antecedents and mediating state- built around these units are specified in the subsequent sections.

THE PROPOSED MODEL: THE BASIC PREMISE

The four ERBs under consideration here are characterized by differing degrees of concern for self-interests and organizational interests. An employee's

performance of a particular form of ERB, thus, reflects his/her relative concern for self- and organizational interests. Research on social exchange suggests that an individual's willingness to pursue gains for oneself, balance gains for oneself and others or provide unilateral contributions to others' welfare is influenced by the nature of his/her relationship with the other party in the exchange. In characterizing a set of gestalts of social exchange relationships, Schwinger (1986) outlined five prototypes. They range from unilateral giving in a relationship involving very positive affect or intimacy to harm-inflicting tendencies in an antagonistic relationship. Similarly, Clark and Mills (1979) noted that in certain relationships, the emphasis is on unilateral giving or benefitting others without a concern for receiving returns. Just as an individual is involved in interpersonal relationships, an employee is involved in a reciprocal attachment to an organization (Levinson, 1965). An employee's relationship with an organization, therefore, can have shades of affect just as an interpersonal relationship.

This possibility, however, needs to be considered against the prominence of self-interests as the starting point in an employee's organizational involvement. Several researchers have noted that an employee's organizational involvement is based on the desire to further self-interests (e.g., Burns & Stalker, 1961; Simon, 1976; Thompson, 1967).

Organizations, as a result, seek to subdue individual self-interests and align them with organizational interests. This is the central premise of the transformational leadership research (e.g., Bass, 1985) and organizational culture research (e.g., Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983). As a joint result of the prominence of an employee's self-interests in his/her organizational associations and organizational mechanisms seeking to subdue it, an employee's relationship with an organization could have various mixes of concern for self- and organizational interests. It could range from a high level of concern for self-interests with a complete disregard for organizational interests to a high degree of concern for organizational interests with individual interests subordinated to organizational interests.

This possibility of a broad range of employee-organization relationships is central to the contracts perspective also. Rousseau and Parks (1993) suggest that an employee's contract with an organization could be positioned on a continuum spanning across transactional and relational contracts. Though both of these contractual forms have an economic focus they can be distinguished from each other. A transactional contract is narrow-scoped, close-ended and has an extrinsic focus, while a relational contract is broad-scoped, open-ended, and has a socio-emotional and intrinsic focus (Rousseau & Parks, 1993). Rousseau and Parks (1993) note the possibility of a

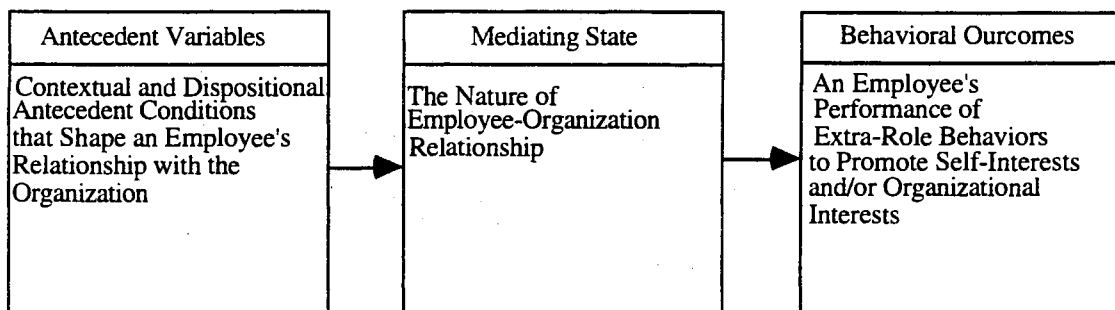
movement between these two forms of contracts. They also suggest that the longer the duration of the contract, the more general are the contract terms (Rosseau, & Parks, 1993: 31). They further highlight that "as duration of the relationship increases, individuals come to believe contract terms include more relational, socioemotional terms" (Rousseau & Parks, 1993: 32), implying the development of a relational contract. Thus, it is conceivable that an employee's organizational relationship begins with a transactional orientation. This represents the reward-contribution ratio based relationship where each party -an employee and the organization- clearly seeks to articulate and protect its interests. Out of this transactional contract, however, develops a more diffuse exchange relationship where trust and mutual concern is superimposed onto self-interests-seeking exchange relationship in which assessment of exchange is frequent and the exchange ingredients are specific. The affective overtones implicit in the relational contract become prominent and central as a relationship moves away from a transactional contract, goes beyond a relational contract, and approaches covenantal end of the relationship continuum. In a covenantal relationship, the focus is not on the gains but on attaining common ends. The emphasis is not on exchange but on integrality (Bromley & Busching, 1988). Such complete self-interests transcending condition is the

ideal that mechanisms or processes such as transformational leadership seek to attain (Burns, 1978).

This, however, reflects only one direction of the possibilities in the development of an employee-organization relationship. The other direction suggesting increasingly distancing or negatively intensifying relationship is central to the literature on organizational alienation. This was empirically noted at a very early stage in OB research (e.g., Mayo, 1933). It has also been observed in recent research (e.g., Ashforth, 1989; Blauner, 1964; Podsakoff, Williams, & Todor, 1986; Thompson, 1983). While relational contracts and covenants suggest a gradual bonding of an employee-organization relationship, alienation reflects a weakening of it. Consistent with this, a core part of the employee alienation is isolation from the system -an organization in the present context. This alienative relationship is marked by hostility and a negative affect of an employee towards the organization (Kanungo, 1982). Thus, OB research suggests that an employee's relationship with an organization, just as an individual's social exchange relationship with another individual, can span across a continuum. The extremes of this continuum are marked by a strong positive affect or moral bonding at one end, and alienation or negative and indifferent sentiments at the other end. At the mid-position on this continuum is the instrumental or self-interest-seeking relationship.

Based on this, it follows that ERBs reflecting differing degrees of concern for self- and organizational interests should be influenced by the quality of an employee's relationship with the organization. Further, based on the premise that an employee's organizational involvement originates in the pursuit of self-interests and can develop into either an increasingly moral or alienative relationship as a result of organizational experiences, a set of contextual variables that determine an employee's organizational experiences or evaluations should account for the nature of employees' relationship with the organization. Also, based on the first premise that an employee's ERBs are determined by the nature of relationship with an organization, the effects of the antecedents on ERBs should be translated mainly through their influences in shaping this relationship. In other words, the nature of employee-organization relationship should mediate the link between ERB and its antecedents. These premises and the above outlined deductions from them suggest the skeletal model of employee ERBs outlined in Figure 4.

While the model evolves from the premises specified above, support for it can also be found in some of the prominent views in OB research. These views have used the concept of commitment which partly taps the nature of an

FIGURE 4**An Outline of the Basic Model of Employee Extra-Role Behaviors**

employee's relationship with an organization. For instance, Wiener (1982) argued that organizational commitment is a better predictor of employee behaviors than is job satisfaction. Scholl (1981) developed a typology characterizing expectancy and commitment based components in an employee's motivation in organizational contexts. He suggested that the relative emphasis on one of these two motivational components, which in the above outlined view reflects the nature of employee-organization relationship, may influence the occurrence of employee ERBs. In a broader context of overall employee behavior in organizational contexts, Sussmann and Vecchio (1991) proposed that an employee's organizational involvement is the key mediating state resulting from antecedent conditions and leading to employee behavioral intentions. Thus, conceptual views in OB research also offer support for the proposed basic model.

The skeletal model outlined in Figure 4 above highlights a need for specification of the organizational involvement or employee-organization relationship construct and also identification of a relevant set of antecedents that shape it. This specification would then serve as a foundation based on which the three broad sets of relationships -between employees' organizational involvement and ERBs, antecedent conditions and ERBs, and antecedent conditions and organizational involvement- can be hypothesized. Therefore, the organizational involvement

construct is specified in the next section and then the relevant antecedent variable categories are identified.

The Nature of Organizational Involvement: Organizational Commitment and Beyond

The possible development of an employee's affective relationship with an organization beyond a self-interests-based instrumental relationship is the essence of the organizational commitment construct. The organizational commitment construct reflects a force that sustains behavioral direction in the absence of instrumental considerations (Scholl, 1981). It reflects a normative force that affects employee behaviors independent of instrumental and calculative considerations (Wiener, 1982). Buchanan (1974: 533) highlights the affective element in the concept of commitment by defining it as "a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from purely instrumental worth."

In existing research, an employee's organizational commitment, however, has been conceptualized from an active-affective attachment perspective as well as from an instrumental-passive binding or non-affective perspective. The former perspective holds that an employee is attached to an organization because of the identification with the

organization and his/her sentiment of loyalty. This bond is based on the development and fulfillment of a psychological contract between an employee and the organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). The latter non-affective perspective incorporates two different views. One view in the non-affective perspective holds that an employee incurs side-bets in the form of sunk costs and future expected returns on investments already made in the organization (Alutto, Herbeniak, & Alonso, 1973; Angle & Perry, 1981; Becker, 1960). In the same non-affective perspective, another view suggests that an employee is committed to an organization because of the very act of joining the organization (Salanick, 1977). This view holds that an individual's actions and behaviors form an undeniable reality. These actions and behaviors constitute undeniable realities around which attitudes are developed (Kiesler, 1971). According to this view, the act of joining and staying with an organization necessitates attitudes in favor of it. The intensity of the favorable organizational attitudes, in this view, is determined by the aspects of explicitness, volition, irrevocability, and publicity associated with an employee's decision to join or stay with an organization (Salanick, 1977).

Recent research has sought to synthesize these diverse conceptualizations. Allen and Meyer (1990) proposed that organizational commitment can take three forms -continuance,

affective and normative commitment. They also suggested conceptual independence among these dimensions, thus highlighting the possibility of their coexistence. Similarly, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggested that an employee's organizational commitment could stem from three bases -compliance, identification and internalization. The empirical assessment of these recent models indicates that affective commitment from Meyer and Allen's three-component model is redundant with the conventional commitment measure of Mowday et al. (1982) while the identification component of O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) is also redundant with the Mowday et al. measure (Vandenberg, Self, & Seo, 1994). Both these models of commitment, thus, include the conventional conceptualization of affective commitment but go beyond it by incorporating additional dimensions. Even these more comprehensive and latest models of organizational commitment, however, have limitations in conceptualizing employee-organization relationship.

The normative dimension of the Allen and Meyer's (1990) model of organizational commitment does not reflect the nature of employee-organization relationship. Rather, it reflects an employee's personal belief or values concerning the need for maintaining membership of any organization in general as opposed to changing organizational membership frequently. Also, the continuance commitment dimension of their model reflects an employee's desire to stay with an

organization because of low external alternatives or high investments in the organization (Hackett, Bycio, Hausdorf, 1994). It, thus, reflects reasons for employees' maintaining an organizational relationship rather than the quality of such relationship. Further, it does not capture the calculative quality of an employee-organizational relationship where employees actively seek to further their self-interests. It also ignores the negative end of the employee-organization relationship reflected in an alienative relationship. Excluding the possibility of an alienative employee-organization relationship and focusing on the affective commitment aspect is a significant limitation. A lack or low level of affective commitment does not indicate whether an employee's relationship with an organization is merely neutral and non-affective or is alienative and negative-affective. Thus, Meyer and Allen's conceptualization of organizational commitment is truncated in that it does not capture the complete range of an employee's relationship with an organization. It also does not incorporate the instrumental or active self-interests seeking aspect of the employee-organizational relationship.

The other multidimensional conceptualization of organizational commitment by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) has a similar limitation in that it does not capture the negative end of the employee-organization relationship. Also, it describes the bases from which an employee's

attachment to the organization is sustained rather than highlighting the quality of the employee-organization relationship. Furthermore, validation research on it (Vandenberg et al., 1994) has suggested against the use of the only measure that operationalized this conceptualization. Thus, even the multidimensional conceptualizations of organizational commitment in existing research are inadequate for conceptualizing the complete continuum of an employee's relationship with an organization. This continuum, as outlined earlier, has alienative and moral (positive-affective) relationships at its extreme positions and calculative relationship at its mid-position. This requires going beyond the above outlined views of organizational commitment and adopting a more comprehensive view of an employee's organizational involvement. Etzioni's (1961) view of organizational involvement offers the possibility of capturing this entire continuum of the employee-organization relationship.

Etzioni's View of Organizational Involvement

Etzioni (1961) proposed a theory of complex organizations based on two core parameters -the type of power used by an organization in governing employees and the nature of employees' organizational involvement. This theory outlines three types of power -coercive, remunerative and normative. In this theory, employee involvement

reflects an employee's orientation toward an organization and has both direction and intensity (Etzioni, 1961). The direction could range from positive to negative and intensity could range from high to low. Thus, a high intensity of positive orientation toward an organization characterizes moral involvement, and a high intensity of negative orientation toward an organization characterizes alienative involvement (Etzioni, 1961). The mild positive or mild negative orientations characterize calculative involvement (Etzioni, 1961). One of the central propositions of this perspective is that there is a correspondence between the type of power used by an organization in dealing with employees and the nature of employee's organizational involvement. Some support for this proposition is provided in a recent empirical study by Drummond (1993).

As suggested earlier, an employee's organizational relationship begins in a calculative orientation with a view to promote self-interests and can acquire affective and alienative overtones as it evolves over time. Based on this, it was also noted that the resulting employee-organization relationship can span across a continuum with positive-affective and alienative relationships at its two end positions and calculative relationship at its mid-position. Etzioni's view of an employee's organizational involvement, which includes moral, calculative and

alienative forms of involvement, provides a comprehensive conceptualization of an employee's organizational involvement to cover the entire continuum of employee-organization relationships of interest here. Therefore, it is the appropriate choice for adopting a suitable construct to reflect the mediating state of the nature of employee-organization relationship or organizational involvement in the proposed model. Etzioni's conceptualization of organizational involvement has not been extensively adopted as a mediating state or reflection of the employee-organization relationship in existing research. Sussmann and Vecchio (1991), however, suggest that most of the models that use some form of intermediate variables to explain the occurrence of employee behaviors or behavioral intentions have implicitly sought to characterize the organizational involvement from Etzioni's conceptualization.

Thus, two considerations suggest the appropriateness of Etzioni's conceptualization in specifying the nature of employee-organization relationships as a mediating state in the proposed model. First, the existing conceptualizations of commitment do not capture the active self-interests-seeking aspect of employee-organization relationships. The compliance commitment and continuance commitment dimensions in these multidimensional models of commitment, as noted earlier, do not reflect an employee's calculative, self-interest based relationship. Further,

they focus only on the positive-affective and purportedly calculative (but actually a passive or neutral) components of employee-organization relationship while leaving out the negative component. Second, existing models focus more on the bases or reasons for the persistence of employee-organization relationship than on the nature or quality of this relationship in terms of a relative mix of an employee's concern for self-interests and organizational interests. Etzioni's view of organizational commitment, in contrast, focuses on an employee's attitude or orientation towards the organization and, thus, better captures the quality of employee-organization relationship. In the proposed model, therefore, moral, calculative and alienative involvements will be used to characterize an employee-organization relationship. This forms the mediator part of the model.

Antecedents of Organizational Involvement

Existing research has conceptualized organizational involvement in terms of the organizational commitment construct. Numerous antecedents of organizational commitment have been explored in this research. A qualitative review of these studies is provided in Mowday et al. (1982) and a more comprehensive meta-analytic review is provided in Mathieu and Zajac (1990). The most frequently studied categories of antecedents include structural

aspects, role characteristics, job characteristics, work experiences and job choice-related factors (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). Additionally, several individual characteristics in terms of demographic as well as personality aspects have been studied as possible antecedents of organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982).

Two observations emerge concerning the past studies on the antecedents of organizational commitment. First, there is a lack of a theoretically derived and integrated set of antecedents (Penley & Gould, 1989). Second, there is inadequate theoretical base to suggest linkages between organizational commitment and several typical antecedents including demographic and personality variables, job characteristics, and leadership variables (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). These observations suggest a need for identifying a theoretically relevant set of antecedent categories that may account for an employee's organizational involvement.

Organizational involvement, as outlined here, reflects the nature of an employee's relationship with an organization. Consequently, it may be appropriate to consider some of the salient determinants that influence shaping of an individual's relationship with others entities. In organizational contexts, Locke (1976) suggested that an employee's attraction to his/her supervisor could be studied in terms of two types of

relationships that shape the bond between them. He characterized these two relations as functional and entity relations. Functional relations are based on the exchange of services necessary for employees' need fulfillment. In an employee-supervisor relationship, thus, an employee's attraction to a supervisor depends on the extent to which the supervisor provides services for helping the employee to attain important job values or desired outcomes (Locke, 1976). Locke (1976) further suggests that these values can be grouped into task related values and reward related values of an employee. Thus, an employee would be attracted to a supervisor to the extent he/she provides support to the employee for making work interesting and challenging, for minimizing interruption and providing facilities such as good equipment etc. (Locke , 1976). This suggests that the quality of supervisory support for employees' goal attainment is a determinant of the employee-supervisor relationship. Further, employees' attraction to their supervisors is also influenced by the provision of task related rewards such as promotion and pay raises (Locke, 1976). This suggests the role of outcome distribution in influencing an employee's attraction to the supervisor. Thus, provision of general support and rewards are the key determinants of the quality of a functional relationship-based bond between employees and their supervisors.

Locke (1976) further suggests that, in contrast with the functional relations, entity relations between employees and their supervisors can develop out of employees' perceptions of the similarity of supervisors' values and beliefs with that of their own. The net strength of a positive relationship or bond that employees develop with their supervisors is, thus, influenced by their receipt of general support and rewards from their supervisors, and similarity of their own values with that of their supervisors.

This view of the employee-supervisor relationship can be extended to the employee-organization relationship. Such extension would suggest that an employee's perception of organizational support for the attainment of his goals, appropriate provision of organizational rewards and perceived similarity with organizational values should be the key influences shaping the nature and quality of an employee's relationship with the organization. Support for this view is found in previous research.

Kanter (1968) proposed a view of the factors that determine an individual's commitment to a social system. Her view is suggested for social systems in general but she highlights that it is applicable to business or utilitarian organizations also. She suggested that an individual's commitment to an organization is based on cognitive, cathectic and evaluative bases of an individual's assessment

of the organization. This is consistent with Etzioni's view that employees' organizational involvement is a result of their cathectic-evaluative assessment of organizational context.

Cathectic assessment centers on the extent of gratifications received from an organization (Kanter, 1968), suggesting the role of an organization's support for gratifying the employee needs. Kanter (1968) notes that individuals' cognitive assessment centers around instrumental considerations in terms of appropriateness of the costs incurred by them and outcomes provided by the organization, suggesting the role of employees' exchange fairness-related assessment of an organization. Evaluative assessment centers around individuals' assessment of the organizational demands as fair and as expressing their own values, suggesting an element of employees' perceptions of the congruence between their and organizational values. Thus, employees' perceptions of the extent of organizational support received (cathectic assessment), fairness of the exchange with the organization (cognitive assessment) and value similarity with the organization (evaluative assessment) should be the three main determinants of the nature and quality of employees' bonding or relationship with the organization. Further, the social exchange research suggests that in social relations in general and in organizational contexts in particular, the fairness of

exchange is judged in terms of distributive and procedural justice (Greenberg, 1990; Tyler & Caine, 1981). Based on this, four constructs will be included in the proposed model as the contextual antecedents of an employee's organizational involvement namely; two aspects of organizational fairness -distributive justice and procedural justice- organizational support, and value congruence.

The above antecedents address the contextual factors influencing an employee's organizational involvement. Personality factors, however, play an important role in the development of employees' organizational commitment. This is reflected both in conceptual suggestions (e.g., Wiener, 1982) and empirical findings (e.g., Kidron, 1978; King & Miles, 1994; Oliver, 1990). Consistent with this, Lee, Ashford, Walsh, and Mowday (1992) suggest that an employee's organizational commitment is also determined by his or her propensity to be committed to organizational systems in general. They view commitment propensity as an aggregation of "specific personality characteristics and experiences which individuals bring to the organization" (Lee et al., 1992).

The above suggestion concerning the role of commitment propensity in shaping an employee's organizational commitment can be extended to identify a dispositional antecedent shaping the nature of an employee-organization relationship. In the proposed model, the construct of

employee-organization relationship taps individuals' transcendence of calculative exchange or concern for self-interests to develop moral relationship with an organization. Therefore, a broad-scoped construct that reflects an individual's general willingness to transcend self-interests and to contribute to or being concerned about the collective well-being is likely to be a relevant dispositional antecedent. An individual's general propensity to contribute to collective well-being will, thus, be adopted as a dispositional antecedent in the proposed model.

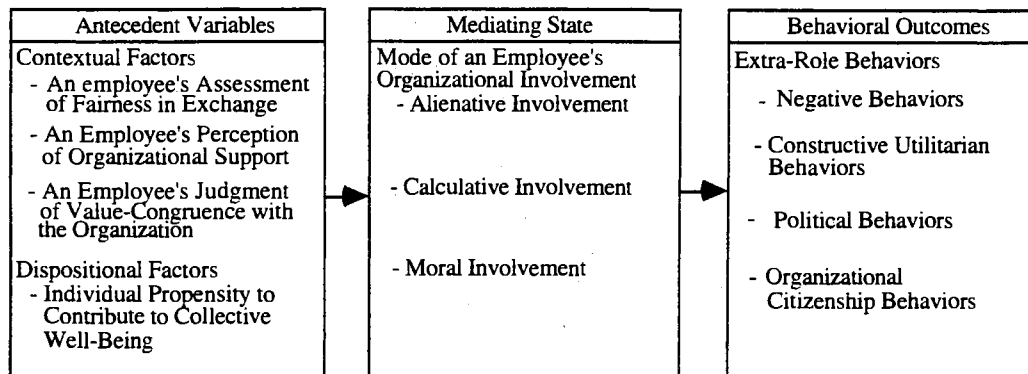
The proposed model formed by the four outcome variables (ERBs), three mediating variables (modes of organizational involvement), and five antecedent variables suggested above is outlined in Figure 5.

The proposed model, in contrast with a considerable body of existing research, does not include structural or job-related constructs as antecedents of organizational involvement. Two points may be noted on this selective inclusion of antecedents.

First, the focus here has not been on including the most comprehensive possible set of antecedents. Rather, consistent with the suggestions in existing research, an attempt has been made to identify a set of antecedents that form a coherent set with reference to a theoretical frame of reference. As outlined above, the antecedent constructs

FIGURE 5

The Proposed Integrated Model of Employee Extra-Role Behaviors



comprehensively map onto the cathetic, cognitive and evaluative aspects of an employee's assessment of an organization. Thus, they form a theoretically integrated set and within the theoretical view adopted they also form a comprehensive set. It is this coherence and comprehensiveness within a theoretical perspective that distinguishes the antecedent set of the proposed model from the other studies which have used one or two of these antecedents in the past in studying organizational commitment (e.g., Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Howsden, 1994; Folger & Konovsky 1989; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989). Second, the choice of the antecedent set is also consistent with the suggestion in existing research on the ordering of organizational commitment antecedents. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) suggest that the factors most proximally influencing employees' organizational commitment are their affective reactions, or perceptions. These, in turn, are influenced by relatively distal factors such as role characteristics. Other job-related and structural factors come at more distal points in this conceptually sequential chain outlined by Mathieu and Zajac (1990). The selection of constructs reflecting employee perceptions of organizational functioning in the proposed model helps it include relatively proximal factors from the set of conceptually sequential antecedents of organizational involvement.

THE PROPOSED MODEL: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE UNITS OF THE THEORY

The preceding section outlined the basic units of the proposed theory namely; four classes of ERBs, three modes of organizational involvement and a set of antecedents. This constitutes the first step in the theory building process - specification of the units of a theory (Dubin, 1969). The next step in theory building is specifying the relationships between the units of a theory (Dubin, 1969), which yields a set of propositions and hypotheses. Consistent with this, propositions and hypotheses linking the units- antecedents, mediating state and outcome components- of the proposed theory are specified in the following section.

Contextual Antecedents

In the preceding section three contextual antecedents - organizational support, organizational fairness and value congruence- and one dispositional antecedent -individual propensity to contribute to collective well-being- were identified as relevant. Relationships between these antecedents, the mediating state of organizational involvement and the outcome component of employee ERBs are specified in the following sections.

Contextual Antecedents: Organizational Support

Organizational support and organizational involvement. Fulfillment of organizational task requirements is the key function employees need to serve (Katz & Kahn, 1966). Individuals, however, seek to be accepted as complete human beings as opposed to technically constrained suppliers of labor (Argyris, 1957). Consistent with this, Selznick (1948) suggested that individuals resist organizational attempts to provide them only partial inclusion in organizational functioning. Employees, thus, go beyond the task-requirement based activities to express themselves as social actors with a broader range of needs to pursue. Mayo (1933) also adopted the premise that employees attempt to seek irrational and nonrational need fulfillment beyond the rational logic imposed on them by the formal organizational system. Argyris (1957) noted that conflict often exists between employees' needs for a complete self-expression and organizational tendency to restrict employee involvement within a technically determined hierarchical pattern of organizational functioning. More recent research (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1988) also adopts this view highlighting that individuals seek fulfillment of a broader range of developmental needs in the workplace.

In conceptualizing an organization's responsiveness to employees' attempts to seek fulfillment of their needs, researchers have adopted various constructs or approaches.

For instance, McGregor (1960) focused on a participative approach as a means of promoting employee self-development. Conger and Kanungo (1988) proposed the concept of empowerment to reflect organizations' attempts to provide various forms of support for the fulfillment of a broad range of employee needs.

In a more general context, a broad-scoped and theoretically grounded view of external support for an individual's fulfillment of diverse needs is reflected in the concept of social support. The social support construct captures both affectivity of relationship and diffuseness of support resources available for need fulfillment. It reflects an individual's belief that he/she is a valued member of the group and the resources required for his/her need fulfillment and well-being will be provided (Sarason, Shearin, & Pierce, 1986). The social support construct, thus, specifies a global belief concerning the availability of a diffuse form of resources for the fulfillment of various needs. It focuses on general and broad range of needs as opposed to specific needs such as need for autonomy or control that concepts of empowerment and participative management seek to emphasize.

Research indicates that employees do seek such diffuse support for gratification of their multiple needs. Levinson (1965) notes that employees attach themselves to organizations to meet several psychic needs. In a similar

vein, Nelson, Quick, and Joplin (1991) suggest that employees seek to attach themselves to an organization as an extension of their generalized tendency to feel secure concerning their need fulfillment.

While the concept of social support suggests assurance of general resource availability for need fulfillment, researchers have specified the nature of these resources by highlighting the functions they serve in fulfilling individuals' needs. These include informational, instrumental, emotional, and esteem-enhancement functions (Wills, 1985). In organizational contexts, these functions could be served by various organizational agents and mechanisms. Consistent with this, an extension of the social support concept to organizational contexts is reflected in the construct of organizational support proposed by Eisenberger, Hutchison, Huntington, and Sowa (1986).

Organizational support meets the affiliation, approval and esteem needs of employees, (Eisenberger et al., 1986), thus suggesting a correspondence with the concept of social support. Furthermore, they also suggest that the construct reflects employees' assessment or perception that their well-being is valued by the organization. Consistent with this conceptual similarity of the construct of perceived organizational support with social support, George, Reed, Ballard, Colin and Fielding (1993) suggested that perceived

organizational support fulfills the key functions associated with social support availability. Specifically, they highlight the instrumental, informational, and esteem-enhancement functions that it serves in meeting employee needs. It, therefore, follows that the perceived organizational support reflects an employee's assessment that his well-being is valued by an organization and the resources necessary for the fulfillment of his/her needs will be provided by the organization. Perceived organizational support, thus, indicates the cathetic or gratification-based significance of an organization for employees. Based on the earlier stated premise that an employee's organizational involvement is partly determined by the cathetic significance of the organization for his/her need fulfillment (Etzioni, 1961; Kanter, 1968), an employee's perception of organizational support should be a significant determinant of the nature of his her organizational involvement.

Consistent with this, existing research has found a significant positive association between perceived organizational support (POS) and employees' organizational commitment (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1990; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1994). While these studies have found a consistent association between perceived organizational support and organizational commitment, this has not been related to the three modes of involvement

suggested in the proposed model. Also, the construct of perceived organizational support has not been completely elaborated to suggest the process through which POS leads to the development of employee-organization relationship (e.g., Shore & Tetrick, 1991).

In deriving the linkages between perceived organizational support and three modes of organizational involvement -moral involvement (MI), calculative involvement (CI) and alienative involvement (AI)- the literature on social exchange, particularly on the concept of reciprocity and social support is relevant. The relevance of the reciprocity concept has also been highlighted by Eisenberger et al. (1986) in specifying the perceived organizational support construct.

The social exchange view of social support suggests that social support resources are depleted as they are drawn upon (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1990). This suggests that a recipient of social support is required to replenish the resource availability by providing the required services to the source of support. This resource exchange-based view indicates that an employee who seeks continued resource availability for his/her need gratification will have to offer reciprocal services to the organization. Further, considering that the organizational support reflects non-contractual and discretionary provision of resources (Eisenberger et al., 1986), an employee will be required to

provide a corresponding commitment to providing diffuse resource availability for the organization; necessitating an employee to feel and express a diffuse or broad-based commitment to organizational well-being.

Similarly, the literature on the concept of reciprocity suggests that a recipient of services experiences a state of indebtedness towards the benefactor or the provider of services (Gouldner, 1960; Greenberg, 1980). The conditions necessary for this include the value of resources received, intent of the benefactor, and extent of volition in the benefactor's actions (Gouldner, 1960; Greenberg, 1980). Since perceived organizational support reflects an organization's discretionary provision of services, originates in employee-benefitting intent and seeks to meet employee needs, it would be recognized as a voluntary (i.e., volitional) provision of services intended to benefit rather than manipulate an employee. An organization's provision of support to employees would, thus, meet the preconditions necessary for their experiencing indebtedness toward the organization. This indebtedness, based on an employee's receipt of organizational support, results in what Gouldner (1960) terms as "gratitude joining hands with rectitude," where an individual (i.e., an employee) seeks to benefit the benefactor (i.e., the organization) and seeks to avoid harm to it. This commitment to the benefactor's well-being

originates from the felt normative pressure of reciprocity rather than from calculative considerations.

Thus, an employee, in response to the felt reciprocity, should develop heightened MI, weakened AI and subdued CI as he/she is normatively committed to the organizational well-being (heightened MI), obliged to avoid harm to its interests (weakened AI), and required to go beyond specific return of benefits to the expression of gratitude-based reciprocity (subdued CI). Based on this the following proposition and hypotheses are specified.

Proposition 1

An employee's perception of organizational support will be differentially associated with the three modes of organizational involvement.

In particular, it is hypothesized (Table 1) that:

H1

The perceptions of organizational support will be positively associated with MI.

H2

The perceptions of organizational support will be negatively associated with CI.

H3

The perceptions of organizational support will be negatively associated with AI.

TABLE 1

Hypotheses: Organizational Support and Organizational
Involvement

	MI	CI	AI
Organizational			
Support Perceptions	+	-	-
	H1	H2	H3

While both the conceptual views and empirical findings in recent research suggest a positive association between perceived organizational support and affective commitment or the organizational commitment measure of Mowday et al. (1982) (the latter predominantly reflects affective commitment), it has been found to be unrelated to continuance commitment (Shore & Tetrick, 1991). The main reason for this is that continuance commitment reflects the restrictive force of high sunk costs or low outward mobility requiring an employee to stay with the organization rather than his/her calculative pursuit of an instrumental exchange with the organization. In contrast, the conceptualization of organizational involvement adopted here specifies calculative commitment as a form of an employee-organization relationship where employees actively pursue an instrumental and self-interest based exchange with an organization.

A related finding from another study (Eisenberger et al., 1990) also needs to be noted. Eisenberger et al. operationalized calculative involvement by using a study specific measure of "effort-reward expectancy". They found a positive relationship between this measure and perceptions of organizational support and suggested that organizational support is positively associated with calculative commitment. Their conceptualization of calculative commitment, however, reflects employees' beliefs concerning an organizational reward system's responsiveness to employee effort-levels. It, thus, does not tap employees' self-interests based concern for engaging in a calculative and instrumental exchange with an organization. Therefore, the hypothesized negative relationship between the perceptions of organizational support and CI in the proposed model is in contrast with the suggestions and empirical observations made in previous studies.

Organizational support and ERBs. Organizational support, as noted earlier, reflects an organization's voluntary provision of employee-benefitting services. Based on the conditions associated with the operation of the reciprocity norm, an employee would be induced to provide reciprocal services to the organization. In increasing one's inputs in the organizational contexts, it is easier to increase extra-role than in-role or task-specific inputs (Organ, 1988; Witt, 1991). Furthermore, the diffuseness in

the reciprocity-based obligation, in contrast with the specificity of transactional requirements, would also preclude concrete or specific in-role behaviors as an employee's reciprocation for the organizational support received. Therefore, there would be a positive association between employee perceptions of organizational support and OCBs directed at benefitting an organization.

CUBs reflect a strong concern for both self-interests and organizational welfare. Organizational support perceptions are likely to encourage both a sense of duty and active concern for an organizational well-being as reciprocity induces a blend of gratitude and rectitude (Gouldner, 1960) motives. CUBs represent an appropriate vehicle for expression of these motives without requiring an employee to sacrifice self-interests. Therefore, employees' organizational support perceptions should be positively associated with CUBs.

PBs reflect an active pursuit of self-interests at the expense of organizational interests. This suggests not only an absence of organization-benefitting intent but a disregard for organization-harming consequences, if any, of self-interests-seeking behaviors. This is in contrast with other-benefitting and harm-avoiding motives associated with the norm of reciprocity and feelings of indebtedness (Gouldner, 1960; Greenberg, 1980). Therefore, an employee's

perception of organizational support should be negatively related to PBs.

In contrast to OCB and PB, NBs reflect an employee's active pursuit of organization-harming behaviors that may or may not benefit the concerned employee. Perceptions of organizational support and the associated sense of indebtedness suggests the presence of an inner normative pressure to avoid harm to the benefactor (Gouldner, 1960). An employee's perception of organizational support should, thus, be negatively associated with NBs. Based on this the following proposition and hypotheses are specified.

Proposition 2

Employee perceptions of organizational support will be differentially associated with the four forms of ERBs. In particular, it is hypothesized (Table 2) that:

H4

Employee perceptions of organizational support will be positively associated with OCB.

H5

Employee perceptions of organizational support will be positively associated with CUB.

H6

Employee perceptions of organizational support will be negatively associated with PB.

H7

Employee perceptions of organizational support will be negatively associated with NB.

TABLE 2

Hypotheses: Organizational Support and ERBs

	OCB	CUB	PB	NB
Organizational Support Perceptions	+	+	-	-
	H4	H5	H6	H7

Organizational Fairness

Organizational fairness, just as social exchange fairness, consists of two main elements namely; distributive justice and procedural justice (Greenberg, 1990). An employee's cognitive judgments or reflective assessments of organizational context have been suggested to be largely based on the organizational fairness perceptions (Moorman, 1991; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Overall, organizational fairness reflects the appropriateness of the distribution or allocation of organizational outcomes as well as appropriateness of the procedures adopted in decisions concerning allocation of organizational outcomes to employees.

There is an important conceptual distinction between organizational support perceptions and organizational fairness judgments. Organizational fairness judgments involve a focus on fairness assessment with respect to the normative rights, referent standards or presumed entitlements of an employee (Folger, 1977; Folger & Martin, 1986) while the organizational support perceptions reflect provision of discretionary (Eisenberger et al., 1990) help by an organization and therefore something close to a gratuitous benefaction received by employees.

Consistent with the above noted centrality of distributive and procedural justice aspects in an employee's judgment of organizational fairness, researchers have paid considerable attention to the impact of procedural and distributive justice on employee affect and behaviors in organizations (e.g., Dailey & Kirk, 1992; Fryxell & Gordon, 1989; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Manogran, Stauffer & Conlon, 1994; Moorman, 1991; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). The research, however, has suggested that procedural justice and distributive justice differ in their relative primacy or importance in inducing organizational fairness judgments and that they have differential effect on employees' organizational commitment and behavioral responses (e.g., Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). Consistent with this, distributive and procedural justice will be considered as two distinct antecedents in specifying

the relationships between organizational fairness, and organizational involvement and ERBs.

Contextual Antecedents: Distributive Justice

Distributive Justice and Organizational Involvement. Distributive justice perceptions are based on fairness of outcome allocation with respect to the inputs that an employee perceives to have put in (Greenberg, 1990). This fairness is assessed with respect to the outcomes of a "referent other" which could be outcomes associated with another similar job, a coworker doing the same job, organizational pay level in general, occupational pay level in the labor market or other individuals with similar age and education (Scholl, Cooper, & McKenna, 1987). Receipt of unfavorable organizational outcomes with respect to referent-based norms leads to experienced anger and resentment (Adams, 1965; Homans, 1961). In organizational contexts where there is typically a salience of self-interests, this suggests an inverse relationship between distributive justice and alienative involvement.

The provision of distributive justice requirements, however, does not lead to a concern for the allocator's interests. Rather, it merely validates the recipients' right to these outcomes. This was demonstrated in Folger's (1977) experiment. Folger's study indicated that individuals who receive increased payment and restoration of

distributive justice in response to their voiced expectations reinforce or validate their rights rather than develop a positive affect for the allocator or experience increased satisfaction with the payments. Provision of distributive justice is, thus, a precondition for prevention of negative affective reaction rather than a significant generative mechanism for creation of positive relationship between the allocator and the recipient. Employee perceptions of distributive justice, therefore, should not be related to moral involvement.

The provision of distributive justice, as noted above, prevents the development of alienative involvement but does not promote the emergence of moral involvement. It assures employees that their receipt of organizational outcomes will have a correspondence with their inputs. It, thus, embodies the conception of reward-contribution based contractual relationship between employee and the organization. Provision of distributive justice is, therefore, likely to reinforce the transactional aspects of the exchange between an allocator and recipients, with both parties focusing on providing specific inputs and performing point-for-point assessment of outcomes. Consistent with this, Scholl (1981) placed together expectancy and equity related employee motivations in the instrumental category and distinguished them from the non-calculative motives associated with the normative or affective forms of organizational commitment.

This suggests that employee perceptions of distributive justice reinforce a transactional exchange between an employee and the organization. Distributive justice should, therefore, be positively associated with calculative involvement. Based on the above, it is specified that:

Proposition 3

Distributive justice will be differentially associated with the three forms of organizational involvement.

In particular, it is hypothesized (Table 3) that:

H8

Distributive justice will not have a significant association with moral involvement.

H9

Distributive justice will be positively associated with calculative involvement.

H10

Distributive justice will be negatively associated with alienative involvement.

TABLE 3

Hypotheses: Distributive Justice and Organizational

	Involvement		
	MI	CI	AI

Distributive	x	+	-
Justice			

	H8	H9	H10

Distributive justice and ERBs. An organization's adherence to distributive justice suggests its adherence to neutrality (Tyler & Griffin, 1991) and possibly to the principle of impersonality with an emphasis on strict assessment of an individual's contribution of specified inputs and commensurate provision of organizational rewards. The exchange is characterized by a high degree of transactional orientation, specificity and affective neutrality. The OCB-outcome link, by definition, is weak and rewards may not necessarily be point-for-point and definitively associated with OCB (Organ, 1988). At the same time, as noted above, mere provision of distributive justice does not subdue employee self-interests and transactional orientation; rather it strengthens the reward-contribution instrumentality in employee behavior. Therefore, distributive justice should have a negative association with

OCB as the transactional orientation reinforced by it would induce employees to put in effort where the rewards are linked to inputs with a high degree of certainty. Some empirical evidence supports this. Wright, George, Farnsworth, and McMahan (1993) found that individuals with high commitment to task goals regarded OCBs (more specifically OCBs directed at coworkers) as a source of distraction from their task commitments.

The above specified negative relationship between distributive justice and OCB is based on the premises that the provision of distributive justice reinforces transactional orientation and that the input-reward link is weak for OCBs. CUB, like OCBs, are extra-role behaviors and, thus, input-reward link is likely to be far from definitive for them also. Therefore, the above outlined premises that lead to the specification of a negative relationship between distributive justice and OCB also suggest a negative relationship between distributive justice and CUBs. Thus, distributive justice should be negatively associated with CUBs.

Provision of distributive justice, however, sensitizes employees to the economic aspect of their exchange with an organization. Employees, thus, are likely to follow the principle of distributive justice-based behaviors stated by Homans (1961: 55) that "more valuable to a man the unit of reward the other gives him, the more he will emit the

behaviors desired by the other person." Research on performance appraisals indicates that supervisor-focused influence tactics are desired by supervisors, performed by employees and are instrumental in providing employees the desired rewards (favorable performance rating) from supervisors (Ferris et al., 1994b). Thus, sensitization of employees to the economic aspect of exchange and associated tendency to perform behaviors that are valued by reward-providers and instrumental in obtaining rewards, suggest that PBs are likely to be an appropriate vehicle for employees to channel their extra-role inputs. Therefore, distributive justice should be positively associated with PBs.

When individuals do not receive distributive justice, they develop a strong negative sentiment toward the allocator as indicated in Homan's (1961: 75) proposition that "The more to a man's disadvantage the rule of distributive justice fails of realization, the more likely he is to display the emotional behaviors we call anger." Consistent with this, researchers have noted that failure of distributive justice induces negative behaviors such as theft (Greenberg, 1993). Sieh (1987: 177) suggests a very direct relationship between failure of distributive justice and employee negative behaviors as he notes that "the concern for equity on the job and its connection with employee theft is often understated." He highlights that in

response to inequity, employees seek unauthorized redress by taking away from the organization property or time.

Provision of distributive justice is, thus, likely to block negative reactions while its failure has been suggested to induce negative behaviors. Therefore, distributive justice should be negatively associated with NBs. Based on the above the following proposition and hypotheses are specified.

Proposition 4

Distributive justice will be differentially associated with the four classes of ERBs.

In particular, it is hypothesized (Table 4) that:

H11

Distributive justice will be negatively associated with OCB.

H12

Distributive justice will be negatively associated with CUB.

H13

Distributive justice will be positively associated with PB.

H14

Distributive justice will be negatively associated with NB.

TABLE 4

Hypotheses: Distributive Justice and ERBs

	OCB	CUB	PB	NB

Distributive	-	-	+	-
Justice				

	H11	H12	H13	H14

Contextual Antecedent: Procedural Justice

Procedural justice and organizational involvement. Procedural justice concerns appropriateness or fairness of the procedures adopted in making allocative decisions. Research has only recently focused on studying procedural justice related issues in organizational contexts (Greenberg, 1990). Research suggests that individuals, in general, assess procedural fairness in terms of several characteristics of which the important ones are ethicality, consistency, bias suppression, correctibility, representation and decision quality or accuracy (Tyler & Griffin, 1991; Tyler, 1988).

Existing research has not conclusively established the nature of the motivating mechanisms or psychological processes that underlie employee responses to the provision or failure of procedural justice in organizational contexts. Researchers, however, have offered retrospective

explanations for the various effects observed with the provision or failure of procedural justice (e.g., Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). Folger and Konovsky (1989) offered a reciprocity-based explanation by suggesting that when employees perceive that the organization is treating them fairly, they feel obliged to return fairness and hence express loyalty to it. Two points need to be noted concerning this explanation. First, the presence of such reciprocity-based processes induced by procedural justice has not been empirically assessed. Second, in terms of existing theory of procedural justice, the attempts to account for procedural justice effect by suggesting the operation of reciprocity-based processes, as explained below, do not appear sound.

Individuals hold preconceived beliefs, similar to beliefs concerning distributive justice outlining what constitutes procedural fairness (Folger, 1977; Folger & Martin, 1986). From an employee's view, then, provision of procedural justice is not a matter of an organization's discretion but an obligation that the organization is expected to meet. Employees, thus, have referent perceptions of procedural justice expectations from an organization. Consistent with this, failure of procedural justice has been found to induce a reaction of strong resentment from individuals (Folger & Martin, 1986). The empirical evidence on this reaction supports the view that

individuals have referent standards or legitimate expectations concerning expected procedural justice. Therefore, the provision of procedural justice is unlikely to lead to the attribution of volition to the organization. Attribution of volition to the counterpart in an exchange relationship is a precondition for the experienced indebtedness and reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960; Greenberg, 1980). Thus, the likely absence of attributed volition to an organization for its provision of procedural justice suggests that procedural justice provision does not invoke the reciprocity-based processes. The existing retrospective explanations of procedural justice effect in terms of reciprocity based processes, therefore, do not seem adequately sound.

A relatively more systematic approach adopted by some researchers suggests two alternative views of procedural justice effect, that is, the psychological processes through which procedural justice influences employee reactions. Consideration of these views is necessary for deriving the relationships between procedural justice and other variables -organizational involvement and ERBs- in the proposed model. These views are termed as self-interests (SI) model and group value (GV) model in existing research (e.g., Conlon, 1993; Tyler, 1989).

The SI model suggests that individuals seek procedural justice because it assures that their self-interests are

protected and because it provides them a control over the outcomes. Procedural justice, in the SI model, is thus a means to an end (Tyler, 1989). The GV model, in contrast, suggests that individuals expect procedural justice because it is a reflection of their value as a group member, a sign of an institution's concern for their self-respect and dignity. It is this latter view which suggests that the provision of procedural justice leads to individuals' affective attachment to organizations.

Empirical research has found a partial support for both the SI (Conlon, 1993) and GV models (Tyler, 1989). Existing research on this issue is, however, at a very preliminary stage, and differing operationalizations of these models and relatively few empirical studies addressing this issue preclude any conclusive statement concerning the process through which the procedural effect is manifested in organizational contexts.

The psychological processes specified in the self-interests model suggest that procedural justice would allay individual concerns for self-interests fulfillment by providing them an assurance of fair outcomes through the organizational adoption of fair procedures. Therefore, it will subdue an individual's active pursuit of self-interests since the presence of fair procedures makes it redundant. Consequently, according to the SI model, procedural justice

should be negatively associated with an employee's calculative involvement.

Similarly, extending the elements of procedural justice (Tyler, 1988) to an organizational context suggests that procedural justice in an organization indicates the organization's adherence to a set of norms. These norms ensure bias suppression, decision quality, representation and decision correctibility (Tyler, 1988). Thus, with the provision of procedural justice employees are likely to view organizational norms as conducive to the attainment of their legitimate goals. The provision of procedural justice should, therefore, preclude the development of a sense of alienation since alienation partly reflects a lack belief in established norms' utility in yielding the desired outcomes (Seeman, 1959). Procedural justice, thus, should be negatively associated with alienative involvement.

Procedural justice, according to the SI model, does not, however, offer anything to employees that they do not consider themselves to be entitled to. Also, the procedural consistency aspect of procedures suggests an absence of organizational intent to benefit a particular employee as such. Rather, the focus is on adhering to a set of procedures that are applied consistently, neutrally and without a bias. Consequently, from the SI model perspective, procedural justice will at the most yield legitimation of organizational authority rather than induce

attachment to and moral involvement in the organization. Procedural justice, therefore, should be unrelated to moral involvement.

The GV model, in contrast, suggests that provision of procedural justice is a sign of an organization's concern for an individual as an end in itself (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Tyler, 1989) rather than as a means to an end. According to this perspective, procedural justice conveys to employees that the organization has a concern for their self-esteem and dignity. Consequently, their urge for affiliation is influenced and they identify with the organization and its authority. From this perspective, procedural justice should not only prevent the development of alienative involvement, weaken calculative involvement but should also promote moral involvement. Thus, while both SI and GV model perspectives suggest similar effect of procedural justice on calculative and alienative involvement, they differ in prediction of the procedural justice effect on moral involvement. Based on this the following proposition and hypotheses are specified.

Proposition 5

Procedural justice will be differentially associated with the three modes of organizational involvement.

In particular, it is hypothesized (Table 5) that:

H15

- a. Procedural justice will not be associated with moral involvement (self-interests [SI] model perspective).
- b. Procedural justice will be positively associated with moral involvement (group value [GV] model perspective).

H16

Procedural justice will be negatively associated with calculative involvement.

H17

Procedural justice will be negatively associated with alienative involvement.

TABLE 5

Hypotheses: Procedural Justice and Organizational

Involvement

	MI		CI		AI

Procedural	x	(+)	-		-
Justice	-----				
	H15a	H15b	H16		H17

Procedural justice and ERBs. Provision of procedural justice suggests the existence of a normative order in the workplace. It is an indication that the procedures are protective of one's interests and due rights. Lerner and Meindl (1981) note that individuals learn to develop a

concern for others' interests when they are assured that such restraining or qualified pursuit of self-interests is beneficial for them in the long-term. Thus, even from the self-interests-based perspective or SI model perspective, provision of procedural justice should encourage employees to contribute to the collective well-being, suggesting a positive association with positive ERBs. Similarly, the GV model perspective also suggests a positive relationship between procedural justice and positive ERBs. It is this view that has been adopted by OCB researchers (e.g., Moorman, Niehoff & Organ, 1993). It suggests that procedural justice induces individuals to develop a positive regard for the collective system or institution. It also suggests that procedural justice leads to the development of trust in the organization and provides an assurance that in the long-run individual interests will be fairly served and frees individuals from being preoccupied with point-for-point assessment of outcomes. This freedom from immediate outcome orientation should serve as a generative force for OCBs.

Similarly, the strengthened belief in the alignment of self-interests and collective interests suggested by the self-interests model view of procedural justice should encourage OCBs that seek to meet both self- and organizational interests. From the group value model perspective also, the positive concern for a collective

system and its well-being induced by the provision of procedural justice should encourage CUBs.

Further, the belief that individual self-interests are served through collective interests should discourage both PBs and NBs since PBs seek to further self-interests at the cost of others' interests and NBs reflect a disregard for self as well as collective interests. Existing views offer some support for the above suggested negative association between procedural justice and PB, and between procedural justice and NB.

Fandt and Ferris (1990) have suggested that the uncertainty in organizational situations increases PBs. They note that "social influence and political behavior are more likely to be observed as uncertainty in the situation increases" (Fandt & Ferris, 1990: 141). Through consistent application of bias-free procedures and an emphasis on decision accuracy, procedural justice should reduce the uncertainty concerning organizational outcomes affecting employees, thus suggesting a negative relationship between procedural justice and PB. Similarly, Ferris et al. (1994a) suggest that PBs are influenced by employees' perceptions of success probability of PBs. The aspects of procedural justice (e.g., consistency, accuracy, decision quality) highlighted above are likely to weaken the success probability of political influence behaviors, thus further

suggesting a negative relationship between procedural justice and PB.

Some support for the negative association between procedural justice and NB comes from an experimental study. In this study by Greenberg (1993), subjects were paid below expected payment rates and then given an opportunity to steal money from the experimenter. The explanations offered to the subjects for their underpayment (the interactional and structural aspects of procedural justice) were varied to create low and high procedural justice conditions. The subjects stole larger amounts under low procedural justice conditions than under high procedural justice conditions. Consistent with this, Sieh (1987: 177) notes that "when experiencing injustice, workers respond by slowing down, striking, or filing grievances. They also engage in deviant and criminal behaviors." While this suggested relationship between justice and negative behaviors applies both to procedural justice and distributive justice, when considered with the findings from the Greenberg (1993) study, it suggests the role of procedural justice in blocking or intensifying negative behaviors that may be triggered by injustice concerning outcomes -distributive injustice. Based on the above, the following proposition and hypotheses are specified.

Proposition 6

Procedural justice will be differentially associated with the four classes of ERBs.

In particular, it is hypothesized (Table 6) that:

H18

Procedural justice will be positively associated with OCB.

H19

Procedural justice will be positively associated with CUB.

H20

Procedural justice will be negatively associated with PB.

H21

Procedural justice will be negatively associated with NB.

TABLE 6

Hypotheses: Procedural Justice and ERBs

	OCB	CUB	PB	NB
Procedural	+	+	-	-
Justice				
	H18	H19	H20	H21

Contextual Antecedent: Value Congruence

Value congruence and organizational involvement.

Internalized values are a significant source of motivation (Etzioni, 1988; Katz & Kahn, 1966; Shamir, 1990). Their motivational strength comes from their role in influencing individuals' evaluations and action choices. Individuals'

internalized values serve as ideals for evaluation of outcomes and events, and as standards for choice of actions (Rushton, 1981; Schwartz, 1977). In a similar vein, Rokeach (1973) views terminal and instrumental values as the preferred end states and modes of behavior. Since internalized values determine both the goals sought and means adopted by an individual, individual behavior can be considered as an expression or a pursuit of internalized values.

Therefore, to the extent the behaviors demanded in an organizational context are compatible with the behavioral choices suggested by an employee's internalized values, the employee's compliance with the organizational requirements would contain a non-calculative or normative force. Consistent with this, Kelman (1958) suggested that the deepest form of individual compliance is obtained when an individual whose compliance is sought regards the values of compliance seeker to be similar to his/her own values. In a similar vein, Etzioni (1988) noted that compliance based on expression of internalized values leads to a behavior that persists even in the absence of external control.

Going one step beyond the role of value congruence in influencing the quality of an employee's compliance with the organizational requirements, value congruence between an employee and an organization can influence the overall nature of employee-organization relationship. Kanter (1968)

notes that individuals' attachment to an organization is influenced by their assessment of the extent to which the organization is seen as pursuing right values and the extent to which its demands reflect their own values. Boxx, Odom and Dunn (1991) found that employees' organizational commitment is positively influenced when there is a correspondence between the extent to which employees think a value should be emphasized by an organization and the actual emphasis placed by the organization on that value. Wiener (1982), in presenting a model of employees' organizational commitment accorded a central role to value congruence. Empirical findings provide some support for the above suggested relationship between value congruence and organizational commitment (e.g., Meglino et al., 1989).

Further, at an interpersonal level, subordinates' perception of value congruence with a leader has been found to be positively associated with their positive affect for the leader (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1991). The findings on leader-subordinate value congruence and its effect on subordinate affect for the leader can be extended to employee-organization value congruence. Such extension would suggest a positive relationship between employee-organization value congruence and favorable employee affect for or attitude toward an organization.

Thus, when employees' values are congruent with that of an organization, they should serve as bases for positive

affect for the organization and its authorities and a source of motivation for compliance and identification with the organizational norms. These elements of an employee's orientation toward an organization characterize moral involvement (Etzioni, 1961). Therefore, there should be a positive relationship between employee-organization value congruence and moral involvement.

Further, value congruence also has an implication for calculative involvement. Researchers have suggested that an employee's organizational association stems from his/her motivation to pursue self-interests (Burns & Stalker, 1961; Simon, 1976; Thompson, 1967). An employee's pursuit of self-interests is typically restrained by specifying the organizationally expected contributions and associated contingent rewards. Consequently, calculative involvement is likely to be the natural form of an individual's organizational involvement. In the absence of value congruence, thus, organizational association has merely an instrumental significance for an employee. However, when organizations ensure a congruence between organizational and employee values, the behavior in the pursuit of organizational values acquires a force of its own (Katz & Kahn, 1966). Value congruence, to the extent it moves employees beyond instrumental considerations, should therefore be negatively associated with calculative involvement.

Also, with the congruence between an employee's and organizational values, organizational involvement is likely to provide an intrinsic meaning for him/her. Consequently, employees are less likely to experience meaninglessness - a dimension of workplace alienation. Some support for this is found in Blauner's (1964) view. In specifying the concept of workplace alienation, Blauner (1964) outlines meaninglessness as one of its dimensions. Blauner (1964: 22) notes that "as division of labor increases in complexity in large scale organizations, individual roles may seem to lack organic connection with the whole structure of roles, and the result is that the employee may lack understanding of the coordinated activity and a sense of purpose in his work." Congruence between employee and organizational values may serve to establish a link between employees' organizationally required activities and the activities that express their own values and may dampen the development of meaninglessness. Therefore, value congruence, through its influence on reduced sense of meaninglessness, should have a negative relationship with alienative involvement. Based on the above the following proposition and hypotheses are specified.

Proposition 7

Value congruence will be differentially associated with the three forms of organizational involvement.

In particular, it is hypothesized (Table 7) that:

H22

Value congruence will be positively associated with moral involvement.

H23

Value congruence will be negatively associated with calculative involvement.

H24

Value congruence will be negatively associated with alienative involvement.

TABLE 7

Hypotheses: Value Congruence and Organizational Involvement

	MI	CI	AI

Value	+	-	-
Congruence	-----		
	H22	H23	H24

Value congruence and ERBs. Value congruence operates in two ways. First, it deemphasizes the centrality of self-interests in an employee's organizational involvement by placing value expression as a codeterminant of behaviors. This is consistent with the joint role of normative and instrumental considerations in influencing employee behaviors in organizations (e.g., Wiener, 1982). Second, it assigns a positive valence to behaviors that are consistent with organizational values. In fact, one of the mechanisms

through which externally required (instrumental) behaviors acquire intrinsic valences is through internalization of values concerning the desirability of these behaviors (Koestner & McClelland, 1990). One of the advanced stages on this continuum of internalization process -identification stage- is described as a stage "in which formerly extrinsic regulation is experienced as one's own value or goal" (Koestner & McClelland, 1990: 534). Thus, contribution to organizational values, that is, to organizationally desired ends, should acquire a positive intrinsic valence for those employees whose values are congruent with that of the organization's. The extent of value congruence, therefore, should be positively related to an employee's contribution to organizationally desired ends and thus to organization-benefitting ERBs.

This premise is implicit in the covenantal contract-based explanation of employee OCBS (e.g., Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). Van Dyne et al. (1994) suggest that when there is an agreement on the ends sought, the exchange gains are immaterial and the individuals involved in such a relationship are bound to the common end. There is a mutuality operating in the relationship as opposed to calculations or reciprocity.

This apparent detachment from reward considerations in the relationship with an organization induced by value congruence should promote ERBs that benefit the organization

without yielding any individual benefits. Therefore, there should be a positive relationship between value congruence and OCB. Also, it is the perceived commonality of the values that should promote an active interest in organizational development and should, therefore, be positively related to CUB. Further, the relatively deemphasized role of calculations, and alignment of self and organizationally sought end-values should discourage behaviors that seek to maximize self-interests at the cost of organizational interests or seek to harm organizational interest without any regard for self-interests. There should, thus, be a negative association between value congruence and PB, and between value congruence and NB. Based on this the following proposition and hypotheses are specified.

Proposition 8

Value congruence will be differentially related to the four classes of ERBs.

In particular, it is hypothesized (Table 8) that:

H25

Value congruence will be positively related to OCB.

H26

Value congruence will be positively related to CUB.

H27

Value congruence will be negatively related to PB.

H28

Value congruence will be negatively related to NB.

TABLE 8

Hypotheses: Value Congruence and ERBs

	OCB	CUB	PB	NB

Value	+	+	-	-
Congruence	-----			
	H25	H26	H27	H28

Dispositional Antecedent: Social Interest

Social interest and organizational involvement. The three modes of an employee's organizational involvement considered here -moral, calculative and alienative involvements- reflect his/her willingness to promote, neglect or endanger organizational well-being. Ordinarily, an organization is a significant segment of an employee's psychological world (Levinson, 1965; Schwartz, 1987; Whyte, 1956). Therefore, from an employee's perspective it can be regarded as an important social entity. Consequently, an employee's propensity to meaningfully relate to social entities and develop positive relationship with them is likely to be a significant determinant of the nature of his/her organizational involvement. Consistent with this, Wiener (1982: 423) suggests that "the belief by an individual that he has a moral obligation to engage in a

mode of conduct fulfilling loyalty and duty in all social situations in which he has a significant personal involvement" is likely to be an antecedent of an employee's organizational commitment.

The construct of social interest taps individual propensity to relate to social entities and to be concerned about their welfare. Lundin (1989: 41) notes that "it involves interest in others and the community and especially a concern for the improvement of the community and those who live in it." He further notes that "social interest is an extension of the self into the community." Social interest is characterized by several aspects including a presence of empathy, other-directedness and broader sense (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). Empathy reflects an individual's ability to experience other's feelings (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). Other-directedness reflects an individual's concern for others' well-being rather than preoccupation with one's own gratification. The broader sense aspect of social interest reflects an individual's belief in the society that is perfect and everlasting in a metaphysical sense (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956).

With these aspects of it, social interest reflects an individual's willingness to identify with the social entities and have a positive regard for them. It should, therefore, be positively associated with moral involvement. Also, social interest with its element of other-

directedness, which suggests concern for other's welfare as opposed to preoccupation with self-gratification, should be negatively associated with calculative involvement.

Further, social interest reflects an individual's willingness to face and solve life's problem in a socially useful way (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). Individuals with high social interest are unlikely to develop dysfunctional reactions such as alienative involvement. Consistent with this, in general life contexts social interest has been suggested to be negatively associated with alienation. Leak and Williams (1989: 370) note that "social interest, with its emphasis on meaningfulness and purpose in life, numerous intrinsic interests, feeling of empathy and identification with others and so on, is clearly antagonistic to the concept of alienation." Their empirical study found a significant negative association between social interest and several dimensions of alienation. Extending this to organizational contexts and organizational involvement, there should, thus, be a negative association between social interest and alienative involvement. Based on this the following proposition and hypotheses are specified.

Proposition 9

Social interest will be differentially associated with the three forms of organizational involvement.

In particular, it is hypothesized (Table 9) that:

H29

Social interest will be positively associated with moral involvement.

H30

Social interest will be negatively associated with calculative involvement.

H31

Social interest will be negatively associated with alienative involvement.

TABLE 9

Hypotheses: Social Interest and Organizational Involvement

	MI	CI	AI

Social	+	-	-
Interest	-----		
	H29	H30	H31

Social Interest and ERBs. The ERBs under consideration have been characterized in terms of an employee's relative concern for self and organizational interests. This characterization can serve as a basis for hypothesizing relationships between social interest and different forms of ERBs.

OCBs are organization-benefitting behaviors with a low concern for rewards for oneself. This, along with the

concern for social well-being and the relative freedom from the preoccupation with self-interests reflected in the construct of social interest, suggests a positive relationship between social interest and OCB. Consistent with this, empirical findings (Crandall & Harris, 1976) indicate that social interest is positively associated with helping behaviors even in unfavorable exchange situations.

Possession of social interest suggests properly socialized individuals. Such individuals balance shared and self needs (Etzioni, 1988: 11), suggesting a balance of the concerns for self- and social welfare. Therefore, social interest should be positively associated with CUB.

Political behaviors originate in an employee's desire to pursue self-interests without a regard for others' interests or at the cost of others' interests. This often suggests a conflict with collective interests and adoption of organizationally unsanctioned means (Drory & Romm, 1990). Social interest reflects a concern for others' interests and also a concern for collective welfare. It should, therefore, be negatively associated with PBs. Some support for this can be found in existing research. Machiavellianism has been theoretically suggested to be positively associated with political behaviors (e.g., Ralston, 1985). It has also been empirically found to be associated with the use of influence tactics (e.g., Pandey & Rastogi, 1979). Machiavellianism characterizes individuals

who are "manipulative and have little concern for the feelings and well-being of others" (Ralston, 1985). This is an antithesis of the social interest construct, and thus the positive association between machiavellianism and political behaviors suggests a negative relationship between social interest and political behaviors.

Negative behaviors reflect an employee's low concern for both self-interests and organizational interests. In contrast, social interest is associated with a high concern for other's interests with a balanced or even moderated concern for self-interests suggesting a negative association between social interest and negative behaviors. Based on the above the following proposition and hypotheses are specified.

Proposition 10

Social interest will be differentially associated with the four classes of ERBs.

In particular, it is hypothesized (Table 10) that:

H32

Social interest will be positively associated with OCB.

H33

Social interest will be positively associated with CUB.

H34

Social interest will be negatively associated with PB.

H35

Social interest will be negatively associated with NB.

TABLE 10

Hypotheses: Social Interest and ERBs

	OCB	CUB	PB	NB

Social	+	+	-	-
Interest	-----			
	H32	H33	H34	H35

Organizational Involvement and ERBs

In the preceding section, relationships between the model's antecedent units, and the mediating and outcome parts were specified. In the following section, the relationships between the mediating part -organizational involvement- and the outcome part -ERBs- are specified.

Moral involvement and ERBs. Moral involvement is characterized by the presence of a strong positive attitude or orientation toward an organization. It is predicated on the normative mode of influence where external constraints or inducements are not the source of motivation. Rather, the motivation is rooted in the normative pressures which are internalized. Katz (1964) suggested that such motivational pattern is associated with organization-benefitting behaviors. Similarly, Wiener (1982) noted that the normative pressures of commitment are reflected in employees' behaviors of personal sacrifice, persistence and

preoccupation. This suggests a positive association between employees' moral involvement and organizationally beneficial behaviors or OCBs.

While moral involvement suggests a strong identification with and positive attitudes toward an organization, it need not necessitate negation of individual self-interests. In fact, moral and self-interests based considerations can be balanced and serve to codetermine an individual's behavior (Etzioni, 1988). This suggests that with moral involvement, employees will prefer those organization-benefitting behaviors that are also beneficial to their self-interests. There should, thus, be a positive association between moral involvement and CUBs. Consistent with this Withey and Cooper (1989) found that employees with high commitment levels, while choosing their responses to dissatisfaction, preferred the voice option to improve organizational conditions while possibly seeking to remove the sources of dissatisfaction rather than be passive, exit or express neglect.

Political behaviors reflect adoption of either organizationally unsanctioned means or pursuit of organizationally dysfunctional ends (Drory & Romm, 1990). Moral involvement with the motivational significance of organizational well-being implicit in it should, therefore, be negatively associated with PBs. Consistent with this, Ashforth and Lee (1990) conceptualized defensive behaviors

as a specific form of political behaviors and reported that a forthcoming study by one of them had found a negative relationship between organizational involvement and defensive behaviors.

Similarly, the attitudinal and motivational aspects that characterize moral involvement are inconsistent with the organization-harming motivation that drives NBs. Consistent with this, the dysfunctional employee responses to dissatisfaction such as neglect have been found to be associated with low commitment levels (Withey & Cooper, 1989). In a similar vein, Kidwell and Bennett (1993) note that high normative commitment is likely to decrease employees' tendency to withhold effort, a form of negative behavior. Raelin (1984) suggested and found (Raelin, 1994) a negative relationship between deviant behaviors of professionals and organizational commitment. Moral involvement, thus, should be negatively related to NBs. Based on the above the following proposition and hypotheses are specified.

Proposition 11

Moral involvement will be differentially associated with the four classes of ERBs under consideration.

In particular, it is hypothesized (Table 11) that:

H36

Moral involvement will be positively associated with OCB.

H37

Moral involvement will be positively associated with CUB.

H38

Moral involvement will be negatively associated with PB.

H39

Moral involvement will be negatively associated with NB.

TABLE 11

Hypotheses: Moral Involvement and ERBs

	OCB	CUB	PB	NB

Moral	+	+	-	-
Involvement	-----			
	H36	H37	H38	H39

Calculative involvement and ERBs. Calculative involvement is characterized by an absence of a strong sentiment, either positive or negative, toward an organization. It, therefore, reflects an employee's involvement that is in compliance with the terms of reward-contribution based contract with an organization. Here, the salience of self-interests is not subdued by affective or normative considerations.

With the salience of instrumental considerations in calculative involvement, two premises seem relevant to predict the relationship between calculative involvement and ERBs. First, the link between OCB and reward is weak and at

the most only indirect (Organ, 1988). Second, PBs are effective in gaining organizational outcomes such as good performance evaluations (Ferris et al., 1994b). Given these two premises, employees' calculative involvement should induce a choice of PBs rather than OCBs as preferred behaviors. Calculative involvement should, thus, be positively related to PB and negatively related to OCB. Consistent with this, Hackett et al. (1994) found a negative relationship between continuance commitment, a very weak form of calculative commitment, and the commendations earned, which in their study was interpreted as an indicator of the level of positive ERBs performed. Similarly, Ferris et al. (1989) note that PBs occur under the conditions of low emotionality and high outcome relevance which are also the core characteristics of calculative involvement.

Further, calculative involvement as such does not suggest negation of organizational interests. Rather, it suggests instrumental orientation and relative lack of affective considerations in employees' choice of discretionary behaviors. Thus, if organizational interest furtherance is instrumentally linked to individual self-interests then calculative involvement should induce organizational interests-furthering behaviors. Consistent with this, Shamir (1990) suggests that an individual's motivation to contribute to a collective unit is positively influenced by the two probabilities that link individual

action to collective outcome and collective outcome to individual gains. Given this and since CUB reflects an ERB category with a balanced possibility of pursuing self- and organizational interests, it should be positively associated with calculative involvement.

Negative behaviors have a cost associated with them. For instance, they heavily impair performance ratings (DeNisi, Cafferty, & Meglino, 1984), possibly through the activation of supervisory stereotyping process. One of the relevant propositions by DeNisi et al. (1984) explicitly suggests that "negative, or unfavorable, information will be given more weight than positive, or favorable, information in an overall evaluation" (DeNisi et al., 1984: 386). Further, NBs may also have organizational sanctions associated with them. Acknowledgement of such costs associated with negative behaviors is reflected in the fact that employees consider subtlety to be a key element in performing negative behaviors (Thompson, 1983). Calculative involvement does not imply employees' lack of concern for self-interests, and should, thus, make them sensitive to these NB costs. Calculative involvement, therefore, should be negatively associated with NB. Based on the above, the following proposition and hypotheses are specified.

Proposition 12

Calculative involvement will be differentially associated with the four classes of ERBs.

In particular, it is hypothesized (Table 12) that:

H40

Calculative involvement will be negatively associated with OCB.

H41

Calculative involvement will be positively associated with CUB.

H42

Calculative involvement will be positively associated with PB.

H43

Calculative involvement will be negatively associated with NB.

TABLE 12

Hypotheses: Calculative Involvement and ERBs

	OCB	CUB	PB	NB

Calculative	-	+	+	-
Involvement	-----			
	H40	H41	H42	H43

Alienative involvement and ERBs. Alienative involvement is characterized by strong negative sentiments toward an organization. With such involvement, employee responses are characterized by hostility (Kanungo, 1982, Ashforth, 1989) or at least passivity (Ashforth, 1989).

This suggests either a strong tendency to inflict harm on the organizational interests or a complete absence of any initiative and interest in benefitting an organization. Consistent with this, Martinko and Gardner (1982: 197) note that "the alienated worker was generally passive and could not be depended on to exercise initiative on the rare occasions when it was rewarded and encouraged." Alienative involvement operating either through the lack of positive concern for organizational interests or through passivity should, therefore, be negatively related to OCB.

Further, CUBs are employee ERBs that are instrumental in the balanced promotion of self- and organizational interests. PBs are, as outlined earlier, instrumental behaviors and operate toward self-interests maximization. Given these motivational orientations in CUB and PB, the aspect of passivity and associated lack of motivation to actively pursue even self-interests in alienative involvement suggests that it should be negatively related to both CUB and PB.

The strong negative sentiment associated with alienative involvement suggests that it should induce NB. Research provides considerable support for this relationship. For instance, Ashforth (1989) notes that powerlessness, a form and antecedent of alienation, leads to several 'bureaupathologies' such as theft, vandalism and excessive grievances. Wiener (1982: 423) suggested a more

explicit link between alienation and NBs by noting that "alienation can be defined as a normative process -normative pressure to engage in a conduct contrary to organizational interests." Based on this, the following proposition and hypotheses are specified

Proposition 13

Alienative involvement will be differentially associated with the four classes of ERBs.

In particular, it is hypothesized (Table 13) that:

H44

Alienative involvement will be negatively associated with OCB.

H45

Alienative involvement will be negatively associated with CUB.

H46

Alienative involvement will be negatively associated with PB.

H47

Alienative involvement will be positively associated with NB.

TABLE 13

Hypotheses: Alienative Involvement and ERBs				
	OCB	CUB	PB	NB

Alienative	-	-	-	+
Involvement	-----			
	H44	H45	H46	H47

The relationships outlined in the hypotheses specified in the preceding sections are summarized in Tables 14, 15, and 16. A schematic outline of the parts of the model specified by these hypotheses is presented in Figures 6, 7 and 8.

TABLE 14 (Schematically presented in Figure 6)

Hypothesis Summary: Antecedent Variables and Organizational

Involvement

	MI	CI	AI
POS	(+)H1	(-)H2	(-)H3
DJ	(x)H8	(+)H9	(-)H10
PJ	(x)H15a (+)H15B	(-)H16	(-)H17
VC	(+)H22	(-)H23	(-)H24
SOI	(+)H29	(-)H30	(-)H31

MI = Moral Involvement

CI = Calculative Involvement

AI = Alienative Involvement

POS = Perceived Organizational

Support

DJ = Distributive Justice

PJ = Procedural Justice

VC = Value Congruence

SOI = Social Interest

OCB = Organizational

CUB = Constructive Utilitarian

Citizenship

Behavior

Behavior

PB = Political Behavior

NB = Negative Behavior

TABLE 15 (Schematically presented in Figure 7)
Hypothesis Summary: Antecedent Variables and ERBs

	OCB	CUB	PB	NB
POS	(+)H4	(+)H5	(-)H6	(-)H7
DJ	(-)H11	(-)H12	(+)H13	(-)H14
PJ	(+)H18	(+)H19	(-)H20	(-)H21
VC	(+)H25	(+)H26	(-)H27	(-)H28
SOI	(+)H32	(+)H33	(-)H34	(-)H35

TABLE 16 (Schematically presented in Figure 8)

Hypothesis Summary: Organizational Involvement and ERBs

	OCB	CUB	PB	NB
MI	(+)H36	(+)H37	(-)H38	(-)H39
CI	(-)H40	(+)H41	(+)H42	(-)H43
AI	(-)H44	(-)H45	(-)H46	(+)H47

FIGURE 6
Antecedent Variables and Employee Organizational Involvement (Relationships
Specified in the Hypotheses in Table 14)

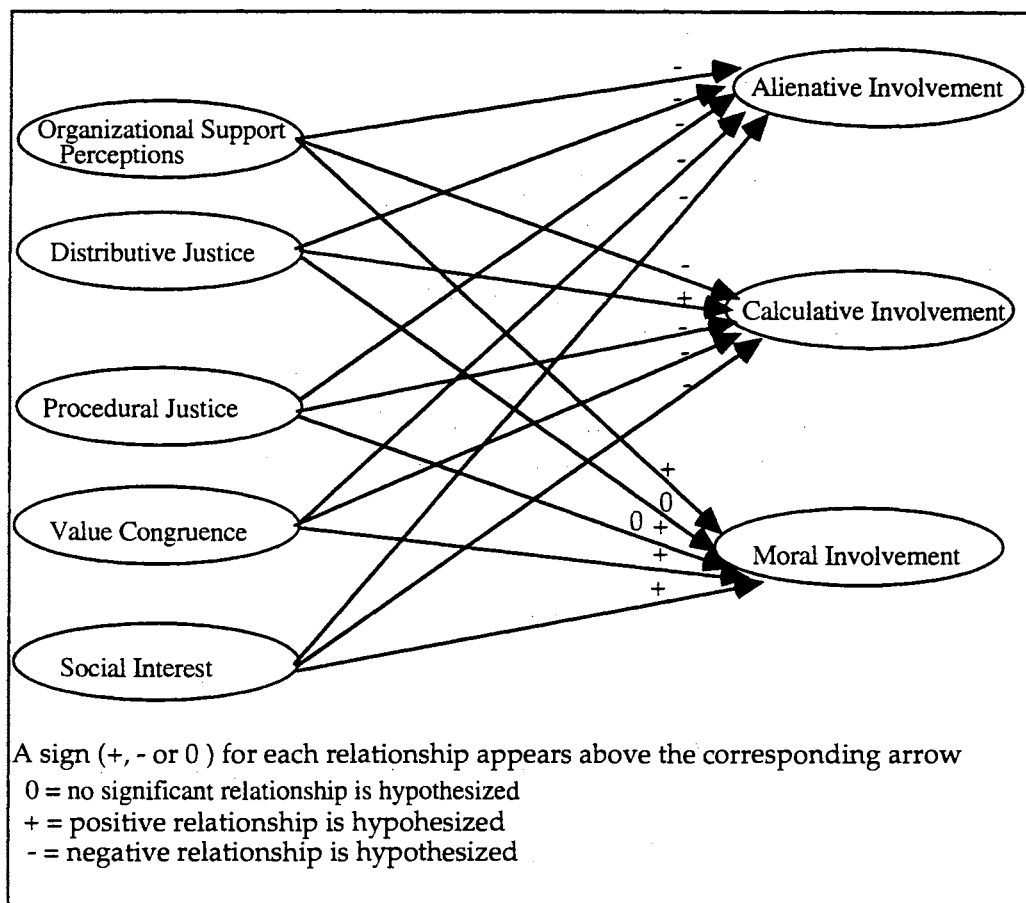


FIGURE 7
Antecedent Variables and Extra-Role Behaviors (Relationships Specified in the Hypotheses in Table 15)

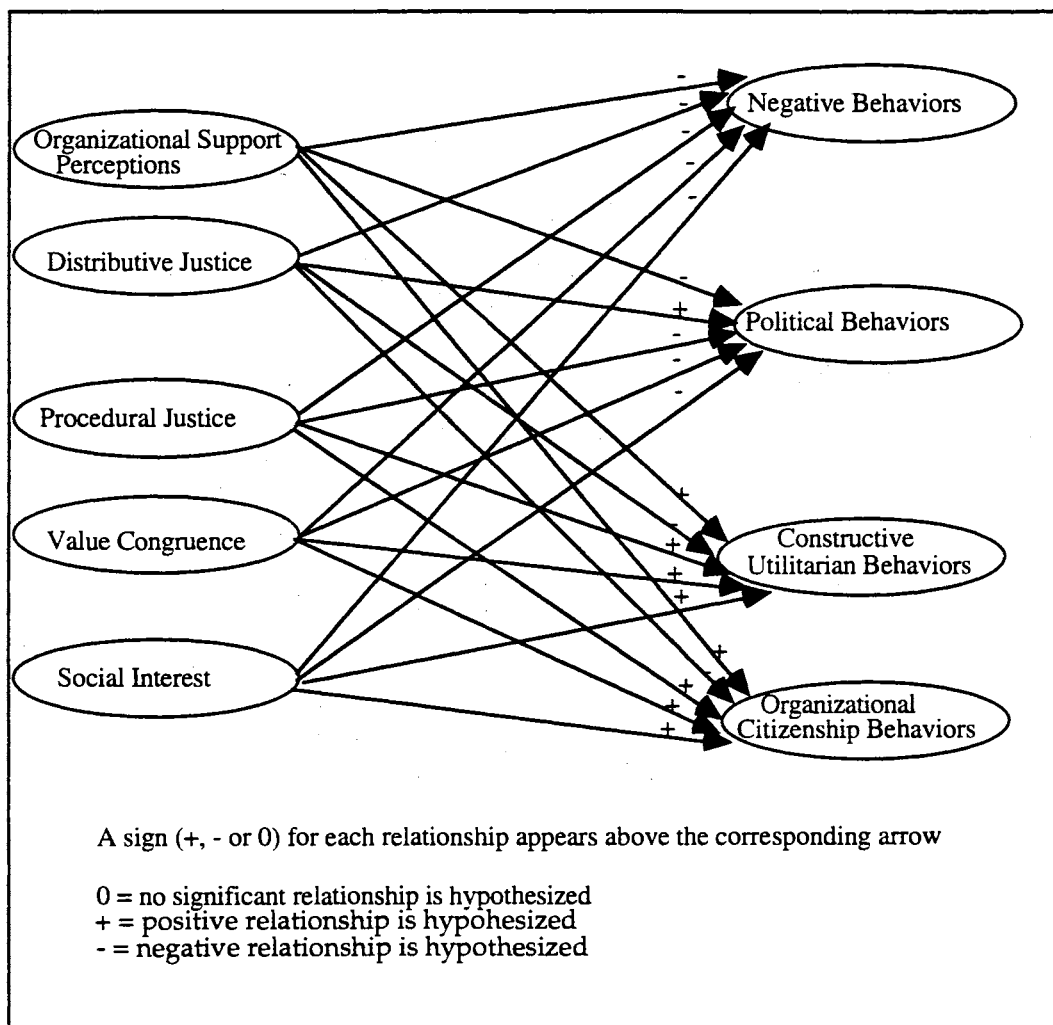
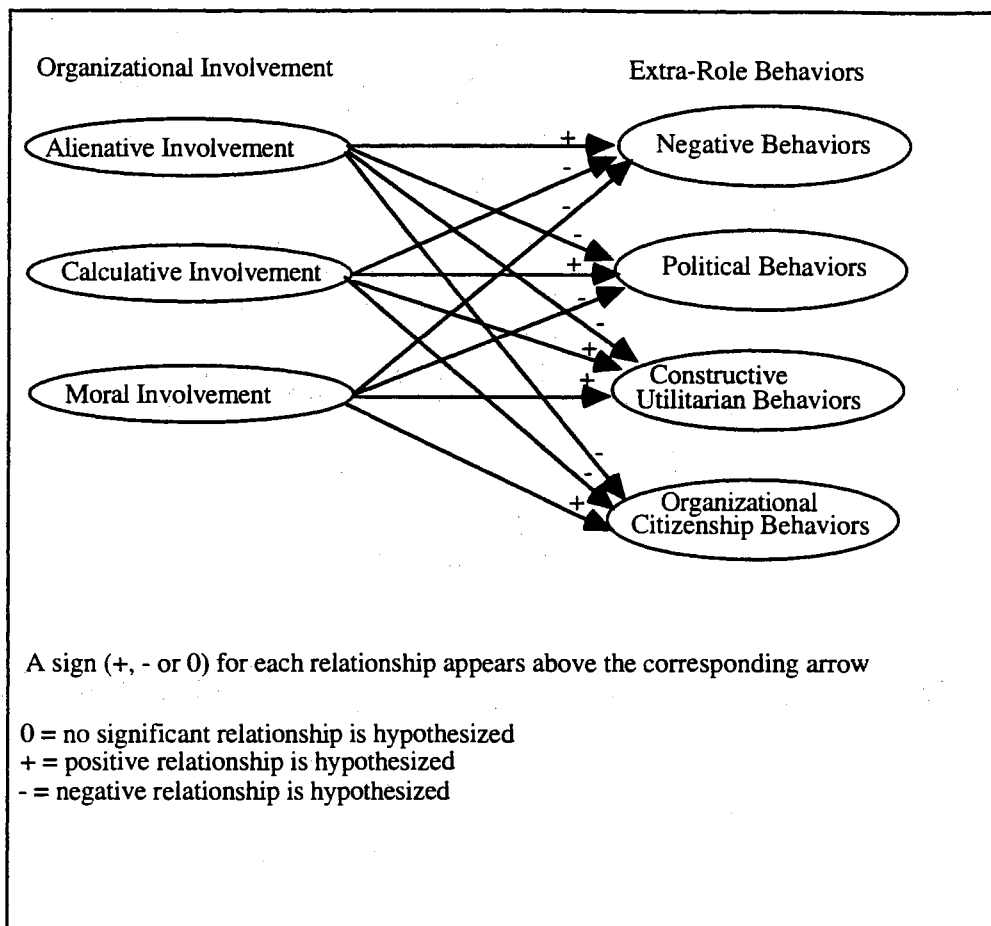


FIGURE 8
Organizational Involvement and Extra-Role Behaviors (Relationships Specified in the Hypotheses in Table 16)



CHAPTER THREE

METHODS: SAMPLE, DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE, MEASURES, AND DATA ANALYSIS

The hypotheses in this dissertation specify relationships between antecedent variables and ERBs, antecedent variables and organizational involvement, and between organizational involvement and ERBs. Additionally, the model suggests that organizational involvement may play the role of a mediator variable in the relationship between antecedent variables and ERBs. This mediational role of organizational involvement links the various components of the model together to suggest a process through which the contextual and dispositional factors may influence the occurrence of employee ERBs. In this chapter, various aspects of the process adopted for assessing the validity of the hypothesized relationships are described. In particular, the study sample is profiled, the instruments and procedures used for data collection are described, and the analysis performed to assess the validity of these hypotheses is outlined.

Sample

The sample for this study consisted of employees of a manufacturing organization in a small city in a midwestern state. The sample mainly consisted of production workers,

with some service, materials, and professional staff included. Employees in this sample completed a survey that consisted of the antecedent and mediator variable measures. These measures assessed employee perceptions of organizational support, procedural justice, distributive justice, and value congruence. Additionally, measures of social interest and organizational involvement, and items seeking demographic information were a part of the survey. Supervisors of these employees provided the measure of employee extra-role behavior, which is the dependent variable in the model, and some demographic information.

The employee sample after the exclusion of six respondents who completed the survey twice consisted of 346 respondents. The computations for power analysis performed during the proposal stage of this study indicated the sample size requirement of 84 data points for assessing the significance of zero order correlations, 158 for assessing the significance of model R square, and 216 for assessing the significance of partial regression coefficients. Thus, the obtained sample size was larger than the requirement indicated by the power analysis computations. The departments which were included in the survey had a total of 807 employees. Based on this size of the target population, the response rate for the employee survey was 42.87%. An overview of the employee survey sample is provided in Table 17.

TABLE 17
Employee Survey Sample Profile

	Mean	SD
Age	37.09	10.59
Years with the Present Supervisor	2.21	2.51
Years in the Present Position	4.44	4.64
Years with the Company	9.12	7.04
Total Work Experience (Years)	15.85	10.34

Gender		
Males	76.6%	
Females	23.4%	
Education		
Some Years of Primary School	0.3%	
Some Years of High School	6.8%	
High School Diploma	29.6%	
Some Junior College or Vocational Courses	18.9%	
Junior College or Vocational Diploma	6.5%	
Some Years of College	26.0%	
Bachelors Degree	10.7%	
Masters Degree	NA	
Other	1.2%	
Position		
Temporary Worker	0.7%	
Laborer	0.4%	
Helper	0.4%	
Production Worker/ Operator, etc.	76.4%	
Clerk/Secretary/ Admin. Assistant	1.4%	
Coordinator/ Supervisor	0.4%	
Manager	7.5%	
Other (Engineer/ Analyst, etc.)	12.9%	

Supervisors of these employees provided the ratings of employee extra-role behavior. The supervisors to whom the respondents of employee survey reported formed the target population for the supervisory survey. Completed surveys were obtained from 35 of the 36 supervisors within the specified time; thus yielding a response rate of 97.22%. An overview of the supervisory survey respondents is presented in Table 18. Some employee respondents from the employee survey did not provide adequate information about their department numbers. Supervisor-employee correspondence for these employees could not be established. As a result, the supervisory assessment of employee ERBs was obtained only for 298 employee respondents. This sample size also was larger than the sample size requirement indicated by the a-priori power analysis computations.

Data Collection Procedure

A large manufacturing company in a midwestern state was the site for data collection. Employees from production departments completed surveys in groups at a prespecified venue at the study site during their regular lunch breaks. Employees from service and materials departments completed surveys on their own time and used sealed drop-boxes with OSU designations to return their completed surveys.

TABLE 18
Supervisory Survey Sample Profile

	Mean	SD
Age	43.60	7.00
Years with the Present Supervisor	NA	NA
Years in the Present Position	6.29	4.94
Years with the Company	13.96	8.26
Total Work Experience (Years)	24.92	6.93

Gender		
Males	94.3%	
Females	5.7%	
Education		
Some Years of Primary School	0.0%	
Some Years of High School	0.0%	
High School Diploma	22.9%	
Some Junior College or Vocational Courses	17.1%	
Junior College or Vocational Diploma	11.4%	
Some Years of College	22.9%	
Bachelors Degree	11.4%	
Masters Degree	11.4%	
Other	2.9%	
Position		
Coordinator/ Supervisor	51.4%	
Manager	40.0%	
Director	2.9%	
Other (Engineer/ Analyst, etc.)	5.7%	

The employee survey was designed in a booklet form and was pretested at the study site for the appropriateness of its form and content. Some modifications were made in the employee survey based on the pretest.

In particular, the study required employees to provide their names so that their responses could be matched with supervisory ratings on the respondents' extra-role behaviors. It was anticipated that this might lead to a sense of anxiety among the potential study participants. Two options were considered to deal with this. The first option was to request employees to provide their name on the survey and explain to them the precautions that would be taken to ensure the confidentiality of the survey information. The other option was to design a survey with a tear-off slip on which employees will provide their name. In this option, as employees turned in the completed survey, a random number would be assigned to the survey and the tear-off slip with their name would be removed from the survey and handed back to them. The employee's name would be recorded on a list against this random number. This option offers a special protection to the respondents because in the event of survey misplacement or other accidental event, the physical survey copy, by itself, does not indicate the respondent's identity. Based on these considerations, and the discussion with the pretest participants, this latter option was adopted for the actual

collection of data. The final version of the employee survey booklet used for the group survey sessions is enclosed in Appendix A. The name of the company has been removed in the survey copy enclosed in Appendix A to protect the confidentiality of the company's identity.

Prior to commencing the actual data collection, a meeting was held with the supervisory staff of the company. In this meeting a letter of support from the company's director of manufacturing was presented to the supervisors. Also, the employee survey schedule for group survey sessions was handed out to the supervisors. This schedule specified the dates on which employees from various departments were to participate in the group survey completion sessions. Along with this, a brief overview of the study, the potential benefits for the company, and other study related aspects were discussed with the supervisors. This highlighted that the employee and supervisory participation in the study would be entirely voluntary and that the responses from the survey would be kept strictly confidential.

In order to inform employees about the survey schedule, supervisors were requested to indicate the relevant session dates to their subordinates. Additionally, flyers were posted at a few places in the company indicating the survey location, dates, voluntary nature of participation, confidentiality, and provision of refreshments aspects.

During the actual data collection sessions, employees arriving at the session location were received, and given the survey booklet. The survey covering letter explained the purpose of the study, outlined the contents of the survey questionnaire, and highlighted the precautions that would be taken to ensure the confidentiality of their responses. Contents of a predesigned script were read out to the respondents which served as an introduction to the session and provided employees information on various aspects of the survey. In this script it was made clear to the employees that the study was not a part of any company program, the researchers were not hired by the company, and no one from the company would see their individual response. It was also indicated that they were free to ask any study related questions they may have.

As the employees turned in the completed surveys, their names from the tear-off slip were recorded on a list against a unique random number for a given respondent. This random number was written on the completed survey copy, the tear-off slip with the respondent name on it was removed from the survey and handed back immediately to the respondent. The respondents were then guided to an adjoining area where they could have the refreshments (pizza and pop) provided by the company. The company operated three shifts and the survey sessions were conducted during all three shifts. For the employees who participated in the mail survey, the survey

covering letter provided the details of the study and the survey packet contained an envelope in which they could place the completed survey and put it in one of the two sealed drop-boxes that were kept in the company. The drop-boxes were clearly marked and placed at convenient locations.

For the supervisory survey, the survey packet contained an introductory letter from the researchers, a letter of support for the study from the company's director of manufacturing, the survey instrument (Appendix B), and a return postage paid envelope which the respondents could use to mail the completed surveys. The instrument provided to the supervisors contained the names of their subordinates for whom they were to complete the extra-role behavior assessment. These subordinates were the employee survey respondents. This assignment of the respondent employee names to supervisors was done using the department name and/or department number provided by the employee survey respondents in the demographic information part of their survey. The company had a policy of not providing employee names to outsiders. Therefore, an employee respondent's supervisor had to be identified by linking employee to a department number and the department number to its supervisor. Some respondents did not provide adequate information on their department name or number. As a result, supervisory ratings could be obtained for only a

subset of the employee survey respondents. Thus, extra-role behavioral assessment was obtained for a total of 298 (out of 346) employee respondents.

The supervisory survey to obtain the assessment of employee ERBs was carried out after completing the employee group survey sessions. The copies of the supervisory survey were personally handed out to the supervisors in brief meetings held with them. During these meetings the supervisors were offered two options for returning the completed supervisory survey. The first option was to mail the completed survey using the return postage paid envelope that was provided with the survey packet. The second option was that the researchers would collect the completed survey on a day and time of the supervisors' convenience within a time frame of about a week. Most of the supervisors opted for the second option.

Measures

Measures for this study fall into two broad categories -attitudinal or perceptual, and behavioral. Attitudinal measures were obtained from employees while behavioral measures were obtained from their supervisors. Additionally, one self-report measure assessing a dimension of personality was a part of the employee survey. Thus, the attitudinal or perceptual measures assessed employees' perceptions of organizational support, procedural justice,

distributive justice, and value congruence; employees' level of social interest, and the nature of employees' organizational involvement. The behavioral measures assessed the extent to which employees performed four forms of extra-role behaviors namely; constructive utilitarian behaviors, organizational citizenship behaviors, political behaviors, and negative behaviors. The behavioral measures were designed for this study while all other measures were adopted from those available in existing research. These measures are outlined below.

Organizational Support Perceptions

Measure of organizational support perceptions was obtained using the survey of perceived organizational support (SPOS) designed by Eisenberger et al. (1986). This measure was originally designed with 36 items but has been extensively used in its shorter form of 17 items or less (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 1990; George et al., 1993; Orpen, 1994; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1994, Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Shore & Wayne, 1993). The reliability coefficients in these studies ranged from 0.90 to 0.97. Consistent with these studies, the 16-item version was used in the proposed study.

The scale has been used in both 5-point (e.g., Shore & Wayne, 1993) and 7-point (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1990) Likert format with the lowest extreme anchor of "strongly

disagree" and the highest extreme anchor of "strongly agree". In the present study the 7-point Likert format was used. The scale forms part B of the employee survey booklet enclosed in Appendix A.

Procedural Justice

Procedural justice (PJ) refers to the fairness of the procedures used in arriving at decisions concerning various positive and negative organizational outcomes that an employee may receive. The components of PJ include consistency, correctibility, bias suppression, representation, and decision quality (Tyler, 1988). The PJ measure developed by Moorman (1991) taps most of these dimensions and was adopted in the present study. The scale consists of 7 to 9 items and the reported reliability coefficient is 0.94 (Moorman, 1991). Nine items were included in the measure used in this study. The items seek respondents' assessment of the degree to which fair procedures have been developed in the organization (Moorman, 1991). The scale forms part C of the employee survey booklet enclosed in Appendix A.

Distributive Justice

Distributive justice (DJ) reflects fairness of outcomes received by employees (Greenberg, 1990). The DJ scale from Moorman (1991) study was adopted. It contains six items

with a reliability coefficient of 0.94 (Moorman, 1991). The scale has been used in 3-item format which also yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.89 (Manogran et al., 1994), thus suggesting good internal consistency of the measure. This measure assesses respondents' assessment of fairness in distribution of several work-related outcomes as opposed to other measures of DJ which use two-item scales to assess fairness perceptions (e.g., Konovsky & Organ, In Press). Moorman (1991: 847) indicates that "each item in the scale asks for the degree to which the respondent believes that he or she is fairly rewarded on the basis of some comparison with education level, effort, performance, and so forth." The scale forms part D of the employee survey booklet enclosed in Appendix A.

Value Congruence

There are two approaches to the measurement of values in organizational behavior research. Some researchers have focused on employees' work values (e.g., Wollack, Goodale, Witjing, & Smith, 1971) while others have focused on employees' perceptions of or preference for organizational values (e.g., Beatty, 1988; Beatty, Gup, & Hesse, 1993; Boxx, Odem, & Dunn, 1991; Enz, 1986; 1988; Liedtka, 1989). As a part of the theory proposed in chapter 2, the construct of value congruence in the present study focuses on

employees' perception of organizational values in general and value congruence in particular.

Employee-organization value congruence can be measured in two ways. In one approach, value preference of employees and the organization's top management could be obtained separately and then a congruence index can be formed by assessing the correspondence between the two patterns (e.g., Enz, 1988; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989). In a variant of this, an employee's value preference pattern could be compared with his/her perception of top management's value preference pattern to assess the extent of value congruence (e.g., Meglino et al., 1989). The other approach to the measurement of value congruence is to seek employee perceptions on the extent to which they see their values as congruent with that of the organization. The former approach yields a measure of the "latent" value congruence while the latter of the "manifest" value congruence (Enz, 1986; 1988). The latter approach was adopted in the present study for the measurement of value congruence for two reasons. First, it obviates the need to seek the top management's value preference pattern and the associated problem of aggregation across the top management members' responses to form an overall organizational value preference score. Second, research on organizational climate (e.g., James & James, 1992) suggests that employee responses are

influenced by their perceptions rather than by objective aspects of the reality.

The value congruence scale (Enz, 1986) was adopted to measure employee-organization value congruence because it adopts the latter of the above indicated two approaches to the measurement of value congruence -assessing perceived value congruence. The scale has satisfactory reliability levels ranging from 0.82 to 0.89 (Enz et al., 1990; Miceli & Near, 1994). It uses a Likert type 7-point response pattern with the anchors ranging from 1 (very dissimilar) to 7 (very similar). The scale forms part E of the employee survey booklet enclosed in Appendix A.

Social Interest

To obtain the measure of social interest construct in the proposed model, the social interest scale (SIS) developed by Crandall (1975) was used. The split-half reliability coefficient for the scale is 0.77 (Crandall, 1975) and the KR-20 coefficient estimate is 0.71 (Crandall, 1980). Construct validity of the scale also seems to be reasonable as it has been nomologically linked to various constructs including; self-centeredness, cooperation, altruism, values, and purpose in life as reported by Crandall (1975; 1980).

The scale consists of fifteen pairs of traits or values in which one trait/value is closely related to social

interest while the other is less relevant. It also has nine filler items. A respondent is asked to select one of the two traits in each pair that he/she values more. Each social interest-related trait carries a score of one and the other trait/value in the pair carries a score of zero. Thus, a subject can earn a score between 0 and 15 (Crandall, 1975; 1980). The scale forms part F of the employee survey booklet enclosed in Appendix A.

This scale offers a special advantage in that it controls for the desirability bias in responses. This is achieved by pairing together adjectives that are equal in the level of desirability. Crandall (1975: 189) indicates that "each pair was designed to equate, as nearly as possible, the general desirability of the two traits, while maximizing the difference in their relevance to social interest." The desirability of the traits in the individual pairs is, thus, unlikely to influence the overall score on this measure.

Typically, it is thought that in the measures that require a subject to choose from among the response options, the resulting scores are ipsative rather than absolute/normative. Such ipsative measures have certain statistical limitations (Hicks, 1970). The ipsativity, however, does not come from the choice format provided to the subjects but rather from the scoring method used (Hicks, 1970: 167). In illustrating this, Hicks (1970: 177)

highlights that in an instrument requiring subjects to make choices from among pairs of items, if the "total score consists of the number of valid items ranked high or some score derived from such ranking" then the forced choice test is an interactive or normative instrument. He (Hicks, 1970: 170) also notes that "MBTI (Myers, 1962) has a forced choice format, yet yields scores which possess the empirical properties of absolute measures."

In the SIS of Crandall (1975), though subjects make a choice in each of the pairs, the total score is only the number of 15 valid items selected by a subject. The invalid items are not scored and the scale yields a single score of social interest. If the invalid adjectives in each pair were also scored and if a subject had obtained two scores, one of social interest and other of some variable such as personal interest, then these two sub-scales would have negative correlations between them since the score on one subscale would be 15 minus the score on the other subscale. This inherent negative correlation between the scores destroys the independence of the scores on two subscales and results in an ipsative score. Since this is not done in the SIS, it exemplifies the category of measures that Hick (1970) notes as having absolute scores but forced choice format.

Consistent with this, researchers have used this scale as a non-ipsative or absolute measure and performed the

normal statistical operations on its scores (e.g., Crandall, 1975; 1984; Ravlin & Meglino; 1987). This scale, thus, offers two benefits. The scale's choice format requires a subject to choose in each pair between two items "equal on desirability (Crandall, 1975: 189)" and avoids the problem of response bias while the scale's scoring method yields non-ipsative scores.

Organizational Involvement

The construct of organizational involvement reflects an employee's orientation toward an organization and is based on Etzioni's (1961) view of organizations. Until recently, this construct was not systematically operationalized in previous research. Possibly as a result of this, in an earlier study using the constructs of alienative and moral involvement, Drummond (1993) used two separate scales to tap these two dimensions. She used Miller's (1967) alienation scale to measure alienative involvement, and Cook and Wall's (1980) scale to measure moral involvement.

Two studies have, however, recently developed measures based on Etzioni's (1961) perspective. Johnston and Snizek (1991) developed a measure consisting of two aspects -moral involvement and calculative involvement. They conceptualized these two forms as bases of or motives for an individual's commitment to or association with an organization. This operationalization, thus, is not

consistent with the relational or attitudinal aspect of organizational involvement under consideration here.

Penley and Gould (1988) developed a three factor measure to reflect three forms of involvement and termed them as moral, alienative, and calculative commitment. They viewed calculative commitment as reflecting an employee's instrumental exchange orientation while the other two forms of commitment -moral and alienative commitment- as tapping the positive and negative affective dimensions of an employee's organizational commitment. The reliability coefficients for the scales that measure these dimensions are satisfactory. In the six samples that they studied, reliability coefficient for moral commitment ranged from 0.82 to 0.88, for calculative commitment from 0.67 to 0.80, and for alienative commitment from 0.80 to 0.88. Penley and Gould (1988) also provide some evidence for the construct validity of the measure. They studied the association between the scale dimensions and three career strategies. The results indicated a positive association between calculative commitment and 'other enhancement' and 'self-nomination' strategies, between moral commitment and 'extended work involvement' career strategy, and between alienative involvement and career locus of control.

Based on the above, this scale was adopted to measure the organizational involvement construct in the present study. The scale consists of 15 items, five items for each

of the three subscales. The responses are obtained in a six-point Likert format with the extreme anchor points of "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree." The scale forms part G of the employee survey booklet enclosed in Appendix A. In this 15 item scale, item number 1, 4, 7, 10, and 13 measure calculative involvement, item number 3, 6, 9, 12, and 15 measure moral involvement, and item number 2, 5, 8, 11, and 14 measure alienative involvement.

Extra-Role Behaviors

As a part of the theory developed here, a typology of employee extra-role behaviors is proposed (Chapter 2). This typology specifies four forms of ERBs namely; organizational citizenship behaviors, constructive utilitarian behaviors, political behaviors, and negative behaviors. Measures of these constructs were specifically designed for this study. Consistent with the suggestions made for scale construction (e.g., Churchill, 1979) and the process adopted by researchers who designed scales in the related behavioral domains (e.g., Ball et al., 1994; MacKenzie et al., 1991; McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Pearce & Gregersen, 1991), the following process was used. The approach consisted of four steps: a) collection of an item pool for each of the four forms of ERBs consistent with its construct definition and addition of site-specific items to the item pool, b) assessment of content validity of the item pool,

c)retention, modification, and/or deletion of items based on the outcome of step 'b' above, and d)factor analysis and attainment of satisfactory reliability levels for the scales. The first three steps are described in the following section. The last step is described in the next chapter where the results of factor analysis and reliability assessment are outlined.

Step a: Collection of Item Pool for ERB Scales

An item pool was collected for each of the four forms of ERB constructs. This was done based on the construct specification provided in the typology proposed here. These items were drawn from the domain of items created by previous researchers. The rationale used for the generation of these items is outlined below for each of the four forms of ERB construct.

Step a.1: Collection of Item Pool for OCB

The construct of OCB reflects those ERBs that stem from an employee's relatively high concern for organizational interests and low concern for self-interests. They are aimed at furthering organizational interests. These behaviors aimed at benefitting an organization could be directed at targets such as superiors or managers (Graham, 1991). However, considering the emphasis on organizational level factors such as employee assessment of organizational

fairness and support in the present study, it is desirable to tap specifically those behaviors in which the organizational focus is salient. Consistent with this, some forms of OCBs such as altruism which seek to help other individuals in an organization were excluded from the domain of consideration here.

The items from existing OCB measures that meet this requirement were used to form a sample domain of items for this construct. Based on the salience of the OCB target - either an organization or coworkers- McNeely and Meglino (1994) developed a scale which includes a subscale that separately measures OCBs directed exclusively at an organization. This is a seven item scale, four of which are relevant for the present study. Similarly, one item from Williams and Anderson (1991), and one from Van Dyne et al. (1994) meet this requirement. Additionally, a few items were written and added to the item pool based on the discussions held during the instrument pretest at the study site. The basic items adopted from the above scales are listed below.

1. Speaks favorably about the organization to outsiders.
2. Is receptive to new ideas.
3. Tolerates temporary inconvenience without complaint.
4. Takes action to protect the organization from potential problems.
5. Defends the organization when employees criticize it.

6. Conserves and protects organizational property.

Step a.2: Collection of Item Pool for Constructive Utilitarian Behaviors

The construct of constructive utilitarian behavior (CUB) reflects employee behaviors that seek to balance concerns for both self-interests as well as organizational interests. Employee behaviors aimed at seeking participation in organizational activities that may benefit both the employee as well as the organization constitute the relevant empirical domain for this construct. Though this construct has not been operationalized in existing ERB research, the "civic virtue" dimension of OCB reflects a similar concept. For instance, Moorman (1993: 761) describes civic virtue as consisting of "behaviors which evolve around the responsible participation in the political life of the organization." Also, its operationalization by MacKenzie et al. (1991) uses items that are suitable for the empirical domain of the CUB construct as outlined above. Based on this, the relevant items from the civic virtue subscale of OCB were used to form the item pool for operationalizing the construct of CUB. Some items from Moorman and Blakely (1995), Moorman (1993), Pearce and Gregersen (1991), and Van Dyne et al. (1994) also meet the above requirements, and were included in the basic item pool. A few site-specific items were written and added to

these items based on discussions held during the instrument pretest at the study site. The basic pool of items drawn from the above measures is presented below.

1. "Keeps up" with developments in agency/company.
2. Reads and keeps up with the agency/company communications, messages, memos, etc.
3. Keeps abreast of changes in the organization.
4. Attends and participates in meetings regarding the organization.
5. Actively and constructively seeks to get his or her suggestions adopted by the organization.
6. Keeps well-informed where opinions might benefit the organization.
7. For the issues that may have serious consequences, expresses opinions honestly even when others may disagree.
8. Attends functions that are not required, but may help the agency/company image.

Step a.3: Collection of Item Pool for Political Behaviors

The political behavior (PB) construct specifies behaviors that reflect an employee's high concern for self-interests with a disregard for organizational interests. In existing research three approaches to the measurement of PB seem prominent. Some researchers have assessed employee influence tactics or political behavior by assessing various

forms of impression management behaviors (e.g., Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Ferris et al., 1994b). In this approach, three categories namely; job-focused, self-focused, and supervisor-focused have been used to tap the domain of these behaviors. Another stream of research has identified a set of employee influence tactics and categorized them using the nature of behavior as a classificatory dimension. These categories include assertiveness, ingratiation, exchange, rationality, upward appeal, coalition, and blocking (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990; Kipnis et al., 1980; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). The measures adopted in this approach use items reflecting these categories of influence tactics. A third approach seeks to measure employee political behaviors in a specific form -ingratiatory behaviors. It uses a measure consisting of four subscales corresponding to the four types of ingratiatory behaviors namely; self-presentation, other enhancement, opinion conformity, and favor-rendering (Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991).

These approaches to the measurement of employee political behavior have some important limitations. First, the categories of behaviors used in these operationalizations do not map well onto each other. For instance, Kipnis et al. regarded exchange and ingratiation as two categories of influence tactics while Kumar and Beyerlein's (1991) operationalization includes favor-rendering, which is a form of exchange, as a subscale of

ingratiatory behavior measure. The second, and more severe, limitation of these measurement approaches is that they do not assess the "active" self-interest seeking nature of employee political behaviors. Some of the behaviors included as items in these measures could reflect a true desire to help supervisors, a neutral desire for social approval, or an attempt to maintain a vigorous and balanced exchange. Consistent with this, Ralston (1985) notes that ingratiatory behaviors could just be attempts to invoke positive affect or liking.

This second concern is a frequently expressed but rarely addressed issue in PB research. Ferris et al. (1994b) highlight this in concluding their study on the effects of employee impression management behavior. They note that "in conclusion, one final issue that poses a challenge for, and bears consideration by, anyone pursuing research in this area is raised: that is, the issue of intentionality of the observed influence behaviors (Ferris et al., 1994b: 129)." They highlight that researchers assume these behaviors to be manipulative, gain-seeking, and opportunistic which they may not be. They note that this assumption of researchers' is unfounded unless the intent is actually assessed in the studies of employee influence behaviors. As a result, existing research may be measuring positive behaviors as employee political behaviors. This possibility is reflected in the surprising findings obtained

in the study by Shore and Wayne (1994). In this study, the findings indicated significant positive correlations between some forms of impression management behaviors, and affective commitment as well as perceived organizational support. These counter-intuitive findings, which are also inconsistent with the predictions provided by the proposed model, are likely to be a result of the fact that the impression management construct as measured with the existing measures could be tapping positive behaviors that seek to help supervisors and express positive affect for them.

Thus, existing measures have not made the "intent" aspect explicit in assessing employee PB. Making the self-interests seeking aspect of PB explicit in the measures of PB in general and in the measures of PB in the proposed study in particular is critical for two reasons. First, as noted above, it is central to the political behavior construct and ignoring it may result in the PB measure's tapping a construct quite different from the PB construct as explicated. Second, in the proposed study both PBs and OCBs are to be considered together and the "intent" aspect is critical for their distinction. Consistent with this, Ferris et al. (1994b: 129) note that "the critical distinction between subordinate influence tactics and organizational citizenship involves not the particular behaviors themselves as much as the intentions of the

individual exhibiting those behaviors." Empirical findings also indicate that indeed supervisors use attributions of intent to an employee in classifying his/her observed behavior as OCB or PB (Eastman, 1994). This aspect of intent is, thus, an important part of PBs but has largely remained untapped in existing measures of PB. Its importance is highlighted by Ferris et al. (1994b: 129) as they observe that "the intentionality issue remains a challenge, and an important one at that."

Based on this, it is clear that in the present study the "intent" aspect should be made explicit in measuring PBs (unlike in the measures of OCB, NB, and CUB where intent is relatively closely tied to the behavioral forms or items selected in them). The Kipnis et al. (1980) measure provides a potential base for introducing the element of "intent" in the measure of PBs. This measure, in its existing form, assesses employee influence tactics by focusing on behaviors in categories such as assertiveness, exchange, and ingratiation. However, these behaviors are conceptually associated with the concerned employee's goals or objectives which are not necessarily self-interests seeking. Rather, some of them are other-benefitting or organization-benefitting as reflected in the following list of employee objectives that are associated with the items of

influence tactics included in the Kipnis et al. measure (Kipnis et al., 1980: 444).

1. Have my boss (co-worker or subordinate) assist me on my job or do some of my work.
2. Assign work to my boss (co-worker or subordinate) or tell him or her what to do.
3. Have my boss (co-worker or subordinate) give me benefits, such as raises, better hours of work, time off, better job assignments.
4. Have my boss (co-worker or subordinate) do his or her own work better or do what they are supposed to do.
5. Have my boss (co-worker or subordinate) accept my ideas for changes; for example, to accept a new way of doing the work more efficiently or a new program or project.

Thus, the influence tactics as measured in the Kipnis et al. measure, as such, reflect influence attempts in the service of objectives which might be self-serving, other-benefitting, organization-benefitting, or neutral.

Therefore, linking self-serving or gain-seeking goals to the influence tactics in the Kipnis et al. measure of influence tactics would yield a measure of those employee political behaviors that seek to exercise influence in the service of self-serving goals. For instance, two of the items from the Kipnis et al. (1980) influence tactics scale are "obtained support of my co-workers to back up my request" and "offered an exchange." If these tactics are tied to

self-serving or illegitimate/unreasonable goals (e.g., seeking raises, better hours of work, easier job, time off) of an employee then they would reflect political behaviors. For instance, the above listed two items could be worded as "offered an exchange to seek an easier assignment or undeserved raise." This item ties the unreasonable gain-seeking or self-serving goal (unreasonable raise) to informal means (exchange offer) adopted to attain the goal. It, thus, reflects an employee's behavior that seeks to obtain illegitimate or unsanctioned ends through informal means. These two aspects -illegitimate/unsanctioned ends and informal means- are central to the construct of political behavior (Drory & Romm, 1990).

Based on this, the following items from the Kipnis et al. (1980) measure were used as the basic list of political behaviors. The items in the resulting final list were, as described above, tied to the illegitimate/unreasonable goals sought by employees. The basic items are presented below.

1. Kept bugging him/her until he/she did what I wanted.
2. Repeatedly reminded him/her about what I wanted.
3. Wrote a detailed plan that justified my ideas.
4. Presented him or her with information in support of my view.
5. Explained reasons for my request.
6. Used logic to convince him/her.

7. Offered a compromise over the issue (I gave in a little).
8. Offered an exchange (e.g., if you do this for me, I will do something for you).
9. Reminded him or her of the past favors I did for them.
10. Obtained informal support of higher-ups.
11. Obtained the support of co-workers to back up my request.

Consistent with the other ERB measures in the present study, assessment of employee PB was also provided by supervisors. The items, therefore, were reworded from supervisors' perspective. Such rewording is typically done in the research (e.g., Ferris et al., 1994b).

Step a.4: Collection of Item Pool for Negative Behaviors

The construct of negative behaviors (NB) specifies those employee behaviors that predominantly reflect a low concern for the organization. The secondary aspect of these behaviors is that even the concern for self-interests is not high. Locke and associates have made extensive attempts to develop scales for or to identify categories of employee responses to dissatisfaction. Some of these categories tap the empirical domain that is relevant to the construct of NB. These studies are reported in Fisher and Locke (1992). (Though Fisher and Locke (1992: 183) term all categories as "negative behaviors," some of these behaviors may be

positive as reflected in some of the items in their constructive problem solving category [p. 184]).

In these studies, Locke and associates have either tried to judgmentally classify employee responses to dissatisfaction into a set of a-priori categories or factor-analyzed them. They, however, had difficulties with the factor-analytic approach and also only a limited success with judgmental classification (Fisher & Locke, 1992). With respect to factor-analytic approaches to specify these behavioral categories, Fisher and Locke (1992: 187) note that "empirical approaches using factor analysis (the Staehle and Henne studies) were not particularly successful. Roznowski and Hulin (chapter 6 in this book) have also had difficulty with factor-analytic approach."

More recently, Robinson (1993) developed a typology and an associated measure of employee responses to dissatisfaction. "Destruction" is one of the categories in her typology and provides an empirical domain relevant to the NB construct as specified here. The "destruction" category and the associated subscale from Robinson (1993), however, taps only a limited part of the negative behavior domain. In another study, Robinson and Bennett (1995) explicitly specified the construct of deviant behaviors and tapped an empirical domain that closely corresponds with the NB construct under study here. They did not, however, develop a measure of deviant or negative behaviors. Rather,

they used the items from their empirical domain to specify a multi-dimensional scaling-based typology of deviant behaviors. Thus, existing research in the areas related to negative employee behaviors does not offer any systematically developed measure to operationalize the construct of NBs.

In the light of this, the OCB-related studies that also included negative behaviors have adopted two approaches to the measurement of these behaviors. Puffer (1987) measured the construct of noncompliant behaviors by asking managers to list the most frequent and important noncompliant behaviors for salespeople in the firm she studied. She included 5 most important and frequent noncompliant behaviors as items in her scale. Ball et al. (1994) specified a construct of anti-citizenship behavior and used a select few items from Fisher and Locke (1992) item pool to measure it.

In the present study, like Ball et al. (1994), the relevant set of items were drawn from the empirical domain tapped by the items in Fisher and Locke (1992), Robinson (1992), and Robinson and Bennett's (1995) work.

In selecting negative behavior items from the above indicated research, the following criteria were applied. First, in the present study the ERB measure was to be obtained from supervisors. Therefore, passive negative emotional responses such as "covers emotion by wearing a

mask of impassivity or indifference" (Fisher & Locke, 1992: 184) were excluded. Second, the behaviors that do not explicitly reflect low concern for organizational interests were excluded. Third, in the studies by Locke and associates one of the observations has been that "'never' was the single most frequent response for all except one item in the scale" (Fisher & Locke, 1992: 176). This suggested that the items to be included in the measure of NB should be behaviors that are mild enough and therefore occur with a reasonable frequency at the study site. Fourth, some deviant behaviors that may reflect a low concern for organizational interests but may not have an associated low concern for self-interests may not be relevant to the construct of NB. Items pertaining to behaviors such as stealing were, therefore, excluded as they do not necessarily reflect an employee's low concern for self-interests. Application of these criteria yielded the following pool of items from existing work.

1. Complains about the company.
2. Has been finding fault with what the organization is doing.
3. Has been the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing.
4. Has been taking frequent or extra long breaks to avoid doing the work.

5. Has been focusing on what's wrong, rather than the positive side.
6. Gets away from job by calling in sick when not really sick.
7. Starts rumors to get revenge.
8. Starts negative rumors about the company.
8. Destroys company property.
9. Sabotages work of a superior (tries to make him/her look bad).
10. Lies in order to get the boss into trouble.
11. Sabotages company equipment.
12. Acts foolish in front of a customer.

Step b: Content Validity Assessment

In the preceding step, items were collected to form the potential pool of items for composing the ERB scales. Subsequently, these items were assessed for their applicability at the study site through detailed discussions with a representative member of the supervisors. Based on this, some items were written and added to the basic item pool. Next, a content validation exercise was performed. Six raters who were either doctoral students in the management area or faculty members participated in this exercise.

Construct definitions for the four ERB constructs, and a pool of 46 items were provided to these raters. They were

asked to use the construct definitions to place each item into one of the four construct categories. They could place an item into the fifth category termed "other" if the item did not belong to any of the four construct categories. The provision of the "other" category is consistent with the approach adopted by other researchers (e.g., MacKenzie et al., 1991; Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990). Items that were placed in their theoretically suggested category by 66% or more raters were considered to be items with satisfactory content validity. Of the 46 items, 29 met this criterion.

Step c: Item Retention, Modification, and Randomized Presentation

In the preceding step, 29 out of 46 items met the criterion for content validation and their membership of appropriate construct category was validated. From the other items that did not meet this criterion, some items were placed by some of the raters in their theoretically appropriate category. They, however, did not meet the 66% percent correct classification criterion. One of the reasons for this could be that the construct content was not salient enough in them.

Such items were reworded to increase the salience of their construct content and to heighten their distinction from the other ERB construct categories. This process yielded a final pool of 42 items which were used to create

the ERB instrument for this study. This instrument is enclosed in Appendix B. The design of instrument format benefitted from Moorman's (1990) work in this area. The items in this instrument were presented in a randomized order to minimize the possibility of ordering effect. Since PB items had a separate instruction paragraph associated with them, these items were kept as a separate block under an appropriate set of instructions. Thus, 31 items representing OCB, CUB, and NB were randomized across these three categories and 11 PB items were randomized within the block of PB items. In this randomized order item number 1, 2, 15, 18, 22, 23, 24, 28, 29, 31 are OCB items, item number 3, 5, 6, 10, 11, 14, 16, 20, 21, 30 are CUB items, and item number 4, 7, 8, 9, 12, 13, 17, 19, 25, 26, 27 are NB items. Items 32 through 42 are PB items.

Step d: Factor Analysis and Reliability Assessment for the ERB Scale Items

The next step in ERB scale construction consisted of factor analysis, selective retention of items to form scales based on the factor loading pattern, and attainment of satisfactory level of reliabilities for each of the four ERB scales. The details of these stages of scale development process are provided in the next chapter (chapter 4) where the results of factor analysis and reliability assessment are presented.

Some Points Concerning the ERB Measures

Some points need to be noted concerning the measurement of ERBs in the present study. First, all the measures of ERB used a five-point Likert format. The extreme anchor points were "never" and "always". This format of anchor points (i.e., frequency-based labels) has been extensively used in existing ERB research (e.g., Becker & Vance, 1993; Kipnis et al., 1980; McNeely & Meglino, 1994; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Puffer, 1987; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Yukl & Falbe, 1990) though other anchor points such as "agree/disagree" (Bateman & Organ, 1983) and "highly or not at all characteristic of an employee" (Smith et al., 1983) have also been used in research.

Also, supervisors were used as respondents for the measures of ERB for two reasons. First, it helps minimize the problem of common source variance (Avolio, Yammarino, & Bass, 1991). Second, for political behaviors, it may be difficult to get employees to accept their self-interests-seeking tendencies and therefore supervisors' assessment is preferable (Ferris et al., 1994b). Thus, sources other than the employee need to be used in order to avoid common source variance and/or to overcome the problem of not reporting some of the behaviors. Of the other two possible sources - coworkers and supervisors- OCB research suggests that supervisors are a more appropriate source than coworkers for

obtaining employee OCB assessment (Moorman, 1991). Based on this, the ERB measures were obtained from supervisors.

Items in the ERB measures were assessed for their applicability at the proposed study site. It was hoped that this would help minimize the problem of low frequency observed with respect to NBS (e.g., Fisher & Locke, 1992).

Also, the ERB measures used in the present study consisted of items drawn from multiple existing measures. Items from the existing scales were, thus, used as validated and readily available samples of empirical domains for ERB constructs under study. This form of sampling of items from existing measures to operationalize constructs related to these measures is consistent with the practice in existing research (e.g., Ball et al., 1994; Pearce & Gregersen, 1991; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Thus, the construct operationalization approach used here is consistent with the practice in existing research. Further justification for it comes from the fact that this study has developed a typology of ERB constructs and specified a model to explain their occurrence. The empirical assessment proposed here will be the first test of the theory and a starting point in a long cycle of subsequent theory modification and testing. In such early stages of theory testing, very high level of measurement rigor may not be feasible or even a central requirement. Consistent with this, Bass and Avolio (1993: 61) note that "the

rigorousness of measurement in its relation to theory depends on where one is in the time-line of investigation. Rigor and precision are demanded late in the time-line." They further highlight that "theories can evolve and be further refined to better fit the data even if measures lag behind, which they often do. But it is in its eventual evolvment that theories lead to the advancement of our understanding and better ways to find confirmatory reliable and valid measurements."

Data-Analytic Procedures

The data analysis performed for this study consisted of four main parts. In the first part, factor analyses for the newly developed ERB scale and existing multidimensional scales were performed. Additionally, for these scales and other single dimensional scales the internal consistency was assessed by computing reliability (alpha) coefficients. In the second part, the representativeness of the study sample (respondents) was assessed by comparing it with the nonparticipant group. In the third part, descriptive statistics and interscale correlation coefficients were computed. In the fourth part, analysis for testing the hypotheses specified in the study was performed. In this fourth part, the mediational role of the organizational involvement variables in the antecedent-ERB relationship was also examined. The salient aspects of the data-analytic

procedures used for these four parts of analysis are outlined below. This is followed by the presentation of actual results in the next chapter.

Prior to the actual use of data-analytic procedures, a decision had to be made concerning the treatment of missing values. In the present study, for some of the employee survey respondents individual items within some scales were blank (itemwise missing values) or response to one of the 6 scales was missing (variablewise missing values). There were no missing values in the supervisory survey and therefore the treatment of missing values described below applies only to the employee survey.

Researchers have noted that missing values is a very common occurrence in survey research. For instance, Kim and Curry (1977: 215) note that "For any large data set it is unlikely that complete information will be present for all the cases. In surveys that rely on respondents' reports of behaviors and attitudes it is almost certain that some information is either missing or in an unusable form."

In dealing with the missing data problem, two options are available namely; deletion of the cases with missing data or retention of these cases by replacing missing values with appropriate estimates (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Kim & Curry, 1977). Deletion of cases can take two forms. In the first form termed "listwise deletion" an entire observation is kept aside even if value on a single variable in it is

missing. In the second form termed "pairwise deletion" an observation with missing value on one of the several variables is kept aside only in those computations which use that variable. In all other computations, that observation is included. In statistical packages such as SAS, some procedures such as regression analysis automatically do listwise deletion if either the dependent or any one of the several independent variables in a model has a missing value (SAS User's Guide [Statistics]; Version 5: 667). Some procedures such as correlational analysis do pairwise deletion but can be made to do listwise deletion (SAS User's Guide [Basics]; Version 5: 868). Cohen and Cohen (1983) note that both these methods of handling missing data are unsatisfactory. Listwise deletion keeps aside observations and thus the results from the retained observations may not be representative of the population unless it can be demonstrated that the missing values occurred at random. Regarding pairwise deletion, they note that "Pairwise deletion with nonrandomly missing data gives nonrepresentative results (or none at all if r 's are not consistent) and with randomly missing data an ambiguous n for statistical inference (Cohen & Cohen, 1983: 281)."

Thus, deletion of observations in either pairwise or listwise mode has certain disadvantages. However, just as deletion of an observation may make the sample nonrepresentative, replacing missing values with some

estimate may also introduce a bias to the extent the estimate does not match the true value that is missing. Given this, it seemed necessary to assess the relative magnitude of missing value replacement required in the present data set and the magnitude of information that will be lost if these observations were to be deleted. The computations for this were performed. Here the ratio of the number of items with missing values to total number of possible item responses (the number of respondents multiplied by the total number of items in the scales) was computed. This indicated that if all the missing values were replaced then it will amount to about 2.18% of information replacement. If, however, the observations were to be kept aside for missing values then the amount of information loss worked out to be relatively much higher. This happens because as Kim and Curry (1977: 216) point out that "if only 2% of the cases contain missing values on each variable and the pattern of missing values is random, the listwise procedure will delete 18.3% of the cases in an analysis using 10 variables." Based on the above considerations, the option of replacement of missing values rather than deletion of observations was adopted.

There are several methods available for the replacement of missing values including the method of replacing missing value with the mean value for the sample (e.g., Gleason & Staelin, 1975). The method of replacement with means values

was chosen. Replacement of a missing item value with the corresponding sample mean does not alter the overall sample mean on that item, it also does not increase the sample variance on that item since the added value has zero deviation from the sample mean. In fact, the variance decreases with the addition of a case with the value of sample mean because the number of cases (n) in the denominator of the variance formula increases by 1 unit while the numerator (sum of deviations) remains unchanged. Thus, in this option while no bias is introduced in the sample means, the observed effects are also likely to be conservative since the sample variance is less than that would have been without such replacement.

Data Analysis (Part One): Factor Analysis and Reliability Assessment for Scales

Factor analysis can be used in various ways in the construct validation process (Schwab, 1980). In the present study, factor analysis was used in two ways.

In the first way, factor analysis was used as a part of the ERB scale construction process. The scale construction process for the extra-role behavior scale designed for this study consisted of four steps (steps 'a' through 'd') outlined earlier in this chapter. For the last step (step 'd') in this four step process, factor analysis was used in combination with reliability assessment. From the items

developed through the first three steps in the scale construction process described earlier, those loading on appropriate factors were used to form scales and the reliability levels for the resulting scales were assessed as an evidence of internal consistency of these items.

In the second way, factor analysis was used to assess the dimensionality of the other scales used in this study. For the scales adopted from existing research, factor analysis was performed only for the scales that have multidimensional structure. Only one of the six scales - organizational involvement scale- is based on multidimensional construct specification. Consistent with Schwab's (1980) suggestion, factor analysis was used to assess if the dimensional structure suggested in the specification of this construct was compatible with the dimensions observed among its items. One additional factor analysis was performed for two single dimensional scales measuring procedural and distributive justice. This was done as a special case because these two constructs are related and form parts of a larger construct of organizational justice. Therefore, it was considered necessary to examine if the items assessing these two constructs indeed formed two distinct dimensions or they collapsed into a single broader dimension. For this, items from both procedural and distributive justice were pooled together and factor analysis was performed on them. The

results of this analysis are presented in the next chapter.

In each of the above uses of factor analysis, common factor method of factor analysis was used. Of the two factor analysis methods namely; principal component analysis and common factor method, the common factor method is more appropriate when the focus is on assessing the presence of theoretically hypothesized dimensions in the data (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1992: 228). Also, in all cases varimax orthogonal rotation was used because of certain limitations of the other alternative method of oblique rotation. Hair et al. (1992: 228) note that "An oblique factor rotation is more complex than orthogonal one. In fact, an entirely satisfactory analytical procedure has not been devised for oblique solutions. They are still the subject of considerable experimentation and controversy." Also, since the analysis was performed to assess the compatibility of the number of factors specified in the constructs underlying these scales and the number of dimensions actually present in the items, the number of factors to be extracted was a-priori specified based on the construct specifications associated with these scales. Based on the above considerations, common factor method of factor extraction, varimax orthogonal method of factor rotation, and a-priori specification of the number of factors were used consistently in this part of data analysis.

Data Analysis (Part Two): Sample Representativeness Assessment

Though the response rate, as indicated earlier, was reasonably high (42.87%) for the employee survey, sample representativeness was assessed to examine if the employees who participated in the survey differed significantly from those who did not. While, this could be done by assessing the similarity between the employees in these two groups on demographic variables, such variables may not be in any way related to the criterion or explanatory variables in the theory being tested in the present study. A relatively more appropriate assessment of sample representativeness would come if it can be shown that the employees in the sample are similar to those not in the sample on the variables that form parts of the model being tested. In the present study, the two groups were compared on four forms of extra-role behaviors.

For this, the following procedure was adopted. The survey instrument provided to the supervisors contained the names of their subordinates who participated in the employee survey. Some of these supervisors were also requested to randomly select a few of their subordinates whose names were not in the survey instrument and provide extra-role behavior assessment for them. These employees were identified with hypothetical identifiers such as E1, E2, and so on. A total of 26 such ratings were received. Multivariate Analysis of

Variance (MANOVA) was performed to examine if the two groups differed significantly in terms of the overall level of extra-role behaviors they perform. The outcome of this test is described the second part of the next chapter where the results of all data analytic procedures are presented.

Data Analysis (Part Three): Descriptive Statistics and Interviabile Correlation Coefficients

In this part, appropriate data-analytic procedures were used to compute means and standard deviations for each of the variables in the study. Correlation coefficients for all possible pairs of variables were also computed.

Data Analysis (Part Four): Hypothesis Testing

The hypotheses in the proposed theory specify relationships between pairs of variables. These hypotheses form the structure shown in Tables 19, 20, and 21 in terms of variables they link. Eleven multiple regressions (MREG1 to MREG11) as shown in Tables 18, 19, and 20 were performed. Each regression equation had a variable in the top row as the dependent variable and the variables in the column as independent variables. The significance levels associated with the regression coefficients of the independent variables in these regression equations were used to assess the support for the corresponding hypotheses.

TABLE 19

Summary of Regression Analysis for Hypotheses to be Tested:
Antecedent Variables and Organizational Involvement

Indep. Variables	Dependent Variables		
	MI	CI	AI
OS	(+)H1	(-)H2	(-)H3
DJ	(x)H8	(+)H9	(-)H10
PJ	(x)H15a (+)H15B	(-)H16	(-)H17
VC	(+)H22	(-)H23	(-)H24
SI	(+)H29	(-)H30	(-)H31
	MREG1	MREG2	MREG3

Note: (+), (-), and (x) signs indicate a positive, negative, and nonexistent relationship respectively between the variables in a hypothesis.

MREG = Multiple Regression Equation

MI = Moral Involvement

CI = Calculative Involvement

AI = Alienative Involvement

OS = Perceived Organizational Support

DJ = Distributive Justice

PJ = Procedural Justice

VC = Value Congruence

SI = Social Interest

OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behavior

CUB = Constructive Utilitarian Behavior

PB = Political Behavior

NB = Negative Behavior

TABLE 20

Summary of Regression Analysis for Hypotheses to be Tested:
Antecedent Variables and ERBs

Indep. Variables	Dependent Variables			
	OCB	CUB	PB	NB
OS	(+)H4	(+)H5	(-)H6	(-)H7
DJ	(-)H11	(-)H12	(+)H13	(-)H14
PJ	(+)H18	(+)H19	(-)H20	(-)H21
VC	(+)H25	(+)H26	(-)H27	(-)H28
SI	(+)H32	(+)H33	(-)H34	(-)H35
	MREG4	MREG5	MREG6	MREG7

TABLE 21

Summary of Regression Analysis for Hypotheses to be Tested:
Organizational Involvement and ERBs

	Dependent Variables			
	OCB	CUB	PB	NB
Indep. Variables				
MI	(+)H36	(+)H37	(-)H38	(-)H39
CI	(-)H40	(+)H41	(+)H42	(-)H43
AI	(-)H44	(-)H45	(-)H46	(+)H47
	MREG8	MREG9	MREG10	MREG11

All the relationships tested using these regression equations were a-priori specified. As a result, alpha levels of 0.05 and 0.1 were used to assess the significance of tests with no adjustments required for alpha inflation.

Data Analysis (Part Four): Assessment of the Mediation Role of Organizational Involvement

The hypothesis-testing procedure outlined in the preceding step sought to assess the validity of the individual parts of the proposed theory. The positive results would support the corresponding parts of the theory and offer evidence in terms of covariation between the variables linked in the regression equations. Covariation is translated into causality through specification of a process in terms of mediational mechanisms (James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982). In the proposed theory, there is a premise specifying that organizational involvement will mediate the effects of antecedents onto the ERBs. This provides a process view of the ERBs and casts the antecedent-ERB, antecedent-organizational involvement, and organizational involvement-ERB associations into a process sequence where organizational involvement's mediational role highlights the process through which the antecedents result in ERBs. The validity of this process view centers around the validity of the mediational role of the organizational involvement variable.

There are two approaches to testing the validity of mediational processes. One approach, structural equation modeling, offers a way of specifying asymmetrical functional relationships between the multiple stages of variables and enables the assessment of mediational mechanisms (James et al., 1982). This form of causal analysis could be performed using techniques of path analysis or LISREL. In path analysis the variables are standardized and path coefficients reflect the strength of causal relationships between the causes and effects connected by the paths. LISREL offers the additional ability to account for measurement errors (James et al., 1982).

Another approach to the assessment of mediational process is to perform a three-step regression analysis suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) or adopt reduced form equations analysis (for sets) technique suggested by Cohen and Cohen (1983). In the present study, the approach outlined by Cohen and Cohen (1983) in general was adopted. Two points were considered in making this choice.

First, the proposed model suggests a mediation of antecedent-ERB relationship by the organizational involvement variable. It, however, does not specify micro-mediation in terms of which of the antecedents will operate through which of the three mediating variables for each of the four ERBs. Such micromediational specification can be developed only when the molar relationships are established

and basic mediational processes are outlined. The present study focuses on these two aspects. Positive support for these two aspects of the model will serve as a foundation on which further micro-mediational processes can be theorized. Given that the proposed model does not seek to specify micromediational links, the model specification and functional equation formulation which are the preconditions for the structural equation modeling approach to causal assessment (James et al., 1982) can not be performed.

Second, the reduced form equations analysis (for sets) technique allows the assessment of causality or mediational effects in partially specified causal models, such as the model proposed here. This technique provides for hierarchical analysis of sets of variables such as antecedent variables set, mediating variables set, and outcome variables set. This, thus, obviates the need for specifying relationships between individual variable across the sets. In highlighting this situation Cohen and Cohen (1983: 361) note that "It is all too frequently the case that our efforts to construct a plausible causal model fall short of complete specification of all relationships among variables. One may be able to assert with some assurance that certain variables (set A) are causally prior to certain other variables (set B) which are in turn causally prior to yet other variables (set C)." They outline a technique

involving hierarchical analysis of sets to assess the causality specified at the level of sets of variables.

The role of organizational involvement as a potential mediator variable between the antecedent-ERB relationship was assessed in the following manner. The procedure described here is also schematically presented in Figure 9.

- a. The analysis was performed separately for each of the ERBs as the dependent variable.
- b. For a given ERB form the following two steps were performed.

In step one, the ERB variable under consideration was regressed on the antecedent set (OS, PJ, DJ, VC, and SI). The regression coefficients for each of the antecedent set variables here indicates its "total effect" on the ERB variable (dependent variable) (Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

In step two, the mediating variable set was added to the regression equation from step one. In this step, the resulting regression coefficients for each of the antecedent set variables indicates its "direct effect" on the ERB variable (dependent variable) (Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

The reduced form equations analysis (for sets) indicates the total and direct effects of the antecedent variable set. These were used in the following manner to assess the presence of mediation. The mediation test is logically valid for only those antecedent variables that have a significant total effect on the ERB variable.

FIGURE 9

Hierarchical Set Analysis Procedure for Testing the Mediatorial Role of Organizational Involvement

	Dependent Variables			
	OCB	CUB	PB	NB
Step One Enter Antecedent Set				
POS	Beta1			
DJ	Beta2			
PJ	Beta3			
VC	Beta4			
SOI	Beta5			
Step Two				
Enter Antecedent Set, Also Enter Mediator Set				
POS	Beta1'			
DJ	Beta2'			
PJ	Beta3'			
VC	Beta4'			
SOI	Beta5'			
<hr/> MI	Beta6			
CI	Beta7			
AI	Beta8			

With OCB as the dependent variable, the following comparisons are to be done.

A. For the antecedents that have significant Beta values in step one:

1. Compare Beta1 with Beta1'.....Beta5 with Beta5'.
2. For antecedents with significant Beta but non-significant Beta' there is complete mediation.
3. For antecedents with both significant Beta and Beta', there is partial mediation only if Beta' is smaller than Beta. If Beta and Beta' are equal then for that antecedent 's effect on ERB is not mediated at all through organizational involvement.

B. For the antecedents that have nonsignificant Beta values in step one there is no effect on ERBs for a mediator to mediate.

Similar analysis to be performed separately for CUB, PB and NB as the dependent variables.

That is, they have some effect which can be potentially mediated. For these antecedent variables, the "total effect" (step 1 regression coefficients) and "direct effect" (step 2 regression coefficients) patterns can fall into three categories.

i. For one category of antecedent variables the total effect (step 1 regression coefficients) will be significant but the direct effect (step 2 regression coefficients), after partialling out the effect translated through the mediator set, will be non-significant. In this case, the mediation is complete in that the antecedent variables in this category do not have any significant direct effect on the ERB variable. Their entire effect on the ERB variable is translated through the mediator set.

ii. For the second category of antecedent variables, the total effect in step one will be significant and also the direct effect in step two will be significant. The magnitude of direct effect in step two, however, will be less than the magnitude of total effect in step one. In this case, the antecedent variable's effect on the ERB variable is partially mediated by the mediating variable set.

iii. The third category will consist of those antecedent variables whose effect on the ERB variable remains unchanged between step one and two. In this case, there is an absence

of any mediation and the antecedent variables have only a direct unmediated effect on the ERB variable.

c. Part 'b' above was repeated for all four ERB variables.

The extent of mediation by the organizational involvement variable was judged from the overall pattern of mediating effects observed. This provided a judgmental basis for the assessment of the mediating role of the organizational involvement variable.

It is relevant to consider the extent of information loss incurred in using the reduced form equations analysis technique with hierarchical sets as compared to causal analysis (involving path analysis or LISREL techniques) through a fully specified model. Cohen and Cohen (1983: 366) ask "What have we lost by using this not-fully specified partial causal model?" They also provide an answer by indicating that "Because variables within sets are treated as exogenous with regard to each other, we may have underestimated (or overestimated if there is suppression) the indirect effect of some variables that actually operate via other variables within the same set. All other estimates are equivalent to those from a fully specified model."

They further note that "In sum, by attention to the regression coefficients produced in a hierarchical analysis one may gain most of the information usually provided by a fully specified causal model. Because the necessity for

specifying within-set relationships is avoided, this procedure may be feasible for many more problems than those that meet the full requirement of specification and identification of effects in causal analysis (Cohen & Cohen, 1983: 366)." This suggests that while the approach used for mediational assessment is appropriate for the nature of macro-mediation specified in the model, it is comparable to the other approaches to causal analysis in terms of its information yield.

The above sections outlined the sample characteristics, procedures used in data collection, measures adopted for the assessment of the variables in the model, and various aspects of data-analytic procedures used in this study. The results for the four parts of the data analysis outlined above are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The results of this study are described in the following sections. These results were obtained using the sample, data collection procedures, measures, and data analytical methods described in the preceding chapter. The results are presented for four parts of the data analysis procedures described in the preceding chapter. First, the results of factor analysis and reliability assessment for the scales designed and adopted are presented. Next, results of the analysis for assessing the differences between employees in the sample and those not in it are outlined. Subsequently, descriptive statistics for the variables in the model and inter-variable correlations are presented. Finally, the results of regression analysis for testing the validity of the hypotheses specified in the model and for the assessment of mediational role of the organizational involvement variable are presented.

Factor Analysis and Reliability Assessment for Scales

The scales used in this study fall into two categories. One category includes the scales that were designed specifically for this study (scales measuring extra-role behaviors). The other category includes the readily available scales adopted for this study (scales measuring

three forms of organizational involvement, organizational support, procedural justice, distributive justice, value congruence, and social interest).

ERB scales. For the first category of scales that were specifically designed for this study, the scale construction process consisted of four steps namely; item generation, content validation, item modification and adjustment, and factor analysis and reliability assessment. These four steps are described in the preceding chapter. The results of the first three steps are also outlined there since each step's outcome served as input for the next step. The results of the fourth step in the scale construction process are presented below.

The first three steps in the four step scale construction process resulted in the extra-role behaviors assessment instrument enclosed in Appendix A. Factor analysis with the factor extraction and rotation methods described in the preceding chapter was performed on these scale items to assess if the dimensions hypothesized to be present in these scale items were indeed empirically present in them. The resulting factor structure is presented in Table 22. Only item numbers are presented in Table 22. The description of these items is available in the supervisory survey instrument enclosed in Appendix B.

An examination of the item loadings on the four factors shown in Table 22 was used to name the factors and to

TABLE 22
Factor Loading Pattern for Extra-Role Behavior (ERB) Items

Item Number	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
ERB21	0.79	0.05	0.24	0.06
ERB14	0.77	0.16	0.18	0.10
ERB5	0.75	0.07	-0.02	0.06
ERB30	0.74	0.03	0.23	0.16
ERB6	0.74	-0.06	0.02	-0.08
ERB10	0.73	-0.07	0.11	0.22
ERB11	0.72	0.16	0.17	-0.08
ERB20	0.69	0.03	0.27	0.23
ERB31	0.69	-0.05	0.21	0.31
ERB18	0.67	-0.13	0.32	0.06
ERB29	0.67	0.03	0.22	0.40
ERB22	0.66	0.03	0.20	0.20
ERB23	0.59	-0.07	0.18	0.19
ERB16	0.56	-0.02	0.42	0.02
ERB28	0.54	0.03	0.07	0.52
ERB24	0.51	-0.16	0.33	0.33
ERB3	0.50	-0.05	0.23	0.40
ERB15	0.49	0.04	0.18	-0.18
ERB8	-0.19	0.10	0.05	-0.10
ERB26	0.05	0.73	-0.01	-0.12
ERB34	0.02	0.71	0.24	0.00
ERB13	-0.00	0.69	0.05	-0.15
ERB38	-0.10	0.66	0.33	0.01
ERB37	-0.03	0.66	0.32	-0.02
ERB39	0.05	0.64	0.24	0.01
ERB27	0.10	0.61	-0.03	-0.12
ERB17	-0.15	0.55	-0.04	-0.18
ERB9	-0.10	0.53	0.01	-0.45
ERB19	0.00	0.30	0.03	-0.09
ERB42	0.25	0.13	0.82	0.08
ERB33	0.19	0.13	0.82	0.01
ERB41	0.20	0.25	0.75	0.08
ERB32	0.37	0.11	0.75	-0.01
ERB36	0.23	0.08	0.55	0.13
ERB35	0.44	0.26	0.50	0.02
ERB40	0.34	0.37	0.49	-0.09
ERB1	0.42	-0.16	0.14	0.53
ERB2	0.10	-0.33	0.11	0.48
ERB12	-0.13	0.03	-0.02	-0.21
ERB7	-0.40	0.24	0.05	-0.42
ERB25	0.04	0.38	0.06	-0.47
ERB4	0.01	0.39	0.00	-0.57

Variance Explained: 9.15 4.87 4.62 2.77

% of Communalities

(Common Variance): 42.7% 22.75% 21.59% 12.92%

This table lists only item numbers. Item descriptions are available in Part C of the Supervisory Survey instrument enclosed in Appendix B.

identify the items that should be used to form the scale indexes for the subsequent analysis. Based on the items with high loadings on each of these factors, it was judged that Factors 1, 2, 3, and 4 reflect CUB, NB, PB, and OCB dimensions respectively. Those items that had high loadings on a factor (above 0.30) and also theoretically belonged to that dimension were used to form the scale for the corresponding dimension. This resulted in four scales with 8 items for constructive utilitarian behavior (CUB) scale (item number 5, 6, 10, 11, 14, 20, 21, and 30), 2 items for organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) scale (item number 1 and 2), 6 items for negative behavior (NB) scale (item number 9, 13, 17, 19, 26, and 27), and 4 items for political behavior (PB) scale (item number 33, 36, 41, and 42).

The reliability coefficients for the scales formed using these items were 0.92 for CUB scale, 0.70 for OCB scale (inter-item correlation for the two items is 0.54), 0.75 for NB scale, and 0.87 for PB scale. These reliability coefficients are close to or above 0.7 which is considered to be a satisfactory reliability level for new scales (Nunnally, 1978: 245).

The OCB scale contains only two items and some points could be noted regarding it. First, scales consisting of one or two items have been used in research to measure various constructs (e.g., Konovsky & Organ, In Press; McNeely & Meglino, 1994). Second, one of the limitations of

the scales with few items is the resulting low levels of reliability. The OCB scale consisting of two items has a reliability level of 0.70 which is close to the satisfactory reliability level for new measures.

Another outcome of the factor analysis stage in the ERB scale construction process was that for the four ERB scales, 20 out of 42 items used in factor analysis were retained after factor analysis and used to compose the scales; thus yielding an item retention rate of 47.6% for the factor analysis stage. This is not inconsistent with the item retention rates following factor analysis in other studies that used factor analysis prior to building scale indexes. For instance, Konovsky and Pugh (1994) retained 19 out of 32 items (retention rate = 59.3%), and Moorman (1990) retained 15 out of 32 items (retention rate = 46.9 %) after factor analysis. Thus, at the end of above described factor analysis and reliability assessment stage, the four step process of ERB scale construction was completed and scales with satisfactory level of inter-dimension distinction and intra-dimension coherence were obtained.

Organizational Involvement Scale. All other scales used in this study were from the existing sources and for them, as explained in the preceding chapter, factor analysis was performed only for those scales that had a multi-dimensional construct specification. The organizational involvement scale falls in this category. Common factor

analysis with varimax rotation performed on the items from this scale yielded a solution compatible with the dimensions specified for this construct. The factor loading pattern is presented in Table 23. Only item numbers are presented in Table 23. The description of these items is provided in part G of the employee survey booklet enclosed in Appendix A. Item number 2, 8, 14, 11, and 5 load on the first factor and all are items tapping the moral involvement dimension (Penley & Gould, 1988) of the organizational involvement construct. Item number 6, 12, 15, 9, and 3 load on the second factor and are the items tapping the calculative involvement dimension (Penley & Gould, 1988) of the organizational involvement construct. Item number 1, 4, 10, 7, and 13 load on the third factor and are the items tapping alienative involvement dimension of the organizational involvement construct. All items had loadings on their theoretically specified dimensions. Also, all three scales measuring three dimensions of employee involvement had satisfactory or close to satisfactory levels of reliabilities. Moral involvement, calculative involvement and alienative involvement had reliability coefficients of 0.78, 0.66, and 0.82 respectively.

Other Scales. The other scales used in this study were single dimensional. For these scales, the reliability coefficients were satisfactory; indicating that each of these scales had items from a fairly homogeneous domain. The

TABLE 23

Factor Loading Pattern for Organizational Involvement (OI)
Scale

Item Number	1	Factor 2	3
OI2	0.73	-0.19	-0.04
OI8	0.66	-0.26	0.07
OI14	0.66	-0.16	0.03
OI11	0.64	-0.28	0.06
OI5	0.50	-0.35	0.22
OI6	-0.16	0.67	0.11
OI12	-0.24	0.61	0.07
OI15	-0.19	0.58	-0.04
OI9	-0.27	0.56	0.13
OI3	-0.33	0.55	0.03
OI1	-0.08	-0.12	0.63
OI4	0.06	-0.18	0.62
OI7	-0.03	0.15	0.52
OI10	0.12	0.20	0.52
OI13	0.08	0.10	0.40

Variance Explained:	2.43	2.27	1.60
% of the Communality or Common Variance Extracted:	38.55%	36%	25.41%

Note:

The description for these items is available in Part G of the Employee Survey enclosed in Appendix A.

reliability coefficients were 0.91 for organizational support scale, 0.92 for procedural justice scale, 0.91 for distributive scale, 0.91 for value congruence scale, and 0.67 for social interest scale. However, of the five single dimensional scales used in the study, for two scales - procedural and distributive justice scales- a special factor analysis was performed.

Factor analysis for procedural and distributive justice scales. For the reasons indicated in the preceding chapter, a special additional factor analysis was performed for procedural and distributive justice scales to assess if they tap two distinct constructs. For this, all 9 items forming the procedural justice scale and all 6 items forming the distributive justice scale were pooled together, and factor analysis was performed on these 16 items. The results of factor analysis generated a solution compatible with the two factor structure. The factor loadings resulting from this analysis are presented in Table 24. Items from these two scales loaded on two distinct factors with all procedural justice items loading on the first factor while all distributive justice item loading on the second factor.

The results of the factor analysis and reliability assessment stage indicated that all scales used in the study had satisfactory psychometric properties. Based on this,

TABLE 24

Factor Loadings from Factor Analysis for the Items Combined
from Procedural Justice (PJ) and Distributive Justice (DJ)
Scales

Item Number	Factor	
	1	2
PJ6	0.80	0.22
PJ5	0.79	0.21
PJ7	0.78	0.16
PJ9	0.76	0.22
PJ3	0.74	0.19
PJ4	0.68	0.28
PJ2	0.66	0.27
PJ1	0.66	0.21
PJ8	0.56	0.26
DJ4	0.27	0.82
DJ3	0.20	0.80
DJ5	0.32	0.78
DJ6	0.24	0.74
DJ1	0.23	0.70
DJ2	0.16	0.70
<hr/>		
Variance Explained:	5.077	3.98
Percentage of Communality or Common Variance:	56.02%	43.96%

Note:

The description for these items is available in the Employee Survey enclosed in Appendix A. Part C and Part D of the Employee Survey provide descriptions for the procedural justice and distributive justice items respectively.

appropriate scale indexes were built using the items in these scales. The scores derived from these scales were used as the variable values in the subsequent parts of the analysis.

Sample Representativeness Assessment

As indicated in the preceding chapter, employees who participated in the employee survey and those who did not were compared on the criterion variable in the proposed model. The results of MANOVA are presented in Table 25. The results indicate that there are no overall significant differences in these two groups on the entire set of four employee extra-role behaviors.

Further, four follow-up pairwise comparisons using Scheffe's method were performed for each of the four ERB variables to examine if the two groups differ in terms of the average levels of extra-role behaviors performed by them. The results of these tests are also presented in Table 25. At a significance level of exactly 0.05 these two groups have no significant differences in terms of average levels of ERBs performed by them for all four ERB forms. At a significance level slightly above 0.05 (i.e., $p < 0.0576$), these two groups have differences only for negative behaviors.

TABLE 25

Comparison of ERB Levels for the Survey Participants and
Nonparticipants

a. Overall Manova Test (For all Four ERB Variables)

Wilk's Lambda	F	P>F
0.9805	1.58	0.18

b. Pairwise (Scheffe's) Comparisons (One Test for Each
of the Four ERB Variables)

PG = Participant Group (n=298!) NG = Nonparticipant Group (n=26)

ERB Variable	Mean Value		F	P>F
	PG	NG		
CUB	2.95	3.18	2.14	0.14
OCB	3.45	3.35	0.37	0.54
NB	1.29	1.43	3.63	0.06***
PB	2.73	2.88	0.51	0.47

! Note:

The participant group used in computations here consists of only 298 respondents for whom ERB data was received from the supervisory survey. It is a subset of the total 346 respondents that form the employee survey sample.

Thus, the results of the overall MANOVA indicate that for the criterion variables in the model, there are no significant differences between the employees who participated in the survey and those who did not. The results of separate pairwise analysis for each of the four ERB variables also indicate a similar pattern at a significance level of exactly 0.05 and indicate differences in only one of the four criterion variables at a slightly relaxed level ($p < 0.0576$) of significance. Put together, these results indicate that the sample is reasonably representative of its target population in terms of the criterion variable being studied.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for the Study Variables

In the previous two parts of the analysis for this study, the basic aspects such as the psychometric properties of the scales and sample representativeness were addressed. As outlined above, the results on these aspects were satisfactory. Subsequently, analysis was carried out to obtain descriptive statistics and intervariable correlations for the study variables. The means and standard deviations for the study variables are presented in Table 26. Reliability levels for the scales used to measure these variables and zero order correlations between the pairs of study variables are presented in Table 27.

TABLE 26

Descriptive Statistics for the Study Variables

	Mean	SD
Perceived Organization Support (OS)	4.09	1.14
Procedural Justice (PJ)	3.62	1.30
Distributive Justice (DJ)	3.14	0.96
Value Congruence (VC)	5.10	1.03
Social Interest (SI)	9.76	2.78
Moral Involvement (MI)	4.41	0.94
Calculative Involvement (CI)	3.63	1.01
Alienative Involvement (AI)	2.86	1.17
Constructive Utilitarian Behavior (CUB)	2.95	0.79
Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)	3.45	0.85
Negative Behavior (NB)	1.29	0.37
Political Behavior (PB)	2.73	1.02

Note:

In this table and all other tables following this in chapter 4, the number of observations are 298 (n = 298) for computations involving ERB variables, and 346 (n = 346) in computations that do not include ERB variables.

TABLE 27
Inter-Scale Correlations and Scale Reliabilities

	OS	PJ	DJ	VC	SI	MI	CI	AI	CUB	OCB	NB	PB
OS	.91											
PJ	64*	.92										
DJ	67*	53*	.91									
VC	58*	50*	51*	.91								
SI	02	-01	02	03	.67							
MI	47*	34*	39*	52*	13!	.78						
CI	12!	15*	12!	19*	-14*	08	.66					
AI	-61*	-42*	-53*	-43*	-06	-53*	09**	.82				
CUB	07	-07	03	07	14*	15*	-12!	-11!	.92			
OCB	24*	15*	21*	16*	01	10**	-06	-19*	36*	.70		
NB	-18*	-17*	-17*	-15*	01	-09**	-02	17*	-03	-42*	.75	
PB	-02	-06	-09**	-04	04	-01	00	00	41*	19*	14*	.87

Note:

1. Correlation coefficients in the above table have been multiplied by 100.
2. * = $p < 0.01$, ! = $p < 0.05$, ** = $p < 0.1$ (This notation applies only to the above table and not to the other tables in this chapter.)
3. Reliability coefficients appear in the diagonal of the table.

Hypothesis Testing

In this part of the data analysis, the validity of hypothesized relationships between the study variables was assessed. For this, multiple regression analysis was performed using eleven multiple regression equations outlined in Tables 19, 20, and 21 in the preceding chapter. The results of this analysis are presented in Tables 28, 29, and 30.

Based on the inspection of the statistical significance of the regression coefficients in these equations, support is found for 14 of the hypotheses specified in the model while 4 other regression coefficients indicated relationships in the direction opposite to that specified in the hypotheses. A summary of the support for the relationships hypothesized in the model is presented in Table 31.

The results indicate that the antecedent variables set as a whole accounts for a significant variance in three of the four forms of extra-role behaviors and in all three forms of employee involvement. Further, employee involvement variables account for significant variance in three of the four forms of employee extra-role behaviors. Thus, these results provide support for the overall model specified here in terms of the relationships between the categories of variables.

TABLE 28
Results of Regression Analysis: Antecedent Variables and ERBs

	Dependent Variables			
	OCB	CUB	PB	NB
Regression Coefficients for Indep. Variable				
OS	0.14**	0.12***	0.09	-0.02
DJ	0.08	-0.03	-0.15***	-0.02
PJ	-0.01	-0.12*	-0.04	-0.02
VC	0.00	0.06	0.00	-0.01
SI	0.00	0.04**	0.01	0.00
	-----	-----	-----	-----
R square	0.06	0.05	0.01	0.04
Adjusted R square	0.05	0.03	0.00	0.02
F value	3.89*	2.92*	0.92	2.5**

* = $p < 0.01$, ** = $P < 0.05$ *** = $P < 0.1$

OS = Organization Support
 DJ = Distributive Justice
 PJ = Procedural Justice
 VC = Value Congruence
 SI = Social Interest
 MI = Moral Involvement
 CI = Calculative Involvement
 AI = Alienative Involvement
 CUB = Constructive Utilitarian Behavior
 OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behavior
 NB = Negative Behavior
 PB = Political Behavior

TABLE 29
Results of Regression Analysis: Organizational Involvement
and ERBs

Regression Coefficients for Indep. Variable	Dependent Variables			
	OCB	CUB	PB	NB
MI	-0.01	0.13**	-0.02	0.00
CI	-0.04	-0.11**	0.00	-0.01
AI	-0.15*	-0.01	0.00	0.06*
R square	0.04	0.04	0.00	0.03
Adjusted R square	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.02
F value	4.25*	4.22*	0.03	2.99**

* = p<0.01, ** = P<0.05 *** = P<0.1

TABLE 30
Results of Regression Analysis: Antecedent Variables and
Organizational Involvement

	Dependent Variables		
	MI	CI	AI
Regression			
Coefficients			
for			
Indep. Variable			
OS	0.19*	-0.02	-0.44*
DJ	0.06	0.03	-0.25*
PJ	-0.01	0.05	0.00
VC	0.33*	0.16**	-0.08
SI	0.04*	-0.05*	-0.02
	-----	-----	-----
R square	0.33	0.06	0.41
Adjusted			
R square	0.32	0.05	0.39
F value	33.13*	4.44*	46.94*

* = p<0.01, ** = P<0.05 *** = P<0.1

TABLE 31
A Summary of the Hypothesized Relationships Supported

	OCB	CUB	PB	NB
OS	<u>(+)H4**</u>	<u>(+)H5***</u>	(-)H6	(-)H7
DJ	(-)H11	(-)H12	(+)H13***?	(-)H14
PJ	(+)H18	(+)H19*?	(-)H20	(-)H21
VC	(+)H25	(+)H26	(-)H27	(-)H28
SI	(+)H32	<u>(+)H33**</u>	(-)H34	(-)H35
	OCB	CUB	PB	NB
MI	(+)H36	<u>(+)H37**</u>	(-)H38	(-)H39
CI	(-)H40	(+)H41**?	(+)H42	(-)H43
AI	<u>(-)H44*</u>	(-)H45	(-)H46	<u>(+)H47*</u>
	MI	CI	AI	
OS	<u>(+)H1*</u>	(-)H2	<u>(-)H3*</u>	
DJ	<u>(x)H8</u>	(+)H9	<u>(-)H10*</u>	
PJ	<u>(x)H15a</u> (+)H15B	(-)H16	(-)H17	
VC	<u>(+)H22*</u>	(-)H23**?	(-)H24	
SI	<u>(+)H29*</u>	<u>(-)H30*</u>	(-)H31	

Hypotheses Supported: H1, H3, H4, H5, H8, H10, H15a, H22, H29, H30, H33, H37, H44, H47

* = $p < 0.01$, ** = $p < 0.05$, *** = $p < 0.1$

(+), (-), and (x) indicate positive, negative and an absence of a hypothesized relationship between the variables in a hypothesis as specified in the model.

Note:

1. Hypotheses with asterisks and an underline are the relationships that were hypothesized to be significant and were supported. (n=12).
2. Hypotheses with an underline and bold case are the relationships that were hypothesized to be nonsignificant and were found to be nonsignificant (n=2).
3. Hypotheses with asterisks and a question mark are significant relationships but in the directions opposite to the hypothesized directions (n=4).
4. Thus, a total of 14 (12+2) hypothesized relationships were supported.

While the results offer support for the relationships between the categories of variables, the support for the detailed relationships hypothesized in the model is only partial as 14 of the 48 hypothesized relationships were supported. This, however, is partly a result of the stringent criterion (significance of partial regression coefficients) applied for assessing the validity of individual hypothesized relationships. The hypotheses in chapter 2 have been specified as bivariate relationships between pairs of variables. One way of assessing the validity of these individual bivariate relationships is to consider the significance of zero order correlations between the pairs of variables in the hypotheses specifying bivariate relationships. By using the criterion of the significance of zero order correlations (Table 27), 24 hypothesized bivariate relationships can be supported. Here, however, the significance of partial regression coefficients was used as the criterion for assessing the validity of hypothesized relationships between independent and dependent variables. The partial regression coefficients reflect an independent variable's effect on the dependent variable when other independent variables are held constant (Cohen & Cohen, 1983: 87); that is, an independent variable's effect after accounting for (partialling out) the effects of other independent variables on the dependent variable. Application of this stringent test offered

support for fewer relationships. It, however, made it possible to consider the effect of other independent variables while assessing the significance of an independent variable's effect on the dependent variable.

Assessment of the Mediational Role of Organizational Involvement

A separate analysis, as described in chapter 3 and presented in Figure 9, was performed to assess if the organizational involvement variable mediated the effect of the antecedent variable set on the extra-role behaviors. The results of the reduced form equations analysis for the antecedent and mediator variables sets are presented in Table 32.

As indicated in the description of the reduced form equations analysis technique (for sets) in the preceding chapter, the regression coefficients of the antecedent set variables in Table 32 reflect these variables' direct effect (unmediated by the mediator set) on the dependent variables, whereas the regression coefficients for these variables in Table 28 reflect their total effect (direct effect plus effect mediated through the mediator set).

The information on the total and direct effects of the antecedent variable set provided by the reduced form equations analysis for sets was used here in the following manner. If a significant regression coefficient for an

TABLE 32

**Mediation Role of Organizational Involvement: Results of
the Reduced Form Equations Analysis**

	Dependent Variables			
	OCB	CUB	PB	NB
Antecedent Set				
OS	0.12***	0.08	0.07	0.00
DJ	0.07	-0.04	-0.16***	-0.02
PJ	0.00	-0.10**	-0.04	-0.02
VC	0.03	0.04	0.00	-0.01
SI	0.00	0.03***	0.02	0.00
Mediator Set				
MI	-0.05	0.12***	0.00	0.01
CI	-0.08!	-0.08***	0.04	0.00
AI	-0.04	-0.01	-0.05	0.03
R Square	0.07	0.07	0.01	0.05
Adjusted R2 Square	0.05	0.05	0.00	0.02
F value	2.94*	2.83*	0.64	1.77***
p>F	0.004	0.005	0.73	0.08

* = $p < 0.01$, ** = $p < 0.05$, *** = $p < 0.1$

Note: In column one, the sign ! (for the calculative involvement variable) indicates a significant effect at $p < 0.11$.

antecedent set variable in Table 28 drops to nonsignificant level in Table 32 then its effect is completely mediated by the mediator set. If a significant regression coefficient for an antecedent set variable remains significant, but at a lower level of significance then its effect is partially mediated by the mediator set. If, however, a significant regression coefficient for an antecedent variable in Table 28 remains significant at the same level in Table 32 then its total effect (direct effect plus mediated effect) consists of only direct effect and the mediator set does not at all mediate this variable's effect on the criterion variable. As indicated in the preceding chapter, this applies to only those antecedent variables that have significant regression coefficients in Table 28; that is, they have an effect on the dependent variable of which a part could potentially be mediated. For the antecedent set variables that have nonsignificant regression coefficients in Table 28, there is no effect to mediate for any mediator set.

The application of this procedure indicates that the pattern of mediation is mixed. For organizational citizenship (OCB) form of employee extra-role behaviors, organizational involvement completely mediates the effect of antecedent variables (i.e., of the organizational support which is the only antecedent variable with a significant regression coefficient in the regression equation for OCB in

Table 28) only if the significance level is restricted to 0.05 and partially mediates the effect of the antecedent variables at a significance level of 0.1. For constructive utilitarian (CUB) extra-role behaviors, organizational involvement completely mediates the effect of organizational support variable, and partially mediates the effect of social interest variable. For the political behavior (PB) form of extra-role behavior, distributive justice is the only antecedent variable that has a significant regression coefficient in Table 28. The significance level for the regression coefficient of this variable does not drop from Table 28 to Table 32 ($p < 0.1$ in both tables). Thus, for the political behavior dependent variable, organizational involvement does not mediate the effect of the antecedent variable set. For negative behaviors (NB), none of the antecedent variables has a significant total effect (in Table 28) and, thus, the mediational assessment is not applicable.

Overall, out of three forms of extra-role behaviors where mediation is possible in principle, for two extra-role behavior forms (CUB and OCB) organizational involvement completely or partially mediates the effect of the antecedent variables on the ERB variables while for one form of extra-role behavior (PB) it fails to mediate the effect of the antecedent variables. Thus, the results offer only partial support for the role of organizational involvement

as a mediating variable in the antecedent variables-ERB relationship.

In this chapter, the study results were presented. Certain conclusions and issues emerge from these results. These conclusions and issues, and their research and managerial implications are outlined in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE
CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

In the following sections the main conclusions suggested by the study results are presented. Some important issues emerging from the results are also highlighted. Finally, some of the salient research and managerial implications of these conclusions and issues are outlined.

Conclusion One: Conceptual and Empirical Distinctions among the Proposed ERB Classes

The first conclusion yielded by the study results is that different forms of extra-role behaviors are conceptually and empirically distinct but related phenomena. The evidence in support of the above conclusion comes from four different stages of this study: a) content validation stage, b) factor analysis stage, c) intervariable correlation assessment stage, and d) hypothesis testing stage. The nature of evidence provided by each of these four stages of this study is outlined below. Also, the relevance of this evidence for the above suggested conclusion about conceptual and empirical distinction among four ERB classes is briefly outlined.

Conclusion one: Evidence from the content validation exercise. As indicated in chapter 3, during the content validation process, 66% or more raters placed 29 out of 46 items into correct construct categories. Two points need to be noted concerning the significance of the above highlighted correct classification in the content validation process. The typology specified as a part of the proposed model uses two dimensions -employees' concern for self-interests and organizational interests- to specify the four classes in the typology as distinct ERB constructs. These two dimensions were used explicitly and made salient in the definitions of the four construct categories provided to the raters. The 46 employee behaviors provided to the raters were drawn from the empirical domain of behaviors generated in previous research. For instance, all items describing political behavior were taken from the item pool of Kipnis et al. (1980) study. In their study, Kipinis et al. (1980) obtained these items by requiring the study participants to describe their own use of influence tactics. Thus, the items provided to the raters mostly represent empirical domains of employee extra-role behaviors while the four definitions of the four ERB construct classes provided to them were derived from the conceptual specification of the typology. The correct classification of 29 out of 46 items into these theoretically specified classes suggests that the conceptual distinction proposed in the typology of ERBs is

observable in the empirical domain formed by actual employee behaviors.

Conclusion one: Evidence from factor analysis. Common factor analysis was used as the method of factor extraction in the present study. This method identifies the dimensions underlying the items or data used in factor analysis (Hair et al., 1992). It also uses only the total common variance shared by items (communalities) for factor extraction (Hair et al., 1992). The four factors extracted in the factor analysis accounted for 99.96% of the total common variance (communalities) in the 42 items used to measure ERBs. This suggests that the four classes that are proposed in the typology are sufficient to capture the number of dimensions actually present in the employee behavioral data. Also, 20 of the 42 items had a fairly clear loading pattern on the factors representing their theoretically specified dimensions. This further suggests that the four dimensions represented by the four factors extracted, have a reasonable correspondence with the four conceptual classes specified in the typology.

Conclusion one: Evidence from intervariable correlations. An inspection of the pattern of correlations in Table 27 yields two relevant observations. First, the absolute magnitude of correlations among the four ERB forms ranges from 0.14 to 0.42. Correlations in a range close to this have been used in previous research to suggest

discriminant validity of constructs (e.g., Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991). In assessing discriminant validity of their measure of ingratiation, Kumar and Beyerlein (1991: 625-626) observed correlations in the range of 0.08 and 0.35 between their measure of ingratiation and measures of other related constructs. They used this range to highlight discriminant validity of their measure. Thus, the magnitude of correlations among the four ERB constructs here can be taken as a preliminary evidence of their discriminant validity; indicating that the four forms of ERBs, as operationalized in the scales composed in this study, are conceptually and empirically fairly distinct from each other.

Second, the pattern of relative magnitude of correlations between various pairs of ERBs is also relevant. The correlations between OCB and CUB (0.36), CUB and PB (0.42), and OCB and PB (0.19) suggests that on a continuum of employee extra-role behaviors the placement of these ERB forms is such that PB and OCB are at two points that are fairly distant from each other while CUB is between PB and OCB since it is moderately correlated with both OCB and PB while OCB and PB are marginally correlated with each other.

This is consistent with the specification of these classes in the typology proposed here. In the proposed typology, PBs reflect an employee's high concern for self-interests while OCBs reflect an employee's high concern for

organizational-interests. CUBs lie between these two ERB forms as they reflect an employee's high concern for both self-interests and organizational interests. Thus, the pattern of relationships among the classes in the typological specification is mirrored in the pattern of relationships found among these behavioral categories in the empirical data.

Conclusion one: Evidence from regression analysis. In the regression analysis performed for assessing the validity of relationships specified in the proposed model, each of the four ERB variables was regressed separately once on the set of five antecedent variables and once on three organizational involvement variables. The results of these 8 regression analyses are presented in Tables 28 and 29 in the preceding chapter. An inspection of the regression coefficients in these tables provides some relevant observations. In Table 28, where the results of 4 regression analyses for regressing each ERB separately on 5 antecedent variables are presented, each of the four ERBs has a distinct pattern of association with the antecedent variables.

For OCB, organizational support is the only significant antecedent variable; for CUB, the significant antecedent variables are organizational support, procedural justice, and social interest; for PB, the significant antecedent variable is only distributive justice; for NB no antecedent

variable is significantly associated with it. Also, the results in Table 29, where each of the four ERB variables is separately regressed on three organizational involvement variables, indicate a differential pattern of relationships between ERBs and organizational involvement variables. The differential pattern of antecedents associated with different ERBs suggests that these ERB categories are empirically distinct from each other.

Thus, the observations made from the results obtained at different stages of this study in several ways support the conclusion that the four classes of ERBs yielded by the typology specified in the proposed theory are conceptually and empirically distinct from each other. This provides support for the validity of one central part of the theoretical specification provided in chapter two -the typology of employee extra-role behaviors.

Conclusion Two: Relationship between Employees' Organizational Assessment and Organizational Involvement

The second conclusion yielded by the results is that the nature of an employee's organizational involvement is significantly influenced by an employee's organizational assessment. In the theory specified in chapter two, one of the key premises used was that employees' organizational assessment can take cathectic, evaluative, and normative forms. The antecedent variables of organizational support,

procedural and distributive justice, and value congruence were used as constructs representing these three forms of assessment. The variables used to measure these constructs in the present study account for a significant variance in employees' organizational involvement. The results in Table 30 indicate that the above set of antecedent variables, along with an additional variable of social interest, accounts for a significant variance in each of the three forms of organizational involvement. In particular, they account for as much as 32% and 39% of the variance in moral and alienative forms of employees' organizational involvement. These results offer support for an important part of the proposed theory.

Conclusion Three: Explaining the Occurrence of Employee ERBs in an Integrated Model

The third conclusion emerging from the results obtained in the preceding chapter is that the set of antecedent variables and organizational involvement variables influence the occurrence of employee extra-role behaviors. The results presented in Table 28 indicate that the antecedent variables representing an employee's assessment of organizational support, fairness, and value congruence, as a set, account for statistically significant variance in three of the four forms of employee extra-role behaviors. Similarly, the results presented in Table 29 indicate that

the organizational involvement variables, as a set, account for statistically significant variance in each three of the four forms of employee extra-role behaviors. These results support another key premise of the theory specified in chapter two. Thus, the theory proposed here may provide a starting point for developing a unified theory of employee extra-role behaviors.

Conclusion Four: Support for the Detailed Relationships among Variables

The fourth conclusion suggested by the results indicates a positive but partial support for the hypothesized detailed relationships among the variables in the proposed model. The results of the regression analysis presented in Tables 28, 29, and 30, and the summary of results provided in Table 31 indicate that 14 detailed relationships from the proposed model were supported. While the earlier indicated three conclusions offer support for the three central parts of the proposed theory, the results on hypothesis testing offer a positive but partial support for the detailed hypothesized relationships among the variables used to operationalize the constructs in the theory.

It needs to be noted that in this study a stringent test was used to test the support for the detailed relationships hypothesized in the proposed theory. The

hypotheses in the theory outlined in chapter 2 were specified as bivariate relationships between antecedent variables and ERBs, antecedent variables and organizational involvement, and between organizational involvement and ERBs. One way of testing these individual hypotheses is to assess the significance of zero order correlations between the pairs of variables specified in each of these hypothesized bivariate relationships. Significant correlation of appropriate sign (positive and negative) can be taken as the support for the individual hypothesis specifying a bivariate relationship.

These zero order correlations reflect the total strength of a hypothesized relationship between two variables when all other factors are kept aside. They are, thus, statistically meaningful in the context of a bivariate relationship. Consistent with this, some studies have tested the significance of hypotheses specifying purely bivariate relationships by assessing the significance of the zero order correlation coefficient between the two variables in individual hypotheses (e.g., George, 1991: hypothesis number one in the study).

Intervariable correlations in Table 27 indicate that using the significance of zero order correlations as the criterion, 24 bivariate relationships specified in the model can be supported. In the data-analytical procedure used in the present study, however, the statistical significance of

partial regression coefficients was used as the test for hypothesized relationships. These partial regression coefficients indicate the extent to which a given independent variable accounts for a dependent variable when all other independent variables are statistically held constant (Cohen & Cohen, 1983: 87). It, thus, assesses the effect of an independent variable after partialling out the effects of other independent variables.

Thus, the hypotheses supported here specify those relationships that hold even after accounting for or partialling out the effects of other antecedent/independent variables. Although through the application of this stringent criterion fewer relationships are supported, it allowed taking into consideration the possibility that the dependent variables under consideration are simultaneously influenced by multiple factors.

Conclusion Five: Support for the Role of Organizational Involvement as a Mediating Variable

The fifth conclusion yielded by the study results highlights the possible role of organizational involvement as a mediating variable between antecedent variables and employee ERBs. This was not a formally specified hypothesis from the proposed model, but rather a premise suggested by existing literature. An assessment of the validity of this premise was included as a part of this study because the

positive results of this assessment would suggest a possible way of translating the present covariation based specification of the model into a process model. Identification of micromediation elements (James et al., 1982) is an important step in specification of process models.

Organizational involvement was considered as a potential mediator based on the mediating role of variables such as employees' organizational commitment to or covenantal relationship (e.g., Van Dyne et al., 1994) with an organization. Further, Sussman and Vecchio (1991: 212) noted that most of the process variables "appear to describe the specific details of Etzioni's 'involvement'."

As described in the preceding chapter, the results presented in Table 32 offer only partial support for the possible mediating role of employees' organizational involvement. It, however, needs to be noted that in the present model the mediational aspect was not stated as a formal hypothesis. Also, the mediation possibility was conceptualized at a very aggregate level in that only the variable sets were suggested to be potentially antecedent and mediator sets. Which specific variable in the mediator set will mediate the effect of a given antecedent variable was not specified. Further refinement of and research on these constructs will be a necessary before such detailed mediation could be specified. This remains an area for

future research to explore. This suggests that further theoretical work to identify appropriate process variables will be necessary before a truly process model of employee extra-role behaviors can be specified.

Other Relevant Issues Emerging from the Study Results

The study results highlight several issues. Some of the main issues are outlined below. These issues may serve as an input for identifying future research directions.

Construct explication in existing research. The study results indicated that some of the observed effects were in the direction opposite to the hypothesized relationships. This could occur as a result of several factors such as inadequate explication of the explanatory constructs in existing research or inappropriate measures of them. This is evident with respect to the construct of procedural justice.

In the study results, one of the significant relationships involving procedural justice (between procedural justice and CUB) was in the opposite direction to that specified based on the explication of this construct in previous research. As indicated in chapter 2, there are two contrasting views on the possible explication of this construct. One view is termed "group value model" while the other as "self-interests model" (Conlon, 1993; Tyler, 1989). The self-interests model suggests that individuals seek

procedural justice as a means of protecting self-interests. In contrast, the group value model suggests that individuals seek procedural justice because it is a reflection of an institution's concern for their self-respect and dignity, and because it offers an assurance that they are valued as members of their groups. It was also noted in chapter 2 that existing research has not performed adequately comprehensive assessment of the validity of these contrasting conceptualizations of procedural justice. Based on this, two alternative hypotheses were specified for the relationship between procedural justice and moral involvement. The hypothesis based on the group value model specified a positive relationship between these two variables whereas the hypothesis based on the self-interests model specified an absence of any relationship between these two variables. The results supported the hypothesis specified based on the self-interests model of procedural justice. While the results of this test do not establish the validity of the self-interests based model of procedural justice, they suggest that the construct may be inadequately explicated, at least in the context of organizational setting or as a part of the broader construct of organizational justice. This inadequate explication of the constructs drawn from previous research could be one of the main reasons for the significant relationships that are opposite to the hypothesized direction of relationships.

A second possible reason for the inconsistency between the observed and theoretically specified relationships could be the inappropriate measurement of variables. This does not, however, seem to be a plausible reason in the present study because all measures used here have satisfactory psychometric properties.

Measurability of negative behaviors. Another relevant issue highlighted by the study results is the measurability of negative behaviors. The descriptive statistics in Table 26 indicates a low average level of negative behaviors (1.29 for NB as opposed to 3.45 for OCB, 2.95 for CUB, and 2.73 for PB). Past research has noted that these behaviors are difficult to measure. For instance, Fisher and Locke, while reporting the findings from one of the studies assessing negative behaviors, (1992: 176) note that "'never' was the single most frequent response on all except one item in the scale."

This seems to be a difficult problem to overcome. Employee self-reports may underestimate the level of these behaviors as noted in the above observation of Fisher and Locke (1992). Supervisory assessment, the other alternative for such assessment, also has limitations in that these behaviors may not be noticed by supervisors. These behaviors may be performed inconspicuously and in a manner that is subtle because of the penalties that are typically associated with negative behaviors. The concealment and

subtlety aspects of employee negative behaviors have been noted by researchers who made close observations of employee behaviors. For instance, Thompson (1983) who as a part of his research worked with employees in a beef plant noted that employee sabotage occurred in the plant. He, however, further noted that "At the beef plant I quickly learned that there is an art to effective sabotage. Subtlety appeared to be the key (Thompson, 1983: 230)." Thus, supervisory assessment of negative behavior has its own limitations.

Work of some researchers (e.g., Hollinger & Clark, 1983) indicates that measurement of negative behaviors can be obtained from employees under the condition of anonymity. This approach may be appropriate when the focus of investigation is on assessing the level of negative behaviors rather than explaining it. In such studies the identity of employee respondents is irrelevant. In contrast, in the studies that seek to explain the occurrence of these behaviors can ensure anonymity of employee responses only if the measures of both explanatory variables and NBs are obtained from employees and therefore employee identification is not required. This research strategy, however, results in the problem of common source variance (Avolio et al., 1991).

In the present study, the focus was on explaining the occurrence of ERBs of which NB is one form. Further, the explanatory variables in the theory to be tested were

perceptual and attitudinal, and could be obtained only through employee self-reports. In this situation, employee anonymity could have been ensured only if the NB measures were also obtained from employee self-reports along with the explanatory variables. This would have led to the problem of common source variance. Additionally, as the earlier cited observations of Fisher and Locke (1992) indicate, it may not have avoided the problem of underestimation of the level of NBs. Thus, the low observed average level of NBs could be an empirical reality at the study site or it could be a limitation of the research strategy that relied on the supervisory ratings that underestimate NB levels because of the concealment and subtlety associated with these behaviors.

Explaining political behaviors. Another issue highlighted by the study results is the need to more adequately explain the occurrence of political behavior. The results of the regression analysis in Table 28 indicate that the set of antecedent variables explain statistically significant variance in all forms of ERBs except PBs. Similarly, the results of regression analysis outlined in Table 29 indicate that the three organizational involvement variables account for statistically significant variance in all forms of ERBs except PBs. Further, the zero order correlations in Table 27 also indicate nonsignificant bivariate associations between PB and all except one of the

explanatory variables. These three pieces of information converge to suggest that the explanatory variables considered here do not account for a significant variance in PB.

It is possible that dispositional variables that are not included here are significant and main determinants of employee PB. Past studies (e.g., Pandey & Rastogi, 1979) have found variables such as machiavellianism useful in explaining ingratiation behaviors which is a form of political behavior. Other researchers (e.g., House, 1988) have suggested an important role for personality variables in explaining the occurrence of power-seeking behaviors. Exclusion of some relevant dispositional variables from the set of explanatory variables, thus, could be one possible reason for the observed pattern of findings.

The other possible and related reason for this finding could be that political behaviors occur and are immune to the effects of organizational factors such as organizational support and fairness of treatment. Some researchers (e.g., Burns & Stalker, 1961; Thompson, 1967) suggest that self-interests are central to an individual's participation in organizations. Consistent with this, Staw (1977) notes that there is a prominent operation of employees' upward influence in organizational contexts. Thus, it is likely that political behaviors occur and persist at a certain level without being curtailed by the positive perceptions of

organizational conditions or being intensified by the negative perceptions of organizational conditions. In this case, no variables reflecting an employee's perceptions of organizational conditions will have significant utility in explaining the occurrence of PBs. In this view, the extent of PBs are likely to be a result of some dispositional factor that determines an individual's inclination and ability to perform PBs. A part of the study results lends some plausibility to this inference. The descriptive statistics in Table 26 indicates that the mean for PB is at a reasonable level (2.73 for PBs, as compared to 2.95 for CUB, 3.45 for OCB, and 1.29 for NB); indicating that PBs do occur. Further, the coefficient of variability which is the ratio (in percentage) of sample standard deviation to sample mean is higher for PBs than for any other three ERBs ($100 * [1.02 / 2.73] = 37.3\%$ for PB, 26.7% for CUB, 24.6% for OCB, and 28.6% for NB); indicating that there is greater dispersion or variability in the level of PB than in any other forms of ERBs. This suggests that different employees perform PBs at different levels, while the results from Tables, 28 and 29 suggest that this variability in the levels of employee PB is not accounted for by any of the organizational assessment (organizational support, fairness, and value congruence) variables or by organizational involvement variables. Put together, this pattern suggests that there are likely to be certain inherent dispositional

factors that influence the level of PB and the level of resulting PB is unaffected by the extent of organizational support and fairness.

The conclusions drawn from the study results were outlined above. Also, the issues emerging from the process and findings of this study were highlighted. The research implications of these conclusions and issues were noted at several places. In addition to these specific implications for research, these conclusions and issues have certain broader implications for both research as well as for practicing managers. These implications are outlined below.

Implications for Future Research

The study conclusions suggest that four forms of ERBs are conceptually and empirically distinct but related constructs. The conclusions further suggest that the two dimensions, employees' concern for self-interests and organizational interests, used for constructing the typology of employee ERB tap both the distinction and interrelationship among various forms of ERBs. They also point out that all these ERBs are empirically present in organizational settings and therefore are an aspect of employee behaviors that needs to be studied more extensively as a category by itself.

Further, the conclusions drawn from the study results also suggest that it is possible to provide an integrated

explanation for the occurrence of at least three out of four ERB forms specified in the typology proposed here. This may encourage efforts to integrate various research streams that have, as outlined in chapter 2, used differing explanatory models to account for the occurrence of different forms of employee extra-role behaviors.

In addition to the above outlined implications for ERB research, the support for the multi-dimensional nature of organizational involvement construct and its explanatory utility in the present study has two main implications for organizational commitment research. First, it highlights the possibility of moving away from the established single-dimensional conceptualizations of employee's organizational involvement (e.g., Mowday et al., 1982). Second, It also provides an alternative to the existing multidimensional conceptualizations of organizational commitment. Availability of such an alternative can stimulate considerable research in this area because, as outlined in chapter 2, existing multidimensional conceptualizations and their measures have some limitations.

Just as the study conclusions have certain implications for future research, the earlier highlighted issues emerging from the study results also suggest some important implications for future research. These issues arise from the aspects such as inconsistencies of the study results at a few points, limitations of the research strategy that

surfaced at different stages. These issues highlight the areas where more systematic research is required and pose certain questions. In particular, they point out a need for: a) paying specific attention to the issues such as refining construct explication for some constructs, b) devising innovative research strategies to obtain unbiased measures of negative behaviors, c) exploring more appropriate process variables to meet the prerequisite for developing a process model of employee extra role behaviors, and d) focusing on further conceptual extension of the theory proposed here to incorporate in it additional set of explanatory constructs to account for the occurrence of political behaviors.

Managerial Implications

The study results and conclusions also have some implications for practicing managers. The results indicate that employees perform several forms of extra-role behaviors. Since these behaviors can affect the functioning of work units and the organization, some form of inclusion of them in performance appraisal systems may be a possible way of encouraging positive and discouraging negative extra-role behaviors. Efforts to include these behaviors in performance appraisal systems may, however, face difficulties for several reasons. First, the nature of these behaviors is such that positive extra-role behaviors

can not be specified as mandatory. Second, performance standards for these behaviors may not be easily available. Finally, as indicated earlier, supervisors may not be able to observe the occurrence of some forms of extra-role behaviors. Overcoming these difficulties, however, will help managers to provide differential rewards and recognition for a wide range of employee behaviors, and offer a means of enhancing organizational effectiveness.

The results also indicate that employee involvement in organizations can range from moral to alienative. This suggests that measures such as low employee turnover may not be good indicators of managerial effectiveness because the retained employees could have merely calculative or even alienative involvement in the organization.

The results (Table 29) further suggest that employees with alienative organizational involvement tend to perform negative behaviors and withhold positive behaviors such as OCBs. This suggests that organizations can suffer damage from negative extra-role behaviors and lose valuable positive employee contributions if they do not pay attention to managing employees' organizational involvement.

The results also indicate that over 30% of the variance in moral and alienative involvement is accounted for by the antecedent variables in the model. This offers concrete guidance to managers interested in nurturing positive employee involvement. In particular, the results outlined

in Table 30 suggest that providing organizational support, and ensuring some congruence between employee and management values would help build moral involvement among employees. For preventing the occurrence of alienative employee involvement, providing distributive justice in addition to expressing organizational support will be helpful.

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**APPENDIXES
(A THROUGH C)**

APPENDIX - A**EMPLOYEE SURVEY BOOKLET (Pages 270-281)**

(The name of the company where this survey was carried out has been removed from the survey booklet enclosed here in order to maintain the confidentiality of the company's identity.)

EMPLOYEE SURVEY**EMPLOYEE SURVEY ON ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT AND
INVOLVEMENT**

**Department of Management
College of Business Administration
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK 74078**

This tear-off slip will be removed from the survey and handed back to you when you return your completed survey. No other part of the survey requires your name.

Name: _____
(Last Name) (First Name) (Middle Name)

Oklahoma State University

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

201 Business
Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078-0555
405-744-5064, FAX 405-744-5180

Dear Employee:

We request you to help us with a research study. In this study we seek to highlight the value of providing organizational support and fair treatment to employees. We request you to help us by filling in the enclosed survey. Your input is highly valuable for this research study.

There are seven parts to this survey and it would take you about 20 to 25 minutes to complete it. Part A requires some information about your age, experience, etc. This will allow us to develop an overall profile of the group of employees completing the survey. Part B seeks your opinions on how your organization supports you. Part C and D ask you to indicate how fair your organization is in dealing with you. Part E requires you to indicate how similar your and your organization's top management's values are. Part F contains a set of word pairs and within each pair you are required to choose one word that you prefer as your own characteristic. Finally, part G seeks your feelings about your organization.

We have requested you to provide your name only on the tear-off slip attached to this survey copy. As you return your completed survey copy, we will remove this slip with your name and hand it back to you. We will assign a code number to your survey copy. This code number will help us to assess who has completed this survey and to match the information from this survey with the other required information. Your survey copy with us, thus, will not have your name on it. We assure you that we will keep your individual responses strictly confidential. We will take several precautions for this. First, no one in your company will see or know your individual responses. Second, your individual responses will not be communicated to or discussed with anyone. Third, the information to be reported to the company will contain only aggregated (group level) and disguised (nameless) data. Fourth, your survey copy will remain in our possession, and it will have a code number and not your name on it. This procedure has been designed to ensure that your individual responses remain strictly confidential.

While we are highly committed to ensuring the confidentiality of your individual responses you also can help us with it. Right here please complete your survey, and directly and personally return it to us. In your presence we will remove the tear-off slip with your name from your survey copy and hand it back to you. We will assign a code number to your survey copy. We thank you for your cooperation and time.

Badri S. Pawar
Department of Management
College of Business Administration
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK 74078
Phone: (405)744-2959

Dr. Kenneth K. Eastman, Ph. D.
Associate Professor of Management
College of Business Administration
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK 74078
Phone: (405)744-8646

Part A
Employee Background Information

Sex (Check one): Male ___ Female ___

Age: ___ Years & ___ Months

Years with the Present Supervisor: ___ Years & ___ Months

Years in the Present Position: ___ Years & ___ Months

Years with the Company (As a full-time employee): ___ Years & ___ Months

Total Work Experience: ___ Years & ___ Months
(On all full-time jobs held here or elsewhere)

Education (Check the highest level of education you earned from below):

Some years of primary school..... ___

Some years of high school..... ___

High school diploma..... ___

Some junior college courses or vocational courses..... ___

Junior college diploma or vocational diploma..... ___

Some years of college..... ___

Bachelors degree..... ___

Specify if not one of the above categories: _____

Department: _____

Job/Position Title: _____

Continued...

Survey: To be Completed by Employees

Part B

Part B Directions: Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that YOU may have about working at . Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling the number which best represents your point of view about . Please choose from the following answers:

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	(SD)	(MD)	(LD)	(N)	(LA)	(MA)	(SA)
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	SD	MD	LD	N	LA	MA	SA
1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. If the organization could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The organization strongly considers my goals and values.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. The organization would ignore any complaint from me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. The organization disregards my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Help is available from the organization when I have a problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. The organization really cares about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part B continued on the next page...

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree			
(SD)	(MD)	(LD)	(N)	(LA)	(MA)	(SA)			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
			SD	MD	LD	N	LA	MA	SA
12. If given the opportunity, the organization would take advantage of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
13. The organization shows very little concern for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
14. The organization cares about my opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
15. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
16. The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

Part C

Part C Directions: This part consists of statements about procedures which representatives (e.g., supervisors, managers) of _____ could follow when making decisions which affect you. Please read each statement and indicate the degree to which the procedure described by the statement has been developed by _____. For this part, please use the following answer codes:

Not Developed (ND)	Developed Somewhat (DS)	Fully Developed (FD)				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

In order to ensure that fair decisions have been made, in general, to what extent has _____ developed procedures designed to:

	ND			DS			FD
1. ...collect accurate information necessary for making the decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. ...provide opportunities to appeal or challenge the decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. ...have all sides which were affected by the decisions represented.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part C continued on the next page...

Not Developed (ND)				Developed Somewhat (DS)			Fully Developed (FD)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

In order to ensure that fair decisions have been made, in general, to what extent has developed procedures designed to:

	ND			DS			FD
4. ...generate standards so that decisions could be made with consistency.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ...hear the concerns of all individuals or groups affected by the decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. ...provide useful feedback regarding the decision and its implementation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. ...allow for requests for clarification or additional information needed by those affected by the decision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. ...promote the consistent treatment of employees regardless of age, race, gender, or nationality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. ...provide you with adequate information regarding the decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part D

Part D Directions: For the following questions, we are again asking you to assess how fairly or unfairly you have been treated, but this time we would like you to focus on the rewards you have received from _____ and not the procedures used to determine those rewards. A reward can take a variety of forms, including your salary, promotions, favorable work assignments, time off, recognition from your supervisor, and changes in job title. Please read each question and indicate the degree to which you consider the rewards you receive to be fair. For this part, use the following answer codes:

Very Unfairly (VU)	Unfairly (UF)	Undecided (UD)	Fairly (FR)	Very Fairly (VF)
1	2	3	4	5

To what extent are you fairly rewarded...

	VU	UF	UD	FR	VF
1. ...considering the responsibilities that you have?	1	2	3	4	5

Part D continued on the next page...

Very Unfairly (VU)	Unfairly (UF)	Undecided (UD)	Fairly (FR)	Very Fairly (VF)
1	2	3	4	5

To what extent are you fairly rewarded...

	VU	UF	UD	FR	VF
2. ...taking into account the amount of education and training that you have had?	1	2	3	4	5
3. ...in view of the amount of experience that you have?	1	2	3	4	5
4. ...for the amount of effort that you put forth?	1	2	3	4	5
5. ...for work that you have done well?	1	2	3	4	5
6. ...for the stresses and strains of your job?	1	2	3	4	5

Part E

Part E Directions: Below are statements of preference for how a company should be run. For each statement below, indicate how similar your preference is to that of your top management's. Please note that you are not indicating your own preference or the top management's preference about how a company should be run. Rather, you are indicating the *similarity between how you think a company should be run and how the top management thinks a company should be run.*

For example, for the first item below if you think that a company should behave in a professional manner but the top management thinks the opposite then your response will be "Very Dissimilar (VD)." On the other hand, if you think that a company should behave in a professional manner and your top management also thinks the same then your response will be "Very Similar (VS)."

Very Dissimilar (VD)	Moderately Dissimilar (MD)	Slightly Dissimilar (SD)	Neither Similar nor Dissimilar (N)	Slightly Similar (SS)	Moderately Similar (MS)	Very Similar (VS)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	VD	MD	SD	N	SS	MS	VS
1. Professionalism: Should behave in a competent, business-like manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Community Involvement: Should be concerned and actively involved in the community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Company Individuality: Should be unique in the industry.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part E continued on the next page...

Very Dissimilar	Moderately Dissimilar	Slightly Dissimilar	Neither Similar nor Dissimilar	Slightly Similar	Moderately Similar	Very Similar
(VD)	(MD)	(SD)	(N)	(SS)	(MS)	(VS)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	VD	MD	SD	N	SS	MS	VS
4. Aggressiveness: Should be considered a bold, enterprising company. Actively hustling in the marketplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Ethical Behavior: Should be concerned with the honesty and integrity of all employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Creativity: Should be imaginative and innovative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Efficiency: Should design jobs with minimal waste and expense.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Industry Leadership: Should be considered #1 (the best) in the industry.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Quality & Service: Should make a good product and meet the needs of the customer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Support Failures: Should be willing to support group or individual risk-taking even when it fails.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Company Stability: Should maintain the existing operation over time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Creating Jobs: Should contribute to employment in the community by increasing the number of jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Profits: Should make as much money as a company can.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. High Morale: Should create a good feeling for workers on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Product Development: Should develop new and different products or services.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part E continued on the next page...

Very Dissimilar	Moderately Dissimilar	Slightly Dissimilar	Neither Similar nor Dissimilar	Slightly Similar	Moderately Similar	Very Similar
(VD)	(MD)	(SD)	(N)	(SS)	(MS)	(VS)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	VD	MD	SD	N	SS	MS	VS
16. Open Communication: Should keep everyone informed about what is going on in the company.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Employee Development: Should expand the skills and abilities of employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Reduced Labor Costs: Should be able to reduce the cost of employing workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Employee Satisfaction: Should create in workers a feeling of contentment with the job and company.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Survival: Should want to stay in business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Directions: Look over the list of 20 value statements above and select five statements that describe the most important values you think ANY company SHOULD HAVE. Place the number of that value statement in the second column of the table below. Here, assign rank number 1 to the most important and rank number 5 to the least important of the five value statements you select.

Five Most Important Value Statements Ranked in Order of Importance

Rank Number	Value Statement Number (Please fill in the number of the appropriate value statement for each rank)
Ranked #1	Value Statement Number: _____
Ranked #2	Value Statement Number: _____
Ranked #3	Value Statement Number: _____
Ranked #4	Value Statement Number: _____
Ranked #5	Value Statement Number: _____

Continued...

Part F

Part F Directions: Below are a number of pairs of personal characteristics. For each pair, underline the characteristic which you value more highly. In making each choice, ask yourself which of the characteristics in that pair you would rather possess as one of *your own characteristics*. For example, the first pair is "imaginative-rational." If you had to make a choice, which would you rather be? Draw a line under your choice in each of the pairs. In this pair, if you would rather be imaginative than rational then you would draw a line under the term "imaginative."

Some of the characteristics will appear twice, but always in combination with a different other characteristic. No pairs will be repeated. Remember, in each pair you would underline only one characteristic.

"I would rather be..."

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. imaginative - rational | 13. neat - logical |
| 2. helpful - quick-witted | 14. forgiving - gentle |
| 3. neat - sympathetic | 15. efficient - respectful |
| 4. level-headed - efficient | 16. practical - self-confident |
| 5. intelligent - considerate | 17. capable - independent |
| 6. self-reliant - ambitious | 18. alert - cooperative |
| 7. respectful - original | 19. imaginative - helpful |
| 8. creative - sensible | 20. realistic - moral |
| 9. generous - individualistic | 21. considerate - wise |
| 10. responsible - original | 22. sympathetic - individualistic |
| 11. capable - tolerant | 23. ambitious - patient |
| 12. trustworthy - wise | 24. reasonable - quick-witted |

Part G

Part G Directions: The following statements deal with your feelings and attitudes toward . For each statement below, please circle the number which most clearly matches your degree of agreement or disagreement with the statement. For this part, use the following response codes:

Strongly Disagree (SD)	Disagree (D)	Mildly Disagree (MD)	Mildly Agree (MA)	Agree (A)	Strongly Agree (SA)
1	2	3	4	5	6

- | | SD | D | MD | MA | A | SA |
|---|----|---|----|----|---|----|
| 1. I will give my best effort when I know it will be seen by the 'right' people in this organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

Part G continued on the next page...

	Strongly Disagree (SD) 1	Disagree (D) 2	Mildly Disagree (MD) 3	Mildly Agree (MA) 4	Agree (A) 5	Strongly Agree (SA) 6
	SD	D	MD	MA	A	SA
2. Sometimes I would like to walk out of this organization and never come back.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I am dedicated to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I get most involved in my work when I know I'll receive recognition for it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I often feel like I want to 'get even' with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I feel it is my duty to support this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I am motivated by thoughts of getting greater personal rewards from this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I get angry when I think about this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Whenever I am in public, I think of myself as an employee of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I put effort into this organization to the extent I get something in return for it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I feel trapped here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. It is my personal responsibility to help this organization achieve success.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I support this organization to the extent that it supports me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. No matter what I do around here, this organization remains unchanged.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I get upset when people say bad things about this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6

The Survey Ends Here!
We Thank You for Your Cooperation!!

Please note that your individual responses will be held strictly confidential. The survey questionnaires will remain in our possession. No one from your company will have access to them. We will not share your individual response with anyone. Only overall group level information will be used to carry out the research. Your response will not be individually studied or analyzed. You will provide your name only on the tear-off slip with this survey. As you turn in your completed survey copy, we will hand back this slip with your name to you and assign a code number to your survey copy. Your survey copy with us, thus, will not have your name on it. The code number assigned to your survey copy will be used to match the information from your survey with the other required information. Your response will help us greatly to carry out this research. We thank you for sparing the time to complete this survey.

APPENDIX - B
SUPERVISORY SURVEY INSTRUMENT AND THE ASSOCIATED COVERING
LETTER (Pages 283-288)

Oklahoma State University

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

201 Business
Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078-0555
405-744-5064, FAX 405-744-5180

February 20, 1996

Dear Mr. _____ :

We need your help with a research study. We are studying the relationship between employee perceptions of organizational factors and their performance of certain discretionary behaviors. Employee discretionary behaviors are those behaviors that are not required by an employee's job description. These behaviors include supporting change, taking initiative, and making innovative suggestions. As you know, these behaviors are important for an organization to survive and prosper. Our study will help you understand the various factors that influence employees' performance of these behaviors.

In this supervisory survey we request you to indicate how frequently each of your subordinates performs certain discretionary behaviors. We have previously collected information from employees about their perceptions of and feelings toward _____; We will use the information from the present supervisory survey and earlier employee survey to examine the relationship between employee feelings and their discretionary behaviors.

The outcome of this study will benefit you in several ways. First, it will provide information on the extent to which employees perform various discretionary behaviors. Second, the survey information will help identify which organizational factors influence employees' performance of these behaviors and the relative importance of these factors. This information will help you determine how best to promote the desired discretionary behaviors from employees. You would, thus, be in a better position to motivate employees to perform those behaviors that can improve the effectiveness of your work unit and organization.

This survey has three parts. In part A of the survey, we ask you to provide certain information about yourself. This information will be used to prepare an overall group level profile of those who complete the survey. Part B provides you with the directions for completing the subordinate ratings. It also has an example to familiarize you with the rating format. Part C contains the actual rating formats which you would use to indicate how frequently your subordinates perform the discretionary behaviors listed there. In part C we have provided you the names of some of your subordinates. You need to provide the assessment of discretionary behaviors only for these subordinates. These names have been included in your survey format based on the department numbers provided by employees in the employee survey. It is, therefore, possible that your survey format includes a name of an employee whom you do not supervise. In that case, just cross out that name and complete the survey for the rest of your subordinates in the survey format. Based on our previous experience, it should take you about 4 to 5 minutes to rate each of your subordinates.

Please note that your individual responses will be kept strictly confidential. We need your name and that of your subordinates in the survey only to enable us to match the information from this survey with the information on employee perceptions of organizational factors collected previously. We will take several precautions to ensure the strict confidentiality of your individual responses. First, no one in your company will see or know your individual responses. Second, your individual responses will not be communicated to or discussed with anyone or any company. Third, the information to be presented to the company will contain only aggregated (group level) and disguised (nameless) data. Fourth, the surveys will remain entirely in our possession. Once we match the information from the employee survey on organizational conditions and that from the present supervisory survey, we will remove your name from the survey. Thereafter, your

Page 2
February 20, 1996

individual survey copy will carry a code number and not your name. We are extremely committed to ensuring the strict confidentiality of your individual responses and the above procedure will help us do that. To further enhance the confidentiality of the information, we ask you not to discuss your survey information with your colleagues or subordinates.

We would greatly appreciate if you would return the completed survey to us within a week's time. You can either return the completed survey to us personally or mail it to us. If you would like to return your survey personally to us then please indicate the date and time of your convenience within next one week, and we will come and personally collect your completed survey copy. If you would like to mail the completed survey to us then please use our enclosed envelope with pre-paid postage. Regardless of which one of these two options you choose to return the completed survey, your survey will directly come to us and we will take the above indicated precautions to ensure the strict confidentiality of your individual responses. Your survey is extremely valuable for our study. If you have any comments or concerns, please contact us. We thank you for your cooperation and time.

Sincerely,



Badri S. Pawar
Department of Management
College of Business Administration
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK 74078
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Email: pawar@okstate.edu



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Enclosures

Subordinate Behavioral Assessment Survey: To be Completed by Supervisors

Please note that your individual responses will be held strictly confidential. The survey questionnaires will remain in our possession. No one from your company will have access to them. We will not share your individual responses with anyone. Only overall group level information will be used to carry out the research. Your response will not be individually analyzed or studied. Once we compile the necessary information, your name will be removed from the questionnaire and the survey questionnaire will, thereafter, have a random code number and not your name on it. Your response will help us greatly to carry out this research. We thank you for sparing the time to complete this survey.

Part A
Supervisor Background Information

Name (Print clearly): _____
(Last name) (First name) (Middle name)

Sex (Check one): Male Female

Age: _____ Years & _____ Months

Years in the Present Position: _____ Years & _____ Months

Years with the Company (As a full-time employee): _____ Years & _____ Months

Total Work Experience (On all full-time jobs held here or elsewhere): _____ Years & _____ Months

Education (Check the highest level of education you earned from below):

Some years of primary school....._____

Some years of high school....._____

High school diploma....._____

Some junior college courses or vocational courses....._____

Junior college diploma or vocational diploma....._____

Some years of college....._____

Bachelors degree....._____

Masters degree....._____

Specify if not one of the above categories: _____

Department: _____

Job/Position Title: _____

Part C

Never = 1. Seldom = 2. Sometimes = 3. Often = 4. Always = 5

Step 1
Read Statements

Step 2
Make Assessments

1. Ensures that his/her behavior positively affects other work units.					
2. Quietly tolerates temporary inconvenience without complaint.					
3. Cooperates with other work units on tasks that are mutually beneficial.					
4. Finds faults with whatever the organization is doing.					
5. Reads and keeps up with the company communications to identify opportunities where he/she can use his/her abilities.					
6. "Keeps up" with developments in the organization so that he/she can benefit from and contribute to these changes.					
7. Takes frequent or extra long breaks to avoid doing the work.					
8. Destroys company property.					
9. Grumbles about trivial organizational matters.					
10. Welcomes new ideas that offer opportunities for personal development.					
11. Actively and constructively seeks to get his or her suggestions adopted by the organization.					
12. Sabotages company equipment.					
13. Sabotages work of a superior (tries to make him/her look bad).					
14. Expresses opinions which might benefit the organization and gain recognition for him/her.					
15. Attends functions that are not required, but may help the company image.					
16. Attends and participates in meetings to identify organizationally valued activities where he/she can demonstrate his/her expertise.					
17. Lies in order to get the boss into trouble.					
18. Actively supports programs of change at the company level.					
19. Acts foolish in front of a customer.					
20. Makes special attempts to gain more knowledge about job-related techniques and skills.					
21. Offers ideas which improve the functioning of the work unit and allow for his/her own skill development.					
22. Makes extra efforts to conserve and protect company property.					
23. For the issues that are organizationally important, expresses opinions honestly regardless of personal consequences.					
24. Defends the company when others criticize it.					
25. Focuses on what's wrong, rather than on the positive side of the organizational aspects.					
26. Starts rumors about the organization to get revenge.					
27. Starts negative rumors about the organization.					
28. Selflessly works to improve the organization.					
29. Takes action to protect the organization from potential problems.					
30. Takes an initiative to lead cooperative efforts among co-workers.					
31. Shows a genuine concern for the operations in other work units.					

APPENDIX - C

LETTER OF APPROVAL FOR THE STUDY FROM THE INSTITUTIONAL
REVIEW BOARD OF OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY

(This appendix contains two letters of approval. One letter indicates approval for the study while the other indicates approval for using the instruments that were modified after receiving the first approval. These instruments were modified based on the their pretest.)

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: 12-20-95

IRB#: BU-96-009

Proposal Title: AN EMPIRICAL ASSESSMENT OF AN INTEGRATED MODEL OF
EMPLOYEE EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIORS

Principal Investigator(s): Kenneth K. Eastman, Badrinarayan S. Pawar

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

ALL APPROVALS MAY BE SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
AT NEXT MEETING.

APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR ONE CALENDAR YEAR AFTER WHICH A
CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR BOARD
APPROVAL.

ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR
APPROVAL.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reasons for Deferral or Disapproval
are as follows:

Signature:



Chair of Institutional Review Board

Date: December 21, 1995

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

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Date: 12-20-95

IRB#: BU-96-009

Proposal Title: AN EMPIRICAL ASSESSMENT OF AN INTEGRATED MODEL OF
EMPLOYEE EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIORS

Principal Investigator(s): Kenneth K. Eastman, Badrinarayan S. Pawar

Reviewed and Processed as: Modification

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

ALL APPROVALS MAY BE SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
AT NEXT MEETING.


APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR ONE CALENDAR YEAR AFTER WHICH A
CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR BOARD
APPROVAL.

ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR
APPROVAL.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reasons for Deferral or Disapproval
are as follows:

Modifications received and approved.

Signature:


Chair of Institutional Review Board

Date: January 11, 1996

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VITA

Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: SPECIFICATION AND EMPIRICAL ASSESSMENT OF AN
INTEGRATED MODEL OF EMPLOYEE
EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIORS

Major Field: Business Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Dahigaon, Maharashtra state,
India, On June 2, 1962, the son of Shankar and
Chandrabhaga Pawar.

Education: Completed secondary school education at St.
John's Secondary School, Pune, India in May, 1978.
Received a Diploma in Mechanical Engineering from
Government Polytechnic, Pune, India in August,
1981; received the Associate Membership of the
Institution of Engineers, India in November, 1984;
received a Post-Graduate Diploma in Management
from Indian Institute of Management, Calcutta,
India in 1987; received the Master of Technology
degree from Indian Institute of Technology,
Bombay, India in July, 1989. Completed the
requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy Degree
at Oklahoma State University in May, 1996.

Experience: Worked in various engineering positions
for about two and a half years in India. Worked
for a management consulting group of a consultancy
firm in India for about three years.