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Are All Good Soldiers Created Equal? Examining The "Why" That Underlies Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Development of an OCB Motives Scale

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Are All Good Soldiers Created Equal? Examining The "Why" That Underlies
Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Development of an OCB Motives Scale

by

Anna Lissa Tolentino

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Department of Psychology
College of Arts and Sciences
University of South Florida

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Dedication

My professional journey has been long but worthwhile. I would not have been able to maintain the motivation and persistence without the support of my family and friends. In particular, I would like to honor and thank my parents, Dr. Alfonso Tolentino and Alicia Tolentino, who provided me not only with the financial support but also with the words of wisdom and encouragement, enabling me to go the extra 10,000 miles to attain this degree.

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Abstract

Traditionally, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) have been conceptualized within a social exchange framework, implying that individuals perform citizenship behaviors in response to fair treatment by the organization (Zellars & Tepper, 2003). In accordance with this social exchange framework, researchers have identified a number of OCB antecedents, like perceived organizational support (Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Settoon, Bennet, & Liden, 1996), job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational justice (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995), and leader-member exchange (Connell, 2005; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Wayne & Greene, 1993). Recently, however, research has shifted from viewing OCB as a reactionary behavior in response to positive attitudes and emotions toward the organization to perceiving OCB as functional (e.g., Finkelstein & Penner, 2004, Rioux & Penner, 2001) – opening the door to exploration of both altruistic as well as self-serving motives to engage in OCB. Applying Schwartz’s (1992) values theory and expanding on Rioux and Penner’s (2001) three-dimensional OCB motives model, the goal of the proposed research was to identify additional underlying mechanisms for performing citizenship behaviors through the development and validation of the Good Soldier Motives Scale (GSMS). The 46-item scale, consisting of two subscales – (1) motives to

perform OCBI (MOCBI) and (2) motives to perform OCBO (MOCBO) uncovered the following motives – Prosocial Values, Organizational Concern and Obligation, Instrumental, Intimacy, Achievement, and Guilt. Construct validation data revealed significant differential relationships between OCB motive dimensions and established constructs in the literature (i.e., regulatory focus, self-identity, Machiavellianism, self-monitoring, and values). Criterion validation results supported the predictive validity of the GSMS subscales with OCBI and OCBO. Furthermore, OCB motives accounted for significant variance beyond that of established attitudinal and personality OCB antecedents, replicating and expanding upon Rioux and Penner’s (2001) findings. Lastly, the research took an initial pass at empirically examining the impact of motives on the quality of OCB through the assessment of OCB effectiveness. Findings revealed significant differences in OCB effectiveness when comparing self-enhancing motives versus the more traditional altruistic motives. Establishment of a valid, theoretically-derived OCB motives scale offers researchers an avenue to further investigate burgeoning research on self-serving motivations for OCB as well as altruistic ones. Alternatively, practitioners can leverage the GSMS in a variety of human resource applications, such as performance appraisals and training in order to enhance the participation in quality OCBs.

Chapter 1: Introduction

To remain competitive in today's work environment, it is imperative that organizations not only select individuals who possess the technical skills to perform the job, but also identify those individuals who contribute to the organization's success by going above and beyond what their respective job duties entail. The latter represents organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), or what Organ and his colleagues label as the "good soldier syndrome" in the workplace (Organ, 1988; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983). Sample behaviors include helping a coworker, offering suggestions for improvement, and adhering to informal work policies. Selecting individuals that engage in these types of behaviors is critical to the success of any organization. Indeed, research supports relationships between OCB and subjective and objective work outcomes, like performance ratings (e.g., Allen & Rush., 1998; Eastman, 1994) and productivity (e.g., MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Walz & Niehoff, 1996).

Researchers have also identified several OCB antecedents. Attitudinal variables like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and justice (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983; Moorman, 1991; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994; Williams & Anderson, 1991) and personality traits like conscientiousness, agreeableness, and positive affectivity (Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowidlo, 2001;

Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000) are important predictors of OCB. The underlying mechanisms for the aforementioned attitudinal antecedents are rooted in social psychology. The first, which is based on social exchange theory (Adams, 1965), posits that individuals strive for equity and display OCB to reciprocate individuals who benefit them (e.g., supervisors or coworkers). Specifically, employees perform OCB in response to the receipt of psychological benefits, like praise and respect, and tangible benefits, like pay and bonuses. The second explanation stems from the social psychology literature on positive affect (Clark & Isen, 1982). According to this perspective, employees high in job satisfaction, who experience positive affectivity and discrete emotions (e.g., happiness) are more likely to engage in OCB compared to their dissatisfied counterparts. There is ample research demonstrating that happy moods elicit prosocial behaviors (e.g., George, 1991; George & Brief, 1992; Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006; Lee & Allen, 2002; Midili, 1995; Williams & Shiaw, 1999). Regarding the underlying mechanism behind personality antecedents, Organ and Ryan (1995) proposed that certain traits predispose individuals to react in helpful ways towards their coworkers and supervisors, making it more likely to perform OCB.

Recently, however, research has shifted from viewing OCB as a reactionary behavior in response to positive attitudes/emotions toward the organization to one that is more proactive and functional (e.g., Finkelstein & Penner, 2004, Rioux & Penner, 2001). Additionally, researchers have suggested that OCB should not only be perceived as a purely altruistic act but also as a behavior that benefits oneself (Bolino, 1999), suggesting that OCB may also be performed for instrumental reasons (e.g., to obtain a promotion).

Therefore, it is possible that unexplored motivational differences contribute to the performance of OCB. Thus, not every “good soldier” is created equal, highlighting the possibility that Organ’s (1988) concept of the good soldier—one that goes the extra mile for his/her organization—may overlook the fact that OCB can be performed for both selfless and self-serving reasons. Actually, Bolino and his colleagues (2004) suggested assuming OCB as purely altruistic narrows our research focus and neglects alternative explanations for performing these behaviors.

The purpose of this study was threefold. First, I developed an OCB motives scale, the Good Soldier Motives Scale (the GSMS), building upon the work of Rioux and Penner (2001) and Schwartz (1992). At this time, Rioux and Penner’s (2001) Citizenship Motives Scale (CMS) is the only published measure that assesses the motives to perform OCB. The authors identified three motives for performing OCB: (1) *Prosocial Values* (i.e., the desire to assist others), (2) *Organizational Concern* (i.e., regard for the organization), and (3) *Impression Management* (i.e., the need for positive evaluations). Though research supports the three-dimensional structure of the CMS (Rioux & Penner, 2001) and its prediction of OCB (Finkelstein, 2006; Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Rioux & Penner, 2001), researchers have proposed additional motives that are not captured by the CMS. For example, motivations arising from the needs for achievement (Niehoff, 2000; Sutton, 2005) and power (Niehoff, 2000), disinterest in one’s prescribed role, guilt from past work transgressions, dissatisfaction with one’s personal life (Bolino et al., 2004), felt obligation (Yuanlin, under review), and a mechanism to cope (Zellars & Tepper, 2003) have been suggested to impact the performance of OCB.

The second goal of the present research was to further extend empirical support for motives as unique antecedents of OCB. In particular, the present research explored the predictive power of OCB motives beyond those antecedents that are commonly studied, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000), justice (Ehrhart, 2004; Moorman, 1991; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998), and personality (e.g., conscientiousness and agreeableness; Borman et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2000). The motives identified in this study may account for incremental variance in OCB, which improves our understanding of these critical behaviors.

Lastly, based upon others' suggestions (e.g., Bolino, 1999; Bolino, Turnley, & Niehoff, 2004; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006), I investigated the impact of motives on the *effectiveness* of OCB. Typically, OCB is assessed using Likert scale ratings of the extent of agreement with or likelihood of displaying the listed behavior (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Williams & Anderson, 1991), which captures the *frequency* of displaying such behaviors. However, OCB frequency (or quantity) is not the same as quality, and it is likely that the latter has a greater positive impact on the social and psychological contexts at work. Although Bolino and his colleagues suggested that differences in the *quality* of OCB may arise depending on the type of motive (Bolino, 1999; Bolino, Turnley, & Niehoff, 2004), little research has directly assessed the *effectiveness* of OCB and the impact of various motives on the effectiveness. For example, individuals engaging in OCB for self-serving reasons may be less consistent and perform only those behaviors with high visibility to those who control

rewards, potentially resulting in lower quality OCB. Alternatively, individuals with altruistic motives may perform higher quality OCB due to their genuine interest in performing such behaviors.

What follows is a review of the relevant literature, beginning with OCB and its key outcomes and antecedents. Next, I formulate proposed motives for engaging in OCB based upon existing values and needs theories. Lastly, I describe the current study and present hypotheses.

Theoretical Background on Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The concept of OCB dates back to Katz and Kahn's (1966) requirements for organizational effectiveness. According to Katz and Kahn, organizations are effective when individuals are committed, dependable, and participate in voluntary behaviors not formally part of their job descriptions (i.e., OCB). Organ (1988) originally defined OCB as behavior that is "discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (p. 4).

Similar constructs have been proposed that resemble OCB, such as prosocial organizational behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992), contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), and extra-role behavior (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995). Among these, the most similar is contextual performance. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) divided the work performance domain into task and contextual performance, where task performance includes behaviors associated with employees' essential job tasks and duties, such as coaching, delegating, and supervising employees for the role of a manager, whereas contextual performance

consists of behaviors “that are not directly related to their main task but are important because they shape the organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as the critical catalyst for task activities and processes” (p.71), such as cooperating with team members, volunteering for additional responsibilities, and offering to help coworkers with their work. Like OCB, contextual performance captures aspects of performance that do not directly relate to job activities formally prescribed by the organization yet still enhance organizational functioning. As a result, Organ (1997) redefined OCB to resemble contextual performance and admitted overlap between the two constructs.

Dimensionality of OCB. The first empirical studies identified altruism and generalized compliance as the two primary dimensions of OCB (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). *Altruism* represents helping behaviors directed towards members of the organization (Organ, 1988; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Examples of altruism include helping a new coworker acclimate to the company and helping a coworker with a specific job task. *Generalized compliance*, also known as *conscientiousness*, consists of more practical and less personal contributions to the organization, such as arriving to work on time and adhering to company policy (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Organ and his colleagues later expanded the OCB framework to include three additional dimensions—*civic virtue*, *sportsmanship*, and *courtesy* (1988). Since the introduction of Organ’s (1988) five-factor model, researchers have conceptually and empirically specified multiple factor structures representing the OCB construct domain, ranging from as few as one dimension to as many as seven (e.g., Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; Williams & Anderson, 1991). For example, Williams and Anderson (1991) refined Organ’s original two-factor

structure of OCB by developing a parallel two-dimensional typology focusing on the target of the behavior. According to their conceptualization, OCBI (OCB directed towards individuals) includes behaviors that immediately benefit individuals, which parallels Organ's altruism dimension (i.e., helping coworkers who have been absent). On the other hand, OCBO (OCB directed towards the organization) represents behaviors that impact the organization as a whole, similar to Organ's (1988) conscientiousness dimension. Behaviors within this category focus on high standards of performance (i.e., coming to work on time, following rules, making efficient use of work-time).

Still, others have argued that OCB is one-dimensional. In particular, LePine, Erez, and Johnson's (2002) meta-analytic results revealed strong relationships among Organ's (1988) five dimensions of OCB (with the exception of sportsmanship) with average corrected correlations of $r = .67$. Moreover, the five dimensions did not show differential relationships with various criteria, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, fairness, conscientiousness, and leader support, further calling into question their separateness. LePine and his colleagues proposed that OCB should be considered a single latent construct with the dimensions serving as imperfect indicators for how the construct is behaviorally manifested. Conversely, others (e.g., Motowidlo, 2000; Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997) support an aggregate model of OCB, suggesting that OCB is a multidimensional construct with each dimension contributing uniquely to the conceptualization of the construct and thus, excluding one dimension distorts the definition of OCB. Overall, despite equivocal results regarding the number of dimensions and the nature of indicator-construct relationships, it does appear that OCB is a multidimensional construct (Motowidlo, 2000).

One criticism of OCB is its presumed positive, affiliative nature, owing to dimension labels such as “altruism” and “courtesy” (Niehoff, 2000). The names of these dimensions imply that OCB is performed strictly for altruistic reasons and ignore possible self-serving motives. To resolve this issue, Organ (1997) recommended using a neutral conceptualization of OCB, like the aforementioned Williams and Anderson (1991) typology, which eliminates any assumed connotations by focusing on the target of the behavior. Support for the Williams and Anderson (1991) factor structure has accrued (Randall, Cropanzano, Borman, & Birjulin, 1999; Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, 2003). Because the goal of the present study was to develop and validate a measure of OCB motives including both positive and negative reasons, I adopted Williams and Anderson’s OCBI/OCBO framework, eliminating any potential positive OCB connotations and presenting a more neutral conceptualization of OCB by focusing on the target of the behavior.

OCB Outcomes

While the focus of the present research was to investigate the motives that underlie the performance of OCB, I present a brief review of OCB outcomes. Indeed, OCB is important only insofar as it has positive effects on organizations and its members and thus, it is necessary to consider the consequences of such behavior. Research provides evidence for the influence of OCB on subjective and objective performance evaluations (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Paine, 1999; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996), unit-level performance and effectiveness (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997) and reward allocation

decisions (Allen & Rush, 1998). In particular, research examining the relationship between OCB and performance evaluations indicates that OCB accounts for as much variance in overall performance evaluations as task performance (Podsakoff et al., 2000). This finding suggests that managers take into account not only proficiency in task performance but also work behaviors that fall outside formal job descriptions. Given that OCB impacts multiple employee and organizational outcomes, it is an important aspect of work performance, and one that requires further attention regarding *why* individuals engage in this type of performance.

OCB Antecedents

Existing research has examined various antecedents of OCB, from individual difference variables, like personality traits and attitudes, to situational variables, like leadership and group cohesiveness (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Identifying predictors of OCB is essential for selecting individuals who are likely to engage in these types of behaviors and for designing and implementing organizational structures that foster OCB. Because a person-centered approach is taken in the current study, I limit my review to research targeting individual differences that predict OCB. The first section reviews extant research on attitude-, personality-, and motivation-based predictors, followed by a review of values and needs theories, which serve as the overarching framework for the proposed OCB motives.

Attitudes. Attitudinal variables, like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, justice, and perceived organizational support have received much empirical attention as antecedents of OCB (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Dalal, 2005; O'Brien & Allen, in press; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Moreover, attitudinal factors have proven to be

more strongly related to OCB compared to other types of individual difference antecedents (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Bateman and Organ (1983) initially investigated OCB to explain the lack of empirical support for the job satisfaction–performance relationship (see Organ, 1988). They believed that satisfaction was related to the OCB component of job performance. Specifically, individuals experiencing positive affective states should be more likely to engage in prosocial, OCB-like behaviors on the job (Bateman & Organ, 1983). One of the first studies on OCB found that satisfaction was strongly related to the altruism component of OCB (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Moreover, Organ and Ryan’s (1995) meta-analysis found mean corrected correlations of ($r = .28$) for both the satisfaction–altruism relationship and the satisfaction–generalized compliance relationship.

In addition to satisfaction, fairness perceptions and organizational commitment are significant attitudinal antecedents of OCB (LePine et al., 2002; McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Based on Adams’ (1965) equity theory, which states that people are driven to attain a status of fairness when relating to other people and organizations, employees restore inequitable work situations by altering their OCB. Going beyond main effects, research has also found that interpersonal justice (i.e., the receipt of fair treatment) mediates the satisfaction–OCB relationship (Moorman, 1991). In a recent study, O’Brien and Allen (in press) examined predictors of voluntary behaviors, namely OCB and counterproductive work behavior (CWB), and found that the attitudinal variables of job satisfaction, organizational support, and organizational justice emerged as the most consistent correlates of OCB and CWB. In sum, attitudinal antecedents of OCB have been well-supported in the literature.

Personality. A variety of dispositional variables have been investigated as potential antecedents of OCB. Conscientiousness, one of the Big Five factors of personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992), has received consistent support in the literature (e.g., Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowidlo, 2001; Hertz & Donovan, 2000; Organ & Ryan, 1995). In their meta-analysis of personality and OCB, Organ and Ryan (1995) found that conscientiousness was the only significant predictor of OCB and concluded, perhaps prematurely, that the relationship between personality and OCB was weak. However, in response to Organ and Ryan's conclusions, Borman, Penner, Allen, and Motowidlo (2001) reviewed twenty additional studies that investigated conscientiousness in addition to locus of control, collectivism, personal initiative, and prosocial personality. Their findings showed stronger relationships between conscientiousness and OCB, more so than those of Organ and Ryan. Furthermore, Borman et al.'s analysis of a subset of the studies suggested that conscientiousness correlates more strongly with OCB than with task performance. Paralleling Borman et al.'s findings, Podsakoff and his colleagues (2000) found significant relationships between the altruism dimension of OCB and the personality variables of conscientiousness ($r = .22$), agreeableness ($r = .13$), and positive affectivity ($r = .15$). Additionally, they also identified significant relationships between the generalized compliance dimension of OCB and the personality variables of conscientiousness ($r = .30$), agreeableness ($r = .11$), and negative affectivity ($r = -.12$). O'Brien and Allen (in press) demonstrated that the personality variables of conscientiousness, trait anger, and locus of control were the most supported correlates of OCB and CWB. Taken together, personality has a stronger influence on OCB than what was previously reported (e.g., Organ & Ryan, 1995).

Motivation. Research has established the validity of attitudinal and personality variables as predictors of OCB. As mentioned above, there has been a movement towards perceiving OCB as a proactive, functional behavior used to satisfy individual needs and goals. Some work has already been devoted to identifying OCB motives. Research by Hogan, Rybicki, Motowidlo, and Borman (1998) suggests that the perceived instrumental value for engaging in OCB behaviors may affect the personality predictors associated with OCB. For example, they found ambition was important in jobs containing the possibility of promotion, whereas conscientiousness was significant when promotional opportunities were absent. In another study, Finkelstein and Penner (2004), measuring OCB motives directly, found that Prosocial Values motives were more strongly related to OCBI, while Organizational Concern motives were more strongly related to OCBO (see also Finkelstein, 2006; Rioux & Penner, 2001). Along these lines, employees engaging in OCB out of a concern for others were more likely to exhibit aspects of contextual performance that help others (e.g., altruism). In contrast, employees with the goal of demonstrating commitment to the organization engaged in OCB that helped the organization directly (e.g., conscientiousness). Impression management motives were also found to be related to OCB, but specifically to OCBI rather than OCBO (Finkelstein, 2006).

The predictive validity of OCB motives beyond established OCB antecedents has also been assessed. Rioux and Penner's (2001) research found that the Prosocial Values and Organizational Concern dimension of their CMS scale accounted for unique variance beyond organizational (distributive and procedural justice) and personality variables (positive mood, other-oriented empathy, and helpfulness). Little support was found for

the Impression Management dimension. However, support for the other two dimensions suggests that motives play a significant role and that employees perform OCB for different reasons.

In addition, research has investigated motives as potential mediators of established relationships involving OCB. For example, Connell and Penner's (2004) study is one of the first attempts at establishing a connection between personality and OCB motives. They found that the Organizational Concern motives partially mediated the effects of conscientiousness on the OCB dimension of generalized compliance. Both Organizational Concern and Prosocial Values motives partially mediated the relationship between other-oriented empathy (a factor of prosocial personality) and altruism. Moreover, Prosocial Values motives partially mediated the relationship between other-oriented empathy and the generalized compliance dimension of OCB. The results of their study provide initial support for the mediating role of OCB motives between personality and OCB. In sum, these findings highlight motives as key predictors of OCB and that various motives moderate and mediate relationships between OCB and its antecedents. Despite this preliminary work though, additional motives for performing OCB may exist.

Motivation to Perform OCB

A starting point for investigating alternative OCB motives is to consider them within the framework of basic human needs and values. *Needs* theories of motivation suggest that individuals are motivated to engage in behaviors based on the fulfillment of specific needs (Alderfer, 1969; Maslow, 1954; Reeve, 2005). By adopting a functional perspective, OCB can be perceived as a means to satisfy specific needs (Penner, Midili, & Kegelmeyer, 1997). For example, employees with high need for achievement

(McClelland, 1961) are driven by challenge and competition and thus, may perform OCB to satisfy their need to excel in the workplace.

Values are beliefs and guidelines, based on normative standards, for conscious decisions about behavior in specific situations (Schwartz, 1992). What differentiates one value from the next is its motivational content (Bilsky & Schwartz, 1994). They are similar to needs in that they can direct and sustain behavior. However, unlike the inherent nature of needs, values are formalized through personal experience. Additionally, values are more proximal to actual behaviors than are needs. In relation to OCB, McNeely and Meglino (1994) found that a concern for others value predicted prosocial behaviors directed towards individuals. Thus, values potentially play a critical role in predicting OCB performance.

There are several advantages of examining motivational predictors of OCB rather than personality and attitudinal ones. First, *motivational variables are more conducive to being manipulated*. Knowing which motives, needs, and values are important to individuals provides practitioners with information on how to adjust situational factors to elicit OCB. For example, organizations can cater to individuals with achievement motivation values by offering professional development and training opportunities. Conversely, attitudes (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993) and personality traits (Costa & McCrae, 1989; Roberts & DelVecchio, 2000) are relatively more stable and more difficult (perhaps impossible) to alter. Rather than selecting individuals with certain personality or attitudinal characteristics that are associated with OCB, organizations can instead manipulate the work context to increase such behaviors.

Second, *motives are evaluative and account for why a person behaves in a particular manner*. Personality, on the other hand, is descriptive, describing actions and ignoring intentions and volitional processing. Thus, motives are better suited as predictors of behavior because individuals make conscious decisions based on the alignment of their actions to their motives.

Lastly, *motives mediate the effects of more distal, stable constructs (i.e., personality) on performance* (e.g., Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002; Connell & Penner, 2004). While personality has been conceptualized as influencing performance largely through an individual's level of motivation (e.g., Kanfer, 1991; Mount & Barrick, 1995), little research exists testing this mechanism and no formal motivational process model exists. To enhance our understanding of the personality–performance relationship, Barrick and his colleagues (2001) proposed integrating three primary motivational constructs (i.e., communion striving, accomplishment striving, and status striving) as motivational mediators explaining the personality-performance relationship. Subsequent research has supported this relationship (Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002). Thus, motives in effect are more proximal predictors of performance, and should be measured when examining antecedents of OCB. Along these lines, motives may provide a mechanism to explain the inconsistent relationships between various personality traits and OCB. In general, understanding motives offers a connection between individual difference variables and behavioral outcomes.

Altogether, examining the motivational constructs that underlie the expression of OCB is perhaps more useful than simply examining personality and attitudinal antecedents. Furthermore, motivational constructs clarify why personality is related to

OCB and provide an initial process model for understanding the occurrence of OCB. The following section introduces Schwartz's (1992) values theory, which serves as a framework for the OCB motives measure that I developed.

Schwartz Values Theory

Values represent an individual's "trans-situational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or a group" (Schwartz & Rubel, 2005, p. 1010). In essence, values serve as prescriptions for behavior that are aligned with our individual belief systems. Schwartz's values theory identifies a set of ten universal values based on the motivational concern embedded within each value (see Table 1). Furthermore, these values are arranged in a circumplex, such that compatible values, like power and achievement, are adjacent to one another, while conflicting values, like self-direction and security, reside on opposite ends of the circumplex (see Figure 1). Thus, behaviors driven by one value simultaneously compete and work in conjunction with other value-driven behaviors.

Table 1. *Definitions of Schwartz's (1992) Ten Universal Value Types*

Value Type	Definition
<i>Self-enhancement</i>	
Hedonism*	Pleasure or sensuous gratification for oneself
Achievement	Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards
Power	Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources
<i>Self-transcendence</i>	
Universalism	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature
Benevolence	Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact
<i>Openness to Change</i>	
Self-direction	Independent thought and action – choosing, creating, exploring
Stimulation	Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life
<i>Conservation</i>	
Conformity	Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations of norms
Tradition	Respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide
Security	Safety, harmony, and stability of society and relationships

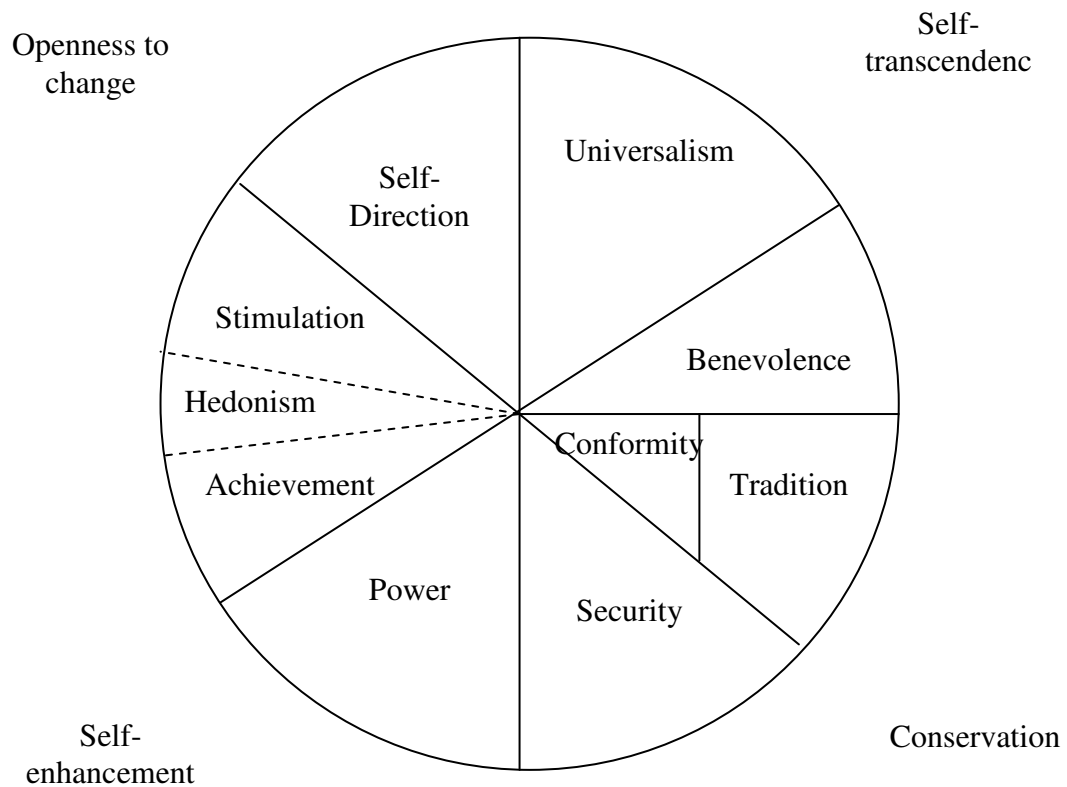
* Note: The Hedonism dimension falls within the Self-enhancement and Openness to Change

Schwartz's model also suggests the presence of four higher-order motivational dimensions (Rohan, 2000). Additionally, each of the ten universal values is subsumed under one of the four higher-order dimensions. The first, *self-enhancement*, involves doing what is best for one's own success compared to others (Rohan & Zanna, 2001). *Achievement*, *power*, and *hedonism* values are included in the self-enhancement dimension given that they focus on promoting one's own self interests. The second dimension, *self-transcendence*, involves making choices based on what is best for the group. *Universalism* and *benevolence* values fall within the self-transcendence dimension because they are concerned more with the social context rather than the self. The third

and fourth dimensions, *openness to change* and *conservation*, stem from a regulatory focus principle, the idea that individuals either strive for desired accomplishments (promotion focus) or individuals strive to maintain safety and avoid negative outcomes (prevention focus; Higgins, 1997). Likewise, individuals are motivated either through their desire to achieve goals and attain rewards (*openness to change*) or by their fear of failure and focus on avoiding competitive situations involving a risk for failure (*conservation*). *Self-direction*, *stimulation*, and *hedonism* values represent the *openness to change* dimension, due to their approach motivation nature where challenge and change are welcome in an effort to attain self-set goals. In contrast, the values of *tradition*, *conformity*, and *security* encompass the *conservation* dimension, reflecting an avoidant motivation where fear of failure is the main driver. (Note that *hedonism* cross-loads on both the *self-enhancement* and *openness to change* dimensions.)

Using alternative statistical analytic techniques (i.e., covariance structure modeling and factor analysis), Lord, Hall, Naidoo, and Selenta (2004) replicated Schwartz's (1992) circumplex model, finding support for the ten value types as well as Schwartz's higher-order dimensions. Research also indicates that the nature and structure of the ten value types are universal across cultures. For example, individuals from different cultures assign similar meanings to the ten universal values (Schwartz, 1992).

Figure 1. Schwartz's (1992, 1994) Values Circumplex



Note: Hedonism cross-loads on the openness to change and self-enhancement dimensions.

Interestingly, the four higher-order value dimensions correspond to two self-regulatory variables, specifically self-identity and regulatory focus. *Self-identity* represents an individual's collection of self-relevant schemas, values, goals, memories, and knowledge (Lord & Brown, 2004; Markus & Wurf, 1987; Oyserman, 2001). An individual's self-identity can exist at three levels: individual, relational, and collective. Those who define their identity at the *individual* level compare themselves with others, emphasize their individuality, and promote their self-interests. *Relational* individuals focus on developing relationships with others and define themselves based on the quality of their interpersonal interactions. *Collective* individuals identify with their group

memberships and tend to be more concerned with the welfare of the group (Brewer & Gardner, 1996).

Lord and Brown (2001) posited that values influence identity levels. According to their model, self-enhancement values activate individual identities and inhibit collective ones. In contrast, self-transcendence values trigger collective identities and suppress individual identities. Lord and his colleagues (2004) empirically tested this framework and found relationships between self-enhancement values and individual identities. In effect, individuals focused on differentiating themselves from others also advocated more self-serving values. Their findings also suggested relationships between conservation and openness to change values with relational identities. Individuals focused on maintaining social norms (i.e., conservation) and preserving the status quo do so in order to maintain relationships with close others (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). Therefore, if the concern for individuals with conservation values is to maintain secure interpersonal relationships, it is more likely these individuals will define themselves based on these relationships. On the other hand, though individuals focused on personal achievements (i.e., openness to change) are self-focused, they still may require the assistance of others to attain these personal goals, suggesting that maintaining effective relationships is to their advantage. Thus, individuals adopting openness to change values may perceive their interpersonal relationships as a means to an end and, in turn, may also adopt a relational identity.

An additional key aspect of self-identity is its temporal nature. More specifically, only one identity level can be activated at a time, suggesting that the relative importance of values will coincide with shifts in activated identity levels (Lord & Brown, 2004). An individual's identity level that is currently activated is known as the working self-concept

(WSC; Markus & Kunda, 1986), whereas the chronic self-concept depicts the average importance an individual assigns to all three identity levels over time. Consequently, an individual with a chronic relational identity may be exposed to a particular situation that triggers a collective level orientation (e.g., attending a company sponsored charity event or playing on the company's softball team). Thus, the type of work context may potentially play an integral role in activating specific identity levels that, in turn, elicit shifts in values and possibly the motives underlying OCB. Overall, it is important to recognize and identify which values and identity levels are aligned with one another because they may work in tandem when establishing reasons for why individuals participate in OCB.

Similar to self-identity, regulatory foci variables shift over time depending on situational characteristics and events (Higgins, 1998). Regulatory theory identifies differences in strategies for goal attainment (Higgins, 1997). *Promotion* focused individuals are motivated by the presence of positive outcomes, such as the attainment of aspirations and accomplishments, while *prevention* focused individuals are driven by the absence of negative outcomes with an emphasis on responsibility and safety. Due to the dynamic nature, regulatory foci have the potential to be primed, and, as a result, may influence values and OCB motives. In fact, ample lab-based research by Higgins and his colleagues demonstrate the possibility of eliciting promotion and prevention focus (e.g., Cesario, Grant, & Higgins, 2004; Freitas, Liberman, & Higgins, 2001; Spiegel, Grant-Pillow, & Higgins, 2004). Like self-identity, aspects of the work environment may influence regulatory foci, and, subsequently, explain shifts in values and OCB motives.

Values within the work context. Preliminary evidence supports values influencing behavior within the work domain. Ros, Schwartz, and Surkiss (1999) applied Schwartz's values theory to the work context and found support for four basic types of work values (intrinsic, extrinsic, social, and prestige values). Similar to Schwartz's universal values, work values function in response to desired end goals, and their relative importance serve as guidelines for evaluating and deciding how to act in different work situations. Moreover, the four work value types parallel Schwartz's four higher-order dimensions. For instance, *intrinsic* work values reflect openness to change values with a focus on autonomy, growth, and creativity at work, the part of the job that exemplifies an approach orientation. Conversely, *extrinsic* work values coincide with conservation values, emphasizing job security and income, aspects of the job that contribute to feelings of safety and security. *Social* work values emulate self-transcendence values where individuals perceive work as a means for establishing social relationships. Lastly, *prestige* work values mirror self-enhancement values based on their shared concern for power, influence, and achievement at work (Ros et al., 1999). In general, Ros and colleagues provide introductory support for the application of Schwartz's values theory within work contexts.

Integrating OCB Motives with Values. Based on the above review, Schwartz's values model provides a nice framework for organizing various motives that underlie OCB (see Table 2). Furthermore, prior research offers support for values as significant predictors of OCB. For example, work values of hard work and discipline—those associated with a Protestant work ethic—are positively related to OCB, suggesting that individuals who value hard work also value helping fellow employees (Ryan, 2002).

Similarly, achievement values are related to OCB (Neuman & Kickul, 1998). According to Schwartz, achievement values describe individuals who demonstrate success based on social standards, implying that the salience of this value may motivate individuals to engage in socially favored behaviors (e.g., OCB) to reach their goals. The following section is organized around the four higher-order dimensions of self-enhancement, self-transcendence, openness to change, and conservation, which are used as a meta-framework for classifying potential motives for engaging in OCB. Within each dimension, I introduce and define specific motives that comprise the dimension.

Table 2. *Definitions of OCB Motive Types*

Motive Type	Definition
<i>Self-enhancement</i>	
Instrumental	the focus on attaining self-gratification through rewards
Achievement	the need to excel and attain goals
Power	the desire to control others and/or resources
Impression Management	the desire to present a favorable image to others
<i>Self-transcendence</i>	
Organizational Concern	the focus on success for the organization
Prosocial Values	the desire to help others
Intimacy	the desire to build quality relationships
<i>Openness to Change</i>	
Autonomy	the desire for control over one's actions
Competency	the desire to exercise one's abilities
<i>Conservation</i>	
Guilt	the feeling of responsibility for a past offense
Felt obligation	the feeling of a sense of duty directed towards the organization
Affiliation	the desire for security and belonging

Self-enhancement. The self-enhancement dimension includes values focused on promoting one's own success in relation to others. Motives falling within this dimension are characterized as self-serving and include Achievement, Power, Impression Management, and Instrumental motives. Individuals who value *achievement* excel and

strive for attainment of goals. They are motivated by career advancement (Judge & Bretz, 1992), and, subsequently, use OCB as a method to accomplish tasks and achieve success within the organization. For instance, individuals may participate in professional development training, offer process improvement suggestions, or help a coworker as a means to achieve both self and organizational success. Individuals with Achievement motives are driven to get work done and proactively engage in activities that increase the likelihood of task accomplishment (Niehoff, 2000).

Individuals, who value *power*, seek control and dominance over other people or resources (McClelland, 1961), and partake in OCB to attain this control. For instance, an employee may volunteer to lead a quality improvement initiative in order to influence fellow coworkers and make significant decisions regarding allocation of resources. Not unlike Achievement motives, individuals high in Power motives are focused on one's own career goals and recognize OCB as a means to achieve them (Niehoff, 2000). Moreover, individuals with Power motives may also display OCB to portray a favorable image and partake in behaviors that have greater visibility in an effort to gain recognition from individuals in control of organizational rewards.

Another motive within the self-enhancement dimension, *Impression Management*, overlaps with both Achievement and Power motives. Achievement is defined in terms of seeking success through competence according to social standards. Defining success in terms of what is socially prescribed implies some form of impression management. Impression Management motives are also embedded within Power motives. Individuals with high power needs portray favorable images as a means to reap the rewards and climb the social ladder. Consequently, individuals may engage in OCB for the mere fact

of presenting socially-desirable images to others. Indeed, research has found a positive relationship between impression management tactics and OCB ratings (Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006).

Individuals with *Instrumental* motives, the last type of self-enhancement motive, focus on attaining self-gratification through rewards, such as pay and promotions. They perform OCB because of the anticipated economic rewards associated with it (e.g., mentoring a direct report because it will lead to a promotion). Indeed, research suggests individuals perceiving OCB as instrumental exhibit reduced levels of OCB after receipt of a promotion (Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000), demonstrating the performance of OCB for the sole purpose of the promotion. In total, motives belonging under the self-enhancement dimension are focused strictly on advancement of the self and include Achievement, Power, Impression Management, and Instrumental motives.

Self-transcendence. The self-transcendence dimension is concerned with social context outcomes, such as the welfare of others. Motives belonging to this dimension are focused on interpersonal relationships, and include Organizational Concern, Prosocial Values, and Intimacy motives. *Organizational Concern* motives (Rioux & Penner, 2001), as described previously, center on the success of the organization. Individuals participating in OCB for these reasons are more likely to display organizational support type behaviors, like promoting the organization to outsiders, or suggesting improvements to benefit the entire organization. *Prosocial Values* (Rioux & Penner, 2001) and *Intimacy* motives focus on the desire to help others and build quality relationships. Individuals are motivated to participate in OCB to enrich and establish meaningful work relationships. Moreover, they are more likely to provide emotional support, offer suggestions to the

work group, and pass on their knowledge and skills to fellow coworkers. In sum, self-transcendence motives target the social context and encompass Organizational Concern, Prosocial Values, and Intimacy motives.

Openness to change. The openness to change dimension embodies an approach-oriented type of motivation where individuals are motivated to take risks and embrace change in order to achieve their self-set goals. Autonomy and Competence motives are included in this dimension. Individuals with *Autonomy* motives desire decision-making authority and control over their actions, an approach-oriented drive needed to satisfy intellectual and emotional interests. Individuals with Autonomy motives may volunteer to engage in OCB to afford them the freedom to make decisions especially when formal job requirements limit their sense of autonomy. For instance, employees may voluntarily start a department newsletter because it provides them with decision-making flexibility and task control. In a similar vein, *Competence* motives represent the approach-oriented desire to exercise one's abilities and seek out challenges (Deci & Ryan, 1985). This suggests that individuals participate in OCB to acquire a sense of mastery over a skill and are more likely to exhibit OCB geared towards self-development. For instance, individuals may take on extra assignments to satisfy their hunger for challenge. Overall, openness to change motives are distinguished by their focus on the pursuit of one's own interests and goals.

Conservation. The conservation dimension is imbued with avoidance motivation, such that it involves the fear of failure and the strong need to uphold traditions and submit to others. Motives that reflect conservation values are affiliation, guilt, and felt obligation. *Affiliation* motives are rooted in the fear of interpersonal rejection, where

individuals are driven to establish, maintain, and restore interpersonal relationships (Reeve, 2005). Within the work context, individuals with Affiliative motives perform OCB to serve and help others (Niehoff, 2000). For example, an employee may agree to do favors for coworkers in an effort to increase friendships. Researchers have suggested that individuals may use OCB as a coping mechanism to establish secure social support networks (Zellars & Tepper, 2003). Furthermore, individuals driven by Affiliation motives practice more personal support types of OCB. They cooperate with others, help others with work tasks, and show genuine courtesy and respect to others.

Like Affiliation, Guilt and Felt Obligation (Bolino et al., 2004) reflect conservation motives based on an avoidant-oriented characteristic. Individuals with *Guilt motives* may partake in OCB based on guilt for past transgressions or fear of punishment. For example, an individual may volunteer extra hours on a project for taking excessive sick days. Alternatively, individuals motivated by *Felt Obligation* motives perform OCB out of a sense of duty. In summary, motives that make up the conservation dimension are characterized by their adherence to tradition and need for security and include Affiliation, Guilt, and Felt Obligation motives.

Scale Development and Validation

Using past research and Schwartz's values as a guide, the Good Soldier Motives Scale (GSMS) was developed in multiple phases. Phase 1 consisted of focus groups (i.e., Study 1) and item administration (i.e., Study 2). Focus groups were conducted to generate reasons for participating in OCB and to identify the likelihood of *a priori* OCB motive dimensions. Items were then administered to a sample of employed students to further refine the scale. With the finalization of the GSMS, the purpose of Phase 2 was to

validate the GSMS by establishing construct and criterion-related validity. Therefore, Study 3 investigated the relationships between OCB motives and variables that uniquely related to various motives (i.e., construct validation), while Study 4 examined the relationships between OCB motives and actual measures of OCB (i.e., criterion-related validation). The following chapters present detailed methodology and results for each study, concluding with a general discussion.

Chapter 2: Pilot Study of the Good Soldier Motives Scale

Study 1: Development of OCB Motive Dimensions

The purpose of Study 1 was to confirm the likelihood of *a priori* OCB motives based on past research and Schwartz's model in addition to developing additional motives not already covered by the framework. Focus groups were conducted and items were developed for the GSMS based on information gathered from the focus groups and existing research. A sample of subject matter experts (SMEs) were then asked to re-sort the initial set of items into one of the 12 motive dimensions as well as identifying any problems with the item wording.

Study 1 Method

Participants and Procedure. Focus groups, consisting of groups of three to five individuals, were conducted using a total of 22 participants from a large southeastern university in the US. Of these participants, 18 were female and 3 were male, and worked at least 20 hours per week. Focus groups were approximately one hour long and consisted of semi-structured group interviews where individuals responded to a set of open-ended questions used to generate reasons for OCB (see Appendix A). Additionally, participants were also asked to indicate the extent of agreement that the *a priori* OCB motives are reasons for exhibiting OCB.

Study 1 Results

Focus group discussions revealed that participants offered reasons for participating in OCB that coincided with the proposed 12 motive types. Some sample responses included “to look dependable to managers and coworkers” (Impression Management), “to build positive relationships” (Intimacy), and “to bring more business to my organization” (Organizational Concern). Table 3 displays the means and standard deviations of participants’ responses on items that surveyed the plausibility of the *a priori* motives for performing OCB. Results suggested that guilt was the least likely motive to perform OCB, whereas Prosocial Values was the most likely one. Although participants rated guilt as the least likely reason to perform OCB, items were developed for this motive to test the full proposed framework of motives.

Table 3. *Means and Standard Deviations for Likelihood of OCB Motives*

OCB Motive	Mean	SD
Prosocial Values	4.36	0.58
Competence	4.27	0.55
Power	4.05	0.72
Impression Management	3.82	0.85
Instrumental	3.73	1.24
Felt Obligation	3.68	0.72
Organizational Concern	3.64	0.73
Achievement	3.55	1.14
Autonomy	3.32	1.00
Affiliation	3.18	1.05
Intimacy	3.09	1.02
Guilt	2.41	1.18

Note: Motives are ordered according to decreasing likelihood of performing OCB for that reason.

Study 1 Discussion

This study provided me with an extensive list of reasons why workers are believed to perform OCBs. I leveraged this knowledge, as well as information from

previous research (e.g., Neuman & Kickul, 1998) and existing measures (e.g., Rioux & Penner, 2001), in order to develop items. Items representing the twelve proposed OCB motives were developed and written according to accepted standards in scale development (e.g., Crocker & Algina, 1986; Spector, 1992). For example, I wrote items that were clear and concise and avoided the use of double negatives and double-barreled items (Spector, 1992). Researchers recommend one and a half to two times as many items as the final version of the scale should be developed for the initial item pool when constructing a new measure (Allen & Yen, 1979; Nunnally, 1978). Therefore, applying these guidelines, it was anticipated that 54 to 72 items would be needed because my goal was to have 3-5 items per motive. In the end, 67 OCB motive items were created.

Once the items were written, 12 subject matter experts (SMEs), who were all industrial-organizational psychology doctoral students, resorted individual items back into the 12 OCB motive dimensions. Each SME was given a description of the main purpose of the GSMS and definitions for each type of motive. They were instructed to assign each item to one of the 12 OCB motive dimensions or place the item into a miscellaneous category if they felt it did not fit into any of the given dimensions. Additionally, SMEs were asked to identify items that they believed were awkwardly worded or unclear. Items that were correctly resorted by the majority of the SMEs were retained.¹ . Of the original 67 items, 22 were deleted, 3 items were revised, and 12 new items were created, resulting in a total of 57 items that were included in Study 2. The OCB motive dimensions (and number of items) were as follows: Achievement (5 items), Affiliation (3), Autonomy (4), Competence (5), Felt Obligation (6), Guilt (6), Impression

¹ On average, retained items were correctly sorted by 80% of the SMEs.

Management (5), Instrumental (4), Intimacy (5), Organizational Concern (5), Power (4), and Prosocial Values (5) (items are listed in Appendix B).

Study 2: Assessing the Factor Structure of the GSMS

The goal of Study 2 was to assess the psychometric properties of the OCB motive items. Since there is little research on the exact dimensionality of OCB motives, the initial set of GSMS items were subjected to an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Moreover, researchers suggest that EFA may be necessary for scale development even if *a priori* expectations exist, reasoning that these expectations, although based on theory, may be incorrect (Henson & Roberts, 2006). To confirm the factor structure of the scale, the EFA was followed by a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on data collected from a separate sample.

Study 2 Method

Participants. Usable data were collected from a total of 462 employed participants enrolled in undergraduate Psychology courses at a large university in the Southeastern US. Students received extra credit in exchange for participating. The majority of the sample was female (79%) with an average age of 22.3 years ($sd = 4.4$). Participants represented a variety of racial/ethnic groups, including White non-Hispanic (61.3%), Black non-Hispanic (13.6%), Hispanic (15.4%), and Asian/Pacific Islander (4.8%). The majority of the participants were in non-managerial positions (86.1%) from a wide range of industries (see Table 4). The average tenure was 20.4 months ($sd = 21.8$). Table 5 presents the sample's breakdown of hours worked per week. To test the generalizability of the factor structure of the GSMS, the 462 participants were classified

based on whether they were full-time employees (i.e., individuals who work more than 20 hours per week) or part-time ones (i.e., individuals who work 20 hours per week or less). An EFA was conducted on the data provided by part-time employees ($N = 181$) in order to determine the factor structure of the GSMS. Following the EFA, a CFA was conducted on the data provided by the full-time workers ($N = 281$) in order to verify the factor structure that emerged from the initial EFA.

Table 4. *Frequency of Represented Industries*

<u>Industry</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Retail	95	20.56
Other	78	16.88
Service	71	15.37
Hospitality	61	13.20
Medical/Social Service	47	10.17
Financial Services	31	6.71
Education	28	6.06
Entertainment	19	4.11
Technology	11	2.38
Manufacturing	6	1.30
Government	5	1.08
Communications	4	0.87
Unemployed	4	0.87
Military	2	0.43
Total	462	100.00

Table 5. *Frequency of Hours Worked per Week*

<u>Hours Worked Per Week</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Less than 10	23	4.98
10 to 20 hours	135	29.22
21 to 30 hours	165	35.71
31 to 40 hours	91	19.70
More than 40	25	5.41
I do not work	23	4.98
Total	462	100.00

Procedure. Participants completed either a paper-and-pencil version of the GSMS (15.6%) or an online version of the survey that was on a paid survey-hosting website (84.4%). The order of presentation of the two GSMS subscales was counterbalanced so as to control for order effects and participant fatigue.

Study 2 Measures

GSMS. Respondents were asked to rate the relative importance of each motive when performing OCB directed toward their coworkers (i.e., MOCBI subscale) and OCB directed toward the organization (i.e., MOCBO subscale), resulting in a total of 114 items (57 each). Instructions for the two subscales provided a general explanation of OCB and several behavioral examples of either OCBI or OCBO. Participants responded to each item using a 6-point Likert response scale (from 1 = “Not at all important” to 6 = “Extremely important”). Information about the factor structure and reliability of each subscale are presented below.

Study 2 Results

Though a four-dimensional higher-order factor structure was expected because the GSMS was developed from Schwartz’s (1992) four-dimensional value circumplex, his framework served only as a guiding heuristic to organize and develop various OCB motives. Therefore, I did not have any concrete *a priori* expectations about the number of factors that would emerge. For instance, values pertaining to impression management and instrumental concerns might emerge as one factor or two related ones. The number of factors may also vary if some motives are deemed irrelevant to OCB by participants.

Factor structure of the MOCBI. The 57 MOCBI subscale items were factor analyzed using principal axis factoring and a Promax rotation (Hendrickson & White, 1964). As advised by Henson and Roberts (2006), multiple factor retention rules were conducted to identify the number of factors to retain. Based on the eigenvalue > 1 rule (Kaiser, 1960; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), the EFA on the 57 MOCBI items resulted in a ten-factor solution. Eigenvalues for the first eleven factors were $\lambda_1 = 18.77$, $\lambda_2 = 7.00$, $\lambda_3 = 2.96$, $\lambda_4 = 2.60$, $\lambda_5 = 2.03$, $\lambda_6 = 1.53$, $\lambda_7 = 1.41$, $\lambda_8 = 1.26$, $\lambda_9 = 1.10$, $\lambda_{10} = 1.03$, and $\lambda_{11} = .93$. However, the eigenvalue rule has been criticized for overextracting factors (Zwick & Velicer, 1986) and thus, a scree test (Cattell, 1966) and parallel analysis (PA; Horn, 1965; Turner, 1998) were also performed. Looking for the natural break, the scree plot suggested that five factors best explained the data. Yet, this method suffers from subjectivity and ambiguity, especially when there are no clear breaks in the scree plot. Thus, a PA was also conducted. Research suggests that PA is one of the most accurate methods (Zwick & Velicer, 1986), yet it is one of the least employed (Henson & Roberts, 2006). Results from the PA indicated a five-factor solution. Based on the scree plot and PA, five factors should be retained. To provide a “cleaner” pattern structure, bad items (i.e., items with high crossloadings or low loadings) were deleted and the EFA was repeated. Then, to reduce administration time and improve the practicality of the GSMS in applied settings, the MOCBI subscale was reduced to a maximum of five items per dimension based on multiple criteria—item-to-total correlations, alpha-if-item deleted (within dimensions) in addition to a consideration of factor loadings, resulting in 23 final items representing the five MOCBI dimensions.

An EFA using principal axis factoring with a Promax rotation was conducted for a third time on the 23 final MOCBI items. Examination of the eigenvalues, factor loadings, and scree plot indicated a five-factor structure, explaining 73.63% of the variance (see Table 6).

Table 6. *Total Variance Explained by the Five Extracted Factors of the MOCBI Subscale*

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extracted Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.19	35.60	35.60	7.85	34.15	34.15
2	3.82	16.59	52.19	3.52	15.30	49.45
3	1.86	8.08	60.27	1.53	6.65	56.10
4	1.67	7.25	67.51	1.35	5.88	61.98
5	1.41	6.12	73.63	1.08	4.69	66.67

The first MOCBI factor corresponded to *Prosocial Values* motives (see Table 7). Paralleling Rioux and Penner’s (2001) Prosocial Values dimension, individuals are driven by the need to help their coworkers. The second MOCBI factor reflected *Intimacy* motives where individuals perform OCB based on their desires to establish, maintain, and restore relationships with others (Niehoff, 2000). Factor three represented *Organizational Concern and Obligation* motives. Similar to Rioux and Penner’s (2001) Organizational Concern motive dimension but with an obligation component, this motive describes individuals performing OCBs because they feel they “owe” it to their organizations. The fourth MOCBI factor consisted of *Instrumental* motives. All items within this dimension shared the desire for extrinsic rewards, like positive performance ratings, raises, promotions, and recommendations. The final MOCBI factor corresponded to *Guilt* motives. Individuals perform OCB based on self-perceptions of not putting forth their best effort. Table 8 presents inter-factor correlations and reliabilities.

Table 7. *Rotated Factor Pattern Matrix of Loadings for the MOCBI Items*

MOCBI Item	Apriori Motive	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Because I care about other's feelings.	PSV	.86				
Because I feel it is important to help others.	PSV	.83				
Because I genuinely like helping people.	PSV	.78				
Because I believe in being polite to others.	PSV	.78				
Because I have empathy for those who need help.	PSV	.78				
To build trusting relationships.	INT		.87			
To establish meaningful friendships with my colleagues.	INT		.86			
To build a social support system at work.	AFF		.82			
To build positive relationships with my colleagues.	INT		.73			
To get to know my coworkers better.	INT		.67			
So my organization will be successful.	ORG			.85		
To increase the profitability of the organization.	ORG			.81		
Because I owe it to my organization.	FOB			.80		
Because I feel a personal obligation to help my company achieve its goals.	FOB			.74		
To give the organization a good reputation.	ORG			.68		
To increase my likelihood of getting a raise and/or promotion.	INS				.88	
To look good to others (e.g., my supervisor; my coworkers).	IMP				.75	
To make more money.	INS				.70	
To look dependable to my supervisor and/or coworkers.	IMP				.66	
For a good recommendation.	INS				.62	
To make up for not pulling my weight.	GLT					.94
To make up for the times that I slacked off.	GLT					.91
To make up for me either taking long breaks or being absent too often.	GLT					.83
Initial Eigenvalue		8.19	3.82	1.86	1.67	1.41
Percent Variance Accounted for by Each Factor		35.60%	16.59%	8.08%	7.25%	6.12%

Table 8. *Inter-factor Correlations for the MOCBI Subscale*

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Factor 1	.89				
Factor 2	.57	.90			
Factor 3	.45	.62	.91		
Factor 4	.17	.39	.43	.84	
Factor 5	-.20	.06	.14	.29	.92

* Bolded numbers = Cronbach's Alpha for Each Factor

Factor structure of the MOCBO. Similar to the above procedures for the MOCBI subscale, the 57 MOCBO items were factor analyzed using principal axis factoring with a Promax rotation. Eigenvalues for the first ten factors were $\lambda_1 = 20.01$, $\lambda_2 = 7.93$, $\lambda_3 = 3.65$, $\lambda_4 = 2.86$, $\lambda_5 = 1.97$, $\lambda_6 = 1.88$, $\lambda_7 = 1.27$, $\lambda_8 = 1.07$, $\lambda_9 = 1.01$, and $\lambda_{10} = .95$, suggesting a nine-factor solution based on the $EV > 1$ rule. The scree test and PA indicated a six-factor underlying structure. Similar to the MOCBI subscale, an EFA was repeated after elimination of bad items resulting in a five-factor solution. Then, items were reduced to a maximum of five items per dimension based on item analysis statistics and factor loadings, resulting in 23 final MOCBO items across the five dimensions. An EFA with principal axis factoring and a Promax rotation was repeated on the final 23 MOCBO items. Examination of the eigenvalues, factor loadings, and scree plot indicated a five-factor solution, explaining 76.15% of the variance (see Table 9).

Table 9. *Total Variance Explained by the Five Extracted Factors of the MOCBO Subscale*

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extracted Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.98	34.69	34.69	7.67	33.36	33.36
2	4.24	18.42	53.11	3.97	17.26	50.62
3	2.52	10.96	64.07	2.25	9.78	60.40
4	1.74	7.57	71.64	1.45	6.29	66.69
5	1.04	4.51	76.15	0.74	3.22	69.90

The first MOCBO factor represented *Prosocial Values* motives (see Table 10). *Guilt* motives characterized the second MOCBO factor. The third MOCBO factor consisted of *Organizational Concern and Obligation* motives. The fourth and fifth MOCBO factors corresponded to *Achievement* and *Instrumental* motives, respectively. Inter-factor correlations and dimension reliabilities are presented in Table 11.

Table 10. *Rotated Pattern Matrix of Loadings for the MOCBO Items*

MOCBO Item	Apriori Motive	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Because I care about other's feelings.	PSV	.95				
Because I feel it is important to help others.	PSV	.90				
Because I believe in being polite to others.	PSV	.89				
To build trusting relationships.	INT	.74				
To build positive relationships with my colleagues.	INT	.63				
To make up for the times that I slacked off.	GLT		.95			
To make up for not pulling my weight.	GLT		.89			
To make up for me either taking long breaks or being absent too often.	GLT		.82			
Because I feel guilty for not working as hard at times.	GLT		.78			
Because I feel guilty since my coworkers are working harder than me.	GLT		.72			
So my organization will be successful.	ORG			.84		
Because I feel a personal obligation to help my company achieve its goals.	FOB			.82		
Because I have an obligation to my company to produce high quality work.	FOB			.78		
Because I owe it to my organization.	FOB			.77		
To give the organization a good reputation.	ORG			.72		
Because it offers me an avenue to take charge of my career.	AUT				.93	
Because it helps me achieve goals I set for myself.	COM				.81	
Because it helps me advance in my career.	ACH				.69	
Because it helps me feel accomplished.	COM				.64	
Because I set high standards for myself.	ACH				.57	
To increase my likelihood of getting a raise and/or promotion.	INS					.92
To make more money.	INS					.89
<u>For a good recommendation.</u>	<u>INS</u>					<u>.64</u>
Initial Eigenvalue		7.98	4.24	2.52	1.74	1.04
Percent Variance Accounted for by Each Factor		34.69%	18.42%	10.96%	7.57%	4.51%

Table 11. *Inter-factor Correlations for the MOCBO Subscale*

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Factor 1	.92				
Factor 2	-.11	.90			
Factor 3	.54	.13	.92		
Factor 4	.40	.09	.63	.88	
Factor 5	.13	.25	.27	.52	.86

* Bolded numbers = Cronbach's Alpha for Each Factor

Confirmatory factor analysis. To test whether the GSMS subscales had similar structures across different population subgroups, items completed by employees who worked more than 20 hours per week were submitted to a CFA with ML estimation using Mplus 3.13 (Muthén & Muthén, 2006). The fit of the five-factor solutions that were identified during the EFAs for the MOCBI and MOCBO were tested separately. To determine the fit of the model, several goodness of fit indices were examined. The normed χ^2 , the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) were examined. For acceptable model fit, the normed χ^2 should be between two and three with a desired cutoff of four (Carmines & McIver, 1981). Values above .90 indicate acceptable fit for the CFI and TLI (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Bollen, 1989). Values less than .10 indicate acceptable fit for the RMSEA and the SRMR (values less than .08 are indicative of very good fit, Browne and Cudeck, 1993; Kline, 2005). Fit statistics for the each subscale are presented in Table 12.

Table 12. *CFA Fit Statistics for MOCBI and MOCBO*

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	Normed χ^2	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
5-Factor CFA (<i>N</i> = 281)							
MOCBI	531.621	220	2.42	.926	.915	.071	.064
5-Factor CFA (<i>N</i> =281)							
MOCBO	794.392	220	3.61	.881	.863	.096	.079

The fit statistics for the MOCBI and MOCBO subscales signified acceptable model fit for a subset of the fit indices. For the MOCBI subscale, all fit indices indicated adequate model fit. Although the fit indices were not as positive for the MOCBO subscale, the normed χ^2 , RMSEA, and SRMR suggested adequate model fit. Overall, the five-factor solutions for the two GSMS subscale demonstrated acceptable model fit and, more importantly, demonstrated similar factor solutions with two independent samples.

As a further test of factor structure replication, I conducted a multi-group comparison CFA with ML estimation using Mplus 3.13 (Muthén & Muthén, 2006). Specifically, I constrained factor loadings across the two groups (i.e., individuals working 20 or less hours per week and individuals working more than 20 hours per week) to be equivalent. Results suggested adequate fit for the MOCBI subscale based on the normed χ^2 (2.03), RMSEA (.067), and SRMR (.070). Results also suggested acceptable fit for the MOCBO subscale based on the normed χ^2 (2.87), RMSEA (.090), and SRMR (.081). These results provide encouraging support for the factor structure and generalizability of the two subscales.

Study 2 Discussion

The factor structure for each subscale of the GSMS was examined. Motives to engage in OCB directed towards other individuals (MOCBI) resulted in five factors: (1)

Prosocial Values, (2) Organizational Concern and Obligation, (3) Instrumental, (4) Guilt, and (5) Intimacy motives. Motives to participate in OCB directed towards the organization (MOCBO) also resulted in five factors: (1) Prosocial Values, (2) Organizational Concern and Obligation, (3) Instrumental, (4) Guilt, and (5) Achievement motives. CFA and multi-group comparison findings indicated that the factor structures were similar across two samples.

Interestingly, four motives were consistent across the two subscales, namely Prosocial Values, Organizational Concern and Obligation, Instrumental, and Guilt. The key differences between the two subscales were the Intimacy dimension for MOCBI and the Achievement dimension for MOCBO. Perhaps Intimacy motives did not emerge as a reason for performing OCBO because individuals motivated by Intimacy value individual people and relationships, and perform OCB to help and serve others. Because OCBO are helping behaviors directed at the *organizational as a whole*, Intimacy motives are less relevant. Alternatively, achievement-oriented individuals focus on goal attainment and demonstrating success within the organization. OCBI behaviors focus on helping coworkers, making it less likely for achievement oriented individuals, who are focused on self-interests, to engage in these types of OCBs. OCBO, on the other hand, centers on demonstrating organizational citizenship through good employee practices (e.g., lack of tardiness, following informal rules), behaviors necessary for professional advancement within the organization.

Now that the GSMS scale was finalized, the next step involved validating the GSMS, which was the purpose of Studies 3 and 4. Moreover, Spector (1992) suggested that support for subscales in an instrument via CFA results is not enough evidence to

conclude they represent their intended constructs. Such evidence is gleaned from validation studies.

Chapter 3: Construct Validation of the GSMS

As expected, not all higher-order motive dimensions survived the factor analysis in Study 2. In particular, motives grouped within Schwartz's (1992) higher-order *openness to change* factor did not emerge (e.g., Autonomy and Competence). Perhaps respondents did not perceive OCB as a way to exercise control or express their abilities. Instead, these types of motives may be more appropriate for task performance, especially when examining managerial or technical expertise-type roles. Motives sharing the *self-transcendence* characteristic of concern for social context outcomes (i.e., Intimacy, Organizational Concern and Obligation, Prosocial Values), those characterized by *self-enhancement* and the promotion of self-interests (i.e., Instrumental and Achievement), and ones representing *conservation* and avoidance motivation (i.e., Guilt) arose as the primary motives for performing OCB. The purpose of Study 3 was to assess the construct validity of the GSMS. As recommended by Spector (1992), the scale was validated by testing relationships between these sets of OCB motive dimensions and proposed correlates. What follows is a detailed description of each of the OCB motive correlates.

Study 3 Background and Hypotheses

Regulatory focus. Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998) proposes that there are two basic goal-striving strategies: promotion focus and prevention focus.

Promotion focus refers to the motivation to minimize discrepancies between current and ideal selves (i.e., what one desires to be), and viewing situations in terms of gains and

non-gains. Conversely, *prevention focus* refers to motivations to minimize discrepancies between current and ought selves (i.e., what others think one should be), and viewing situations in terms of losses and non-losses. Considering promotion and prevention foci is important because each one has unique effects on attitudes and behaviors (i.e., work performance, OCB). Specifically, when promotion focus is strong, people are fixated on advancement, where goals are comprised of hopes and aspirations. On the other hand, when prevention focus is strong, people strive for security and responsibility with goals focused on duties and obligations (Higgins, 1998). It was expected that promotion and prevention foci will be uniquely related to specific OCB motive dimensions. Promotion focus will be positively related to engaging in OCB as a means for self-growth and -development, while prevention focus will be positively related to performing OCB in order to avoid punishment and disappointing others. Therefore:

Self-Enhancement Motives:

Hypothesis 1: Promotion focus will be positively related to (MOCBI/MOCBO)

Instrumental motives.

Hypothesis 2: Promotion focus will be positively related to (MOCBI/MOCBO)

Achievement motives.

Conservation Motives:

Hypothesis 3: Prevention focus will be positively related to (MOCBI/MOCBO)

Guilt motives.

Self-identity. Self-identity refers to the various self-definitions that people have of themselves (e.g., I am my child's parent vs. a member of my work organization). There are at least three different self-identity levels: individual, relational, and collective

(Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Furthermore, people appear to have chronic differences in the strength or importance of each of these three levels. Based on Lord and colleagues' research (e.g., Lord & Brown, 2004; Lord et al., 2001), it is expected that individual differences in the relative importance of OCB motive dimensions are systematically associated with individual differences in chronic identity level. People with strong *individual* identities define themselves by emphasizing ways in which they are different—and better—than others, and are focused on pursuing their own self-interests. Therefore, it is proposed that individual identity will be positively related to engaging in OCB for self-enhancement reasons (i.e., Achievement and Instrumental motives). Conversely, people with strong *relational* identities are motivated by the needs and expectations of partners in dyadic relationships, with the primary goal being to enhance the quality of interpersonal relationships. Because relational identity coincides with an emphasis on the quality of interpersonal relationships, it is expected that this level will be positively related to performing OCB owing to self-transcendence motives (i.e., Intimacy, Organizational Concern and Obligation, and Prosocial Values). People with strong collective identities define themselves via their group membership and are motivated to act in ways that benefit their groups and are consistent with group norms. For this reason, it is expected that collective identity will be positively related to performing OCB due to Organizational Concern and Obligation motives. Lastly, guilt is a socially-oriented emotion, suggesting that individuals performing OCB for guilt reasons may do so to avoid disappointing coworkers or the organization. Thus, Guilt motives were expected to be positively related to both relational and collective identities. I proposed the following hypotheses:

Self-Enhancement Motives:

Hypothesis 4: Individual identity will be positively related to (MOCBI/MOCBO)

Instrumental motives.

Hypothesis 5: Individual identity will be positively related to (MOCBO)

Achievement motives.

Self-Transcendence Motives:

Hypothesis 6: Relational identity will be positively related to (MOCBI/MOCBO)

Prosocial Values motives.

Hypothesis 7: Relational identity will be positively related to (MOCBI) Intimacy motives.

Hypothesis 8: (a) Relational and (b) Collective identity will be positively related to (MOCBI/MOCBO) Organizational Concern and Obligation motives.

Conservation:

Hypothesis 9: (a) Relational and (b) Collective identity will be positively related to (MOCBI/MOCBO) Guilt motives.

Self-serving traits. Machiavellianism and self-monitoring have been presented by researchers as untested dispositional antecedents of OCB (Bolino, 1999; Bolino et al., 2004; Niehoff, 2000; Schnake, 1991). Machiavellianism and self-monitoring are typically associated with impression management behaviors (Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Fandt & Ferris, 1990). However, researchers (e.g., Bolino, 1999) have suggested that many of the impression management behaviors are identical to those behaviors we would normally categorize as acts of organizational citizenship. Jones and Pittman (1982) conceptualized ingratiation, a form of impression management, as performing favors for others – a prime

example of OCB. To that end, it is possible that OCBs may be performed for self-serving reasons, suggesting relationships with self-serving traits like Machiavellianism and self-monitoring.

Machiavellianism describes people who hold cynical views about human nature and morality, and manipulate others to satisfy their self-interests (Christie & Geis, 1970). In an effort to assess Machiavellianism within the workplace context, Kessler and colleagues (2007) developed the Organizational Machiavellianism Scale (OMS), consisting of three subscales – maintaining power (i.e., beliefs focused on attaining and keeping power), sound management practices (i.e., beliefs regarding effective management tactics), and manipulative behaviors (i.e., beliefs centering around using deceit as a means to an end). For this study, the manipulative behaviors dimension was used to assess Machiavellianism because it resembled established conceptualizations of the Machiavellianism construct and was relevant to both leadership and non-leadership positions. Thus, individuals holding manipulative behavior beliefs may leverage OCB as a method for attaining desired outcomes.

Self-monitoring, the second self-serving trait posited to relate to OCB, is the ability to control one's expressive behavior (Snyder, 1974), such that high self-monitors are sensitive to their surroundings and tend to adapt their behaviors to fit the situation. In contrast, low self-monitors are less concerned with how they are perceived by others and tend to behave more consistently across situations. Since participation in OCBs is conducive to organizational functioning as well as individual success, it is likely that high self-monitors engage in OCBs in an effort to adapt and succeed within an organization.

Taken together, these self-serving personality traits were proposed to be associated with both self-enhancement and conservation OCB motives.

Self-Enhancement Motives:

Hypothesis 10: (a) Machiavellianism and (b) self-monitoring will be positively related to (MOCBI/MOCBO) Instrumental motives.

Hypothesis 11: (a) Machiavellianism and (b) self-monitoring will be positively related to (MOCBO) Achievement motives.

Conservation Motives:

Hypothesis 12: (a) Machiavellianism and (b) self-monitoring will be positively related to (MOCBI/MOCBO) Guilt motives.

Values. The GSMS motive dimensions were founded on Schwartz's (1992) set of universal values. Therefore, relationships are expected between values and OCB motives. It is reasonable to expect strong relationships between self-enhancement type OCB motives (i.e., Instrumental motives) and Schwartz's self-enhancement values (i.e., achievement, power, and hedonism). Individuals who value achievement, power, and hedonism are driven by extrinsic rewards. Therefore, it is more likely these individuals would utilize OCB for instrumental reasons, like pay or promotions. Similarly, Schwartz's self-transcendence values (i.e., universalism and benevolence) center on what is best for the group. Individuals holding these values are expected to place greater importance on self-transcendence OCB motives (i.e., Intimacy, Organizational Concern and Obligation, and Prosocial Values motives). Individuals high in universalism values strive for the protection of the welfare of all people, and therefore, would likely perform OCB based on the general concern for the group (i.e., Organizational Concern and

Obligation motive). Likewise, individuals high in benevolence values aim for the preservation and enhancement of individuals which one holds personal relationships with, suggesting participating in OCB to build and maintain close relationships with others (i.e., Intimacy motive). Lastly, Schwartz's conservation values (i.e., conformity, tradition, and security) where fear of failure is the main driver are expected to influence individuals performing OCB for Guilt motives. Avoiding reprimands by making up for past transgressions may stem from the need to perform within social expectations (conformity value). Therefore, it is expected that motives and values which share the same higher-order dimensions will be positively correlated with each other. The following hypotheses were proposed:

Self-Enhancement Motives:

Hypothesis 13: Self-enhancement values of (a) hedonism, (b) achievement, and (c) power will be positively related to (MOCBI/MOCBO) Instrumental motives.

Hypothesis 14: Self-enhancement values of (a) hedonism, (b) achievement, and (c) power will be positively related to (MOCBO) Achievement motives.

Self-Transcendence Motives:

Hypothesis 15: Self-transcendence values of (a) universalism and (b) benevolence will be positively related to (MOCBI/MOCBO) Prosocial Values motives.

Hypothesis 16: Self-transcendence values of (a) universalism and (b) benevolence will be positively related to (MOCBI) Intimacy motives.

Hypothesis 17: Self-transcendence values of (a) universalism and (b) benevolence (b) will be positively related to (MOCBI/MOCBO) Organizational Concern and Obligation motives.

Conservation Motives:

Hypothesis 18: Conservation values of (a) conformity, (b) tradition, and (c) security will be positively related to (MOCBI/MOCBO) Guilt motives.

Study 3 Method

Participants and Procedure. Participants were recruited from the StudyResponse Project (2004a), an online paid participant pool with over 55,000 participants located mainly in the US. StudyResponse participants were entered into a random drawing for dollar-valued incentives (e.g., gift certificates) in exchange for their participation (StudyResponse Project, 2004b). An initial recruitment email with a SurveyMonkey website link to the 129-item survey was sent to 800 individuals with 128 individuals responding with completed surveys, for a response rate of 16%. In addition to this paid participant pool, 191 participants were recruited through the undergraduate Psychology participant pool at a large university in the southeastern US. However, 101 of the total 319 cases were dropped for the following reasons (1) non-conscientious responding detected by two items (e.g., This item is for keying purposes only. Please select “Strongly Agree”) and/or (2) working less than 30 hours per week. Thus, the final sample consisted of 218 full-time employed participants. Of the final sample, 147 (67.4%) were female, the average age was 34.3 years ($sd = 12.0$), and the average job tenure was 5.0 years ($sd = 6.4$). Participants were from a variety of racial/ethnic backgrounds, including White non-Hispanic (79.8%), Black non-Hispanic (6.4%), Hispanic (8.3%), and Asian (3.2%). Table 13 provides the breakdown of represented industries within the sample.

Table 13. *Frequency of Represented Industries*

Industry	Frequency	Percent
Other	58	26.6
Retail	28	12.8
Service	23	10.6
Medical/SocialService	21	9.6
Financial Services	19	8.7
Education	18	8.3
Government	12	5.5
Hospitality	10	4.6
Technology	10	4.6
Manufacturing	9	4.1
Communications	6	2.8
Entertainment	4	1.8
Total	218	100

Study 3 Measures

Good Soldier Motives Scale (GSMS). Motives to participate in OCB were measured using the 46-item GSMS (23 items for MOCBI; 23 items for MOCBO) developed in Studies 1 and 2 (see Appendix E). Participants rated the relative importance of each motive based on a 6-point Likert response scale, ranging from 1 = not at all important to 6 = extremely important. Cronbach's alpha ranged from .88 to .97 for the MOCBI and MOCBO subscales. Moreover, CFA results revealed good fit with the original factor structure (see Table 14).

Table 14. *CFA Fit Statistics for the GSMS*

Model	χ^2	df	Normed χ^2	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
5-factor CFA ($N = 218$)							
MOCBI	506.35	220	2.30	.93	.92	.08	.06
MOCBO	749.07	220	3.40	.90	.90	.11	.07

Regulatory focus. Promotion and prevention focus were assessed using Johnson and Chang's (2008) 12-item work-based regulatory focus scale (see Appendix F). Johnson and Chang (2008) reported reliabilities of .85 (promotion focus) and .81

(prevention focus). Sample items include: “My goal at work is to fulfill my potential to the fullest in my job” (promotion focus) and “I am focused on failure experiences that occur while working” (prevention focus). Items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Cronbach’s alpha for the 6-item promotion subscale were .85 and .84 for the promotion and prevention focus subscales, respectively.

Self-identity. Self-identity was measured using subscales from Selenta and Lord’s (2005) Levels of Self-Concept Scale (see Appendix G). Participants responded to items using a 5-point Likert response scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Sample items include: “I have a strong need to know how I stand in comparison to coworkers” (individual identity), “I value friends who are caring, empathetic individuals” (relational identity), and “When I become involved in a group project, I do my best to ensure its success (collective identity).” Saboe and Johnson (2008) reported reliabilities of .85 (individual identity), .86 (relational identity), and .76 (collective identity). In the present study, the internal consistencies for the individual, relational, and collective subscales were .86, .81, .74, respectively.

Machiavellianism. Machiavellianism was assessed via Kessler et al.’s (2007) 10-item manipulative behaviors subscale ($\alpha = .81$) of the OMS (see Appendix H). Participants rated their extent of agreement on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Higher scores indicate higher levels of Machiavellianism. Sample items include “It is wise to keep friends close but enemies closer” and “An effective individual should make him/herself feared but not hated.” The internal consistency was .87.

Self-monitoring. Self-monitoring was measured using Snyder and Gangestad's (1986) 18-item revised version of the Self-monitoring Scale ($\alpha = .70$). As recommended by Briggs and Cheek (1986), participants rated each item on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree in lieu of the original True-False format (See Appendix I). Sample items include: "I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people," "I can only argue for ideas which I already believe," and "I would probably make a good actor." Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .75.

Values. Lindeman and Verkasalo (2005) 10-item scale, Short Schwartz's Value Survey (SSVS), was used to assess Schwartz's 10 universal values (See Appendix J). The SSVS provides a practical alternative to the longer 57-item SVS. There is supportive evidence for the reliability and validity of this shorter scale (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005). Respondents rated their level of importance for each value as a life-guiding principle on a 9-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 = opposed to my principles to 8 = of supreme importance.

Covariates. Information pertaining to participant gender and tenure were also collected (see Appendix C). Because research (e.g., Allen & Rush, 2001; Kidder, 2002) suggests differences in types of OCB engaged in as well as expectations of OCB across men and women, gender was included as a control variable. Likewise, as suggested by research on older and younger workers and OCB (e.g., Wagner & Rush, 2000), tenure may play a potential moderating role on OCB and thus was included as another control variable.

Study 3 Results

Descriptive statistics and inter-correlations among study 3 variables are presented in Table 15. Data were inspected to ensure no violation of regression assumptions of independence, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. In addition, using recommended procedures (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001), data were screened for outliers, which were defined as data points falling greater than three standard deviations from the mean. All data were retained.

Table 15. *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study 3 Variables*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
<i>OCB Motives</i>												
1. MOCBI Prosocial Values	(.88)											
2. MOCBI Intimacy	.59**	(.90)										
3. MOCBI Org Concern and Obligation	.33**	.40**	(.93)									
4. MOCBI Instrumental	.11	.26**	.34**	(.92)								
5. MOCBI Guilt	.08	.21**	.21**	.41**	(.95)							
6. MOCBO Prosocial Values	.57**	.47**	.56**	.27**	.21**	(.93)						
7. MOCBO Guilt	.15*	.21**	.22**	.32**	.75**	.20**	(.97)					
8. MOCBO Org Concern and Obligation	.35**	.32**	.82**	.16*	.18**	.53**	.23**	(.95)				
9. MOCBO Achievement	.29**	.34**	.53**	.32**	.16*	.42**	.15*	.63**	(.91)			
10. MOCBO Instrumental	.15*	.26**	.30**	.77**	.33**	.23**	.30**	.24**	.52**	(.90)		
<i>Regulatory Focus</i>												
11. Promotion Focused	.42**	.40**	.57**	.12	.17*	.48**	.18**	.63**	.59**	.17**	(.85)	
12. Prevention Focused	-.02	.02	-.02	.15*	.25**	-.08	.30**	-.01	.04	.20**	-.13	(.84)
<i>Self-identity</i>												
13. Individual identity	-.02	.06	.04	.48**	.31**	.04	.31**	-.07	.13	.47**	-.09	.42**
14. Relational identity	.43**	.29**	.11	.05	-.03	.26**	.04	.15*	.21**	.10	.34**	-.02
15. Collective identity	.33**	.21**	.41**	.06	.00	.35**	.04	.46**	.45**	.16*	.51**	-.17**
<i>Machiavellianism & Self-monitoring</i>												
16. Manipulative Behaviors	-.15*	-.06	.03	.35**	.31**	-.01	.26**	-.04	-.01	.30**	-.13*	.25**
17. Self-monitoring	-.09	.06	-.01	.30**	.23**	-.07	.23**	-.06	.09	.24**	.04	.17*
<i>Covariates</i>												
18. Gender	.14*	.04	-.04	.13	.10	.08	.13*	-.06	.01	.13	.01	.09
19. Tenure	-.05	-.09	-.08	-.28**	-.15*	-.07	-.03	-.05	-.17*	-.47**	-.14	-.10
Mean	4.74	4.51	4.03	3.92	2.23	4.45	2.34	4.23	4.44	4.22	4.09	2.54
SD	.83	.95	1.27	1.39	1.47	1.17	1.51	1.36	1.17	1.39	.69	.91

Note: Reliability estimates appear on the diagonal; N = 218; ** p<.01; *p<.05 (two-tailed)

(Table 15 continued)

Variable	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
<i>OCB Motives</i>							
1. MOCBI Prosocial Values							
2. MOCBI Intimacy							
3. MOCBI Org Concern and Obligation							
4. MOCBI Instrumental							
5. MOCBI Guilt							
6. MOCBO Prosocial Values							
7. MOCBO Guilt							
8. MOCBO Org Concern and Obligation							
9. MOCBO Achievement							
10. MOCBO Instrumental							
<i>Regulatory Focus</i>							
11. Promotion Focused							
12. Prevention Focused							
<i>Self-identity</i>							
13. Individual identity	(.86)						
14. Relational identity	-.01	(.81)					
15. Collective identity	-.07	.51**	(.74)				
<i>Machiavellianism & Self-monitoring</i>							
16. Manipulative Behaviors	.48**	.15*	-.02	(.87)			
17. Self-monitoring	.42**	.03	-.05	.19**	(.75)		
<i>Covariates</i>							
18. Gender	-.02	.17*	.04	-.11	.04	NA	
19. Tenure	-.20**	-.19**	-.18*	-.01	-.08	-.19*	NA
	Mean 3.14	4.45	4.25	2.46	2.87	NA	4.97
	SD .93	.52	.56	.76	.52	NA	6.44

Note: Reliability estimates appear on the diagonal; N = 218; ** p<.01; *p<.05 (two-tailed)

Regression Analyses. Hypotheses 1-18 were tested by performing a series of hierarchical regression analyses to identify the relationships between OCB motives and their proposed correlates. To do this, each of the OCB motives were regressed separately onto each set of OCB motive correlates (i.e., regulatory foci, self-identity, self-serving traits, and values). For each regression equation, covariates were entered in step 1, followed by the OCB motive correlates in step 2. Beta weights for each OCB motive correlate were examined to identify the direction of the relationship with the OCB motive dimension.

Regulatory Focus and OCB Motives. To test Hypotheses 1-3, Self-enhancement motives (i.e., Instrumental and Achievement) and Conservation motives (i.e., Guilt) were independently regressed onto the Regulatory focus subscales. Table 16 presents the Beta weights for promotion and prevention focus subscales. All three hypotheses were supported. Specifically, promotion focus displayed a positive relationship with MOCBI/MOCBO Instrumental motives (Hypothesis 1) and MOCBO Achievement motives (Hypotheses 2), while prevention focus demonstrated a positive relationship with MOCBI/MOCBO Guilt motives (Hypothesis 3).

Table 16. *Hierarchical Regression for Regulatory Focus Correlates and OCB Motives*

Predictors	Instrumental		Achievement	Guilt	
	MOCBI	MOCBO	MOCBO	MOCBI	MOCBO
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>				
Gender	.08	.04	-.03	.10	.17*
Tenure	-.27**	-.46**	-.18*	-.13	.00
F	8.45**	25.82**	2.89	3.07*	2.78
R-Square	.09	.22	.03	.03	.03
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>				
Gender	.07	.02	-.04	.08	.15*
Tenure	-.24**	-.42**	-.09	-.08	.06
	<i>Regulatory Focus</i>				
Promotion	.15*	.19**	.55**	.19**	.23**
Prevention	.11	.16*	.12	.26**	.28**
Δ F	2.91	6.49**	40.48**	9.36**	12.16**
Δ R-Square	.03	.05	.30	.09	.12
Full Model F	5.77**	16.93**	22.31	6.35**	7.64**
Full Model R-Square	.11	.27	.33	.12	.14

Note: $N = 186$. Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Self-identity and OCB Motives. Hypotheses 4-9 were tested by independently regressing the six OCB motives onto the self-identity subscales (see Table 17). In line with expectations, individual identity was positively related to MOCBI/MOCBO Instrumental motives (Hypothesis 4) and MOCBO Achievement motives (Hypothesis 5). Relational identity was positively related to MOCBI Prosocial Values motives (partially supporting Hypothesis 6) and MOCBI Intimacy motives (Hypothesis 7). However, relational identity failed to demonstrate positive relationships with MOCBI/MOCBO Organizational Concern and Obligation motives and MOCBI/MOCBO Guilt motives (failing to support Hypothesis 8a and 9a). Collective identity was positively related to MOCBI/MOCBO Organizational Concern and Obligation motives (Hypothesis 8b), but demonstrated no relationship with Guilt motives (failing to support Hypothesis 9b).

Table 17. Hierarchical Regression for Self-identity Correlates and OCB Motives

Predictors	Instrumental		Achievement	Prosocial Values		Intimacy	Organizational Concern and Obligation		Guilt	
	MOCBI	MOCBO	MOCBO	MOCBI	MOCBO	MOCBI	MOCBI	MOCBO	MOCBI	MOCBO
Step 1 <i>Demographic</i>										
Gender	.08	.04	-.03	.19*	.09	.06	-.04	-.05	.10	.17*
Tenure	-.27**	-.46**	-.18*	-.02	-.05	-.08	-.09	-.06	-.13	.00
F	8.45**	25.82**	2.89	3.48*	1.22	.98	.74	.44	3.07*	2.78
R-Square	.09	.22	.03	.04	.01	.01	.01	.01	.03	.03
Step 2 <i>Demographic</i>										
Gender	.10	.05	-.03	.10	.07	.00	-.02	-.04	.13	.19*
Tenure	-.18*	-.37**	-.08	.06	.02	-.01	-.02	.00	-.08	.08
<i>Self-Identity</i>										
Individual	.41**	.34**	.16*	-.07	.04	.06	.07	-.01	.29**	.31**
Relational	-.05	-.03	-.05	.35**	.05	.24**	-.16*	-.12	-.08	-.02
Collective	-.08	.18**	.45**	.21**	.31**	.08	.47**	.51**	.01	.07
Δ F	13.00**	12.46**	15.29**	18.91**	7.71**	5.20**	12.90**	15.78**	5.95**	6.27**
Δ R-Square	.16	.13	.20	.23	.11	.08	.18	.21	.09	.09
Full Model F	11.85**	19.74**	10.60**	13.15**	5.17**	3.54**	8.09**	9.69**	4.90**	4.97**
Full Model R-Square	.25	.35	.23	.27	.13	.09	.18	.21	.12	.12

Note: $N = 186$. Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Self-serving Traits and OCB Motives. To test Hypotheses 10-12, Self-enhancement motives (i.e., Instrumental and Achievement) and Conservation motives (i.e., Guilt) were independently regressed onto the self-serving traits of Machiavellianism (manipulative behaviors) and self-monitoring (see Table 18). Findings demonstrated support for Hypothesis 10 and 12. Specifically, Machiavellianism (Hypothesis 10a) and self-monitoring (Hypothesis 10b) were positively related to MOCBI/MOCBO Instrumental motives. Similarly, Machiavellianism (Hypothesis 12a) and self-monitoring (Hypothesis 12b) were positively related to MOCBI/MOCBO Guilt motives. There were no significant relationships of Machiavellianism or self-monitoring with MOCBO Achievement motives, failing to support Hypothesis 11.

Table 18. *Hierarchical Regression for Self-serving Traits and OCB Motives*

Predictors	Instrumental		Achievement	Guilt	
	MOCBI	MOCBO	MOCBO	MOCBI	MOCBO
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>				
Gender	.08	.04	-.03	.10	.17*
Tenure	-.27**	-.46**	-.18*	-.13	.00
F	8.45**	25.82**	2.89	3.07*	2.78
R-Square	.09	.22	.03	.03	.03
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>				
Gender	.12	.07	-.03	.15*	.21**
Tenure	-.24**	-.44**	-.17*	-.10	.03
<i>Self-Serving</i>					
Machiavellianism (Manipulative Behaviors)	.31**	.26**	.01	.31**	.25**
Self-monitoring	.21**	.15*	.12	.17*	.18*
Δ F	18.69**	13.40**	1.47	15.38**	11.30**
Δ R-Square	.16	.10	.02	.14	.11
Full Model F	14.39**	21.36**	2.19	9.46**	7.20**
Full Model R-Square	.24	.32	.05	.17	.14

Note: $N = 186$. Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Values and OCB Motives. OCB motives were independently regressed onto the four sets of higher-order dimensions of Schwartz's universal values to test Hypothesis 13-18 (see Tables 19-21). Hypotheses 13 and 14 predicted positive relationships between self-enhancement values and self-enhancement motives (i.e., Instrumental and Achievement). Findings demonstrated partial support for both hypotheses. In particular, hedonism was positively related to MOCBI Instrumental motives (Hypothesis 13a) and power was positively related to MOCBI and MOCBO Instrumental motives (Hypothesis 13c). Achievement was positively related to MOCBO Achievement motives (Hypothesis 14b). Hypotheses 15-17 tested the relationship between self-transcendence values and self-transcendence motives of Prosocial Values, Intimacy, and Organizational Concern and Obligation. Results indicated positive relationships between the self-transcendence value of benevolence with all self-transcendence motives, supporting Hypotheses 15b, 16b, and 17b. Lastly, Hypothesis 18 examined the relationship between conservation values and conservation motives. Analyses revealed weak support such that the only significant positive relationship existed between security and MOCBI Guilt motives.

Table 19. *Hierarchical Regression for Self-enhancement Values and OCB Motives*

Predictors		Instrumental		Achievement
		MOCBI	MOCBO	MOCBO
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>			
	Gender	.08	.04	-.02
	Tenure	-.27**	-.46**	-.18*
	F	8.57**	25.72**	2.90
	R-Square	.09	.22	.03
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>			
	Gender	.06	.02	-.04
	Tenure	-.14	-.35**	-.08
	<i>Self-enhancement Values</i>			
	Hedonism	.18*	.13	-.09
	Achievement	.14	.12	.29**
	Power	.21*	.22**	.11
	ΔF	12.94**	12.06**	6.70**
	ΔR -Square	.16	.13	.10
	Full Model F	11.87**	19.40**	5.29**
	Full Model R-Square	.25	.35	.13

Note: $N = 185$. Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 20. *Hierarchical Regression for Self-transcendence Values and OCB Motives*

Predictors		Prosocial Values		Intimacy	Organizational Concern and Obligation	
		MOCBI	MOCBO	MOCBI	MOCBI	MOCBO
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>					
	Gender	.19*	.09	.06	-.04	-.05
	Tenure	-.02	-.05	-.08	-.09	-.06
	F	3.48*	1.22	.98	.74	.44
	R-Square	.04	.01	.01	.01	.01
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>					
	Gender	.11	.02	.00	-.08	-.10
	Tenure	.03	-.02	-.04	-.07	-.03
	<i>Self-transcendence Values</i>					
	Universalism	.06	-.03	.08	.02	.04
	Benevolence	.37**	.39**	.22**	.20*	.23**
	ΔF	16.74**	14.54**	6.90**	3.79*	5.79**
	ΔR -Square	.15	.14	.07	.04	.06
	Full Model F	10.41**	7.97**	3.97**	2.27	3.13*
	Full Model R-Square	.19	.15	.08	.05	.07

Note: $N = 186$. Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 21. *Hierarchical Regression for Schwartz's Conservation Values and OCB Motives*

	Predictors	Guilt	
		MOCBI	MOCBO
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.11	.17*
	Tenure	-.13	.01
	F	3.22*	2.65
	R-Square	.03	.03
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.12	.18*
	Tenure	-.10	.02
	<i>Conservation Values</i>		
	Conformity	-.05	.05
	Tradition	-.01	-.05
	Security	.20*	.08
	Δ F	1.82	.55
	Δ R-Square	.03	.01
	Full Model F	2.40*	1.39
	Full Model R-Square	.06	.04

Note: $N = 185$. Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Study 3 Discussion

The goal of Study 3 was to establish the construct validity of the GSMS through the examination of relationships with OCB correlates of regulatory focus, self-identity, Machiavellianism, self-monitoring, and values. Moreover, to address the sample limitation of Study 1 and Study 2, participants in this study included full-time employees, enhancing the generalizability of results of the GSMS construct validation study.

Regulatory Focus and OCB Motives. Hypotheses relevant to regulatory focus and OCB motives (i.e., H1-H3) were supported. As expected, individuals with a strong promotion focus were more likely to engage in OCB for self-enhancement reasons (i.e.,

Instrumental and Achievement motives) due to their focus on advancement and goal attainment. Conversely, individuals with a strong prevention focus endorsed engaging in OCB for conservation reasons (i.e., Guilt motives) due to their need to avoid punishment or disappointing others.

Self-identity and OCB Motives. Hypotheses relevant to self-identity and OCB motives (i.e., H4-H9) demonstrated mixed support. As expected, individual identity was positively related to self-enhancement motives (i.e., Instrumental and Achievement). Participants possessing strong individual identities define themselves in comparison to others and focus on attainment of self-interests. Thus, these individuals are more likely to perform OCB for a positive recommendation or for career advancement. Individuals with strong relational identities are driven by the need to enhance the quality of their interpersonal relationships. In partial support of this, relational identity was positively related to two out of the three self-transcendence motives (i.e., Intimacy and Prosocial Values). Individuals with strong relational identities perform OCBs to build relationships and assist others. However, results failed to demonstrate a relationship between relational identity and Organizational Concern and Obligation motives. One explanation is that these motives focus on the success of the organization as a whole rather than the individual relationships within the organization, making it less likely for individuals with a strong relational identity to endorse. People with strong collective identities are concerned with the welfare of the group and define themselves based on their group membership. In accordance with this perspective, results demonstrated positive relationships between collective identity and MOCBI/MOCBO Organizational Concern and Obligation motives. Findings failed to support a relationship between both relational

and collective identities and the conservation motive of Guilt, posited as a socially-oriented emotion. Interestingly, individual identity demonstrated strong positive correlations with MOCBI/MOCBO Guilt motives. Perhaps, individuals performing OCB for guilt reasons are more self-focused and are driven by impression management reasons rather than a genuine concern for others.

Self-serving Traits and OCB Motives. Results displayed partial support for hypotheses testing relationships between self-serving traits and OCB motives (i.e., H10-H12). Positive relationships existed between self-serving traits (i.e., Machiavellianism and self-monitoring) and Instrumental and Guilt motives, respectively. However, findings failed to support relationships between self-serving traits and Achievement motives. In support of the view that behaviors representing OCB may be identical to those of impression management, it is expected that these self-serving traits will be associated with motives linked to presenting a favorable image to others. Individuals high in Machiavellianism and self-monitoring may use OCB as a means to guarantee a promotion or as a method of making up for past transgressions to sustain a positive perception. These individuals are also less likely to perform OCB for feelings of accomplishment (i.e., Achievement), an intrinsically oriented motivation.

Values and OCB Motives. Hypotheses 13-18 were partially supported. First, self-enhancement values (i.e., hedonism, achievement, and power) were expected to relate positively to self-enhancement motives (i.e., Instrumental and Achievement). Significant positive relationships existed between hedonism and MOCBI Instrumental motives, achievement and MOCBO Achievement motives, and power and MOCBI/MOCBO Instrumental motives. Individuals valuing hedonism or the pursuit of gratification for

oneself perform OCB for extrinsic rewards like promotions or recommendations. Likewise, individuals valuing power and control over others and resources are also motivated extrinsically and would exhibit OCB for similar reasons. Alternatively, those who value achievement seek personal success and would most likely perform OCB for personal accomplishments or career-related reasons. Second, self-transcendence values (i.e., universalism and benevolence) were expected to relate positively to self-transcendence motives (i.e., Prosocial Values, Intimacy, and Organizational Concern and Obligation). Positive relationships existed only between benevolence and all self-transcendence motives. One explanation is that benevolence is concerned with improving the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent contact with, such as an individual's coworkers, while universalism refers to understanding, appreciating, and protecting people and nature. The universalism value is perhaps too far removed from the workplace context and would likely not correlate with any work-related construct. Finally, conservation values (i.e., conformity, tradition, and security) were expected to relate positively to conservation motives (i.e., Guilt). Findings revealed no significant relationships between conservation values and Guilt motives. Conservation values are centered around avoidance of harm to others and maintenance of safety and harmony within relationships, values that tend to be other-focused. As mentioned above, Guilt motives may be closely tied with impression management, a more self-focused oriented motive, explaining the lack of relationship with conservation values.

The aim of Study 3 was to establish construct validity through the examination of relationships between OCB motive dimensions and proposed correlates. All in all, findings demonstrated relationships in the expected directions with minor exceptions. To

compliment the construct validation study, I tested the criterion validity of the GSMS in Study 4.

Chapter 4: Criterion Validation of the GSMS

Study 4 Background and Hypotheses

The purpose of Study 4 was to assess the criterion-related validity of the GSMS by looking at the relationships between OCB motives and OCB behaviors. Aside from establishing criterion-related validity, Study 4 identified the predictive ability of the GSMS incremental to previously established OCB personality and attitudinal antecedents as well as the predictive validity beyond that of Rioux and Penner's (2001) CMS.

Researchers (e.g., Bolino, 1999; Bolino et al., 2004) have suggested that individuals using OCB for self-enhancement reasons (e.g., Instrumental and Guilt) may knowingly engage in OCBs that are highly visible to others, especially to those who control rewards. Thus, Instrumental motives are likely related to OCBI (e.g., helping others who have heavy workloads). Additionally, based on findings from the construct validation, Guilt motives, found to be highly correlated to self-serving traits, may also be plausible reasons for engaging in OCBI. Indeed, research has found that individuals high in Machiavellianism, a self-serving personality trait, were more likely to engage in OCBI than OCBO due to the greater likelihood of reciprocity and immediate gains from a specific target (Becker & O'Hair, 2007). Conversely, self-transcendence motives (e.g., Organizational Concern and Obligation), which are concerned with group welfare, are likely related to OCBO (e.g., defending the organization if others criticize it). Individuals participating in OCB for self-transcendence reasons perceive OCBs in the traditional

sense, as an altruistic act aimed at helping the organization as a whole. In line with this reasoning, research has found that individuals with Organizational Concern motives participate in greater OCBOs (Finkelstein, 2006; Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Rioux, 1998; Rioux & Penner, 2001). Because the GSMS differentiates between motives for OCBI and motives for OCBO, these unique subscales are expected to relate to their respective OCBs. Specific dimensional subscale predictions for the GSMS with OCBI and OCBO were exploratory. The following hypotheses were posited:

Hypothesis 19: MOCBI will be positively related to OCBI.

Hypothesis 20: MOCBO will be positively related to OCBO.

Meta-analytic findings suggest that individuals high in conscientiousness and agreeableness are more likely to engage in OCB (e.g., Borman et al., 2001; Dalal, 2005; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Conscientious individuals are hard working, reliable, and driven by success. Given that conscientious individuals perform above and beyond at their jobs, they are expected to engage in greater amounts of OCBs. Similarly, agreeable individuals are motivated to maintain positive relationships with others, and, as a result, would more likely participate in helping behaviors that cultivate relationships with their colleagues. Aside from personality, organizational attitudes have been found to predict OCB performance. More specifically, job satisfaction, affective commitment, justice, and organizational support are important antecedents (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Dalal, 2005; O'Brien & Allen, in press; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Individuals with positive attitudes and feelings towards their jobs and their organizations are more likely to reciprocate and give back to their organizations through OCB. Recent research has started examining motives to perform OCBs as an additional

antecedent of OCB. For example, Rioux and Penner (2001) found that two of the three CMS motives (i.e., Organizational Concern and Prosocial Values) predicted OCB beyond attitudinal (i.e., distributive and procedural justice) and personality variables (i.e., positive mood, other-oriented empathy, and helpfulness). I therefore tested whether the GSMS motive dimensions predicted OCB above and beyond personality and attitudinal antecedents.

Hypothesis 21: MOCBI motives will account for unique variance in OCBI incremental to the personality traits of conscientiousness and agreeableness.

Hypothesis 22: MOCBO motives will account for unique variance in OCBO incremental to the personality traits of conscientiousness and agreeableness.

Hypothesis 23: MOCBI motives will account for unique variance in OCBI incremental to the work-related attitudes of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceived organizational justice, and perceived organizational support.

Hypothesis 24: MOCBO motives will account for unique variance in OCBO incremental to the work-related attitudes of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceived organizational justice, and perceived organizational support.

The realization that OCB may be performed for self-serving, non-altruistic reasons has implications for the impact of these motives on OCB, in particular, the quality of OCB. Although not empirically tested, Bolino and his colleagues have suggested that OCB performed for self-serving reasons may be performed less consistently and with less effort (Bolino, 1999; Bolino, Turnley, & Niehoff, 2004).

Individuals with self-serving intentions place themselves as a priority over others and the organization, which may lessen the *effectiveness* of OCB. For example, an individual performing OCB for impression management reasons may only participate in behaviors guaranteed to be noticed and receive credit. Thus, the present study assessed not only frequency but also effectiveness of OCB in order to test this assumption. It was expected that self-enhancement motives will produce less effective OCBs than self-transcendence motives. Therefore:

Hypothesis 25: MOCBI motives will account for significant variance in OCBI effectiveness ratings.

Hypothesis 26: Compared to MOCBI self-enhancement motives (i.e., Instrumental) and conservation motives (i.e., Guilt), MOCBI self-transcendence motives (i.e., Prosocial Values, Organizational Concern and Obligation, and Intimacy) will contribute more to the prediction of OCBI effectiveness ratings.

Hypothesis 27: MOCBO motives will account for significant variance in OCBO effectiveness ratings.

Hypothesis 28: Compared to MOCBO self-enhancement motives (i.e., Instrumental and Achievement) and conservation motives (i.e., Guilt), MOCBO self-transcendence motives (i.e., Prosocial Values and Organizational Concern and Obligation) will contribute more to the prediction of OCBO effectiveness ratings.

Rioux and Penner's CMS captures three motives to perform OCB (i.e., Organizational Concern, Prosocial Values, and Impression Management). The GSMS in the present study separated motives for OCBI and OCBO in addition to identifying

additional motive dimensions. (e.g., Intimacy, Guilt, Achievement). Therefore, it was expected that the GSMS will account for unique variance above that of the CMS.

Hypothesis 29: (a) The MOCBI subscale will account for unique variance in OCBI incremental to the CMS. (b) The MOCBO subscale will account for unique variance in OCBO incremental to the CMS.

Study 4 Method

Participants and Procedure. Similar to Study 3, participants for the criterion-related validation study were recruited from the StudyResponse Project (2004a). Data were collected via two surveys. The first survey consisted of 152 items assessing OCB antecedents (i.e., OCB motives, personality, and attitudes) as well as demographic variables. The second survey measured the criterion of interest – OCBI and OCBO using 14 items from existing OCB measures. In addition to completing both surveys, participants were asked to forward the second survey to their supervisor. Research suggests differences in OCB ratings when comparing self versus others ratings of OCB (Allen, Barnard, Rush, & Russell, 2000). Thus, obtaining multi-source OCB data was critical. StudyResponse participants with complete data (i.e., self-report of both surveys and manager OCB data) were paid for their participation. After pre-screening 17,159 people in the StudyResponse database, a recruitment email with a SurveyMonkey website link to the 152-item survey was sent to 846 participants who met the study's criteria. Those StudyResponse participants who completed the first survey were then instructed to complete the second survey and were also asked to forward the link on to their supervisor. Of the 846 individuals, 485 completed both surveys for a 57.3% response rate. However, 308 participants were deleted due to blank data and haphazard responding

as indicated by two items (e.g., This item is for keying purposes only. Please select “Not at all important”). From the StudyResponse participant pool, 177 had complete self-data, while only 60 of the 177 had both complete self-data as well as manager OCB data. In addition to this paid participant pool, 108 additional participants were recruited through two large southeastern universities. Students were offered extra credit for their participation. I received complete data (i.e., self and supervisor OCB ratings) from 47 participants, for a response rate of 43.5% for this pool. In sum, the final sample consisted of 224 participants with 107 individuals containing self and supervisor data. Of the final 224 participants, 167 (74.6%) were female, 189 (84.4%) worked full time, and 173 (77.2%) were in non-managerial positions. Participants were from a variety of racial/ethnic backgrounds, including White non-Hispanic (78.6%), Black non-Hispanic (8%), Hispanic (8.9%), Asian (3.6%), and other (.9%). Table 22 provides the breakdown for the age, industry, and tenure for the participant sample. Of the final supervisor sample, 62 (57.9%) were male and have known the participant for an average of 3.5 years ($sd = 2.9$). Racial/ethnic backgrounds for supervisors included White non-Hispanic (83.2%), Black non-Hispanic (5.6%), Hispanic (4.7%), Asian (5.6%), and other (.9%).

Table 22. *Frequency of Participant Demographic Variables*

Demographic Variable	Frequency	Percent
Age (in years)		
18 to 21	15	6.7
22 to 25	32	14.3
26 to 29	32	14.3
30 to 39	62	27.7
40 to 49	48	21.4
50 to 59	31	13.8
60 or older	4	1.8
Industry		
Other	57	25.45
Service	27	12.05
Government	20	8.93
Retail	20	8.93
Education	19	8.48
Hospitality	18	8.04
Medical/Social Services	18	8.04
Manufacturing	16	7.14
Financial Services	13	5.80
Technology	8	3.57
Entertainment	4	1.79
Communications	3	1.34
Military	1	0.45
Tenure (in years)		
less than 1	36	16.1
1 to 2	60	26.8
3 to 5	56	25.0
6 to 10	37	16.5
11 or more	35	15.6
Total	224	100

Study 4 Measures

Good Soldier Motives Scale (GSMS). OCB motives were assessed using the 46-item GSMS developed in Phase I and Rioux and Penner's (2001) 30-item Citizenship Motives Scale (CMS; see Appendix K). Participants rated their level of importance on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = not at all important to 6 = extremely important). For the GSMS MOCBI subscale, Cronbach's alpha ranged from .90 to .96 over the five dimensions. For

the GSMS MOCBO subscale, Cronbach’s alpha ranged from .91 to .97 over the five dimensions. See Table 24 for specific reliabilities for the GSMS subscales. Rioux and Penner (2001) reported reliabilities of .93 (Organizational Concern), .88 (Prosocial Values), and .98 (impression management) for their CMS. In the present study, Cronbach’s alpha for the CMS subscales were .94 for Prosocial Values, .95 for Organizational Concern, and .92 for impression management. Additionally, CFA analyses revealed good fit for the MOCBI subscale and acceptable fit for the MOCBO subscale (see Table 23).

Table 23. *CFA Fit Statistics for the GSMS*

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	Normed χ^2	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
5-factor CFA (<i>N</i> = 224)							
MOCBI	507.07	220	2.30	.93	.93	.08	.06
MOCBO	701.68	220	3.19	.92	.90	.10	.06

Agreeableness. Agreeableness was measured using 10 items pulled from the Big Five Inventory of Goldberg’s (1999) International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) (see Appendix L). Participants rated how often each item, such as “I have a good word for everyone,” describes them on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = never to 6 = always). Cronbach’s alpha was .81 in the present study.

Conscientiousness. Conscientiousness was measured using 10 items also pulled from Goldberg’s (1999) IPIP (see Appendix M). Sample items include “I am always prepared” and “I pay attention to details.” Participants rated how often each item describes them on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = never to 6 = always). Cronbach’s alpha was .80 in the present study.

Organizational commitment. Affective (6 items) and continuance (6 items) commitment was measured using Meyer and Allen's (1997) revised measure (see Appendix N). Sample items include "I really feel as if my organization's problems are my own" (affective commitment) and "It would be hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to" (continuance commitment). Participants rated their extent of agreement for each statement on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree). Meyer and Allen (1997) reported reliabilities of .85 (affective commitment) and .79 (continuance commitment). Cronbach's alpha was .86 (affective commitment) and .81 (continuance commitment) for this study.

Perceived organizational justice. Distributive (4 items), procedural (7 items) and interpersonal (4 items) justice were assessed using Colquitt's (2001) organizational justice scale with reported reliabilities of .92 (distributive), .78 (procedural), and .79 (interpersonal) (see Appendix O). Participants rated their extent of agreement for each statement on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree) on items such as, "My pay reflects the effort I put into my work" (distributive), "Decisions at my organization have been consistent" (procedural), and "My supervisor treats me in a polite manner" (interpersonal). In the present study, Cronbach's alpha was .94 (distributive), .90 (procedural), and .93 (interpersonal) in the present study.

Perceived organizational support. POS was measured using Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa's (1986) 8-item measure, the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support, with a reported reliability of .97 (SPOS; see Appendix P). Using a 6-point Likert scale, participants rated their extent of agreement for items, such as "My organization shows concern for me." Cronbach's alpha in the present study was .95.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh's (1979) 3-item job satisfaction subscale from their Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (see Appendix Q). In a meta-analytic investigation, Bowling and Hammond (2008) reported a weighted reliability of .84. Participants rated items, such as "In general, I like working here" on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha was .85 in the present study.

OCB. OCB frequency and effectiveness measures (see Appendix R) were developed for the study by pulling from existing OCB measures (i.e., Podsakoff et al., 1990; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Participants and supervisors reported OCB on two response scales, frequency (1 = never or almost never to 5 = always or almost always) and effectiveness (1 = not at all effective to 5 = extremely effective). For participants, Cronbach's alpha was .80 (OCBI frequency), .85 (OCBI effectiveness), .80 (OCBO frequency), and .81 (OCBO effectiveness). For supervisors, Cronbach's alpha was .83 (OCBI frequency), .89 (OCBI effectiveness), .85 (OCBO frequency), and .88 (OCBO effectiveness).

Covariates. Gender and tenure were collected (see Appendix C) and were included as control variables in the analyses. Kidder and Parks (2001) hypothesized the existence of gender-role stereotypes influencing the expectations of OCB. When females perform OCB, it may go unnoticed due to the preconceived notion that OCBs are expected from women, who are stereotyped to possess a concern for others and an interpersonal orientation (Kidder & Parks, 2001). Therefore, gender was included as a control variable. Similarly, Wagner and Rush (2000) posited that early career employees

may be driven by higher needs for achievement, while more seasoned employees are driven by greater needs for affiliation, suggesting various motivations for performing OCB as well as potential differences in the types of OCBs performed. Because tenure may play a potential moderating role on OCB, it was included as another control variable.

Study 4 Results

Descriptive statistics and inter-correlations among Study 4 variables are presented in Table 24. Similar to study 3, regression assumptions of independence, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were evaluated. Data were also screened for outliers, which were defined as data points falling greater than three standard deviations from the mean. All data were retained.

Table 24. *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study 4 Variables*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
<i>OCB Motives</i>												
1. MOCBI	(.92)											
2. MOCBI Prosocial Values	.64**	(.91)										
3. MOCBI Intimacy	.67**	.64**	(.90)									
4. MOCBI Org Concern and Obligation	.74**	.46**	.48**	(.94)								
5. MOCBI Instrumental	.70**	.15*	.24**	.39**	(.92)							
6. MOCBI Guilt	.74**	.26**	.25**	.32**	.49**	(.96)						
7. MOCBO	.85**	.57**	.58**	.75**	.59**	.50**	(.94)					
8. MOCBO Prosocial Values	.64**	.69**	.63**	.59**	.23**	.27**	.70**	(.93)				
9. MOCBO Guilt	.49**	.35**	.39**	.34**	.23**	.42**	.62**	.38**	(.97)			
10. MOCBO Org Concern and Obligation	.69**	.50**	.49**	.89**	.32**	.29**	.78**	.59**	.29**	(.95)		
11. MOCBO Achievement	.62**	.38**	.42**	.58**	.48**	.33**	.79**	.45**	.20**	.65**	(.91)	
12. MOCBO Instrumental	.59**	.18**	.20**	.34**	.79**	.42**	.67**	.19**	.20**	.34**	.62**	(.94)
13. CMS	.81**	.67**	.68**	.71**	.51**	.42**	.78**	.70**	.34**	.69**	.62**	.43**
14. CMS Org Concern	.65**	.54**	.55**	.77**	.31**	.25**	.65**	.61**	.20**	.76**	.58**	.26**
15. CMS Prosocial Values	.61**	.79**	.72**	.55**	.15*	.23**	.56**	.72**	.32**	.54**	.40**	.08
16. CMS Instrumental	.69**	.34**	.42**	.41**	.72**	.51**	.66**	.39**	.33**	.39**	.51**	.66**
<i>OCB Antecedents</i>												
17. Agreeableness	.15*	.46**	.28**	.25**	-.13	-.10	.16*	.38**	.03	.28**	.07	-.12
18. Conscientiousness	.07	.17**	.17*	.09	-.02	-.08	.07	.14*	-.10	.13*	.16*	-.01
19. Affective Commitment	.35**	.33*	.33**	.53**	.10	.03	.41**	.39**	.12	.55**	.37**	.12
20. Continuance Commitment	.23**	.10	.15*	.21**	.18**	.13*	.27**	.16*	.18**	.20**	.19**	.21**
21. Distributive Justice	.21**	.15*	.23**	.21**	.13	.06	.22**	.21**	.11	.24**	.21**	.05
22. Procedural Justice	.32**	.23**	.29**	.46**	.12	.06	.34**	.35**	.08	.48**	.29**	.10
23. Interpersonal Justice	.03	.04	.01	.11	-.01	-.04	.05	.11	-.12	.17**	.11	-.03
24. Perceived Org Support	.35**	.26**	.24**	.45**	.19**	.13*	.36**	.30**	.01	.49**	.35**	.19**
25. Job Satisfaction	.08	.14*	.14*	.21**	-.02	-.11	.14*	.13	.05	.24**	.16*	-.03
<i>OCB</i>												
26. OCBI Frequency (self)	.20**	.35**	.31**	.31**	-.11	-.01	.19**	.32**	.12	.30**	.11	-.11
27. OCBI Effectiveness (self)	.15*	.25**	.26**	.22**	-.07	-.02	.12	.24**	.07	.18**	.08	-.10
28. OCBO Frequency (self)	.19**	.28**	.22**	.34**	-.02	-.03	.25**	.33**	.10	.31**	.25**	-.01
29. OCBO Effectiveness (self)	.19**	.22**	.24**	.25**	.02	.03	.16*	.24**	.06	.20**	.15*	-.04
30. OCBI Frequency (supervisor)	.08	.21*	.15	.16	-.09	-.09	.10	.13	.01	.18	.07	-.02
31. OCBI Effectiveness (supervisor)	-.04	.17	.11	.05	-.15	-.20*	-.02	.09	-.15	.14	.05	-.13
32. OCBO Frequency (supervisor)	.11	.26**	.19*	.15	-.05	-.09	.14	.15	-.03	.19	.13	.07
33. OCBO Effectiveness (supervisor)	.01	.19	.18	.01	-.08	-.16	.04	.12	-.12	.09	.08	-.01
<i>Covariates</i>												
34. Gender	.09	.14*	.11	.01	.04	.06	.10	.15*	.08	.02	.09	.02
35. Tenure	-.03	.01	-.02	.14*	-.12	-.09	-.01	.04	.05	.08	-.01	-.17**
Mean	3.99	4.88	4.58	4.13	4.01	2.38	4.19	4.51	3.57	4.18	4.61	4.10
SD	0.86	0.90	0.99	1.28	1.34	1.63	0.95	1.14	1.61	1.28	1.17	1.48

Note: Reliability estimates appear on the diagonal; N = 224 and N = 107 for supervisor correlations; ** p<.01; *p<.05 (two-tailed)

Table 24. *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study 4 Variables (continued)*

Variable	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
<i>OCB Motives</i>												
1. MOCBI												
2. MOCBI Prosocial Values												
3. MOCBI Intimacy												
4. MOCBI Org Concern and Obligation												
5. MOCBI Instrumental												
6. MOCBI Guilt												
7. MOCBO												
8. MOCBO Prosocial Values												
9. MOCBO Guilt												
10. MOCBO Org Concern and Obligation												
11. MOCBO Achievement												
12. MOCBO Instrumental												
13. CMS	(.95)											
14. CMS Org Concern	.86**	(.94)										
15. CMS Prosocial Values	.82**	.68**	(.95)									
16. CMS Instrumental	.76**	.42**	.37**	(.92)								
<i>OCB Antecedents</i>												
17. Agreeableness	.33**	.37**	.53**	-.02	(.81)							
18. Conscientiousness	.14	.21**	.17*	-.02	.30**	(.80)						
19. Affective Commitment	.46**	.68**	.37**	.09	.35**	.18**	(.86)					
20. Continuance Commitment	.20**	.18*	.12	.18*	-.14*	-.11	.18**	(.81)				
21. Distributive Justice	.33**	.39**	.23**	.20**	.09	-.04	.40**	.07	(.94)			
22. Procedural Justice	.44**	.61**	.31**	.15*	.29**	.12	.63**	.02	.49**	(.90)		
23. Interpersonal Justice	.13	.29**	.05	-.01	.11	.27**	.38**	.08	.20**	.46**	(.93)	
24. Perceived Org Support	.48**	.68**	.32**	.17*	.29**	.13*	.65**	-.03	.38**	.75**	.47**	(.95)
25. Job Satisfaction	.21**	.42**	.21**	-.09	.31**	.14*	.64**	.08	.39**	.45**	.40**	.56**
<i>OCB</i>												
26. OCBI Frequency (self)	.30**	.37**	.41**	-.01	.39**	.25**	.29**	.01	.18**	.29**	.16*	.24**
27. OCBI Effectiveness (self)	.24**	.26**	.32**	.05	.22**	.15*	.14*	.08	.16*	.19**	.18**	.17*
28. OCBO Frequency (self)	.28**	.42**	.32**	-.02	.31**	.26**	.34**	.08	.17*	.35**	.24**	.32**
29. OCBO Effectiveness (self)	.24**	.29**	.28**	.04	.21**	.20**	.16*	.06	.19**	.24**	.34**	.25**
30. OCBI Frequency (supervisor)	.14	.19	.28*	-.09	.14	.06	.13	-.01	.05	.14	.06	.14
31. OCBI Effectiveness (supervisor)	.06	.13	.20	-.16	.23*	.13	.14	-.04	.10	.16	.16	.21*
32. OCBO Frequency (supervisor)	.17	.25*	.27*	-.07	.20*	.10	.12	.01	-.02	.12	.11	.13
33. OCBO Effectiveness (supervisor)	.09	.13	.16	-.06	.19*	.19*	.12	-.08	.01	.20*	.25**	.23*
<i>Covariates</i>												
34. Gender	.07	.01	.12	.04	.06	.14*	-.04	-.02	-.02	-.06	-.07	-.08
35. Tenure	-.02	.09	.00	-.13	.04	-.09	.34**	.16*	.16*	.08	-.05	-.01
Mean	4.32	4.43	4.67	3.86	4.42	4.54	3.71	3.41	2.98	3.28	4.25	3.58
SD	0.88	1.10	0.96	1.20	0.60	0.56	0.98	0.91	1.23	0.93	0.89	1.01

Note: Reliability estimates appear on the diagonal; N = 224 and N = 107 for supervisor correlations; ** p<.01; *p<.05 (two-tailed)

Table 24. *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study 4 Variables*

Variable	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35
<i>OCB Motives</i>											
1. MOCBI											
2. MOCBI Prosocial Values											
3. MOCBI Intimacy											
4. MOCBI Org Concern and Obligation											
5. MOCBI Instrumental											
6. MOCBI Guilt											
7. MOCBO											
8. MOCBO Prosocial Values											
9. MOCBO Guilt											
10. MOCBO Org Concern and Obligation											
11. MOCBO Achievement											
12. MOCBO Instrumental											
13. CMS											
14. CMS Org Concern											
15. CMS Prosocial Values											
16. CMS Instrumental											
<i>OCB Antecedents</i>											
17. Agreeableness											
18. Conscientiousness											
19. Affective Commitment											
20. Continuance Commitment											
21. Distributive Justice											
22. Procedural Justice											
23. Interpersonal Justice											
24. Perceived Org Support											
25. Job Satisfaction	(.85)										
<i>OCB</i>											
26. OCBI Frequency (self)	.15*	(.80)									
27. OCBI Effectiveness (self)	.08	.67**	(.85)								
28. OCBO Frequency (self)	.23**	.63**	.50**	(.80)							
29. OCBO Effectiveness (self)	.14*	.44**	.71**	.63**	(.81)						
30. OCBI Frequency (supervisor)	.05	.50**	.39**	.34**	.40**	(.83)					
31. OCBI Effectiveness (supervisor)	.14	.44**	.48**	.44**	.52**	.83**	(.89)				
32. OCBO Frequency (supervisor)	.01	.33**	.34**	.44**	.47**	.73**	.74**	(.85)			
33. OCBO Effectiveness (supervisor)	.10	.29**	.39**	.40**	.57**	.69**	.82**	.87**	(.88)		
<i>Covariates</i>											
34. Gender	-.05	.09	.06	-.04	.06	.04	.12	.04	.10	-	
35. Tenure	.16*	.07	-.03	.10	-.07	.03	-.05	.02	-.08	-.11	-
Mean	4.26	4.10	4.12	4.15	4.04	4.28	4.19	4.28	4.18	1.75	2.89
SD	1.02	0.64	0.69	0.64	0.68	0.62	0.71	0.63	0.72	0.44	1.30

Note: Reliability estimates appear on the diagonal; N = 224 and N = 107 for supervisor correlations; ** p<.01; *p<.05 (two-tailed)

Regression Analyses. Hypotheses 19-20 were tested by performing a series of hierarchical regression analyses. Specifically, OCB frequency was regressed on the covariates (i.e., gender and tenure) at step 1, followed by GSMS motives at step 2. Hypotheses 21-24 were also tested with hierarchical regression analyses by regressing OCB frequency on the covariates at step 1, personality/attitudinal variables at step 2, and GSMS motives at step 3. To test Hypotheses 25 and 27, OCB effectiveness was regressed on the covariates at step 1, followed by GSMS motives at step 2. Hypotheses 26 and 28 were tested using a relative weights analysis to identify the relative impact for each OCB motive on OCB. Lastly, Hypothesis 29 was tested by performing a hierarchical regression in two different orders. The first order involved regressing OCB frequency on the covariates at step 1, CMS at step 2, and GSMS at step 3 to identify the incremental variance of the GSMS. The second order regressed OCB frequency on the covariates at step 1, the GSMS at step 2, and the CMS at step 3 to identify the incremental variance of the CMS.

GSMS Motives and OCB. Hypotheses 19 posited a positive relationship between MOCBI and OCBI and was supported for self-reported OCBI but not supervisor-reported OCBI (see Table 25). After separating MOCBI into its respective dimensions, results revealed significant beta weights for the dimensions of Prosocial Values ($\beta = .18, p < .05$), Organizational Concern and Obligation ($\beta = .29; p < .01$) and Instrumental ($\beta = -.25; p < .01$) motives when predicting self-reported OCBI (see Table 26). Likewise, MOCBO was positively related to self-reported OCBO (see Table 27), supporting Hypothesis 20. When examining the predictability of specific MOCBO dimensions, the Prosocial Values ($\beta = .22, p < .01$), Achievement ($\beta = .21, p < .05$), and Instrumental ($\beta =$

-.21, $p < .05$) motives accounted for significant variance in self-reported OCBO (see Table 28).

Table 25. *Hierarchical Regression for OCBI on the MOCBI Subscale*

Predictors		OCBI Frequency	
		Self	Supervisor
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.09	.05
	Tenure	.08	.04
	F	1.49	.17
	R-Square	.01	.00
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.08	.04
	Tenure	.08	.03
	MOCBI Subscale	.20**	.08
	ΔF	8.76**	.57
	ΔR -Square	.04	.01
	Full Model F	3.95	.30
	Full Model R-Square	.05	.01

Note: $N = 224$ (self), $N = 107$ (supervisor) . Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 26. *Hierarchical Regression for OCBI on MOCBI Subscale Dimensions*

Predictors	OCBI Frequency	
	Self	Supervisor
Step 1		
<i>Demographic</i>		
Gender	.09	.05
Tenure	.08	.04
F	1.49	.17
R-Square	.01	.00
Step 2		
<i>Demographic</i>		
Gender	.06	.06
Tenure	.00	-.01
<i>MOCBI</i>		
Prosocial Values	.18*	.13
Intimacy	.13	.04
Org Concern and Obligation	.29**	.15
Instrumental	-.25**	-.11
Guilt	-.06	-.10
Δ F	11.91**	1.62
Δ R-Square	.21	.08
Full Model F	9.04**	1.21
Full Model R-Square	.23	.08

Note: $N = 224$ (self), $N = 107$ (supervisor). Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered.
 * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 27. Hierarchical Regression for OCBO on the MOCBO Subscale

Predictors		OCBO Frequency	
		Self	Supervisor
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	-.03	.04
	Tenure	.09	.03
	F	1.14	.11
	R-Square	.01	.00
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	-.05	.03
	Tenure	.09	.02
	MOCBO Subscale	.26**	.13
	ΔF	16.02**	1.76
	ΔR -Square	.07	.02
	Full Model F	6.15**	.66
	Full Model R-Square	.08	.02

Note: $N = 224$ (self), $N = 107$ (supervisor) . Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered.
 * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 28. *Hierarchical Regression for OCBO on MOCBO Subscale Dimensions*

	Predictors	OCBO Frequency	
		Self	Supervisor
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	-.03	.04
	Tenure	.09	.03
	F	1.14	.11
	R-Square	.01	.00
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	-.09	.04
	Tenure	.04	.02
	<i>MOCBO</i>		
	Prosocial Values	.22**	.07
	Guilt	-.01	-.10
	Org Concern and Obligation	.11	.18
	Achievement	.21*	-.04
	Instrumental	-.21*	.05
	Δ F	8.00**	.96
	Δ R-Square	.16	.05
	Full Model F	6.09**	.72
	Full Model R-Square	.17	.05

Note: $N = 224$ (self), $N = 107$ (supervisor). Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Relative Importance of Personality, Attitudes, and Motives for Predicting OCB.

Hypothesis 21 predicted that MOCBI motives would account for incremental variance over personality and was supported for self-reported OCBI (see Table 29). In particular, MOCBI Organizational Concern and Obligation ($\beta = .25, p < .01$) and Instrumental ($\beta = -.22, p < .01$) motives were predictive of self-reported OCBI. Hypothesis 22 posited that MOCBO motives would account for unique variance above and beyond personality and was also supported for self-reported OCBO (see Table 30). MOCBO Achievement ($\beta = .20, p < .05$) was predictive of OCBO beyond personality variables of agreeableness and

conscientiousness. For self-reported OCBI, MOCBI Prosocial Values ($\beta = .18, p < .05$), Organizational Concern and Obligation ($\beta = .23, p < .05$), and Instrumental ($\beta = -.25, p < .01$) motives accounted for incremental variance above and beyond attitudinal variables of organizational commitment, organizational justice, job satisfaction, and perceived organizational support, demonstrating support for Hypothesis 23 (see Table 31). Hypothesis 24 was also supported for self-reported OCBO, such that MOCBO Prosocial Values ($\beta = .18, p < .05$), Achievement ($\beta = .21, p < .05$), and Instrumental ($\beta = -.20, p < .05$) motives accounted for incremental variance beyond that of attitudinal OCB antecedents (see Table 32).

Table 29. Hierarchical Regression for OCBI on Personality and MOCBI Subscale Dimensions

	Predictors	OCBI Frequency	
		Self	Supervisor
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.09	.05
	Tenure	.08	.04
	F	1.49	.17
	R-Square	.01	.00
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.05	.05
	Tenure	.07	.02
	<i>Personality</i>		
	Agreeableness	.34**	.14
	Conscientiousness	.15*	.00
	Δ F	22.60**	1.00
	Δ R-Square	.17	.02
Step 3	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.04	.07
	Tenure	.02	-.02
	<i>Personality</i>		
	Agreeableness	.19**	.01
	Conscientiousness	.13*	-.04
	<i>MOCBI</i>		
	Prosocial Values	.08	.13
	Intimacy	.12	.05
	Org Concern and Obligation	.25**	.15
	Instrumental	-.22**	-.11
	Guilt	-.01	-.11
	Δ F	5.7**	1.22
	Δ R-Square	.10	.06
	Full Model F	9.17**	.94
	Full Model R-Square	.28	.08

Note: $N = 224$ (self), $N = 107$ (supervisor). Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered.
 * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 30. *Hierarchical Regression for OCBO on Personality and MOCBO Subscale Dimensions*

	Predictors	OCBO Frequency	
		Self	Supervisor
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	-.03	.04
	Tenure	.09	.03
	F	1.14	.11
	R-Square	.01	.00
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	-.07	.04
	Tenure	.10	.01
	<i>Personality</i>		
	Agreeableness	.24**	.20
	Conscientiousness	.21**	.02
	Δ F	16.88**	2.24
	Δ R-Square	.13	.04
Step 3	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	-.11	.05
	Tenure	.06	.01
	<i>Personality</i>		
	Agreeableness	.15*	.16
	Conscientiousness	.18**	.01
	<i>MOCBO</i>		
	Prosocial Values	.14	.01
	Guilt	.04	-.06
	Org Concern and Obligation	.07	.15
	Achievement	.20*	-.03
	Instrumental	-.15	.07
	Δ F	4.48*	.49
	Δ R-Square	.08	.02
	Full Model F	6.85**	.78
	Full Model R-Square	.22	.07

Note: $N = 224$ (self), $N = 107$ (supervisor) . Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 31. *Hierarchical Regression for OCBI on Attitudes and MOCBI Subscale Dimensions*

	Predictors	OCBI Frequency	
		Self	Supervisor
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.09	.05
	Tenure	.08	.04
	F	1.49	.169
	R-Square	.01	.00
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.10	.07
	Tenure	.00	.00
	<i>Attitudes</i>		
	Affective Commitment	.23*	.09
	Continuance Commitment	-.03	-.21
	Distributive Justice	.04	.02
	Procedural Justice	.15	.06
	Interpersonal Justice	.04	-.04
	Job Satisfaction	-.08	-.06
	Perceived Organizational Support	-.01	.11
	Δ F	3.67**	.42
	Δ R-Square	.12	.03
Step 3	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.07	.07
	Tenure	.00	.01
	<i>Attitudes</i>		
	Affective Commitment	.03	-.05
	Continuance Commitment	-.03	-.01
	Distributive Justice	.07	.08
	Procedural Justice	.07	-.01
	Interpersonal Justice	.09	-.09
	Job Satisfaction	-.06	-.05
	Perceived Organizational Support	.01	.18
	<i>MOCBI</i>		
	Prosocial Values	.18*	.13
	Intimacy	.11	.05
	Org Concern and Obligation	.23*	.14
	Instrumental	-.25**	-.11
	Guilt	-.05	-.14
	Δ F	7.49**	1.28
	Δ R-Square	.13	.06
	Full Model F	5.05**	.69
	Full Model R-Square	.25	.10

Note: $N = 224$ (self), $N = 107$ (supervisor) . Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered.
 * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 32. Hierarchical Regression for OCBO on Attitudes and MOCBO Subscale Dimensions

	Predictors	OCBO Frequency	
		Self	Supervisor
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	-.03	.04
	Tenure	.09	.03
	F	1.14	.11
	R-Square	.01	.00
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	-.01	.05
	Tenure	.04	-.00
	<i>Attitudes</i>		
	Affective Commitment	.15	.12
	Continuance Commitment	.05	-.00
	Distributive Justice	-.02	-.05
	Procedural Justice	.18	.03
	Interpersonal Justice	.08	.07
	Job Satisfaction	-.02	-.15
	Perceived Organizational Support	.07	.10
	Δ F	5.10**	.55
	Δ R-Square	.15	.04
Step 3	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	-.06	.05
	Tenure	.03	.03
	<i>Attitudes</i>		
	Affective Commitment	.04	.04
	Continuance Commitment	.04	-.03
	Distributive Justice	-.04	-.02
	Procedural Justice	.14	-.02
	Interpersonal Justice	.08	.08
	Job Satisfaction	.01	-.12
	Perceived Organizational Support	.07	.08
	<i>MOCBO</i>		
	Prosocial Values	.18*	.04
	Guilt	.02	-.09
	Org Concern and Obligation	-.01	.18
	Achievement	.21*	-.05
	Instrumental	-.20*	.05
	Δ F	3.44**	.42
	Δ R-Square	.07	.02
	Full Model F	4.12**	.43
	Full Model R-Square	.22	.06

Note: $N = 224$ (self), $N = 107$ (supervisor). Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

GSMS Motives and OCB Effectiveness. Hypothesis 25, which stated that MOCBI was predictive of OCBI effectiveness, was supported for self-reported OCBI (see Table 33). Hypothesis 25 was not supported for supervisor-reported OCBI. Furthermore, after breaking down MOCBI into its respective subscales, MOCBI Organizational Concern and Obligation ($\beta = .20, p < .05$) and Instrumental ($\beta = -.18, p < .05$) motives were predictive of OCBI effectiveness (see Table 34). To test Hypothesis 26, relative importance was calculated. This involved determining the contributions that predictors make to R^2 , both their unique contributions as well as their contributions when other predictors are considered (LeBreton, Hargis, Griepentrog, Oswald, & Ployhart, 2007). To do so I calculated relative weights (see Johnson, 2000), which can be used to rank order predictors in terms of their relative importance (see Table 35). When predicting self-reported OCBI effectiveness ratings, results suggested Intimacy was the most important predictor (relative weight [RW] = .038, while Guilt (RW = .005) was the least. Rescaled relative weights (i.e., RW divided by model R^2) indicated the percentage of the predicted criterion variance attributed to each predictor and were also reported in Table 35. Results demonstrated that self-transcendence motives (i.e., Prosocial Values, Organizational Concern and Obligation, and Intimacy) contributed more to the prediction of OCBI effectiveness compared to conservation (i.e., Guilt) and self-enhancement (i.e., Instrumental) motives, supporting Hypothesis 26.

Similar to the MOCBI subscale, the MOCBO subscale was predictive of self-reported OCBO effectiveness, supporting Hypothesis 27 (see Table 36). However, after breaking the MOCBO subscale into its respective dimensions, Instrumental motives ($\beta =$

-.21, $p < .05$) surfaced as the only motive predictive of self-reported OCBO effectiveness (see Table 37). To test Hypothesis 28, relative importance analysis revealed Prosocial Values (RW = .035) was the most important predictor and Guilt (RW = .002) was the least important predictor of self-reported OCBO effectiveness. When examining the rescaled relative weights, self-transcendence motives (i.e., Prosocial Values and Organizational Concern and Obligation) contributed more to the prediction of self-reported OCBO effectiveness compared to self-enhancement (i.e., Achievement and Instrumental) and conservation (i.e., Guilt) motives, supporting Hypothesis 28 (see Table 38).

Table 33. *Hierarchical Regression for OCBI Effectiveness on the MOCBI Subscale*

Predictors		OCBI Effectiveness	
		Self	Supervisor
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.06	.11
	Tenure	-.02	-.04
	F	.44	.80
	R-Square	.00	.02
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.04	.12
	Tenure	-.02	-.03
	MOCBI Subscale	.14*	-.05
	ΔF	4.66*	.25
	ΔR -Square	.02	.00
	Full Model F	1.85	.61
	Full Model R-Square	.03	.02

Note: $N = 224$ (self), $N = 107$ (supervisor). Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 34. *Hierarchical Regression for OCBI Effectiveness on MOCBI Subscale Dimensions*

Predictors		OCBI Effectiveness	
		Self	Supervisor
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.06	.11
	Tenure	-.02	-.04
	F	.44	.80
	R-Square	.00	.02
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.03	.13
	Tenure	-.08	-.07
	<i>MOCBI</i>		
	Prosocial Values	.10	.14
	Intimacy	.16	.03
	Org Concern and Obligation	.20*	.10
	Instrumental	-.18*	-.13
	Guilt	-.06	-.19
	ΔF	6.13**	2.05
	ΔR -Square	.12	.09
	Full Model F	4.52**	1.70
	Full Model R-Square	.13	.11

Note: $N = 224$ (self), $N = 107$ (supervisor). Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 35. *Relative Weights Analysis of the MOCBI Dimensions*

Predictors	OCBI		OCBI	
	Effectiveness (self)		Effectiveness (supervisor)	
	RW	%	RW	%
<i>MOCBI</i>				
Prosocial Values	.031	25.5	.027	26.8
Intimacy	.038	31.4	.009	9.2
Org Concern and Obligation	.033	27.2	.005	4.9
Instrumental	.015	12.1	.017	17.3
Guilt	.005	3.8	.042	41.7
Model R^2	.12		.10	

Note: RW = Relative weights; % = Rescaled relative weights (RW divided by model R^2).

Table 36. *Hierarchical Regression for OCBO Effectiveness on the MOCBO Subscale*

Predictors		OCBO Effectiveness	
		Self	Supervisor
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.06	.09
	Tenure	-.06	-.07
	F	.90	.79
	R-Square	.01	.02
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.04	.09
	Tenure	-.06	-.07
	MOCBO Subscale	.15*	.03
	ΔF	5.15*	.10
	ΔR -Square	.02	.00
	Full Model F	2.33	.55
	Full Model R-Square	.03	.02

Note: $N = 224$ (self), $N = 107$ (supervisor) . Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered.
 * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 37. Hierarchical Regression for OCBO Effectiveness on the MOCBO Subscale

Predictors		OCBO Effectiveness	
		Self	Supervisor
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.06	.09
	Tenure	-.06	-.07
	F	.90	.79
	R-Square	.01	.02
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>		
	Gender	.02	.09
	Tenure	-.12	-.08
	<i>MOCBO</i>		
	Prosocial Values	.16	.09
	Guilt	-.01	-.16
	Org Concern and Obligation	.10	.07
	Achievement	.14	.04
	Instrumental	-.21*	-.03
	ΔF	4.21**	.83
	ΔR -Square	.09	.04
	Full Model F	3.28**	.82
	Full Model R-Square	.10	.06

Note: $N = 224$ (self), $N = 107$ (supervisor) . Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered.
 * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 38. *Relative Weights Analysis of the MOCBO Dimensions*

Predictors	OCBO		OCBO	
	Effectiveness (self)		Effectiveness (supervisor)	
	RW	%	RW	%
<i>MOCBO</i>				
Prosocial Values	.035	42.2	.015	31.1
Guilt	.002	2.1	.023	47.0
Org Concern and Obligation	.019	22.5	.005	10.4
Achievement	.015	18.3	.004	8.4
Instrumental	.012	14.9	.002	3.1
Model R^2	.08		.05	

Note: RW = Relative weights; % = Rescaled relative weights (RW divided by model R^2).

GSMS and CMS as Predictors of OCB. Tables 39 and 40 present hierarchical regressions for OCB regressed on the two OCB motives measures. The predictors were entered in two different orders. Specifically, for the first order, the CMS was entered in first followed by the relevant GSMS subscale. For the second order, the relevant GSMS subscale was entered first followed by the CMS. For OCBI, findings revealed non-significant incremental variance accounted for when either the GSMS ($\Delta F(5, 181) = 1.79, p = .12$) or the CMS ($\Delta F(3, 181) = 1.82, p = .15$) was entered into the regression equation at the last step, failing to support Hypothesis 29a. For OCBO, findings revealed the GSMS did not account for significant incremental variance ($\Delta F(5, 181) = .88, p = .50$) beyond that of the CMS. However, the CMS accounted for significant incremental variance ($\Delta F(3, 181) = 6.70, p < .01$) beyond that of the GSMS. Specifically, CMS's Organizational Concern ($\beta = .43, p < .01$) and Impression Management ($\beta = -.27, p < .01$) motives were significant predictors of OCBO incremental to the GSMS, failing to support Hypothesis 29b.

Table 39. *Hierarchical Regression for OCB on the CMS and GSMS - First Order*

		OCBI			OCBO
Predictors - Order 1		Frequency	Predictors - Order 1		Frequency
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>		Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>	
	Gender	.09		Gender	-.01
	Tenure	.05		Tenure	.07
	F	.97		F	.48
	R-Square	.01		R-Square	.01
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>		Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>	
	Gender	.06		Gender	-.03
	Tenure	-.01		Tenure	-.00
	<i>CMS</i>			<i>CMS</i>	
	Org Concern	.25**		Org Concern	.44**
	Prosocial Values	.32**		Prosocial Values	.12
	Impression Management	-.23**		Impression Management	-.25
	Δ F	17.40**		Δ F	17.75**
	Δ R-Square	.22**		Δ R-Square	.22
Step 3	<i>Demographic</i>		Step 3	<i>Demographic</i>	
	Gender	.05		Gender	-.06
	Tenure	-.01		Tenure	-.01
	<i>CMS</i>			<i>CMS</i>	
	Org Concern	.20		Org Concern	.43**
	Prosocial Values	.09		Prosocial Values	.02
	Impression Management	-.11		Impression Management	-.27**
	<i>MOCBI</i>			<i>MOCBO</i>	
	Prosocial Values	.15		Prosocial Values	.13
	Intimacy	.13		Guilt	.06
	Org Concern and Obligation	.09		Org Concern and Obligation	-.09
	Instrumental	-.19		Achievement	.15
	Guilt	-.06		Instrumental	-.07
	Δ F	1.79		Δ F	.88
	Δ R-Square	.04		Δ R-Square	.02
	Full Model F	6.48**		Full Model F	5.87**
	Full Model R-Square	.26		Full Model R-Square	.25

Note: $N = 224$ (self). Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 40. *Hierarchical Regression for OCB on the CMS and GSMS - Second Order*

OCBI		OCBO	
Predictors - Order 2	Frequency	Predictors - Order 2	Frequency
Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>	Step 1	<i>Demographic</i>
	Gender		Gender
	Tenure		Tenure
	F		F
	R-Square		R-Square
Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>	Step 2	<i>Demographic</i>
	Gender		Gender
	Tenure		Tenure
	<i>MOCBI</i>		<i>MOCBO</i>
	Prosocial Values		Prosocial Values
	Intimacy		Guilt
	Org Concern and Obligation		Org Concern and Obligation
	Instrumental		Achievement
	Guilt		Instrumental
	Δ F		Δ F
	Δ R-Square		Δ R-Square
Step 3	<i>Demographic</i>	Step 3	<i>Demographic</i>
	Gender		Gender
	Tenure		Tenure
	<i>MOCBI</i>		<i>MOCBO</i>
	Prosocial Values		Prosocial Values
	Intimacy		Guilt
	Org Concern and Obligation		Org Concern and Obligation
	Instrumental		Achievement
	Guilt		Instrumental
	<i>CMS</i>		<i>CMS</i>
	Org Concern		Org Concern
	Prosocial Values		Prosocial Values
	Impression Management		Impression Management
	Δ F		Δ F
	Δ R-Square		Δ R-Square
	Full Model F		Full Model F
	Full Model R-Square		Full Model R-Square

Note: $N = 224$ (self). Values reported in the table are standardized regression coefficients, which correspond to the step in which the variable was entered. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Study 4 Discussion

Study 4 established the criterion validity of the GSMS by investigating relationships between the two GSMS subscales (i.e., MOCBI and MOCBO) in addition to their respective OCB motive dimensions and the criteria of OCBI and OCBO. As recommended by researchers (Bolino, 1999; Bolino, Turnley, & Niehoff, 2004; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006), the predictive validity of OCB motives was examined

beyond the traditional frequency measure of OCB by way of OCB effectiveness ratings. Overall, with the exception of Hypothesis 29, which compared the predictive validity of the GSMS and CMS, all hypotheses were supported for self-reported measures of OCB.

Given the increased likelihood of finding significant relationships with self-report data is potentially attributable to common method bias, aspects of the criterion validation study served as strategies for mitigating the occurrence of common method bias. For example, predictor and criterion data were collected at two different time points via two distinct surveys – the OCB antecedents survey and the OCB criterion survey. Podsakoff and his colleagues (2003) recommend a temporal separation as one procedural remedy to common method bias, arguing that it reduces the salience of prior responses and increases the likelihood of responses from the first survey to exit short-term memory. Second, OCB antecedents were measured using items from established and validated scales. Careful construction of scale items to reduce ambiguity and the use of different response scale formats between predictor and criterion are additional recommended remedies to combat common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In the present study, the OCB antecedent survey utilized a 6-point Likert scale while the OCB criterion survey consisted of a 5-point Likert scale assessing two dimensions (i.e., frequency and effectiveness of OCB). Lastly, protecting the respondent's anonymity reduces his/her evaluation apprehension, serving as yet another strategy to minimize common method bias through the decreased motivation for committing response errors (e.g., social desirability, leniency, acquiescence, and consistency).

GSMS Motives and OCB. Hypotheses (i.e., H19 and H20) predicting positive relationships between OCB motive subscales and their respective OCBs were supported.

When further examining the specific relationships between the MOCBI dimensions and OCB towards individuals, three out of the five motive dimensions were significant – Prosocial Values, Organizational Concern and Obligation, and Instrumental motives. Similar to previous findings (e.g., Becker & O’Hair, 2007; Finkelstein, 2006; Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Tan & Tan, 2008), Prosocial Values and Organizational Concern motives were positively related to OCBI. Interestingly, Instrumental motives were negatively related to OCBI, implying that individuals admitting to performing OCBI in exchange for rewards were less likely to actually engage in OCB towards others. This finding is consistent with researchers’ (Bolino, 1999; Bolino, Turnley, & Niehoff, 2004) proposition that individuals with instrumental reasons for performing OCB may be less consistent and may exhibit OCB less often compared to those with altruistic motives. In line with this reasoning, Hui and his colleagues (2000) found lowered levels of OCB after receipt of desired outcomes (i.e., promotions) amongst individuals perceiving OCB as instrumental. Despite Bolino’s proposition (see Bolino, 1999; Bolino et al., 2004) that employees may partake in OCB seeking to make amends for past transgressions, guilt was not a significant predictor of OCBI. It is possible that respondents were hesitant to endorse Guilt motives due to social desirability responding. Additionally, Intimacy was not significantly related to OCBI. Perhaps, individuals do not perceive work as an outlet for fostering friendships and therefore are less likely to partake in OCB to expand their social networks. In support of this, Frone (2003) purports that some individuals perceive their work and personal life as distinct domains that do not intertwine with each other.

When looking at the relationships between the MOCBO dimensions and OCBO, three out of the five motive dimensions emerged as significant – Prosocial Values, Achievement, and Instrumental motives. Similar to prior research (e.g., Becker & O’Hair, 2007; Finkelstein, 2006; Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Tan & Tan, 2008), Prosocial Values motives were significantly related to OCB directed towards the organization. However, contrary to previous findings, Organizational Concern and Obligation motives were not significantly related to OCBO (e.g., Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Rioux & Penner, 2001). Further examination of the CMS Organizational Concern items revealed an underlying affective component versus obligatory component, potentially reducing the GSMS’s Organizational Concern and Obligation link with OCBO. Achievement motives were positively related to OCBO, replicating extant research examining value for achievement and OCB (Neuman & Kickul, 1998). Individuals with Achievement motives strive to attain accomplishments and attain goals in a socially desirable manner through participation in OCBOs, like keeping abreast of changes within the organization or taking initiative to solve a work problem. Similar to the MOCBI subscale, Instrumental motives were negatively related to OCBO. As mentioned above, employees with instrumental reasons may partake in OCBO less frequently than those with alternative motives because they perceive OCB as a means to an end. Additionally, compared to OCBI, OCB directed towards the organization is less likely to be recognized or rewarded by those key constituents controlling such rewards.

Relative Importance of Personality, Attitudes, and Motives for Predicting OCB.

Given that personality traits of agreeableness and conscientiousness are established antecedents of OCB, H21 and H22 assessed the unique variance accounted for by OCB

motives beyond that of personality. Agreeable individuals foster group cohesion and are concerned about the welfare of the group (Illies et al., 2006), increasing their likelihood of performing OCB. Likewise, conscientious individuals are reliable, motivated, and diligent—characteristics conducive to the performance of OCB. Results demonstrated significant positive relationships between personality (i.e., agreeableness and conscientiousness) and OCB (i.e., OCBI and OCBO). After including OCB motives in the regression equation, Organizational Concern and Obligation and Instrumental motives arose as significant predictors of OCBI. Recent research (Chen, Lin, Tung, & Ko, 2008) found significant relationships between social exchange and impression management motives and OCBI. Individuals perceiving OCB from a social exchange perspective (i.e., Organizational Concern and Obligation) partake in OCBs if they perceive their work situation as fair. More specifically, if an individual's manager treats him/her fairly, this increases the likelihood of the employee to reciprocate through performance of helpful behaviors targeting an individual—especially one that control's rewards. Contrary to Chen and colleagues' findings, which found a positive relationship between impression management motives and OCBI, the relationship between Instrumental motives, which included impression management items, and OCBI was negative. In a qualitative study looking at the difference between “good soldiers” and “good actors,” Snell and Wong (2007) found that “good actors” with impression management motives were typically identified through inconsistent behaviors. For example, coaching an employee only when key stakeholders were present to observe was a cited example from the study. Thus, it is plausible that behavioral inconsistency contributes to an overall decreased frequency of

OCB compared to individuals not using OCB as a means to desired outcomes, explaining the negative relationship.

For OCBO, Achievement was the sole significant motive antecedent beyond after personality variables were accounted for. Aspects of OCB contribute to the need fulfillment of those individuals with an achievement orientation. For example, OCBOs include taking the initiative to solve a work problem, persisting during tasks, and keeping abreast of organizational changes—behaviors contributing to career-related success within organizations. As mentioned above, Neuman and Kickul (1998) found a significant relationship between individuals who valued achievement and the performance of OCB.

H23 and H24 examined the incremental validity of OCB motives beyond established attitudinal OCB antecedents (i.e., organizational commitment, organizational justice, job satisfaction, and perceived organizational support). For OCBI, Prosocial Values, Organizational Concern and Obligation, and Instrumental motives accounted for unique variance in OCBI beyond attitudinal OCB antecedents. Prosocial Values, Achievement, and Instrumental motives accounted for incremental variance in OCBO beyond established attitudinal OCB antecedents. Overall, findings suggested OCB motives accounted for unique variance in OCB beyond that of established personality and attitudinal OCB antecedents, supporting H21-H24 as well as expanding upon Rioux and Penner's (2001) findings.

GSMS Motives and OCB Effectiveness. To further explore the possible impact of non-altruistic motives on OCB, I examined the predictive relationships between OCB motives and OCB effectiveness ratings (H25 and H27). Analyses revealed Organizational

Concern and Obligation and Instrumental motives as driving the significant relationship between MOCBI and OCBI effectiveness ratings, supporting H25. Individuals performing OCBs to help the overall organization performed more effective OCBI. In contrast, individuals performing OCBs for self-serving reasons exhibited less effective OCBI. Bolino (1999) posited that individuals performing OCB for impression management (i.e., Instrumental) reasons may perform OCBs with less devotion and less effort, in turn, reducing the overall quality of OCB. Indeed, Snell and Wong's (2007) qualitative study introduced the concept of pseudo-OCB, where "a colleague might believe that a fellow colleague is merely professing or pretending to perform the behavioral content of OCB, without actually engaging in OCB" (p. 886). Content analysis of respondents' stories revealed four categories of OCB—(1) OCB attributed to prosocial or pro-organizational motives, (2) OCB tied to impression management motives, (3) pseudo-OCB with minimal compliance, and (4) pseudo-OCB with counterproductive work behavior (CWB). Pseudo-OCB with minimal compliance was also rooted in impression management and involved claiming to engage in OCB when, in actuality, the individual performed what was minimally expected of him/her. Pseudo-OCB with CWB, also rooted in impression management, consisted of an alleged portrayal of OCB, yet, in reality, the employee engaged in CWB. Snell and Wong's (2007) study offered empirical evidence that lower quality OCBI occur, are tied to impression management, and can be observed by colleagues.

For OCBO effectiveness ratings, Instrumental motives surfaced as the sole significant predictor, supporting H27. Like OCBI, individuals performing OCBs toward the organization for instrumental reasons displayed less effective OCBOs. Individuals

performing OCBOs with the intent of attaining desired self-serving outcomes and promoting favorable impressions are more likely to perform with less focus on the task at hand and may expend less energy (Bolino, 1999). For example, an individual arriving to work early and staying late may appear to be performing an OCBO, but may actually be conducting personal affairs during these hours.

H26 and H28 evaluated the relative importance of the motive dimensions for each subscale and both were supported. For both subscales, self-transcendence motives (i.e., Prosocial Values, Organizational Concern and Obligation, and Intimacy) contributed the most to the prediction of OCBI and OCBO effectiveness ratings. Individuals with truly altruistic motives contributed to greater OCB effectiveness, supporting Bolino's (1999) proposition.

GSMS and CMS as Predictors of OCB. For OCBI and OCBO, the GSMS did not account for incremental validity above the CMS, failing to support H29. Furthermore, when the order was reversed, the CMS's Organizational Concern (OC) and Impression Management (IM) motives accounted for significant incremental variance in OCBO beyond that of the GSMS. When comparing the GSMS Organizational Concern and Obligation and the CMS Organizational Concern items, the CMS Organizational Concern items cover organizational commitment and justice type aspects of organizational concern, whereas the GSMS Organizational Concern and Obligation items center around organizational success and feelings of obligation. These differences may contribute to the incremental variance accounted for by the CMS Organizational Concern dimension. Additionally, the GSMS Instrumental items and the CMS Impression Management items differed in such a way that the CMS Impression Management items were reworded to

mitigate social desirability responding (see Finkelstein & Penner, 2004), potentially enhancing the predictive validity of the subscale.

In sum, Study 4 provided evidence for GSMS's criterion-related validity for self-reported OCB. The two subscales of the GSMS, the MOCBI and MOCBO, were significant predictors of OCBI and OCBO, respectively. Specific dimensions for each subscale surfaced as significant antecedents of OCB. Furthermore, the two subscales accounted for incremental variance beyond that of established OCB personality and attitudinal antecedents, supporting the unique contributions of the scale. Lastly, the GSMS motive dimensions demonstrated unique relationships with OCB effectiveness, contributing to the growing body of research examining self-enhancing motives for OCB and their impact. The following section provides a general discussion of the entire GSMS validation effort and includes major contributions of the study, study limitations, practical implications, and areas for future research.

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Chapter 5: General Discussion

The development of the Good Soldier Motives Scale (GSMS) consisted of three primary objectives. The first goal was to incorporate Schwartz's values (1992) theory as a framework for the development of the OCB motives dimensions and expand the types of dimensions accounted for by the Rioux and Penner (2001) Citizenship Motives Scale, which was more empirically derived. The second goal was to extend the empirical support for motives as unique antecedents of OCB beyond well-supported personality and attitudinal predictors. The final objective was to understand the influence of altruistic versus self-serving motives on the *effectiveness* of OCB. These goals were addressed through the construct and criterion validation efforts of the GSMS.

OCB Motives based on Schwartz's Values Framework

Because values influence the selection of goals by serving as guiding principles, they influence our underlying motives and decisions to partake in certain actions (Schwartz & Rubel, 2005). Parks (2007) found support for values influencing motivation through the goal content (i.e., the types of goals an individual chooses to pursue), whereas personality influenced motivation via goal striving (i.e., the persistence in goal pursuit). Schwartz's higher-order motivational dimensions of values served as a springboard to identifying the various types of OCB motivations. Three of the four higher-order value dimensions survived the GSMS scale development – self-enhancement, self-transcendence, and conservation motives. Openness to change

motives, consisting of autonomy and competency motives, are perhaps more relevant to task performance due to their focus on controlling decisions and exercising skills and abilities. In total, Schwartz's (1992, 1994) universal values offered a nice structure to rationally guide the development of the Good Soldier Motives Scale.

Construct Validity of GSMS

Validation studies generate solid support for the GSMS and its respective motive dimensions (Spector, 1992). The GSMS construct validation effort involved constructs hypothesized to have differential relationships with the various OCB motive dimensions. In particular, regulatory focus, self-identity, Machiavellianism, and self-monitoring demonstrated unique relationships with the OCB motive dimensions in the hypothesized directions. According to Dewett and Denisi (2007), regulatory focus theory (RFT) serves as a complementary theory to understand the underlying mechanisms behind OCB and proposed that the types of OCB are impacted by an individual's regulatory focus, promotion or prevention. Individuals with a promotion focus are more likely to exhibit change-related OCBs (e.g., providing suggestions), while individuals with a prevention focus are more likely to exhibit maintenance OCBs (e.g., exercising personal discipline). The construct validation supported Dewett and Denisi's theoretical proposition, such that individuals with a strong promotion focus were more likely to engage in OCB for self-enhancement reasons (an approach-oriented motive), whereas individuals with a strong prevention focus were more likely to partake in OCB for conservation reasons (an avoidant-oriented motive). Regarding self-identity, Finkelstein and Penner (2004) developed a conceptual model combining the functional/motive perspective of OCB with

role identity. The more an individual identifies with the role of a helper, the greater the chance of internalizing the citizen role identity (Penner et al., 1997). The construct validation study incorporated and extended the notion of identity to include multiple levels of self-concept – individual, relational, and collective (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). As expected, individual identity was related to self-enhancement motives; relational identity was related to self-transcendence motives; and collective identity was self-transcendence motives. Furthermore, the study provided evidence for self-serving personality traits with OCB motives—constructs typically associated with impression management behaviors and not formally tested in the OCB literature. As suggested by Bolino and his colleagues (2006), impression management tactics have considerable overlap with OCBs, making it reasonable to assume relationships with impression management related personality variables (i.e., Machiavellianism and self-monitoring). Findings from the construct validation study not only demonstrate support for the GSMS but also uncover new conceptual links in the OCB motives literature.

Criterion Validity of GSMS

To complement the construct validation study, the criterion validation effort examined the predictive relationships between the GSMS subscales and its motive dimensions with OCBI and OCBO. The criterion validation results identified unique relationships with specific OCB motive dimensions and OCBI and OCBO frequency as well as effectiveness ratings. Interestingly, among the six OCB motive dimensions within the GSMS, Guilt and Intimacy failed to demonstrate accountability for variance in either OCBI or OCBO. Perhaps, relative to the other dimensions, performing OCB based on

guilt for past transgressions or from the need to foster relationships with other individuals was overshadowed by the other dimensions. It is possible that these motives become relevant depending on the context. Moreover, the criterion validation extended Rioux and Penner's (2001) findings that OCB motives serve as unique antecedents of OCB through the examination of additional personality (e.g., agreeableness and conscientiousness) and attitudinal (e.g., interpersonal justice, affective commitment, continuance commitment, job satisfaction, and perceived organizational support) variables. Lastly, the criterion validation uncovered new territory through the empirical support of differential relationships between self-enhancement OCB motives and self-transcendence OCB motives with the quality of OCB, measured via effectiveness ratings.

Practical Implications

Knowing that OCBs contribute to the effective functioning of the organization, how can organizations leverage the understanding of an employee's motivations for engaging in OCB? Additionally, knowing that self-enhancing motives contribute to a decreased level of OCB as well as decreased OCB effectiveness, how can organization's encourage those individuals holding self-enhancing motives to improve their OCBs? The present research facilitates several suggestions for practice. First, organizations can educate individuals holding self-enhancing motivations through formal training that educates participants on the positive values associated with OCB, in addition to identifying the distinctions between true OCB and impression management type behaviors. Moreover, training can educate participants on effective application of OCBs within the organization's work culture. Even more, managers can encourage the participation of high-quality OCBs through detailed performance feedback discussions—

a venue conducive to those with instrumental and impression management type motivations because it affords them the opportunity to understand the links between rewards and performance. In another light, understanding the motivations underlying OCB during the performance appraisal process can enhance the accuracy of the assessment due to the unveiling of the true motivations behind those “above and beyond” behaviors that normally would contribute to the manager’s assignment of positive ratings. Lastly, assessing OCB motives, especially from an other-source perspective, mitigates the occurrence of “pseudo-OCBs,” ineffective performance masked as OCB.

Limitations

This present research is not without limitations. First, the construct validation and criterion validation studies involved self-report measures, which enhanced the risk for common method bias and potentially inflates the correlations among study variables. However, as mentioned above, the design of the criterion validation study potentially addressed common method bias through the time lag between predictor and criterion measurement. Additionally, the sample size for the supervisor-reported OCB was low compared to the sample size for self-reported OCB, potentially reducing power for identifying significant predictor-criterion relationships. Future research with larger sample sizes of supervisor-reported OCB is warranted to uncover the unique relationships of self-reported OCB motives and supervisor-reported OCB frequency and effectiveness ratings. Second, based on the samples’ demographics, one should interpret findings with caution. For instance, the sample population from the construct and validation studies were largely female and White non-Hispanic. Although both studies controlled for gender

and demonstrated non-significant relationships with the criterion variables, findings should be interpreted with caution when generalizing to the workforce. In a similar light, tenure was also controlled for as a potential covariate of OCB and was negatively related to Achievement and Instrumental motives. The longer an individual was employed with an organization, the least likely they were to perform OCBs to satisfy career-oriented goals or to attain organizational rewards (e.g., promotions, pay), supporting Wagner and Rush's (2000) assertion that early career employees are guided by achievement, while seasoned employees are driven by greater affiliation.

Nonetheless, the overall results from the construct and criterion validation efforts are promising and complement previous findings examining OCB motives (e.g., Rioux & Penner, 2001). Results from the present research effort can be interpreted with confidence and serve as a starting point to expand upon extant research examining OCB motivations.

Future Research Directions

Garnering support for the validity of the GSMS is an iterative process that occurs over subsequent studies across different contexts and different constructs. The present study sampled participants from a variety of organizations and industries. Future research should examine the GSMS within a single organization to clarify the relationship between organizational level constructs (e.g., political climate, cultural norms) and OCB motives. Additionally, assessment of OCB motives at the aggregate level can contribute to the understanding of how an organization perceives OCB (i.e., "the OCB culture"). For instance, some organizations and/or occupations view OCB as part of the job, whereas others reward OCB participation. Future research should also investigate OCB motive

attributions from peers and supervisors—especially with self-enhancement motive attributions—to identify its impact on key individual (e.g., group cohesion, performance ratings) and organizational (e.g., organizational effectiveness, customer satisfaction, employee retention) outcomes. Additionally, collection of OCB performance from peers, supervisors, and self-ratings would establish a more comprehensive assessment of OCB and clarify relationships between various OCB motives and OCB based on the recipient (i.e., peer, supervisor, or organization). Alternatively, within a laboratory context, it is possible to prime different OCB motives to identify which motives cultivate greater OCBI or OCBO. Finally, future research should leverage the GSMS in identifying the mediating role of motives between established personality antecedents and OCB, in particular looking at personality antecedents associated with self-enhancement type motives (e.g., Machiavellianism).

Conclusion

In sum, through the development and validation of an OCB motives scale, the Good Soldier Motives Scale, the present research expanded the empirical support for OCB motives as unique antecedents as well as established further support for perceiving OCB in a more self-serving manner. Furthermore, the GSMS provides researchers with a theoretically driven OCB motives scale that differentiates between OCBI and OCBO motives across six dimensions.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Focus Group Questionnaire

“Working Above and Beyond” Focus Group

The reason you are here today is because I’m interested in understanding **why** people participate in “Above and Beyond” behaviors. Throughout our work lives, we may find ourselves going “above and beyond” what our prescribed job roles require. Examples of such behaviors include...

- Staying late after work to finish a project
- Helping out coworkers by offering suggestions
- Taking advantage of training classes to further develop your skills
- Finding ways to improve the efficiency of the workflow within your organization
- Attending company sponsored events that are not mandatory

If you’ve ever participated in any of these above behaviors, I want to hear from you!

The format of this focus group will be very informal. Participation is voluntary and any information you provide today will remain confidential and anonymous.

** If you feel more comfortable talking about a friend or coworker’s work experience, please feel free to do so instead of talking about yourself.

Appendix A Continued

PART 1A:

Read the following “Above and Beyond” behaviors below:

- Helping others by offering suggestions
- Teaching others useful knowledge or skills
- Performing some of my coworkers’ tasks
- Providing emotional support for others’ personal problems
- Cooperating with others by accepting suggestions
- Informing others of organizational events they should know about
- Showing consideration and courtesy when dealing with my coworkers
- Motivating my work group

Tell me AS MANY reasons for WHY you (or your coworkers) would participate in any of these types of “Above and Beyond” behaviors.

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Appendix A Continued

PART 1B:

Read the following “Above and Beyond” behaviors below:

- Representing my organization positively and promoting it to outsiders
- Showing loyalty to my organization despite temporary hardships (e.g., layoffs)
- Supporting my organization’s mission and objectives
- Following my organization’s rules and procedures
- Providing suggestions to improve my organization

Tell me AS MANY reasons for WHY you (or your coworkers) would participate in any of these types of “Above and Beyond” behaviors.

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Appendix A Continued

PART 1C:

Read the following “Above and Beyond” behaviors below:

- Persisting with extra effort in all work tasks even if there are obstacles
- Taking the initiative to do everything necessary to accomplish my work objectives even if it is not part of my job
- Finding additional productive work when there is downtime
- Developing my skills and expertise by taking advantage of training (inside or outside my organization)

Tell me AS MANY reasons for WHY you (or your coworkers) would participate in any of these types of “Above and Beyond” behaviors.

1.
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Appendix A Continued

Part 2:

I want to know if you would participate in “Above and Beyond” behaviors for the following reasons. Tell me the extent you **agree or disagree** with the following reasons.

	I participate in “Above and Beyond” behaviors because...	Strongly Disagree (This is a highly unlikely reason for me to participate in “Above and Beyond” behaviors.)	Disagree	Neutral (I neither agree nor disagree.)	Agree	Strongly Agree (This is a highly likely reason for me to participate in “Above and Beyond” behaviors.)
1)	...I feel that I have more control and decision-making authority participating in these types of behaviors versus my actual job.	1	2	3	4	5
2)	...I enjoy the challenge.	1	2	3	4	5
3)	...it will lead to higher pay or a greater probability of a promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
4)	...I know it will help me achieve my career goals.	1	2	3	4	5
5)	...I want to look good to others (i.e., my coworkers, my boss).	1	2	3	4	5
6)	...it is a way for me to influence others (e.g., coworkers, subordinates, supervisors, or customers).	1	2	3	4	5
7)	...I can use it as a way to gain emotional support from my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5
8)	...I feel guilty for past wrongdoings (e.g., I’ve been absent often for personal reasons so I decide to help plan the company picnic).	1	2	3	4	5
9)	...I feel like I owe it to my organization (i.e., my organization treats me well so I feel like I should give back).	1	2	3	4	5
10)	...I have a general concern for my organization’s success.	1	2	3	4	5
11)	...I have a desire to help others.	1	2	3	4	5
12)	...it is a way for me to make friends at work.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B: Items Generated in Study 1

Achievement

Because it helps me advance in my career.
Because it helps me get ahead of others.
Because I set high standards for myself.*
Because I strive to be successful.
Because I like to outdo others.

Affiliation

To feel accepted by the people I work with.*
To build a social support system at work.
Because it provides me with a sense of belonging to my workgroup.

Autonomy

Because it provides me with a sense of ownership over my work.
Because it offers me an avenue to take charge of my career.
Because performing these types of behaviors is at my own discretion.
To have more control over my work.

Competence

Because it provides me with an avenue to exercise my skills and abilities.
Because it helps me achieve goals I set for myself.
Because it allows me to use my knowledge and expertise.
Because it helps me feel accomplished.
Because it helps me feel good at my job.

Felt Obligation

Because I consider it part of my job.
Because I owe it to my organization.
Because it is the right thing to do.
Because I feel a personal obligation to help my company achieve its goals.
Because I have an obligation to my company to produce high quality work.
Because I have an obligation to my company to perform to the best of my ability.*

Guilt

Because I feel guilty for not working as hard at times.*
To make up for the times that I slacked off.
Because I feel guilty since my coworkers are working harder than me.
To make up for not pulling my weight.
To make up for me either taking long breaks or being absent too often.
Because I am not performing as well as others on my required job responsibilities.

* Indicates items assigned the motive dimension with 100 percent consensus.

Appendix B Continued

Impression Management

To look good to others (e.g., my supervisor; my coworkers).*

To look busy.*

To earn the respect of my supervisor and/or my coworkers.

To look dependable to my supervisor and/or coworkers.*

To avoid looking lazy.*

Instrumental

To increase my likelihood of getting a raise and/or promotion.

In hopes that one day others will return the favor.

For a good recommendation.

To make more money.

Intimacy

To build positive relationships with my colleagues.

To establish meaningful friendships with my colleagues.

To build trusting relationships.

Because I care about the people I work with.

To get to know my coworkers better.

Organizational Concern

To increase the profitability of the organization.*

Because I like the organization that I work for.

So my organization will be successful.*

Because my organization is a reflection of who I am.

To give the organization a good reputation.

Power

In order for others to listen to my ideas.

Because I like to take charge.

Because I can talk others into doing things.*

Because I am good at influencing others.

Prosocial Values

Because I genuinely like helping people.*

Because I have empathy for those who need help.*

Because I care about other's feelings.

Because I believe in being polite to others.

Because I feel it is important to help others.

* Indicates items assigned the motive dimension with 100 percent consensus.

Appendix C: Demographics Questionnaire

Gender: _____ Male _____ Female

Age: _____

How many hours per week do you work in your current job(s)? _____ hours

How long have you worked in your current job? _____ years _____ months

Is your job: _____ managerial _____ non-managerial

Mark with an "X" the group that best describes you:

- _____ Asian/Pacific Islander
- _____ American Indian/Alaskan Native
- _____ Black Non-Hispanic
- _____ White Non-Hispanic
- _____ Hispanic
- _____ Other

Mark with an "X" the industry sector you work in:

- _____ Manufacturing
- _____ Government
- _____ Hospitality
- _____ Medical/Social Service
- _____ Retail
- _____ Entertainment
- _____ Communications
- _____ Service
- _____ Education
- _____ Financial Services
- _____ Technology
- _____ Military
- _____ Other (please specify) _____

Appendix D: Pilot Good Soldier Motive Scale

MOCBI Subscale

During the work day, we find ourselves going “above and beyond” what our job roles and responsibilities require. Some of these types of “above and beyond” behaviors are directed towards your **COWORKERS**. Examples of such behaviors include:

- | | |
|--|--|
| Helping coworkers who have been absent
Helping new employees get acclimated
Passing along helpful information to coworkers | Cooperating with your coworkers
Helping coworkers with their work
Providing support to a coworker with a problem |
|--|--|

We’re motivated to participate in these “above and beyond” behaviors for different reasons. For each reason listed below, answer the following question:

How IMPORTANT is each reason to you when participating in these “above and beyond” behaviors toward your COWORKERS?

	I participate in these “above and beyond” behaviors helpful to my <u>COWORKERS</u> ...	Not at all important	Slightly important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important	Extremely important
1.	Because I am good at influencing others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Because I am not performing as well as others on my required job responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Because I believe in being polite to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Because I can talk others into doing things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Because I care about other's feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	Because I care about the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Because I consider it part of my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Because I feel a personal obligation to help my company achieve its goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	Because I feel guilty for not working as hard at times.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix D Continued

10.	Because I feel guilty since my coworkers are working harder than me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Because I feel it is important to help others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Because I genuinely like helping people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	Because I have an obligation to my company to perform to the best of my ability.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Because I have an obligation to my company to produce high quality work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	Because I have empathy for those who need help.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	Because I like the organization that I work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	Because I like to outdo others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	Because I like to take charge.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	Because I owe it to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Because I set high standards for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	Because I strive to be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	Because it allows me to use my knowledge and expertise.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	Because it helps me achieve goals I set for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	Because it helps me advance in my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	Because it helps me feel accomplished.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	Because it helps me feel good at my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	Because it helps me get ahead of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	Because it is the right thing to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	Because it offers me an avenue to take charge of my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	Because it provides me with a sense of belonging to my workgroup.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix D Continued

31.	Because it provides me with a sense of ownership over my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	Because it provides me with an avenue to exercise my skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	Because my organization is a reflection of who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	Because performing these types of behaviors is at my own discretion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	For a good recommendation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36.	In hopes that one day others will return the favor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	In order for others to listen to my ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38.	So my organization will be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39.	To avoid looking lazy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40.	To build a social support system at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41.	To build positive relationships with my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42.	To build trusting relationships.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43.	To earn the respect of my supervisor and/or my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44.	To establish meaningful friendships with my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45.	To feel accepted by the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46.	To get to know my coworkers better.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47.	To give the organization a good reputation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48.	To have more control over my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49.	To increase my likelihood of getting a raise and/or promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50.	To increase the profitability of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
51.	To look busy.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix D Continued

52.	To look dependable to my supervisor and/or coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
53.	To look good to others (e.g., my supervisor; my coworkers).	1	2	3	4	5	6
54.	To make more money.	1	2	3	4	5	6
55.	To make up for me either taking long breaks or being absent too often.	1	2	3	4	5	6
56.	To make up for not pulling my weight.	1	2	3	4	5	6
57.	To make up for the times that I slacked off.	1	2	3	4	5	6

MOCBO Subscale

During the work day, we find ourselves going “above and beyond” what our job roles and responsibilities require. Some of these types of “above and beyond” behaviors are helpful to the success of the **ORGANIZATION**. Examples of such behaviors include:

- | | |
|---|---|
| Following company rules and procedures even when no supervisor is present | Not using company time for personal matters |
| Giving advance notice when unable to come to work | Dealing with minor inconveniences at work |
| Only taking work breaks when necessary | Consistently arriving to work on time |

We’re motivated to participate in these “above and beyond” behaviors for different reasons. For each reason listed below, answer the following question:

How IMPORTANT is each reason to you when participating in these “above and beyond” behaviors toward your ORGANIZATION?

	I participate in these “above and beyond” behaviors helpful to my <u>ORGANIZATION</u> ...	Not at all important	Slightly important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important	Extremely important
1.	Because I am good at influencing others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Because I am not performing as well as others on my required job responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Because I believe in being polite to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Because I can talk others into doing things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Because I care about other's feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	Because I care about the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Because I consider it part of my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Because I feel a personal obligation to help my company achieve its goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	Because I feel guilty for not working as hard at times.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Because I feel guilty since my coworkers are working harder than me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix D Continued

11.	Because I feel it is important to help others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Because I genuinely like helping people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	Because I have an obligation to my company to perform to the best of my ability.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Because I have an obligation to my company to produce high quality work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	Because I have empathy for those who need help.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	Because I like the organization that I work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	Because I like to outdo others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	Because I like to take charge.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	Because I owe it to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Because I set high standards for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	Because I strive to be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	Because it allows me to use my knowledge and expertise.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	Because it helps me achieve goals I set for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	Because it helps me advance in my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	Because it helps me feel accomplished.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	Because it helps me feel good at my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	Because it helps me get ahead of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	Because it is the right thing to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	Because it offers me an avenue to take charge of my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	Because it provides me with a sense of belonging to my workgroup.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	Because it provides me with a sense of ownership over my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix D Continued

32.	Because it provides me with an avenue to exercise my skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	Because my organization is a reflection of who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	Because performing these types of behaviors is at my own discretion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	For a good recommendation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36.	In hopes that one day others will return the favor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	In order for others to listen to my ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38.	So my organization will be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39.	To avoid looking lazy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40.	To build a social support system at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41.	To build positive relationships with my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42.	To build trusting relationships.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43.	To earn the respect of my supervisor and/or my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44.	To establish meaningful friendships with my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45.	To feel accepted by the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46.	To get to know my coworkers better.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47.	To give the organization a good reputation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48.	To have more control over my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49.	To increase my likelihood of getting a raise and/or promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50.	To increase the profitability of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
51.	To look busy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
52.	To look dependable to my supervisor and/or coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix D Continued

53.	To look good to others (e.g., my supervisor; my coworkers).	1	2	3	4	5	6
54.	To make more money.	1	2	3	4	5	6
55.	To make up for me either taking long breaks or being absent too often.	1	2	3	4	5	6
56.	To make up for not pulling my weight.	1	2	3	4	5	6
57.	To make up for the times that I slacked off.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix E: Good Soldier Motives Scale (GSMS)

Motives to Engage in OCBI (MOCBI Subscale)

Prosocial Values

1. Because I care about other's feelings.
2. Because I feel it is important to help others.
3. Because I genuinely like helping people.
4. Because I believe in being polite to others.
5. Because I have empathy for those who need help.

Intimacy

1. To build trusting relationships.
2. To establish meaningful friendships with my colleagues.
3. To build a social support system at work.
4. To build positive relationships with my colleagues.
5. To get to know my coworkers better.

Organizational Concern and Obligation

1. So my organization will be successful.
2. To increase the profitability of the organization.
3. Because I owe it to my organization.
4. Because I feel a personal obligation to help my company achieve its goals.
5. To give the organization a good reputation.

Instrumental

1. To increase my likelihood of getting a raise and/or promotion.
2. To look good to others (e.g., my supervisor; my coworkers).
3. To make more money.
4. To look dependable to my supervisor and/or coworkers.
5. For a good recommendation.

Guilt

1. To make up for not pulling my weight.
2. To make up for the times I slacked off.
3. To make up for me either taking long breaks or being absent too often.

Appendix E Continued

Motives to Engage in OCBO (MOCBO Subscale)

Prosocial Values

1. Because I care about other's feelings.
2. Because I feel it is important to help others.
3. Because I believe in being polite to others.
4. To build trusting relationships.
5. To build positive relationships with my colleagues.

Guilt

1. To make up for the times I slacked off.
2. To make up for not pulling my weight.
3. To make up for me either taking long breaks or being absent too often.
4. Because I feel guilty for not working as hard at times.
5. Because I feel guilty since my coworkers are working harder than me.

Organizational Concern and Obligation

1. So my organization will be successful.
2. Because I feel a personal obligation to help my company achieve its goals.
3. Because I have an obligation to my company to produce high quality work.
4. Because I owe it to my organization.
5. To give the organization a good reputation.

Achievement

1. Because it offers me an avenue to take charge of my career.
2. Because it helps me achieve goals I set for myself.
3. Because it helps me advance in my career.
4. Because it helps me feel accomplished.
5. Because I set high standards for myself.

Instrumental

1. To increase my likelihood of getting of raise and/or promotion.
2. To make more money.
3. For a good recommendation.

Appendix F: Regulatory Focus Items

(Johnson, Chang, & Rosen, 2007)

Promotion Focus

1. My goal at work is to fulfill my potential to the fullest in my job.
2. I am focused on successful experiences that occur while working.
3. In general, I tend to think about positive aspects of my work.
4. I see my job as a way for me to fulfill my hopes, wishes, and aspirations.
5. I think about the positive outcomes that my job can bring me.
6. I feel happy when I have accomplished a lot of work.

Prevention Focus

1. I am focused on failure experiences that occur while working.
2. I am fearful about failing to prevent negative outcomes at work.
3. In general, I tend to think about negative aspects of my work.
4. I think about the negative outcomes associated with losing my job.
5. I feel anxious when I cannot meet my responsibilities at work.
6. I sometimes feel anxious at work.

Appendix G: Self-concept Scale

(Selenta & Lord, 2005)

Individual level – comparative identity subscale

1. I thrive on opportunities to demonstrate that my abilities or talents are better than those of other people.
2. I have a strong need to know how I stand in comparison to my coworkers.
3. I often compete with my friends.
4. I feel best about myself when I perform better than others.
5. I often find myself pondering over the ways that I am better or worse off than other people around me.

Relational level – concern for other subscale

1. If a friend was having a personal problem, I would help him/her even if it meant sacrificing my time or money.
2. I value friends who are caring, empathetic individuals.
3. It is important to me that I uphold my commitments to significant people in my life.
4. Caring deeply about another person such as a close friend or relative is important to me.
5. Knowing that a close other acknowledges and values the role that I play in their life makes me feel like a worthwhile person.

Collective level – group achievement focus subscale

1. Making a lasting contribution to groups that I belong to, such as my work organization, is very important to me.
2. When I become involved in a group project, I do my best to ensure its success.
3. I feel great pride when my team or group does well, even if I'm not the main reason for its success.
4. I would be honored if I were chosen by an organization or club that I belong to, to represent them at a conference or meeting.
5. When I'm part of a team, I am concerned about the group as a whole instead of whether individual team members like me or whether I like them.

Appendix H: Machiavellianism Scale

(Kessler, Bandelli, Spector, Penny, Borman, & Nelson, 2007)

Manipulative Behaviors

1. Employees should be watched with an "eye of suspicion" because it is natural for people to desire to acquire power.
2. It is wise to keep friends close but enemies closer.
3. Since most employees are ambitious, they will only do good deeds if it benefits them.
4. An effective individual should make him/herself feared but not hated.
5. When seeking revenge, an individual should completely defeat a competitor to ensure no retaliation.
6. Since most people are weak, a rational individual should take advantage of the situation to maximize his/her own gains.
7. It is important to be a good actor, but also capable of concealing this talent.
8. Most employees are so naïve that they will take information at face value.
9. The most effective means of getting people to behave in an ethical fashion is by making them fearful of behaving otherwise.
10. When an individual does not have control over those that work for him/her, it is still critical to appear to have full control over them.

Appendix I: Self-Monitoring Scale

(Snyder, 1986)

1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people. R
2. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like. R
3. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe. R
4. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.
5. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.
6. I would probably make a good actor.
7. In a group of people, I am rarely the center of attention.
8. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.
9. I am not particularly good at making other people like me. R
10. I'm not always the person I appear to be.
11. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor. R
12. I have considered being an entertainer.
13. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting. R
14. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations. R
15. At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going. R
16. I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite as well as I should. R
17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).
18. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

Appendix J: Short Schwartz Value Survey

(SSVS; Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005)

Rate the importance of the following values as a life-guiding principle for you:

Use the following scale for rating each value using scale

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 where:

0= opposed to my principles

1= not important

4= important

8= of supreme importance

1. POWER (social power, authority, wealth)
2. ACHIEVEMENT (success, capability, ambition, influence on people and events)
3. HEDONISM (gratification of desires, enjoyment in life, self-indulgence)
4. STIMULATION (daring, a varied and challenging life, an exciting life)
5. SELF-DIRECTION (creativity, freedom, curiosity, independence, choosing one's own goals)
6. UNIVERSALISM (broad-mindedness, beauty of nature and arts, social justice, a world at peace, equality, wisdom, unity with nature, environmental protection)
7. BENEVOLENCE (helpfulness, honesty, forgiveness, loyalty, responsibility)
8. TRADITION (respect for tradition, humbleness, accepting one's portion in life, devotion, modesty)
9. CONFORMITY (obedience, honoring parents and elders, self-discipline, politeness)
10. SECURITY (national security, family security, social order, cleanliness, reciprocation of favors)

Appendix K: Citizenship Motives Scale

(Rioux & Penner, 2001)

1. Because I have a genuine interest in my work. (OC)
2. Because I feel it is important to help those in need. (PV)
3. So that others will think I pull my weight. (IM)
4. So that I don't get laid off. (IM)
5. Because I want to be fully involved in the company. (OC)
6. So that others will like me. (IM)
7. So that others will see me as helpful. (IM)
8. Because I am concerned about other people's feelings. (PV)
9. Because I want to be a well-informed employee. (OC)
10. To have fun with my co-workers (PV)
11. To get a good raise. (IM)
12. In order to keep my job. (IM)
13. Because I care what happens to the company. (OC)
14. Because I like interacting with my co-workers. (PV)
15. So that others will think of me as supportive. (IM)
16. Because the organization values my work. (OC)
17. Because I want to help my co-workers in any way I can. (PV)
18. Because I feel pride in the organization. (OC)
19. Because I can put myself in other people's shoes. (PV)
20. Because I want to understand how the organization works. (OC)
21. Because I believe in being courteous to others. (PV)
22. So that others will think highly of me. (IM)
23. To keep up with the latest developments in the organization. (OC)
24. Because it is easy for me to be helpful. (PV)
25. To get a promotion. (IM)
26. Because I am committed to the company. (OC)
27. To get to know my co-workers better. (PV)
28. Because the organization treats me fairly. (OC)
29. To be friendly with others. (PV)
30. To make myself more marketable to other organizations. (IM)

Appendix L: Agreeableness Scale

(Goldberg, 1999)

1. I have a good word for everyone.
2. I believe that others have good intentions.
3. I respect others.
4. I accept people as they are.
5. I make people feel at ease.
6. I have a sharp tongue.
7. I cut others to pieces.
8. I suspect hidden motives in others.
9. I get back at others.
10. I insult people.

Appendix M: Conscientiousness Scale

(Goldberg, 1999)

1. I am always prepared.
2. I pay attention to details.
3. I get chores done right away.
4. I like order.
5. I follow a schedule.
6. I am exacting in my work.
7. I leave my belongings around.
8. I make a mess of things.
9. I often forget to put things back in their proper place.
10. I shirk my duties.

Appendix N: Organizational Commitment

(Meyer & Allen, 1997)

Affective Commitment

1. I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with my current organization.
2. I really feel as if my organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to my organization. (R)
5. My organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
6. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

Continuance Commitment

1. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
2. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
3. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
4. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving my organization.
5. One of the few serious consequences of leaving my organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
6. One of the major reasons I continue to work for my organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefits that I have here.

Appendix O: Organizational Justice Scale

(Colquitt, 2001)

Distributive Justice

1. My pay reflects the effort I put into my work.
2. My pay is appropriate for the work I have completed.
3. My pay reflects what I have contributed to my organization.
4. My pay is justified, given my performance.

Procedural Justice

1. I have been able to express my feelings and views concerning decisions made by my organization.
2. I have had influence over the decisions arrived at by my organization.
3. Decisions at my organization have been consistent.
4. Decisions at my organization have been free of bias.
5. Decisions at my organization have been based on accurate information.
6. I have been able to appeal decisions made at my organization.
7. Decisions at my organization have upheld ethical and moral standards.

Interpersonal Justice

1. My supervisor treats me in a polite manner.
2. My supervisor treats me with dignity.
3. My supervisor treats me with respect.
4. My supervisor refrains from making improper remarks and com.

Appendix P: Survey of Perceived Organizational Support

(Eisenberger et al., 1986)

1. My organization really cares about my well-being.
2. My organization strongly considers my goals and values.
3. My organization shows concern for me.
4. My organization cares about my opinions.
5. My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor.
6. Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.
7. My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.
8. My organization would not take advantage of me, even if given the opportunity.

Appendix Q: Job Satisfaction Scale

(Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979)

1. In general, I do not like my job.
2. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
3. In general, I like working here.

Appendix R: Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale

Directions: Below are statements describing some “above and beyond” work behaviors. You will be rating frequency and effectiveness of the behaviors. It is important to note that the two are not the same. Rate each behavior using the following TWO response scales:

How OFTEN does the participant perform this behavior?

1	2	3	4	5
Never or almost never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always or almost always

How EFFECTIVE is the participant on this behavior?

1	2	3	4	5	NA
Not at all effective	Slightly effective	Moderately effective	Very effective	Extremely effective	Participant does not perform behavior

Example of high frequency/low effectiveness:

The individual is always willing to help a coworker, but the help provided is often incorrect.

Example of low frequency/high effectiveness:

The individual rarely takes on extra challenging assignments, but when he/she does the project is completed to perfection.

OCBI

1. Helps others who have been absent. (Williams & Anderson, 1991)
2. Helps others who have heavy work loads. (Williams & Anderson, 1991)
3. Supports a co-worker with a personal problem. (Interpersonal Facilitation: Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996)
4. Treats other fairly. (Interpersonal Facilitation: Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996)
5. Goes out of way to help new employees. (Williams & Anderson, 1991)
6. Talks to other workers before taking actions that might affect them. (Interpersonal Facilitation: Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996)
7. Praises co-workers when they are successful. (Interpersonal Facilitation: Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996)

OCBO

1. Keeps abreast of changes in the organization. (Civic Virtue: Podsakoff et al., 1990)
2. Persists in overcoming obstacles to complete a task. (Job Dedication: Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996)
3. Takes initiative to solve a work problem. (Job Dedication: Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996)
4. Defends the organization if others criticize it. (Loyalty: Van Dyne et al., 1994)
5. Promotes the company’s products and/or services. (Loyalty: Van Dyne et al., 1994)
6. Pays close attention to important details. (Job Dedication: Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996)
7. Exercises personal discipline and self-control. (Job Dedication: Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996)

About the Author

Anna Lissa Tolentino was born and raised in Miami, Florida. She received her Bachelor of Science in Psychology from the University of Florida in 1999 and her Master of Arts in Industrial-Organizational Psychology from the University of North Carolina at Charlotte in 2002. Anna Tolentino began her doctoral program in the Fall of 2003 at the University of South Florida. Throughout her graduate studies, she pursued multiple research interests in the areas of Organizational Citizenship Behavior, motivation, personality, and performance, and has presented at multiple conferences. Additionally, she has worked as both an internal and external consultant for the private and public sector. Currently, Anna Tolentino is a Senior Consultant for Booz Allen Hamilton, a government contractor, specializing in Human Capital consulting.