



Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: A Critical Review of the Theoretical and Empirical Literature and Suggestions for Future Research

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The rapid growth of research on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) has resulted in some conceptual confusion about the nature of the construct, and made it difficult for all but the most avid readers to keep up with developments in this domain. This paper critically examines the literature on organizational citizenship behavior and other, related constructs. More specifically, it: (a) explores the conceptual similarities and differences between the various forms of "citizenship" behavior constructs identified in the literature; (b) summarizes the empirical findings of both the antecedents and consequences of OCBs; and (c) identifies several interesting directions for future research. © 2000 Elsevier Science Inc. All rights reserved.

Over a decade and a half has passed since Dennis Organ and his colleagues (cf. Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) first coined the term "Organizational Citizenship Behavior" (OCBs). Drawing on Chester Barnard's concept (Barnard, 1938) of the "willingness to cooperate," and Daniel Katz's (Katz, 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1966, 1978) distinction between dependable role performance and "innovative and spontaneous behaviors," Organ (1988: 4) defined organizational citizenship behaviors as "*individual 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. By discretionary, we mean that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person's employment contract with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable.*"

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Although the topic of OCBs initially did not have a very substantial impact on the field, interest in it and related concepts, such as extra-role behavior (cf. Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995), prosocial organizational behaviors (cf. Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; George, 1990, 1991; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), organizational spontaneity (cf. George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997), and contextual performance (cf. Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994), has increased dramatically during the past few years. Indeed, as indicated in Figure 1, while only 13 papers were published on these topics during the six-year period from 1983 to 1988, more than 122 papers (almost a ten-fold increase) have been published on these topics during the comparable six-year period from 1993 to 1998. Moreover, during this time period, interest in citizenship-like behaviors expanded from the field of organizational behavior to a variety of different domains and disciplines, including human resource management (cf. Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Murphy & Shiarella, 1997; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Hui, 1993), marketing (cf. Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Kelley & Hoffman, 1997; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Paine, 1999; Netemeyer, Bowles, MacKee, & McMur-

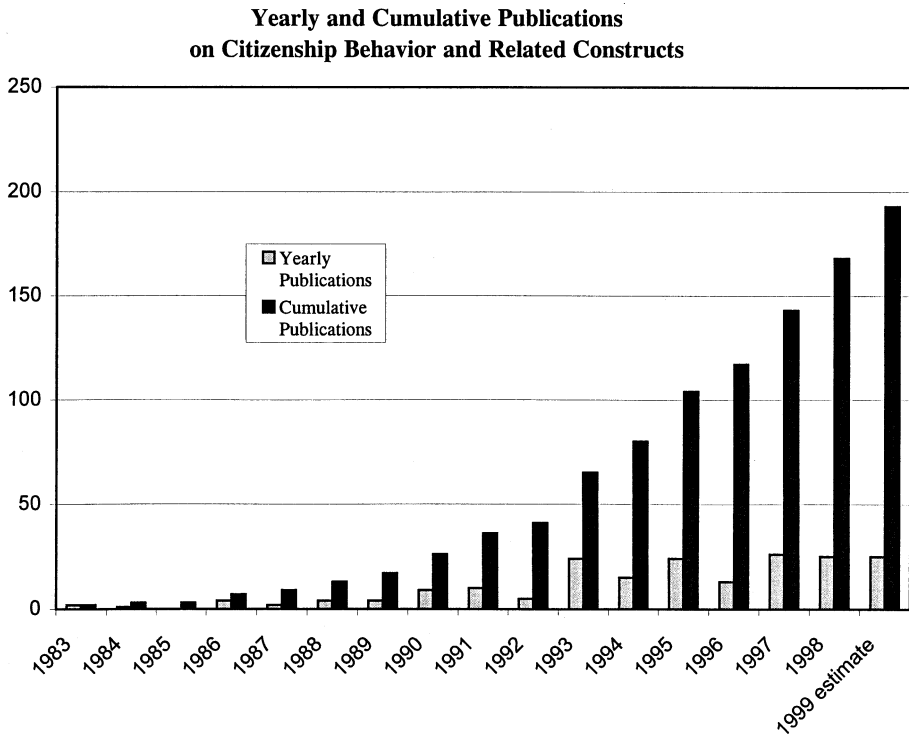


Figure 1. Yearly and Cumulative Publications on Citizenship Behavior and Related Constructs

rian, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994), hospital and health administration (cf. Bolon, 1997; Organ, 1990b), community psychology (cf. Burroughs & Eby, 1998), industrial and labor law (cf. Cappelli & Rogovsky, 1998), strategic management (cf. Kim & Mauborgne, 1993, 1998), international management (cf. Chen, Hui, & Seago, 1998; Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997; Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990; Hui, Law, & Chen, 1999; Kim & Mauborgne, 1996), military psychology (cf. Deluga, 1995), economics (cf. Tomer, 1998), and leadership (cf. Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996a, 1996b; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

Although the rapid growth in theory and research undoubtedly has been gratifying to those interested in organizational citizenship behavior, it also has produced some unfortunate consequences. For example, Van Dyne et al. (1995) have noted that much of the empirical research on organizational citizenship behavior, and the related concepts of prosocial organizational behavior and organizational spontaneity, has focused more on what Schwab (1980) called substantive validity, rather than on construct validity. That is, the literature has focused more on understanding the relationships between organizational citizenship and other constructs, rather than carefully defining the nature of citizenship behavior itself. Following Schwab (1980), Van Dyne et al. (1995) warned that unless additional attention is directed toward more comprehensive theoretical explications of the constructs and their measures, we are in danger of developing a stream of literature that may prove of little value to the field in the long run.

Related to the above, the proliferation of research on OCBs and other forms of extra-role behavior has resulted in a lack of recognition of some of the similarities and differences in some of these constructs. A careful reading of the conceptual definitions of organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988), prosocial organizational behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), civic organizational behavior (Graham, 1991), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997), and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993) suggests that there are some important differences between these constructs, although it is not uncommon to see these differences glossed over, if not completely ignored. The danger in not recognizing the differences in these constructs is that the same construct may have conflicting conceptual connotations for different people. On the other hand, the literature also indicates that there are a number of occasions where essentially the same idea or concept has been given different labels by different researchers. The problem with this practice is that it becomes difficult to see the overall patterns that exist in the research literature.

Furthermore, even though the dramatic growth of OCB research into other related management domains, such as human resources management, industrial and labor relations, strategic management, international business, and leadership, is healthy for research in this area, one unfortunate outcome of this diversification is that it has become increasingly difficult for all but the most avid readers to keep up with developments in the literature. Moreover, as interest in OCBs continues to expand to other disciplines (e.g., marketing, hospital and health administration, community psychology, economics, and military psychology) it will become even

more difficult to keep up with the theoretical and empirical developments in this area, and to assimilate the literature into a coherent whole.

Within the context of the above discussion, the purpose of this paper is to summarize and review the extant literature on organizational citizenship behavior (and other, related constructs). The first section of the paper will explore some of the conceptual similarities and differences between the various forms of “citizenship” behavior constructs that have been identified in the literature. The next section of the paper will provide a summary of the variables that have been identified as potential antecedents to OCBs. This is perhaps the most extensively researched area in this literature, and several patterns of relationships emerge from our summary that should prove of interest to those focusing their efforts on this particular research area. Next, we will turn our attention to the consequences of organizational citizenship behavior. Research in this area is somewhat more recent than research on the antecedents of OCBs, and focuses primarily on the effects that citizenship behaviors have on managerial evaluations of performance. However, there are several recent developments in this area that should prove of value to those who are interested in the determinants of organization success as well. In the final section of the paper, we will focus our attention on identifying those future research directions that appear to have particular promise for making contributions to the field. In this section we will discuss conceptual/theoretical issues in need of future research, additional antecedents and consequences that might be of interest, citizenship behaviors in cross-cultural contexts, and methodological issues.

Types of Citizenship Behavior

Despite the growing interest in citizenship-like behaviors, a review of the literature in this area reveals a lack of consensus about the dimensionality of this construct. Indeed, our examination of the literature indicated that almost 30 potentially different forms of citizenship behavior have been identified. The conceptual definitions of these constructs are presented in Table 1. However, it is clear from the table that there is a great deal of conceptual overlap between the constructs. The table captures this by organizing them into seven common themes or dimensions: (1) Helping Behavior, (2) Sportsmanship, (3) Organizational Loyalty, (4) Organizational Compliance, (5) Individual Initiative, (6) Civic Virtue, and (7) Self Development.

Helping behavior has been identified as an important form of citizenship behavior by virtually everyone who has worked in this area (cf. Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997; Graham, 1989; Organ, 1988, 1990a, 1990b; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Conceptually, helping behavior involves voluntarily helping others with, or preventing the occurrence of, work-related problems. The first part of this definition (helping others with work-related problems) includes Organ’s altruism, peacemaking, and cheerleading dimensions (Organ, 1988, 1990b); Graham’s interpersonal helping (Graham, 1989); Williams and Anderson’s OCB-I (Williams & Anderson, 1991); Van Scotter and Motow-

idlo's interpersonal facilitation (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1986); and the helping others constructs from George and Brief (1992) and George and Jones (1997). The second part of the definition captures Organ's (1988, 1990b) notion of courtesy, which involves helping others by taking steps to prevent the creation of problems for coworkers. Empirical research (MacKenzie et al., 1993; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 1999; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997) has generally confirmed the fact that all of these various forms of helping behavior load on a single factor.

Sportsmanship is a form of citizenship behavior that has received much less attention in the literature. Organ (1990b: 96) has defined sportsmanship as "a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining." However, his definition seems somewhat narrower than the label of this construct would imply. For example, in our opinion "good sports" are people who not only do not complain when they are inconvenienced by others, but also maintain a positive attitude even when things do not go their way, are not offended when others do not follow their suggestions, are willing to sacrifice their personal interest for the good of the work group, and do not take the rejection of their ideas personally. Empirical research (cf. MacKenzie et al., 1993; MacKenzie et al., 1999) that has included this construct in the context of other forms of citizenship behavior has shown it to be distinct from them, and to have somewhat different antecedents (cf. Podsakoff et al., 1996b; Podsakoff et al., 1990) and consequences (Podsakoff et al., 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Walz & Niehoff, 1996).

Organizational loyalty consists of loyal boosterism and organizational loyalty (Graham, 1989, 1991), spreading goodwill and protecting the organization (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997), and the endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives construct (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997). Essentially, organizational loyalty entails promoting the organization to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats, and remaining committed to it even under adverse conditions. Preliminary research by Moorman and Blakely (1995) has indicated that this dimension is distinct from several other forms of citizenship behavior, although a confirmatory factor analysis in a follow-up study conducted by Moorman, Blakely, and Niehoff (1998) failed to confirm this. Thus, additional work on these scales appears to be warranted.

As indicated in Table 1, *organizational compliance* has a long tradition of research in the citizenship behavior area. This dimension has been called generalized compliance by Smith et al. (1983); organizational obedience by Graham (1991); OCB-O by Williams and Anderson (1991); and following organizational rules and procedures by Borman and Motowidlo (1993); and contains some aspects of Van Scotter and Motowidlo's job dedication construct (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). This dimension appears to capture a person's internalization and acceptance of the organization's rules, regulations, and procedures, which results in a scrupulous adherence to them, even when no one observes or monitors compliance. The reason that this behavior is regarded as a form of citizenship behavior is that even though everyone is expected to obey company regulations, rules, and procedures at all times, many employees simply do not. Therefore, an

Table 1. Summary of Employee In-Role and

<i>Citizenship Behavior Dimension</i>	<i>Smith, Organ, & Near (1983)</i>	<i>Organ (1988, 1990a, 1990b)</i>	<i>Graham (1989); Moorman & Blakely (1995)</i>	<i>Graham (1991)</i>
HELPING BEHAVIOR	Altruism —capture(s) behavior that is directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in face-to-face situations (e.g., orienting new people, assisting someone with a heavy workload) (pg. 657).	Altruism —voluntary actions that help another person with a work problem—instructing a new hire on how to use equipment, helping a co-worker catch up with a backlog of work, fetching materials that a colleague needs and cannot procure on his own (pg. 96). Courtesy —subsumes all of those foresightful gestures that help someone else prevent a problem—touching base with people before committing to actions that will affect them, providing advance notice to someone who needs to know to schedule work (pg. 96). Peacemaking —actions that help to prevent, resolve or mitigate unconstructive interpersonal conflict (pg. 96). Cheerleading —the words and gestures of encouragement and reinforcement of coworkers’ accomplishments and professional development (pg. 96). Sportsmanship —a citizen-like posture of tolerating the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without whining and grievances (pg. 96).	Interpersonal Helping —focuses on helping coworkers in their jobs when such help was needed (Moorman & Blakely, pg. 130).	
SPORTSMANSHIP				

Extra-Role Work Performance Dimensions

<i>Williams & Anderson (1991)</i>	<i>George & Brief (1992); George & Jones (1997)</i>	<i>Borman & Motowidlo (1993, 1997)</i>	<i>Van Scotter & Motowidlo (1996)</i>
<p>OCB-I—behaviors that immediately benefit specific individuals and indirectly through this means contribute to the organization (e.g., helps others who have been absent, takes a personal interest in other employees). . . Prior research has labeled the OCB-I dimension as altruism. . . (pg. 602).</p>	<p>Helping coworkers—includes all voluntary forms of assistance that oragnizational members provide each other to facilitate the accomplishment of tasks and attainment of goals. Helping coworkers includes behaviors ranging from helping a coworker with a heavy workload and sharing resources, to calling attention to errors and omissions and providing instruction in the use of new technology when one is not required to do so (George & Jones, pg. 154).</p>	<p>Helping and Cooperating With Others—[Including] assisting/helping coworkers. . . assisting/helping customers. . . [and] altruism (pg. 82).</p>	<p>Interpersonal Facilitation—consists of interpersonally oriented behaviors that contribute to organizational goal accomplishment. . . In addition to the spontaneous helping behaviors that Smith et al. (1983) called altruism, and George and Brief (1992) labeled helping coworkers, interpersonal facilitation encompasses deliberate acts that improve morale, encourage cooperation, remove barriers to performance, or help coworkers perform their task-oriented job activities. Thus, interpersonal facilitation encompasses a range of interpersonal acts that help maintain the interpersonal and social context needed to support effective task performance in an organizational setting (pg. 526).</p>

Helping and Cooperating With Others—[Including] organizational courtesy and not complaining. . . (pg. 82).

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Table 1.

<i>Citizenship Behavior Dimension</i>	<i>Smith, Organ, & Near (1983)</i>	<i>Organ (1988, 1990a, 1990b)</i>	<i>Graham (1989); Moorman & Blakely (1995)</i>	<i>Graham (1991)</i>
ORGANIZATIONAL LOYALTY			Loyalty Boosterism —the promotion of the organizational image to outsiders (Moorman & Blakely, pg. 130).	Organizational Loyalty —identification with and allegiance to organizational leaders and the organization as a whole, transcending the parochial interests of individuals, work groups, and departments. Representative behaviors include defending the organization against threats; contributing to its good reputation; and cooperating with others to serve the interests of the whole (pg. 255).
ORGANIZATIONAL COMPLIANCE	Generalized Compliance. . . . pertains to a more impersonal form of conscientiousness that does not provide immediate aid to any one specific person, but rather is indirectly helpful to others involved in the system. The behavior (e.g., punctuality, not wasting time) seems to represent something akin to compliance with internalized norms defining what a “good employee ought to do” (pg. 657).			Organizational Obedience —An orientation toward organizational structure, job descriptions, and personnel policies that recognizes and accepts the necessity and desirability of a rational structure of rules and regulations. Obedience may be demonstrated by a respect for rules and instructions, punctuality in attendance and task completion, and stewardship of organizational resources (pg. 255).

Continued

<i>Williams & Anderson (1991)</i>	<i>George & Brief (1992); George & Jones (1997)</i>	<i>Borman & Motowidlo (1993, 1997)</i>	<i>Van Scotter & Motowidlo (1996)</i>
<p>OCB-O—behaviors that benefit the organization in general (e.g., gives advance notice when unable to come to work, adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order). . . Prior research has labeled. . . the OCB-O dimension as generalized compliance. . . (pp. 601–602).</p>	<p>Spreading Goodwill—is the means by which organizational members voluntarily contribute to organizational effectiveness through efforts to represent their organizations to wider communities in a beneficial light, whether it be describing one’s organization as supportive and caring or describing an organization’s goods and services as being high-quality and responsive to customers’ needs; instances of spreading goodwill contribute to organizational effectiveness by insuring that organizations obtain needed resources from various stakeholder groups. (George & Jones, pg. 155).</p>	<p>Endorsing, Supporting, and Defending Organizational Objectives—[Including] organizational loyalty . . . concern for unit objectives . . . staying with the organization during hard times and representing the organization favorably to outsiders (pg. 82).</p> <p>Following Organizational Rules and Procedures— [Including] following orders and regulations and respect for authority . . . complying with organizational values and policies . . . conscientiousness . . . meeting deadlines (pg. 82).</p>	<p>Job Dedication— centers on self-disciplined behaviors such as following rules. . . It encompasses Smith et al.’s (1983) generalized compliance dimension. . . (pg. 526).</p>

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Table 1.

<i>Citizenship Behavior Dimension</i>	<i>Smith, Organ, & Near (1983)</i>	<i>Organ (1988, 1990a, 1990b)</i>	<i>Graham (1989); Moorman & Blakely (1995)</i>	<i>Graham (1991)</i>
INDIVIDUAL INITIATIVE		Conscientiousness — is a pattern of going well beyond minimally required levels of attendance, punctuality, housekeeping, conserving resources, and related matters of internal maintenance (pg. 96).	Personal Industry — the performance of specific tasks above and beyond the call of duty (Moorman & Blakely, pg. 130). Individual Initiative — communications to others in the workplace to improve individual and group performance (Moorman & Blakely, pg. 130).	
CIVIC VIRTUE		Civic Virtue —is responsible, constructive involvement in the political process of the organization, including not just expressing opinions but reading one’s mail, attending meetings, and keeping abreast of larger issues involving the organization (pg. 96).		Organizational Participation —Interest in organizational affairs guided by ideal standards of virtue, validated by keeping informed, and expressed through full and responsible involvement in organizational governance. This includes attending nonrequired meetings, sharing informed opinions and new ideas with others, and being willing to deliver bad news and support an unpopular view to combat groupthink (pg. 255).

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<i>Williams & Anderson (1991)</i>	<i>George & Brief (1992); George & Jones (1997)</i>	<i>Borman & Motowidlo (1993, 1997)</i>	<i>Van Scotter & Motowidlo (1996)</i>
<p>Making Constructive Suggestions— includes all voluntary acts of creativity and innovation in organizations. Such suggestions can range from the relatively mundane (a more efficient way to handle paperwork) to the more monumental (reorganization of an entire unit to better serve a changing customer base). . . workers who engage in this form of organizational spontaneity . . . actively try to find ways to improve individual, group, or organizational functioning (George & Jones, pg. 155).</p>	<p>PERSISTING WITH ENTHUSIASM AND EXTRA EFFORT as necessary to complete own task activities successfully. [Includes] perseverance and conscientiousness . . . [and] extra effort on the job . . . (pg. 82).</p> <p>VOLUNTEERING TO CARRY OUT TASK ACTIVITIES that are not formally part of own job. . . [Includes] suggesting organizational improvements. . . [and] initiative and taking on extra responsibility (pg. 82).</p>	<p>Job Dedication— centers on self-disciplined behaviors such as. . . working hard, and taking the initiative to solve a problem at work. It encompasses. . . the “will do” factors identified in. . . (Campbell et al., 1990). Job dedication is the motivational foundation for job performance that drives people to act with the deliberate intention of promoting the organization’s best interest (pg. 526).</p>	
<p>Protecting the Organization—includes those voluntary acts organizational members engage in to protect or save life and property ranging from reporting fire hazards, securely locking doors, reporting suspicious or dangerous activities, to taking the initiative to halt a production process when there is the potential for human injury (George & Jones, pg. 155).</p>			

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Table 1.

<i>Citizenship Behavior Dimension</i>	<i>Smith, Organ, & Near (1983)</i>	<i>Organ (1988, 1990a, 1990b)</i>	<i>Graham (1989); Moorman & Blakely (1995)</i>	<i>Graham (1991)</i>
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SELF-
DEVELOPMENT

employee who religiously obeys all rules and regulations, even when no one is watching, is regarded as an especially “good citizen.”

Another dimension that several researchers have identified as a form of citizenship behavior is called *individual initiative*. This form of OCB is extra-role only in the sense that it involves engaging in task-related behaviors at a level that is so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary flavor. Such behaviors include voluntary acts of creativity and innovation designed to improve one’s task or the organization’s performance, persisting with extra enthusiasm and effort to accomplish one’s job, volunteering to take on extra responsibilities, and encouraging others in the organization to do the same. All of these behaviors share the idea that the employee is going “above and beyond” the call of duty. This dimension is similar to Organ’s conscientiousness construct (Organ, 1988), Graham’s and Moorman and Blakely’s personal industry and individual initiative constructs (Graham, 1989; Moorman & Blakely, 1995), George’s (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997) making constructive suggestions construct, Borman and Motowidlo’s persisting with enthusiasm and volunteering to carry out task activities constructs (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997), Morrison and Phelps’ taking charge at work construct (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), and some aspects of Van Scotter and Motowidlo’s job dedication construct (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Organ (1988) indicated that this form of behavior is among the most difficult to distinguish from in-role behavior, because it differs more in degree than in kind. Therefore, perhaps it is not surprising that some researchers have not included this dimension in their studies of organizational citizenship behavior (cf. MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; MacKenzie et al., 1993) or have found that this behavior is difficult to distinguish empirically from in-role or task performance (cf. Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

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<i>Williams & Anderson (1991)</i>	<i>George & Brief (1992); George & Jones (1997)</i>	<i>Borman & Motowidlo (1993, 1997)</i>	<i>Van Scotter & Motowidlo (1996)</i>
<p>Developing Oneself—includes all the steps that workers take to voluntarily improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities so as to be better able to contribute to their organizations. Seeking out and taking advantage of advanced training courses, keeping abreast of the latest developments in one's field and area, or even learning a new set of skills so as to expand the range of one's contributions to an organization . . . (George & Jones, pg. 155).</p>			

The next dimension is derived from Graham's discussion of the responsibilities that employees have as "citizens" of an organization (Graham, 1991). *Civic virtue* represents a macro-level interest in, or commitment to, the organization as a whole. This is shown by a willingness to participate actively in its governance (e.g., attend meetings, engage in policy debates, express one's opinion about what strategy the organization ought to follow, etc.); to monitor its environment for threats and opportunities (e.g., keep up with changes in the industry that might affect the organization); and to look out for its best interests (e.g., reporting fire hazards or suspicious activities, locking doors, etc.), even at great personal cost. These behaviors reflect a person's recognition of being part of a larger whole in the same way that citizens are members of a country and accept the responsibilities which that entails. This dimension has been referred to as civic virtue by Organ (1988, 1990b), organizational participation by Graham (1989), and protecting the organization by George and Brief (1992).

The final dimension is *self development*. Based on the work of Katz (1964), George and Brief (1992) identified developing oneself as a key dimension of citizenship behavior. Self-development includes voluntary behaviors employees engage in to improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities. According to George and Brief (1992: 155) this might include "seeking out and taking advantage of advanced training courses, keeping abreast of the latest developments in one's field and area, or even learning a new set of skills so as to expand the range of one's contributions to an organization." Interestingly, self-development has not received any empirical confirmation in the citizenship behavior literature. However, it does appear to be a discretionary form of employee behavior that is conceptually distinct from the other citizenship behavior dimensions, and might be expected to improve organizational effectiveness through somewhat different mechanisms than the other forms of citizenship behavior.

Thus, when one examines the different types of citizenship-like behavior that have been identified in the literature, they seem to fall into one of the following categories: helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self-development. In view of the fact that almost all of the citizenship behavior research was influenced by Katz (1964), perhaps it is not surprising that these underlying dimensions bear a strong resemblance to the dimensions of “innovative and spontaneous” behavior that he identified in his original article, including (1) cooperating with others, (2) protecting the organization, (3) volunteering constructive ideas, (4) self-training, and (5) maintaining a favorable attitude toward the company. For example, cooperating with others is reflected in the helping and sportsmanship dimensions; protecting the organization is reflected in the civic virtue and organizational loyalty dimensions; volunteering constructive ideas is reflected in the individual initiative dimension; self-training is reflected in the self-development dimension; and maintaining a favorable attitude toward the company is reflected in the organizational loyalty and, perhaps, sportsmanship dimensions. Thus, in a sense, the roots of almost every form of citizenship behavior can be traced back to Katz’s seminal framework (Katz, 1964).

Antecedents of “Citizenship” Behaviors

Table 2 reports the meta-analytic relationships between OCBs and their antecedents¹. This table shows the mean correlations corrected for sampling error and measurement reliability, along with the number of studies and the total sample size (in brackets [# studies/sample size]) on which each correlation is based. As indicated in this table, the number of studies on which the correlations are based ranged from 2 to 28, with an average of approximately 6, and the sample size ranged from 502 to 6,746, with an average size of 2,040. This table focuses on those forms of organizational citizenship behaviors that have received the most attention in the research literature, rather than on contextual performance (cf. Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997) or other less widely researched forms of “citizenship” behavior (cf. Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994).

Empirical research has focused on four major categories of antecedents: individual (or employee) characteristics, task characteristics, organizational characteristics, and leadership behaviors. The earliest research in this area (cf. Bate-man & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988; Smith et al., 1983) concentrated primarily on employee attitudes, dispositions, and leader supportiveness. Subsequent research in the leadership area (cf. Podsakoff et al., 1996b; Podsakoff et al., 1990) expanded the domain of leadership behaviors to include various forms of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. The effects of task and organizational characteristics are found primarily in the substitutes for leadership literature (cf. Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 1996b; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996a; Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie & Williams, 1993).

Table 2. Meta-Analytic Correlations Between Employee Variables, Task Characteristics, Organizational Characteristics, Leader Behaviors, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

	Altruism	Courtesy	Conscientiousness	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Generalized Compliance	"Overall" OCB
INDIVIDUAL (EMPLOYEE) CHARACTERISTICS							
<i>Employee Attitudes</i>							
Satisfaction	.31* ¹ [7/2,456]	.25* ¹ [5/1,544]	.28* ¹ [7/2,456]	.30* ¹ [5/1,544]	.19* ¹ [5/1,544]	.28* ² [25/5,975]	
	.28* ² [28/6,746]					(.24* ²) [20/5,189]	
	(.26* ²) [22/5,549]					.27* [15/2,690]	
Fairness ²	.24* ³ [20/3,313]					(.24* ³) [11/2,192]	
Organizational Commitment	.22* ¹ [7/2,456]	.14* ¹ [5/1,544]	.22* ¹ [7/2,456]	.18* ¹ [5/1,544]	.13* ¹ [5/1,544]	.32* ² [10/2,671]	
	.25* ² [11/2,648]					(.26* ²) [6/1,992]	
Affective Commitment ²	.23* [5/1,071]					.30* [4/943]	
Continuance Commitment ²	.01 [4/754]					.05 [3/626]	
Trust in Leader	.24* ³ [4/2,729]	.24* ⁴ [3/2,252]	.26* ⁴ [3/2,252]	.20* ³ [4/2,729]	.09 ³ [4/2,729]		.39* ⁵ [2/669]
<i>Dispositional Variables</i>							
Conscientiousness ²	.22* [11/2,172]					.30* [10/1,818]	
	(.04) [7/1,231]					(.23* ²) [7/1,231]	
Agreeableness ²	.13* [6/916]					.11* [6/916]	
Positive Affectivity ²	.15* [7/1,021]					.07 [6/934]	
	(.08) [5/869]						
Negative Affectivity ²	-.06 [6/1,201]					-.12* [5/847]	
<i>Employee Role Perceptions</i>							
Role Ambiguity ¹	-.12* [8/2,651]	-.12* [5/1,544]	-.10 [7/2,456]	-.12* [5/1,544]	-.02 [5/1,544]		
Role Conflict ¹	-.08* [7/2,351]	-.11* [5/1,544]	-.11 [6/2,156]	-.16* [5/1,544]	.08 [5/1,544]		
<i>Demographic Variables</i>							
Tenure ²	.06 [4/717]					.03 [5/871]	
Gender ²	.03 [5/1,110]					-.07 [4/756]	

(Continued on next page)

Table 2. Continued

	Altruism	Courtesy	Conscientiousness	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Generalized Compliance	"Overall" OCB
Employee Abilities and Individual Differences							
Ability/Experience/Training/ Knowledge ¹	.06 [8/2,651]	-.02 [5/1,544]	-.01 [7/2,456]	-.08 [5/1,544]	.09* [5/1,544]		
Professional Orientation ¹	.02 [7/2,351]	-.14* [5/1,544]	.02 [6/2,156]	-.14* [5/1,544]	-.04 [5/1,544]		
Need for Independence ¹	.02 [8/2,651]	.04 [5/1,544]	.01 [7/2,456]	.02 [5/1,544]	-.11* [5/1,544]		
Indifference to Rewards ¹	-.17* [8/2,651]	-.17* [5/1,544]	-.24* [7/2,456]	-.25* [5/1,544]	-.15* [5/1,544]		
TASK CHARACTERISTICS							
Task Feedback ¹	.18* [7/2,456]	.19* [5/1,544]	.21* [7/2,456]	.17* [5/1,544]	.16* [5/1,544]		
Task Routinization ¹	-.25* [8/2,651]	-.15* [5/1,544]	-.23* [7/2,456]	-.10* [5/1,544]	-.30* [5/1,544]		
Intrinsically Satisfying Task ¹	.27* [8/2,651]	.16* [5/1,544]	.22* [7/2,456]	.16* [5/1,544]	.14* [5/1,544]		
ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS							
Organizational Formalization ¹	-.04 [8/2,651]	.04 [5/1,544]	-.01 [7/2,456]	.04 [5/1,544]	-.10 [5/1,544]		
Organizational Inflexibility ¹	-.01 [7/2,456]	.12 [5/1,544]	.06 [7/2,456]	.12* [5/1,544]	.05 [5/1,544]		
Advisory/Staff Support ¹	.11 [7/2,456]	.00 [5/1,544]	.11 [7/2,456]	.01 [5/1,544]	.13 [5/1,544]		
Cohesive Group ¹	.19* [8/2,651]	.20* [5/1,544]	.12* [7/2,456]	.17* [5/1,544]	.15* [5/1,544]		
Rewards Outside the Leader's Control ¹	-.14* [8/2,651]	-.08* [5/1,544]	-.17* [7/2,456]	-.03 [5/1,544]	-.14 [5/1,544]		
Spatial Distance from Leader ¹	-.15* [8/2,651]	-.09 [5/1,544]	-.12 [7/2,456]	-.04 [5/1,544]	-.08 [5/1,544]		
Perceived Organizational Support ⁶	.31* [4/894]						
LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS							
"Core" Transformational Leadership ⁷	.26* [4/3,053]	.24* [3/2,576]	.24* [3/2,576]	.23* [4/3,053]	.11 [4/3,053]		
Articulating a Vision ⁷	.20* [2/1,588]	.20* [2/1,588]	.19* [2/1,588]	.23* [2/1,588]	.13* [2/1,588]		
Providing an Appropriate Model ⁷	.24* [2/1,588]	.25* [2/1,588]	.21* [2/1,588]	.21* [2/1,588]	.15* [2/1,588]		
Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals ⁷	.23* [2/1,588]	.21* [2/1,588]	.18* [2/1,588]	.21* [2/1,588]	.12* [2/1,588]		
High Performance Expectations ⁷	.14* [4/3,053]	.17* [3/2,576]	.15* [3/2,576]	.13* [4/3,053]	.09 [4/3,053]		

Intellectual Stimulation ⁷	.20* [4/3,053]	.18* [3/2,576]	.18* [3/2,576]	.17* [4/3,053]	.11 [4/3,053]
Contingent Reward Behavior ¹	.26* [7/2,351]	.26* [5/1,544]	.26* [6/2,156]	.25* [5/1,544]	.15* [5/1,544]
Contingent Punishment Behavior ¹	-.04 [7/2,351]	.01 [5/1,544]	-.03 [6/2,156]	-.02 [5/1,544]	.01 [5/1,544]
Noncontingent Reward Behavior ¹	.13* [7/2,351]	.08 [5/1,544]	.12* [6/2,156]	.09 [5/1,544]	.07 [5/1,544]
Noncontingent Punishment Behavior ¹	-.25* [7/2,351]	-.19* [5/1,544]	-.26* [6/2,156]	-.24* [5/1,544]	-.08 [5/1,544]
Leader Role Clarification ¹	.12* [7/2,456]	.18* [5/1,544]	.12* [7/2,456]	.19* [5/1,544]	.04 [5/1,544]
Leader Specification of Procedures ¹	-.09* [7/2,456]	-.04 [5/1,544]	-.07 [7/2,456]	-.09 [5/1,544]	-.07 [5/1,544]
Supportive Leader Behaviors	.26* ⁹ [12/5,704]	.28* ⁹ [8/4,120]	.25* ⁹ [10/5,032]	.25* ⁹ [9/4,597]	.15* ⁹ [9/4,597]
Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) ⁸	.27* ² [8/3,062]	.36* ² [6/2,562]	.35* ² [8/3,062]	.35* ² [8/3,062]	.30* ² [3/585]

¹Obtained from the meta-analysis reported by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer (1996a). In this meta-analysis, *all* of the measures of OCB were obtained from supervisors (*not* self-ratings).
²Obtained from meta-analysis reported by Organ & Ryan (1995). Coefficients reported without parentheses include self-rated OCBs; those coefficients with parentheses *do not* include self-rated OCBs.

³Meta-analysis conducted for this paper from the results reported by: Deluga (1995); MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich (1999); Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer (1996b), and Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter (1990).

⁴Meta-analysis conducted for this paper from the results reported by: Deluga (1995); Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer (1996b); and Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter (1990).

⁵Meta-analysis conducted for this paper from the results reported by: Konovsky & Pugh (1994), and McAllister (1995).

⁶Meta-analysis conducted for this paper from the results reported by: Moorman, Blakely & Niehoff (1998) [Interpersonal helping dimension]; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden (1996) [OCB-1 dimension]; Shore & Wayne (1993) [Altruism dimension]; Wayne, Shore, & Liden (1997) [Altruism dimension].

⁷Meta-analysis conducted for this paper from Chen & Farh (1999); MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich (1999); Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer (1996b); and Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990). For purposes of determining the relationship between the "core" transformational leadership dimension and the citizenship behaviors in the two studies where the "core" transformational construct was not examined (i.e., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996b; Chen & Farh, 1999), correlations between each of the components of the "core" transformational construct (i.e., articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, and fostering the acceptance of group goals) and each of the citizenship dimensions were averaged.

⁸Meta-analysis conducted for this paper from the results reported by: DeLuga (1998); Hui, Law, & Chen (1999); Settoon, Bennett, & Liden (1996); Tansky (1993); Wayne, Shore, & Liden (1997); Witt (1991).

⁹Meta-analysis conducted for this paper from the results reported by Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer (1996a, 1996b); Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990); Chen & Farh (1999); and MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Rich (1999).

**p* < .05.

Early research efforts on employee characteristics (cf. Bateman & Organ, 1983; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Smith et al., 1983) focused on two main causes of OCBs. The first of these is a general affective "morale" factor, which Organ and Ryan (1995) view as underlying employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceptions of fairness, and perceptions of leader supportiveness. As shown in Table 2, these variables have been the most frequently investigated antecedents of OCB, and all of them have significant relationships with citizenship behaviors of roughly comparable strength (ranging from .23 to .31). Thus, those variables comprising employee "morale" do appear to be important determinants of citizenship behaviors. These findings raise the question of whether there are other variables that comprise employee morale (e.g., trust, more specific forms of satisfaction, etc.) whose effects may also be important to examine.

In addition to "morale," Organ and Ryan (1995: 794) argue that various dispositional factors, such as agreeableness, conscientiousness, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity, "predispose people to certain orientations vis-a-vis coworkers and managers. And those orientations might well increase the likelihood of receiving treatment that they would recognize as satisfying, supportive, fair, and worthy of commitment." Thus, these dispositional variables could be seen as indirect contributors of OCBs, rather than direct causes. An examination of Table 2 indicates that, of the dispositional variables examined in previous research, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and positive affectivity have the strongest effects. Conscientiousness and agreeableness are related significantly to both altruism and generalized compliance; and positive affectivity is related positively to altruism. However, the available evidence suggests that a substantial proportion (if not all) of these relationships may be due to common method variance (cf. Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). For example, Organ and Ryan (1995) found that although the correlation between conscientiousness and altruism was significant ($r = .22$) when all available data were included, this relationship became non-significant ($r = .04$) when studies with self-rated OCBs were excluded from the analysis. Similarly, the correlation between positive affectivity and altruism dropped from .15 (significant) to .08 (non-significant) when this bias was controlled. The same really cannot be said for the relationship between conscientiousness and generalized compliance. Indeed, although this relationship was weaker when common method variance was controlled for, it was still significant.

Role perceptions also have been found to have significant relationships with at least some of the organizational citizenship behavior dimensions, although the size of these relationships is not very substantial. Both role ambiguity and role conflict are significantly negatively related to altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship but not to conscientiousness and civic virtue. However, since both role ambiguity and role conflict are known to be related to employee satisfaction, and satisfaction is related to organizational citizenship behaviors, it is likely that at least a portion of the relationship between ambiguity and conflict and OCBs is mediated by satisfaction.

Generally speaking, demographic variables (e.g., organizational tenure and employee gender) have not been found to be related to OCBs. The finding that gender is not related to citizenship behaviors is somewhat surprising, given that

Kidder and McLean Parks (1993) discussed a number of plausible theoretical reasons why it ought to be. For example, they noted that empathetic concern and perspective taking should influence both helping behavior and courtesy, and both of these traits are associated with females (Davis, 1983). Conversely, Kidder and McLean Parks (1993) argued that males are more likely to engage in conscientious behavior than females, because "this type of behavior suggests an exchange orientation or an emphasis on *quid pro quo*, frequently associated with a male preference for equity over equality." Thus, even though the existing empirical evidence has not been very supportive of the hypothesized effects of gender on citizenship behavior, additional evidence is needed before this issue can be resolved conclusively.

Of the remaining employee characteristics examined in the literature, only indifference to rewards was found to have a consistent relationship with OCBs. Indeed, indifference to rewards was negatively related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. However, none of the other employee characteristics including ability, experience, training, and knowledge; professional orientation; or need for independence had a consistently strong relationship with any of the citizenship behaviors.

Turning our attention now to the task variables, research primarily in the substitutes for leadership literature (e.g., Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996a, 1996b; Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, & Williams, 1993) reveals that task characteristics have consistent relationships with citizenship behaviors. Indeed, all three forms of task characteristics included in the substitutes literature (task feedback, task routinization, and intrinsically satisfying tasks) were significantly related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Task feedback and intrinsically satisfying tasks were positively related to citizenship behavior, while task routinization was negatively related to OCBs. Thus, although not emphasized in the existing OCB literature, it appears that task characteristics are important determinants of citizenship behavior and deserve more attention in future research.

The relationships between organizational characteristics and OCBs were somewhat mixed. Neither organizational formalization, organizational inflexibility, advisory/staff support, nor spatial distance were consistently related to citizenship behaviors. However, group cohesiveness was found to be significantly and positively related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue; and perceived organizational support was found to be significantly related to employee altruism. In addition, rewards outside the leader's control were negatively related to altruism, courtesy, and conscientiousness.

The final category of antecedents included in Table 2 is the leadership behaviors. These behaviors can be divided into transformational leadership behaviors ("core" transformational behaviors, articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, and intellectual stimulation), transactional leadership behaviors (contingent reward behavior, contingent punishment behavior, noncontingent reward behavior, noncontingent punishment behavior), and behaviors identified with either the Path-Goal theory of leadership (role clarification behavior, spec-

ification of procedures, or supportive leader behavior), or the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory of leadership. Generally speaking, the transformational leadership behaviors had significant and consistent positive relationships with altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Two forms of transactional leader behavior were significantly related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue; one positively (contingent reward behavior), and the other negatively (noncontingent punishment behavior). Of the Path-Goal leadership dimensions, supportive leader behavior was found to be positively related to every form of OCB, and leader role clarification was positively related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship. Finally, leader-member exchange was positively related to altruism and "overall"² citizenship behaviors.

In summary, job attitudes, task variables, and various types of leader behaviors appear to be more strongly related to OCBs than the other antecedents. Consistent with Organ and his colleagues (cf. Bateman & Organ, 1983; Moorman, 1991; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993; Organ, 1988, 1990a; Smith et al., 1983), job satisfaction, perceptions of fairness, and organizational commitment were positively related to citizenship behaviors in Table 2. Task variables also appear to be consistently related to a wide variety of organizational citizenship behaviors, although little attention has been given to them in the OCB literature (see Farh et al., 1990, and Pearce & Gregersen, 1991, for a few exceptions). This is interesting because it suggests a whole new category of antecedents that has not been previously considered. Finally, one very strong pattern in the findings reported in Table 2 is that leaders play a key role in influencing citizenship behavior. Indeed, with a few exceptions, almost all of the leader behavior-OCB relationships shown in the table were significant. Supportive behavior on the part of the leader was strongly related to organizational citizenship behavior and may even underlie the effects of perceived organizational support on OCBs. Transformational leadership behavior also had consistent effects on every form of citizenship behavior. Perhaps this should not be surprising, since the heart of transformational leadership is the ability to get employees to perform above and beyond expectations (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Kouzes & Posner, 1987), and this extra effort may show up in the form of citizenship behavior. Leader-member exchange behavior also was strongly related to OCBs. Thus, it appears that OCBs play a role in the reciprocal social exchange process hypothesized by Graen and Scandura (1987); Settoon, Bennett, and Liden (1996); and Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997).

Of course, whether the observed effects of job attitudes, task variables, and leader behaviors on OCBs are independent or not is impossible to determine using the bivariate correlations in Table 2. For example, it may be the case that some of the task variables (e.g., intrinsically satisfying tasks or task routinization) influence OCBs through job attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction); or that some of the leader behaviors (e.g., contingent reward behavior or noncontingent punishment behavior) influence OCBs through job attitudes (e.g., employee's perceptions of fairness). Alternatively, it is possible that some of these relationships would fail to be significant when controlling for the effects of the other predictors. Thus, future

research needs to include a more complete set of these variables to investigate these possibilities.

Another pattern that emerged from the data in Table 2 is that reward contingencies influence the frequency of organizational citizenship behavior. As shown in the table, when employees are not indifferent to the rewards made available by the organization, when employees perceive that their leaders control those rewards, and when their leaders administer rewards contingent upon performance, organizational citizenship behavior increases. This suggests at least two possibilities. First, it is possible that managers (either implicitly or explicitly) have a relatively broad conception of performance and view citizenship behavior as a part of it. Consequently, when they administer rewards contingent upon performance, they reward OCBs as well as in-role aspects of performance, thus increasing the frequency of citizenship behavior. Although the contingency between rewards and citizenship behaviors is inconsistent with Organ's original definition of OCBs (Organ, 1988), this interpretation is consistent with the findings reported by MacKenzie et al. (1991, 1993, 1999) and Werner (1994), among others. These findings indicate that managers do take OCBs into account when evaluating the performance of their subordinates, while the findings of Park and Sims (1989), and Allen and Rush (1998), indicate that managers administer rewards contingent upon citizenship behavior.

Another possibility is that employees have a broad conception of performance that includes OCBs. Thus, when they value organizational rewards, and believe that their leader administers them contingent upon good performance, they engage in citizenship behavior as a means of obtaining rewards. This line of reasoning is consistent with Morrison (1994), who found that employees often view OCBs as an expected part of their job.

With the exception of conscientiousness, dispositional variables generally were not found to be strongly related to the dimensions of OCBs after common method variance was taken into account. The same is true for demographic variables (e.g., organizational tenure and gender). Although on the face of it, this data contradicts the assertion of some (cf. Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994) that dispositional variables are important antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors, it is important to recognize that only a limited set of dispositions have been examined in the literature (cf. Organ & Ryan, 1995).

Consequences of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Although the majority of the early research efforts focused on the antecedents of citizenship behavior, more recent research has devoted an increasing amount of attention to the consequences of OCBs. More specifically, recent research has focused on two key issues: (a) the effects of OCBs on managerial evaluations of performance and judgments regarding pay raises, promotions, etc., and (b) the effects of OCBs on organizational performance and success. In the next section, we will examine the literature on the effects that OCBs have on these two areas.

Effects of OCBs on Performance Evaluations and Other Managerial Decisions

MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and their colleagues (MacKenzie et al., 1991, 1993; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Hui, 1993) have suggested several reasons why managers may value OCBs and take them into account when evaluating employee performance. These reasons are summarized in Table 3. As indicated in the table, some of the reasons have to do with norms of reciprocity and fairness, some have to do with the way managers form their evaluations, and others have to do with the informational distinctiveness and accessibility of OCB information in memory. However, regardless of the underlying mechanism, the available empirical evidence summarized in Tables 4a, 4b, and 5 suggests that OCBs do, in fact, influence managers' evaluations of performance and other related decisions.

Table 4a summarizes the results of seven field studies that have examined the relative effects of OCBs and objective performance on performance evaluations. The first two rows in the table indicate the names of the researchers who conducted the study, and the sample characteristics. The next row specifies the nature of the objective measures of performance used in each study. Following this, the next four rows report the proportion of variance attributable to in-role and extra-role performance. The first of these rows reports the unique contribution of objective performance to the managers' evaluations, while the next row reports the unique contribution of OCBs to this evaluation. The next two rows report the proportion of variance shared by the objective performance measures and the OCBs, and the total variance explained, respectively. For example, in Avila, Fern, and Mann's study of computer salespeople (Avila, Fern, & Mann, 1988), 12% of the variance in employee performance evaluations was uniquely attributable to objective sales performance, 48% was uniquely attributable to organizational citizenship behaviors, and 3% of the variance was shared between objective sales performance and the OCBs.

The row entitled "Common Methods Variance Controlled?" indicates whether the authors statistically controlled for the fact that the measures of OCBs and managerial performance evaluations were obtained from the same source. Typically, this was done by adding a first-order "common-method" latent factor, which had each measure obtained from the same source as an indicator, to the hypothesized model. In those studies for which this biasing factor was controlled, the adjusted proportions of variance attributable to the various factors are shown in brackets []. Thus, in the MacKenzie et al. (1993) sample of 261 insurance agents, objective performance accounted for 13% of the variance in overall evaluations when common method variance was not controlled, and 24% of the variance when this bias was controlled. Similarly, whereas OCBs accounted for 44% of the variance in performance evaluations when common method variance was not controlled, they accounted for only 9% when this factor was controlled. Finally, as indicated in this column, while the percent of variance shared between the objective measures and OCBs was 8% before common method variance was controlled, it was 13% after this bias was controlled.

The bottom six rows of the table identify which of the individual OCBs had significant effects on the overall performance evaluations. In these rows, a (+)

Table 3. Summary of Reasons Why OCBS Might Influence Managerial Evaluations of Performance

<i>Potential Reason</i>	<i>Explanation</i>
Norm of Reciprocity/Fairness	Gouldner (1960), Homans (1961), and Blau (1964) have noted that people try to reciprocate those who help them, do them a favor, or treat them fairly. Therefore, if citizenship behaviors have positive effects for both the manager and the organization, managers might repay employees who exhibit OCBS (perhaps out of a sense of fairness) by giving them higher performance evaluations.
Implicit Performance Theories	Berman and Kenny (1976) and Bruner and Taguri (1954) have noted that raters often possess implicit theories about the occurrence of events or behaviors. Thus, if a manager implicitly believes that citizenship behavior and overall performance are related, and the manager frequently observes an employee engaging in citizenship behaviors, the manager's "implicit performance theory" might cause him/her to infer that an employee is a high performer.
Schema-Triggerred Affect	Fiske (1981, 1982) and Fiske and Pavelchak (1986) have argued that, when an object is identified by a person as an example of a previously defined, affectively laden category, the affect associated with the category is quickly retrieved and applied to the stimulus object. Thus, if managers include citizenship behaviors, along with high levels of task performance, in their definition of "good employees," employees who exhibit OBBs will trigger positive affect and subsequently will be evaluated more favorably than those that do not exhibit these behaviors.
Behavioral Distinctiveness and Accessibility	DeNisi, Cafferty, and Meglino (1984) have proposed that managers search for distinctiveness information when they are asked to make evaluations of employees. Since OCBS are generally not considered to be formally required by the organization, they may be particularly distinctive forms of behavior that the managers may seek out and remember in the evaluation process.
Attributional Processes (Stable/Internal) and Accessibility	DeNisi, Cafferty, and Meglino (1984) also have noted that incidents of performance that are attributed to stable, internal causes are most likely to be retained in memory, recalled, and considered in the [manager's] final evaluation" (pg. 376). Because citizenship behaviors are less likely to be considered a required part of an employee's job, managers are more likely to attribute these behaviors to internal, stable characteristics of the subordinate—which would make these behaviors more accessible and exert a bigger impact on managers' evaluations of performance.
Illusory Correlations	Chapman (1967) and Chapman and Chapman (1967) have argued that illusory correlations result from the tendency of people to see two things or events as occurring together more often than they actually do. In addition, Cooper (1981) has noted that there are several sources of illusory correlations that may occur in rating tasks, including: (1) the rater may have an insufficient sample of either in-role or citizenship behavior (undersampling); (2) the rater may be influenced by a single, salient incident of behavior (engulfing); (3) the rating scales may be abstract and insufficiently defined (insufficient concreteness); (4) the rater may not be sufficiently motivated or have sufficient knowledge to do a good job; and (5) the rater's recall of the ratee's performance may be distorted—all of which may lead the rater to give greater weight to the OCBS in forming his or her evaluations (cf. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Hui, 1993).

Adapted from Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Hui (1993). Used with permission.

Table 4a. Summary of the Percent of Variance Accounted for in Managerial

Researchers	Avila, Fern, & Mann (1988)		MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter (1991)	
	Computer Salespeople (N = 70)	Computer Salespeople (N = 198)	Insurance Agents (N = 259)	Insurance Agents (N = 113)
Measures of Objective Performance	% Quota Net Gain in Accounts	% Quota Net Gain in Accounts	Commission \$ # of Apps % Quota	Commission \$ # of Apps % Quota
Unique Contribution of Objective Performance → Overall Evaluation	.12	.19	.12 [.09]	.25 [.10]
Unique Contribution of OCBs → Overall Evaluation	.48	.21	.23 [.19]	.27 [.20]
Variance in Overall Evaluation Shared by Objective Performance and OCBs	.03	.19	.09 [.17]	.09 [.30]
Total R ²	.63	.59	.44 [.45]	.61 [.60]
Common Methods Variance Controlled?	Not Controlled	Not Controlled	Statistically Controlled	Statistically Controlled
Altruism/Helping → Overall Evaluation	(+) ^a	(+) ^a	(+)	(+)
Courtesy → Overall Evaluation	NA	NA	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Sportsmanship → Overall Evaluation	NA	NA	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Conscientiousness → Overall Evaluation	NA	NA	NA	NA
Civic Virtue → Overall Evaluation	NA	NA	(+)	(+)
Composite OCB → Overall Evaluation	NA	NA	NA	NA

Note: In the bottom half of the table, (+) indicates that the variable of interest was significantly (positively) of interest was included in the study, but was *not* significantly related to the managers' overall evaluation after The row entitled "Common Method Variances Controlled?" indicates whether the researchers examined the from the same source. In this row, "statistically controlled" indicates that the authors statistically partialled out In the studies that did control for common methods variance, the percent of variance accounted for before after method variance is controlled for is reported inside the brackets [].

^aFor the purposes of our analysis, the single item of measure of "citizenship" behavior ("contributions to of goal achievement were used to represent objective performance, and the two measures of the sales manager's ^bIn this study, aspects of altruism and courtesy were combined into an overall "helping" behavior construct. The

indicates that the OCB dimension had a significant positive relationship with the performance evaluation, a NA indicates that this dimension was not included in the study, and a *ns* indicates that although the OCB dimension was included, it did not have a significant relationship with the overall evaluation.

On average, across the eleven samples reported in Table 4a, objective performance uniquely accounted for 9.5% of the variance in performance evaluations, organizational citizenship behaviors uniquely accounted for 42.9% of the variance in performance evaluations, and the combination of OCBs and objective

Evaluations by Objective Performance and OCBs

<i>MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter (1993)</i>			<i>Podsakoff & MacKenzie (1992)</i>	<i>Podsakoff & MacKenzie (1994)/ MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Paine (1999)</i>	<i>Lowery & Krilowicz (1994)</i>	<i>MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Paine (1999)</i>
<i>Pharmaceutical</i>			<i>Office</i>		<i>Sewing</i>	<i>Insurance</i>
<i>Insurance Agents (N = 261)</i>	<i>Petrochemical Salespeople (N = 204)</i>	<i>Sales Managers (N = 108)</i>	<i>Furniture Makers (N = 379)</i>	<i>Insurance Agents (N = 987)</i>	<i>Machine Operators (N = 73)</i>	<i>Sales Managers (N = 161)</i>
Commission \$	Commission \$	% Quota	Piece-rate pay	# Policies Commission \$	Piece-rate pay	Unit-level Performance
.13 [.24]	.03 [-.01]	.03 [.05]	.00	.09 [.22]	.06	Personal Sales Performance
.44 [.09]	.43 [.08]	.54 [.37]	.72	.43 [.13]	.50	.47 [.29]
.08 [.13]	-.02 [.30]	.04 [.09]	.08	.06 [-.02]	.17	.15 [.11]
.65 [.46]	.44 [.37]	.61 [.51]	.80	.58 [.33]	.73	.65 [.50]
Statistically Controlled	Statistically Controlled	Statistically Controlled	Not Controlled	Statistically Controlled	Not Controlled	Statistically Controlled
(+)	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	(+)	(+) ^b	NA	(+) ^b
<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	(+)	NA ^b	NA	NA ^b
(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	NA	<i>ns</i>
NA	(+)	(+)	(+)	NA	NA	NA
(+)	<i>ns</i>	(+)	<i>ns</i>	(+)	NA	(+)
NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	(+)	NA

related to the managers' overall evaluation when controlling for the other predictors: *ns* indicates that the variable controlling for the other predictors; and NA indicates that the variable of interest was *not* included in the study. potential biasing effects of the fact that the OCB measures and the measure of overall performance was obtained the effects of a common methods factor to determine whether it had any effect on the conclusions of the study. methods variance was controlled for is reported outside the brackets, while the percent of variance accounted for

cooperating and working with others in the company") was used to represent "altruism," while the two measures overall assessment were used to represent the manager's overall evaluation in this study. coefficient for the effect of helping behavior on overall evaluations is shown in the "altruism" row in the table.

performance accounted for a total of 61.2% of the variance in overall performance evaluations. This suggests that OCBs accounted for substantially more variance in performance evaluations than objective performance. The bottom half of the table indicates that altruism or helping was significantly related to performance evaluations in eight out of ten studies in which it was included; courtesy had significant effects in only one of six studies in which it was included; sportsmanship was significant in five out of the eight studies in which it was included; conscientiousness was significant in all three of the studies in which it was

Total R ¹	.29	.29	.19	.45	.49	.61	.65	.39
Common Methods Variance Controlled?	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled	Not Controlled	Not Controlled	Not Controlled	Not Controlled ^b
Job Dedication → Overall Evaluation	NA	NA	NA	(+)	NA	(+)	(+)	<i>ns</i>
Interpersonal Facilitation → Overall Evaluation	NA	NA	NA	(+)	NA	<i>ns</i>	(+)	<i>ns</i>
“Other” Contextual Performance → Overall Evaluation	(+)	(+)	(+)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Composite OCB → Overall Evaluation	NA	NA	NA	NA	(+)	NA	NA	NA

Note: In the bottom part of the table, (+) indicates that the variable of interest was significantly positively related to the managers’ overall evaluation when controlling for the other predictors; *ns* indicates that the variable of interest was included in the study, but was *not* significantly related to the manager’s overall evaluation when controlling for the other predictors; and NA indicates that the variable of interest was not included in the study. The row entitled “Common Methods Variance Controlled?” indicates whether the researchers obtained any of their measures of “in-role” performance, contextual performance (or OCBs), and/or overall performance, from the same source. Those studies that did *not* obtain any of the measures from the same source indicate that common methods variance is “controlled.” Those studies in which any two of the measures were obtained from the same source indicate that common methods variance was “not controlled,” and may have influenced the findings of the study. ^aOnly managerial samples were included in this meta-analysis.

^bConway (1999) recognized the potential biasing effects of common methods variance and did provide an estimate of the proportion of variance in managerial evaluations that was attributable to *trait* as well as *method variance* for each source (supervisors, peers, and self-reports) from which he obtained data. However, the meta-analytic data that was reported in his tables did *not* control for method variance.

Table 5. Summary of Experimental Studies Designed to Examine the Effects of In-Role Performance and OCB/Contextual Performance on Performance Evaluations, Reward Allocation Decisions, and Estimates of the Standard Deviation of Performance

Researcher(s)	OVERALL PERFORMANCE EVALUATION			SALARY/REWARD RECOMMENDATION			PROMOTION RECOMMENDATION			SD _y ESTIMATES
	Study	Subjects	Findings	Study	Subjects	Findings	Study	Subjects	Findings	
Park & Sims (1989)	Werner (1994) [Quasi-experimental study]	Allen & Rush (1998)	Park & Sims (1989)	Allen & Rush (1998)	Kiker & Motowidlo (1999)	Park & Sims (1989)	Park & Sims (1989)	Orr, Sackett & Mercer (1989) [Policy Capturing Study]		
137 working professionals and managers	116 supervisors from large state university	136 business and psychology students	137 working professionals and managers	136 business and psychology students	494 undergraduate business students	137 working professionals and managers	137 working professionals and managers	17 managers/supervisors of programmer analysts		
Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant		
Contextual/Prosocial Behavior/OCB	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant		
Performance Manipulation	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant		
Interaction Between "In-Role" and Contextual/Prosocial Behavior/OCB	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant		
Performance Manipulations	Significant	NR	Significant	NR	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant		
Total R ²	.43	.40	NR	.51	.61	NR	NR	.84 ^a		

Note: In this table, NR indicates that the researchers either: (a) did *not* examine or report the interaction effect; or (b) did *not* report the total amount of variance explained by the main and interactive effects.

^aFor the purposes of this study, the percent of variance reported represents the *average* total variance accounted for in the study across the 17 raters.

included; civic virtue was significant in six out of the eight studies in which it was included; and the “composite” OCB measure was significant in the one study in which it was included. Thus, with the possible exception of courtesy, each of the citizenship behavior dimensions had a significant effect on performance evaluations in the majority of the studies in which it was included.

Turning our attention now to the effects of common method variance, an examination of the findings summarized in Table 4a indicates that controlling for common method variance: (a) reduced the proportion of overall variance explained; and (b) generally reduced the proportion of variance uniquely accounted for by the OCBs; but (c) generally did not eliminate the effects of the individual OCB dimensions on performance evaluations. Across all of the 11 studies reported in Table 4a, the overall proportion of variance explained by in-role and citizenship behaviors averaged 61.2% when common method variance was not controlled, but averaged only 46% when this form of bias was controlled. In addition, the table indicates that when common method variance was not controlled, the proportion of variance accounted for in overall evaluations by the OCBs averaged 42.9%, and the amount of variance accounted for by objective performance averaged 9.5%; while in the seven studies in which it was controlled, the average accounted for by the OCBs averaged 19.3%, and the amount of variance accounted for by objective performance averaged 11.3%. Thus, these findings suggest that common method variance had a substantial impact on the observed relationships in the studies where it was not controlled.

Table 4b summarizes the results of those field studies that have examined the relative effects of subjective measures of “in-role” and “extra-role” performance on performance evaluations. The studies reported in this table differ from those reported in Table 4a in that they are *subjective* measures of “in-role” performance, rather than *objective* measures. With the exception of Allen and Rush (1998), all of the studies reported in this table used contextual performance dimensions to represent extra-role behavior.

The first two rows in the table indicate the names of researchers who conducted the study, and the sample characteristics. The next three rows indicate the sources from which the data were obtained. When both predictor and criterion variables were obtained from the same source, there is the possibility that common method variance may bias the estimated relationships. The row entitled “Common Methods Variance Controlled?” indicates whether this form of bias was controlled in the study. For example, in Motowidlo and Van Scotter’s study of 421 Air Force mechanics (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994), the “in-role” measure was obtained from one supervisor, the contextual performance measure was obtained from a second supervisor, and the “overall” performance evaluation was obtained from a third supervisor. Therefore, since all three measures were obtained from different sources, this study controlled for common method variance.

Rows six through nine in the table report the proportion of variance attributable to in-role and extra-role performance. For example, the first of these rows reports the unique contribution of “in-role” performance to the managers’ evaluations, while the next row reports the unique contribution of contextual perfor-

mance (or OCBs) to this evaluation. The next two rows report the proportion of variance shared by the "in-role" performance measures and contextual performance, and the total variance explained, respectively. Thus, in the Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) study, 13% of the variance in performance evaluations was uniquely attributable to "in-role" performance, 11% was uniquely attributable to contextual performance, and 5% of the variance in the evaluations was shared between "in-role" and contextual performance.

The bottom four rows of the table identify which of the individual contextual performance dimensions had significant effects on the overall performance evaluations. As in Table 4a, the symbol (+) in a row indicates that the dimension had a significant positive relationship with the performance evaluation, NA indicates that this dimension was not included in the study, and *ns* indicates that although the contextual performance dimension was included, it did not have a significant relationship with the overall evaluation.

On average, across the eight samples reported in Table 4b, in-role performance uniquely accounted for 9.3% of the variance in performance evaluations, contextual performance uniquely accounted for 12.0% of the variance in performance evaluations, and the combination of contextual performance/OCBs and in-role performance accounted for a total of 42.0% of the variance in overall performance evaluations. This suggests that contextual performance accounted for at least as much variance in performance evaluations as did in-role performance. The bottom half of the table indicates that job dedication was positively and significantly related to performance evaluations in three of the four samples in which it was included; interpersonal facilitation had significant positive effects in two of the four samples in which it was examined; and the "other" contextual performance dimensions, as well as the composite OCB dimension in the Allen and Rush (1998) sample, were significant in the four samples in which they were tested.³ In addition, empirical evidence from a field study conducted by Allen and Rush (1998), not shown in Table 4b, indicates that both in-role performance (subjectively measured) and OCBs are significantly related to reward recommendations made by managers. Thus, generally speaking, the OCB/contextual performance dimensions appear to be related consistently to performance evaluations and reward recommendations.

As was the case in Table 4a, common method variance also was found to have a significant effect on the findings. More specifically, in the four studies for which common method was not controlled, the overall proportion of variance explained by in-role and contextual performance averaged 53.5%, while in the four studies in which this bias was controlled, the overall proportion of variance averaged 30.5%. In addition, the table indicates that when common method variance was not controlled, the proportion of variance accounted for by in-role (task) performance averaged 10% and contextual performance averaged 10.5%, while the proportion of variance accounted for by task performance averaged 8.5% and contextual performance averaged 13.5% in those four studies in which this form of bias was controlled. Thus, these findings suggest that common method variance had a substantial impact on the observed relationships in the studies where it was not controlled.

Table 5 provides a summary of those *experimental* studies that have examined the effects of citizenship behaviors or contextual performance on performance evaluations or reward allocation decisions. The distinction between these studies and those discussed in Tables 4a and 4b is that in these studies, the independent variables of interest (e.g., in-role performance and OCB/contextual performance) were manipulated, and the effects on the dependent variables (performance evaluations, reward allocation decisions, etc.) were observed. Thus, these studies provide stronger evidence than the cross-sectional (correlational) field studies of the direction of causality between OCB/contextual performance and a broader array of criterion measures (e.g., performance evaluations, salary recommendations, promotion recommendations, and estimates of the dollar value of a standard deviation difference in performance).

As indicated in Table 5, the manipulation of both in-role performance and OCB/contextual performance influenced overall performance evaluations, thus providing stronger evidence of the direction of causality than the field studies. This table also indicates that both forms of performance have important influences on salary recommendations, promotion recommendations, and managers' estimates of SD_y . This suggests that contextual/OCB performance influences several key managerial decisions. Interestingly, although prior research has not predicted interactive effects between in-role and extra-role performance, every study that has tested for interaction effects has found them to be significant. Therefore, future research should investigate the nature of these interactions more carefully to determine whether they are consistent and generalizable across samples and criterion measures.

Taken together, the findings summarized in Tables 4a, 4b, and 5 indicate that: (a) OCB/contextual performance has a positive impact on several important personnel decisions made by managers; (b) the weight of this evidence suggests that the effect of this form of performance is at least as great as the effect of in-role performance; (c) there is evidence to suggest that in-role and extra-role performance may interact when influencing managerial judgments and decisions; and (d) common method variance has a substantial impact on the relationships between OCB/contextual performance and managerial judgments; although this bias generally weakens these relationships, it does not eliminate them.

Effects of OCBs on Organizational Performance and Success

A key tenet of Organ's original definition of organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988) is that, when aggregated over time and people, such behavior enhances organizational effectiveness. For many years, this assumption went untested and its acceptance was based more on its conceptual plausibility than direct empirical evidence (cf. Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). Conceptually, there are several reasons why citizenship behaviors might influence organizational effectiveness (George & Bettenhausen, 1991; Karambayya, 1990; MacKenzie et al., 1991, 1993; Organ, 1988, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994, 1997). For example, as summarized and illustrated in Table 6, OCBs may contribute to organizational success by: (a) enhancing coworker and managerial

Table 6. Summary of Reasons Why OCBs Might Influence Organizational Effectiveness

<i>Potential Reasons Why OCBs Influence Work Group and/or Organizational Performance</i>	<i>Examples</i>
OCBs may enhance coworker productivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Employees who help another coworker “learn the ropes” may help them to become more productive employees faster. ● Over time, helping behavior can help to spread “best practices” throughout the work unit or group.
OCBs may enhance managerial productivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● If employees engage in civic virtue, the manager may receive valuable suggestions and/or feedback on his or her ideas for improving unit effectiveness.
OCBs may free resources up for more productive purposes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Courteous employees, who avoid creating problems for coworkers, allow the manager to avoid falling into a pattern of “crisis” management. ● If employees help each other with work-related problems, then the manager doesn’t have to; consequently, the manager can spend more time on productive tasks, such as planning. ● Employees who exhibit conscientiousness require less managerial supervision and permit the manager to delegate more responsibility to them, thus, freeing up more of the manager’s time.
OCBs may reduce the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● To the extent that experienced employees help in the training and orienting of new employees, it reduces the need to devote organizational resources to these activities. ● If employees exhibit sportsmanship, it frees the manager from having to spend too much of his/her time dealing with petty complaints.
OCBs may serve as an effective means of coordinating activities between team members and across work groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● A natural by-product of helping behavior is that it enhances team spirit, morale, and cohesiveness, thus reducing the need for group members (or managers) to spend energy and time on group maintenance functions. ● Employees who exhibit courtesy toward others reduce intergroup conflict, thereby diminishing the time spent on conflict management activities. ● Exhibiting civic virtue by voluntarily attending and actively participating in work unit meetings would help the coordination of effort among team members, thus potentially increasing the group’s effectiveness and efficiency. ● Exhibiting courtesy by “touching base” with other team members, or members of other functional groups in the organization, reduces the likelihood of the occurrence of problems that would otherwise take time and effort to resolve.

- OCBs** may enhance the organization's ability to attract and retain the best people by making it a more attractive place to work
- Helping behaviors may enhance morale, group cohesiveness, and the sense of belonging to a team, all of which may enhance performance and help the organization to attract and retain better employees.
 - Demonstrating sportsmanship by being willing to "roll with the punches" and not complaining about trivial matters sets an example for others and thereby develops a sense of loyalty and commitment to the organization that may enhance employee retention.
- OCBs** may enhance the stability of organizational performance
- Picking up the slack for others who are absent, or who have heavy workloads, can help to enhance the stability (reduce the variability) of the work unit's performance.
 - Consistent employees are more likely to maintain a consistently high level of output, thus reducing variability in a work unit's performance.
- OCBs** may enhance an organization's ability to adapt to environmental changes
- Employees who are in close contact with the marketplace volunteer information about changes in the environment and make suggestions about how to respond to them, which helps an organization to adapt.
 - Employees who attend and actively participate in meetings may aid the dissemination of information in an organization, thus enhancing its responsiveness.
 - Employees who exhibit sportsmanship, by demonstrating a willingness to take on new responsibilities or learn new skills, enhance the organization's ability to adapt to changes in its environment.

Adapted from Podsakoff & Mackenzie (1997). Used with permission.

productivity; (b) freeing up resources so they can be used for more productive purposes; (c) reducing the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions; (d) helping to coordinate activities both within and across work groups; (e) strengthening the organization's ability to attract and retain the best employees; (f) increasing the stability of the organization's performance; and (g) enabling the organization to adapt more effectively to environmental changes.

However, despite the intuitive plausibility of the assumption that OCBs contribute to the effectiveness of work teams and organizations, this issue has received little empirical attention. This is surprising because much of the interest in organizational citizenship and its related constructs stems from the belief that these behaviors enhance organizational performance. Indeed, although over 160 studies have been reported in the literature to identify the antecedents of OCBs, to our knowledge, only five studies have attempted to test whether these behaviors influence organizational effectiveness.

Perhaps the first study to explore whether citizenship behavior is related to group or organizational effectiveness was Karambayya (1990). She found that employees in high performing work units exhibited more citizenship behaviors than employees in low performing work units. Unfortunately, although these results were promising, they were far from conclusive because unit performance was measured subjectively rather than objectively. In addition, the data were obtained from raters in 12 different organizations, raising the possibility that different raters used different criteria in their evaluations of organizational success.

However, a more recent series of studies (cf. Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 1997; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1996; Walz & Niehoff, 1996) has addressed many of the limitations of Karambayya's research. As indicated in Table 7, these studies all used objective measures of unit performance, held variations due to industry factors constant by sampling multiple units within the same company, and were conducted in four distinct organizational contexts including insurance agency units, paper mill work crews, pharmaceutical sales teams, and limited-menu restaurants. In addition, aspects of both the quantity and quality of performance were examined.

Table 7 shows the sample size, the nature of the objective measure of organizational performance used in the study, the forms of OCBs influencing organizational effectiveness, and the percent of variance in organizational effectiveness accounted for by the OCBs.⁴ Taken together, the overall pattern of results reported in this table provides general support for the hypothesis that organizational citizenship behaviors are related to organizational effectiveness. On average, OCBs accounted for about 19% of the variance in performance quantity; over 18% of the variance in performance quality; about 25% of the variance in financial efficiency indicators (operating efficiency, food cost percentage, and revenue full-time-equivalent); and about 38% of the variance in customer service indicators (customer satisfaction and customer complaints). Helping behavior was significantly related to every indicator of performance, except customer complaints in the Walz and Niehoff (1996) study. Generally speaking, helping behavior was found to enhance performance. The only exception was that helping

Table 7. Summary of the Effects of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors on Group and/or Organizational Effectiveness

Description	Podsakoff & MacKenzie (1994) (N = 116 Insurance Agency Units)		Podsakoff, Ahearn, & MacKenzie (1997) (N = 40 Paper Mill Work Crews)		MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearn (1996) (N = 306 Pharmaceutical Sales Teams)	
	Index of Sales Performance	Quantity Produced (% of Maximum Production)	Product Quality (% of Paper Accepted)	(-)	(+)	(+)
Helping Behavior → Organizational Performance	(-)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Civic Virtue → Organizational Performance	(+)	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	(+)	(+)
Sportsmanship → Organizational Performance	(+)	(+)	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
R ²	17%	25.7%	16.7%			16%
Walz & Niehoff (1996) (N = 30 Limited Menu Restaurants)						
Description	Food Cost % (Waste)	Revenue FTE	Operating Efficiency	Customer Complaints	Customer Satisfaction	Quality of Performance
	(-)	(+)	(+)	n.s.	(+)	(+)
Helping Behavior → Organizational Performance	(-)	(+)	(+)	n.s. <td>(+)</td> <td>(+)</td>	(+)	(+)
Civic Virtue → Organizational Performance	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	(-)	n.s.	n.s.
Sportsmanship → Organizational Performance	(-)	n.s.	n.s.	(-)	n.s.	n.s.
R ²	43%	18%	15%	37%	39%	20%

behavior had a negative impact on the quantity of performance in Podsakoff and MacKenzie's study (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994), which they attributed to the unusually high level of turnover, and other reasons unique to their insurance agency sample. Sportsmanship had more limited effects. It enhanced the quantity of performance in two of the three samples where it was studied (insurance agency units and paper mill work crews) and increased some aspects of financial efficiency and customer service in the limited-menu restaurant sample. Finally, civic virtue was found to enhance the quantity of performance in the insurance and pharmaceutical sales samples, and to reduce customer complaints in the limited-menu restaurant sample. Thus, the available empirical research clearly supports Organ's fundamental assumption (Organ, 1988) that organizational citizenship behavior is related to performance—although the evidence is stronger for some forms of citizenship behavior (i.e., helping) than for others (i.e., sportsmanship and civic virtue).

Where Do We Go From Here? Future Research Directions

In the following section we will attempt to identify some important areas for future research. Briefly, these recommendations involve the following areas: (a) conceptual/theoretical issues; (b) antecedents of OCBs; (c) consequences of OCB at both the individual and organizational levels; (d) citizenship behaviors in a cross-cultural context; and (e) methodological concerns.

Conceptual/Theoretical Issues

Are Citizenship Behaviors Distinct From In-Role Behaviors? Organ's original definition of OCB (Organ, 1988) has spawned a debate in the literature over whether citizenship behavior is, in fact, distinct from in-role behavior. Morrison (1994) has provided empirical evidence that many of the specific behaviors Organ (1988) claimed were "discretionary" and "not formally rewarded by the organizational reward system" were perceived by employees to be part of their role requirements. However, these findings may have been an artifact of the global manner in which Morrison (1994) asked respondents to define their in-role requirements. In this study, respondents were asked to classify each behavior into one of two categories: (a) "You see this as an expected part of your job," or (b) "You see this as somewhat above and beyond what is expected for your job." The potential difficulty with these questions is that people can say that particular behaviors are "expected" as part of their job, even though they may believe they are discretionary forms of behavior that are not formally rewarded by the organization. For example, when asked this question, many employees may feel that they are expected to do anything that contributes to the effective functioning of the organization. Therefore, by Organ's definition (Organ, 1988), every form of organizational citizenship behavior would be perceived by employees to be an "expected" part of their jobs, even though they still perceive these behaviors to be "discretionary" and "not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system." We believe that to test whether a behavior is an organizational citizenship behavior according to Organ's definition, it would have been better to ask

respondents if the behavior was: (a) an explicit part of their job description; (b) something they were trained by the organization to do; and (c) formally (and explicitly) rewarded when exhibited, and punished when it was not exhibited.

However, despite whether we feel Morrison (1994) asked the right questions, other research (cf. MacKenzie et al., 1991, 1993; MacKenzie et al., 1999; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; Werner, 1994) has demonstrated that when managers are asked to judge the performance of their subordinates, they definitely take citizenship-like behaviors into account. Moreover, research by Park and Sims (1989) and Allen and Rush (1998) indicates that OCBs influence managers' decisions about promotions, training, and reward allocations; and research by Orr, Sackett, and Mercer (1989) found that OCBs influence managers' estimates of the standard deviation of an employee's performance contribution in dollars. These findings suggest that managers either view citizenship behavior as a required part their employees' jobs, or they define performance more broadly to include any behavior (whether required or not) that contributes to the effective functioning of the organization.

Thus, the distinction between in-role and citizenship behaviors is one that both employees and managers have difficulty recognizing. However, in fairness to Organ (1988), a closer reading of his original discussion of the distinction between in-role and citizenship behavior anticipated this difficulty from the very beginning. Indeed, Organ (1988: 5), argued that "realistically, what we have in organization environments is a *continuum* such that different forms of contribution vary in the probability of being rewarded and of the magnitude of the reward. What we are doing is simplifying the issue, for purposes of argument, by containing OCB within that region of nonrequired contributions that are regarded by the person as relatively less likely to lead along any clear, fixed path to formal rewards" (emphasis added). Thus, from the very beginning, organizational citizenship behaviors have been viewed as behaviors that are relatively more likely to be discretionary, and relatively less likely to be formally or explicitly rewarded in the organization. Indeed, this is the position that Organ (1997) and Borman and Motowidlo (1993, 1997) have recently taken.

Do Different Forms of Citizenship Behaviors Have Unique Antecedents and/or Consequences? However, regardless of whether OCBs are in-role or extra-role, what really matters is whether these forms of behavior have independent effects on organizational performance and whether they have different antecedents. In other words, if these forms of behavior do not have unique effects on organizational success, or do not have different antecedents, they are essentially equivalent constructs. On the other hand, if they have unique effects on organizational success, either because they increase the proportion of variance accounted for in this criterion variable, or because they influence different aspects of organizational success than task performance, then they are important to understand. Similarly, if the causes (antecedents) of citizenship behaviors and traditional aspects of in-role performance are different, then they are important to understand, because it suggests that there are multiple mechanisms through which organizational success can be achieved.

Therefore, we would argue that the distinction between these forms of behavior will be useful to the field only to the extent that these behaviors have different antecedents and/or consequences. As far as the antecedents are concerned, Borman and Motowidlo (1993), Motowidlo et al. (1997), and Organ and his colleagues (Organ, 1988; Organ & Ryan, 1995), argue that OCBs/contextual performance should be determined more by personality and dispositional variables than by ability and motivational (or incentive) factors. However, the extant empirical evidence has not been very supportive of this prediction. Contrary to expectations, personality and dispositional predictors have had a weaker than expected relationship with OCB/contextual performance when common method variance is controlled (cf. Organ & Ryan, 1995), and incentives and rewards (in the form of leader contingent reward behavior, how much employees value the rewards they receive from the organization, and whether the rewards are outside of the leader's control) have had a stronger effect than anticipated. Indeed, in a summary of the research in this area, Organ (1994: 474) concluded that "Overall, the scorecard for predicting OCB from measures of personality might be taken as disappointing. Many of the correlations are both trivial and nonreliable, such that any idea of a dispositional basis for OCB seems unsupported."

Organ and Ryan (1995) note that one potential reason for the weaker than expected findings is that a relatively small number of dispositional and personality variables have been empirically examined. In addition, they note that perhaps it is more appropriate to treat dispositional variables as social constructs and measure them from the point of view of one's coworkers or leader (e.g., ratings from others), rather than from the person's own point of view (e.g., self-ratings). Thus, future research might include other personality and dispositional variables and obtain measures of these variables from someone other than the focal employee. Although Organ and Ryan (1995) do not specify which "other" personality or dispositional variables might be worthwhile to examine, Van Dyne et al. (1995) suggested that a broadened set might include the propensity to trust, need for affiliation, and empathetic concern. With respect to the consequences of citizenship behaviors, no one has ever predicted that the different forms of citizenship behavior would have different consequences. However, since citizenship behaviors have been hypothesized to influence organizational success through a wide variety of different mechanisms (cf. Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997), it would not be surprising if some of the citizenship behaviors worked through one mechanism, while others worked more through another. This may lead to somewhat different consequences for the organization. For example, whereas helping coworkers with their work-related problems is likely to result in improved productivity for the work group or unit, good sportsmanship may enhance the morale of the work group, and thereby help to reduce employee turnover.

Similarly, whereas organizational loyalty (representing the organization to the community in a positive light) may enhance the organization's ability to attract good talent, self-development behavior may reduce organizational training expenses and/or improve work effectiveness. Yet another example is that, although taking the initiative to make constructive suggestions about how to improve production processes can improve the efficiency of the organization and

reduce costs, civic virtue in the form of halting a dangerous production process may prevent injuries from occurring. Thus, although no one has formally predicted that different forms of citizenship behavior would have different consequences for an organization, there is good reason to believe that they may.

Indeed, the empirical evidence provides some support for this intuition. The data reported in Table 7 supports two broad conclusions about the consequences of citizenship behavior. First, different forms of citizenship behaviors have somewhat different consequences. For example, helping behavior was found to influence product quality in the study by Podsakoff et al. (1997), but civic virtue and sportsmanship did not. In contrast, civic virtue and sportsmanship were found by Walz and Niehoff (1996) to reduce customer complaints, but helping behavior was unrelated to this criterion variable. Second, various forms of citizenship behavior have been found to have *independent* effects on the same outcome. For example, helping, civic virtue, and sportsmanship were all found to have independent effects on sales unit performance in the Podsakoff and MacKenzie study (1994).

Thus, we need additional theory development that identifies the potentially unique antecedents and consequences of the different forms of citizenship behavior. Van Dyne et al. (1995) took an important step in this direction when they tried to provide an overview of the antecedents and consequences of four different types of “extra-role” behavior (e.g., affiliative/promotive, affiliative/prohibitive, challenging/prohibitive, and challenging/promotive). However, their forms of extra-role behavior were conceptualized at a fairly aggregate level, and it would be more instructive to develop theories at the individual citizenship behavior-construct level. In addition, we need empirical studies that include multiple forms of citizenship behavior, and statistically test for differences in the strength of the effects on various criterion measures. This is necessary in order to determine whether individual citizenship behaviors have unique effects.

Other Antecedents of Citizenship Behavior Worth Investigating

Although dispositional, attitudinal, and ability/skill-type variables have received a considerable amount of attention in the literature, task variables have not. This may be an important omission because all three of the task dimensions included in Table 2 (i.e., task feedback, intrinsically satisfying tasks, and task routinization) were found to have fairly consistent relationships with OCBs. These promising results suggest that it would be worthwhile to explore other possible aspects of tasks that may have effects on OCBs. For example, in addition to the task factors previously examined, Hackman and Oldham (1980) have suggested that characteristics like task identity, task significance, and task autonomy have important effects on employee psychological states (e.g., perceived responsibility for work outcomes, experienced meaningfulness of work), job attitudes (e.g., work satisfaction), and aspects of employee work performance. Another possibility is that task properties are surrogates for other things (i.e., job level), or that they influence employee attitudes and perceptions (like job satisfaction and commitment), which are known to have an effect on OCBs. For example, it is likely that

higher-level jobs are less routine and more intrinsically satisfying than lower-level or entry-level jobs.

Leader behaviors also appear to play a key role in determining OCBs. As noted earlier, with a few exceptions, almost all of the leader behaviors examined in Table 2 show consistent relationships with employee citizenship behaviors. Unfortunately, the mechanisms through which these leader behaviors influence citizenship behaviors are not always clear. Some of these behaviors, such as supportive leader behavior, may have their primary effect on OCBs through the norm of reciprocity. For example, employees who receive personal support from their leaders may wish to reciprocate by expending extra effort in the form of citizenship behaviors to help the leader. Other behaviors, like providing an appropriate model, may influence OCBs directly through social learning processes, because the leader models various types of citizenship behaviors. Still other leadership behaviors, such as contingent reward behavior, may have a direct impact on citizenship behaviors. For example, if a leader defines performance broadly to include OCBs, and administers rewards contingent upon this definition of performance, then one would expect the frequency of OCBs to increase. Finally, it also is possible that contingent reward behavior and other forms of leader behavior might influence OCBs in other ways. For example, even if managers define performance narrowly to include only in-role behavior, one might expect that a leader's contingent reward behavior would cause employees to perceive that they are being treated fairly, and/or it might enhance their job satisfaction. Both fairness and job satisfaction have been found to be positively related to OCBs (cf. Organ & Ryan, 1995). It has also been argued (cf. Podsakoff et al., 1990) that the effects of articulating a vision on OCBs are mediated by employees' trust in their leader, and by job satisfaction. Therefore, future research needs to carefully investigate how and why these leader behaviors influence OCBs.

Finally, future research needs to examine the causal relationships among the proposed antecedents of citizenship behaviors. Most prior research in the OCB domain has treated attitudes, dispositions, task variables, and leadership behaviors as direct predictors of citizenship behavior. However, we know from other research that these variables are causally related. For example, Konovsky and Pugh (1994) have demonstrated that trust is a key mediator of the effects that procedural and distributive justice have on citizenship behaviors; and Niehoff and Moorman (1993) have shown that the effects of certain types of leadership monitoring behavior on citizenship behaviors is mediated by justice. Taken together, these findings suggest that leaders who monitor the performance of their subordinates effectively increase their subordinates' perceptions that they have been treated fairly, which in turn enhances subordinates' trust in their leader and ultimately increases OCBs. Our theories of the antecedents of citizenship behaviors should take indirect relationships like this into account.

Other Consequences of Citizenship Behavior Worth Investigating

Individual-Level Consequences. A substantial amount of research (see Tables 4a and 4b) has demonstrated that managers do, indeed, include OCBs/

contextual performance in their performance evaluations. This raises several important questions for future research. First, we need to gain a better understanding of the reasons why managers include citizenship behavior in their evaluations. The literature (cf. MacKenzie et al., 1991, 1993; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Hui, 1993) has identified a number of potential reasons that have only recently begun to be tested (cf. Allen & Rush, 1998). Obviously, this issue warrants more extensive investigation and empirical testing.

In addition, future research also needs to more carefully examine the impact of OCBs and contextual performance on other managerial decisions (e.g., reward allocation and compensation decisions, promotion, training, termination, and reduction in force). To date, only a few studies (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998; Park & Sims, 1989) have investigated the effects of OCBs and contextual performance on these types of managerial decisions. Moreover, when investigating the effects of OCBs and contextual performance on these managerial judgments, prior research suggests that it is important to examine not only the main effects, but also the interactive effects of in-role and extra-role behavior. This is important because, as Table 5 indicates, in those laboratory studies that have examined the interactive effects of in-role and extra-role behavior, the impact of extra-role behavior on managerial judgments changes depending upon the level of in-role behavior. Unfortunately, the specific nature of this interaction was not reported in most of these studies, and in the one study in which it was reported (Park & Sims, 1989), the interaction effect varied across criterion variables. Thus, future research should examine the nature of the interaction between in-role and extra-role performance in more detail.

Finally, we need to move beyond managerial decisions and judgments, and examine an even broader range of subordinate criterion variables. For example, recent research by Chen et al. (1998) and MacKenzie et al. (1998) has shown that OCBs are negatively related to turnover. Although we are not aware of any similar research on the relationship between OCBs and other forms of withdrawal behavior, like employee absenteeism, lateness, and tardiness, we would expect a similar pattern of effects.

Group or Organizational-Level Consequences. In view of the fact that OCBs have been found to be related to group and organizational effectiveness, there are at least three additional issues that future research should address. The first issue is derived from the fact that the pattern of effects across studies was not completely consistent. Indeed, as indicated in Table 7, helping behavior sometimes increased and sometimes decreased the quantity of performance, while sportsmanship and civic virtue seem to have had an impact on this criterion variable in some samples but not in others. This suggests that there may be factors that moderate the impact of OCBs on the quantity of performance.

Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) identified several potential reasons why the relationship between helping behavior and the quantity of performance was negative in one sample (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994), and positive in others (Podsakoff et al., 1997; MacKenzie et al., 1996). One reason for the differences in the findings is related to the compensation systems in the three samples. In the insurance sales sample (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994), agents were compen-

sated on the basis of their individual sales performance. Under such individualistic compensation systems, agents might be less willing to provide help to their peers, or might be less concerned with the quality of their suggestions, because there are no personal consequences for them. On the other hand, in the pharmaceutical sales sample (MacKenzie et al., 1996), 15% of compensation was based on team performance, and in the sample of paper mill work crews (Podsakoff et al., 1997), compensation was based partially on team performance and partially on the basis of job responsibilities and tenure. Thus, one could argue that when a portion of one's pay is determined by group effort, OCBs might be expected to be directed at helping and supporting one's peers.

Another potential reason relates to the nature of the samples in the three studies. For example, in the life insurance sample studied by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994), turnover was extremely high (45% in the first year of employment and over 80% within the first five years); and the average tenure of the agents with the company was only 5.29 years. This led Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) to speculate that although *inexperienced* agents may sell more with the help of experienced agents, many of the inexperienced agents may not stay with the company very long. Thus, the increase in their sales productivity resulting from the help they receive from the experienced agents may not offset the corresponding decrease in the experienced agents' sales caused by their taking time out to help inexperienced agents. In contrast, the average tenure of the crew members in the sample of paper mill employees studied by Podsakoff et al. (1997) was over 18 years, and the average tenure among the pharmaceutical sales people studied by MacKenzie et al. (1996) was about 8 years. As a result, it is likely that helping behavior provided by crew members or pharmaceutical sales team members actually paid off in terms of increased productivity.

Still another potential moderator of the relationship between helping behavior and the quantity of performance may be the technological requirements of the job. For example, building on Thompson's taxonomy (Thompson, 1967), one might expect OCBs to be more critical to organizational success when long-linked technologies, as opposed to mediating technologies, are employed. Unlike the mediating technologies employed in the insurance industry, which require virtually no cooperative effort or mutual dependence among the agents, the long-linked technologies used in the paper industry require what Thompson (1967) calls serial interdependence among the crew members. This type of interdependence demands a considerable amount of cooperative effort by the work group to accomplish the task. Thus, differences in the relationship obtained between helping behavior and work unit performance in the two studies may, in part, reflect differences in the nature of the dependency relationships required in the two different types of jobs included in the two studies.

In addition to the potential moderators of the relationship between helping behavior and the quantity of performance, the results suggest that there also may be some potential moderators of the relationship between civic virtue and the quantity of performance. Table 7 shows that civic virtue had a positive impact on performance for the two sales samples but not for the paper mill sample. It is possible that this pattern of findings results from the nature of the job included in

the samples. Sales people are boundary spanners, who are one of the primary points of contact between a company and its customers, competitors, and the environment in general. As such, they often possess critical information regarding customers, the competitive environment, and/or business trends that others in the organization do not possess, and that will allow the organization to adapt to changes in its environment. Thus, when sales people actively participate in meetings, provide constructive suggestions about how to improve the way in which the organization does its business, and are willing to risk disapproval to express their beliefs about what is best for the organization, they may enhance the organization's performance more than when non-boundary-spanning employees engage in these behaviors. Future research should explore this possibility in greater detail.

Another possibility noted by Podsakoff et al. (1997) is that the differential impact of civic virtue on the quantity of performance across settings may result from the differential quality of suggestions or the nature of participation by work group members. It is possible that suggestions are not helpful or that participation does not result in useful discourse for some organizations. In such cases, high civic virtue would not translate into high organizational effectiveness.

Taken together, the above discussion suggests that future research examining the relationship between OCBs and organizational effectiveness could benefit from examining the moderating effects of organizational context (i.e., the level of turnover, the nature of the compensation system, etc.) and task and technological requirements (i.e., the nature of the technology and/or tasks that employees perform, the amount of teamwork required across jobs, etc.). In addition, future research also might investigate the potential moderating effects of individual differences such as ability, experience, training, and knowledge. It seems plausible that an OCB such as helping behavior might have different effects on performance in units where employees are low in ability, experience, training, or knowledge, than in units where employees have high levels of ability, experience, training, or knowledge.

Since the available empirical evidence indicates that OCBs do influence unit performance, future research should also examine the mechanisms through which this influence occurs. Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) have identified several different reasons why OCBs may influence unit performance, raising some interesting questions. For example, do OCBs influence unit performance *directly* by reducing the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions, or *indirectly* by enhancing coworker or managerial productivity? Alternatively, is the impact of OCBs on unit performance *immediate*, because they serve as an effective means of coordinating the day-to-day activities of team members and across work groups, or *delayed*, due to the fact that OCBs enhance the organization's ability to attract and retain the best people? Finally, do OCBs enhance the effectiveness of organizations because they reduce the variability in the quality of performance; or because they allow the organization to adapt more effectively to environmental changes? Obviously, these are fundamentally different mechanisms, and it is important to understand which of them underlie the effects of OCBs on unit and work-group performance.

Another interesting direction for future research would be to examine the extent to which managers weight the importance of OCBs when evaluating their subordinates. Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) and Conway (1999) have argued that overall ratings of performance can be taken as measures of an individual's overall value to an organization. This suggests that the weights managers give to OCBs when forming these evaluations correspond to the actual impact that these citizenship behaviors have on unit/organizational performance. Interestingly, the existing empirical evidence (cf. Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994) is only partially supportive of this expectation. Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) contrasted the relative effects of OCBs on managerial evaluations with their relative effects on organizational effectiveness. They found that managers tended to overvalue helping behavior and undervalue civic virtue, relative to their actual effects on organizational success. Although their data did not permit them to determine why managers would tend to undervalue or overvalue different forms of citizenship behaviors, they noted that one possibility is that managers do this out of ignorance because they simply do not realize the impact that OCBs have on unit performance. Another possibility is that managers give greater weight to some forms of OCBs because certain citizenship behaviors have a greater impact on the managers' personal performance. However, regardless of which of these explanations is correct, it would be unwise to extrapolate too far from the results of only one study. Therefore, a priority for future research should be to determine whether the same sorts of discrepancies occur in other environments.

Finally, the impact of organizational citizenship behavior on a broader range of work-group or organizational-level criterion variables should be examined. The study by Walz and Niehoff (1996) took an important step in this direction. However, much more research is needed. It might be particularly interesting to examine the effects of organizational citizenship behavior on the sorts of criterion variables advocated by Kaplan and Norton (1996). In their book on the balanced scorecard, they argued that organization success must be defined broadly to include not only financial measures such as ROI, profitability, and growth, but also customer criteria (such as customer satisfaction, customer retention, brand equity), improving business processes (e.g., best practices, innovativeness), and employee criteria (e.g., employee satisfaction, employee turnover/retention, and job involvement) because all of these factors are interrelated in a firm's value chain. Consequently, it is possible that OCBs may have stronger effects on some links in this value chain than on others.

Citizenship Behaviors in a Cross-Cultural Context

Research also is needed on the potential impact that cultural context might have on citizenship behavior. Several distinct cultural effects are possible. Cultural context may affect: (a) the forms of citizenship behavior observed in organizations (e.g., the factor structure); (b) the frequency of different types of citizenship behavior (e.g., the "mean" levels of the behavior); (c) the strengths of the relationships between citizenship behavior and its antecedents and consequences (e.g., the moderating effects); and (d) the mechanisms through which citizenship behavior is generated, or through which it influences organizational

success. Of these, mean level differences do not appear particularly interesting from a theoretical perspective, as long as the relationships between citizenship behaviors and their antecedents and consequences remain the same—although such mean level differences could have managerial implications since OCBs have been found to influence unit/organizational success. However, all of the other types of effects may have important theoretical, as well as managerial, implications. For example, Farh et al. (1997) examined the different forms of citizenship behavior observed in Taiwan and the potential moderating effect that traditionality and modernity had on the relationship between organizational justice and citizenship behavior. They argued that although three of the OCB dimensions in Taiwan were similar to those found in the United States, two other dimensions that emerged appeared to be specific to the Taiwanese culture. In addition, they found that both traditionality and modernity moderated the relationship between perceptions of justice and OCBs. Although we are not aware of a cross-cultural study that has examined differences in the mechanisms through which OCBs arise or influence other variables, such differences may exist. For example, it is possible that whereas U.S. managers may value sportsmanship because it saves them time, Japanese managers may value sportsmanship because a lack of this form of citizenship behavior is indicative of someone who is not willing to put the interest of the collective above his or her own self-interest. Therefore, we encourage future research to articulate and test the effects of cultural differences on the relationships between OCBs and other variables (cf. Hui et al., 1999; Tang & Ibrahim, 1998).

Methodological Issues

There also are several important methodological issues that need to be taken into account in future research. First, it is clear from both Tables 4a and 4b that common method variance (cf. Cote & Buckley, 1987; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) has a substantial impact on the relationships between OCBs/contextual performance and criterion variables like performance evaluations. Although it has not been studied, it is likely that common method variance also has biased the observed relationships between OCBs and their antecedents in those studies where both the OCBs and the antecedent variables were obtained from the same source (e.g., O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Tang & Ibrahim, 1998). This suggests that future research needs to take steps to control the contaminating effects of common method variance. There are several possible ways this could be accomplished. One is a statistical form of control, which involves adding a first-order method construct to the hypothesized latent variable structural equation model (cf. MacKenzie et al., 1991, 1993). Another way to control for this bias is by designing the study so that the measures of the predictor and criterion variables are obtained from different sources (cf. Borman et al., 1995; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). However, regardless of which of these techniques of control is used, the important point is that some method of controlling for this bias must be used.

Another important methodological concern is the need for future research to obtain better evidence for the direction of causality between OCBs and their

antecedents and consequences. Indeed, since the vast majority of research in this domain is cross-sectional in nature, one cannot be completely certain whether OCB is the cause or the effect in the observed relationships. For example, the positive relationships observed between OCBs and unit performance have been interpreted as an indication that OCBs *cause* performance to increase. However, it also is possible that units that perform well have more time, are under less pressure, and/or have members who are more satisfied, than units that are not performing well. Therefore, these high-performing units are more willing to engage in extra-role behaviors like helping, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. This suggests that a unit's level of performance *causes* citizenship behavior rather than vice versa. Or, it is possible that the positive relationship between OCBs and unit effectiveness is spurious. For example, high-performing groups might report that they engage in a great deal of citizenship behavior not because they really do, but because their implicit theories of performance suggest that high-performing groups help each other, are good sports, and exhibit civic virtue. This is consistent with the recent study reported by Bachrach, Bendoly, and Podsakoff (1999), which found that groups who were told that their performance was high rated themselves as exhibiting more OCBs than groups who were told that their performance was low—even though the feedback was *unrelated* to the groups' actual performance. Thus, future research designed to more clearly establish the causal direction of relationships between these variables is needed. Obviously, the best way to accomplish this is through the use of experimental manipulations in laboratory settings. However, when that is not possible, longitudinal designs might be used. Although these designs are obviously not as good as experiments at establishing temporal priority and controlling for confounding factors, they provide better evidence than purely cross-sectional designs.

Finally, in view of the overlapping conceptual definitions of the different forms of in-role and extra-role behavior noted earlier, it is essential for future research to test rigorously for the discriminant validity of the constructs and their measures. Future research needs to provide evidence not only of whether the measures of each form of citizenship behavior/contextual performance are reliable and valid, but also whether they are distinct from measures of closely related constructs. This probably is done best through confirmatory factor analysis and the test of discriminant validity described by Fornell and Larcker (1981).

Concluding Remarks

Research on the topic of organizational citizenship behaviors has dramatically increased over the past decade. However, this rapid growth in research has resulted in the development of several problems, including the need to better understand the conceptual similarities and differences between various forms of citizenship behavior, as well as their antecedents and consequences. In this paper, we have tried to address these issues, as well as identify useful avenues for future research. Overall, this is an exciting and dynamic field of research, and we are hopeful that this paper will help to speed progress in this area by highlighting several key issues that are in need of attention.

Notes

1. It is important to note that it was not our intent to conduct a comprehensive meta-analysis of the OCB literature, but rather to show the general pattern of effects identified in previous research. To do this, we depended primarily on the meta-analyses conducted by Organ and Ryan (1995) and Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996a). In addition to this, we added information on the relationships between OCBs and the following antecedent variables: trust in one's leader, perceived organizational support, leader-member exchange, "core" transformational leadership behavior, articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, and intellectual stimulation.
2. For the purposes of the meta-analysis, the "overall" citizenship behavior category was used for those studies (e.g., Deluga, 1998; Hui et al., 1999; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994) in which the researcher(s) reported their results using a "composite" OCB dimension, rather than reporting the findings for individual OCB dimensions.
3. However, it is perhaps important to note that the "other" contextual performance category is comprised of dimensions that varied considerably across studies, therefore suggesting more consistency than may actually exist.
4. In these studies, Organ's dimensions of altruism, courtesy, peacemaking, and cheerleading (Organ, 1990b) were combined into a "helping" behavior construct.

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