

When Helping Others Is Harmful For Yourself

Moderating effects of motives on the relationship between
organizational citizenship behaviour and negative outcomes

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Abstract

Most studies about organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) focus on the positive consequences, while the negative consequences for employees seem to be underexposed. The extent to which OCB is related to negative consequences, may be contingent upon the specific motives employees have. This study examines the moderating effect of motives on the relationship between OCB and negative consequences (i.e. role overload, stress and work-family conflict). In total, 85 employees participated in this study by filling out a questionnaire. We found evidence that indicates a positive relationship between OCB and negative outcomes. More specifically, results indicate that the positive relationship between OCB and stress was moderated by affective commitment. This relationship was moderated such that the relationship between OCB and stress was weaker for employees with high levels of affective commitment. In addition, results indicated that continuance commitment was a moderator such that the relationship between OCB and stress was stronger for employees with high levels of continuance commitment. The results also revealed that cooperative norms had a moderating effect on the relationship between OCB and work-family conflict, such that the relationship was stronger for employees with high levels of cooperative norms. Implications for future research are discussed.

Keywords: organizational citizenship behaviour, motive, role overload, stress, work-family conflict.

Introduction

Every employee has certain tasks and responsibilities the employer expects them to do. In practice, tasks can be divided into tasks that are described in the job description, and tasks that fall outside of the job description but are necessary for organizational survival and effectiveness. This is also known as organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB): “Individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2005, p. 8).

Since it promotes the efficient and effective functioning of organizations, the literature about OCB often focuses on the positive aspects. As Grant and Mayer (2009) propose in their review: OCB could deliver better performance quantity and quality for the organization, and it could increase customer satisfaction. For employees it may mean better performance evaluations and even promotions. Empirical research has confirmed these positive consequences and showed that OCB can help organizations differentiate themselves from other organizations (Organ et al., 2005). Thus it is essential for organizational effectiveness. An interesting question becomes: is it essential for employees as well?

That is, recently also the downside of OCB has become clear. Consider, for example, an employee helping many colleagues on a working day. This might limit the time the employee has for getting his or her own work done, which may result in personal costs like stress and frustration (Perlow & Weeks, 2002). Only a few studies have investigated the consequences of OCB from such an employee perspective. Organ and Ryan (1995) first noted that OCB could contribute to overload and stress for employees. Recent research by Bolino and Turnley (2005) investigated the personal costs for employees engaging in OCB. More specifically, their research focussed on individual initiative, a specific form of OCB which is defined as voluntarily going above and beyond what is required in the formal job description while engaging in task-related behaviour (Organ et al., 2005; Bolino & Turnley, 2005). Bolino and Turnley (2005) suggest that employees could get overwhelmed, because of fulfilling their roles as good citizens (i.e. demonstrating individual initiative) in addition to their in-role behaviour. Research within the OCB domain area differentiates between such in-role behaviour and extra role behaviour. As noted by Van Dyne and LePine (1998) in-role behaviour is mandatory behaviour or behaviour that is expected by employers, and is the foundation of steady and ongoing job performance. The definition of extra role behaviour varies among different studies, but generally it is seen as discretionary behaviour that falls outside of the job description and benefits the organization (Organ et al., 2005; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). As such, extra role behaviour is similar to OCB. Based on the role theory, Bolino and Turnley (2005) proposed individual initiative to be associated with role overload, the experience of stress, and work-family conflict. Role theory states that stress and strain can occur when employees are not able to fulfil all of their roles with success (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984). Employees engaging regularly in OCB may become overloaded, having multiple

roles and not being able to manage them all together. Moreover, the private life may also suffer, leading to work-family conflict. For example conflict may arise for dual-career couples dealing with problems such as deciding who stays at home when children are sick (Spector, 2003). Empirical evidence from Bolino and Turnley (2005) indeed indicates that higher levels of individual initiative are associated with higher levels of role overload, stress, and work-family conflict.

In this paper we examine the relationship between OCB and such negative consequences and propose that this relationship may be contingent upon the specific motive or motives employees have for exhibiting OCB. That is, as Hoffman, Blair, Meriac and Woehr (2007) suggest, discretionary behaviour such as OCB, does not demand knowledge, skills or abilities but has to be seen as a motivational phenomenon. For example, an employee putting in extra effort and overtime (i.e. individual initiative) while working on a project does not need extra intelligence for this behaviour, but he or she will need the motivation to do so. Therefore, we propose that the specific motives employees have for engaging in OCB, affect the relationship between OCB and the previously described negative consequences.

Previous research has identified four categories of motives: *Prosocial motives* referring to an orientation or desire to build relationships and help others (Rioux & Penner, 2001). *Organizational concern* reflecting a desire to help the organization instead of colleagues. Employees have the desire for the organization to do well and are committed to the organization (Rioux & Penner, 2001). *Impression management* reflecting a general desire of employees to try and look good in front of co-workers and supervisors in order to get rewards (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Unlike prosocial motives and organizational concern, this particular motive is self-serving by nature. *Cooperative Norms* referring to a prevailing norm within the organization or work unit to engage in OCB (Ng & Van Dyne, 2005).

Departing from this idea it might be likely that two employees show the same OCB while having different motives to do so. For example, one may help out a new co-worker with preparing a presentation out of organizational concern. Someone else may exhibit the same helping behaviour not out of concern for the organization, but because he wants to look good in front of supervisors. These specific motives might colour the effect of OCB on negative outcomes. An important aspect in this respect may be the amount of perceived control that may go together with each type of motive. Employee control has been a central aspect within the organization psychology domain (Dwyer & Ganster, 1991; Spector, 2003; Thompson & Prottas, 2006). Control for an employee means that the employee can make decisions independently about his or her own work. It could be a decision about when to work or which tasks to choose. Research indicates that high levels of perceived control are associated with positive outcomes like job satisfaction (Spector, 2003). It similarly indicates that low levels of control are associated with negative outcomes like psychological strain (Spector, 2003). A

prominent model in this research area is the demand/control model (Karasek, 1979). This model posits that there is a complicated interplay between employee control and job demands, in which employee control acts as a buffer for the negative effects of high job demands (Spector, 2003). It emphasizes that high demands (i.e. stressors at work that need an adaptive reaction) in combination with low control will result in stress reactions (De Lange, Taris, Kompier, Houtman, & Bongers, 2003; Spector, 2003). Departing from such a control perspective, we postulate that depending on the motive, an employee might experience more or less control over OCB decisions at work. More specifically, employees with prosocial motives experience more control, because they are not dependent on profit for themselves or expectations from others. In addition, every time they do choose to exhibit OCB they are able to pick moments and specific tasks that fit their preference. The demand/control model (Karasek, 1979) states that high amounts of control will prevent strain to occur. Accordingly, we expect that there is a weaker relationship between OCB and negative outcomes when prosocial values are high instead of low.

Hypothesis 1: The relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and negative consequences is moderated by prosocial values such that the positive relationship will be weaker when prosocial values increase.

Whether or not employees have organizational concern as a motive depends on the attachment of the individual to the organization; Organizational concern reflects commitment to the organization (Spector, 2003). Meyer, Allan and Smith (1993) separate between three types of commitment: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. “Affective commitment occurs when the employee wishes to remain with the organization because of an emotional attachment” (Spector, 2003, p. 232). When an employee exhibits OCB with affective commitment as a motivation, the employee wants to contribute to the organization because the employee feels attached to the organization. For example, an employee affectively committed to the organization with a very hectic schedule on Monday. She sees a colleague in distress, and normally she would help out. However, because of the hectic schedule she chooses not to help that day and will consider helping another day. From the theoretical perspective of this study, affective commitment is considerably different than continuance commitment and normative commitment. When an employee exhibits OCB with affective commitment as a motivation, the employee wants to contribute and therefore experience a high amount of control in the decision-making process related to OCB. A high amount of control will lead to less strain as described in the demand/control model (Karasek, 1979). Accordingly, OCB will be less associated with negative outcomes when affective commitment is high instead of low.

Hypothesis 2a: The relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and negative consequences is moderated by affective commitment such that the positive relationship will be

weaker when affective commitment increases.

“Continuance Commitment exists when a person must remain with the organization because he or she needs the benefits and salary or cannot find another job” (Spector, 2003, p. 232). Continuance commitment refers to a bond with the organization, because of practical reasons, such as not having other job alternatives (Felfe, Schmook, Schyns & Six, 2007). Let’s apply the same hectic schedule from the example to an employee with continuance commitment as a motive. He sees the colleague in distress and knows if he doesn’t help, others will notice and may criticize his decision. He can’t afford losing his job, therefore he chooses to help. As a result he loses time which he needs for his own work, resulting in an argument with his wife because he was home late. Instead of the previously described example, this employee feels low control, because with every decision he makes he has to take into account what is needed for him to keep his job. Accordingly, it is more likely that OCB will lead to more negative consequences when continuance commitment is high.

Hypothesis 2b: The relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and negative consequences is moderated by continuance commitment such that the positive relationship will be stronger when continuance commitment increases.

“Normative commitment comes from the values of the employee. The person believes that he or she owes it to the organization to remain because of a sense that this is the right thing to do” (Spector, 2003, p. 232). A person’s upbringing or reciprocity (e.g. feeling obligated to repay others for helping you) could be reasons for the employee to stay committed to the organization (Felfe et al., 2007). An employee with this type of commitment as a motive, is expected to engage in OCB because internally it feels like the right thing to do. This employee has to take into account his or her values, resulting in choices which are in line with the values. However, this limits the amount of perceived control, since the employee has to exhibit OCB even when it leads to psychological strain. Accordingly, it is more likely that OCB will lead to more negative consequences when normative commitment is high.

Hypothesis 2c: The relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and negative consequences is moderated by normative commitment such that the positive relationship will be stronger when normative commitment increases.

When employees exhibit OCB motivated by the thought of a promotion when colleagues or supervisors are present to see them excel, this motivation is known as impression management: The process whereby an employee tries to influence the image colleagues or supervisors have of them (Rosenfeld, Giacalone, & Riordan, 1995). This means that when an employee has to exhibit OCB when his supervisor is around, an employee will not be able to choose these moments. Moreover the

employee has to choose a type of OCB he or she thinks the supervisor will appreciate or is more likely to notice. This dependency means the employee may feel less control in deciding when or what kind of OCB to exhibit at work. Employees with impression management as a motive may thus experience more negative outcomes combining these demands with their in-role behaviour and their non-work roles (Bolino & Turnley, 2005).

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and negative consequences is moderated by impression management such that the positive relationship will be stronger when impression management increases.

Sometimes employees feel pressure to engage in OCB to meet prevailing norms. Ng & Van Dyne (2005) refer to these norms as cooperative norms defined as regular behavioural patterns that are relatively steady and expected by colleagues. A cooperative norm is based on felt obligations by the employee towards colleagues. In this study cooperative norms as a motive mean that once in a while engaging in OCB is expected by others. Similar to impression management, an employee may experience less control over his or her decisions, because the employee is dependent on the perceived expectations from colleagues who will determine the type of OCB the employee has to exhibit or when. Therefore employees with cooperative norms as motive may experience more stress combining these demands with their in-role behavior and their non-work roles (Bolino & Turnley, 2005).

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and negative consequences is moderated by cooperative norms such that the positive relationship will be stronger when cooperative norms increase.

Method

Participants and Procedures

A total of 112 Dutch participants were approached by email and asked to participate in a study to examine employee behaviour. The respondents were asked to fill out a questionnaire, participated voluntarily and were assured of confidentiality. The response rate was 75% with a sample size of 85 participants. Of the participants 41 were female and 35 male (9 missing values). Age ranged between 21 and 60 years with an average age of 36.89 years ($sd = 13.12$). The participants had an average of 7.08 years of tenure with their employing organization ($sd = 8.43$) and 10.80 years of experience in their profession ($sd = 11.39$). The participants were employed in various regions in the Netherlands and worked in different sectors. E.g., the type of jobs included healthcare (28%), education (29%) and insurance & financial consulting (11%).

Measures

OCB is the independent variable in this study. Negative consequences i.e., role overload, stress, and work-family conflict are the dependent variables. The motives employees have for engaging in OCB, such as cooperative norms, are the moderator variables.

Organizational citizenship behaviour. A global OCB scale with eight items from Lambert, Hogan, and Griffin (2008) was used. An example of an item is “I frequently volunteer to do things without being asked”. Scores ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) and the Cronbach’s alpha for the scale was .59. As shown in Table 1 factor analysis indicated that two items loaded onto a different factor, than the other six items. These two items describe obeying rules at work and can be seen as in-role behaviour (Organ et al., 2005). Because these items did not clearly measure OCB, these two items were left out of further analyses. Cronbach’s alpha for the revised scale was .61.

Role overload. We have used Bolino and Turnley (2005) three item scale to measure role overload. An example of an item is “The amount of work I am expected to do is too great”. Scores ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Cronbach’s alpha for the scale was .89.

Work Stress. Bolino and Turnley’s (2005) four item scale was used to measure work stress. An example of an item is “My job is extremely stressful”. Scores ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Cronbach’s alpha for the scale was .84.

Work-family conflict. Gutek, Searle, and Klepa (1991) constructed a four item scale measuring work interference with family. An example of an item is “After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I’d like to do”. Scores ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Cronbach’s alpha for the scale was .68.

Prosocial Values. An adaptation by Lester, Meglino, and Korsgaard (2008) on the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES); (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987) was used to measure prosocial values. The CES scale measures four values: achievement, fairness, honesty, and concern for others. Respondents are forced to choose between pairs of statements, each describing a different value. All four values are socially desirable and therefore it lessens the chance of social desirability response bias. The value concern for others is similar to prosocial values and therefore used to measure prosocial values. Only 12 pairs containing the value ‘concern for others’ were used. An example item of the value concern for others “Offering help to others when they are having a tough time”. Each time an employee chooses achievement, fairness or honesty he or she scores one point on that value, when an employee chooses concern for others he or she scores 2 points on that value. Cronbach’s alpha for the scale was .55.

Commitment. Three items from Felfe, Schmook, Schyns and Six (2007) were used, measuring each of the three types of organizational commitment. Affective commitment was measured with “I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization”. Continuance commitment was measured with “I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization”. Normative commitment was measured with “I would feel guilty if I left my organization now”. Scales ranged from 1 (*not at all true*) to 5 (*completely true*).

Impression Management. Based on Bolino and Turnley (1997) levels of impression management were measured using three dimensions, each dimension was measured with three items. Sample items for self-promotion, ingratiation, and exemplification were “Talk proudly about your experience or education”, “Compliment your colleagues so they will see you as likeable”, “Stay at work late so people will know you are hard working”, respectively. The rating scale was a 5-point Likert scale, varying from 1 (*never behave this way*) to 5 (*often behave this way*). Cronbach’s alpha for self-promotion was .79, for ingratiation .89, and for exemplification .75.

Cooperative norms. A new scale was developed, measuring prevailing norms among colleagues. The scale consists of three items: “My colleagues expect you to help each other out whenever necessary”, “Sometimes my colleagues give me assignments that are not part of my job, which I am not able to do in time”, and “My colleagues expect you to put the group's interests above your own”. The rating scale was a 5-point Likert scale, varying from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Cronbach’s alpha for the scale was .59.

Control variables. Age and gender were used as control variables.

Table 1

Factor Loadings OCB

| Items | Global | Compliance |
|---|--------|------------|
| I frequently volunteer to do things without being asked | .459 | |
| I often take time away from my job to help others with their work without asking for a reward | .527 | |
| Sometimes I will coast during part of the workday when there is little work to do rather than trying to find new work | .512 | |
| If possible, I take extra unauthorized breaks | | .836 |
| I put forth a great deal of effort at work | .522 | |
| I often try to help fellow employees so they will become more productive | .683 | |
| When possible, I take longer lunches or breaks than allowed | | .877 |
| I often help others at work who have a heavy workload without being asked to do so | .729 | |

Results

The correlation coefficients, means, standard deviations, and scale reliabilities are shown in Table 2. Although the mean for OCB is not salient, the low variance is. As can be seen from Table 2 there is a significant correlation between OCB and role overload ($r = .33, p < .01$). OCB is, however, not related to stress ($r = .00, n.s.$) or work-family conflict ($r = .13, n.s.$).

The hypotheses were tested using a series of regression analyses in order to examine the interplay between OCB and negative consequences and the moderating effect of each of the constructs representing the different motives. First the variables were standardized and interaction terms were created. Next, the control variables age and gender were entered in the regression equation in step 1.

The predictor variable and moderator variable were entered in step 2, followed by the interaction term in step 3. The moderator variables in this study are the motives: prosocial values, commitment (i.e. affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment), impression management (i.e. ingratiation, self-promotion, and exemplification), and cooperative norms. Because of parsimony, only the interaction effects that were significant are plotted, using the procedures described by Aiken and West (1991).

Hypothesis 1 proposed that prosocial values would moderate the relationship between OCB and negative consequences, such that the positive relationship is weaker when prosocial values increase. The results however, did not support this hypothesis. The interaction between OCB and prosocial values was not significant for role overload ($\beta = .01, n.s$), stress ($\beta = -.04, n.s$) or work-family conflict ($\beta = -.11, n.s$).

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, Scale Reliabilities, and Correlations for all variables included in the study

| | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
|------------------------------|-------|-------|------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1. Gender | 1.54 | 0.50 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Age | 36.89 | 13.12 | -.06 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. OCB | 3.58 | 0.54 | -.12 | .03 | (0.61) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Prosocial Values | 1.55 | 0.19 | .24* | .12 | -.00 | (0.55) | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Commitment</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Affective commitment | 3.95 | 1.11 | .13 | -.15 | .25* | -.08 | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Continuance commitment | 2.61 | 1.40 | .02 | .12 | -.18 | .12 | -.35** | - | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Normative commitment | 2.69 | 1.32 | -.16 | -.18 | .10 | .12 | .11 | -.07 | - | | | | | | | |
| <i>Impression Management</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8. Ingratiation | 2.76 | 0.98 | -.03 | -.46** | .13 | -.12 | .03 | -.05 | .24* | (0.89) | | | | | | |
| 9. Self-promotion | 2.88 | 0.83 | -.20 | -.15 | .05 | -.23* | -.14 | -.18 | .16 | .41** | (0.79) | | | | | |
| 10. Exemplification | 1.99 | 0.83 | -.10 | -.37** | .09 | -.16 | .05 | -.19 | .33** | .51** | .33** | (0.75) | | | | |
| 11. Cooperative Norms | 3.21 | 0.75 | -.13 | -.36** | .40** | -.18 | -.04 | -.03 | .12 | .20 | .05 | .19 | (0.59) | | | |
| 12. Role Overload | 2.68 | 1.00 | -.14 | .03 | .33** | .08 | -.18 | .09 | .03 | .08 | .12 | .09 | .27* | (0.89) | | |
| 13. Stress | 3.25 | 0.83 | -.03 | .10 | .00 | .01 | -.22 | .07 | .06 | .19 | .10 | .09 | -.072 | .45** | (0.84) | |
| 14. Work-Family Conflict | 2.48 | 0.74 | -.19 | .20 | .13 | -.03 | -.45* | .33** | .05 | .07 | .22* | -.01 | .10 | .23* | .37** | (0.68) |

Notes: Cronbach's alpha appears along the diagonal in parenthesis

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

Gender is coded: 1 = male 2 = female

Prosocial Values is coded: 1= no concern for others 2= concern for others

Apart from Age, Gender and Prosocial Values all variables were measured using five-point Likert scale

Hypothesis 2a posited that affective commitment would have a moderating effect on the relationship between OCB and negative consequences. More specifically, the hypothesis posited that the relationship between OCB and negative consequences will get weaker when affective commitment increases. As can be seen in Table 3, a significant interaction effect between OCB and affective commitment on stress was found ($\beta = -.32, p < .05$). As Figure 1 depicts, OCB is negatively related to stress when affective commitment is high, but seems to have the opposite effect when affective commitment is low. Therefore, Hypothesis 2a is supported.

Table 3

Moderating Effect of Affective Commitment and Continuance Commitment

| Variable | Stress | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|------------|
| | Step 1 | Step 2 | Step 3 |
| Control Variables | | | |
| Age | .09/.09 | .05/.08 | .05/.09 |
| Gender | -.01/-.01 | .01/-.01 | .05/-.04 |
| Independent Variable | | | |
| OCB | | .06/.01 | -.01/-.11 |
| Affective Commitment/Continuance Commitment | | -.21†/.05 | -.30*/.09 |
| Interaction | | | |
| OCB * Affective Commitment | | | -.32* |
| OCB * Continuance Commitment | | | .32* |
| F | .30/.30 | .90/.20 | 2.14†/1.52 |
| R ² | .00/.00 | .04/.01 | .13/.09 |
| R ² Change | | .04/.00 | .08/.08 |

† $p < 0.10$ * $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

Note: regression coefficients are standardized beta coefficients

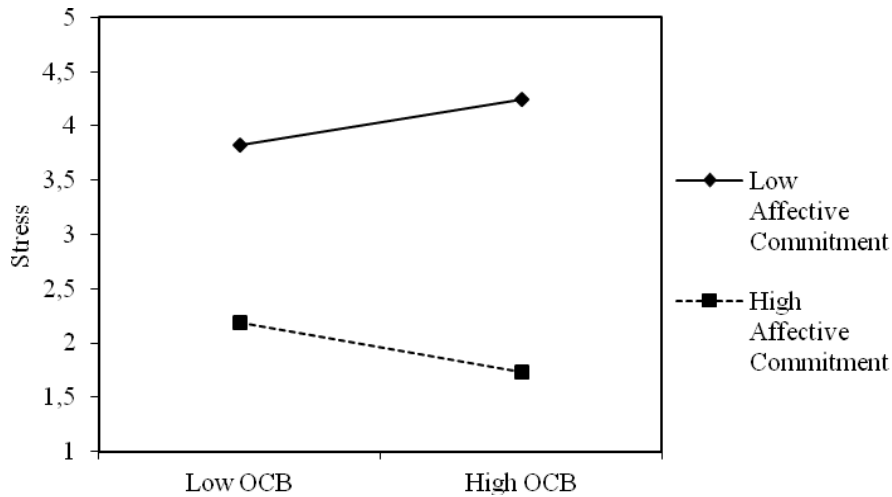


Figure 1. Interaction between OCB and affective commitment

Hypothesis 2b proposed that continuance commitment would moderate the relationship between OCB and negative consequences such that the relationship will be stronger when continuance commitment increases. Table 3 indicates that the interaction between OCB and continuance commitment on stress was statistically significant ($\beta = .33, p < .05$). In line with Hypothesis 2b, OCB is positively related to stress when continuance commitment is high rather than low (see Figure 2). Hypothesis 2c proposed that normative commitment would have a moderating effect on the relationship between OCB and negative consequences, such that the relationship will be more positive when normative commitment increases. However, the results did not provide support for the hypothesis.

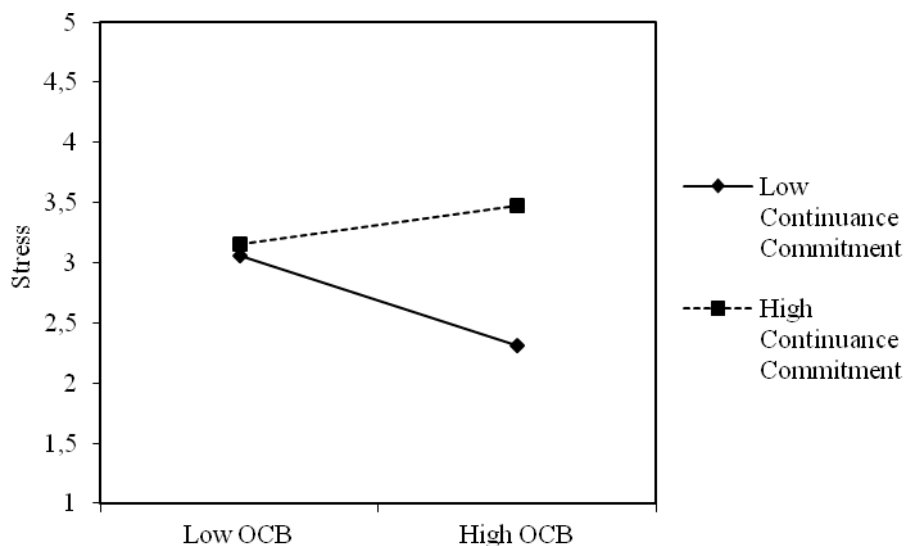


Figure 2. Interaction between OCB and continuance commitment

Hypothesis 3 posited that impression management would have a moderating effect on the relationship between OCB and negative consequences, such that the relationship will be more negative when impression management increases. For ingratiation ($\beta = -.21, p < .10$) and exemplification ($\beta = -.23, p < .10$) a marginally significant interaction was found on stress. In addition, the interaction between OCB and self-promotion on work-family conflict is marginally significant ($\beta = -.21, p < .10$). Interpretation of these interaction effects revealed that the relationship between OCB and stress does not get stronger when ingratiation or exemplification is high. Furthermore, Figure 3 illustrates that self-promotion is positively correlated with work-family conflict ($r = .21, p < .10$). However, it does not confirm that the relationship between OCB and work-family is stronger when self-promotion is high compared to low. Thus, these results do not support Hypothesis 3.

Table 4

Moderating Effect of Impression Management (i.e. Self-promotion, Ingratiation, and Exemplification)

| Variable | Stress | | | Work-Family Conflict | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------------------|--------|--------|
| | Step 1 | Step 2 | Step 3 | Step 1 | Step 2 | Step 3 |
| Control Variables | | | | | | |
| Age | .09/.09 | .21/.14 | .24†/.16 | .19† | .23* | -.16† |
| Gender | -.01/-.01 | -.00/-.00 | .01/-.00 | -.18 | -.12 | .00 |
| Independent Variable | | | | | | |
| OCB | | -.02/-.01 | -.05/-.09 | | .07 | .16 |
| Self-promotion | | | | | .20† | .21† |
| Ingratiation/ Exemplification | | .26†/.14 | .25†/.14 | | | |
| Interaction | | | | | | |
| OCB * Self-promotion | | | | | | .21† |
| OCB * Ingratiation | | | .20†/ | | | |
| OCB * Exemplification | | | .22† | | | |
| F | .30/.30 | 1.14/.44 | 1.57/1.01 | 2.94† | 2.38† | 2.54* |
| R ² | .00/.00 | .06/.02 | .10/.07 | .07 | .12 | .15 |
| R ² Change | | .05/.01 | .04/.04 | | .04 | .03 |

† $p < 0.10$ * $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

Note: regression coefficients are standardized beta coefficients

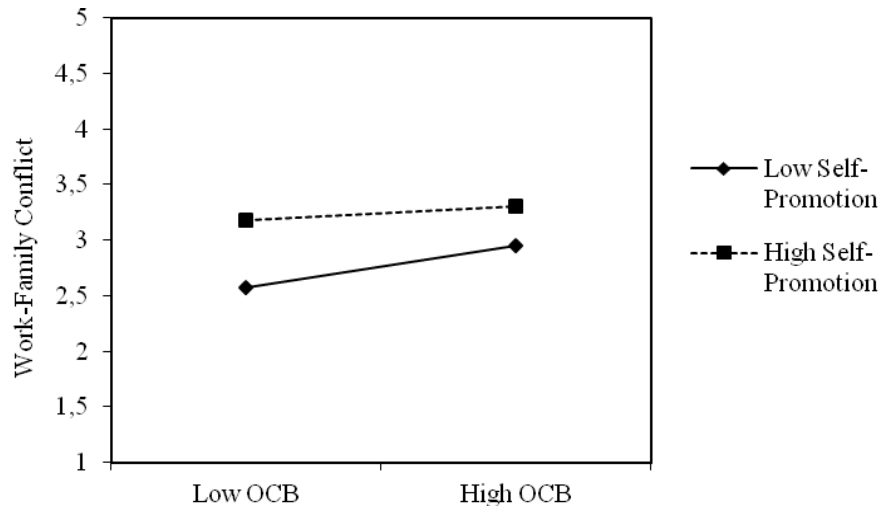


Figure 3. Interaction between OCB and self-promotion

Hypothesis 4 proposed that cooperative norms have a moderating effect on the relationship between OCB and negative consequences, such that the relationship will be more positive when cooperative norms increase. More specifically, the relationship between OCB and negative consequences is expected to be more positive when cooperative norms increase. As can be seen in Table 5, a significant interaction between OCB and cooperative norms on work-family conflict was found ($\beta = -.31, p < .05$).

Table 5

Moderating Effect of Cooperative Norms

| Variable | Stress | | |
|-----------------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| | Step 1 | Step 2 | Step 3 |
| Control Variables | | | |
| Age | .09 | .06 | .12 |
| Gender | -.01 | -.01 | .01 |
| Independent Variable | | | |
| OCB | | .03 | -.10 |
| Cooperative Norms | | -.07 | -.03 |
| Interaction | | | |
| OCB * Cooperative norms | | | -.31* |
| F | .32 | .22 | 1.41 |
| R ² | .00 | .01 | .09 |
| R ² Change | | .00 | .08 |

† $p < 0.10$ * $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

Note: regression coefficients are standardized beta coefficients

As Figure 4 depicts and as predicted, the relationship between OCB and work-family indeed gets stronger when cooperative norms are high compared to low. Therefore Hypothesis 4 is supported.

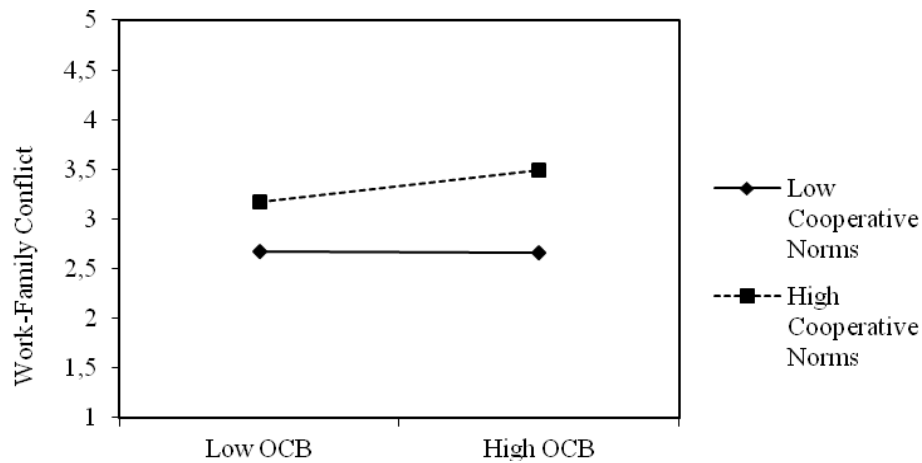


Figure 4. Interaction between OCB and cooperative norms

Discussion

Building upon recent findings (Bolino & Turnley, 2005), this research examined the extent to which OCB is related to negative outcomes for employees (i.e. role overload, stress and work-family conflict). More specifically, this study proposed that this relationship would be moderated by the motives employees have. Previous research has identified four categories of motives: prosocial values, organizational concern, impression management, and cooperative norms. Building upon the demand/control model (Karasek, 1979) which states that low control is associated with negative outcomes like psychological strain. We expected that motives that reflect low amounts of control would amplify the relationship between OCB and negative outcomes. More specifically, we expected that selfless motives (i.e. prosocial values and affective commitment) would allow more control, because the employee does not depend on others in the decision making processes, and as a result it would diminish the negative effects of OCB for employees. In contradiction, we expected that motives with a dependency aspect (continuance commitment, normative commitment, impression management, and cooperative norms) would diminish perceived control, and consequently increase the negative effects of OCB for employees.

Overall, we found evidence in line with expectations that higher levels of OCB are related to higher levels of role overload, stress and work-family conflict. We found that employees engaging in high levels of OCB experience high levels of role overload. In contrast with Bolino and Turnley (2005), we found that employees engaging in high levels of OCB do not experience high levels of work stress or work-family conflict. When we entered moderators in the regression, we found effects of OCB and the

different motives on work stress and work-family conflict, but not role overload. Employees that engage in high levels of OCB motivated by continuance commitment experience high levels of stress. In addition, employees engaging in high levels of OCB, because it is a prevailing norm (i.e. cooperative norms) experience high levels of conflict between work demands and family demands (i.e. work-family conflict). As expected, employees that exhibit OCB because they feel affectively committed to the organization experience less stress. Impression management, normative commitment and prosocial values did not influence the relationship between OCB and negative outcomes.

A possible explanation for these results is that employees engaging in OCB might experience role overload anyway, because engaging in OCB is an extra role that has to be fulfilled. Accordingly, the type of motive may not matter that much for experiencing role overload. This would explain why there was no moderating effect on role overload, and why there was a significant correlation between OCB and role overload. It is not clear what caused the weak results for work-family conflict. Work variables (e.g. hours spent at work) and other non-work variables (e.g. marital status, number of children) might offer an explanation for these weak results, more research is needed to confirm this.

Although some motives indeed moderated the relationship between OCB and negative outcomes (i.e. stress and work-family conflict), some others didn't. There could be different reasons as to why some motives did have a moderating effect and others didn't. The OCB literature suggests various motives for citizenship behaviour and a few are quite similar. Moreover not all studies agree on the different motives employees might have. Consequently, different motives or different measures for these motives might yield different results and may explain why not all motives had a moderating effect.

Limitations

There are several limitations which have to be taken into account when interpreting the results of this study. First, the sample size was relatively small which has a negative influence on the statistical power. Second, internal consistency may occur due to a common source, thus a common method bias may exist in the data. Third, measures of prosocial values and cooperative norms had a reliability of .55 and .59 respectively. Low reliability may have affected the relationships with other variables, and may account for the absence of significant relationships. In addition, the three types of commitment were measured with a single item, which might explain why there were only significant relationships for two out of three types of commitment. Fourth, the results for variables like OCB and impression management may be affected by social desirability bias. Employees will be likely to state they frequently exhibit OCB, and unlikely to admit their motivations are self-centred. In addition, it is doubtful whether employees can accurately describe their own attitudes and behaviour in self report measures. Future investigations should seek the point of view from colleagues regarding the respondents' motives. Moreover, further research is needed to confirm if high amounts of perceived

control in decision making regarding OCB does in fact diminish the negative effects.

Future research

The results have implications for OCB research and organizations. An implication of these findings for organizations may be a reemphasis on the importance of personal costs for employees. Employees exhibiting OCB may deliver better performance quantity and quality for the organizations, but may simultaneously harm themselves. Moreover, they could harm the organization indirectly by getting ill as a result of the stress or even quit because the personal costs get too high.

Supervisors may reinforce employees engaging in OCB, not realising what motivations lie behind the citizenship behaviour. Therefore, management should focus on the different motivations employees have and should not encourage OCB with the 'wrong' motives. This suggests the usefulness of monitoring motivations with surveys and other means. Thus, although future research might want to use different methods, our findings provide initial support for the important role of motivations in research focused at the downside of OCB.

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