

Do Motives Matter? Uncovering the Value of Motives Underlying
Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB)

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ABSTRACT

Do Motives Matter? Uncovering the Value of Motives Underlying Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB)

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The main goal of this thesis was to determine whether accounting for motives underlying organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) furthers our understanding of these valued organizational behaviors. The antecedents of citizenship motives, supervisors' effectiveness in their attributions of subordinates' motives, and the moderating role of motives in the relationship between OCBs and their outcomes were explored. Employing a two study replication design, supervisor-subordinate dyadic data were collected from 197 bank employees in Pakistan and 88 employees of a Canadian electronics company. Conscientiousness and affective commitment emerged as positive, and equity sensitivity as negative, predictors of selfless motives in the Pakistani sample, and these effects were largely replicated in the Canadian sample. Hypotheses predicting supervisor effectiveness in identifying subordinates' motives were supported in the Pakistani but not the Canadian sample. The hypothesized moderating effects of motives on the relationships between OCBs and their outcomes received most support in the Pakistani sample. Finally, employing a post-hoc confirmatory factor analysis, this study also produced and tested a 2-dimensional version of the motives scale which for the most part resulted in an equal or better fit over Rioux and Penner's (2001) original measure across both samples. Results show that selfless and self-serving OCBs do not equally

contribute to the organization, but instead that the former produce the most valued organizational outcomes. An important theoretical implication of these findings is that future OCB research empirically determine, rather than assume, the outcomes of OCBs, and measure, rather than infer, their underlying motives. Practical implications include the value of clarifying employees' tasks and work roles, while reducing ambiguity in advancement and promotion criteria, to remove incentives for the performance of self-serving OCBs. Differential findings suggest the need for underlying contextual factors in Canada and Pakistan to be further explored.

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1. Introduction

We make a living by what we get, but we make a life by what we give.
--Winston Churchill

The purpose of this study is to investigate the importance of identifying underlying motives for performing organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Specifically, the goal is to shed light on whether solely assessing OCBs is sufficient to our understanding of the relationship between these behaviors and their correlates or whether their underlying motives should also be explored in order to draw more precise conclusions of their impact on ensuing organizational outcomes.

Two extreme views can be identified in the literature with regard to the importance of motives on OCBs: that held by Organ and his camp (2006), and that advanced by Bolino (1999). The former and dominant view is “that understanding the proximal motive for OCB is not essential to our appreciation of it, nor to our recognition, definition or understanding of it” (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006, p. 7). This view is articulated both explicitly as in the previous statement and implicitly in the fact that proliferating interest and research on OCBs has included almost no attention directed at uncovering motives beyond the traditionally assumed altruism, conscientiousness and reciprocity (Bolino, 1999; Rioux, & Penner, 2001). At the other extreme, Bolino (1999) asserts that:

Identifying the motivation behind citizenship behaviors is an important undertaking. First, from a theory development perspective, gaining insight into employees’ citizenship motives and the distinctions between organizational citizenship and impression management should produce a

clearer understanding of both of these constructs. Second, it is valuable to understand impression-management motives because they are likely to influence the impact that OCBs have on organization and work group performance (p. 93).

Despite increasing evidence that OCBs may also be motivated, as well as perceived as motivated, by self-serving and impression management motives (Becker & O'Hair, 2007; Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006; Bowler & Brass, 2006, Eastman, 1994; Finkelstein, 2006; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Snell & Wong, 2007; Yun, Takeuchi, & Liu, 2007), the dominant view guiding OCB research remains most aligned with the first position that identifying the motives behind OCBs is not a necessary endeavor. As previously mentioned, this position is implicitly articulated as relationships between OCBs and their antecedents and outcomes are examined in the absence of any measure of motive while many of these same articles use terms imparting considerable motivational intent to refer to individuals performing OCBs (such as "good citizenship", "good soldier" or "good Samaritan"). Stated differently, in much of the same research where motives underlying OCBs are not investigated and much less empirically assessed, at some point in the discussion terms are used to refer to the individuals performing such behaviors which invariably connote motive. Given that a good soldier is less likely than most to act out of self-serving motives, a key tenet of this study is that it is important to empirically determine whether it is accurate to conclude that it in fact makes no difference for an OCB to result from the actions of good soldier or a good actor. Therefore, the goal of this research is to assess the role of motives in the relationship between OCBs and correlates of these behaviors and to begin to uncover where

significant differences exist in such relationships. Additionally, the proposed model seeks to identify the mechanism through which this effect takes place.

This thesis is presented in five parts. In the first part, the treatment of motives in the OCB literature is addressed. In addition to underscoring the scant attention which motives have received, this section will also address related conceptual and methodological challenges to the OCB construct. In the second section, a model is proposed with the goal of demonstrating the importance of motives to OCB research. Broadly speaking, this model intends to capture (1) the process by which an individual's motives are transmitted from him/herself to his/her supervisor, (2) once in the supervisor's head, whether attribution of motives affects supervisor decision making, and if so, (3) whether supervisor decisions are based on actual differences in the quality of OCBs or on perceptual biases. This is followed by the methodology, results and discussion of two studies undertaken to test the hypotheses. Finally, this thesis concludes with a general discussion comparing the findings of the two samples, and addressing their practical and theoretical implications, limitations of the study design and suggestions for future research.

2. The Treatment of Motives in the OCB Literature

2.1 Inferring but not Measuring OCB Motives

As previously stated, the dominant explicit view guiding OCB research remains that identifying the motives underlying OCBs is not a necessary endeavor. While the absence of motive measures in most of OCB research supports this view, the actors performing OCBs are invariably characterized as a “good citizens,” “good soldiers” and/or “good Samaritans”. In his first book on OCBs as well as in his most recent volume

on the construct, Organ recounts an experience with a physically demanding task he was required to perform in a contract summer job during his college years (Organ, 1988; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). He describes his struggle pushing large rolls of paper off an elevator and the impending disaster averted thanks to the unsolicited help of a regular paper mill worker. This helping act leads the authors to christen Organ's benefactor as 'Sam', "short for the Good Samaritan" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 2), as he is subsequently referred to in the book. In that same chapter, where the basic assumptions of OCBs are laid out and explained, possible reasons for Sam's behavior are offered and include only evaluations reflecting concern for Organ and the organization. In addition to the authors' contention that "understanding the proximal motive for OCB is not essential to our appreciation of it, nor to our recognition, definition, or understanding of it" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 7), a self-interested speculation regarding the motive for Sam's behavior is conspicuously lacking. However, is it totally farfetched to also consider that perhaps Sam's supervisor was present, and that this seemingly selfless act was instead a good opportunity for Sam to present himself in a good light? More cynically speaking, would it also not fall within the realm of possibility that Sam only engages in such behaviors in his supervisor's presence? In line with research demonstrating that what are thought of as OCBs may in fact be impression management (Bolino, 1999; Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006; Bowler & Brass, 2006; Rioux & Penner, 2001), this paper argues the importance of not readily discounting the possibility that Sam's apparent act of selflessness was instead motivated by the opportunity Organ's predicament provided to present himself favorably to his supervisor. Given this very real possibility, it is also of concern that the assessment of occurrence of such behaviors is most commonly measured

by surveying Sam's supervisor, the most likely audience of self interestedly performed OCBs. Furthermore, given the fact that unless Sam is brought into the discussion there can be no certainty regarding his motives, it is almost certainly precipitous to discount self-interested motivations when making attributions about his behavior. This is especially problematic since, while Organ and colleagues (2006) maintain that it is not important to make attributions or identify the motivation behind OCBs, organizational citizenship behaviors are increasingly equated with, and referred to in the literature as, reflecting the acts of selfless good citizens and good soldiers.

2.2 Challenges to the OCB Construct

It is possible that the view that it is not necessary to investigate motives underlying OCBs is based on the logic that good actions (i.e. OCBs) must result from well-intentioned individuals; that "the anatomy of a helping hand" (Organ, 1988, p. 2) is indeed that of a good citizen. Given that OCBs intend to capture "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effectiveness of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4) it is logical to characterize an individual performing OCBs as a good soldier as described in the title of one of Organ's (1988) books (i.e., "Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Good Soldier Syndrome"). However, mounting evidence suggests that the theorized conditions for the performance of OCBs do not always hold. Specifically, the extra-role, discretionary, and non-reward assumptions of OCB have been challenged (Morrison, 1994; Wilson, 2005), as well as evidence provided indicating that the performance of OCBs is not strictly the result of selfless motives.

The in-role-extra-role distinction on which OCBs were initially grounded has consistently been identified in the literature as the construct's most troublesome issue. The original conception of OCBs described extra-role behaviors; i.e. those which are not prescribed or required for the fulfillment of one's job (Bateman & Organ, 1983). In-role behaviors, in contrast, were defined (though never subjected to empirical validation) as those that are "required or expected ... the basis of regular and ongoing performance" (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998, p. 108). Despite empirical challenge of such neatly prescribed distinction as well as a reflection by Organ (1997) himself on the need for the construct's reconceptualization, much of the emerging OCB research continues to be anchored on the in-role-extra-role distinction whereby OCBs are described as extra-role and discretionary. One justification for doing so is that because most job descriptions do not include listings of various OCBs these behaviors remain discretionary and extra-role (Organ et al., 2006).

Perhaps the earliest challenge to the in-role-extra-role distinction grounding OCBs remains Morrison's (1994) findings that employees holding the same position or office can differ in how broadly they define their jobs. Evidence of employee variation in defining their in-role responsibilities renders it inaccurate to define in-role behaviors as consisting strictly of the formally prescribed tasks associated with one's office in the organization. As a result, variability among individuals holding the same functional position could be expected. Empirical evidence suggests that in-role behaviors can best be understood as a cognitive construction of each individual employee often including behaviors that were previously conceptualized as strictly extra-role (Morisson, 1994). This reflects the reality that employees' views of what is in-role and extra-role is guided

by much more than a set package negotiated with the organization and that varies only with a change in office (Morrison, 1994). Also seeking to account for the overlap between in-role and extra-role behaviors, Kidder and Parks (2001) proposed gender as a moderating variable of whether certain extra-role behaviors will be considered in-role or extra-role. The authors demonstrated that gender differences account for some variation in employee identification of extra-role behaviors as in-role. Categorizing OCBs as masculine or feminine, the authors found that individuals tend to consider an OCB of the same gender to be in-role while viewing an OCB of the opposite gender as extra-role. For example, a male in a male job role will more likely consider a masculine OCB to be part of his role and a feminine OCB as extra-role.

The in-role-extra-role confound is often exacerbated by its measurement. Research investigating whether respondents in fact consider OCBs to be extra-role is limited to work by Morrison (1994) and Kidder's (2002) subsequent investigation on gender and OCBs, and less than a handful of studies using Morrison's measure of perceived job breadth (Bachrach & Jex, 2000; Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler, & Purcell, 2004; Klieman, Quinn, & Harris, 2000). In contrast, the greater part of research in this area takes for granted that OCBs are extra-role, asking simply whether or not the behaviors are performed and at times even including leading questions clarifying to respondents that extra-role behaviors are those which are not rewarded by the organization nor punished if withdrawn (for ex.: Puffer, 1987; Tepper, Lockhart, & Hoobler, 2001; Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). While intended as clarification, a priori descriptions of behaviors as extra-role in the absence of empirical validation can be particularly problematic when the respondent in fact considers them to be in-role.

The strict assumption of OCBs as discretionary is another of the construct's assumptions challenged by empirical findings. In line with Morrison's (1994) finding that OCBs may also be considered in-role, these behaviors are not as discretionary as originally assumed, as an individual who considers an OCB to be in-role is likely to feel he has less of a choice in its performance than his counterpart who considers the same behavior to be extra-role. A qualitative investigation by Wilson (2005) suggests this is in fact the case. While some behaviors (such as helping behaviors) were not formally mandated by the organization, both supervisors and subordinates demonstrated an understanding that "excellent" performance included OCBs. Clearly, specifying OCBs as discretionary fails to consider the change in expectations that can result over time after an individual demonstrates never before performed valuable behaviors, whereby discretionary actions become an expected part of the job. This is an especially relevant consideration in current organizational landscapes in which one's success or mere continuance in the organization can no longer be achieved by strict adherence to the minimal prescriptions of one's job contract. This is in line with recent findings that employees consider being evaluated on their performance of OCBs as fair (Johnson, Holladay, & Quinones, 2009).

Finally, the non-reward assumption of OCBs has also been challenged by research demonstrating that these behaviors in fact precede important organizational rewards. For example, in a field quasi-experiment involving bank tellers and their supervisors, Hui, Lam and Law (2000) found a positive relationship between OCBs and promotion as well as a positive relationship between instrumentality of the OCB to the promotion and the performance of OCBs. In other words, the authors found that employees not only

perceive the performance of OCBs as increasing their chances of being promoted, but also that their actual performance did lead to a greater probability of being promoted. As such, evidence that OCBs are not exclusively extra-role, discretionary and non-rewarded serves as another indicator of a weak correlation between the OCB construct and its measure. Partly on this basis it is argued that it is especially problematic to infer motives from observed OCBs.

2.3 Broadening Our Understanding of Motives Underlying OCBs

More recently, research investigating the role of differential motives for the performance of OCBs provides evidence that they are not limited to the traditionally explored motives of reciprocity and a predisposition toward being helpful and cooperative, but can also be motivated by self-serving and impression management. Impression management motives differ greatly from traditionally assumed OCB motives; while the latter are expected to in aggregate benefit the organization, the former, being motivated by self-interest, have the potential for producing dysfunctional outcomes for the organization. Stated differently, while the result of the same OCB performed by a good soldier (i.e. motivated by prosocial values or organizational concern) at first thought is expected not to differ from that performed by a good actor (i.e. motivated by impression management), it is argued, based on the differential underlying motives, that this is not the case. Given that supervisors generally serve as informants reporting on their subordinates' OCBs, and that these same supervisors are the most likely target of impression management, it is possible that they confuse the more opportunistic OCBs of good actors with those addressing real problems performed by the good soldier. With regard to opportunism, while an OCB performed by an individual scoring highly on

prosocial values is most likely one elicited with the main goal of helping a coworker, the same OCB motivated by impression management may be prompted simply because of the supervisor's presence or the hope that the news will get back to the supervisor. As such, the good actor performing the latter kind of OCB may provide his/her coworker with help so long as their supervisor is present, and withdraw the help before fully contributing to the resolution of the issue, once their supervisor leaves. Allen and colleagues' (2000) finding that supervisors' ratings of OCBs were significantly higher than target individuals' subordinates' ratings supports the possibility of individuals' instrumental use of these behaviors in the presence of superiors. Another means by which the OCBs of good soldiers and good actors are conceived as differing and therefore of providing different contributions to the organization is by the quantity of these behaviors observed. It is entirely possible for a supervisor to attribute a greater number of OCBs to a good actor than to a good soldier. Because a good soldier is performing OCBs out of genuine desire to help his/her coworkers or organization, he/she will perform OCBs regardless of whether or not these are in sight of the supervisor. In contrast, because individuals with a high score on impression management (and a low score on prosocial values and organizational concern) are using OCBs as means of making a favorable impression on their supervisor, it is likely that most of their OCBs will be in his/her view. As such, it becomes especially important to investigate the motives underlying OCBs when these behaviors are assessed from the supervisors' perspective so that a clearer understanding may be gained regarding the contribution of these behaviors toward the global good of the organization.

As will be further elaborated, it is not suggested that selfless and self-serving motives are orthogonal opposites as previous research and current findings demonstrate their co-existence. Instead, my goal is to examine whether the differential focus (helping oneself vs. helping the organization) of the *dominant* underlying motivation impacts the outcomes of OCBs.

Studies investigating differential motives underlying OCBs have measured motives directly as well as indirectly, inferring motives from the conditions surrounding the performance of citizenship behaviors. Bolino and colleagues (2006) found two forms of impression management to be related to supervisor ratings of OCBs. Specifically, they found supervisor-focused impression management (i.e. ingratiation) to be positively related to OCBs and job-focused impression management (i.e. taking responsibility for positive events while downplaying negative ones) to be negatively related to citizenship behaviors. The authors also found these motives to be important toward creating the perception of a good soldier (operationalized as supervisors' liking of subordinates). Specifically, individuals engaged in ingratiation (such as flattery and favor doing) were identified more favorably than those motivated to act as a 'model' employee (such as downplaying negative events while boosting one's own image). Also assessing the role of self-enhancement motives in predicting the performance of OCBs, Yun, Takeuchi, and Liu (2007) found that in conditions of low situational constraints and high role ambiguity individuals have greater opportunity to perform OCBs for self-enhancement purposes.

OCB research not directly assessing motives also provides evidence of self-serving motivation in the performance of OCBs. Bowler and Brass (2006) employed a social network lens to explore when individuals perform interpersonal citizenship

behaviors (ICBs). The authors found that those with more influence tend not to perform ICBs for those who are less influential than they are, but instead tend to receive more ICBs from their less influential counterparts. Interestingly, and also suggesting a self-serving motivation in these interrelational patterns, being friends with an influential other also seemed to guarantee the receipt of more ICBs. Finally, the work of Thau, Bennett, Stalberg and Werner (2004) also seems to confirm differential motivation for the performance of OCBs. Specifically, the authors found that individuals' ease of finding alternate employment as well as the attractiveness of these other opportunities are negatively related to their performance of OCBs. It is possible then to consider the baseline for traditionally motivated OCBs to be those performed by individuals with viable and attractive alternate employment opportunities (since they are the ones most likely to remain in the organization and perform OCBs because they 'want' to) and at least some of the OCBs performed by individuals with a narrower choice set to be self-servingly motivated.

2.4 The Nature and Dimensionality of Motives Underlying OCBs

Research on motives underlying OCBs has also produced the three dimensional citizenship motives construct, consisting of both traditionally assumed OCB motives (prosocial values and organizational concern) and the more recently identified impression management motives for the performance OCBs (Rioux & Penner, 2001). These studies, along with subsequent research using the citizenship motives scale discussed below (such as Finkelstein, 2006 and Finkelstein & Penner, 2004) challenge the assumption that all OCBs are performed by good soldiers.

In almost two decades only a little over a handful of studies have explored motives directly related to the performance of OCBs. As part of the attempt to better understand the relationship between OCBs and performance judgments of managers, Allen and Rush (1998) found that supervisors attribute different causal motives to subordinates' OCBs, and that the frequency of OCBs were associated with the type of motive attributed. In line with the role of consistency in making attributions (Kelley, 1973), they found that supervisors tended to ascribe altruistic motives to individuals performing more OCBs and instrumental motives to those performing less citizenship behaviors. Also seeking to account for differential motives underlying OCBs and building on the functionalist perspective, which recognizes that two people driven by different motives may engage in the same behavior, Rioux and Penner (2001) introduced the citizenship motives scale. Consisting of three dimensions, the scale accounts for possible motives underlying OCBs: prosocial values, organizational concern and impression management. Expected relationships between prosocial values (PV) and OCBs directed at individuals and between organizational concern (OC) and OCBs directed at the organization were confirmed. The authors also found that each of the three motives accounted for some unique variance in OCB dimensions over and above commonly assessed predictors such as organizational justice and mood. High intercorrelations among the motives suggest that individuals will not map neatly into one of the three motives, but at best are driven by a dominant motive while exhibiting some aspects of the other two (as addressed in the measures and results section, both procedural and statistical controls were considered to address this). It is also possible that

even if one motive is dominant with respect to the other two, this arrangement is likely to vary according to the behavior performed.

The null findings of Rioux and Penner's (2001) impression management (IM) subscale prompted a more socially undesirable reconceptualization by Finkelstein and Penner (2004), who characterized these motives as a drive toward extrinsic rewards. This study confirmed the intercorrelations among the subscales and replicated the major findings by Rioux and Penner (2001), including the weak associations with IM motives. The authors also demonstrated that the motives of prosocial values and organizational concern are related to two forms of organizational role identity, helping the organization and helping individuals in the organization. Finkelstein (2006) replicated the findings of Finkelstein and Penner (2004) while also investigating the role of motive fulfillment in the performance of OCBs. Motive fulfillment, operationalized as the extent to which the performance of OCBs directed at individuals and OCBs directed at the organization fulfilled each of the three citizenship motives, was found to be positively and significantly related to both individually and organizationally directed OCBs.

More recently, Becker and O'Hair (2007) explored the role of motives in their investigation of the relationship between Machiavellianism and OCBs. Using Rioux and Penner's (2001) original scale, significantly different relationships were observed among the citizenship motives; namely, high significant correlations were observed only between PV and OC motives. The hypothesized negative relationships between Machiavellianism and PV and OC and positive relationship between Machiavellianism and IM were supported, in line with the conception of Machiavellians as driven primarily by self-serving motives.

Finally, a qualitative investigation by Snell and Wong (2007) incorporated Rioux and Penner's (2001) citizenship motives by subdividing them into two contrasting potential OCB motives: prosocial/pro-organizational and impression management. The authors found that behavioral consistency and alleged false pretense underlay the attribution of motives, and that only those OCBs interpreted as motivated by prosocial/pro-organizational motives were viewed by respondents as socially desirable. Research on motives therefore supports their differential relationship to OCBs as well as of evidence of varying evaluations by observers based on attributed motive. Previous studies also indicate a social desirability challenge in assessing self-serving motives alongside more seemingly benign motives.

3. Making a Case for the Importance of Motives in OCB Research

Although the notion that OCBs may result from both selfless and self-interested motivations (i.e. be performed by the good soldier as well as the good actor), is instrumental in the argument, providing evidence that different motives drive OCBs is not sufficient to fully account for their importance and convincingly demonstrate that motives matter. In other words, simply demonstrating that OCBs result from different motivations does not sufficiently address the question of whether motives matter. Similarly, it does little to advance OCB research other than requiring an amendment in the construct's conceptual anchoring. As with most things in our world today, and most especially in the context of organizations, the real importance of determining whether motives matter is providing evidence that these various motives have differential effects on the *bottom line*. In other words, a convincing argument that motives matter must include a discussion of how these affect the main factor behind the steady and growing

interest in OCBs since the construct was introduced: the benefit these behaviors accrue to the organization.

Similar inquiry has taken place and proved relevant in research on feedback seeking, whereby motives underlying feedback seeking were found to substantially affect outcomes (e.g., Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Lam, Huang, & Snape, 2007). In contrast, the investigation of motives in OCB research has for the most part been limited to demonstrating that various motives, both selfless and self-serving, underlie the performance of citizenship behaviors (e.g., Bolino et al., 2006; Bowler & Brass, 2006; Hui, Lee, & Rousseau, 2004; Thau et al., 2004; Yun et al., 2007).

Consequently, this study proposes to extend the research on OCB motives to investigate whether differential motives underlying citizenship behaviors in fact matter, as determined by the moderating role of motives on the relationship between OCBs and correlates such as perceived flexible role orientation and overall individual performance (see Figure 1). A key tenet of this study is that effectively demonstrating that OCB outcomes are related to differential motives constitutes convincing evidence of the need to move beyond inferring motives from behavior, as is currently the norm in OCB research, to their actual identification and empirical examination.

3.1 Uncovering Citizenship Motives – Dispositional and Attitudinal Correlates

A proposed starting point toward addressing whether OCB motives matter is understanding individuals' actual citizenship motives as well as how these are translated into supervisors' perceptions of these motives. Seeking to build on research exploring the relationship between citizenship motives and OCBs (Becker & O'Hair, 2007; Finkelstein, 2006; Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Snell & Wong,

2007), one of the goals of this study is to identify meaningful correlates of citizenship motives and to explore the process underlying observer's perceptions of these motives. Specifically, three motives are explored: prosocial values (a desire to extend help to others and gain their acceptance), organizational concern (pride and positive affect toward one's organization), which capture traditionally assumed OCB motives, and impression management (a desire to achieve or maintain a positive image and avoid a negative one) (Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Rioux & Penner, 2001).

Toward the end of determining whether motives matter, this study seeks to extend previous research identifying differential motives underlying OCBs by exploring the dispositional and attitudinal predictors of motives and the process by which supervisors form attributions of subordinates' motives, as well as determine whether motives interact with OCBs in the identification of the good soldier. This study therefore proposes to incorporate Rioux and Penner's (2001) citizenship motives as these capture broad motivational impetuses underlying OCBs; namely, a desire to help the organization, members of the organization, or oneself. Whereas OCBs have been traditionally assumed as performed by individuals seeking to help the organization or its members, increasing attention is directed at more self-serving motives in the form of impression management. Figure 2 summarizes the key differences between the two broad classes of motives.

As outlined in Figure 2, the major implication of a differential focus of the two broad motive categories (selfless vs. self-serving) is a correspondingly different contribution to the organization from the performance of otherwise identical OCBs. Because the impetus underlying self-serving motives is to gain something for oneself, the frequency of OCBs is expected to be more sporadic and strategic relative to that

prompting more traditional OCB motives. For example, because the OCBs performed by an individual driven by self-serving motives is a means to an end, providing help to a coworker is therefore more the result of the opportunity to impress his supervisor than merely an attempt to help his coworker. In contrast, and because an individual driven by more selfless motives performs OCBs because it is in her nature to do so as this is in line with her values/beliefs, she will not only help out the coworker merely for the sake of helping to solve a problem, but in doing so seek to address the need until it is solved (unlike the self-serving individual who may stop helping his coworker when the supervisor is no longer in close proximity to observe his good deed). On this basis, it is expected that the frequency of OCBs will differ between these two broad types: the OCBs of individuals driven by selfless motives will be more consistent with organizational needs (i.e. whenever there is a need, they are more likely to perform an OCB), whereas OCBs performed by individuals driven by self-serving motives are expected to occur mainly when an organizational need coincides with a witness to their helping act. In line with research indicating that other orientation (concern for others) is more strongly associated with higher task and OCB performance than self-concern (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009), a selfless vs. self-serving focus by the individual while performing the OCB is expected to result in differential gain accrued to the organization. As such, the quality of the help provided by the individual motivated by impression management is expected to be different from that motivated by the latter individual driven by more selfless OCB motives, since the ultimate aim of the former is to give off the impression of helpfulness which that of the latter is to actually to help solve a coworker's problem. While the coworker in need of help may benefit from the first encounter, it is in the latter

that he is most certain to receive the attention necessary to address his problems. The difference in contribution to the organization on the basis of the motives underlying OCBs is thought to be especially significant when the effects of these behaviors are considered in aggregate.

In addition, the three citizenship motives are expected to also differ on which behaviors individuals put on hold to engage in OCBs. To extend this argument it is useful to broadly distinguish the focal organizational members' time during the workday as comprising time spent on work, or organizational time (directly on core tasks, or indirectly, discussing a project with a coworker), and the individual's own time (such as having lunch, making a personal phone call or taking a coffee break) . When an individual engages in an OCB, at best this is time he/she is taking away from his/her own discretionary time in the organization. It is expected that individuals motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern will be less likely to sacrifice time spent on core work tasks in order to perform OCBs (as this would be counter to their underlying motivation) and will instead be more likely to cut into their own time or stay over time when required to reconcile competing demands. Conversely, an individual who is strategic and self-serving about the OCBs he/she performs is expected to be more readily willing to put core organizational tasks on hold when focusing on advancing a self-interested goal. While time as a constraint has been discussed in evaluating the tradeoffs between OCBs and task performance (Bergeron, 2007), there has been no investigation into which activities are more readily sacrificed when performing OCBs. In order to gain a better understanding of the two broad motivations underlying OCBs represented in figure 2, the following are proposed:

Hypotheses 1a-b: Individuals motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern will allocate more of their own time rather than take time away from core organizational tasks when performing OCBs.

Hypothesis 1c: Individuals motivated by impression management will tend to take up time from core organizational tasks rather than from their own time when performing OCBs.

In line with findings that self-concern and other orientation are independent constructs (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009), and recognizing that the three citizenship motives do not comprise an orthogonal typology but can instead simultaneously account for an individual's motivation as evidenced by the moderate to high correlations identified among the motives (Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Rioux & Penner, 2001), the ensuing hypotheses are advanced conceiving the motive in question as dominant and the remaining two as held constant. In other words, in line with previous findings that selfless and self-serving motives can be simultaneously operational, the behaviors and theorized outcomes addressed in this study will be discussed from the standpoint of organizational concern (for example) being the dominant underlying citizenship motive. Procedural and statistical controls undertaken to ensure this approach is effectively operationalized are addressed in the methods and results sections.

The relationship of traits and attitudes evocative of the good soldier with an individual's citizenship motives is explored. Firstly, as stable individual characteristics guiding individual preferences and behaviors, equity sensitivity and trait conscientiousness are proposed as dispositional predictors of citizenship motives. As is addressed below, given that equity sensitivity and conscientiousness account for

important individual differences such as dependability and fairness perceptions, it is expected that they will explain the individual variance in citizenship motives. Secondly, two attitudes of the good soldier are proposed as correlates of citizenship motives: affective commitment and flexible role orientation. It is expected that these attitudes toward the organization will be related to citizenship motives. For example, individuals who are willing to take on greater demands in their job and consider organizational problems to be their concern (high score on flexible role orientation), and who are emotionally attached to the organization (high score on affective commitment), are expected to be more likely to engage in OCBs out of prosocial values and organizational concern than for impression management motives. Furthermore, it is proposed that these attitudes are transmitted from the individual to his/her supervisor through the behavioral displays (including OCBs) associated with his/her citizenship motives. In other words, the relationships proposed in Figure 1 also seek to account for how attitudes of the good soldier are transmitted from his/her own head to that of his/her supervisor.

Equity sensitivity and trait conscientiousness are advanced as traits which help explain citizenship motives. Given the motivational implications of traits, it is expected that equity preferences and conscientiousness will be differentially related to the more traditionally assumed OCB motives (i.e. prosocial values and organizational concern) and the more recently identified self serving OCB motives (i.e. impression management) (Rioux & Penner, 2001).

Originally advanced by Huseman, Hatfield, and Miles (1987), equity sensitivity is intended to capture stable individual perceptions and preferences toward equity distributions. Equity sensitivity explains that individuals respond consistently to

inequity according to their preferences for a lower (benevolents), equal (equity sensitives), or higher (entitleds) input-outcome ratio relative to their comparison others (Miller & Werner, 2007). Unlike entitleds' tendency to focus on rewards, the greater importance benevolents place on work itself may account for their higher tolerance toward under reward and generally higher levels of satisfaction even in inequitable situations (King, Miles, & Day, 1993).

Sauley and Bedeian (2000) proposed a reconceptualization of the construct based on a continuum of individuals' differential orientation toward exchange relationships. While Huseman et al.'s (1987) conceptualization of equity sensitivity specifies that benevolents (low equity sensitivity) and entitleds (high equity sensitivity) differ on their appraisal of exchange relationships (i.e. an exchange that benevolents see as equitable may be viewed by entitleds as inequitable), the reconceptualized construct specifies that benevolents and entitleds differ instead on their focus of exchange (i.e. benevolents focus on inputs while entitleds focus on outcomes). The reconceptualized construct has been found to behave as expected, being negatively related to old fashionedness (i.e., being conservative and nice to others) and protestant work ethic, and positively related to Machiavellianism (Sauley & Bedeian, 2000). Additionally, Raja and colleagues (2004) found equity sensitivity to be positively related to transactional contracts and confirmed entitleds' preference for extrinsic gains over relationships and long term contracts. Also reporting on Sauley and Bedeian's reconceptualization, Miller and Werner (2007) found a negative relationship between equity sensitivity and helping behavior. Specifically, the authors found that when no extra pay was provided for helping coworkers with disabilities, benevolents were more likely to help these colleagues than their entitled

counterparts. Research on the related construct of reciprocation weariness is also in line with a differential approach to giving resulting from a general tendency to be more giving or taking (Eisenberger, Cotterell, & Marvel, 1987). Tapping into the extent that people are fearful of exploitation in social exchange relationships and keep tabs on their contribution, reciprocation weariness was found to be negatively related to the loyal boosterism dimension of OCBs (Kamdar, McAllister, & Turban, 2006).

Given the above, it is expected that equity sensitivity will be differentially related to citizenship motives. Specifically, it is expected that individuals' with a low score on equity sensitivity are more likely to score highly on prosocial values and organizational concern, while exhibiting a lower score on IM. In contrast to entitlements who like Machiavellians can be unscrupulous in furthering their ends, benevolents are 'givers' and are thus akin to the good soldier, ready to go the extra mile and less uncomfortable with inequitable situations in which their inputs go unrewarded (Mudrack, Mason, & Stepanski, 1999). OCBs performed by benevolents (i.e. those with a high score on equity sensitivity) are therefore more likely to be motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern, than by impression management motives. In contrast, as 'takers', entitlements (i.e. those with a low score on equity sensitivity) performing OCBs are more likely to be motivated by impression management than by prosocial values or organizational concern, as these behaviors represent a means for them to get their way. For illustration purposes, the same OCB may be considered from both a benevolent's (low equity sensitivity) and an entitled's (high equity sensitivity) perspective. A benevolent may help a co-worker who is falling behind with his work simply because she knows she has the expertise to do so, and that by doing so she will help this coworker

avoid a likely reprimand from his supervisor. Her motives for performing this OCB are in line with prosocial values, or the desire to help others (Rioux & Penner, 2001), with little or no thought given to if, when, or how this helping act will be reciprocated. A seemingly similar example involves an entitled performing the exact same helping behavior, but instead of being driven by the inputs (e.g. helping the coworker), focusing on the outcome of that help (e.g. being seen favorably by his supervisor who is in the process of deciding which subordinate to promote). In this case, the entitled is motivated by impression management, whereby the helping behavior has presented itself as an opportunity for him to demonstrate to his supervisor the worthiness of his candidature for an upcoming management position. It is therefore expected that:

Hypotheses 2a-c: Equity sensitivity will be negatively related to self-report prosocial values and organizational concern and positively related to self-report impression management.

Comprising four narrow traits (achievement, dependability, order and cautiousness) (Dudley, Orvis, Lebiecki & Cortina, 2006), conscientiousness has been identified as the strongest of the Big Five predictors of OCBs (Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowidlo, 2001) and job performance (Hurtz & Donovan, 2000). Characteristics of a high scorer include being organized, reliable, scrupulous and self disciplined, while a low scorer will tend toward being lazy, unreliable, and negligent (Costa & McCrae, 1985). Research on conscientiousness indicates a positive relationship with behaviors associated with the quality of being responsible (such as retention and attendance) and a negative relationship with behaviors associated with irresponsibility (such as theft and disciplinary problems; Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 1993). Also, consistent with the hypothesized

relationship below, conscientiousness was found to be a significant predictor of role definitions (i.e. the extent to which OCBs were considered part of the job; Clark, Zickar, & Jex, 2005). Conscientious individuals are therefore more likely than their low scoring counterparts to view opportunities to perform OCBs as their responsibility or even as part of their job. Approaching OCBs as their responsibility or part of their job makes it more likely that individuals scoring high on conscientiousness are motivated by a desire to help others or the organization itself than by impression management. A high scorer on conscientiousness is conceived as more likely to direct his/her discipline and responsibility toward actually producing results for the organization and helping coworkers rather than engaging in the machinations more characteristic of a focus on advancing one's own goals. In contrast, it is more likely that their OCBs will be motivated by impression management than by prosocial values or organizational concern. Furthermore, given that low scorers on conscientiousness have a greater tendency toward being unreliable and less motivated, it is not expected that their OCBs will be stimulated by prosocial values or organizational concern, but are more likely to be motivated by impression management. A low score therefore reflects a relative absence in the qualities that would link conscientiousness with traditionally defined OCB motives. In other words, because a low scorer on conscientiousness will tend to perform less OCBs than his high scoring counterpart, as well as is less likely to be motivated by prosocial values or organizational concern, it is expected that his performance of OCBs will most likely be driven by instrumental reasons rather than as ends in themselves. In much the same way that it is in the nature of the low scorer to be lazy and do the minimum work to get by, it

is also in his nature to not go above and beyond the call of duty with the performance of selflessly motivated OCBs. It is therefore expected that:

Hypotheses 3a-c: Conscientiousness will be positively related to self-report prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to self-report impression management.

In addition to traits, it is proposed that key attitudes toward one's work serve as effective predictors of citizenship motives. In essence, distinguishing individuals on the basis of their affective commitment and flexible role orientation is a means of distinguishing the good soldier from the good actor. Individuals' OCB motives are expected to vary with these attitudes so that, for example, an individual who scores highly on affective commitment and flexible role orientation is also likely to engage in OCBs out of prosocial values or organizational concern. As outlined below, the congruence of attitudes and motives, as well as with the previously discussed traits, provide a mechanism toward understanding how supervisor attributions of motives are formed and how evaluations of who are the good soldiers are determined.

In general, commitment captures psychological attachment to the organization. Allen and Meyer (1996) have proposed three distinct forms this psychological attachment may take: affective (wanting to stay in the organization), normative (feeling one ought to stay in the organization), and continuance commitment (feeling one has to stay in the organization). Reflecting an individual's emotional attachment and identification with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1984), the relationship between affective commitment and other important individual and organizational outcomes makes it the most desirable form of commitment for the organization. For example, with regard to undesirable work

behaviors, affective commitment exhibited the strongest negative correlation with turnover and withdrawal cognition as well as with absence (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002). This same meta-analysis also identified affective commitment as the strongest predictor of both job performance and OCBs. As such, relative to the other types of commitment, affective commitment is argued as being the most exemplary of the good soldier. Given that an individual who scores highly on affective commitment experiences emotional attachment to the organization and remains there because he wants to, his performance of OCBs will most likely be driven by the desire to help coworkers or benefit the organization. It is expected that the positive outcomes associated with a high score on affective commitment will also be reflected in a tendency to perform OCBs with the goal of helping the organization directly (as motivated by organizational concern) and indirectly (as motivated by prosocial values). In contrast, an individual who experiences low emotional attachment to the organization will likely lack the necessary caring to consider OCBs as opportunities to benefit the organization. Instead, when dispensing OCBs he/she is more likely to be focused on his/her own goals and identify the opportunity for self-promotion and advancement through the demonstration of OCBs. In light of the above, it is therefore expected that:

Hypotheses 4a-c: Affective commitment will be positively related to self-report prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to self-report impression management.

Finally, flexible role orientation is proposed as the second attitude toward the organization that effectively differentiates the good soldier from the good actor. Flexible role orientation captures individuals' varying beliefs of what comprises their role,

“including what types and breadth of tasks, goals, and problems they see as within their set of responsibilities, and how they believe they should approach those tasks, goals and problems to be effective” (Parker, 2007, p. 404). Broader than Morisson’s (1994) perceived job breadth, flexible role orientation captures the extent to which issues, such as poor maintenance of equipment or costs exceeding budget, are considered to be of concern to the individual employee (Parker, 2007; Parker, Wall & Jackson, 1997). Howell and Boies (2004) identified a positive relationship between idea generation and flexible role orientation, supporting the view that those individuals conceiving of their roles more broadly are most willing to employ the necessary expertise and demonstrate the requisite willingness to seek out innovative means to address organizational concerns. A more direct relationship has also been established between flexible role orientation and job performance, especially in contexts of high autonomy (Parker, 2007). This finding is not surprising given that an individual who scores highly on flexible role orientation will more likely address organizational problems as he/she comes across them as well as take on emerging tasks proactively going above and beyond formal job prescriptions. Tapping into one’s sense of duty toward the organization both with regard to ownership and accountability, a high score on flexible role orientation is evocative of the good soldier. When performing OCBs, the greater breadth of concern and greater sense of duty of individuals with a high score on flexible role orientation is expected to translate into a motivation toward helping fellow organizational members or the organization itself. In other words, these individuals will perform OCBs because they consider the positive outcomes resulting from helping coworkers or the organization to be of concern to them. In contrast, a low score on flexible orientation reflects a narrow orientation toward one’s

place in the organization whereby one's sense of responsibility hovers closely around formal job prescriptions. As such, given this limited concern and sense of duty, it is expected that when performing OCBs the main underlying motivation will be for instrumental reasons or to make a favorable impression of oneself. It is therefore proposed that:

Hypotheses 5a-c: Flexible role orientation will be positively related to self-report prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to self-report impression management.

3.2 Uncovering Citizenship Motives – Supervisors' Attribution

Having introduced and discussed correlates of citizenship motives, a next step in their understanding is identifying the process by which an individual's motives are translated into a supervisor's perceptions of these same motives. As in Grant, Parker and Collins (2009), this study relies on attribution theory to explain how supervisors interpret signals externalizing their employees' citizenship motives (i.e. selfless vs. self-serving). Such signals may comprise verbal statements and behavioral patterns which, in line with a broad conception of attribution theory, contribute toward the spontaneous and continuous interpretations supervisors make in daily organizational life (Harvey & Weary, 1984).

The verbal and behavioral cues externalizing employees' citizenship motives serve to inform supervisors' perceptions of these same motives. For example, an individual who is mostly motivated by organizational concern will be less likely to selectively perform OCBs that are visible and episodic, or more likely to precede a reward, such as volunteering to be part of the committee to organize a reception for

potentially lucrative new clients. Instead, this person's OCBs will likely be relatively low key and responding to organizational needs as they emerge, such as voluntarily attending non mandatory organizational functions or being mindful of saving organizational resources. These expectations are in line with recent findings that both prosocial and impression management motives predict affiliative OCBs (such as helping and courtesy) which promote the status quo, but only prosocial motives were related to challenging OCBs (such as initiative and voice; Grant & Meyer, 2009). Behavioral differences such as these are expected to translate employees' citizenship motives into supervisors' attributions of these motives.

Hypothesis 6a: Self-reported prosocial values will be positively related to supervisor-reported prosocial values.

Hypothesis 6b: Self-reported organizational concern will be positively related to supervisor-reported organizational concern.

Hypothesis 6c: Self-reported impression management will be positively related to supervisor-reported impression management.

Related to the verbal and behavioral cues serving to provide information regarding their subordinates' citizenship motives, the alignment of motives and behaviors of prosocial values and organizational concern are conceived differently from impression management. These differences translate into varying signal strengths to supervisors. The motives for performing OCBs and the ensuing verbal and behavioral cues should be in greater alignment when prompted by prosocial values and organizational concern than when motivated by impression management. As such, either because they feel genuine concern for the organization or hold helping and extending themselves for the greater

good as part of their values, when individuals motivated by organizational concern or prosocial values perform OCBs they are acting in accordance with their motives, rather than acting to disguise their motives. As a result, the alignment of motives and behaviors associated with prosocial values and organizational concern imparts consistent verbal and behavioral cues which supervisors in turn use to make attributions about citizenship motives. In contrast, to be effective, individuals motivated by impression management are by definition engaging in behaviors that are not in alignment with their motives, as they seek to appear selfless while driven by self-serving motivation. Because the motives and behaviors associated with prosocial values and organizational concern are in greater alignment than those of impression management, it is hypothesized that the greater consistency of ensuing cues will allow supervisors to more readily identify these motives. For example, a supervisor may observe that someone whose OCBs are driven by organizational concern is more likely to volunteer to help out with low profile projects or be more mindful or conserving organizational resources than someone driven by impression management motives. However, the latter is likely to perform more of these behaviors when she identifies an instrumental reason to do so (such as a raise or impending promotion opportunity), and in those instances, may appear sincere to the supervisor. It is therefore expected that:

Hypothesis 6d: The relationships between self-reported prosocial values and supervisor-reported prosocial values and self-report organizational concern and supervisor-report organizational concern will be stronger than that between self-reported impression management and supervisor-reported impression management.

Given that the performance of OCBs in one's workday involves a greater degree of discretion than the completion of core work behaviors, an individual will necessarily devote more time to the latter than to the performance of OCBs. As such, rather than supervisors' perceptions of citizenship motives being based upon individuals' citizenship motives, it is also possible that there will be a direct effect between traits and attitudes of the good soldier and supervisor perceptions of citizenship motives. In this case, the impressions formed regarding individuals' citizenship motives may be constructed from the behaviors and signals externalizing individuals' level of conscientiousness and flexible role orientation than with behaviors associated with citizenship motives. Supervisors' perceptions of their subordinates' citizenship motives may therefore be formed not by behaviors associated with and externalizing these motives as they perform OCBs, but from verbal and behavioral cues externalizing individuals' traits and attitudes toward work in general. Supervisors' perceptions of citizenship motives would therefore be inferred from verbal displays and behaviors relating more directly to core tasks such as a focus on taking shortcuts to get the work done as quickly as possible (high equity sensitivity) and having an excuse for not putting in overtime to finish a project (low conscientiousness).

Hypotheses 7a-c: Equity sensitivity will be negatively related to supervisor-reported prosocial values and organizational concern and positively related to supervisor-reported impression management.

Hypotheses 8a-c: Conscientiousness will be positively related to supervisor-reported prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to supervisor-reported impression management.

Hypotheses 9a-c: Affective commitment will be positively related to supervisor-reported prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to supervisor-reported impression management.

Hypotheses 10a-c: Flexible role orientation will be positively related to supervisor-reported prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to supervisor-reported impression management.

3.3 The Role of Motives in Supervisor Identification of the Good Soldier

A key assumption of this study is that, if motives matter, an individual who performs OCBs out of organizational concern or prosocial values is most likely to be characterized by his/her supervisor as a good soldier than his counterpart who performs or is perceived to perform OCBs based on impression management motives. As such, the three outcomes of OCBs considered in this study seek to capture supervisor perceptions of employees in line with characterizations in the literature of individuals who exceed formal job expectations by performing these much valued behaviors.

Two prevalent characterizations in the literature of individuals performing OCBs are of a “good soldier” and “good citizen”. A good soldier conjures images of going above and beyond the call of duty and of being self-abnegating for the greater good. Given that both the good soldier and the good citizen act out of their own volition, reflecting a real sense of identification and commitment toward the organization and its members, perceived affective commitment is proposed as the first dependent variable. The behaviors associated with internally driven or altruistic citizenship motives are similar to those associated with perceived affective commitment such as working long hours and appearing to demonstrate a genuine interest in the wellbeing of the

organization. According to Allen and Rush (1998), “acts of citizenship are characteristic of the behaviors also associated with high committed employees” (p. 248). As such it is expected that:

Hypothesis 11: OCBs are positively related to supervisor-rated affective commitment.

Similarly, the interpretation of a good citizen through the performance of OCBs indicates a propensity to do more in the organization, which in turn indicates a greater concern and care beyond one’s immediate work. For example, whereby all employees are provided with supplies with which to do their jobs, a good citizen will not only be mindful to make judicious use of these to ensure that there is enough for everyone, but may also be mindful of their conservation to save the organization money. In other words, while the self-interested individual may not think twice about depleting organizational resources, the good citizen will more likely monitor and be mindful of his usage. In this context, by capturing the extent to which individuals consider it their concern to attend to organizational problems such as costs exceeding budget, gauging supervisors’ perceptions of Parker’s (2007) flexible role orientation provides a measure of individual appraisals that may be likened to the evaluations distinguishing the good citizen from the good actor. It is therefore expected that individuals performing OCBs for reasons of prosocial values or organizational concern will more likely be interpreted as concerned for the organization than those individuals perceived to be performing OCBs for more self-serving reasons.

Hypothesis 12: OCBs are positively related to supervisor-rated flexible role orientation.

The relationships proposed above between performance of OCBs and supervisor perceptions of attitudes that represent an individual’s willingness to go above and beyond

work expectations ultimately support the notion that greater performance of OCBs signals the good soldiers to supervisors. This is consistent with findings that greater performance of OCBs lead to correspondingly greater positive outcomes to the organization (Podsakoff et al., 2009). One of the two main dependent variables of interest in OCB research has been individual performance and several reasons have been offered for this relationship ranging from actual differences in performance to supervisors' "implicit performance theories" (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). As proposed below, this study attempts to demonstrate that the interaction between subordinates' OCBs and citizenship motives reflects supervisors' ability to identify actual differences (rather than merely perceptual biases) in individuals' performance (captured both by overall performance as well as the perceived attitudes of the good soldier described above). For the moment however, as has been demonstrated in prior OCB research, it is proposed that the performance of OCBs are associated with higher overall individual performance evaluations.

Hypothesis 13: OCBs are positively related to overall performance evaluations.

Supervisors tend to favor and consider only traditional motives for performing OCBs as socially desirable (Snell & Wong, 2007) and correspondingly dispense greater rewards to subordinates perceived as good citizens than to those viewed as ingratiators (Eastman, 1994). In line with these findings, whether because they are actually doing more or are just perceived as doing more, over time, the performance of OCBs motivated by prosocial values or organizational concern should be more highly correlated with overall evaluations of the good soldier than OCBs performed for self-serving reasons. For example, it is hypothesized that a supervisor who observes a subordinate performing

OCBs and attributes these OCBs as being motivated by a desire to help the organization or other organizational members is likely to also view this individual as highly committed and genuinely concerned with the organization. In contrast, if this supervisor were observing a subordinate performing the same behavior, but attributed it to an attempt at self-promotion in light of impending performance evaluations, his/her ratings of this individual's affective commitment and flexible role orientation should be lower than that in the previous example. Whether because of biases stemming from motivational attributions or because citizenship motives are associated with actual differences in performance, it is expected that these motives will moderate the proposed relationships between OCBs and the dependent variables.

The citizenship motives evaluated in this study comprise the traditionally assumed motives prompting OCBs (organizational concern and prosocial values) and self-serving impression management motives (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Supervisor attributions of motives are expected to moderate the relationship between OCBs and the dependent variables; this relationship is predicted to be stronger when supervisors view OCBs as being performed out of organizational concern and prosocial values than when these behaviors are ascribed as being motivated by impression management concerns. Compared to OCBs performed out of prosocial values or organizational concern, those motivated by impression management are expected to produce an inferior contribution as the individual is less focused on making a real contribution than on enhancing his/her image and furthering his/her goals. In line with attribution theory, it is expected that the same verbal and behavioral cues that inform supervisors of their subordinates' motives are also factored into their evaluations of their subordinates' affective commitment,

flexible role orientation and performance. For example, a supervisor who attributes his subordinate's OCBs as being mainly motivated by organizational concern is likely to evaluate this employee's affective commitment to the organization as high. In contrast, a supervisor's opinion of his subordinate's performance might be lower if he believes this employee performs OCBs mainly out of impression management and self-serving motivations, relative to an identically performing other subordinate whose OCBs he evaluates as motivated by prosocial values.

Hypotheses 14a-c: The positive relationship between OCB and supervisor-report affective commitment is moderated by supervisor-report citizenship motives. In other words, it is expected that OCBs will be more highly correlated with supervisor-report affective commitment when they are perceived to be motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern than when they are perceived to be motivated by impression management.

Hypotheses 15a-c: The positive relationship between OCB and supervisor-report flexible role orientation is moderated by supervisor-report citizenship motives. In other words, it is expected that OCBs will be more highly correlated with supervisor-report flexible role orientation when they are perceived to be motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern than when they are perceived to be motivated by impression management.

Hypotheses 16a-c: The positive relationship between OCB and overall performance evaluation is moderated by supervisor-report citizenship motives. In other words, it is expected that OCBs will be more highly correlated with

overall performance evaluations when they are perceived to be motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern than when they are perceived to be motivated by impression management.

It is important to also consider these moderating effects using subordinates' self-reports of their own motives to rule out perceptual biases by supervisors – as opposed to real effects – in their evaluations that employees who perform OCBs for selfless motives make a bigger contribution to the organization. This is especially important in the case of impression management motives as it is likely that the moderating role of impression management be stronger when assessed from self- rather than supervisor-report. Because impression management involves the attempt to control others' impressions of oneself, generally for self-serving purposes, the accompanying behaviors are expected to vary according to whether the individual is in a state of 'acting' or monitoring his/her actions, or not. When a subordinate is in a state of monitoring, he/she is conscious of his/her behaviors, who is watching, as well as of the intended goal of the behavior. In other words, he/she may be thinking one thing ("I can't wait for my supervisor to go home so I can take off too") and doing another (trying to appear hard at work while putting in overtime). As such, it is possible that there be no significant moderation effect of supervisor-report impression management on the relationship between OCBs and the dependent variables because of the supervisor's confusion about the subordinate's real motive. It is also possible that a failure to detect such a moderating effect result from supervisor evaluations of subordinates' affective commitment, flexible role orientation and performance be biased by their attributions of subordinates' motives such that no additional variance is explained by the interactions. As such, finding that this same

relationship is significantly moderated by self-report motives would overcome this bias, uncovering evidence that motives do in fact account for differences in the outcomes of OCBs.

Hypotheses 17a-c: The positive relationship between OCB and supervisor-report affective commitment is moderated by actual citizenship motives. In other words, it is expected that OCBs will be more highly correlated with supervisor-report affective commitment when they are motivated by self-report prosocial values and organizational concern than when they are motivated by self-report impression management.

Hypotheses 18a-c: The positive relationship between OCB and supervisor-report flexible role orientation is moderated by citizenship motives. In other words, it is expected that OCBs will be more highly correlated with supervisor-report flexible role orientation when they are motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern than when they are motivated by impression management.

Hypotheses 19a-c: The positive relationship between OCB and overall performance evaluation is moderated by citizenship motives. In other words, it is expected that OCBs will be more highly correlated with overall performance evaluations when they are motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern than when they are motivated by impression management.

In addition to evidence that motives affect the impact of OCBs on supervisor attributions of subordinates' attitudes and the performance of subordinates, it is also

important to demonstrate that these effects in turn affect supervisory decision making. Supervisor assessments such as of the ability and willingness of an employee to be flexible or of his/her level of loyalty and concern for the organization are often proximal precursors to major decisions such as project allocations, promotions and raises. As such, demonstrating that motives moderate the relationship between OCBs and these key assessments is an important step in providing empirical evidence that motives do in fact matter.

With the goal of further validating these findings, the relationship between Allen and Rush's (1998) reward recommendation measure and the dependent variables is explored. Items of this measure assess the extent to which a supervisor would recommend a subordinate for common organizational rewards such as salary increase and a high profile project. In addition to a previously demonstrated relationship between reward recommendations and perceived affective commitment and performance (Yun et al., 2007), a similar relationship is expected between reward recommendations and perceived flexible role orientation. Identifying a positive relationship between the dependent variables and reward recommendations reinforces the importance of motives given evidence of a tangible effect on important future managerial decisions.

Hypotheses 20a-c: Perceived attitudes and outcomes of the good soldier (supervisor-report affective commitment, perceived flexible role orientation and overall performance evaluations) will be positively related to reward recommendations.

3.4 Identifying the Good Soldier – Accurate Characterization or Judgment Bias?

The previous discussion has centered on uncovering the role of motives on the relationship between OCBs and supervisor attributions of the good soldier. Toward this end it has focused on determining whether supervisors view employees as good soldiers (i.e. rate them highly on the dependent variables) regardless of whether these assessments are based on accurate characterizations or constitute judgment biases, and whether these perceptions in turn affect supervisor decision-making. An additional important consideration toward determining whether motives matter is identifying the mechanism involved with the goal of clarifying whether the established relationship between OCBs and performance outcomes is based on de facto performance differences or bias artifacts (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Specifically, do supervisors view employees who perform OCBs and are motivated by organizational concern and prosocial values more favorably than those motivated by impression management because the former's actions really do contribute more value toward the organization, or simply because of a perceptual bias on the part of the supervisor?

In addition to testing the moderation hypotheses with subordinates' self-report of their own motives, it is proposed that the correspondence between supervisor perceptions of the good soldier and subordinate self-evaluations of these same variables is another means of further ruling out bias effects. Specifically, a high degree of correspondence between supervisor- and self-evaluations of affective commitment and flexible role orientation provides evidence that motives affect not only supervisor perceptions, but in fact lead to differential outcomes. For example, an employee may be motivated to perform helping OCBs because he/she is genuinely motivated to help his/her coworkers.

Observing this individual's performance of OCBs along with the attribution that these are motivated by prosocial values will likely lead the supervisor to also rate the individual highly on attitudes of the good soldier (i.e. perceived affective commitment and perceived flexible role orientation). If the subordinate in this example also rates him/herself highly on affective commitment and flexible role orientation, then it is possible to assert with greater confidence that the supervisor's corresponding ratings are based on behaviors by the subordinate relating to these assessments. However, it is also possible that the same subordinate whose OCBs are motivated by prosocial values is currently searching for a better employment opportunity, and will therefore report low scores for his/her own attitudes of the good soldier. Alternatively, it is possible that the OCB the supervisor above attributed to prosocial values is in fact motivated by impression management, whereby the supervisor will rate the individual highly on attitudes of the good soldier and the subordinate will give him/herself low scores on these same measures. As such, it is the relationship between supervisor assessments of attitudes of the good soldier and individuals' own assessments of these which will clarify the extent to which supervisors' reporting is based on observed differences in subordinates' behaviors or results from a perceptual bias resulting from evaluations of employees' behaviors on the basis of the attribution of their motives. Recent meta-analytic findings (Connolly, Kavanagh, & Viswesvaran, 2007) provide evidence of convergent validity between self- and supervisor-report of personality variables. As relatively stable drivers of individual behaviors, externalizations of attitudes are also expected to provide cues that inform relative accurate observer evaluations of these same attitudes.

As such, given that individuals who are motivated by organizational concern and prosocial values are expected to exhibit greater congruence between their motives and behaviors (for example, putting in overtime to finish a project, regardless of whether or not the supervisor is also working late) than those motivated by impression management (for example, timing one's own overtime to coincide with when the supervisor stays late), it is expected that supervisors' perceptions do not indicate mere bias but actual differences in outcomes between these two groups.

Hypotheses 21-22: Supervisor ratings of the dependent variables (perceived affective commitment and perceived flexible role orientation) will be positively related to subordinate self-ratings of these same variables.

Given that an actual effect (i.e. motives do in fact differentially affect outcomes) implies that a supervisor's assessment is based on actual observations and evaluations of his/her subordinate, rather than a halo effect, it necessarily requires that the supervisor have sufficient opportunity to make these observations. As such, the expected correspondence between individual and supervisor ratings of affective commitment and flexible role orientation is expected to vary with the frequency of interaction and the length of tenure of the supervisor-subordinate relationship.

Hypotheses 23-26: The relationship between supervisor ratings of the dependent variables (perceived affective commitment and perceived flexible role orientation) and subordinate self-ratings of these same variables will be moderated by time spent working together such that it will be stronger with greater frequency of contact and longer relationship tenure.

4. Methodology – Study 1

4.1 Sample and Procedure

The data were collected cross-sectionally in Pakistan. While the initial goal was to have methodological and statistical considerations to ensure sufficient power to detect proposed effects (Cohen, 1988) guide data collection, the challenge of recruiting the participation of organizations open to dyadic sampling along with resource constraints (i.e. time) resulted in the decision to instead adjust sample size expectations to what I was able to gather through convenience sampling. Personal contacts provided the opportunity for data to be collected in 21 branches of a Pakistani multinational bank operating throughout the Middle East where the language of work is English. Surveyed individuals were located in branches within Pakistan, working mostly as bank tellers and cashiers along with their immediate supervisors. Given participants' proficiency in English, and in line with other research conducted in Pakistan (Butt & Choi, 2006; Butt, Choi, & Jaeger, 2005; Raja, Johns, & Bilgrami, 2011; Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004), it was not necessary for questionnaires to be translated. A local research assistant collected the data using paper and pencil questionnaires to facilitate the process of matching supervisor-subordinate responses.

Participation was sought from both employees and their supervisors as matched responses are key to the hypotheses proposed. Of the 285 employees invited to participate, 197 responded, resulting in a 69% response rate. The supervisors of all participating employees then completed the supervisor version of the survey. The 197 participating employees were rated by their 47 supervisors, with each supervisor rating on average 4.2 employees. The number of employees rated by each supervisor ranged

from 1 to 29, 33 of which provided ratings for two or more of their subordinates. With the consent of the organization, a research assistant made multiple visits to deliver surveys to supervisors reporting on more than one subordinate so that he/she would only fill out a few of these at a time. Eighty-one percent of employees and 98% of supervisors are male, and the vast majority (87% of employees and 83% of supervisors) has been with the organization for over one year. The mean age of employees was 29.10 and of supervisors 39.51.

4.2 Measures

Previously identified high correlations among the citizenship motives (e.g. Rioux & Penner, 2001) and the failure to detect significant interaction effects between OCBs and motive attribution in predicting perceived affective commitment (Allen & Rush, 1998) warranted that particular attention be paid to the use of procedural remedies to isolate the motives of interest and prevent common method bias. With the goal of focusing on a given motive at a time, the stem of the citizenship motives scale was revised, with details described below and in Appendix 5. This study also addressed two possible main sources of common method bias identified in Allen and Rush's (1998) study: data collection from single informants and the proximal location of the interaction terms. Measures of predictor and criterion variables were therefore obtained from different sources to help rule out common method bias as an alternative explanation to the relationships identified in this study. Measures necessarily collected from the same source were physically separated in the questionnaire as well as psychologically separated to help prevent common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Podsakoff,

2003). For example, the measures of supervisor-rated OCBs and supervisor-rated citizenship motives were physically distanced in the questionnaire.

All of the measures employed in this study, with the exception of OCB time allocation, and length and frequency of supervisor-subordinate contact, comprised well established and previously validated items. While the English-speaking participating sample did not require that the measurement instrument be translated, in addition to calculating and reporting the internal consistency reliability estimates, CFAs were also conducted and their results briefly described below (for more extensive reporting see Table 1). The revision of measures necessitated in instances of initial poor model fit was guided by rigorous guidelines to increase the external validity of these changes, while reducing the likelihood of capitalizing on chance. In addition, given that none of the measures employed in this sample was originally developed using CFAs, the changes made using this more stringent technique were thought to represent real improvements in the reliability and validity of these measures. All changes to employee self-report and supervisor-report of measures were initially grounded conceptually, rather than strictly following guidelines of statistical tests such as the LM and Wald tests for adding and removing parameters. Additionally, for measures collected only by self-report, original factor structures reported in the literature were consulted before removing items. For those measures obtained from both self- and supervisor-report (for example, employee self-report prosocial values and supervisor-report of prosocial values) the factor structure of the employee sample was first improved, and this new structure was then tested in the supervisor-report, as a second sample test. Finally, all revised measures were compared against the original ones in a second, Canadian sample comprising 88 dyads collected in

Study 2, and in all cases confirmed an improvement in fit (for more details see the description of Study 2). Unless otherwise specified, robust statistics, which have the advantage of automatically downweighing outlying and influential cases without requiring their elimination from the analyses (Bentler & Wu, 2002), are presented.

Citizenship Motives. Citizenship motives were assessed using 20 out of 30 items of Rioux and Penner's (2001) citizenship motives scale comprising 3 dimensions: prosocial values, organizational concern and impression management motives. Items were dropped on the basis of conceptual revisions guided by LM tests. Examples of items retained include "Because I have a genuine interest in my work" (organizational concern), "Because I want to help my co-workers in any way I can" (prosocial values) and "To look better than my co-workers" (impression management). Given that previous research has found these dimensions to correlate (e.g., Rioux & Penner, 2001) I employed procedural controls, by modifying the stem of the measure, to help guide respondents to be mindful of the dominant motive driving the performance of their OCBs when responding to the questionnaire. Specifically, three changes were made to the original stem (see Appendix 5). The original instructions consist of presenting respondents with a definition of OCBs along with examples of these behaviors, followed by a list of possible motives for engaging in OCBs. A modified stem sought to make the instructions as value-free as possible, with the goal of reducing the bias against impression management motives that may result from describing associated behaviors a priori as helpful (i.e. other-oriented) rather than instrumental (i.e. self-oriented). In addition to attempting to make the instructions as value free as possible, the revised stem also sought to acknowledge the intercorrelations among motives by requesting that

respondents indicate which motives drive OCBs “most of the time”. Finally, the examples of OCBs provided in the stem were modified to include both OCBI and OCBO items from the Williams and Anderson (1991) scale used in this study. In addition to individuals’ self-report, a modified version of this measure was used to obtain supervisor evaluations of subordinates’ citizenship motives. Both versions were assessed using a slightly adjusted scale ranging from 1 (Not at all important) to 7 (Extremely important) (the original scale included the same descriptions but ranged from 1-6).

Confirmatory factor analyses explored each of the motives dimensions’ in the same 2-step process previously described for measures collected from both self- and supervisor-reports. Employee self-reports of each of the motives’ dimensions were improved with item deletion. An 8-item prosocial values dimension ($S-B\chi^2(20) = 16.05$, *n.s.*; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00) resulted in a marginally significant improvement in fit over the 10 item measure ($S-B\chi^2(35) = 48.75$, $p < .10$; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .97). This improvement was also observed in the supervisor-report version of prosocial values, with an improvement in fit in the 8-item measure ($S-B\chi^2(20) = 20.61$, *n.s.*; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .01) over the original 10-item version ($S-B\chi^2(35) = 43.35$, *n.s.*; CFI = .92; RMSEA = .04). Similarly, a 7-item organizational concern dimension ($S-B\chi^2(14) = 17.72$, *n.s.*; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .04) resulted in an improvement in fit over the 10 item measure ($S-B\chi^2(35) = 63.26$, $p < .01$; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .07). This improvement was also observed in the supervisor-report version of organizational concern, with an improvement in fit in the 7-item measure ($S-B\chi^2(14) = 27.75$, $p < .05$; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .07) over the original 10-item version ($S-B\chi^2(35) = 92.19$, $p < .001$; CFI = .84; RMSEA = .09). Finally, a 5-item impression management dimension ($S-B\chi^2(5) =$

2.85, *n.s.*; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00) resulted in significant improvement in fit over the 10 item measure ($S-B\chi^2(35) = 74.80, p < .001$; CFI = .89; RMSEA = .08). This improvement was also observed in the supervisor-report version of organizational concern, with an improvement in fit in the 8-item measure ($S-B\chi^2(5) = 3.43, n.s.$; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00) over the original 10-item version ($S-B\chi^2(35) = 91.91, p < .001$; CFI = .82; RMSEA = .09). All three revised dimensions yielded good reliability estimates for both the self- ($\alpha_{\text{prosocial values}} = .88$; $\alpha_{\text{organizational concern}} = .82$; $\alpha_{\text{impression management}} = .77$) and supervisor-reports ($\alpha_{\text{prosocial values}} = .83$; $\alpha_{\text{organizational concern}} = .75$; $\alpha_{\text{impression management}} = .72$).

The dimensionality of the motives scale was also assessed. For the self-report version, a 3-factor model ($S-B\chi^2(150) = 242.17, p < .001$; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .06) yielded a better fit than a 1 factor model ($S-B\chi^2(170) = 427.10, p < .001$; CFI = .81; RMSEA = .09). This was also observed for the supervisor-report, whereby the 3-factor model ($S-B\chi^2(150) = 308.28, p < .001$; CFI = .85; RMSEA = .07) was found to provide a better fit over the 1 factor model ($S-B\chi^2(170) = 506.01, p < .001$; CFI = .67; RMSEA = .10).

Given that this measure is still in its infancy in age as well as in terms of inclusion in published work, a more preliminary evaluation of the number of factors and their composition was also explored. Specifically, theoretically grounded exploratory factor analyses were also employed. These yielded a more parsimonious 2 dimensional measure comprising 14 items clearly distinguishing between selfless and self-serving motives. The selfless motives dimension consists of 8 items from the original prosocial values and organizational concern dimensions, while the self-serving dimension comprises 6 items from the impression management dimension of original motives scale

(see Appendix 6 for a list of the items). The selfless dimension resulted in a well fitting model for both the self- ($S-B\chi^2(20) = 20.88, n.s.; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .02$) and supervisor-report version of the scale ($S-B\chi^2(20) = 24.29, n.s.; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .03$). Similarly, the self-serving dimension resulted in a well fitting model for both the self- ($S-B\chi^2(9) = 4.69, n.s.; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00$) and supervisor-report version of the scale ($S-B\chi^2(9) = 4.96, n.s.; CFI = .1.00; RMSEA = .00$). Both dimensions also resulted in good reliability estimates for both the self- ($\alpha_{\text{selfless}} = .87; \alpha_{\text{self-serving}} = .80$) and supervisor-reports ($\alpha_{\text{selfless}} = .81; \alpha_{\text{self-serving}} = .75$). Finally, the dimensionality of the 2 dimension motives scale was also explored. For the self-report version of the measure, a 2-factor model ($S-B\chi^2(76) = 105.88, p < .05; CFI = .96; RMSEA = .05$) yielded a better fit over the 1 factor model ($S-B\chi^2(77) = 187.76, p < .001; CFI = .86; RMSEA = .09$). This was also observed for the supervisor-report, whereby the 2-factor model ($S-B\chi^2(76) = 110.64, p < .01; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .05$) was found to be a better fit over the 1 factor model ($S-B\chi^2(77) = 215.87, p < .001; CFI = .74; RMSEA = .10$).

A preliminary comparison between the original 3 and newly developed 2 dimensional measures was also undertaken. The 2 dimensional measure ($S-B\chi^2(76) = 105.88, p < .05; CFI = .96; RMSEA = .05$) yielded a better fit than the original 3 dimensional model ($S-B\chi^2(150) = 242.17, p < .001; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .06$) for employees. The 2 dimensional measure ($S-B\chi^2(76) = 110.64, p < .001; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .05$) also provided a better fit over the original 3 dimensional model ($S-B\chi^2(150) = 308.28, p < .001; CFI = .85; RMSEA = .07$) for the supervisor version of the measure.

Equity Sensitivity. Equity sensitivity was originally measured using the 9 highest loading items of Sauley and Bedeian's (2000) 16-item Equity Preference Questionnaire (EPQ). This self-report measure comprising positive and negative items yielded a poor fit: $S-B\chi^2(27) = 112.06, p < .001$; CFI = .79; RMSEA = .13. A measure comprising the 3 highest loading items as reported in 2 previous studies (Sauley & Bedeian, 2000) and the 7th item (see Appendix 1) yielded a considerably better fit and was retained for subsequent tests: $S-B\chi^2(2) = 3.09, n.s.$; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .05. A sample item includes "I am most satisfied at work when I have to do as little as possible" and was assessed using a 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree) self-report Likert scale. The retained 4 item measure yielded a reliability of .73.

Conscientiousness. Conscientiousness was measured using the appropriate subscale of John, Donahue, and Kentle's (1991) Big Five Inventory. This measure consists of nine statements completing the stem "I see myself as someone who..." rated on a 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree) Likert scale. Examples of items include "I see myself as someone who... Is a reliable worker" and "I see myself as someone who... Tends to be lazy". This self-report measure comprising positive and negative items yielded a poor fit: $S-B\chi^2(27) = 92.25, p < .001$; CFI = .76; RMSEA = .11. A second order factor comprising 2 parcels separating the positive and negative items yielded a considerably better fit and was retained for subsequent tests: $S-B\chi^2(24) = 23.98, n.s.$; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00. The reliability estimate for this measure was .76.

Affective Commitment. Affective commitment was measured using the 8-item affective commitment dimension of Allen and Meyer's (1990) commitment scale. It was assessed from both individuals' and supervisors' perspectives, whereby a modified

version of the scale assessed supervisor perceptions of subordinates' affective commitment. Examples of items include "I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own" (original self-report) and "This employee really feels as if this organization's problems are his/her own" (modified version reported by the supervisor). Responses to the items were anchored on a 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree) Likert scale (see Appendix 3). As with the conscientiousness scale, a second order factor comprised of 2 parcels separating the self-report positive and negative items ($S-B\chi^2(6) = 1.90, n.s.; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .01$) yielded a considerably better fit over a 1 factor model ($S-B\chi^2(9) = 25.93, p < .01; CFI = .91; RMSEA = .10$). This pattern was also observed in the supervisor-report of the scale. A second order factor comprising 2 parcels separating the self-report positive and negative items ($S-B\chi^2(6) = 3.06, n.s.; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00$) yielded a considerably better fit over a 1 factor model ($S-B\chi^2(9) = 37.38, p < .001; CFI = .86; RMSEA = .13$). Both subordinate- and supervisor-report yielded good reliability estimates ($\alpha = .78$ for both).

Flexible Role Orientation. Flexible role orientation was assessed using four of Parker's (2007) 9 items. This measure was assessed from the individual's and supervisor's perspective (the latter through a modified version of the scale) on a 1 (To no extent-of no concern to me/him/her) to 5 (Very large extent-most certainly of concern to me/him/her) scale (see Appendix 4 for both versions of the measure). The scale seeks to tap the extent to which individuals perceive key organizational issues such as high costs ("Costs in your area were higher than budget?") and low quality of output ("The quality of output from your area was not as good as it could be?") to be of concern to them. The modified version reported by the supervisor asked supervisors the extent to which they

felt such issues were of concern to the employee being reported on. Because this measure is an important dependent variable in the study, the fit of both the employee- and supervisor-report were assessed simultaneously. Guided by the LM test and conceptual considerations, a more modest improvement in fit was observed between the original 9-item self-report scale ($S-B\chi^2(27) = 62.36, p < .001; CFI = .95; RMSEA = .08$) and the 4-item ($S-B\chi^2(2) = 5.93, p < .10; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .10$), relative to significant improvement of revised 4-item measure reported by supervisors ($S-B\chi^2(2) = 9.86, p < .01; CFI = .95; RMSEA = .14$) over the original 9-item measure ($S-B\chi^2(27) = 254.22, p < .001; CFI = .69; RMSEA = .21$). Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .81 and .75 for self- and supervisor-report respectively.

OCBs. Supervisor evaluations of subordinates' OCBs were measured using 7 of the 14 items of Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCBI-OCBO scale. Recent evidence of high intercorrelations among dimensions in multidimensional measures of OCBs suggesting value in the use of shorter measures distinguishing OCBs solely by the target of these behaviors, informed this decision (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007; LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002). Given that prosocial values and organizational concern reflect motives underlying OCBs directed toward the individual and the organization respectively, a more fine grained investigation between OCBs and citizenship motives was possible. Examples of the 14 OCBI and OCBO items in the Williams and Anderson (1991) measure include, "Goes out of the way to help new employees" (OCBI) and "Conserves and protects organizational property" (OCBO). Items were rated on a 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree) Likert scale. CFAs examining the factor structure of the OCBI and OCBO measures identified a better fit for a more parsimonious

version of the scales as the original 2 dimension of the 7-item OCBI and 7-OCBO scale yielded a very poor fit ($S-B\chi^2(76) = 524.59, p < .001; CFI = .57; RMSEA = .17$). A reconceptualized version of the measure comprising 3 OCBI items and the 4 positive OCBO items was tested. The 1 factor structure of the revised measure ($S-B\chi^2(14) = 77.97, p < .001; CFI = .72; RMSEA = .15$) yielded a better fit over the original 2 factor model ($S-B\chi^2(76) = 524.59, p < .001; CFI = .57; RMSEA = .17$), and two factor structure comprising the revised dimensions a significant further improvement over both ($S-B\chi^2(13) = 17.88, n.s.; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .04$) (see Table 1). The revised dimensions also resulted in good reliability estimates ($\alpha_{OCBO} = .70; \alpha_{OCBI} = .76$). The correlation between the two dimensions is .32 ($p < .01$)

Overall Performance. Supervisor assessments of their subordinates' performance was assessed using 5 items of Wayne and Liden's (1995) 7-item measure, similar to that used by Bolino and colleagues (2006). Items were rated on a scale of 1 to 7 (scale anchors varied for each question, with 7 being most positive; see Appendix 8 for the complete measure). Examples of items include "Rate the overall level of performance that you have observed for this subordinate" and "Overall, to what extent do you feel your subordinate has been effectively fulfilling his or her roles and responsibilities?". A CFA of this measure indicated good model fit ($S-B\chi^2(5) = 5.10, n.s.; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .01$). Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .82.

OCB Time Allocation. Four items were created to measure OCB time with the goal of assessing the extent to which individuals tap their own time or take time away from core work tasks when performing OCBs (see Appendix 9). Examples of items include "How likely are you to delay the performance of core work tasks when you come

across many instances to perform behaviors such as helping your coworkers?” (when using the organizations’ time) and “How likely is the time required for such behaviors to come from your own discretionary time at work (i.e. time spent informally interacting with co-workers, taking a smoking break or resolving personal issues)?” (when using one’s own time). A seven point scale was used to rate these items (1 = Not at all likely to 7 = Extremely likely). The two measures yielded low reliability coefficients ($\alpha_{\text{org. time}} = .43$; $\alpha_{\text{own time}} = .60$).

Reward Recommendations. Reward recommendations were measured using Allen and Rush’s (1998) reward recommendations scale. Comprising five items, this measure assesses the extent to which a supervisor would recommend the subordinate for common organizational rewards such as a salary increase or a promotion. Items were assessed on a scale ranging from 1 (Would definitely not recommend) to 5 (Would recommend with confidence and without reservation). A CFA of this measure indicated good model fit ($S-B\chi^2(5) = 1.49, n.s.$; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00). Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .81.

Length and Frequency of Subordinate-Supervisor Contact. Two items were developed to assess the length of time during which each supervisor-subordinate dyad has been working together as well as the frequency of this interaction. Given that subordinates may be in a better position to provide accurate information (as they are likely to have only one supervisor relationship on which to draw), this measure was assessed from subordinate self-reports. Because supervisors normally deal with a number of subordinates, it is possible that there will be some cross-contamination of these relationships in their recall. The two items used to assess this measure are “How long

have you been working for your current supervisor?" (open-ended item) and "How much time do you spend working in close contact with your supervisor?" (1 = I have almost no contact with my supervisor throughout my workday to 7 = Much of my workday is spent in close contact with my supervisor).

Control Variables. Employee gender, education, tenure with the organization and frequency of contact with the supervisor, and leader member exchange (LMX) were controlled to rule out as much as possible extraneous relationships with the dependent variables of interest. For example, it is possible that gender biases affect supervisor perceptions of a subordinate's commitment toward the organization and flexibility, as these may be considered more feminine orientations. Previous research has provided evidence of a positive relationship between LMX and organizational citizenship behaviors (Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007), as well as performance and commitment (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Controlling for LMX is important as a high quality relationship may provide an alternative explanation to supervisor assessments of individual attitudes such as affective commitment. LMX was assessed from the subordinates' perspective using Graen, Liden and Hoel's (1982) 5-item measure rated on a scale of 1 to 4 (scale anchors varied for each question, with 4 being most positive; see Appendix 11 for the complete measure). Examples of items include "To what extent can you count on your supervisor to "bail you out," at his/her expense, when you really need him/her?" and "How often do you take suggestions regarding your work to your supervisor?". A CFA of this measure indicated good model fit ($S-B\chi^2(5) = 2.39, n.s.$; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00). Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .75.

5. Results – Study 1

5.1 Preliminary Analyses

Bivariate correlations, scale reliabilities and descriptive statistics are presented in Table 2. Mean imputation was used to address missing data in instances when 25% or less of a measures response were missing. The remaining missing data was addressed with use of the pairwise deletion method in the analyses resulting in the sample size varying from 186-197 with (sample sizes are reported in all tables). Preliminary analyses prior to hypothesis testing comprised CFAs assessing the factor structure and dimensionality of all measures as discussed for each measure in the previous section. Based on the dimensionality of each measure, path analyses were conducted comprising parcels whereby latent factors were treated as observed variables for the tests of Hypotheses 2-6.

Similar to McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison and Turban (2007), because supervisors provided assessments of multiple employees, intraclass correlation (ICC1) scores were calculated to test for evidence of rater effects of all variables assessed by supervisors. ICC(1) values never exceeded .03 (see Table 3) providing good support for treating supervisor ratings as independent. Contrary to their use to support aggregation, low or negative ICC(1) values reflect greater within- than between-respondent variance, suggesting that supervisor assessments of subordinates reflect real differences among subordinates as opposed to general rater biases in level of ratings (Bliese, 2000).

5.2 Tests of Hypotheses

Hierarchical regression analyses and path analyses using EQS6 were used to test the hypotheses. As previous research has indicated high intercorrelations among the

citizenship motives (Finkelstein, 2006; Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Rioux & Penner, 2001), in addition to the control variables discussed in the Measures section, I controlled for nonfocal motives in the regression analyses and correlated motives in the path analyses.

All direct effect and moderation tests using regression analyses started with entering the control variables in the model in the first step, followed by the predictor and interaction effects. As suggested by Cohen, Cohen, West and Aiken (2003), in the tests of the moderation hypotheses simple slopes tests were also used to further probe differences between high and low levels of the moderator variables.

Hypotheses 1a-c. The results of the multiple regression analyses testing these hypotheses are presented in Table 4. Two regressions were used to test these hypotheses, one for organization time and own time. First the controls were entered, followed by prosocial values, organizational concern and impression management in the next step. Hypothesis 1a, which proposed a stronger positive relationship between prosocial values and OCB time allocation from individual's own time than from core work time was only marginally supported ($\beta = .23, p < .10$). Hypothesis 1b, which proposed a stronger positive relationship between organizational concern and OCB time allocation from individual's own time than from core work time, was not supported. Finally, Hypothesis 1c, which proposed a stronger positive relationship between impression management and OCB time allocation from core work time ($\beta = .19, p < .05$) than from the individual's own time ($\beta = -.22, p < .01$), was supported.

The relationships proposed in these hypotheses were also assessed using the 2 dimension measure of motives, and stronger effects were observed (see Table 5). In line

with these hypotheses, the expectation that selfless motives would be more strongly and positively related to the use of one's own time ($\beta = .27, p < .01$) as opposed to the organization's time ($\beta = -.26, p < .01$) when performing OCBs was supported. Similarly, the expectation of a stronger positive relationship between self-serving motives and OCB time allocation from core work time ($\beta = .20, p < .05$) than from individual's own time ($\beta = -.22, p < .01$) was also supported.

Hypotheses 2-10. Hypotheses 2-7 predicted differential relationships between self- and supervisor report of citizenship motives and individual traits and attitudes as predictors of self- and supervisor report of these same motives. These hypotheses were tested using path and regression analyses. Tables 6-9 and Figures 3-12 present the results of the analyses conducted to test these hypotheses.

Hypotheses 2-6 were tested using path analyses. A path model was created for each predictor (equity sensitivity, conscientiousness, affective commitment, and flexible role orientation) along with all three self-report and supervisor-report of motives. Hypotheses 2a-c predicted that equity sensitivity would be negatively related to prosocial values and organizational concern and positively related to impression management. These hypotheses were tested using path analysis and were found to be partially supported as there was a significant negative relationship between equity sensitivity and prosocial values ($\gamma = -.17, p < .05$) and organizational concern ($\gamma = -.26, p < .05$), but no significant relationship with impression management ($\gamma = -.05, n.s.$). These same hypotheses were also tested using the 2 dimension measure of motives, producing similar results. Partial support was found as equity sensitivity was significantly negatively

related to selfless motives ($\gamma = -.22, p < .05$), but not significantly related to self-serving motives ($\gamma = -.05, n.s.$).

Hypotheses 3a-c predicted that conscientiousness would be positively related to prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to impression management. This hypothesis was partially supported as conscientiousness was found to be significantly positively related to prosocial values ($\gamma = .52, p < .05$) and organizational concern ($\gamma = .51, p < .01$), and a positive (but contrary to predicted) significant relationship with impression management ($\gamma = .08, p < .01$). While the test of these hypotheses using the 2 dimension measure of motives was also partially supported, the pattern of results was slightly different. As expected, conscientiousness was found to be significantly and positively related to selfless motives ($\gamma = .60, p < .05$), but contrary to expected, also significantly and positively related to self-serving motives ($\gamma = .13, p < .05$).

Hypotheses 4a-c predicted that affective commitment would be positively related to prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to impression management. These hypotheses were partially supported. As expected, affective commitment was found to be significantly positively related to prosocial values ($\gamma = .52, p < .05$) and organizational concern ($\beta = .74, p < .05$), but contrary to predicted, was also found to be significantly positively related to impression management ($\gamma = .19, p < .05$). This same pattern of results was observed with the 2 dimension measure of motives. Affective commitment was found to be significantly positively related to selfless motives ($\gamma = .59, p < .05$) as was expected, but counter to the relationship hypothesized, also significantly positively related to self-serving motives ($\gamma = .22, p < .05$).

Hypotheses 5a-c predicted that flexible role orientation would be positively related to prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to impression management. There was no support for these hypotheses. Flexible role orientation did not emerge as a significant predictor of prosocial values ($\gamma = .10, n.s.$), organizational concern ($\gamma = .08, n.s.$) nor impression management ($\gamma = -.07, n.s.$). Similar results were observed in the relationship between flexible role orientation and selfless ($\gamma = .11, n.s.$) and self-serving motives ($\gamma = -.02, n.s.$).

Hypotheses 6a-c specify a positive relationship between each individually rated citizenship motive and its corresponding supervisor-rated citizenship motive (for example, actual prosocial values is hypothesized as positively related to perceived prosocial values). The results of the two path models used to test these hypotheses are presented in Figures 3-4 and Tables 6-7 for both the 3 and 2 dimension measures of motives. For the 3 dimensional measure of motives, first a model with paths from all self-report motives to all supervisor-report motives ($S-B\chi^2(3) = 42.76, p < .001, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .26$) was compared to a model with paths from only the self-report motives and their corresponding supervisor-report motives ($S-B\chi^2(6) = 6.18, n.s., CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .01$), with the latter demonstrating an improvement in fit. This result was also observed for the 2 dimension measure of motives whereby the model with paths only between self- and supervisor-report corresponding motives yielded a better fit ($S-B\chi^2(2) = 2.48, n.s., CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .04$) over the model with paths from all self-report to all supervisor-report of motives ($S-B\chi^2(1) = 7.60, p < .01, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .18$). The standardized loadings of the paths linking each of the self- and supervisor-report of motives fully supported these hypotheses. As expected, for the 3 dimensional

measure of motives, the relationship between self- and supervisor-report of prosocial values ($\gamma = .67, p < .05$), organizational concern ($\gamma = .62, p < .05$), and impression management ($\gamma = .61, p < .05$) were all positive and significant. These results were also observed for the 2 dimensional measure of motives linking self- and supervisor-report of selfless ($\gamma = .69, p < .05$) and self-serving ($\gamma = .59, p < .05$) motives.

Hypothesis 6d further predicted differences in the strength of the relationship among self- and supervisor-report of motives. Specifically and as expected, a stronger positive relationship was observed between self-report and supervisor-report prosocial values and organizational concern than between self- and supervisor-report impression management. Similar findings were obtained for the 2 dimensional measure of motives.

Hypotheses 7-10 predicted main direct effects between individual traits and attitudes and supervisor-rated citizenship motives whereby supervisor evaluations of subordinates' motives would also be informed by behaviors externalizing personality and attitudes of employees, in addition to those behaviors associated with employees' motives. As this was an exploratory first attempt toward better explaining supervisor attributions of subordinates' motives, three regression equations were used to test these hypotheses for the 3 dimensional measure of motives. For each equation, the control variables were entered in the first step, which included the other two supervisor-rated motives, followed by equity sensitivity, conscientiousness, affective commitment, and flexible role orientation in the second step. As presented in Tables 8 and 9, hypotheses 7a-c which predicted that equity sensitivity would be negatively related to supervisor-rated prosocial values ($\beta = -.03, n.s.$) and organizational concern ($\beta = -.02, n.s.$) and positively related to supervisor-rated impression management ($\beta = .08, n.s.$) were not

supported. These hypotheses were also not supported for the 2 dimensional measure of motives as equity sensitivity was not significantly related to supervisor-report of selfless ($\beta = -.10, n.s.$) or self-serving motives ($\beta = .10, n.s.$).

Hypotheses 8a-c predicted that conscientiousness would be positively related to supervisor-rated prosocial values and supervisor-rated organizational concern and negatively related to supervisor-rated impression management. As presented in Tables 8-9, these hypotheses were partially supported as conscientiousness was significantly related to supervisor-rated prosocial values ($\beta = .16, p < .05$) but not significantly related to supervisor-rated organizational concern ($\beta = -.07, n.s.$) nor impression management ($\beta = -.04, n.s.$). The same pattern emerged for the 2 dimensional measure of motives as for the 3 dimension measure of motives, whereby conscientiousness was significantly related to supervisor-rated selfless motives ($\beta = .18, p < .05$) but not significantly related to supervisor-rated self-serving motives ($\beta = -.07, n.s.$).

Hypotheses 9a-c predicted that affective commitment would be positively related to supervisor-rated prosocial values and supervisor-rated organizational concern and negatively related to supervisor-rated impression management. As presented in Tables 8 and 9, these hypotheses were partially supported. Specifically, affective commitment emerged as a significant predictor of supervisor-rated organizational concern ($\beta = .19, p < .01$), but was not significantly related to supervisor-rated prosocial values ($\beta = -.01, n.s.$) or impression management ($\beta = -.07, n.s.$). The same pattern emerged for the 2 dimensional measure of motives as for the 3 dimension measure of motives, whereby affective commitment was significantly related to supervisor-rated selfless motives ($\beta =$

.18, $p < .05$) but not significantly related to supervisor-rated self-serving motives ($\beta = -.06$, *n.s.*).

Hypotheses 10a-c predicted that flexible role orientation would be positively related to supervisor-rated prosocial values and supervisor-rated organizational concern and negatively related to supervisor-rated impression management. As presented in Tables 8-9, flexible role orientation emerged as a marginally significant predictor of supervisor-rated prosocial values ($\beta = .10$, $p < .10$), but was not significantly related to supervisor-rated organizational concern ($\beta = -.01$, *n.s.*) or impression management ($\beta = -.08$, *n.s.*). These results were slightly stronger for the 2 dimensional measure of motives, whereby flexible role orientation was significantly related to supervisor-rated selfless motives ($\beta = .16$, $p < .05$) but not significantly related to supervisor-rated self-serving motives ($\beta = -.06$, *n.s.*).

Hypotheses 11-13. These hypotheses specified main effects between OCB and perceived attitudes and outcomes of the good soldier (i.e., supervisor-rated flexible role orientation, supervisor-rated affective commitment and overall performance evaluations). All three hypotheses examined the relationship between OCB as OCBI and OCBO and each of the criterion variables (see Table 10). For each of the regression equations for each of the dependent variables, first the control variables were entered followed by OCBI and OCBO in the next step. Hypothesis 11 predicting supervisor-rated affective commitment was supported only when the measure of OCB was OCBO ($\beta = .25$, $p < .01$) but not when it was OCBI ($\beta = .06$, *n.s.*). Similarly, hypothesis 12 was partially supported as a positive relationship with supervisor-rated flexible role orientation was observed only when the OCB was directed toward individuals ($\beta = .37$, $p < .01$) but not

when directed toward the organization ($\beta = -.32, p < .01$). Finally, partial support was also found for hypothesis 13 whereby OCBO was strongly and positively related to performance ($\beta = .58, p < .01$) while OCBI emerged as an important, albeit negative, predictor of performance ($\beta = -.25, p < .01$).

Hypotheses 14-19. These hypotheses specify interactions in the relationships between OCBs and the dependent variables. Hypotheses 14-16 posit that supervisor-reported citizenship motives moderate the relationship between OCBs and the dependent variables. Hypotheses 17-19 consider these same interactions but with employee self-report of citizenship motives as the moderators. With the goal of economizing degrees of freedom and reducing effects of IVs competing for variance because of sample size limitations, individual regression equations were used to test the interaction effects, after the controls, OCBs and motives were entered into each equation. All effects were tested using both the original 3 and the newly identified 2 dimension measure of motives. The results of these hypotheses are presented in Tables 11-18.

Hypothesis 14 predicted that the positive relationship between OCBs and supervisor-rated affective commitment would be moderated by supervisor-rated motives such that it would be stronger when the supervisor perceived the OCB to be motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern motives than when motivated by impression management. This hypothesis was not supported for OCBO nor for OCBI (see Tables 11-12). Similarly, this hypothesis was also not supported when the moderation effect was tested using the selfless and self-serving motive dimensions (see Tables 13-14).

Hypothesis 15 predicted that the positive relationship between OCBs and supervisor-rated flexible role orientation would be moderated by supervisor-rated

motives such that it would be stronger when the supervisor perceived the OCB to be motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern motives than when motivated by impression management. This hypothesis was partially supported for OCBI. As expected, the relationship between OCBI and supervisor-rated flexible role orientation was positive and stronger when the OCBI was rated by the supervisor as being performed for high prosocial values ($\beta = .26, p < .01$) and for high organizational concern motives ($\beta = .19, p < .01$) as depicted in Table 12 and Figures 13-14. Impression management motives had no effect on this relationship. This relationship was also explored using the 2 motives dimensions of selfless and self-serving motives. Table 14 shows the significant moderating effect of supervisor-rated selfless motives on the relationship between OCBI and supervisor-rated flexible role orientation ($\beta = .28, p < .01$), whereby the relationship between these variables was positive and significant only when the OCBI is motivated by high selfless motives (see Figure 15).

Finally, Hypothesis 16 predicted that the relationship between OCB and performance would be positive and stronger when motivated by high perceived prosocial values and high perceived organizational concern and low perceived impression management. This hypothesis was partially supported. As shown in Table 11, of the three dimensions of motives, only supervisor-rated organizational concern was found to moderate the OCBO-performance relationship ($\beta = .14, p < .05$), while a simple slopes test revealed that this relationship is only significant when the OCBO is motivated by high scores on this motive (see Figure 16). This hypothesis was not supported when the OCB was directed at individuals (i.e. OCBI). Supervisor-rated organizational concern had no effect on the OCBI-performance relationship, and while a significant interaction

was found for supervisor-rated prosocial values ($\beta = -.22, p < .01$) and supervisor-rated impression management ($\beta = .16, p < .05$), the direction of both these effects was opposite to predicted (see Table 12 and Figures 17-18). As depicted in Tables 13-14 and Figures 19-20, tests of this hypothesis using the supervisor-rated selfless and self-serving dimensions of motives revealed no effect on the OCBO-performance relationship, and a significant – albeit contrary to predicted – effect for the OCBI-performance relationship ($\beta = -.26, p < .01$ and $\beta = .16, p < .05$ respectively).

Hypotheses 17-19 tested the same relationships but using employee self-report of motives as moderators of the relationship between OCBs and the criterion variables. Hypothesis 17 was not supported whether the OCB was directed toward the individual or the organization for the both the 3 and 2 dimension measures of motives on supervisor-rated affective commitment (see Tables 15-18). Hypothesis 18 was also not supported. While a marginally significant effect was found for the interaction of prosocial values ($\beta = -.13, p < .10$) and selfless motives ($\beta = -.12, p < .10$) on the OCBO and supervisor-rated flexible role orientation relationship, it was contrary to the hypothesized direction (see Table 15 and 17, and Figures 21-22).

Finally, the moderation effects of motives on the OCB-performance relationship proposed in Hypothesis 19 received only partial support. Table 16 shows that when the OCB is directed at the organization, the interaction with prosocial values ($\beta = .15, p < .05$) and organizational concern ($\beta = .16, p < .01$) is significant, but no significant effect is observed for impression management. Simple slopes tests reveal that high values of prosocial values or organization concern to be more strongly related to performance than low values (see Figures 23-24). Similarly, a significant interaction effect was observed

for selfless motives ($\beta = .16, p < .05$) but not for self-serving motives (see Table 17 and Figure 25). This hypothesis was not supported for OCBs directed at individuals. As depicted in Tables 16 and 18 and Figures 26-27, while there was a significant interaction between prosocial values and OCBI (for the 3 dimensions of motives) and between selfless motives and OCBI (for the 2 dimensions of motives) these were both contrary to the direction predicted ($\beta = -.21, p < .01$ and $\beta = -.22, p < .01$, respectively).

Hypotheses 20a-c. These hypotheses specify that supervisor-rated affective commitment, flexible role orientation and performance will be positively related to supervisor reward recommendations. Control variables were entered into the model in the first step, followed by supervisor-rated affective commitment, flexible role orientation and performance. This hypothesis was partially supported. As depicted in Table 19, both supervisor-rated affective commitment ($\beta = .21, p < .01$) and performance ($\beta = .45, p < .01$) were positively related to reward recommendations as expected. However, counter to what was predicted, a negative significant relationship between supervisor-rated flexible role orientation and performance emerged ($\beta = -.13, p < .05$).

Hypotheses 21-26. These hypotheses specify that the tenure of the relationship and the frequency of interaction between subordinates and supervisors moderate the relationship between employees' affective commitment and flexible role orientation and supervisors' reporting of these same attitudes. Each dependent variable (i.e. supervisor-report of affective commitment and flexible role orientation) was regressed on the control variable in the first step, and on the corresponding employee-report of the attitude in the second step for the direct effect tests, and on the interaction term in a third step for the moderation tests. Hypotheses 21 and 22 specifying the main effect relationship between

self- and supervisor report of affective commitment ($\beta = .47, p < .01$) and flexible role orientation ($\beta = .27, p < .01$) were both supported (see Tables 20 and 21). Of the proposed moderating effects specified in hypotheses 23-26, only the positive interaction between affective commitment and frequency of contact with the supervisor ($\beta = .15, p < .01$) was significant (see Table 28). Also, as shown in Figure 28, the relationship between self- and supervisor-ratings of affective commitment is positive when frequency of contact between the two is high, and nil when it is low. As a result, of the remaining 4 hypotheses, only Hypothesis 24 was supported.

6. Discussion – Study 1

While the importance of the role of motives underlying OCBs was proposed over a decade ago (Bolino, 1999) the existing research in this area is minor in comparison to more mainstream studies focusing on antecedents and consequences of OCBs. Study 1 represents a first attempt to address questions in this emerging and exciting area of OCB research.

The first set of hypotheses explored sought to contribute to the literature on motives by better understanding their relationship to other variables. The goal of Hypotheses 1a-c was to determine whether individuals driven by different motives make use of their time differently when performing OCBs. Firstly, it was expected that individuals driven by prosocial values and organizational concern would be most likely to make use of their own time, rather than the organization's time when performing OCBs. Secondly, it was expected that individuals driven by self-serving motives would make use of the organization's time when performing OCBs, both because these individuals would be most likely to make judicious use of their own time, as well as that it is during

the organization's time (rather than after hours, for example) that these OCBs would most likely be noticed. Before further elaborating on the results, it is important to keep in mind the low alpha coefficients of the time allocation measures, and therefore take these findings as preliminary indications of these relationships. With this in mind, these hypotheses were partially supported using the 3 dimensional measure of motives. Of the more altruistic motives, only prosocial values was significantly related to time allocation, and more specifically and as expected, to the use of one's own time when performing OCBs. Impression management on the other hand, behaved as expected, being positively and significantly related to using the organization's time when performing OCBs, and significantly negatively related to using one's own time. When the 2 dimensional measure of motives was used, this hypothesis was fully supported. As previously mentioned, given the low reliability of the time allocation measure, a replication of this test in a different context will provide important information in the validity of these findings.

A better understanding of motives was also sought by identifying dispositional and attitudinal antecedents of the different motives. Whether using the 3- or 2 dimensional measure of motives, some important differential relationships emerged as predicted. Disposition was found to be a significant predictor of prosocial values and organizational concern (using the 3 dimension measure) or selfless motives (using the 2 dimension measure), as individuals driven by these motives tend to score low on equity sensitivity and high on conscientiousness. As expected, this indicates that individuals driven by the more selfless motives are more likely to perform OCBs with a view to truly contributing to the organization, rather than with a focus on "what's in it for me". These

dispositional variables did not relate to impression management (using the 3 dimension measure) or to self-serving motives (using the 2 dimensional measure) in the predicted direction, suggesting that it is not low conscientiousness or high equity sensitivity that lead individuals to perform OCBs more instrumentally. This is supported by the fact that conscientiousness was found to be positively related to self-serving motives, suggesting that the relationship between conscientiousness and motives is not as simple as initially expected but instead may require finer grained theorizing on the target of the conscientiousness. The hypothesis was originally conceived with the organization as the target of conscientiousness, such that as supported by the results, is positively related to prosocial values and organizational concern. However, conscientious individuals may also be focused on advancing their own careers within the organization, and in such instances also perform OCBs instrumentally toward that end.

Of the attitudinal antecedents of motives, only affective commitment emerged as a significant predictor. As with conscientiousness, only the relationship with prosocial values and organizational concern, and the selfless dimension, was in the expected direction. Contrary to prediction, the relationship between the affective commitment and impression management or self-serving motives was positive, rather than negative. Similar to the findings for conscientiousness, affective commitment to the organization does not seem to preclude the activation of self-serving motives, but instead, inspires it. It is possible that individuals with high affective commitment to the organization are more strongly motivated to make a career there, and therefore driven to instrumentally perform OCBs toward this end. One important practical implication of this is that by removing ambiguity in advancement and promotion decisions, organizations clarify to

valued affectively committed employees what they must do to remain in the organization, removing any incentive for OCBs to be performed instrumentally.

The second set of hypotheses focused on understanding how supervisors make attributions of employee motives, and how precisely these attributions relate to subordinates' own attributions. As expected, supervisors make accurate attributions of their subordinates' motives, whether using the more fine grained 3 dimensional measure or the 2 dimensional measure of motives. As these data were collected in a bank where supervisor and subordinates work relatively closely together (or at least in view of each other) it may have served as the ideal environment to test these hypotheses. Also as predicted, it was found that supervisor attributions were least accurate for impression management or self-serving motives. This is consistent with the rationale that because OCBs driven by these motives are performed instrumentally while seeking to appear motivated to help the organization or its members, supervisors' attributions of subordinates' motives for performing OCBs may be informed by their appearance rather than subordinates' real motivation.

In exploring how supervisors make attributions of subordinates' motives it was also considered that these might be informed by behaviors externalizing dispositional and attitudinal characteristics of subordinates in addition to those behaviors externalizing their motives. While only a few hypothesized effects emerged as significant, these contribute toward a better understanding of cues informing supervisor attributions of subordinates' motives. The fact that of the three motives only supervisor-rated prosocial values was significantly related to subordinate conscientiousness is not surprising when we consider that the expression of this trait tends to be directed – directly or indirectly -

toward other individuals. For example, actions defining a conscientious individual – such as being punctual for meetings and striving to adhere to group deadlines – are visible to, and appreciated, by supervisors and coworkers. Similarly, that only supervisor-rated organizational concern was significantly and positively related to affective commitment is in line with the organization being the target of this attitude. The fact that stronger and more significant effects were observed in the relationship between these predictors and the 2 dimensional measure of motives (i.e. between conscientiousness, affective commitment and flexible role orientation and supervisor-rated selfless motives) supports the need for further construct validation research to develop a more robust measure of motives. Also, the failure to identify significant predictors of both the original impression management and the more parsimonious version of self-serving motives suggests the need for further consideration of the role of social desirability of this measure as well as the identification of correlates that may attenuate this effect.

The third set of hypotheses sought to more directly address the broader question asked in this thesis, namely, “Do motives matter?”. The dependent variables in these hypotheses comprised two attitudes and an overall assessment of performance evaluated from the supervisors’ perspective. The two supervisor-evaluated subordinate attitudes sought to capture evaluations of the good soldier, or good Samaritan, as individuals performing OCBs are often described in the literature. Supervisor-rated affective commitment sought to capture the extent to which supervisors evaluate a subordinate as emotionally attached and involved in the organization. Supervisor-rated flexible role orientation sought to capture the extent to which supervisors view subordinates as good soldiers, willing to go the extra mile in their beliefs of the types and breath of tasks they

believe their subordinates feel responsible for. Main effect tests of the relationship between OCBs and these dependent variables were partially supported and also produced unexpected results. Only the performance of OCBOs influenced supervisor evaluations of their subordinates' affective commitment. Both types of OCBs were related to supervisor evaluations of flexible role orientation and performance, but with unexpected results. Specifically, only OCBI led supervisors to rate employees as high on flexible role orientation, while the performance of OCBOs led to the opposite evaluation. In other words, when individuals performed OCBs directed at other organizational members, their supervisors saw them as willing and going the extra mile. However, the performance of OCBOs led to negative evaluations of these behaviors. The main effect results for performance were also not entirely in line with what was predicted. While the performance of OCBOs was related to positive supervisor evaluations of subordinates' performance, the opposite was the case when the OCB was directed toward other organizational members. While not in the expected direction, this finding is not surprising if we consider the nature of OCBI and recent discussion in the literature (eg. Bergeron, 2007) of the detriments to one's own performance from performing too many OCBs.

The contingencies affecting the main effect relationships between the performance of OCBs and supervisor evaluations of subordinates' attitudes and performance were then explored. The moderating role of motives was tested using both subordinate and supervisor report of motives. Both sources allow for additional conclusions to be drawn, such as supervisors' confusion about subordinates' actual

motives when only subordinates' self-report of motives result in significant interaction effects.

From the relationships examined, it seems that motives have a more significant role to play in supervisor evaluations of subordinates' when these evaluations have more practical behavioral outcomes attached. In other words, I noted that a broad comparison of the interaction effects of motives on the relationship between the performance of OCBs and supervisor evaluations of subordinates' attitudes (i.e. supervisor-rated affective commitment and flexible role orientation) and supervisor evaluations of subordinates' performance resulted in a more significant effect on the latter. In other words, the extent to which supervisors view their subordinates as involved and willing to go the extra mile for the organization (i.e. supervisor-rated affective commitment and supervisor-rated flexible role orientation) seems to be less affected by the motives driving subordinates' OCBs than are supervisors' evaluations of subordinates' contribution to the organization (i.e. supervisor-rated performance). A test of moderation of motives in the relationship between OCBs and supervisor evaluations of subordinates' affective commitment did not result in any significant interactions. Of the predicted interaction of motives in the relationship between OCBs and supervisor evaluations of subordinates' flexible role orientation, a significant effect was observed only when the OCB was directed at other organizational members and perceived by the supervisor as being driven by more altruistic motives (see Figures 13, 14 and 15). Interestingly, this same relationship was not observed when assessed using subordinates' own report of motives (see Tables 12, 14, 16, and 18). Contrary to the direction predicted (see Figures 21-22), subordinates' evaluations of their own motives were found to moderate the relationship

between OCBs directed toward the organization and supervisor evaluations of their motives. In fact, the relationship between OCBO and supervisor evaluation of flexible role orientation was only significant when moderated by high prosocial values, albeit opposite to the predicted direction. Given that these effects were only marginally significant (see Tables 15 and 17), a possible rationale for these results will be offered after observing the results of Study 2.

Finally, the moderating effects of motives were also tested in the relationship between OCBs and individual performance. Some of the hypotheses were confirmed when the OCBs were directed toward the organization. Also, these relationships were considered using subordinates' report of their own motives. Specifically, the relationship between OCBO and performance was only significant when motivated by high prosocial values (see Figure 23), stronger when motivated by high organizational concern (see Figure 24) and, for the 2 dimensional measure of motives only significant when moderated by high selfless motives (see Figure 25). In line with these effects, it was only when supervisors perceived OCBOs as motivated by high organizational concern that their relationship to performance was significant and positive (see Figure 16). While the failure to establish significant moderating effects of impression management on these relationships maintains the story as only half told, these findings do make an important contribution to the OCB literature, by confirming Organ's original (albeit not-empirically assessed) altruistic characterization of individuals performing OCBs. Specifically, these findings constitute evidence that all OCBs are not equal, but in fact, the good soldier is he/she who is driven by a real desire to help the organization.

Unexpected findings also emerged in the tests of the moderating effect of motives on the OCB-performance relationship when these behaviors were directed at organizational members. Specifically, in line with the negative relationship between OCBI and performance, whether self- or supervisor-report of motives, it seems that performing OCBI for altruistic reasons detracts from one's performance (see Figures 17, 18, 19, 20, 26 and 27). A scan of the items operationalizing the measure (see Appendix 7) suggests that the focus on helping organizational members may be the most indirect means of helping the organization (relative to OCBOs), or even detract from it. For example, "helps others who have been absent" can benefit the organization by getting an otherwise highly productive coworker who has faced a family health challenge to get up to speed again. However, and in line with the findings in this study, this same helping act can result in a lower or negative contribution to the organization and to one's own overall performance ratings when the coworker's absence is the result of loafing or a form of counterproductive work behavior. Investing one's time, especially if prosocially motivated and losing sight of one's own work obligations, into helping coworkers is therefore a more indirect – if at all – means of contributing to the organization.

The next set of hypotheses sought to further rule out the role of biases in the moderating hypotheses. The goal was to establish a relationship between the previously tested dependent variables (i.e. supervisor-rated affective commitment, flexible role orientation and performance) and reward recommendations. As observed in Table 19, relative to supervisor-rated affective commitment and flexible role orientation, supervisor-rated subordinate performance emerged as the strongest predictor of reward

recommendations, suggesting that subordinate motives have the greatest impact on actual outcomes to the organization.

Finally, the last set of hypotheses sought to determine the degree of correspondence between subordinate-report of their own attitudes and supervisor-report of these same attitudes. Since the latter comprised key dependent variables in the moderation hypotheses, these tests also help rule out supervisory biases in play in the results of these hypotheses. As depicted in Tables 20 and 21, there is a positive and significant relationship between self- and supervisor-report of affective commitment and flexible role orientation. To better understand factors that may affect the process by which supervisors make assessments of their subordinates' attitudes, the moderating role of the tenure of their relationship and the frequency of daily interaction was considered. As depicted in Tables 22-25, the frequency of interaction between subordinate and supervisor emerged as a significant moderator only in the relationship between self- and supervisor-report of affective commitment, whereby the relationship was only significant in the presence of high frequency of contact (see Figure 28).

With the goal of replicating the relationships that were supported, as well as the findings that emerged contrary to those hypothesized, a replication of the tests of these hypotheses employing a Canadian sample was undertaken in Study 2.

7. Methodology – Study 2

7.1 Sample and Procedure

Given that culture may be a factor in the results presented in Study 1, the same analyses were conducted on a smaller previously collected Canadian sample. The sample for Study 2 consists of employees and their immediate supervisors employed in an

international electronics company headquartered in Quebec, Canada. The data were collected through online questionnaires distributed to the 2,057 individuals employed throughout Canada. The questionnaires were provided in English, and were identical to those of Study 1. Of the employees who were sent the survey, 208 responded (10.1% response rate). Questionnaires were then sent to the immediate supervisors of these employees, and of the 208 employee surveys, matches were obtained for only 88 of them (42.3% dyadic data). These 88 participating employees were rated by 74 supervisors, whereby each supervisor rated an average of 1.19 employees. The number of employees rated by each supervisor ranged from 1 to 3, 10 of which provided ratings for two or three of their subordinates. While initial data collection efforts sought to concentrate on specific departments within the organization, mass online distribution by the HR department resulted in responses from individuals employed in diverse levels (i.e. administrative to managerial), functions (e.g. marketing, finance, and sales) and locations (i.e. throughout Canada). The majority of participating employees were female (63.6%), while the supervisor sample was more representative of both genders (56.3% male, and 43.7% female). The mean age of employees was 36.76 and of supervisors 41.02 and the vast majority (86% of employees and 97.6% of supervisors) had been with the organization for over one year.

7.2 Measures

With the exception of conscientiousness, flexible role orientation, OCBI and OCBO, all the factor structures of the measures in Study 2 were identical to Study 1. In order to avoid unnecessary duplication of information, the discussion of the measures below will be limited to the internal consistency reliability, changes in fit from the

original and revised CFA models, and the above mentioned difference in the measures of flexible role orientation, OCBI and OCBO. Finally, and as mentioned in Study 1, with few exceptions, all revisions to the measures made were also confirmed in Study 2, whereby revised CFA models resulted in a better fit from the original measure in the Canadian sample. Table 26 provides further details on the improvement in fit between the original and revised measures.

Citizenship Motives. As in the Pakistan sample, citizenship motives were assessed using 20 of Rioux and Penner's (2001) 30 item citizenship motives scale comprising 3 dimensions: prosocial values, organizational concern and impression management motives. With the exception of self-report prosocial values and similar to the Pakistan sample, the revised factor structure of each of the dimensions assessed by both self- and supervisor-reports resulted in an improvement over the original measures for the Canadian sample.

While the 8-item self-report prosocial values dimension ($S-B\chi^2(20) = 25.69, n.s.; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .06$) did not result in a significant improvement in fit over the 10 item measure ($S-B\chi^2(35) = 36.04, n.s.; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .02$), an improvement was observed in the supervisor-report version of prosocial values, with an improvement in fit in the 8-item measure ($S-B\chi^2(20) = 35.34, p < .05; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .09$) over the original 10-item version ($S-B\chi^2(35) = 60.36, p < .01; CFI = .92; RMSEA = .09$). Despite the lack of improvement for the self-report version of the scale, given the improvement for the supervisor-report version of the measure along with the results for the Pakistani sample (an improvement in fit for both self- and supervisor reports was observed), the 8-

item version of the prosocial values dimension was retained to test the hypotheses in the Canadian sample.

Similar to the Pakistan sample, a 7-item organizational concern dimension (S-B χ^2 (14) = 20.45, *n.s.*; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .07) resulted in an improvement in fit over the 10 item measure (S-B χ^2 (35) = 76.36, $p < .001$; CFI = .89; RMSEA = .12). This improvement was also observed in the supervisor-report version of organizational concern, with a significant improvement in fit in the 7-item measure (S-B χ^2 (14) = 19.26, *n.s.*; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .07) over the original 10-item version (S-B χ^2 (35) = 59.30, $p < .01$; CFI = .92; RMSEA = .09). Finally, a 5-item impression management dimension (S-B χ^2 (5) = 13.63, $p < .05$; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .14) resulted in significant improvement in fit over the 10 item measure (S-B χ^2 (35) = 57.95, $p < .01$; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .09). This improvement was also observed in the supervisor-report version of organizational concern, with an improvement in fit in the 8-item measure (S-B χ^2 (5) = .88, *n.s.*; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00) over the original 10-item version (S-B χ^2 (35) = 57.95, $p < .001$; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .09). All three revised dimensions yielded good reliability estimates for both the self- ($\alpha_{\text{prosocial values}} = .91$; $\alpha_{\text{organizational concern}} = .91$; $\alpha_{\text{impression management}} = .92$) and supervisor-reports ($\alpha_{\text{prosocial values}} = .90$; $\alpha_{\text{organizational concern}} = .92$; $\alpha_{\text{impression management}} = .89$).

As with the Pakistan sample, the dimensionality of the motives scale was also assessed. For the self-report version, a 3-factor model (S-B χ^2 (150) = 220.72, $p < .001$; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .07) yielded a better fit than a 1 factor model (S-B χ^2 (170) = 596.60, $p < .001$; CFI = .57; RMSEA = .17). This was also observed for the supervisor-report, whereby the 3-factor model (S-B χ^2 (150) = 192.25, $p < .05$; CFI = .94; RMSEA =

.06) was found to be a significantly better fit than a 1 factor model ($S-B\chi^2(170) = 499.56$, $p < .001$; CFI = .55; RMSEA = .15).

Finally, the 2 dimensional version comprising selfless and self-serving motives was also assessed. In contrast to the Pakistan sample, the selfless dimension resulted in a barely acceptable fit for the self- ($S-B\chi^2(20) = 45.55$, $p < .001$; CFI = .87; RMSEA = .12) and supervisor-report version of the scale ($S-B\chi^2(20) = 49.62$, $p < .001$; CFI = .85; RMSEA = .13). The fit was better for the self- ($S-B\chi^2(9) = 24.66$, $p < .01$; CFI = .95; RMSEA = .14) and supervisor-report measure ($S-B\chi^2(9) = 3.74$, *n.s.*; CFI = .1.00; RMSEA = .00) of the self-serving motives dimension. Both dimensions also resulted in good reliability estimates for both the self- ($\alpha_{\text{selfless}} = .89$; $\alpha_{\text{self-serving}} = .92$) and supervisor-reports ($\alpha_{\text{selfless}} = .88$; $\alpha_{\text{self-serving}} = .90$).

Finally, the dimensionality of the 2 dimensional motives scale was also explored. For the self-report version of the measure, a 2-factor model ($S-B\chi^2(76) = 119.15$, $p < .01$; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .08) yielded a better fit than a 1 factor model ($S-B\chi^2(77) = 432.24$, $p < .001$; CFI = .44; RMSEA = .23). This was also observed for the supervisor-report, whereby the 2-factor model ($S-B\chi^2(76) = 124.40$, $p < .001$; CFI = .89; RMSEA = .09) was found to be a better fit over the 1 factor model ($S-B\chi^2(77) = 306.34$, $p < .001$; CFI = .49; RMSEA = .19).

As with Sample 1, a preliminary comparison between the original 3- and newly developed 2 dimensional measures was also undertaken. The 2 dimensional measure ($S-B\chi^2(76) = 119.15$, $p < .05$; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .08) does not provide a significant improvement in fit over the original 3 dimensional model ($S-B\chi^2(150) = 220.72$, $p < .001$; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .07) for employees. Similarly, the 2 dimensional measure (S-

$B\chi^2(76) = 124.40, p < .001$; CFI = .89; RMSEA = .09) does not yield a better fit ($S-B\chi^2(150) = 192.25, p < .05$; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .06) for the supervisor version of the measure in the Canadian sample.

Equity Sensitivity. Unlike in the Pakistan sample, the 9 highest loading items of Sauley and Bedeian's (2000) 16-item Equity Preference Questionnaire (EPQ) yielded a good model fit: $S-B\chi^2(27) = 31.08, n.s.$; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .04. While the revised 4-item measure used in the Pakistan sample also yielded a good fit, it was not significantly better than the original 9 items ($S-B\chi^2(2) = .69, n.s.$; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00). While not significantly better, to maintain greater consistency across the two studies, the shorter 4-item measure was used. The internal consistency reliability for this sample was .80.

Conscientiousness. Given the very slight improvement in fit of a second order factor dividing the positive and negative items, a single parcel combining all 9 items of Donahue, and Kentle's (1991) was used ($S-B\chi^2(27) = 27.96, n.s.$; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .02). The reliability estimate for this measure was .75.

Affective Commitment. As in the Pakistani sample, a second order factor comprises 2 parcels separating the self-report positive and negative items ($S-B\chi^2(6) = 8.93, n.s.$; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .08) yielded an improvement in fit over a 1 factor model ($S-B\chi^2(9) = 16.36, p < .10$; CFI = .95; RMSEA = .10). This pattern was also observed in the supervisor-report of the scale. A second order factor comprised of 2 parcels separating the self-report positive and negative items ($S-B\chi^2(6) = 3.35, n.s.$; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00) also an improvement in fit over a 1 factor model ($S-B\chi^2(9) = 9.76, n.s.$; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .03). Both subordinate- and supervisor-report yielded good reliability estimates ($\alpha_{\text{subordinate}} = .88$; $\alpha_{\text{supervisor}} = .77$).

Flexible Role Orientation. Unlike the Pakistan sample, only 7 of Parker's (2007) 9 items were included in the questionnaire distributed to the Canadian sample, as the organizational contacts approving participation in the research did not feel it necessary to include the 2 items on budgeting ("3 - Costs in your area are higher than budget?" and "5 - Stores and supplies in your area are higher than budget?"). Given that the absence of item 3 would make it impossible to replicate the factor structure used in the Pakistan sample, as well as that the subordinate sample ($S-B\chi^2(14) = 25.92, p < .05; CFI = .95; RMSEA = .10$) yielded an acceptable model fit and good reliability estimates for both samples ($\alpha_{\text{subordinate}} = .88; \alpha_{\text{supervisor}} = .89$), a 7-item measure was used to test the hypotheses in this sample. While the fit of the supervisor CFA was not as adequate ($S-B\chi^2(14) = 40.94, p < .001; CFI = .90; RMSEA = .15$), given that it comprises a modified version of the scale, this result did not constitute sufficient ground to modify the original scale.

OCBs. Unlike the Pakistan sample, supervisor evaluations of subordinates' OCBs were measured using all of the original 14 items of Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCBI-OCBO scale. A comparison made between the original 14-item 2 dimensional measure and the 7-item 2 dimensional measure used in the Pakistan sample provided greater support for using the former. The original 14-item 2 dimensional measure yielded a significantly better fit ($S-B\chi^2(76) = 77.81, n.s.; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .02$) over both a unidimensional revised 7-item measure ($S-B\chi^2(14) = 18.18, n.s.; CFI = .92; RMSEA = .06$) and a 2 dimensional revised 7-item measure ($S-B\chi^2(13) = 7.82, n.s.; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00$). Reliability estimates also supported use of the original

measure ($\alpha_{\text{OCBO-original}} = .74$; $\alpha_{\text{OCBI-original}} = .76$) over the revised dimensions used in the Pakistan sample ($\alpha_{\text{OCBO-Pakistan revised}} = .62$; $\alpha_{\text{OCBI-Pakistan-revised}} = .70$).

Overall Performance. As in the Pakistan sample, supervisor assessments of their subordinates' performance was assessed using 5 items of Wayne and Liden's (1995) 7-item measure similar to that used by Bolino and colleagues (2006). While a CFA of this measure indicated barely adequate model fit ($S-B\chi^2(5) = 12.22, p < .05$; CFI = .88; RMSEA = .13), no attempts were made to improve on fit to maintain consistency with the Pakistan sample and to avoid capitalizing on chance. Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .87.

OCB Time Allocation. The same four items created in study 1 to assess the extent to which individuals tap into their own time or take time away from core work tasks when performing OCBs were used in study 2. As with the Pakistan sample, the two measures yielded low reliability coefficients ($\alpha_{\text{org. time}} = .30$; $\alpha_{\text{own time}} = .67$). Given the very low reliability scores for organization time, hypotheses including this measure were also tested using each of the single items individually. However, given that little difference was observed in the results, those of the composite measure are reported in the next section.

Reward Recommendations. As in the Pakistan sample, reward recommendations were measured using Allen and Rush's (1998) 5-item reward recommendations scale. A CFA of this measure indicated good model fit ($S-B\chi^2(5) = 7.09, n.s.$; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .07). Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .86.

Length and Frequency of Subordinate-Supervisor Contact. The same two items developed in study 1 to assess the length of time during which each supervisor-

subordinate dyad has been working together as well as the frequency of this interaction were included in study 2.

Control Variables. Employee gender, education, tenure with the organization and frequency of contact with the supervisor were also controlled in study 2. A CFA of LMX indicated good model fit ($S-B\chi^2(5) = 7.41, n.s.$; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .07). Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .76.

8. Results – Study 2

8.1 Preliminary Analyses

Bivariate correlations, scale reliabilities and descriptive statistics are presented in Table 27. As in study 1, mean imputation (when 25% or less of a responses in a measure were missing) and pairwise deletions were used to address missing data, resulting in sample varying from 86-88. Also, based on the dimensionality of each measure previously discussed, path analyses were conducted comprising parcels whereby latent factors were treated as observed variables for the tests of Hypotheses 2-6.

As in study 1, intraclass correlation (ICC1) scores were calculated to rule out the threat of rater effects of all variables assessed by supervisors. ICC(1) values never exceeded .08 (see Table 28) providing good support for treating supervisor ratings as independent.

8.2 Tests of Hypotheses

The procedures for testing all of the hypotheses were identical to those of study 1.

Hypotheses 1a-c. The results of the multiple regression analyses testing these hypotheses are presented in Table 38. Hypothesis 1a which proposed a stronger positive relationship between prosocial values and OCB time allocation from individual's own

time than from core work time was not supported. Hypothesis 1b which proposed a stronger positive relationship between organizational concern and OCB time allocation from individual's own time than from core work time was not supported. In fact, the opposite effect was found, that is, OCBs motivated by organizational concern were positively related to the use of the organization's time ($\beta = .59, p < .01$) while no relationship was found for using the individual's own time. Finally, Hypothesis 1c, which proposed a stronger positive relationship between impression management and OCB time allocation from core work time than from individual's own time, was also not supported. Contrary to expected, it was found that when performing OCBs motivated by impression management, there is less of a tendency to use the organization's time ($\beta = -.38, p < .01$).

The relationships proposed in these hypotheses were also assessed using the 2 dimensional measure of motives and similar effects were observed (see Table 30). While none of the hypotheses were supported, OCBs motivated by selfless motives were found to be positively related to use of the organization's time ($\beta = .41, p < .01$), and those motivated by self-serving motives to be negatively related to use of the organization's time ($\beta = -.31, p < .01$).

Hypotheses 2-10. Hypotheses 2-7 predicted differential relationships between self- and supervisor report of citizenship motives and individual traits and attitudes as predictors of self-and supervisor report of these same motives. These hypotheses were tested using path and regression analyses. Tables 33-34 and Figures 29-38 present the results of the analyses conducted to test these hypotheses.

Hypotheses 2-6 were tested using path analyses. Hypotheses 2a-c predicted that equity sensitivity would be negatively related to prosocial values and organizational concern and positively related to impression management. These hypotheses were partially supported as there was a significant negative relationship between equity sensitivity and organizational concern ($\gamma = -.26, p < .05$), but no significant relationship with prosocial values ($\gamma = -.10, n.s.$) and impression management ($\gamma = .06, n.s.$). When tested using the 2 dimensional measure of motives, these were not supported.

Hypotheses 3a-c predicted that conscientiousness would be positively related to prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to impression management. This hypothesis was partially supported as conscientiousness was found to be significantly positively related to organizational concern ($\gamma = .14, p < .05$), not significantly related to prosocial values ($\gamma = .004, n.s.$), and contrary to predicted, significantly and positively related to impression management ($\gamma = .11, p < .05$). The test of these hypotheses using the 2 dimensional measure of motives did not receive any support. Conscientiousness did not emerge as a significant positive predictor of selfless motives ($\gamma = .007, n.s.$), while contrary to expected, was significantly and positively related to self-serving motives ($\gamma = .10, p < .05$).

Hypotheses 4a-c predicted that affective commitment would be positively related to prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to impression management. These hypotheses were partially supported. As expected, affective commitment was found to be significantly positively related to prosocial values ($\gamma = .61, p < .05$) and organizational concern ($\gamma = .95, p < .05$), but contrary to predicted, was also found to be significantly positively related to impression management ($\gamma = .35, p < .05$).

The results were slightly different when the test included the 2 dimensional measure of motives. Affective commitment was found to be significantly positively related to selfless motives ($\gamma = .43, p < .05$) as was expected, but not significantly related to self-serving motives ($\gamma = -.04, n.s.$).

Hypotheses 5a-c predicted that flexible role orientation would be positively related to prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to impression management. There was no support for these hypotheses. Flexible role orientation did not emerge as a significant predictor of prosocial values ($\gamma = -.04, n.s.$), organizational concern ($\gamma = .04, n.s.$) nor impression management ($\gamma = .05, n.s.$). Similar results were observed in the relationship between flexible role orientation and selfless ($\gamma = -.04, n.s.$) and self-serving motives ($\gamma = -.05, n.s.$).

Hypotheses 6a-c which specify a positive relationship between each individually rated citizenship motive and its corresponding supervisor rated citizenship motive (for example, actual prosocial values is hypothesized as positively related to perceived prosocial values) was partially supported. The results of the two path models used to test these hypotheses are presented in Figures 29-30 and Tables 31-32 for both the 3 and 2 dimensional measures of motives. For the three dimensional measure of motives, first a model with paths from all self-report motives to all supervisor-report motives (S-B χ^2 (3) = 14.18, $p < .01$, CFI = .79, RMSEA = .23) was compared to a model with paths from only the self-report motives to their corresponding supervisor-report motives (S-B χ^2 (6) = 4.02, $n.s.$, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00). Not only was the fit of the former poorer, but no significant paths emerged. While the model including only paths from the self- to the supervisor-report of corresponding motives yielded a better fit, only the path from self-

and supervisor- report of prosocial values was significant. The results were different for the 2 dimensional measure of motives. The fit of the two models was not significantly different and none of the paths in either model emerged as significant. As a result, as only one path was significant, Hypothesis 6d was also not supported as no comparison could be made in the strength of the relationship among the paths.

Hypotheses 7-10 predicted main direct effects between individual traits and attitudes and supervisor-rated citizenship motives whereby supervisor evaluations of subordinates' motives would also be informed by behaviors externalizing personality and attitudes of employees. As with the Pakistan sample, regression analyses were used to test these hypotheses.

As presented in Tables 33 and 34, Hypotheses 7a-c were not supported. Specifically, for the 3 dimensional measure of motives the expectation that equity sensitivity would be negatively related to supervisor-rated prosocial values ($\beta = .13, n.s.$) and supervisor-rated organizational concern ($\beta = .00, n.s.$) and positively related to supervisor-rated impression management ($\beta = -.10, n.s.$) was not supported. However, while a significant effect was found for the 2 dimensional measure of motives it was in a direction contrary to predicted. Specifically, equity sensitivity was significantly and positively related to supervisor-report of selfless motives ($\beta = .23, p < .05$) and not significantly related to self-serving motives ($\beta = -.15, n.s.$).

Hypotheses 8a-c which predicted that conscientiousness would be positively related to supervisor-rated prosocial values and supervisor-rated organizational concern and negatively related to supervisor-rated impression management was not supported (see Tables 33-34). Conscientiousness was not significantly related to supervisor-rated

prosocial values ($\beta = -.12, n.s.$), organizational concern ($\beta = .08, n.s.$) nor impression management ($\beta = .04, n.s.$). Similarly, no significant effects emerged for the 2 dimensional measure of motives, whereby conscientiousness was not significantly related to supervisor-rated selfless motives ($\beta = -.08, n.s.$) or self-serving motives ($\beta = .04, n.s.$).

Hypotheses 9a-c which predicted that affective commitment would be positively related to supervisor-rated prosocial values and supervisor-rated organizational concern and negatively related to supervisor-rated impression management were not supported. As presented in Tables 33 and 34, affective commitment was not significantly related to supervisor-rated prosocial values ($\beta = -.08, n.s.$), organizational concern ($\beta = .07, n.s.$) nor impression management ($\beta = -.06, n.s.$). Similarly, no significant effects emerged for the 2 dimensional measure of motives, whereby conscientiousness was not significantly related to supervisor-rated selfless motives ($\beta = -.07, n.s.$) or self-serving motives ($\beta = -.02, n.s.$).

Hypotheses 10a-c which predicted that flexible role orientation would be positively related to supervisor-rated prosocial values and supervisor-rated organizational concern and negatively related to supervisor-rated impression management were also not supported. As presented in Tables 33 and 34, flexible role orientation was not significantly related to supervisor-rated prosocial values ($\beta = -.02, n.s.$), organizational concern ($\beta = -.04, n.s.$) nor impression management ($\beta = -.05, n.s.$). Similarly, no significant effects emerged for the 2 dimensional measure of motives, whereby conscientiousness was not significantly related to supervisor-rated selfless motives ($\beta = -.05, n.s.$) or self-serving motives ($\beta = -.05, n.s.$).

Hypotheses 11-13. These hypotheses specified main effects between OCB and supervisor-rated flexible role orientation, supervisor-rated affective commitment and overall performance evaluations. All three hypotheses examined the relationship between OCB as OCBI and OCBO and each of the criterion variables (see Table 35). Hypothesis 11 predicting supervisor-rated affective commitment was supported only when the measure of OCB was OCBI ($\beta = .29, p < .01$) but not when it was OCBO ($\beta = .15, n.s.$). Hypothesis 12 was not supported for OCBI ($\beta = .20, n.s.$) nor OCBO ($\beta = -.14, n.s.$). Finally, partial support was found for Hypothesis 13 whereby OCBO was positively and significantly related to performance ($\beta = .33, p < .01$) and OCBI was not ($\beta = .10, n.s.$).

Hypotheses 14-19. These hypotheses specify interactions in the relationships between OCBs and the dependent variables. Hypotheses 14-16 posit that supervisor-report citizenship motives moderate the relationship between OCBs and the dependent variables. Hypotheses 17-19 consider these same interactions but with employee self-report of citizenship motives as the moderators. As with the Pakistan sample, individual regression equations were used to test the interaction effects, after the controls, OCBs and motives are entered into each equation. All effects were tested using both the original 3 and the newly identified 2 dimensional measure of motives. The results of these hypotheses are presented in Tables 36-43.

Hypothesis 14 predicted that the positive relationship between OCBs and supervisor-rated affective commitment would be moderated by supervisor-rated motives such that it would be stronger when the supervisor perceived the OCB to be motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern motives than when motivated by impression

management. While a marginal relationship was observed of a moderating effect of supervisor-rated prosocial values on the OCBO-supervisor-rated affective commitment relationship ($\beta = -.17, p < .10$) and for a moderating effect of supervisor-rated impression management on the OCBI-supervisor-rated affective commitment ($\beta = .15, p < .10$) relationships, these were contrary to the hypothesized direction. While the slopes were significantly different from each other, as can be seen in Figures 39 and 41, a simple slopes test revealed neither being significantly different from zero, likely due to these interactions being only marginally significant, and the small sample size involved. This hypothesis was not supported for OCBO nor for OCBI (see Tables 36-37). Similarly, this hypothesis was also not supported when the moderation effect was tested using supervisor-report of the selfless and self-serving motive dimensions (see Tables 38-39).

Hypothesis 15 predicted that the positive relationship between OCBs and supervisor-rated flexible role orientation would be moderated by supervisor-rated motives such that it would be stronger when the supervisor perceived the OCB to be motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern motives than when motivated by impression management. This hypothesis was not supported for OCBI or OCBO, using both the 3 and 2 dimensional measure of motives (see Tables 36-39).

Finally, Hypothesis 16 predicted that the relationship between OCB and performance would be positive and stronger when motivated by high perceived prosocial values and high perceived organizational concern and low perceived impression management. This hypothesis was partially supported. As shown in Table 36 and 37, of the three dimensions of motives, only supervisor-rated organizational concern was found to marginally moderate the OCBO-performance relationship ($\beta = .18, p < .10$), and only

supervisor-rated prosocial values was found to marginally moderate the OCBI-performance relationship ($\beta = .17, p < .10$). While the slopes were significantly different from each other, as can be seen in Figures 40 and 42, a simple slopes test revealed neither being significantly different from zero, likely due to these interactions being only marginally significant, and the small sample size involved. As depicted in Tables 38 and 39, for the 2 dimensional measure of motives, no support was found when the OCB was directed at the organization, and a significant moderating effect on the OCBI-performance relationship only observed for supervisor-rated selfless motives ($\beta = .24, p < .05$). The simple slopes test of these interactions also revealed neither being significantly different from zero (see Figure 43).

Hypotheses 17-19 tested the same relationships but using employee self-report of motives as moderators of the relationship between OCBs and the criterion variables. Hypothesis 17 was not supported whether the OCB was directed toward the individual or the organization for the both the 3 and 2 dimensional measures of motives on supervisor-rated affective commitment (see Tables 40-43). Hypothesis 18 was also not supported. While a marginally significant effect was found for the interaction of selfless motives ($\beta = -.20, p < .10$) on the OCBI-supervisor-rated flexible role orientation relationship, it was contrary to the hypothesized direction (see Table 43). Finally, Hypothesis 17 specifying a moderating effect of motives on the OCB-performance relationship was not supported whether the OCB was directed toward the individual or the organization for the both the 3 and 2 dimensional measures of motives on supervisor-rated affective commitment (see Tables 40-43).

Hypotheses 20a-c. These hypotheses specify that supervisor-rated affective commitment, flexible role orientation and performance will be positively related to supervisor reward recommendations. This hypothesis was partly supported. As depicted in Table 44, both supervisor-rated flexible role orientation ($\beta = .15, p < .05$) and performance ($\beta = .70, p < .01$) were positively related to reward recommendations as expected.

Hypotheses 21-26. These hypotheses specify that the tenure of the relationship and the frequency of interaction between subordinates and supervisors moderate the relationship between employees' affective commitment and flexible role orientation and supervisors' reporting of these same attitudes. Hypotheses 21 and 22 specifying the main effect relationship between self- and supervisor report of affective commitment ($\beta = .18, n.s.$) and flexible role orientation ($\beta = .00, n.s.$) were not supported (see Tables 45-46). Hypotheses 23-26, specifying that the tenure of the relationship and the frequency of interaction between subordinates and supervisors would moderate these relationships were also not supported (see Tables 47-50).

9. Discussion – Study 2

As an exact replication of Study 1, Study 2 sought to begin to uncover the external validity and stability of its findings. While a fruitful first attempt toward this end, key cautionary factors must be kept in mind. The first is the much smaller sample size of this sample, compared to Sample 1, increasing the likelihood of a type II error due to its lower power. The second is that the characteristics of this sample seem out of line with what is anecdotally known about this particular organization. As detailed in Table 51, it would appear that these respondents are older and have worked in the organization

longer than those in Study 1. This information would not warrant second thought if it were not for the fact that this organization is well known for its high turnover rates and young employee base. As such, we must consider these results as an important first attempt at replication, while keeping in mind that more reliable conclusions require that these tests be repeated with a broader sample in this same or another organization.

For hypotheses tested with both the 3 and 2 dimensional measures of motives, unless tests involving the 2 dimensional measure yielded significantly different results, the discussion of study 2 results will focus on those of the 3 dimensional measure.

Positing that underlying motivations would relate to different time allocation strategies, the first set of hypotheses was not supported. However, as in Sample 1, it is important to consider these only very preliminary tests given the low internal consistency reliability estimates of the time allocation measures.

Significant results in a direction contrary to that predicted suggest that additional thought is warranted in these relationships. For example, the positive relationship between organizational concern and use of the organization's time when performing OCBs may reflect the fact that it is during time focused on work that individuals are presented with the opportunity to express concern for the organization through the performance of OCBs. The absence of a significant relationship between this same motive and use of one's own time when performing OCBs would support this logic, suggesting that during one's own time a person is focused on more personal considerations and is therefore less aware of the needs of the organization. Also contrary to predicted, the negative relationship between use of the organization's time when performing OCBs and being motivated by impression management, might suggest that a

more complex mechanism be considered. While use of the organization's time when performing OCBs driven by impression management may better guarantee that the OCB be visible to the target of these behaviors, these results suggest that it may not be an effective instrumental strategy overall as it would take time from core work tasks. Therefore, the more focused an individual is on performing OCBs out of impression management, the more he/she is also likely focused on performing tasks effectively. Unfortunately, as the positive relationship between impression management tactics and use of one's own time for performing OCBs was small and not significant, additional research is required to confirm this post hoc rationalization.

As in Study 1, a better understanding of the different motives was also sought by identifying their dispositional and attitudinal antecedents. In line with research linking personality to prosocial motives (Erez, Mikulincer, van Ijzendoorn, & Kroonberg, 2008), for the most part in Study 1 and to a lesser extent in Study 2, significant effects between employee motives and equity sensitivity and conscientiousness were in the hypothesized directions, confirming disposition to be a significant predictor of prosocial values and organizational concern. These dispositional variables did not relate to impression management (using the 3 dimension measure) or to self-serving motives (using the 2 dimensional measure) in the predicted direction, suggesting that it is not low conscientiousness or high equity sensitivity that lead individuals to perform OCBs more instrumentally. In fact, contrary to what was expected, but replicating the findings of Study 1, conscientiousness emerged as a significant predictor of self-serving motives, indicating that in fact these are not incompatible in a same individual.

Of the two attitudinal antecedents of motives, only affective commitment emerged as a significant predictor of motives. As in Study 1, and contrary to what was predicted, the relationship between the affective commitment and all three motives was positive, rather than negative with impression management as had been predicted (there was no significant relationship for self-serving motives of the 2 dimensional measure). The repeated instance of this non-predicted finding supports the post-hoc rationale of affective commitment as an underlying driver of instrumentally performing OCBs, contributing an additional means for individuals who truly want to remain in the organization to ensure so.

The second set of hypotheses which focused on understanding how supervisors make attributions of employee motives, as well as how precisely these attributions relate to subordinates' own attributions, were very weakly supported. Of all attributions, supervisors only seemed to accurately identify their subordinates' prosocial values motives, and were unable to identify organizational concern and impression management motives. These findings are less likely the result of a cultural effect than the nature of the second organization being surveyed, in which respondents in a variety of positions and levels along with their immediate supervisors responded. Compared to Study 1, the lower overall frequency of interaction between subordinates and supervisors may reflect a lack of opportunity for supervisors to observe behaviors externalizing subordinates' motives. In line with this, it is possible that prosocial values were the only motives accurately reported by supervisors given that they are more observable as they are directed toward individuals, including the supervisors providing the ratings. To further explore this possibility it would be interesting to account for the extent of physical

proximity under which supervisors and subordinates work to determine whether working within closer distance of each other provides greater opportunity for supervisors to observe behaviors externalizing subordinates' dispositions.

Similar to Study 1, in exploring how supervisors make attributions of subordinates' motives it was also considered that these might also be informed by behaviors externalizing dispositional and attitudinal characteristics of subordinates. Considered along with the limited support for Hypotheses 6a-c predicting correspondence between self- and supervisor-report of motives, the fact that none of these hypotheses were supported suggests that the work context of Sample 2 may not provide sufficient opportunity for supervisors to observe subordinates' performance of their daily work tasks to effectively make attributions of their employees' motives. Accounting for the physical proximity in which supervisors and subordinates work may also help account for these sample differences.

The third set of hypotheses sought to more directly address the broader question asked in this thesis, namely, "Do motives matter?". Most of the hypothesized direct effect relationships between OCBs and the dependent variables (supervisor-report affective commitment, flexible role orientation and performance) were not supported. Surprisingly, it was only the performance of OCBI's but not OCBOs that translated into supervisor evaluations of subordinates' affective commitment, suggesting that only helping behaviors directed at other organizational members was interpreted as a reflection of individual's attachment to the organization. Similarly, only one type of OCB informed supervisor evaluations of subordinates' performance. Specifically and as in Study 1, only OCBs directed toward the organization led to higher ratings of

subordinates' performance. Work design characteristics and work culture may account for these differences. For example, working in teams and greater interdependence may lead to greater value being placed on OCBI than when work is performed independently.

The contingencies affecting the main effect relationships between the performance of OCBI and supervisor evaluations of subordinates' attitudes and performance were then explored. As in Study 1, the moderating role of motives was tested using both subordinate and supervisor reports of motives. The fact that interaction effects were observed only for supervisor-report of motives (and not self-report) are in line with the low convergent validity of self- and supervisor-report of the moderators and indicate the possibility that these effects are based on supervisor attributions of characteristics other than their employees' motives. Of the interactions proposed between OCBOs and the dependent variables, the only two relationships that emerged were marginally significant and in a direction contrary to predicted. Specifically, supervisors rated their employees as low on affective commitment when they interpret the OCBOs performed by these same employees as motivated by prosocial values. Similarly, supervisors rated their employees as low performers when they interpret the OCBOs performed by these same employees as motivated by organizational concern. Given that the motives are being rated by the supervisor, it is possible that these results reflect a belief by the supervisor that employees' focus on OCBOs are detracting from core work tasks, which they believe to more directly reflect affective commitment and contribute to performance. In line with expectations but countering the previous post-hoc rationalization, supervisors rate their subordinates as high performers when they interpret subordinates' OCBI as motivated by prosocial values (or selfless motives). Anecdotal

information of this organization may help explain this apparent contradiction in light of the results of Study 1. With an aggressive culture valuing high sales and performance, with high employee turnover, and where individual rewards are very closely linked to objective individual and team performance measures (i.e. high sales), it is more likely that when time is taken from one's core work tasks to perform an OCBI that it in fact helps increase coworkers' performance and as a result, team performance. In this context, taking time away to perform an OCBO is less immediately relevant to performance as the benefits accrue to the organization more broadly, rather than more directly to one's own or one's team performance. In contrast, the work design of the organization in Study 1 (a bank) fosters greater cooperation among all employees as monetary rewards are less directly tied to individual or team performance. In this context, there is less incentive to single mindedly focus on one's task, leading employees to be comparatively less judicious of their time, whereby listening to coworkers problems (an example of OCBI) may detract from both employees' task performance without affecting their ensuing rewards.

Similar to Study 1, the relationship between the dependent variables (i.e. supervisor-rated affective commitment, flexible role orientation and performance) and reward recommendations was strongest for performance, followed by flexible role orientation.

Finally, seeking to determine the degree of correspondence between subordinate-report of their attitudes and supervisor-report of these same attitudes, none of the remaining hypotheses were supported. These findings are in line with the previously discussed inability of supervisors in this sample to accurately identify subordinates'

motives and also likely due to the low level of interaction between supervisors and subordinates. While these hypotheses also specifically tested for but did not provide evidence of a moderating effect of frequency of interaction between self- and supervisor-report of these attitudes, it is possible that the small sample size and variance of responses was not sufficient to confirm this effect.

10. General Discussion

10.1 General Conclusions, Sample Comparisons, and Contribution

In addition to the conclusions that may be drawn from the results of the individual samples, the two study design employed in this thesis addresses important questions about the external validity of the findings. In addition to contributing toward extending the field of OCB research toward a better understanding of the role of motives underlying OCBs, the two samples allow for a more thorough test of the hypotheses. Table 52 summarizes and compares the findings for each hypothesis for the two samples using the 3 dimensional measure of motives.

A preliminary contribution of this study is a test of the dimensionality of the motives scale, with the introduction of a 2 dimensional version comprising selfless and self-serving motives. Given that employees' motives were assessed from both a self- and supervisor-report in both samples, the reduced version of the motives scale was in effect tested in four different samples. While the supervisor-report modified the object of the response (i.e. the supervisor reported on his/her employees' motives, rather than his/her own), with the exception of the supervisor-report version of the scale for the Canadian sample, CFA fit results were relatively equivalent for both supervisors and subordinates of each sample. As presented in Tables 1 and 26, the 2 dimensional measure of motives

resulted in an improvement fit over the original 3 dimensional version of the scale for both employees and supervisors in the Pakistani sample and equivalent fit to the 3 dimensional version of the scale for the self-report version of the Canadian sample. These results are encouraging and provide a good basis on which to extend more rigorous construct validation tests.

Broadly speaking, some patterns emerged which can help guide the conclusions drawn from the sample comparisons. Firstly, it appears that the greatest between-sample convergence in findings occurred for tests involving same-source variables. For example, the tests exploring dispositional and attitudinal predictors of motives yielded almost identical results between the two samples (see the summary of Hypotheses 2-5 in Table 52). Unexpected findings of these hypotheses were also reproduced across both samples, such as the positive relationship between affective commitment and impression management. Similarly, as depicted in Figures 7-8 and 34-35 and summarized in Table 52, conscientiousness was found to be positively (rather than the negatively as predicted) related to the impression management and self-serving motives. That individuals characterized by valued dispositional and attitudinal traits (i.e. conscientiousness and affective commitment) also perform OCBs for more instrumental and self-serving reasons suggests that contextual factors may lead them to judge these as necessary toward attaining their work and career goals. Identifying moderators in this relationship presents an interesting opportunity for future research. Equally interesting is the fact that flexible role orientation did not predict any of the motives in either sample, suggesting that mediators or moderators of these relationships also be considered. For example, an autonomous work environment may moderate, while supportive supervision may mediate

the relationship between flexible role orientation and motives. It is also possible that this construct not be of relevance to OCB theory when OCBs are defined as extra to one's job, given that high scorers on flexible role orientation do more because they consider it to be part of their job.

Same source data were also used to explore the direct effect hypotheses (11-13) exploring the relationship between OCBs and supervisor-report affective commitment, flexible role orientation and performance. This set of hypotheses resulted in some inconsistent findings which lead to interesting questions. Specifically, the object of the OCB seems to differentially relate to the dependent variables. For example, as predicted, it seems that in Pakistan employee performance of OCBs leads supervisors to evaluate them as affectively committed to the organization. In contrast, in North America there was no significant relationship between these two variables, and instead it was the performance of OCBI that led to evaluations of employee affective commitment. One result consistent in both samples and in line with recent research on OCBs (Podsakoff et al, 2009) is their positive relationship to performance, when directed toward the organization.

Finally, same source supervisor data were also used to test the relationship between supervisor-report affective commitment, flexible role orientation and performance (Hypotheses 20a-c) and reward recommendations. The findings converged most strongly for Hypothesis 20c which specified a performance-reward recommendation relationship. Taken together, it seems clear that performance is a more objective and proximal outcome of OCBs, and equally objective and proximal predictor of reward recommendations. As such, while broader and more subjective factors may account for

the role OCBs in evaluations of an employees' affective commitment and flexible role orientation, as well as the extent to which an employee's affective commitment and flexible role orientation should be rewarded. Variance in these assessments is thought to be less reflective of cultural differences than of contextual differences. For example, while individualism/collectivism might explain differences in the correspondence of subordinate- and supervisor-report of subordinates' motives between the two samples, underlying contextual factors (that would also vary within an individualistic and collectivistic organization) such as the difference in physical proximity under which employees work, may also account for this. Similarly, while power distance might explain differences in the extent to which subordinates engage in self-serving behavior and their supervisors' ability to accurately identify these behaviors, it is possible that differences in ambiguity of reward and promotion decision criteria embedded in power distance differences better explain these results.

The second major pattern that emerged distinguishing the two samples is the extent to which supervisors know their employees. From the results, it appears that the supervisors in the Canadian sample are much less aware of subordinates' motives and attitudes (see Hypotheses 6-10 and 20-26 in Table 52), calling into question their ability to accurately report on behaviors such as the performance of OCBs. As previously mentioned, factors specific to this sample suggest caution in interpreting these to reflect cultural differences between the two samples. Specifically, the less standardized and varied nature of the working environment in the Canadian sample may account for this difference. The almost complete absence of a moderating effect of tenure with supervisor and frequency of interaction on supervisor on the relationship between self- and

supervisor-report of employee attitudes for both samples suggests that other factors must be considered. On post hoc reflection, it does make sense that the tenure of the working relationship as well as the frequency of daily interaction between supervisor and subordinate fail to explain supervisors' ability to accurately identify subordinates' motives and attitudes. For example, despite a long working relationship, the employee and supervisor may rarely interact. Further, the measure of daily interaction itself does not necessarily capture the extent to which a supervisor has the opportunity to observe the subordinates' behaviors which would then inform attitude and motive attributions, since while they may interact multiple times throughout the day, these may be focused on specific work issues, after each of which the supervisor retreats to his or her office. Instead, a measure of the proximity in which they work, and therefore how visible the employee is to the supervisor throughout the day, may better explain variance in supervisor attributions, especially when considering the differences in these two samples. The smaller nature of bank branches generally characterized by more open concept design layouts (as opposed to separate offices or cubicle arrangements) is therefore a possible explanation for the stark difference in supervisor understanding of subordinates between the two samples.

These sample differences may also account for the differences in findings of the moderating hypotheses. The single instance of convergence in support for these hypotheses was for Hypothesis 17c, indicating that the relationship between OCBO and performance is positive and stronger when the OCB is motivated by high supervisor-report organizational concern. However, the fact that Hypothesis 19b, which specifies the same relationship but moderated by employee self-report organizational concern, was

not supported in Study 2, further suggest that these supervisors are not effective in identifying their subordinates' motives. In fact, and in line with the previous discussion of possible contextual challenges of the Canadian sample affecting the accuracy of supervisors' attributions of subordinates, none of the moderating hypotheses employing self-report measures of the moderators were supported for Sample 2.

As such and as previously mentioned, the greater variance in findings for the hypotheses including self- and supervisor report of variables may be more indicative of a lack of opportunity for supervisors in Study 2 to observe behaviors externalizing motives and attitudes, rather than of cultural factors. In addition, for the moderation hypotheses, because supervisors are also reporting on the predictors and the dependent variables, it is possible that their ability to accurately evaluate employee performance of OCBs, and affective commitment, flexible role orientation and performance also be less reflective of their subordinates' actual attitudes and behaviors.

Despite the failure to replicate the findings of some of the major hypotheses in Study 2, the overall results of this research make several contributions to the field of OCB research. First, while previously conceptually addressed (i.e. Bergeron, 2007), to the best of my knowledge this is the first empirical attempt considering the role of time allocation toward the performance of OCBs. While providing only preliminary insight, the results do nonetheless indicate this to be an interesting new avenue of inquiry within the study of OCBs given the opportunity to further explore when the performance of OCBs detracts, rather than contributes to, organizational performance.

Second, heeding the authors' call for research examining the correlation between employee and supervisor attributions of employees' motives, this study directly builds on

previous research examining the role of attribution cues in informing supervisor attributions of subordinates' motives (Halbesleben, Bowler, Bolino, & Turnley, 2010).

In addition to determining how behavioral cues inform supervisor attributions of motives (e.g. Halbesleben et al., 2010), previous research including a measure of motives has focused on exploring their role as predictors of organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g. Grant & Meyer, 2009; Finkelstein, 2006; Rioux & Penner, 2001). As such, the third and most significant contribution of this study is that it examines the role of motives on the outcomes of OCBs. Specifically, the findings of this study empirically support Bolino's (1999) suggestion that the motives underlying the performance of OCBs influence the outcomes of that OCB. By assessing motives from both self- and supervisor-report of the focal individual, these findings not only contribute evidence of the moderating role of motives on the relationship between OCBs and important dependent variables, but also help to rule out the role of supervisor biases in these assessments.

10.2 Practical and Theoretical Implications of Findings

The results of this study make two important contributions to practice. The first follows from the findings that supervisors make accurate attributions of subordinates' motives. In line with Halbesleben and colleagues (2010) this is of important practical significance because "if supervisors make inaccurate judgments about motives, they may unfairly reward or punish their employees" (p. 1475). A second important practical implication derives from the finding that motives moderate the relationship between OCBs and their outcomes. As such, organizations do not stand much to gain by encouraging or even requiring the performance of OCBs by employees if these are

performed for self-serving motivations, as the truly desirable OCB is that performed for selfless reasons, rather than one that is performed to impress a supervisor to be favored for a promotion decision. An important implication of this is that organizations stand much to gain from encouraging selfless OCBs while removing incentives for OCBs driven by self-serving motives. It is therefore in the interest of organizations to clarify employee roles and core work tasks, while removing ambiguity from the criteria underlying reward and promotion decisions so that employees who perform OCBs do so more for more selfless rather than instrumental reasons. For example, the latter could be accomplished by providing employees with a list of criteria that supervisors and managers use in making performance evaluations. By removing incentives for the instrumental performance of OCBs while fostering an environment of cooperation among employees, an organization should be effective not only in encouraging more OCBs, but also in ensuring that a greater proportion of these are selflessly driven.

These findings also advance the field of OCB research by contributing to the refinement of the construct's underlying theory. Support for a moderating role of motives in the relationship between OCBs and their outcomes empirically supports the need for the construct to be more clearly defined such that it is disentangled from its outcomes. More specifically, these findings suggest that the definition of OCBs should be more strongly based on behaviors rather than on the consequence of its benefit to the organization. As demonstrated by these findings, the outcome of OCBs in aggregate benefitting the organization is an empirical question whose outcomes can vary on the basis of their underlying motive. By challenging the fourth assumption of the original OCB conceptualization (i.e. that in aggregate they benefit the organization), these

findings suggest that future OCB research must measure rather than infer motives, and their benefit to the organization be empirically determined rather than assumed.

Considered jointly, the implications for theory and practice are even more apparent. For example, a recent experimental study (Podsakoff, Whitting, Podsakoff, & Mishra, 2011) found that job candidates who reported greater performance of OCBs received higher evaluations, especially in the case of higher level positions (i.e. supervisory as opposed to administrative). Theoretically, these findings would be advanced by exploring whether these effects would vary if interviewers were aware of subordinates' motives, by including a condition manipulating motives. In practice, HR professionals making selection decisions might ensure that better choices are made by seeking more information on the context and conditions under which OCBs were performed (such as the performance of OCBs and the ensuing benefits conferred) to reduce the likelihood of automatically assuming selfless motives.

10.3 Limitations

There are two major limitations to this research. The first is its cross sectional nature, warranting caution when drawing causal inferences. For example, it is possible that Study 1 finding that supervisors make accurate attributions of their subordinates' motives based on behaviors externalizing these motives in fact reflect a different mechanism at work. Specifically, given the cross sectional nature of this design, it is possible that supervisors' a priori evaluations of subordinates' (which could be affected by perceptual biases) results in treatment that in turn leads employees to develop beliefs about their place and advancement in the organization which would in turn affect their motives for performing OCBs. However, despite the caution in interpreting causality, the

cross-sectional nature of this design does not lead to more worrisome threats such as common method bias given the multi-source nature of the data collected. As such, while requiring caution in assumptions about its internal validity, this study comprises an important first step in better understanding important intrapsychic mechanisms proximally related to the performance of OCBs.

The second noteworthy limitation is that while a two-study replication design resulted in all hypotheses being tested in two different organizations, differences between the two samples require additional research to address inconsistent findings across the two samples. It is unclear whether differences in results between the two samples reflect real contradictory findings or sample size limitations of the much smaller Study 2 sample. In addition, differences in national culture, organizational culture (e.g. different industry), and job design (e.g. standardized working practices) confound possible interpretations of contradictory findings. Conversely, this limitation adds strength to Study 1 findings replicated in Study 2, ruling out the possibility that the underlying mechanisms identified are an artifact of context.

10.4 Future Research

In addition to addressing the above mentioned limitations with a longitudinal design in another Canadian sample, there is vast room for future research to develop and build on the findings of this study.

Firstly, the relationship between motives and the antecedents explored in this research inspires consideration of more focused predictors of these variables. With regard to more dispositional predictors, perspective taking (Davis, Conklin, Smith, & Luce, 1996; Grant & Berry, 2011) may be particularly interesting to explore. Individuals

who are more capable of adopting others' viewpoints may be more inclined to perform OCBs driven by prosocial values and organizational concern. Contextual predictors would also be interesting to explore. Given findings that the frequency of OCBs increase prior to a promotion by individuals who believe OCBs to be instrumental toward its achievement (Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000), it would be interesting to explore whether transparency in the criteria and method of promotion and advancement decisions are differentially related to citizenship motives. Similarly, it would be interesting to explore whether an increase in self-serving motives and decrease in selfless motives might add to the list of negative outcomes of citizenship pressure (Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010).

Secondly, a number of interesting questions can be addressed by bringing co-workers into the research on attributions of focal employees' motives. One such avenue could involve comparing supervisors' and coworkers' ability to identify employees' motives for performing OCBs. In a very broad sense, it could be argued that coworkers would be more accurate in these evaluations as they generally tend to work more closely and interact more frequently with colleagues. On this basis, finer grained theorizing might expect differences in ability to predict motives based on the type of motive. For example, it is possible that coworkers are better able to observe OCBs driven by prosocial values (particularly in the form of OCBIs) since they might more often be the targets of these behaviors, while supervisors may more frequently witness OCBs driven by organizational concern and impression management (especially the latter which they are most likely the target of). Alternatively, given that individuals tend to perceive rewards given to coworkers performing OCBs driven by traditional (as opposed to self-

serving) motives as most fair (Farrel & Finkelstein, 2011), it is possible that they also be more attuned to cues and therefore more accurate than the supervisors in their attributions of coworkers' motives.

Thirdly, it would be interesting to explore the moderating role of motives on the relationship between OCBs and a broader range of organizational outcomes. For example, in Study 1 I found evidence of a moderating effect of motives on the relationship between OCBs and performance. I attempted to rule out the threat of supervisor biases in these relationships by exploring the extent to which supervisors in turn would be willing to reward this performance with promotions and reward considerations. However, more conclusive effects of the impact of motives on the contribution of the OCB would require more objective or archival measures of individual performance, such as organizational performance appraisals and absence records. Similarly, the impact on broader performance indicators could also be explored. Specifically, given recent meta-analytic evidence of the impact of OCBs on group performance (Podsakoff et al, 2009) it would be interesting to explore the moderating role of motives on this relationship.

It would also be interesting to explore a moderating role of motives in the relationship between OCBs and other non-performance related constructs. For example, this could be a means to address counterintuitive findings in the literature such as those of a meta-analysis indicating only a modest negative relationship between OCBs and counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs; Dalal, 2005).

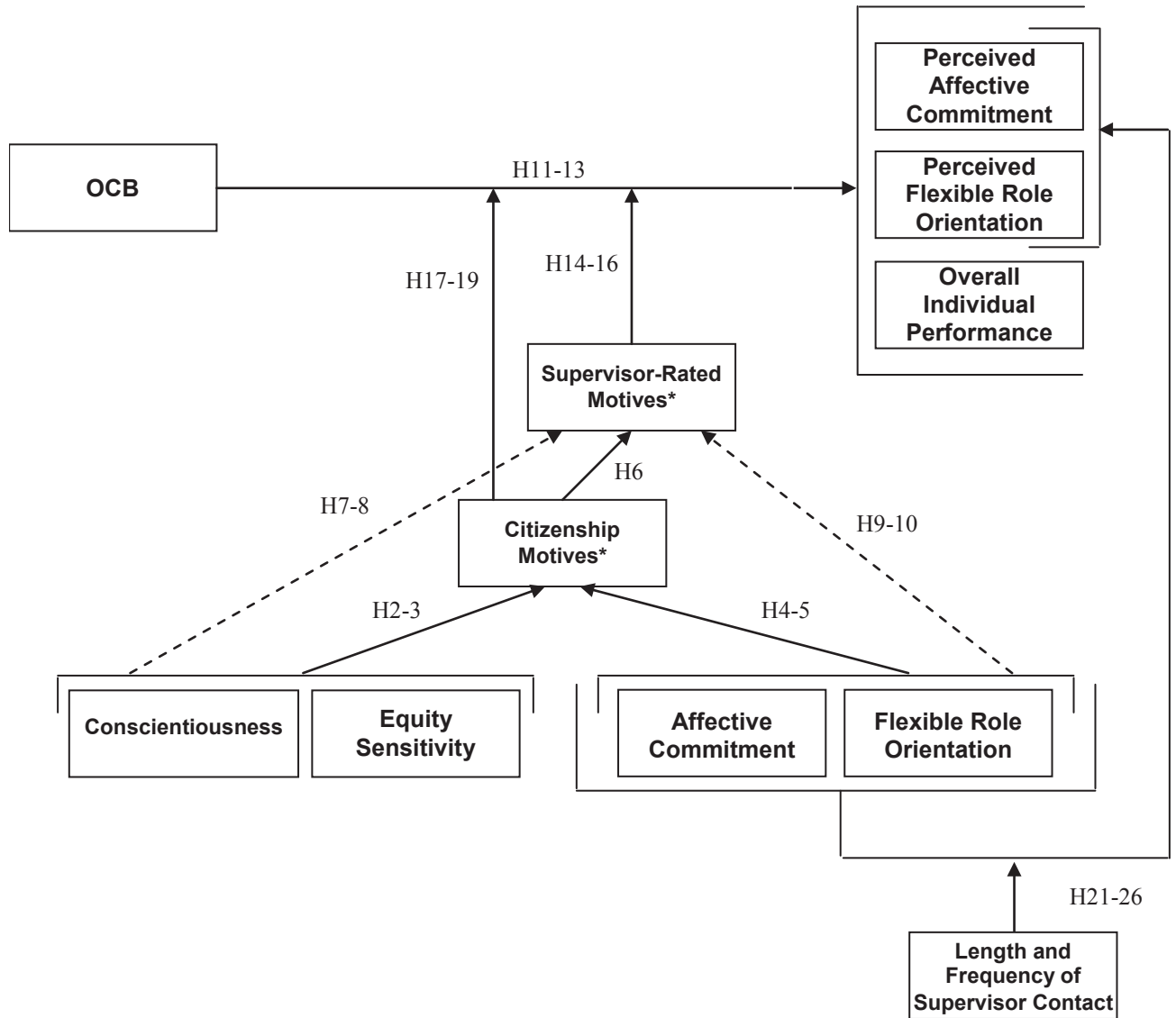
Our understanding of the impact of motives on the outcomes of OCBs could also be advanced by exploring whether the choice of OCBs is affected by the underlying

motivation. For example, Moon, Kamdar, Mayer, and Takeuchi (2008) found individuals driven by duty (an other-centered trait) performed more OCBs in the form of taking charge (a behavior important for advancing innovation) than those driven by achievement striving (a self-centered trait). Similarly, it is therefore possible that individuals driven by impression management chose to engage in more visible and fast impacting OCBs than their counterparts driven by prosocial values or organizational concern.

Finally, given the many avenues for research on OCB motives, an important future avenue of study involves further exploring the dimensionality and parsimony of the motives scale. With 30 items, the original Rioux and Penner (2001) scale is taxing for most studies, even those for which it is one of the main variables of interest given the increasing challenge of access to organizations and pressure to keep surveys as brief as possible. While I have sought to introduce a 2 dimensional reduced (20-item) version of the scale, this represents preliminary attempt at generating a more parsimonious measure, and therefore only the first step toward the necessary rigor of a dedicated construct validation study.

While these represent only a few of the avenues for future research derived from this work, they exemplify the breadth and variety of directions toward which the work initiated in this study may lead.

Figure 1
Hypothesized Relationships



* Prosocial values, organizational concern and impression management motives

Figure 2

Traditionally Assumed vs. Self-Serving OCB Motives¹

	Traditionally Assumed OCB Motives (Prosocial Values and Organizational Concern)	Self-Serving OCB Motives (Impression Management)
OCBs driven by	Individual's values/beliefs	Desire to achieve/gain something in return
Frequency of OCBs	Consistent across space and time	Inconsistent and episodic
Primary reason for the OCB	Manifestation of who the individual is	Nested within other priorities; a means toward an end
Individual's focus while performing the OCB	Effectively responding to and fulfilling an existing or anticipated need external to oneself (i.e. helping a coworker or conserving organizational resources)	Engaging in a behavior in view of one's supervisor or other important decision maker that demonstrates concern and loyalty toward the organization/ supervisor/ coworkers
Major contribution of the OCB	In aggregate contributes toward the organization's well being and performance	In aggregate contributes to the actor's own well being and performance

¹ Inspired by an unpublished table (Bansal, personal communication, January 19, 2008) differentiating between normative and strategic corporate social responsibility (CSR) presented by Dr. Tima Bansal at Concordia University (Montreal, Canada), in January, 2008.

Figure 3

Path Analysis Results of the Self-Rated-Supervisor-Rated Motives Relationships (3 dimensions) – Pakistan

Figure 3a- All Self-Report to All Supervisor-Report of Motives

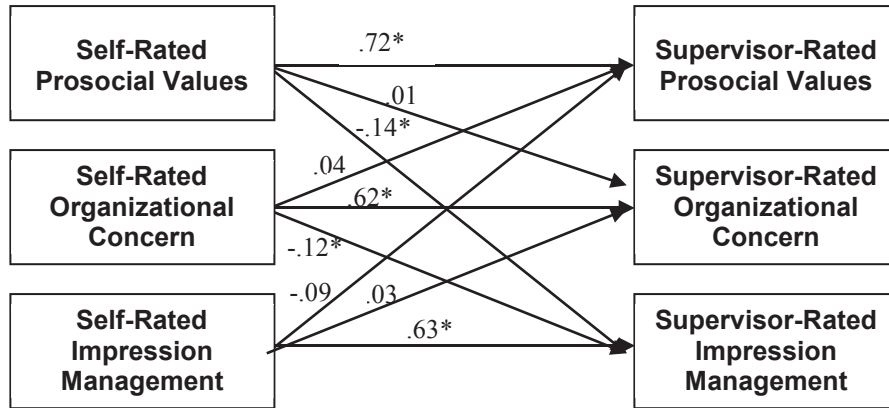


Figure 3b – Only Corresponding Self- and Supervisor-Report of Motives

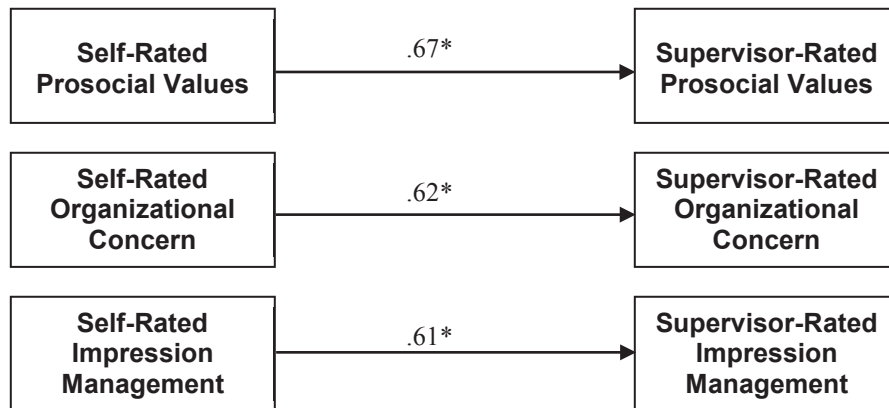


Figure 4

Path Analysis Results of the Self-Rated-Supervisor-Rated Motives Relationships (2 dimensions) - Pakistan

Figure 4a- All Self-Report to All Supervisor-Report of Motives

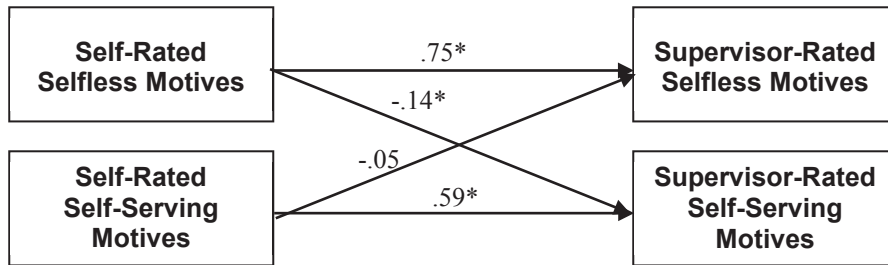


Figure 4b – Only Corresponding Self- and Supervisor-Report of Motives

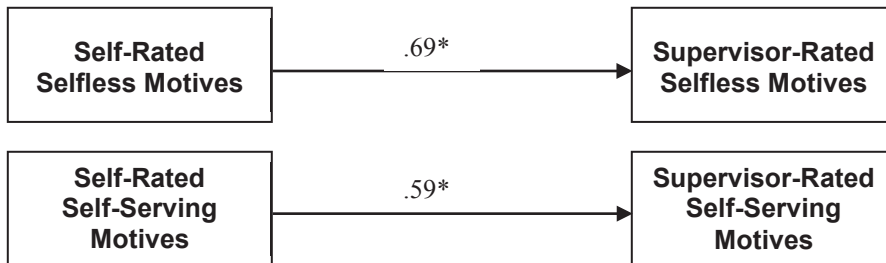
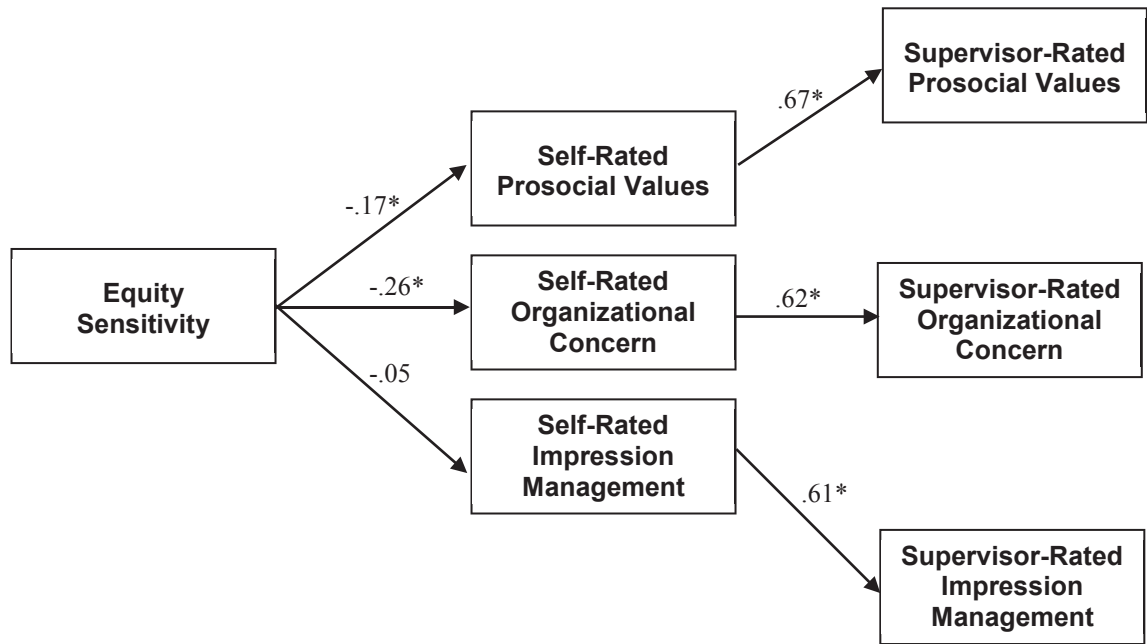


Figure 5

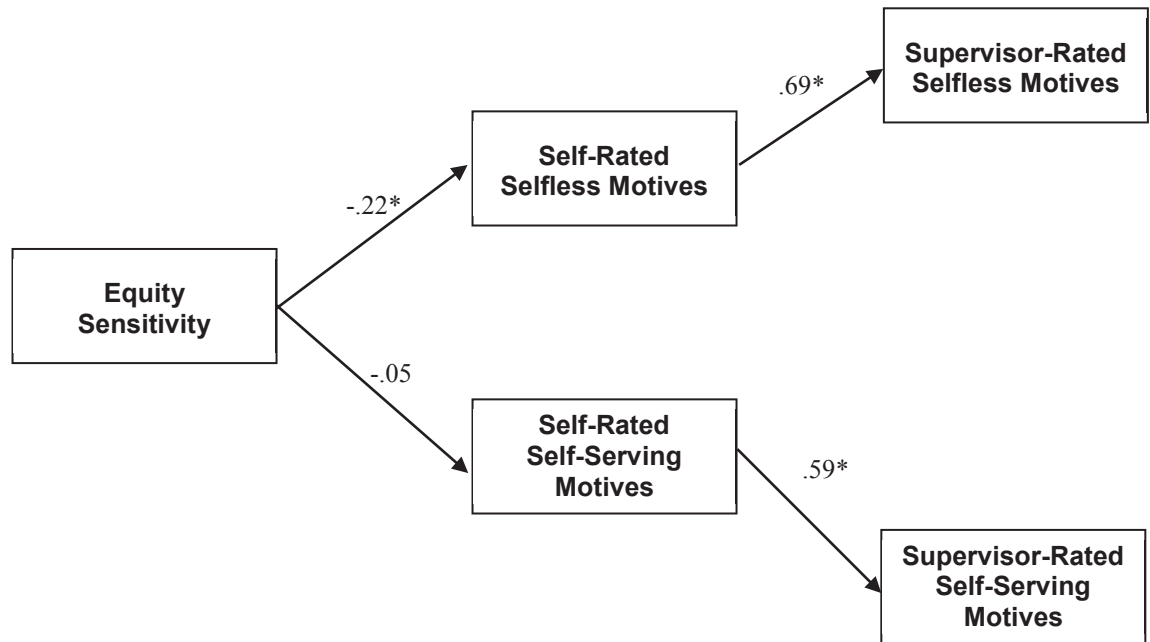
Path Analysis Models for Equity Sensitivity as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (3 dimensions) - Pakistan



Fit indices					
SB χ^2	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
7.82	9.00	.55	.98	1.00	.00

Figure 6

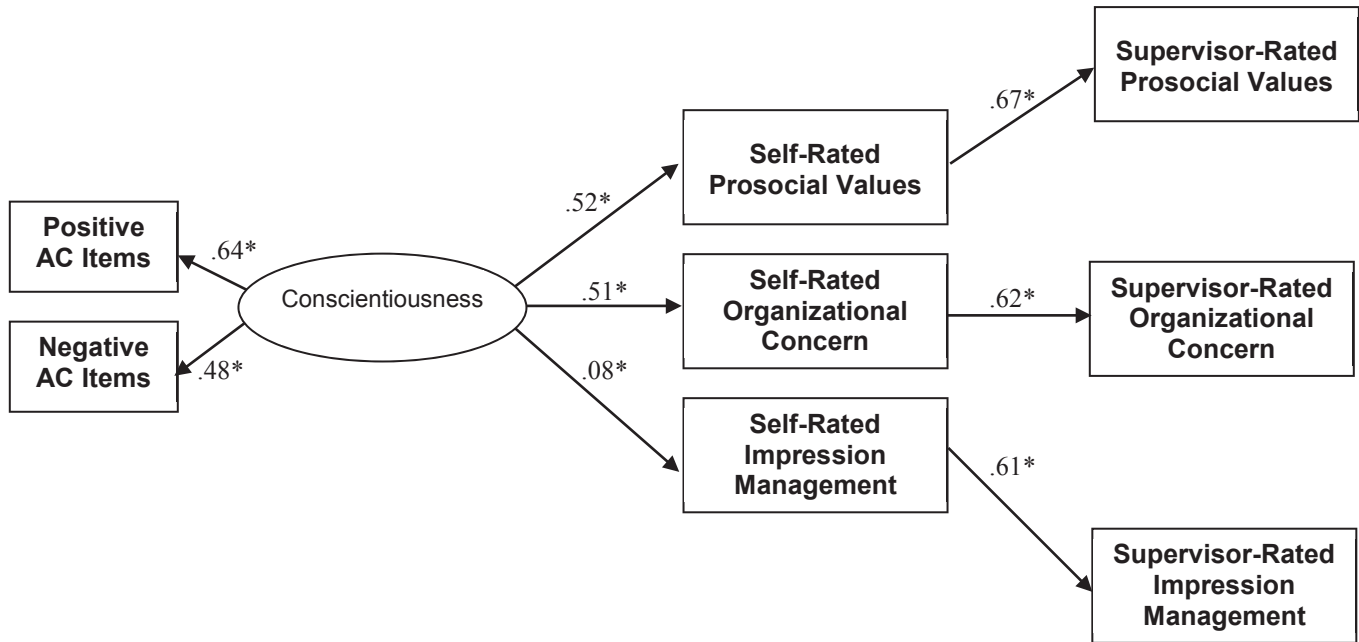
Path Analysis Models for Equity Sensitivity as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (2 dimensions) - Pakistan



Fit indices					
$SB\chi^2$	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
4.50	4.00	.34	.98	1.00	.03

Figure 7

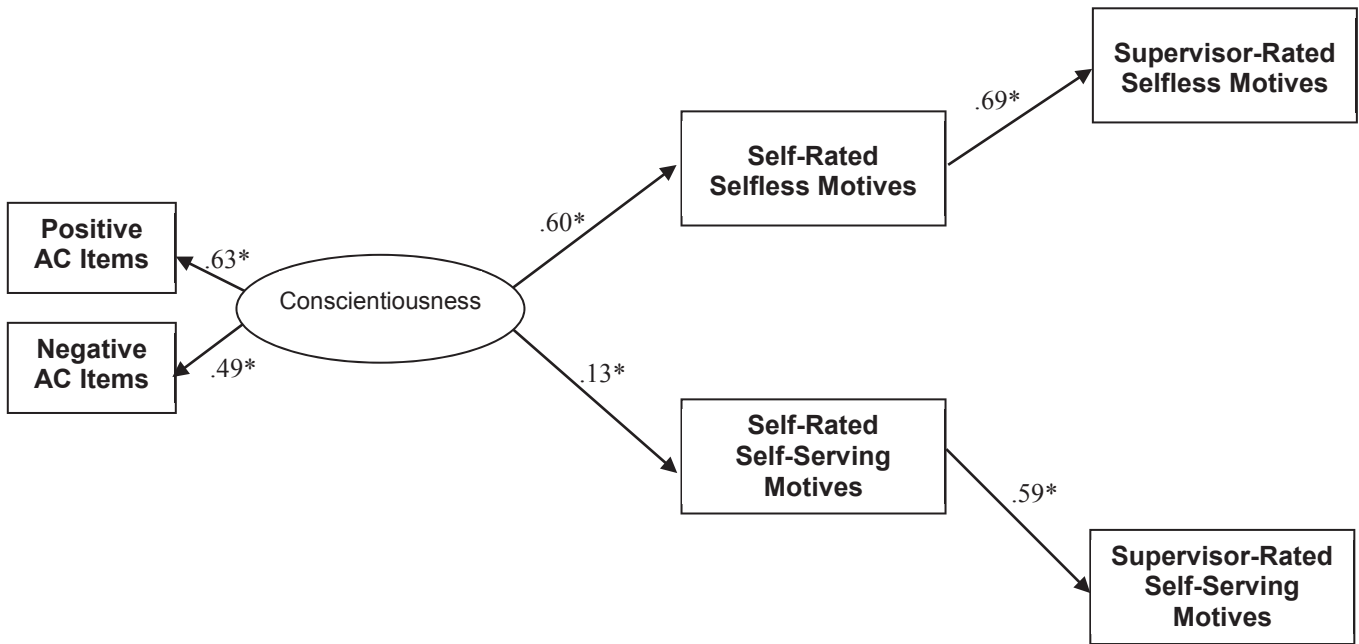
Path Analysis Models for Conscientiousness as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (3 dimensions) - Pakistan



Fit indices					
SB χ^2	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
16.59	14.00	.28	.97	1.00	.03

Figure 8

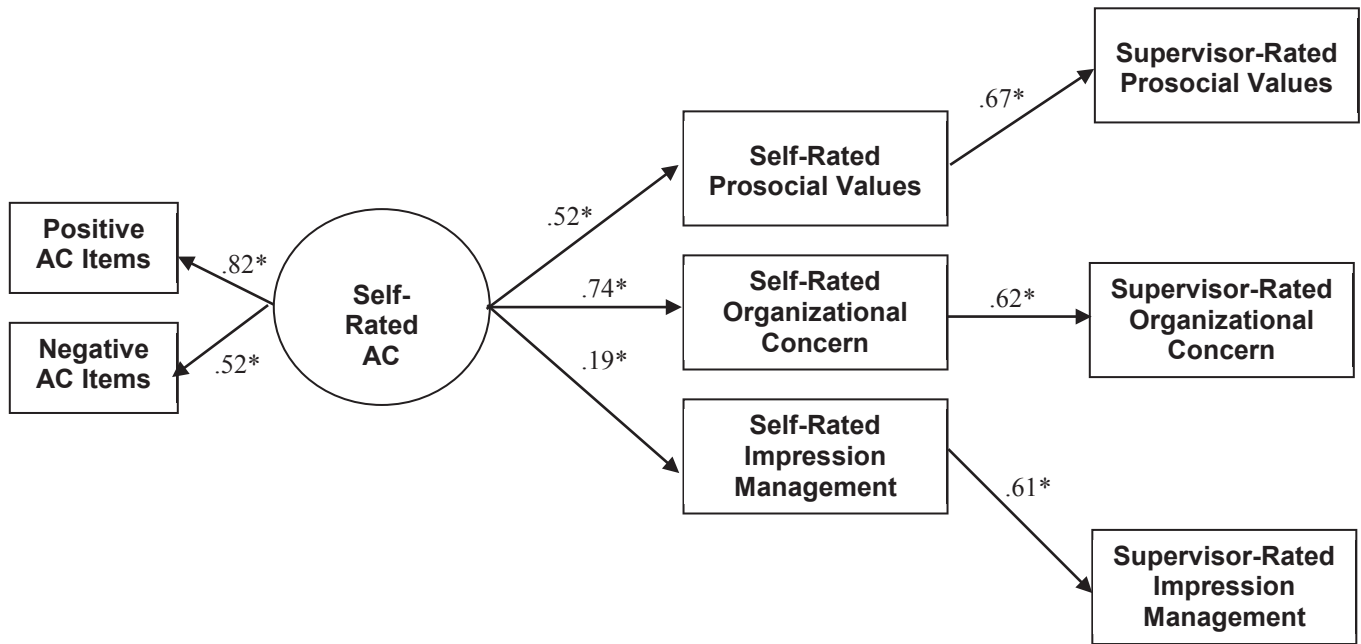
Path Analysis Models for Conscientiousness as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (2 dimensions) - Pakistan



Fit indices					
$SB\chi^2$	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
6.49	6.00	.37	.97	1.00	.02

Figure 9

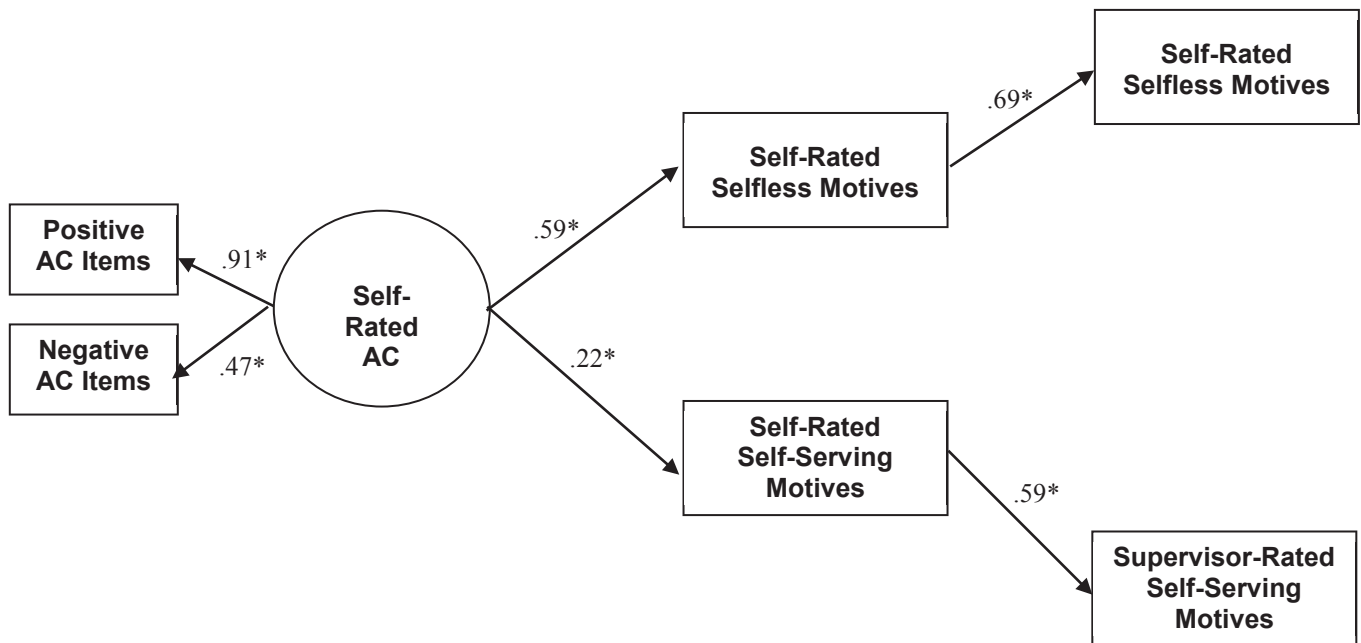
Path Analysis Models for Affective Commitment as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (3 dimensions) - Pakistan



Fit indices					
$SB\chi^2$	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
13.55	14.00	.48	.98	1.00	.00

Figure 10

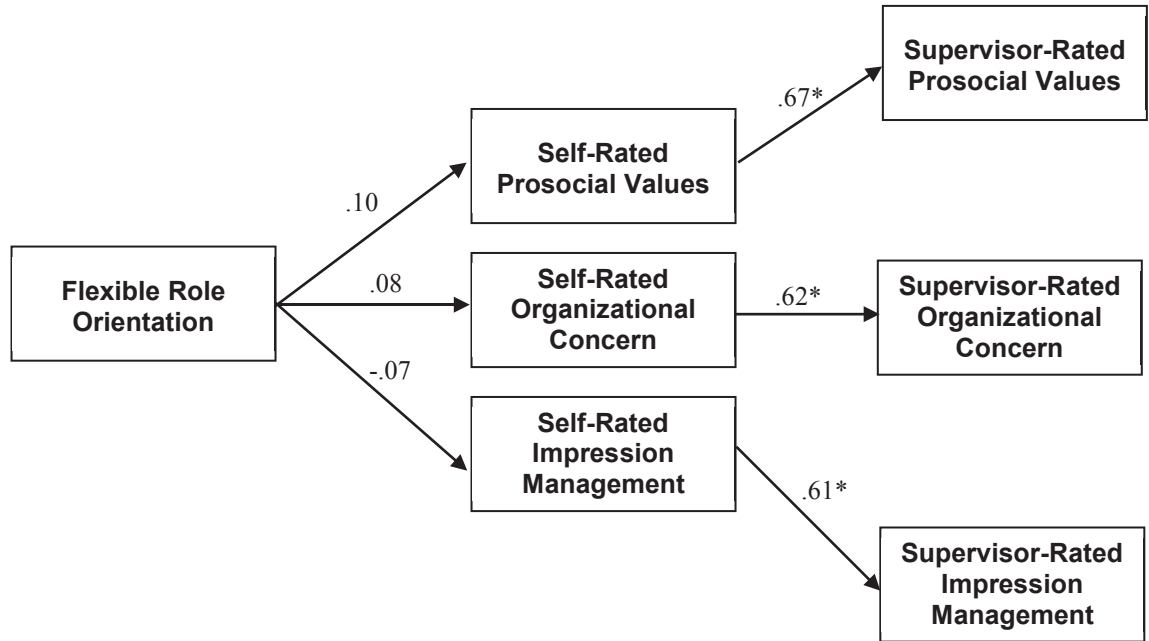
Path Analysis Models for Affective Commitment as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (2 dimensions) - Pakistan



Fit indices					
$SB\chi^2$	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
5.69	7.00	.57	.98	1.01	.00

Figure 11

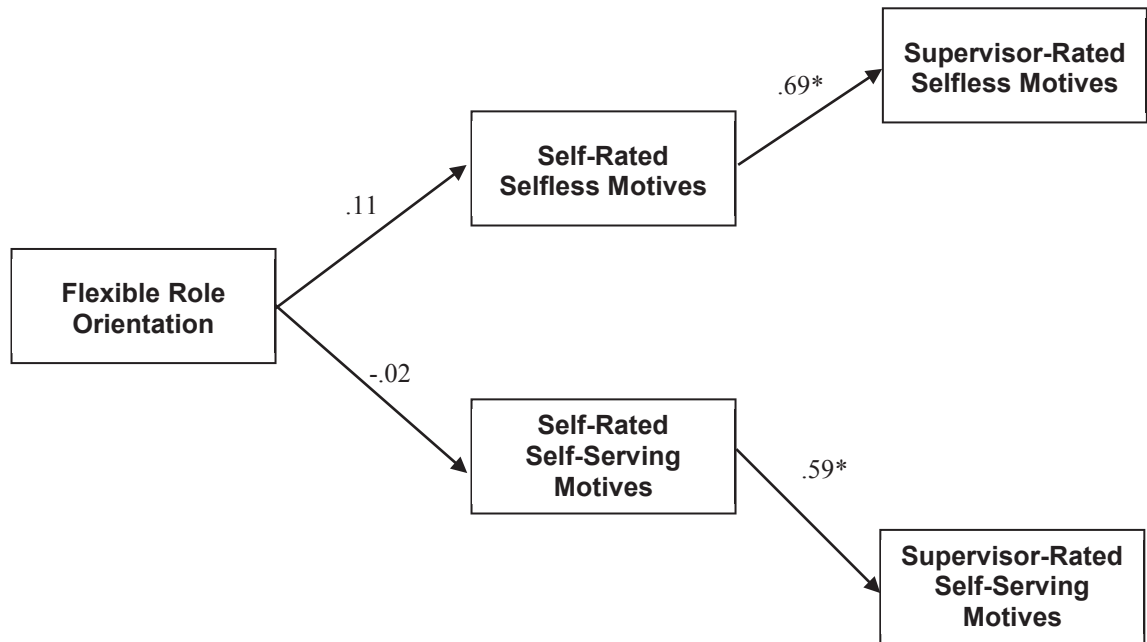
Path Analysis Models for Flexible Role Orientation as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (3 dimensions) - Pakistan



Fit indices					
SB χ^2	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
8.00	9.00	.53	.98	1.00	.00

Figure 12

Path Analysis Models for Flexible Role Orientation as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (2 dimensions) - Pakistan



Fit indices					
$SB\chi^2$	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
4.95	4.00	.29	.97	1.00	.04

Figure 13

Moderating Effect of Supervisor-Rated Prosocial Values on the OCBI-Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation Relationship - Pakistan

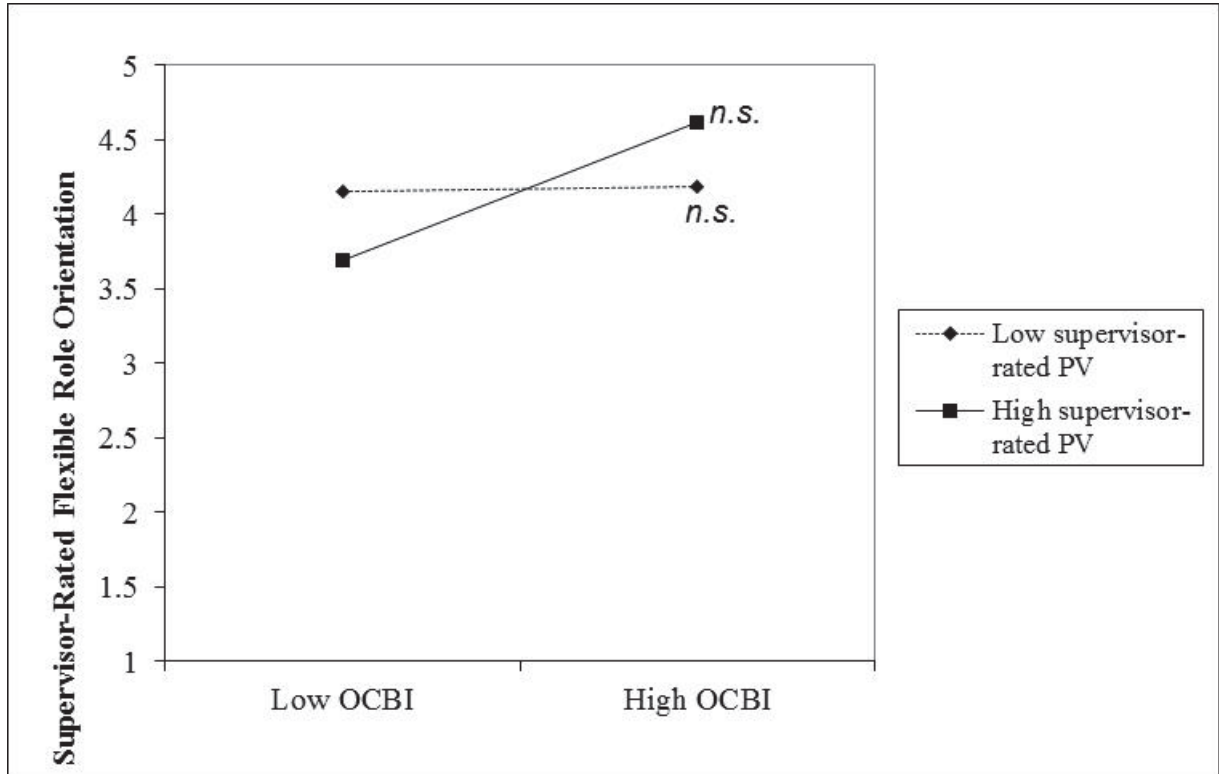


Figure 14

Moderating Effect of Supervisor-Rated Organizational Concern on the OCBI-Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation Relationship - Pakistan

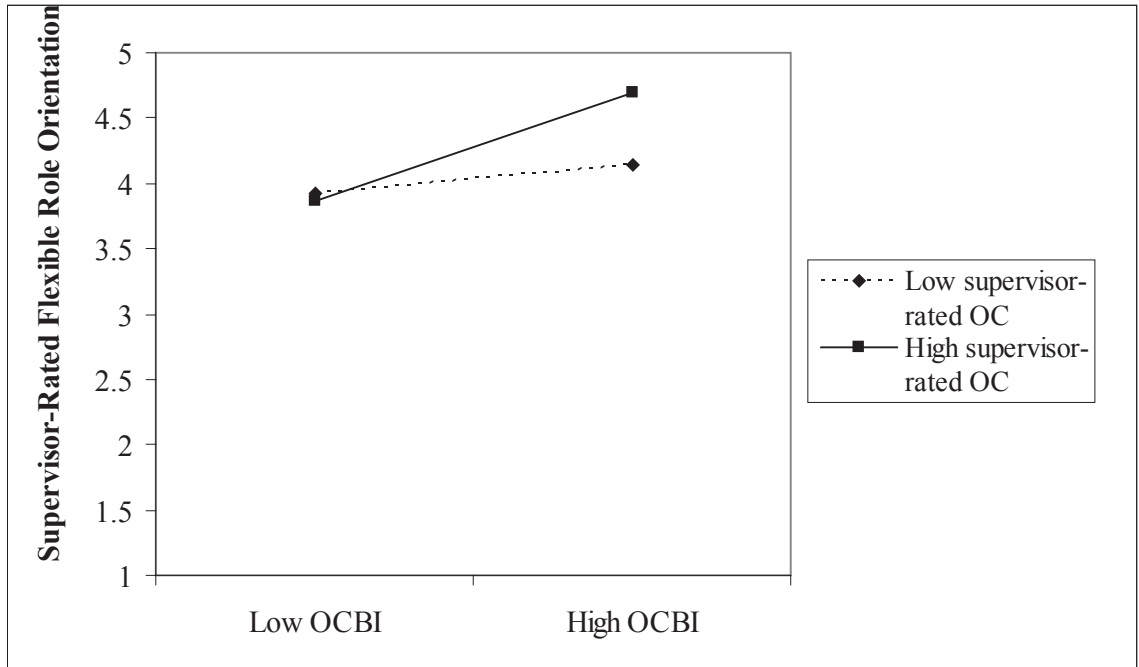


Figure 15

Moderating Effect of Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives on the OCBI-Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation Relationship - Pakistan

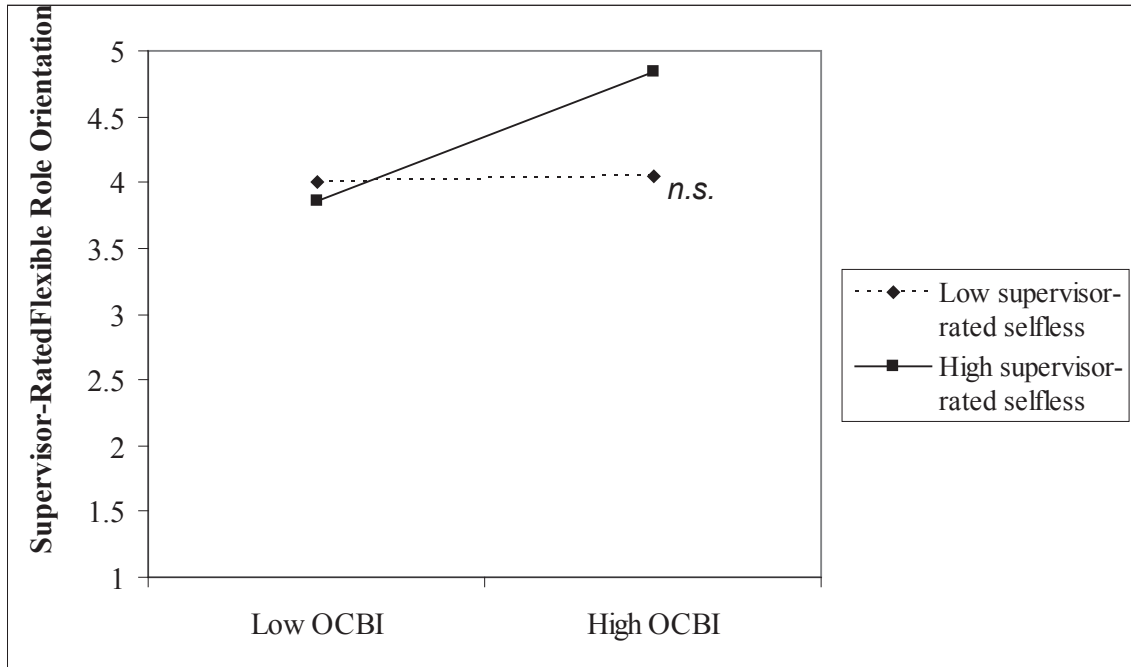


Figure 16

Moderating Effect of Supervisor-Rated Organizational Concern on the OCBO-Performance Relationship - Pakistan

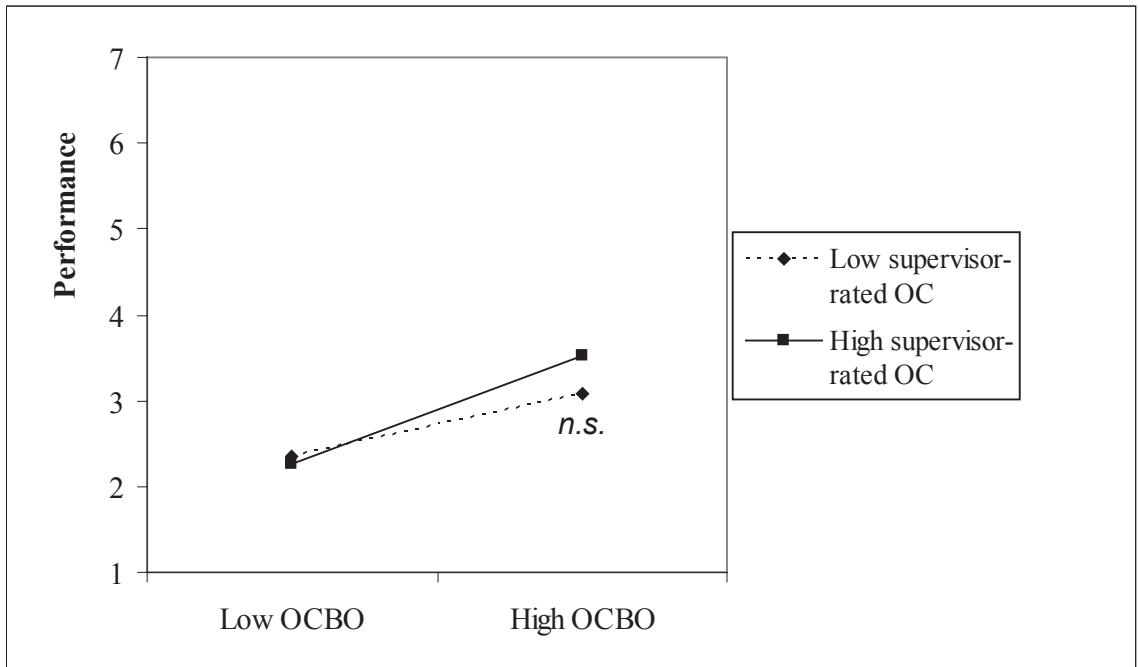


Figure 17

Moderating Effect of Supervisor-Rated Prosocial Values on the OCBI-Performance Relationship - Pakistan

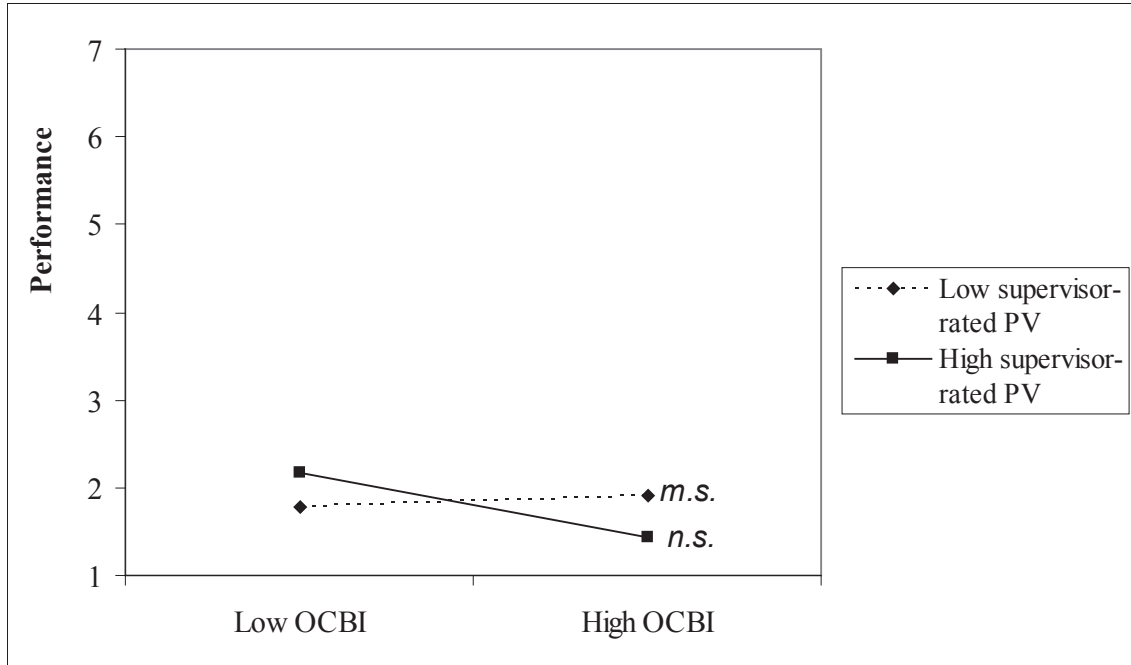


Figure 18

Moderating Effect of Supervisor-Rated Impression Management on the OCBI-Performance Relationship - Pakistan

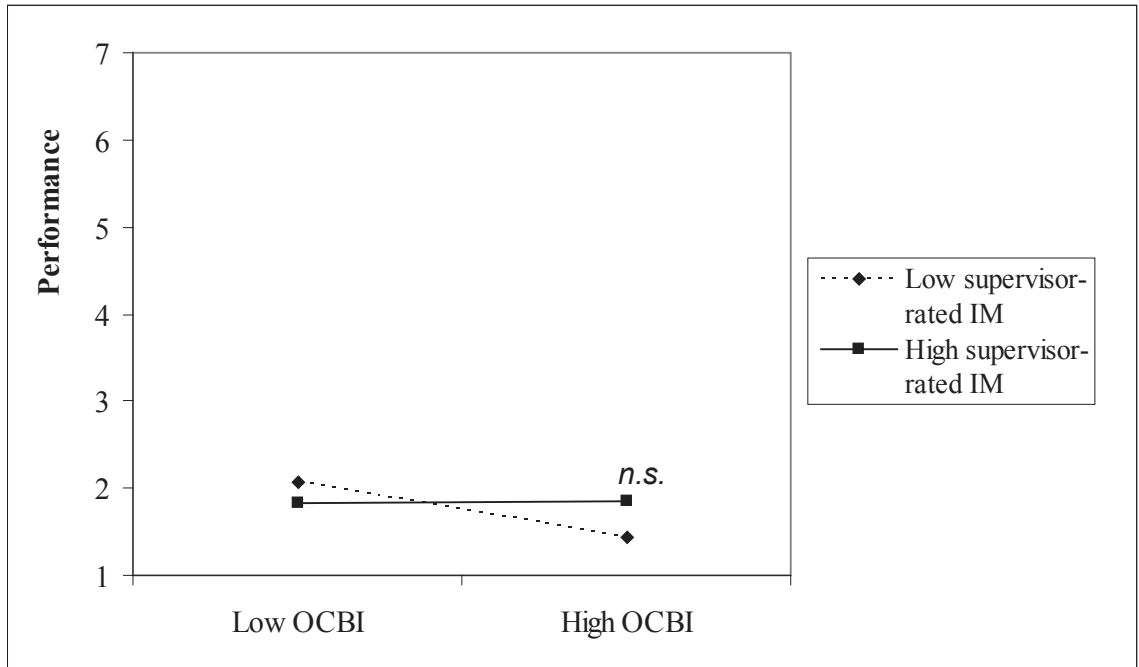


Figure 19

Moderating Effect of Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives on the OCBI-Performance Relationship - Pakistan

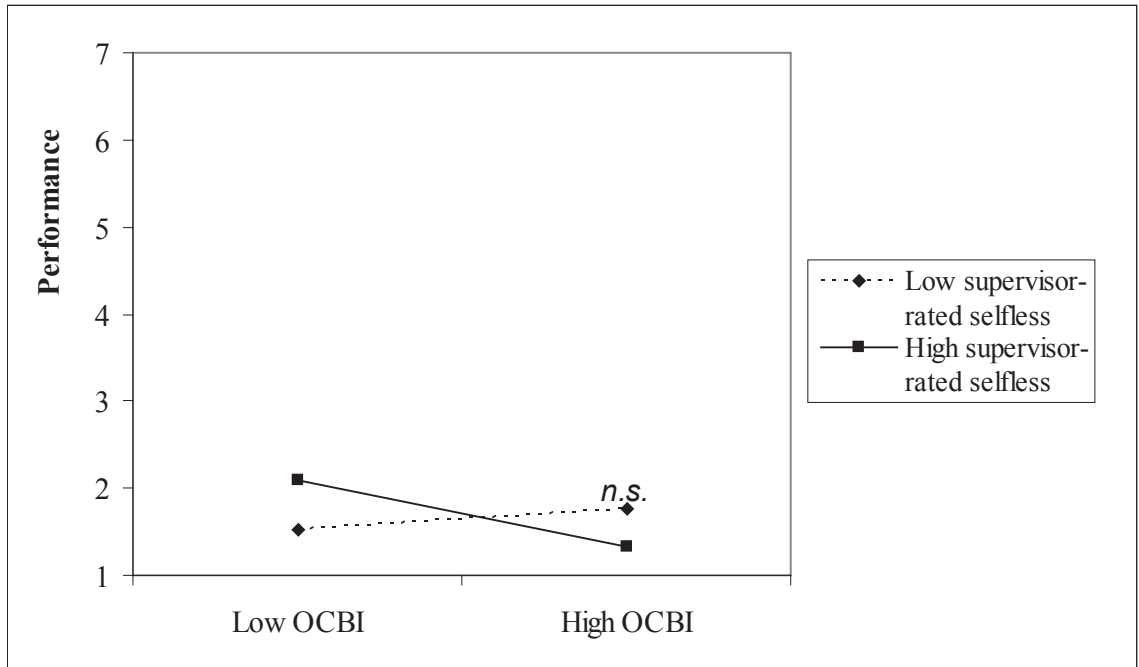


Figure 20

Moderating Effect of Supervisor-Rated Self-Serving Motives on the OCBI-Performance Relationship - Pakistan

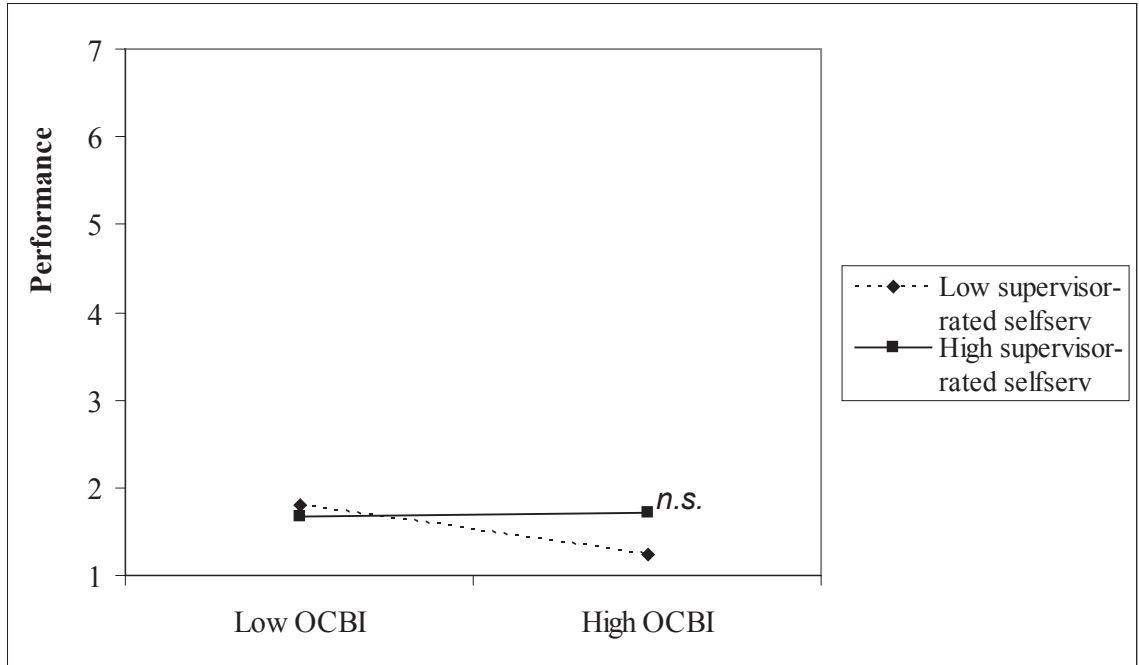


Figure 21

Moderating Effect of Self-Rated Prosocial Values on the OCBO-Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation Relationship - Pakistan

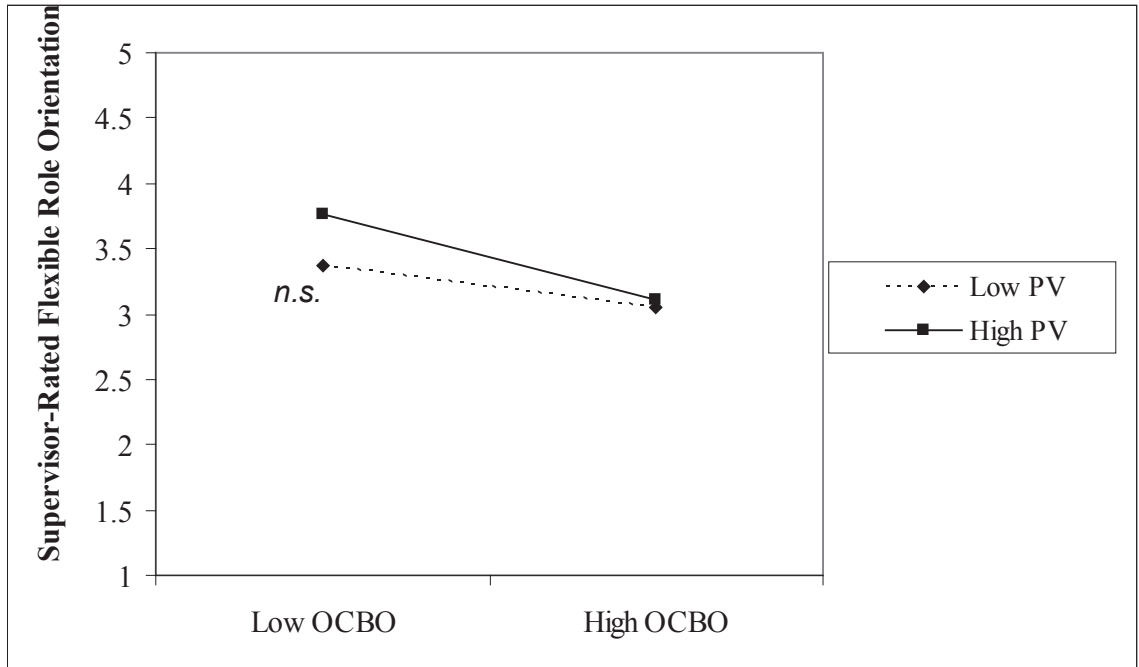


Figure 22

Moderating Effect of Self-Rated Selfless Motives on the OCBO-Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation Relationship - Pakistan

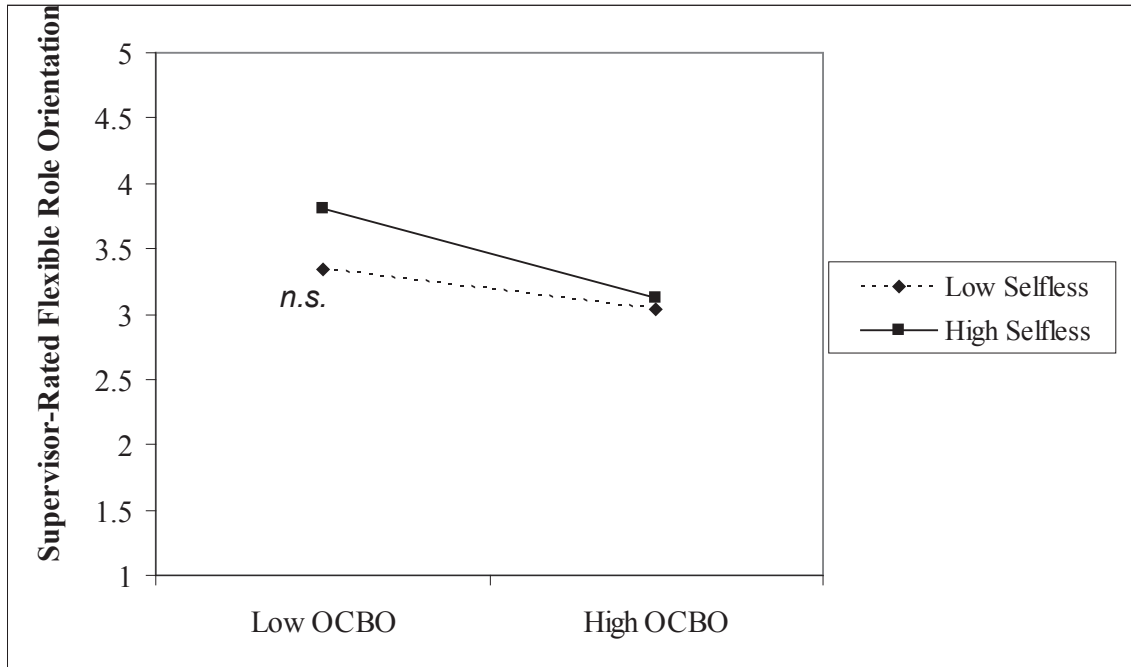


Figure 23

Moderating Effect of Self-Rated Prosocial Values on the OCBO-Performance Relationship - Pakistan

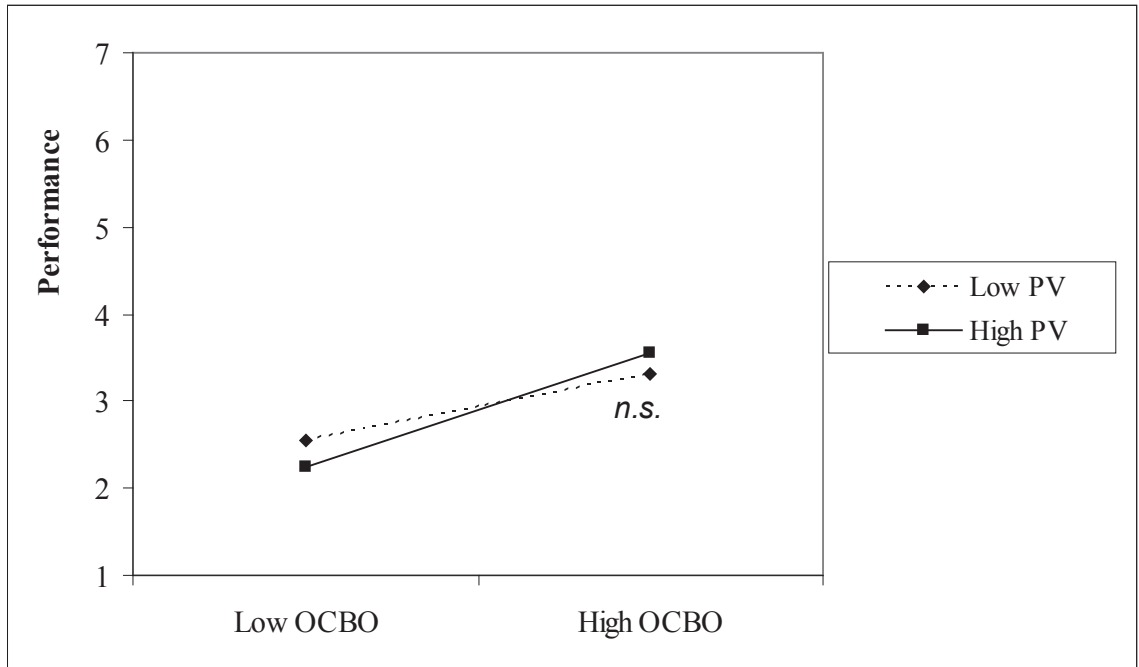


Figure 24

Moderating Effect of Self-Rated Organizational Concern on the OCBO-Performance Relationship - Pakistan

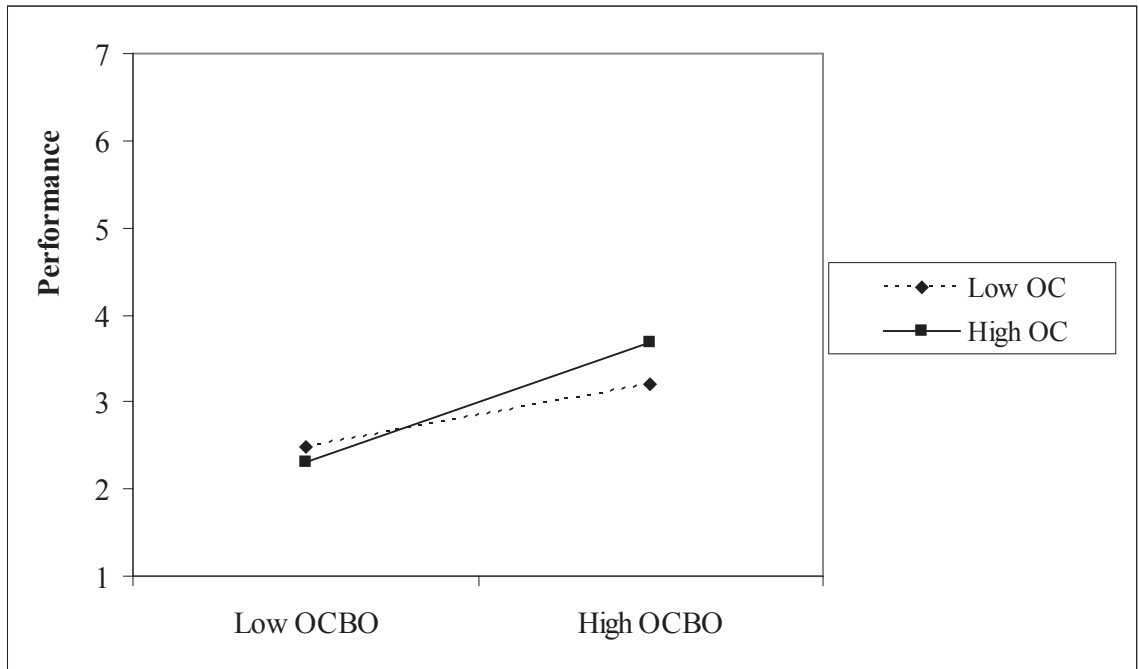


Figure 25

Moderating Effect of Self-Rated Selfless Motives on the OCBO-Performance Relationship - Pakistan

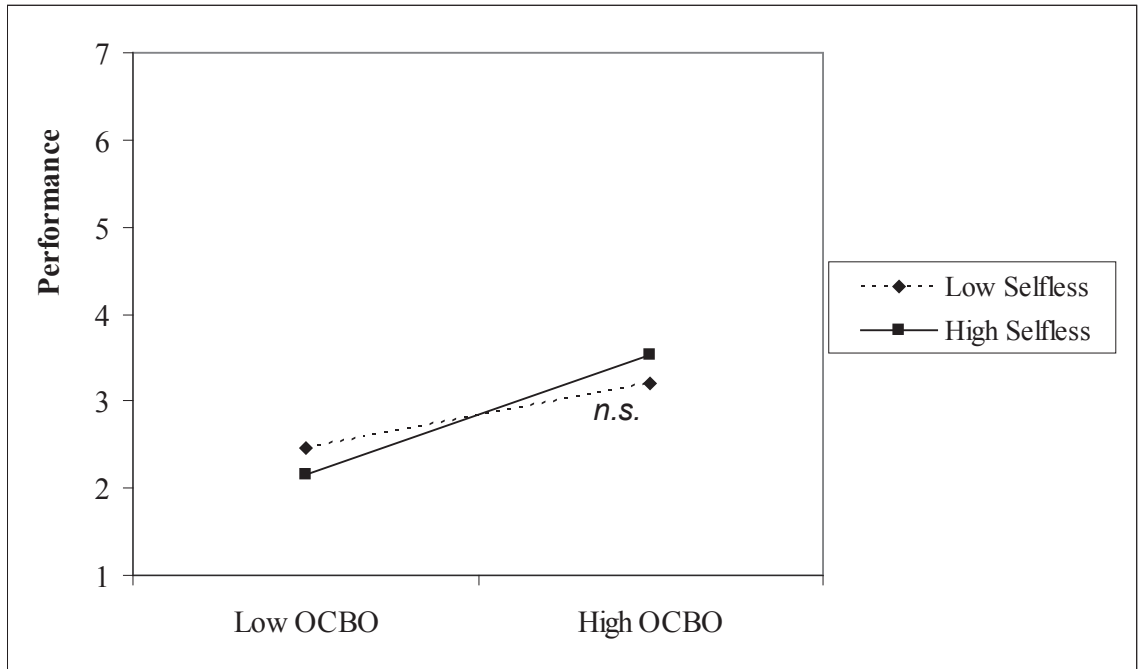


Figure 26

Moderating Effect of Self-Rated Prosocial Values on the OCBI-Performance Relationship - Pakistan

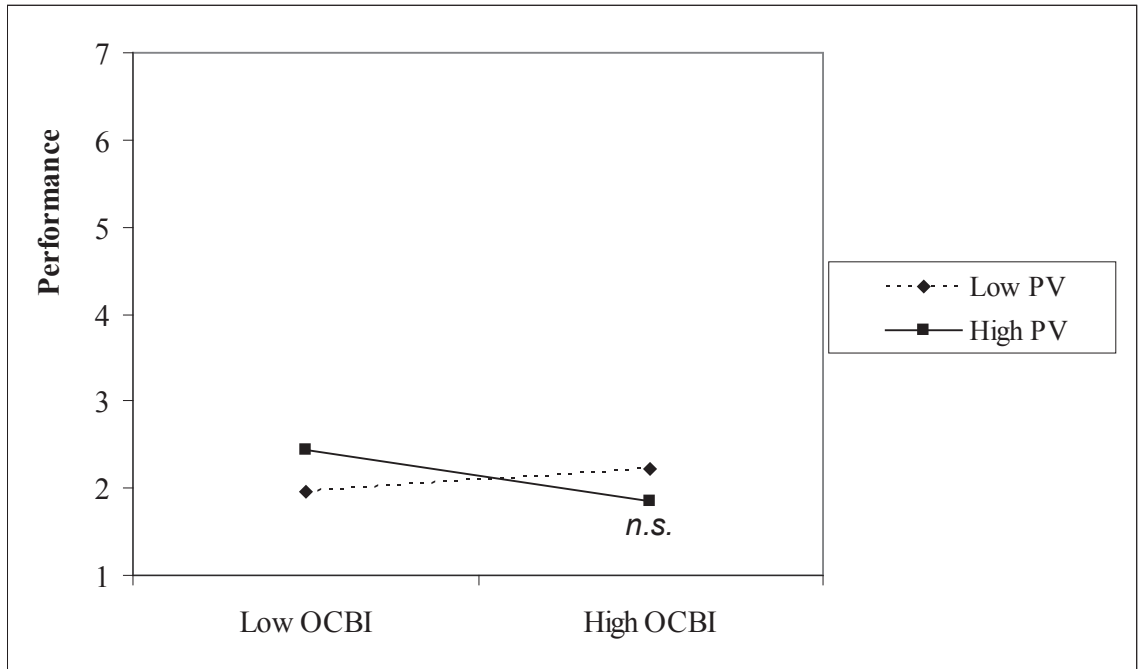


Figure 27

Moderating Effect of Self-Rated Selfless Motives on the OCBI-Performance Relationship - Pakistan

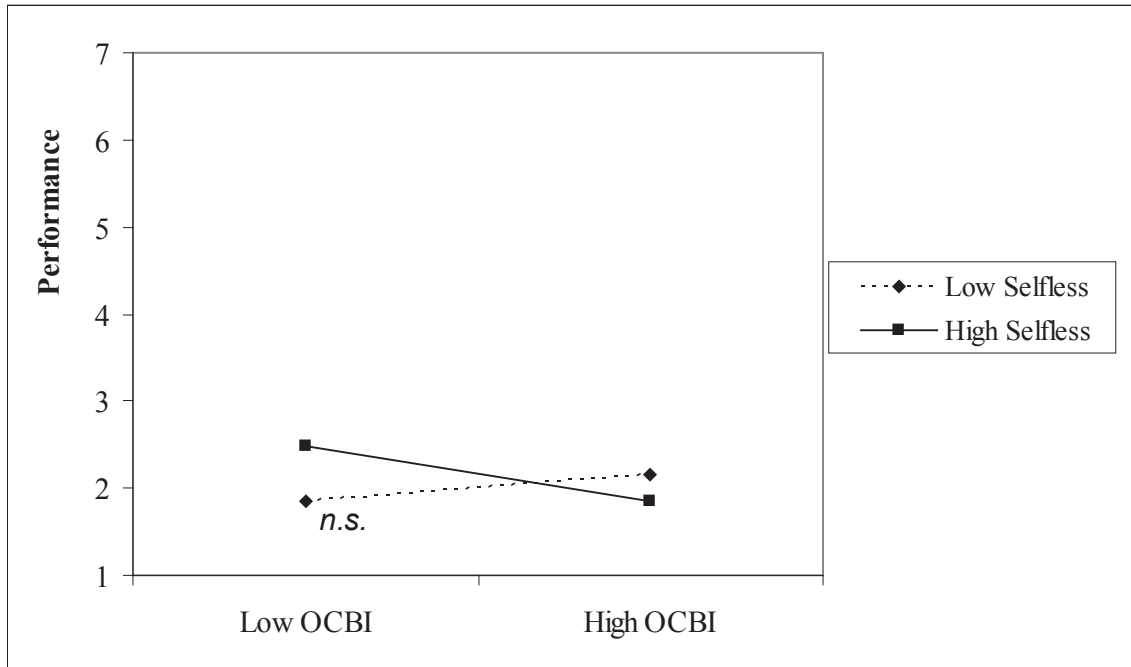


Figure 28

Moderating Effect of Frequency of Supervisor Contact on the Self- and Supervisor-Report Affective Commitment Relationship - Pakistan

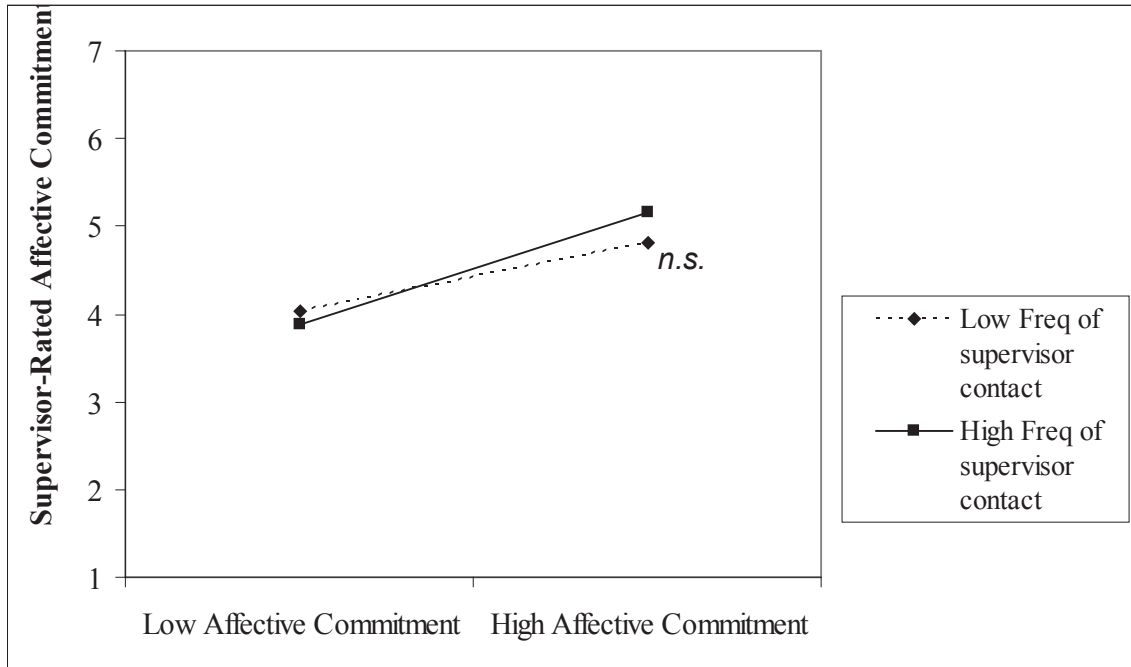


Figure 29

Path Analysis Results of the Self-Rated-Supervisor-Rated Motives Relationships (3 dimensions) – Canada

Figure 29a- All Self-Report to All Supervisor-Report of Motives

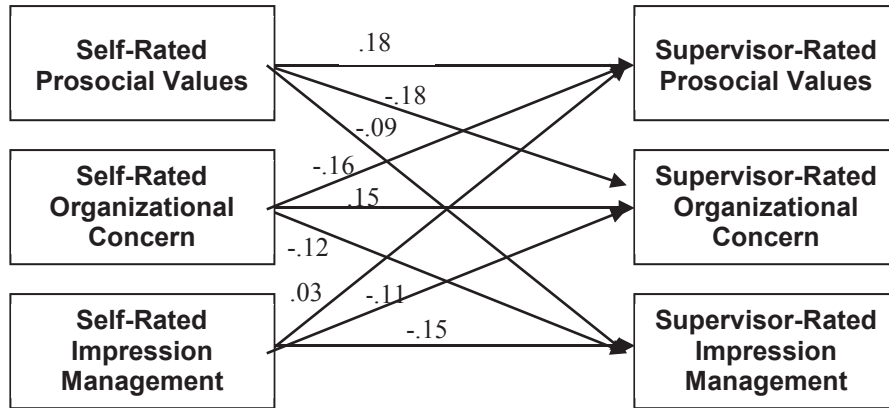


Figure 29b – Only Corresponding Self- and Supervisor-Report of Motives

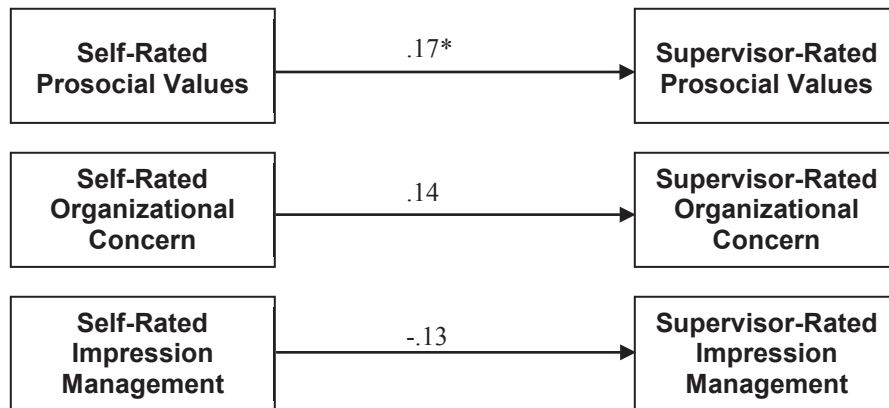


Figure 30

Path Analysis Results of the Self-Rated-Supervisor-Rated Motives Relationships (2 dimensions) – Canada

Figure 30a- All Self-Report to All Supervisor-Report of Motives

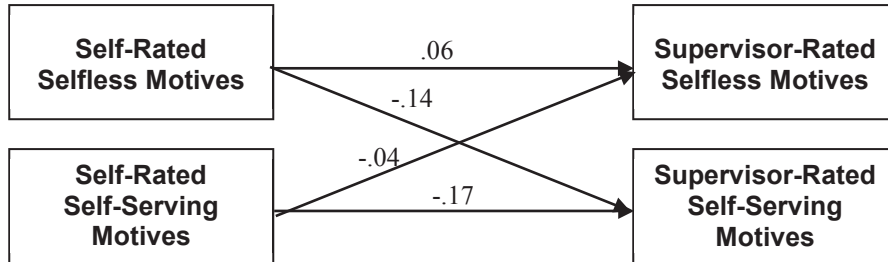


Figure 30b – Only Corresponding Self- and Supervisor-Report of Motives

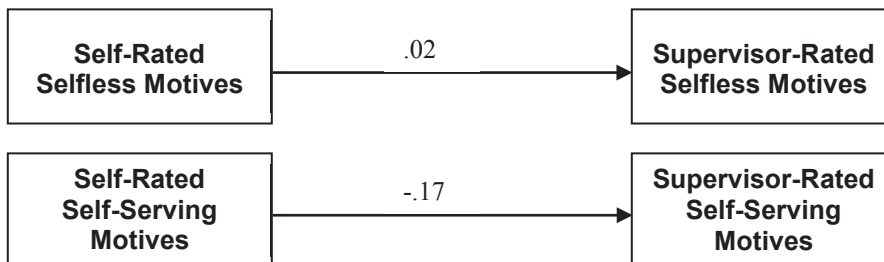
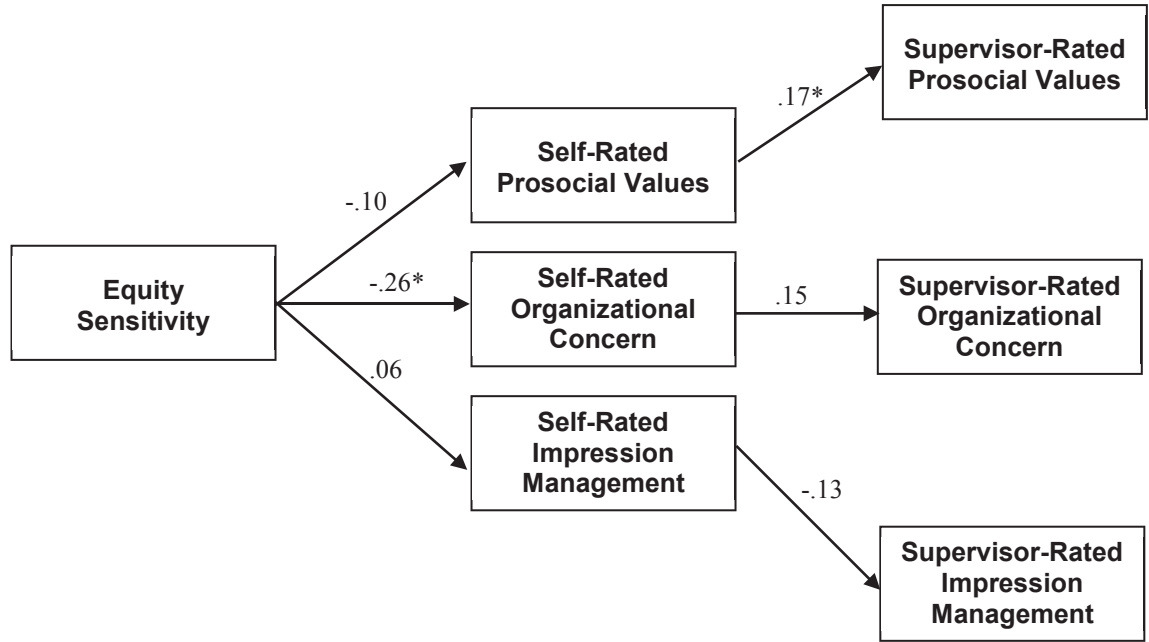


Figure 31

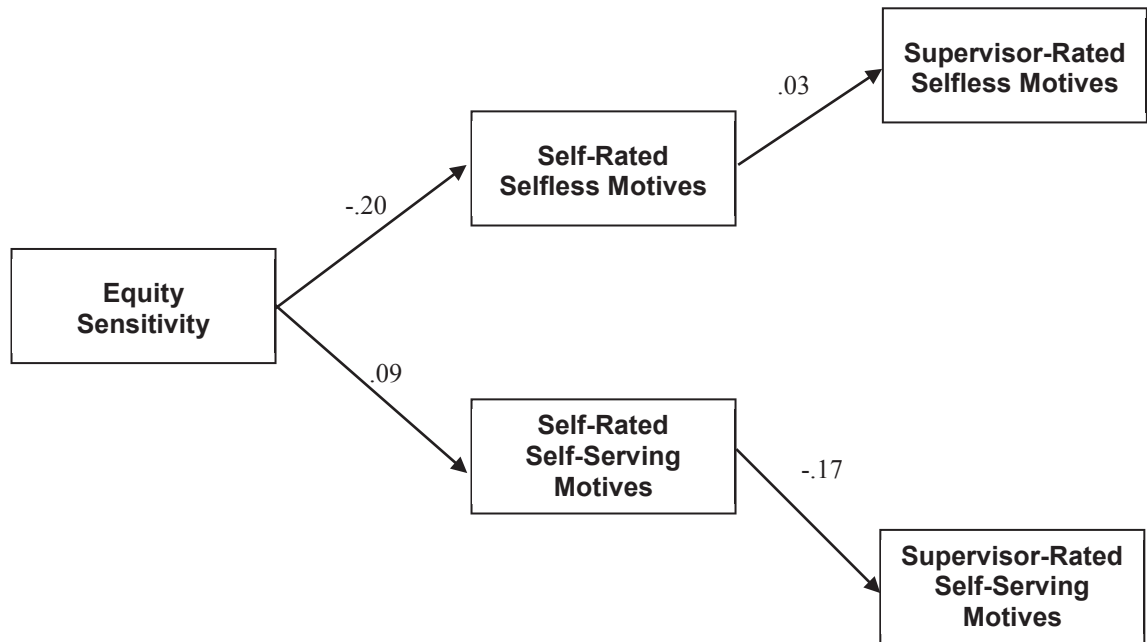
Path Analysis Models for Equity Sensitivity as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (3 dimensions) – Canada



		Fit indices			
$SB\chi^2$	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
33.46	12.00	.00	.57	.62	.14

Figure 32

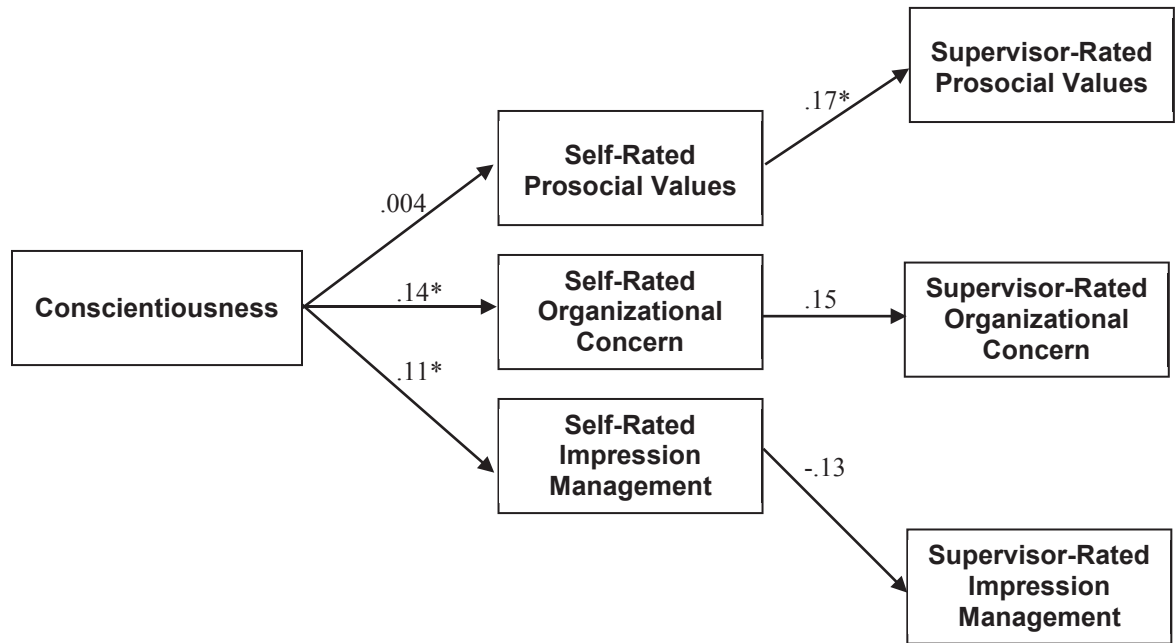
Path Analysis Models for Equity Sensitivity as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (2 dimensions) – Canada



Fit indices					
$SB\chi^2$	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
4.63	5.00	.46	.58	1.00	.00

Figure 33

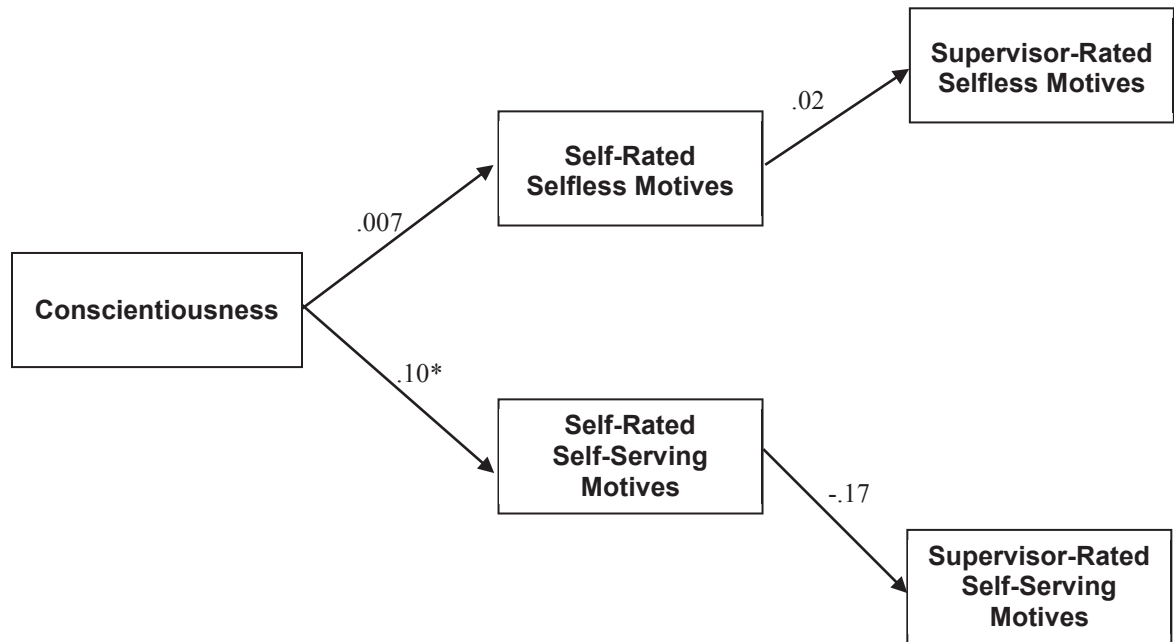
Path Analysis Models for Conscientiousness as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (3 dimensions) – Canada



		Fit indices			
$SB\chi^2$	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
39.99	12.00	.00	.54	.57	.16

Figure 34

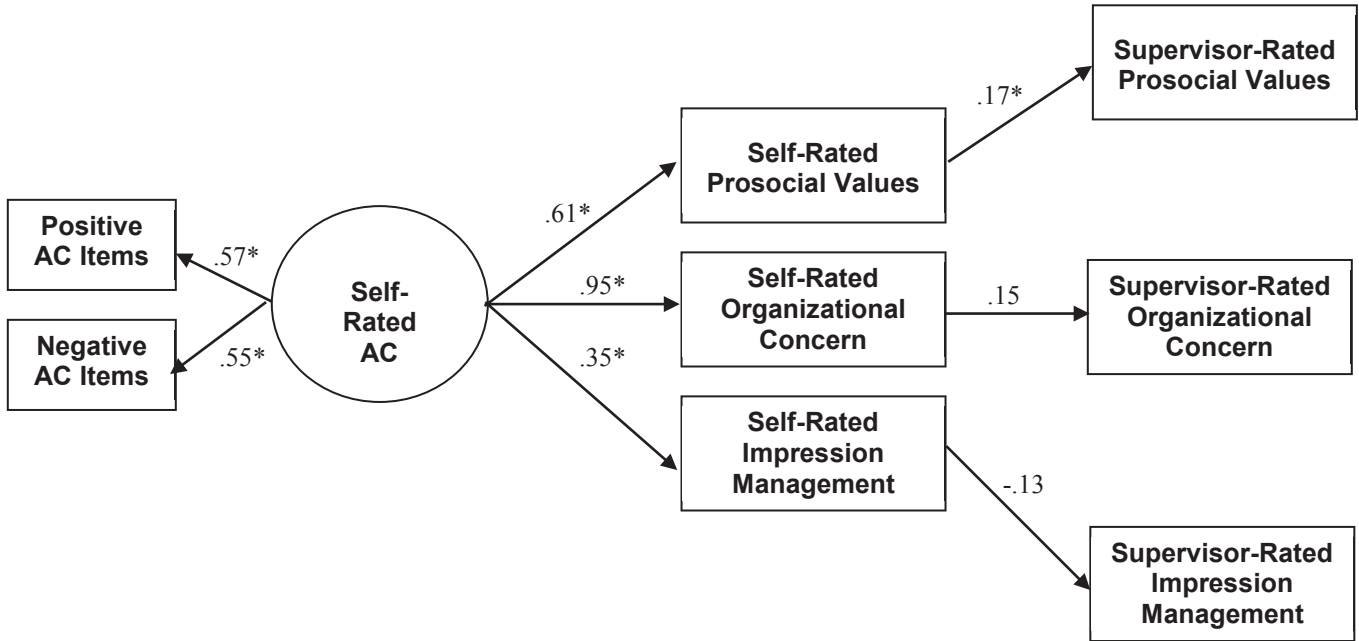
Path Analysis Models for Conscientiousness as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (2 dimensions) – Canada



Fit indices					
$SB\chi^2$	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
5.18	5	.39	.48	1.00	.02

Figure 35

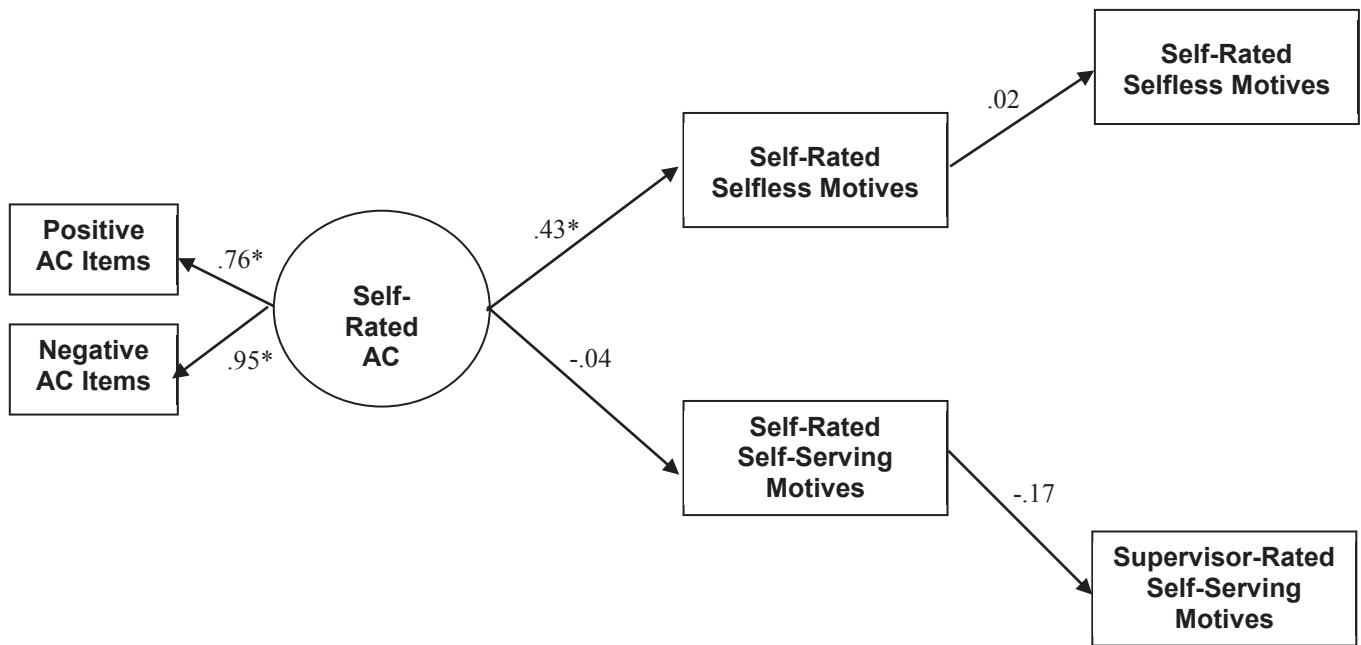
Path Analysis Models for Affective Commitment as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (3 dimensions) – Canada



		Fit indices			
SB χ^2	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
43.24	16.00	.00	.74	.80	.14

Figure 36

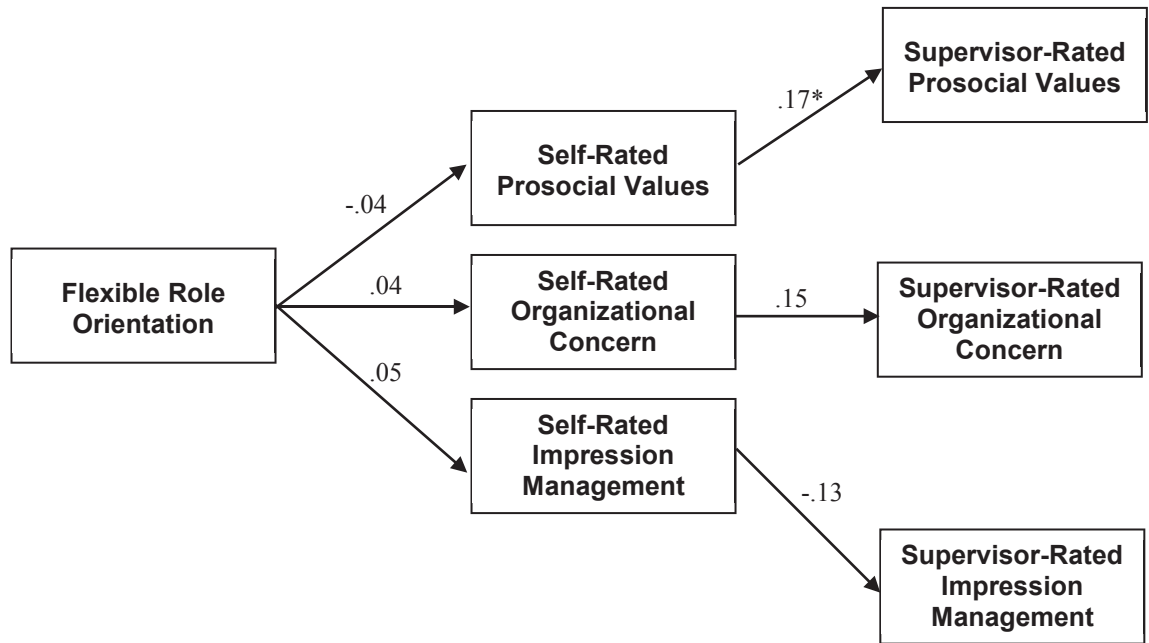
Path Analysis Models for Affective Commitment as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (2 dimensions) – Canada



Fit indices					
$SB\chi^2$	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
9.09	7.00	.25	.88	.92	.06

Figure 37

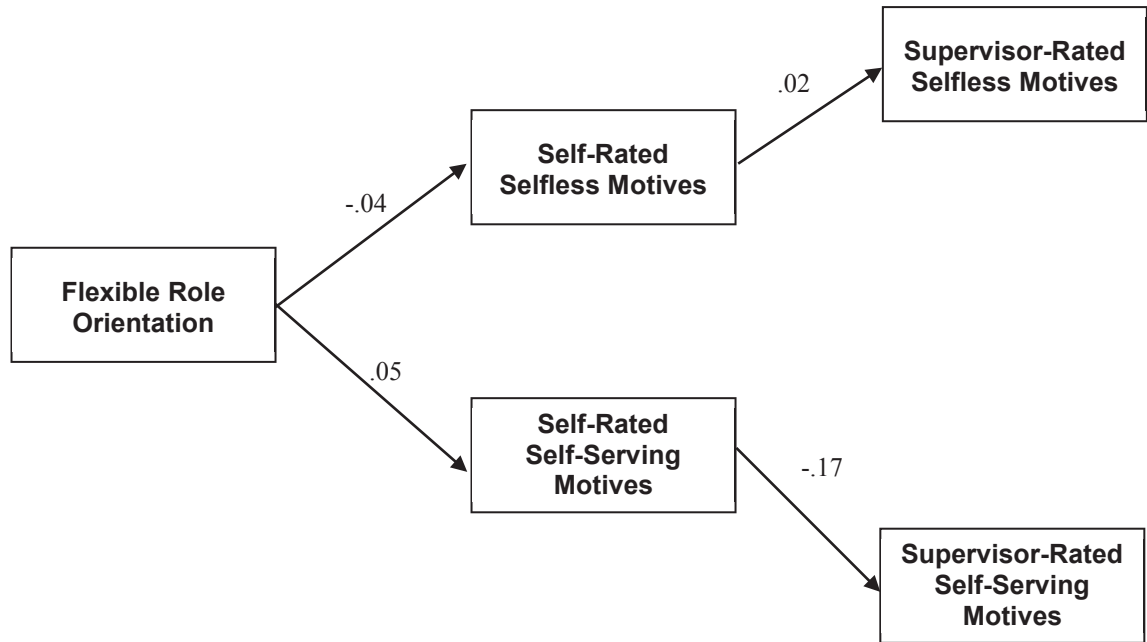
Path Analysis Models for Flexible Role Orientation as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (3 dimensions) – Canada



		Fit indices			
$SB\chi^2$	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
38.08	12.00	.00	.55	.59	.16

Figure 38

Path Analysis Models for Flexible Role Orientation as a Predictor of Supervisor-Rated Motives (2 dimensions) – Canada



Fit indices					
SBχ^2	DF	sig.	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
4.54	5.00	.47	.49	.55	.00

Figure 39

Moderating Effect of Supervisor-Rated Prosocial Values on the OCBO-Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment Relationship - Canada

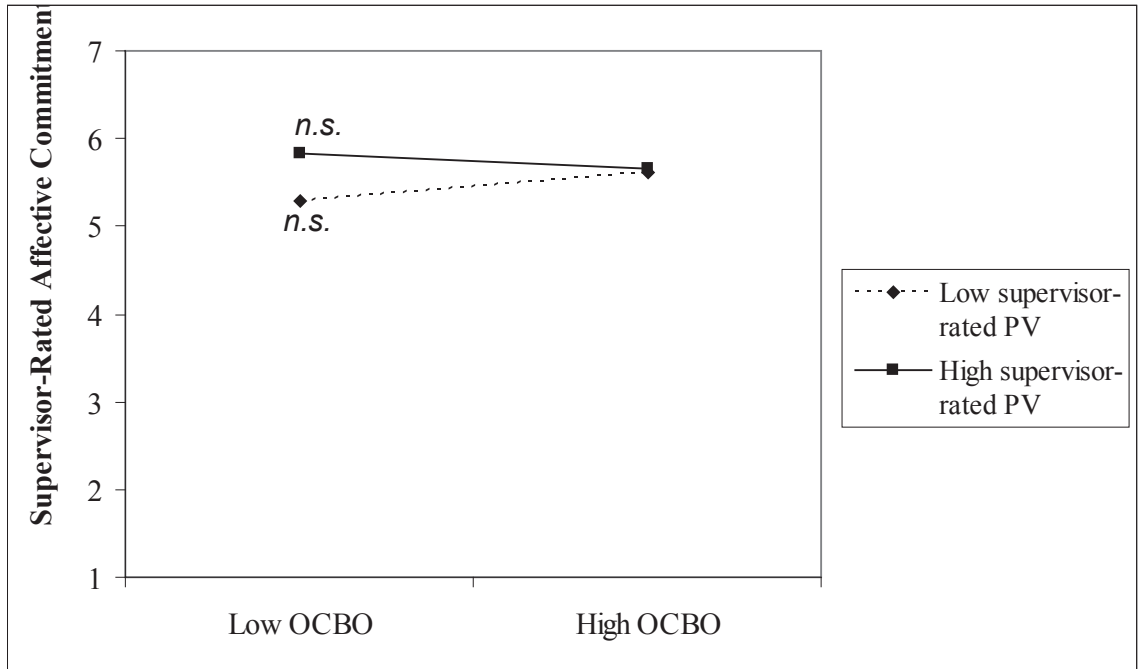


Figure 40

Moderating Effect of Supervisor-Rated Organizational Concern on the OCBO-Performance Relationship - Canada

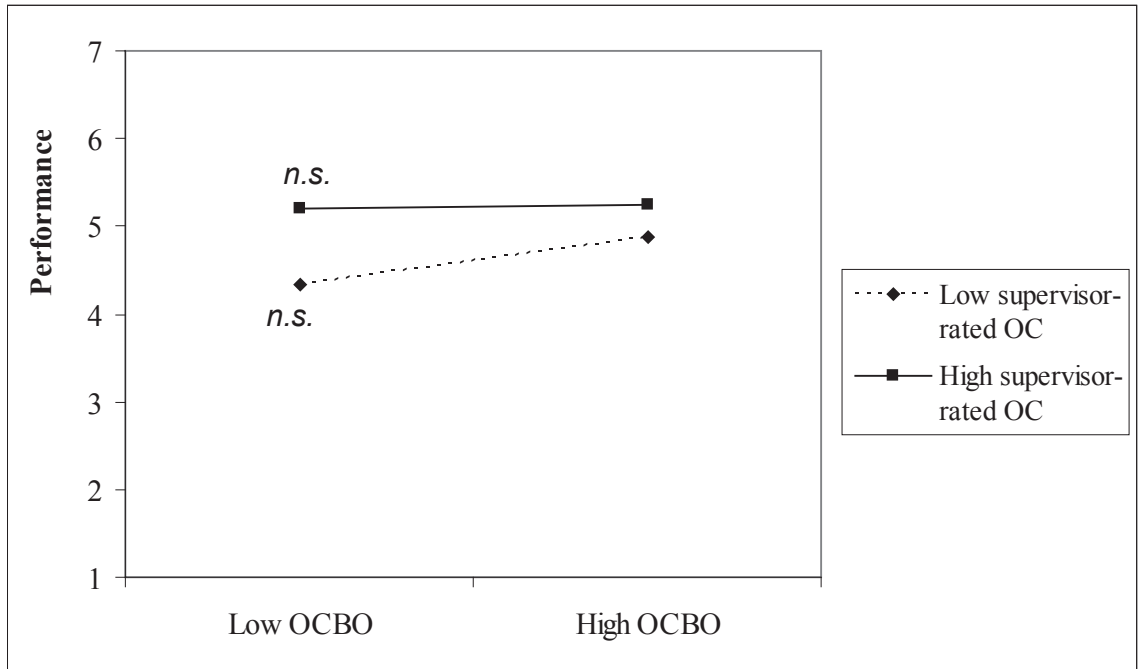


Figure 41

Moderating Effect of Supervisor-Rated Impression Management on the OCBI-Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment Relationship - Canada

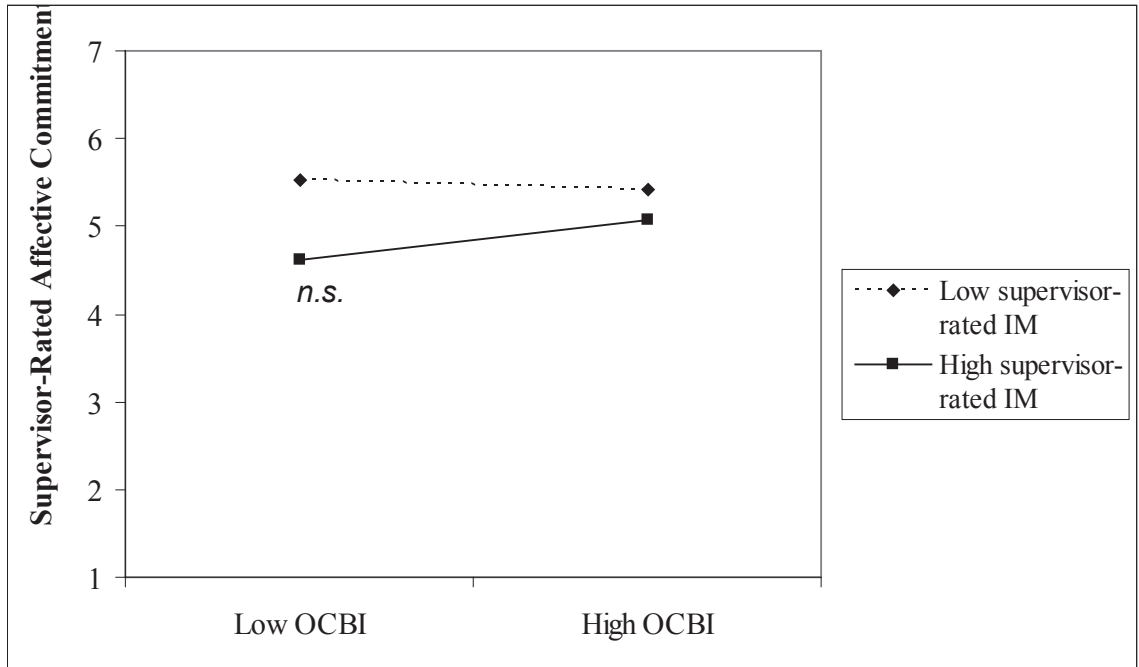


Figure 42

Moderating Effect of Supervisor-Rated Prosocial Values on the OCBI-Performance Relationship - Canada

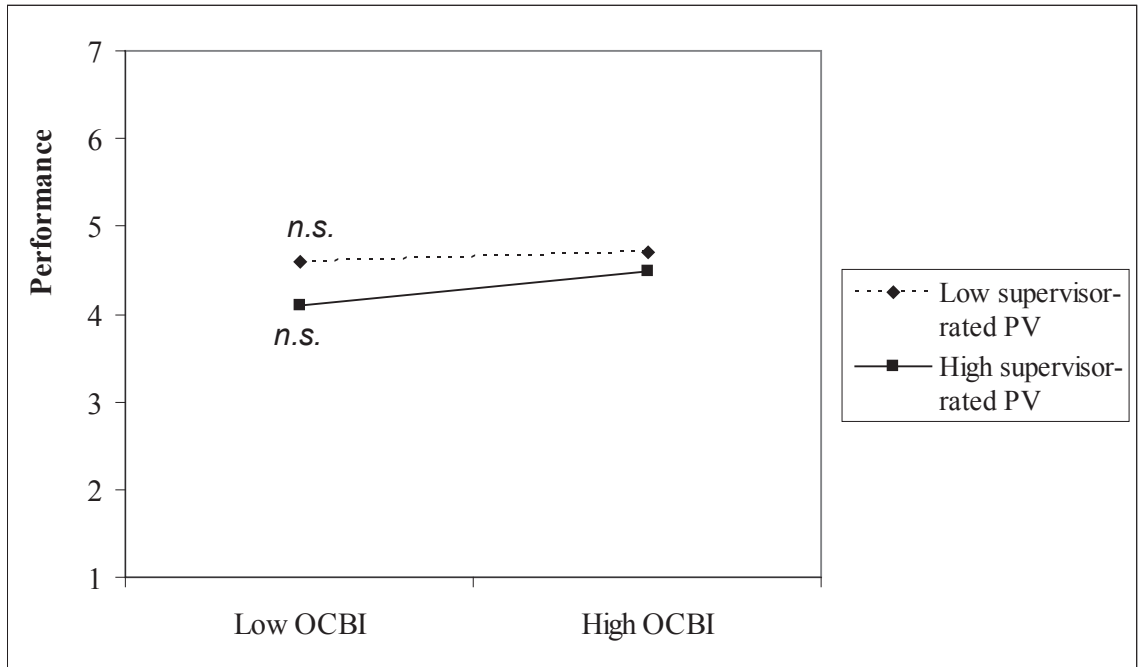


Figure 43

Moderating Effect of Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives on the OCBI-Performance Relationship - Canada

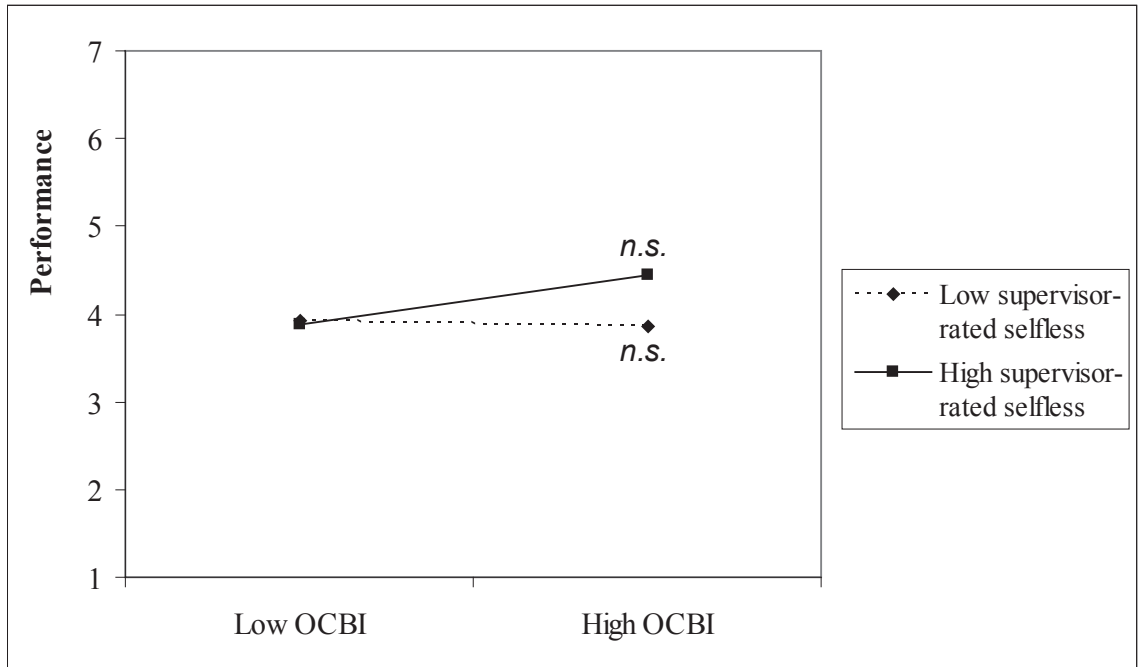


Figure 44

Moderating Effect of Self-Rated Selfless Motives on the OCBI-Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation Relationship - Canada

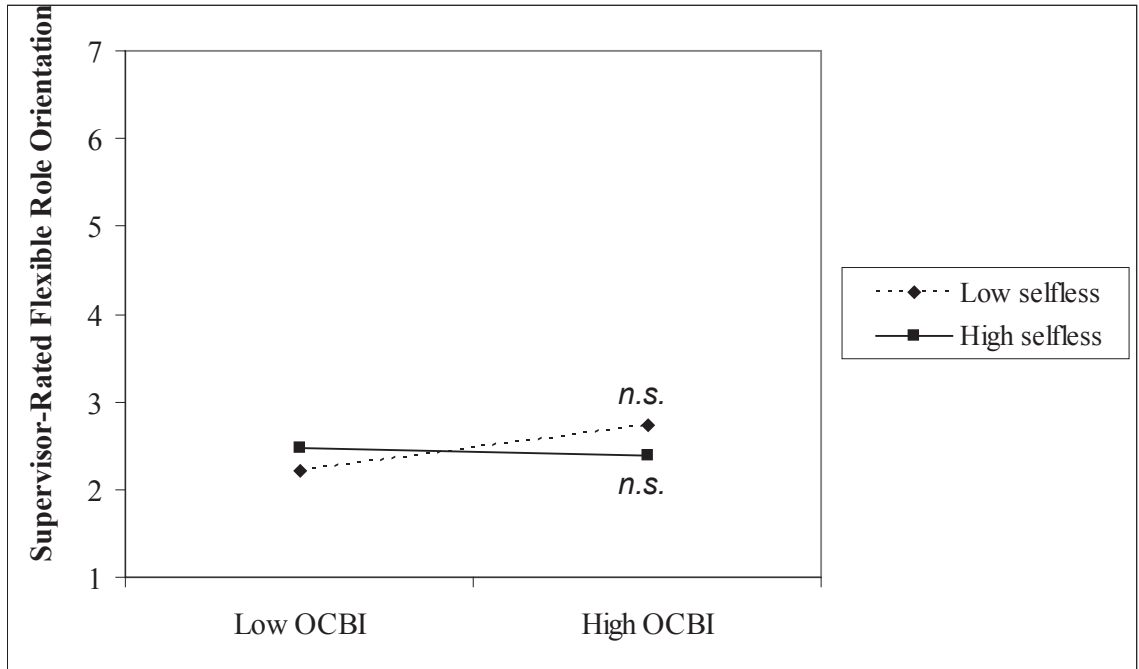


Table 1
CFA Results of Measures – Pakistan

Construct	S-By2	df	NFI	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA	α
OCBS dimensionality							
OCBO & OCBI (original items) - 2 dimensions	524.59	76	.54	.49	.57	.17	
OCBO (4 items; 1,2,6,7) & OCBI (3 items; 1,2,3) - 1 dimension	77.97	14	.69	.58	.72	.15	
OCBO (4 items; 1,2,6,7) & OCBI (3 items; 1,2,3) - 2 dimensions	17.88	13	.93	.97	.98	.04	
Motives - 3 dimensions							
OC - self (original 10 items)	63.26	35	.87	.92	.94	.07	.86
OC -self - (7 items; 1,2,3,4,5,9,10)	17.72	14	.94	.98	.99	.04	.82
OC - supervisor (original 10 items)	92.19	35	.77	.80	.84	.09	.81
OC - supervisor (7 items)	27.75	14	.87	.90	.93	.07	.75
IM -self - (original 10 items)	74.80	35	.81	.86	.89	.08	.79
IM - self (5 items; 1,2,4,5,7)	2.85	5	.98	1.04	1.00	.00	.77
IM - supervisor (original 10 items)	91.91	35	.74	.76	.82	.09	.77
IM -supervisor (5 items)	3.43	5	.97	1.03	1.00	.00	.72
PV - self (original 10 items)	48.75	35	.91	.96	.97	.97	.84
PV - self (8 items; 1,2,3,4,5,6,8,9)	16.05	20	.96	1.01	1.00	.00	.88
PV - supervisor (original 10 items)	43.35	35	.88	.97	.97	.04	.77
PV - supervisor (8 items)	20.61	20	.93	1.00	1.00	.01	.83
Dimensionality of 3 motives							
3 Motives - self - 1 dimension	427.10	170	.72	.79	.81	.09	
Motives - self - 3 dimensions (16 errors correlated & 1 cross loading)	242.17	150	.84	.91	.93	.06	
Motives - supervisor - 1 dimension	506.01	170	.59	.64	.67	.10	
Motives - supervisor - 3 dimensions (16 errors & 1 factor correlated)	308.28	150	.75	.81	.85	.07	
Motives - 2 dimensions							
Selfless motives - self (PV1,PV2,PV4,PV5,PV6,PV8,OC2,OC10)	20.88	20	.95	1.00	1.00	.02	.87
Selfless motives - supervisor (same 8 items)	24.29	20	.91	.98	.98	.03	.81
Self-serving motives - self (IM1,IM2,IMA3,IM4,IM5,IM7)	4.69	9	.98	1.04	1.00	.00	.80
Self-serving motives - supervisor (same 6 items)	4.96	9	.97	1.05	1.00	.00	.75
Dimensionality of 2 motives							
Motives - self - 1 dimension	187.76	77	.79	.84	.86	.09	
Motives - self - 2 dimensions	105.88	76	.88	.96	.96	.05	
Motives - supervisor - 1 dimension	215.87	77	.65	.69	.74	.10	
Motives - supervisor - 2 dimensions	110.64	76	.82	.92	.93	.05	
Motives Scale Comparison - 3 vs. 2 dimensions							
Motives - self - 3 dimensions	242.17	150	.84	.91	.93	.06	
Motives - self - 2 dimensions	105.88	76	.88	.96	.96	.05	
Motives - supervisor - 3 dimensions	308.28	150	.75	.81	.85	.07	
Motives - supervisor - 2 dimensions	110.64	76	.82	.92	.93	.05	

Table 1
CFA Results of Measures - Pakistan (Cont'd)

Construct	S-Bχ^2	df	NFI	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA	α
Affective commitment							
a commitment - self - 1 dimension (all)	25.93	9	.87	.85	.91	.10	.78
2nd order factor - self (1,2,6 and 3R,4R,5R)	1.90	6	.99	1.05	1.00	.00	
a commitment - supervisor - 1 dimension (all)	37.38	9	.82	.76	.86	.13	.78
2nd order factor - supervisor (1,2,6 and 3R,4R,5R)	3.06	6	.99	1.04	1.00	.00	
Flexible Role Orientation							
FRO - self - 1 dimension (all)	62.36	27	.91	.93	.95	.08	.89
FRO - self - 1 dimension (4 items; 1,2,3,6)	5.93	2	.98	.96	.99	.10	.81
FRO - supervisor - 1 dimension (all)	254.22	27	.67	.59	.69	.21	.81
FRO - supervisor - 1 dimension (4 items; 1,2,3,6)	9.86	2	.94	.86	.95	.14	.75
Equity Sensitivity							
EPQ - self (original 9 items)	112.06	27	.75	.72	.79	.13	.80
EPQ - self - (revised 4 items; 1,2,3,7)	3.09	2	.10	.98	.99	.05	.73
Conscientiousness							
Conscientiousness - self - original 1 dimension (all items)	92.25	27	.70	.68	.76	.11	.76
2nd order factor - self (1,3,6,7,8 and 2R,4R,5R,9R)	23.98	24	.92	1.00	1.00	.00	
Leader Member Exchange							
lmx - 1 factor	2.39	5	.98	1.04	1.00	.00	.75
Performance							
performance - supervisor (1,2,4,5,6)	5.10	5	.99	1.00	1.00	.01	.82
Construct							
reward recommendations - 1 dimension	1.49	5	.99	1.05	1.00	.00	.81

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Reliabilities - Pakistan

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	
1 Gender (self-rated)	1.18	.38	-																												
2 Education (self-rated)	2.28	.56	.01	-																											
3 Org. Tenure (self-rated)	35.71	21.11	-.02	-.10	-																										
4 Tenure w/ Supervisor (self-rated)	18.05	15.79	.13	-.08	.37**	-																									
5 Frequency of Supervisor Contact (self-rated)	5.45	1.57	-.06	-.03	.01	-.09	-																								
6 LMX (self-rated)	2.95	.60	-.01	.05	.03	-.08	.32**	(.75)																							
7 AC (self-rated)	5.16	1.12	.10	.11	-.20**	-.09	.35**	.19**	(.78)																						
8 FRO (self-rated)	2.79	.99	.02	-.09	.04	-.01	.21**	.08	.13	(.81)																					
9 Equity Sensitivity (self-rated)	2.23	.83	.00	-.13	.10	-.07	-.33**	-.13	-.41**	.01	(.73)																				
10 Conscientiousness (self-rated)	3.92	.55	-.02	.19**	-.18*	-.03	.20**	.09	.55**	.05	-.34**	(.76)																			
11 Prosocial Values (self-rated)	4.39	.89	-.01	.22**	-.26**	-.03	.11	.15*	.38**	.10	-.17*	.34**	(.88)																		
12 Organizational Concern (self-rated)	4.48	.88	.07	.28**	-.24**	-.02	.16*	.20**	.58**	.09	-.26**	.36**	.79**	(.82)																	
13 Impression Management (self-rated)	3.98	1.02	.02	.23**	-.03	.08	.09	.10	.12	-.07	-.05	.03	.49**	.47**	(.77)																
14 Selfless motive (self-rated)	4.47	.88	.02	.24**	-.26**	-.02	.13	.16*	.48**	.11	-.22**	.41**	.96**	.85**	.47**	(.87)															
15 Self-serving motive (self-rated)	3.98	1.01	.00	.24**	-.03	.07	.10	.10	.15*	-.02	-.05	.06	.56**	.52**	.98**	.53**	(.80)														
16 Org time (self-rated)	3.67	1.17	-.16*	.01	.10	-.07	.17*	.13	-.11	-.06	.05	-.22**	-.11	-.11	.09	-.13	.08	(.43)													
17 Own time (self-rated)	4.37	1.26	-.02	.00	-.02	.04	.32**	.22**	.18*	.28**	-.08	.10	.16*	.14	-.07	.19**	-.04	.35**	(.60)												
18 AC (supervisor-rated)	5.24	1.02	.17*	.07	-.09	.03	.18*	.14	.49**	.09	-.22**	.31**	.29**	.34**	.09	.34**	.08	-.06	.07	(.78)											
19 FRO (supervisor-rated)	3.06	.86	.05	-.24**	.02	-.08	.17*	-.08	.09	.31**	-.13	.09	.01	.00	-.12	.00	-.09	-.14	.17*	.09	(.75)										
20 Prosocial Values (supervisor-rated)	4.27	.77	.10	.16*	-.15*	.08	.07	.06	.32**	.16*	-.17*	.32**	.65**	.50**	.21**	.64**	.26**	-.07	.13	.43**	.03	(.83)									
21 Organizational Concern (supervisor-rated)	4.37	.75	.21**	.14*	-.09	.11	.11	.08	.36**	.12	-.17*	.23**	.47**	.59**	.19**	.51**	.23**	-.01	.18*	.55**	.12	.68**	(.75)								
22 Impression Management (supervisor-rated)	3.72	.97	.04	.08	.13	.03	.04	-.03	.00	-.01	.03	.01	.19**	.20**	.57**	.20**	.53**	.09	-.05	-.04	.04	.31**	.30**	(.72)							
23 Selfless motive (supervisor-rated)	4.32	.76	.13	.14*	-.13	.09	.10	.09	.36**	.18*	-.22**	.34**	.64**	.55**	.21**	.68**	.26**	-.11	.17*	.49**	.12	.94**	.80**	.30**	(.81)						
24 Self-serving motive (supervisor-rated)	3.74	.93	.02	.11	.15*	.04	.04	-.03	.01	.02	.03	.01	.25**	.25**	.57**	.26**	.56**	.11	-.03	-.01	.04	.37**	.35**	.98**	.36**	(.75)					
25 OCBO (supervisor-rated)	3.15	.70	-.04	.13	-.14	-.03	.02	.47**	.20**	-.11	-.04	.20**	.32**	.30**	.18*	.34**	.19**	.12	.09	.25**	-.27**	.20**	.22**	.07	.20**	.08	(.70)				
26 OCBI (supervisor-rated)	2.97	.75	-.02	-.19**	.11	-.05	.14	.42**	.07	.22**	.01	-.02	-.09	-.05	-.11	-.07	-.12	.17*	.21**	.12	.25**	-.06	.07	.06	-.02	.07	.32**	(.76)			
27 Performance (supervisor-rated)	3.87	1.01	-.07	.15*	.12	.14	.12	.30**	.02	-.18*	-.01	-.05	.19**	.20**	.22**	.19**	.23**	.44**	.13	.07	-.41**	.13	.17*	.10	.11	.12	.52**	.00	(.82)		
28 Reward Recommendations (supervisor-rated)	3.32	.68	-.02	.08	.02	.10	-.02	.48**	.14	-.11	.00	.07	.17*	.14	.14*	.18*	.15*	.13	.01	.23**	-.35**	.15*	.12	-.10	.15*	-.09	.65**	.24**	.59**	(.81)	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 3
ICC(1) of Supervisor-Rated Measures - Pakistan

Measure	ICC(1)
OCBO	-0.03
OCBI	-0.03
Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment	0.03
Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation	-0.03
Supervisor-Rated Prosocial Values	-0.02
Supervisor-Rated Organizational Concern	-0.02
Supervisor-Rated Impression Management	-0.01
Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives	-0.02
Supervisor-Rated Self-Serving Motives	0.00
Performance	-0.03
Reward Recommendations	-0.02

Table 4
Results of Regression Analyses for Citizenship Motives (3 dimensions) as Predictors of Time Allocation - Pakistan

Predictors	Org. Time			Own Time		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1						
Gender	-.15*			.00		
Education	.02			.00		
Org. Tenure	.10			-.03		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.13+			.28**		
LMX	.08	.07*		.13+	.12**	
Step 2						
Prosocial Values	-.13			.23+		
Organizational Concern	-.14			.00		
Impression Management	.19*	.11**	.05*	-.22**	.17**	.05*

Note: $N = 187-196$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 5
Results of Regression Analyses for Citizenship Motives (2 dimensions) as Predictors of Time Allocation - Pakistan

Predictors	Org. Time			Own Time		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1						
Gender	-.15*			.00		
Education	.02			.00		
Org. Tenure	.10			-.03		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.13+			.28**		
LMX	.08	.07*		0.13+	.12**	
Step 2						
Selfless Motive	-.26**			.27**		
Self-serving Motive	.20*	.11**	.05**	-.22**	.17**	.05**

Note: $N = 187-196$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 6**Summary of Path Analyses Comparing the Relationship between Self-Rated and Supervisor-Rated Motives (3 dimensions) - Pakistan**

Models	Fit indices				
	SBχ^2	DF	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
Relationships among All Motives	42.76	3.00	.90	.90	.26
Relationships Only among Corresponding Motives	6.18	6.00	.99	1.00	.01

Table 7**Summary of Path Analyses Comparing the Relationship between Self-Rated and Supervisor-Rated Motives (2 dimensions) - Pakistan**

Models	Fit indices				
	SBχ^2	DF	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
Relationships among All Motives	7.60	1.00	.95	.96	.18
Relationships only among Corresponding Motives	2.48	2.00	.99	1.00	.04

Table 8
Results of Regression Analyses for Disposition and Attitudes as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated OCB Motives (3 dimensions) - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Prosocial Values			Supervisor-Rated Organizational Concern			Supervisor-Rated Impression Management		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	-.04			.15**			-.02		
Education	.05			.03			.04		
Org. Tenure	-.11*			.00			.19**		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.01			.06			.03		
LMX	.01			.03			-.07		
Other Supervisor-Rated Motive ^a	.63**			.62**			.23*		
Other Supervisor-Rated Motive ^a	.14*	.49**		.10	.49**		.16	.15**	
Step 2									
Equity Sensitivity	-.03			-.02			.08		
Conscientiousness	.16*			-.07			-.04		
Affective Commitment	-.01			.19**			-.07		
Flexible Role Orientation	.10+	.52**	.03*	.01	.51**	.02+	-.08	.17**	.02

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

^a For each DV, the other two motives, in the same order as listed as DVs (i.e., PV, OC, and IM) are entered as control variables.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 9
Results of Regression Analyses for Disposition and Attitudes as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated OCB Motives (2 dimensions) - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives			Supervisor-Rated Self-Serving Motives		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1						
Gender	.12+			-.02		
Education	.08			.08		
Org. Tenure	-.18**			.21**		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.07			.03		
LMX	.08			-.08		
Other Supervisor-Rated Motive ^a	.37**	.20**		.38**	.18**	
Step 2						
Equity Sensitivity	-.10			.10		
Conscientiousness	.18*			-.07		
Affective Commitment	.18*			-.06		
Flexible Role Orientation	.16*	.34**	.14**	-.06	.21**	.02

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

^a For each DV, the other motive is entered as a control variable.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 10**Results of Regression Analyses for OCBs as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Pakistan**

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	.17*			.06			-.07		
Education	.06			-.23**			.15*		
Org. Tenure	-.08			.00			.13+		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.16*			.21**			.03		
LMX	.09	.08*		-.14+	.11**		.28**	.13**	
Step 2									
OCBI	.06			.37**			-.25**		
OCBO	.25**	.13**	.05**	-.32**	.25**	.14**	.58**	.38**	.25**

Note: $N = 186-196$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 11
Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBO and Supervisor-Rated Motives (3 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	.17*			.06			-.07		
Education	.06			-.23**			.15*		
Org. Tenure	-.08			.00			.13+		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.16*			.21**			.03		
LMX	.09	.08*		-.14+	.11**		.28**	.13**	
Step 2									
OCBO	.15*			-.29**			.51**		
Supervisor-Rated Prosocial Values (PV)	.15+			-.05			-.01		
Supervisor-Rated Organizational Concern (OC)	.47**			.22*			.07		
Supervisor-Rated Impression Management (IM)	-.22**	.40**	.32**	.02	.18**	.08**	.01	.34**	.20**
Step 3									
OCBO x Supervisor-Rated PV	.08	.40**	.01	-.09	.19**	.01	.07	.34**	.00
OCBO x Supervisor-Rated OC	-.02	.40**	.00	-.03	.18**	.00	.14*	.35**	.02*
OCBO x Supervisor-Rated IM	.01	.40**	.00	-.02	.18**	.00	.09	.34**	.01

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 12
Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBI and Supervisor-Rated Motives (3 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	.17*			.06			-.07		
Education	.06			-.23**			.15*		
Org. Tenure	-.08			.00			.13+		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.16*			.21**			.03		
LMX	.09	.08*		-.14+	.11**		.28**	.13**	
Step 2									
OCBI	.10			.30**			-.16*		
Supervisor-Rated Prosocial Values (PV)	.17*			-.01			-.02		
Supervisor-Rated Organizational Concern (OC)	.48**			.12			.18+		
Supervisor-Rated Impression Management (IM)	-.25**	.39**	.31**	-.02	.19**	.09**	.05	.18**	.05+
Step 3									
OCBI x Supervisor-Rated PV	.07	.40**	.01	.26**	.26**	.07**	-.22**	.22**	.05**
OCBI x Supervisor-Rated OC	.02	.39**	.00	.19**	.22**	.03**	-.05	.18**	.00
OCBI x Supervisor-Rated IM	.02	.39**	.00	.11	.20**	.01	.16*	.20**	.02*

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 13
Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBO and Supervisor-Rated Motives (2 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	.17*			.06			-.07		
Education	.06			-.23**			.15*		
Org. Tenure	-.08			.00			.13+		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.16*			.21**			.03		
LMX	.09	.08*		-.14+	.11**		.28**	.13**	
Step 2									
OCBO	.20**			-.28**			.52**		
Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives	.52**			.17*			.00		
Supervisor-Rated Self-Serving Motives	-.23**	.34**	.26*	.02	.18**	.07**	.03	.33**	.20**
Step 3									
OCBO x Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives	.04	.34**	.00	-.04	.18**	.00	.07	.34**	.00
OCBO x Supervisor-Rated Self-Serving Motives	.02	.34**	.00	-.05	.18**	.00	.08	.34**	.01

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 14
Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBI and Supervisor-Rated Motives (2 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	.17*			.06			-.07		
Education	.06			-.23**			.15*		
Org. Tenure	-.08			.00			.13+		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.16*			.21**			.03		
LMX	.09	.08*		-.14+	.11**		.28	.13**	
Step 2									
OCBI	.15			.32**			-.15+		
Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives	.55**			.16*			.05		
Supervisor-Rated Self-Serving Motives	-.23**	.33**	.25**	-.04	.20**	.09**	.09	.16**	.03
Step 3									
OCBI x Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives	.06	.33**	.00	.28**	.27**	.07**	-.26**	.22**	.06**
OCBI x Supervisor-Rated Self-Serving Motives	.00	.33**	.00	.11	.21**	.01	.16*	.18**	.02*

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 15**Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBO and Motives (3 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Pakistan**

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	.17*			.06			-.07		
Education	.06			-.23**			.15*		
Org. Tenure	-.08			.00			.13+		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.16*			.21**			.03		
LMX	.09	.08*		-.14+	.11**		.28**	.13**	
Step 2									
OCBO	.20*			-.27**			.51**		
Prosocial Values (PV)	.10			.15			-.05		
Organizational Concern (OC)	.23*			.07			.06		
Impression Management (IM)	-.12	.19**	.11**	-.14+	.18**	.07**	.11	.34**	.21**
Step 3									
OCBO x PV	.06	.20**	.00	-.13+	.19**	.02+	.15*	.36**	.02*
OCBO x OC	-.06	.20**	.00	-.07	.18**	.00+	.16**	.37**	.03**
OCBO x IM	.02	.19**	.00	-.03	.18**	.00	.09	.35**	.01

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 16

Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBI and Motives (3 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	.17*			.06			-.07		
Education	.06			-.23**			.15*		
Org. Tenure	-.08			.00			.13+		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.16*			.21**			.03		
LMX	.09	.08*		-.14+	.11**		.28**	.13**	
Step 2									
OCBI	.13			.31**			-.11		
Prosocial Values (PV)	.15			.12			.05		
Organizational Concern (OC)	.23+			.05			.08		
Impression Management (IM)	-.10	0.18**	.10**	-.12	.20**	.09**	.11	0.18**	.05*
Step 3									
OCBI x PV	.05	.18**	.00	.10	.21**	.01	-.21**	.22**	.04**
OCBI x OC	.00	.18**	.00	.04	.20**	.00	.00	.18**	.00+
OCBI x IM	-.06	.18**	.00	.06	.20**	.00	.09	.19**	.01

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 17

Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBO and Motives (2 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	.17*			.06			-.07		
Education	.06			-.23**			.15*		
Org. Tenure	-.08			.00			.13+		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.16*			.21**			.03		
LMX	.09	.08*		-.14	.11**		.28**	.13**	
Step 2									
OCBO	.19*			-.28**			.51**		
Selfless Motives	.33**			.18*			-.03		
Self-Serving Motives	-.14+	.20**	.12**	-.10	.17**	.06**	.12	.34**	.21**
Step 3									
OCBO x Selfless	.03	.20**	.00	-.12+	.18**	.01+	.16*	.37**	.02*
OCBO x Self-Serving	.04	.20**	.00	-.05	.17**	.00	.09	.35**	.01

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 18

Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBI and Motives (2 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	.17*			.06			-.07		
Education	.06			-.23**			.15*		
Org. Tenure	-.08			.00			.13+		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.16*			.21**			.03		
LMX	.09	.08*		-.14+	.11**		.28**	.13**	
Step 2									
OCBI	.13			.31**			-.11		
Selfless Motives	.38**			.13			.10		
Self-Serving Motives	-.13	.19**	.11**	-.07	.19**	.08**	.12	.18**	.04*
Step 3									
OCBI x Selfless	.03	.19**	.00	.10	.20**	.01	-.22**	.22**	.05**
OCBI x Self-Serving	-.05	.19**	.00	.05	.19**	.00	.06	.18**	.00

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 19
Results of Regression Analyses for Reward Recommendations - Pakistan

Predictors	Reward Recommendations		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1			
Gender	-.03		
Education	.04		
Org. Tenure	.01		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.20**		
LMX	.54**	.27**	
Step 2			
Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment	.21**		
Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation	-.13*		
Individual Performance	.45**	.54**	.27**

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 20
Results of Regression Analysis for Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1			
Gender	.17*		
Education	.06		
Org. Tenure	-.08		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.16*		
LMX	.09	.08*	
Step 2			
Affective Commitment	.47**	.26**	.18**

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 21
Results of Regression Analysis for Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1			
Gender	.06		
Education	-.23**		
Org. Tenure	.00		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.21**		
LMX	-.14+	.11**	
Step 2			
Flexible Role Orientation	.27**	.17**	.07**

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 22
Results of Regression Analysis for Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1			
Gender	0.17*		
Education	.05		
Org. Tenure	-.08		
LMX	.14+	.06+	
Step 2			
Affective Commitment (AC)	.47**		
Tenure with Supervisor	.07	.26**	.21**
Step 3			
AC x Tenure with Supervisor	-.06	.27**	.00

Note: $N = 149-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 23
Results of Regression Analysis for Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1			
Gender	.17*		
Education	.05		
Org. Tenure	-.08		
LMX	.14+	.06*	
Step 2			
Affective Commitment (AC)	.47**		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.00	.26**	.20**
Step 3			
AC x Freq. of Supervisor Contact	.15*	.28**	.02*

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 24
Results of Regression Analysis for Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1			
Gender	.05		
Education	-.24**		
Org. Tenure	.00		
LMX	-.07	.07*	
Step 2			
Flexible Role Orientation (FRO)	.30**		
Tenure with Supervisor	-.12	.16**	0.10**
Step 3			
FRO x Tenure with Supervisor	.06	.17**	.00

Note: $N = 149-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 25
Results of Regression Analysis for Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation - Pakistan

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1			
Gender	.05		
Education	-.24**		
Org. Tenure	.00		
LMX	-.07	.07*	
Step 2			
Flexible Role Orientation (FRO)	.27**		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.16*	.17**	.11**
Step 3			
FRO x Freq. of Supervisor Contact	.01	.17**	.00

Note: $N = 186-197$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 26
CFA Results of Measures – Canada

Construct	S-By2	df	NFI	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA	α
OCBS dimensionality							
OCBO & OCBI (original items) - 2 dimensions	77.81	76	.70	.99	.99	.02	
OCBO (4 items; 1,2,6,7) & OCBI (3 items; 1,2,3) - 1 dimension	18.18	14	.75	.88	.92	.06	
OCBO (4 items; 1,2,6,7) & OCBI (3 items; 1,2,3) - 2 dimensions	7.82	13	.89	1.17	1.00	.00	
Motives - 3 dimensions							
OC - self (original 10 items)	76.36	35	.82	.86	.89	.12	
OC -self - (7 items; 1,2,3,4,5,9,10)	20.45	14	.92	.96	.97	.07	.91
OC - supervisor (original 10 items)	59.30	35	.84	.90	.92	.09	
OC - supervisor (7 items)	19.26	14	.92	.97	.98	.07	.92
IM -self - (original 10 items)	57.95	35	.84	.90	.93	.09	
IM - self (5 items; 1,2,4,5,7)	13.63	5	.95	.94	.97	.14	.92
IM - supervisor (original 10 items)	57.95	35	.84	.90	.93	.09	
IM -supervisor (5 items)	.88	5	.99	1.06	1.00	.00	.89
PV - self (original 10 items)	36.04	35	.89	1.00	1.00	.02	
PV - self (8 items; 1,2,3,4,5,6,8,9)	25.69	20	.90	.96	.97	.06	.91
PV - supervisor (original 10 items)	60.36	35	.84	.90	.92	.09	
PV - supervisor (8 items)	35.34	20	.85	.90	.93	.09	.90
Dimensionality of 3 motives							
3 Motives - self - 1 dimension	596.60	170	.50	.52	.57	.17	
Motives - self - 3 dimensions (16 errors correlated & 1 cross loading)	220.72	150	.82	.91	.93	.07	
Motives - supervisor - 1 dimension	499.56	170	.46	.50	.55	.15	
Motives - supervisor - 3 dimensions (16 errors & 1 factor correlated)	192.25	150	.79	.93	.94	.06	
Motives - 2 dimensions							
Selfless motives - self (PV1,PV2,PV4,PV5,PV6,PV8,OC2,OC10)	45.55	20	.80	.82	.87	.12	.89
Selfless motives - supervisor (same 8 items)	49.62	20	.77	.78	.85	.13	.88
Self-serving motives - self (IM1,IM2,IMA3,IM4,IM5,IM7)	24.66	9	.93	.92	.95	.14	.92
Self-serving motives - supervisor (same 6 items)	3.74	9	.98	1.04	1.00	.00	.90
Dimensionality of 2 motives							
Motives - self - 1 dimension	432.24	77	.40	.34	.44	.23	
Motives - self - 2 dimensions	119.15	76	.83	.91	.93	.08	
Motives - supervisor - 1 dimension	306.34	77	.44	.40	.49	.19	
Motives - supervisor - 2 dimensions	124.40	76	.77	.87	.89	.09	
Motives Scale Comparison - 3 vs. 2 dimensions							
Motives - self - 3 dimension	220.72	150	.82	.91	.93	.07	
Motives - self - 2 dimensions	119.15	76	.83	.91	.93	.08	
Motives - supervisor - 3 dimensions	192.25	150	.79	.93	.94	.06	
Motives - supervisor - 2 dimensions	124.40	76	.77	.87	.89	.09	

Table 26
CFA Results of Measures – Canada (Cont'd)

Construct	S-Bχ^2	df	NFI	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA	α
Affective commitment							
a commitment - self - 1 dimension (all)	16.36	9	.90	.92	.95	.10	.88
2nd order factor - self (1,2,6 and 3R,4R,5R)	8.93	6	.94	.95	.98	.08	
a commitment - supervisor - 1 dimension (all)	9.76	9	.92	.99	.99	.03	.77
2nd order factor - supervisor (1,2,6 and 3R,4R,5R)	3.35	6	.97	1.07	1.00	.00	
Flexible Role Orientation							
FRO - self - 1 dimension (all)	25.92	14	.90	.93	.95	.10	.88
FRO - supervisor - 1 dimension (all)	40.94	14	.86	.85	.90	.15	.89
Equity Sensitivity							
EPQ - self (original 9 items)	31.08	27	.66	.90	.93	.04	.83
EPQ - self - (revised 4 items)	.69	2	.96	1.40	1.00	.00	.80
Conscientiousness							
Conscientiousness - self - original 1 dimension (all items)	27.96	27	.73	.98	.99	.02	.75
2nd order factor - self (1,3,6,7,8 and 2R,4R,5R,9R)	15.22	24	.85	1.20	1.00	.00	
Leader Member Exchange							
lmx - 1 factor	7.41	5	.91	.93	.97	.07	.76
Performance							
performance - supervisor (1,2,4,5,6)	12.22	5	.82	.75	.88	.13	.87
Construct							
reward recommendations - 1 dimension	7.09	5	.94	.96	.98	.07	.86

Table 27
Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Reliabilities – Canada

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
1 Gender (self-rated)	1.64	.48	-																											
2 Education (self-rated)	7.33	2.74	-.23*	-																										
3 Org. Tenure (self-rated)	79.44	69.09	-.04	-.25*	-																									
4 Tenure w/ Supervisor (self-rated)	36.61	43.83	.06	-.06	.64**	-																								
5 Frequency of Supervisor Contact (self-rated)	4.74	2.07	.01	.18	-.11	.00	-																							
6 LMX (self-rated)	3.34	.54	-.10	.01	.24*	.22	.32**	(.76)																						
7 AC (self-rated)	4.91	1.25	.02	-.11	.34**	.16	.14	.44**	(.88)																					
8 FRO (self-rated)	2.97	.93	-.21*	.15	.01	-.12	-.17	-.08	-.01	(.88)																				
9 Equity Sensitivity (self-rated)	1.47	.64	.02	-.12	-.02	.02	-.22*	-.19	-.17	-.09	(.80)																			
10 Conscientiousness (self-rated)	4.23	.47	.16	-.05	-.05	.09	.10	.04	.15	-.11	-.11	(.75)																		
11 Prosocial Values (self-rated)	4.62	.85	-.02	.02	-.08	-.12	.11	.16	.23*	-.04	-.10	.00	(.91)																	
12 Organizational Concern (self-rated)	4.51	.94	.02	-.21	.23*	.08	.24*	.28**	.56**	.04	-.26*	.14	.60**	(.91)																
13 Impression Management (self-rated)	3.20	1.39	.13	-.05	-.16	-.09	.24*	-.06	.00	.05	.06	.11	.37**	.35**	(.92)															
14 Selfless motive (self-rated)	4.66	.79	-.04	-.05	.08	-.05	.14	.27*	.40**	-.04	-.20	.01	.94**	.77**	.30**	(.89)														
15 Self-serving motive (self-rated)	3.06	1.32	.13	-.03	-.16	-.11	.24*	-.06	.00	.05	.09	.10	.35**	.33**	.99**	.27*	(.92)													
16 Org time (self-rated)	5.32	1.25	-.10	.15	.12	.03	.02	.28**	.32**	.05	-.24*	.07	.22*	.39**	-.22*	.36**	-.22*	(.30)												
17 Own time (self-rated)	4.38	1.39	-.24*	.13	-.09	-.20	.05	.08	-.23*	.39**	-.15	-.16	.21*	.12	.11	.20	.11	.17	(.67)											
18 AC (supervisor-rated)	5.00	.86	-.23*	.00	.34**	.20	-.06	.26*	.23**	-.01	-.03	-.12	.06	.17	-.07	.16	-.07	.23*	-.05	(.77)										
19 FRO (supervisor-rated)	2.55	.87	.19	-.07	.08	.00	.09	-.09	-.05	-.05	-.08	.09	.04	.04	.10	.03	.11	-.14	-.18	-.10	(.89)									
20 Prosocial Values (supervisor-rated)	4.23	.78	-.09	.21*	-.12	-.01	.03	.15	-.07	-.06	.17	-.13	.04	-.10	-.09	.02	-.09	.14	.11	.36**	.07	(.90)								
21 Organizational Concern (supervisor-rated)	4.02	.81	-.26*	.18	.18	.14	.00	.23*	.11	-.04	.05	-.02	-.11	.01	-.13	-.04	-.13	.25*	-.01	.49**	-.02	.61**	(.92)							
22 Impression Management (supervisor-rated)	2.79	1.13	-.01	.07	-.27*	-.15	-.18	-.15	-.17	-.03	-.01	.04	-.09	-.14	-.17	-.13	-.18	-.06	-.01	-.27*	.02	.16	.21	(.89)						
23 Selfless motive (supervisor-rated)	4.22	.74	-.16	.21	.04	.08	.03	.22*	-.01	-.04	.16	-.12	.00	-.05	-.13	.02	-.12	.19	.11	.46**	.03	.94**	.80**	.14	(.88)					
24 Self-serving motive (supervisor-rated)	2.78	1.11	-.02	.05	-.27*	-.17	-.17	-.15	-.15	.00	-.04	.03	-.06	-.09	-.17	-.09	-.18	-.04	-.01	-.29**	.05	.13	.19	.99**	.11	(.90)				
25 OCBO (supervisor-rated)	4.01	.55	-.20	.13	.19	.21	.07	.23*	.09	.07	-.11	.13	-.27*	-.01	-.24*	-.17	-.25*	.24*	-.02	.36**	-.10	.25*	.50**	-.09	.38**	-.13	(.74)			
26 OCBI (supervisor-rated)	3.93	.46	-.14	.14	-.11	-.04	.29**	.23*	.00	-.06	.01	-.01	.07	.04	-.10	.06	-.10	.19	.14	.32**	.09	.56**	.35**	-.06	.54**	-.08	.40**	(.76)		
27 Performance (supervisor-rated)	5.58	.80	-.02	-.03	.27*	.25*	.14	.30**	.11	.10	-.05	.18	-.13	.05	.04	-.09	.05	.07	-.02	.32**	.09	.15	.42**	-.07	.28**	-.09	.42**	.25*	(.87)	
28 Reward Recommendations (supervisor-rated)	3.92	.85	-.04	.04	.15	.21	.31**	.42**	.09	.09	-.04	.16	-.03	.09	.15	.00	.16	.07	.08	.29**	.18	.25*	.39**	-.07	.36**	-.09	.46**	.37**	.78**	(.86)

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 28
ICC(1) of Supervisor-Rated Measures – Canada

Measure	ICC(1)
OCBO	-0.11
OCBI	-0.11
Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment	0.03
Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation	0.08
Supervisor-Rated Prosocial Values	-0.03
Supervisor-Rated Organizational Concern	-0.05
Supervisor-Rated Impression Management	-0.08
Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives	0.01
Supervisor-Rated Self-Serving Motives	-0.06
Performance	-0.02
Reward Recommendations	-0.11

Table 29
Results of Regression Analyses for Citizenship Motives (3 dimensions) as Predictors of Time Allocation – Canada

Predictors	Org. Time			Own Time		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1						
Gender	-.02			-.22**		
Education	.18			.05		
Org. Tenure	.08			-.11		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.09			.01		
LMX	.29*	.12+		.08	.08	
Step 2						
Prosocial Values	-.01			.14		
Organizational Concern	.59**			.04		
Impression Management	-.38**	.38**	.26**	.08	.12	.04

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 30
Results of Regression Analyses for Citizenship Motives (2 dimensions) as Predictors of Time Allocation – Canada

Predictors	Org. Time			Own Time		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1						
Gender	-.02			-.22*		
Education	.18			.05		
Org. Tenure	.08			-.11		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.09			.01		
LMX	.29*	.12+		.08	.08	
Step 2						
Selfless Motive	.41**			.17		
Self-serving Motive	-.31**	.29**	.17**	.09	.12	.04

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 31

Summary of Path Analyses Comparing the Relationship between Self-Rated and Supervisor-Rated Motives (3 dimensions) – Canada

Models	Fit indices				
	SBχ^2	DF	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
Relationships among All Motives	16.18	3.00	.79	.79	.23
Relationships Only among Corresponding Motives	4.02	6.00	.95	1.00	.00

Table 32

Summary of Path Analyses Comparing the Relationship between Self-Rated and Supervisor-Rated Motives (2 dimensions) – Canada

Models	Fit indices				
	SBχ^2	DF	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
Relationships among All Motives	.14	1.00	.98	1.00	.00
Relationships only among Corresponding Motives	.59	2.00	.92	1.00	.00

Table 33
Results of Regression Analyses for Disposition and Attitudes as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated OCB Motives (3 dimensions) - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Prosocial Values			Supervisor-Rated Organizational Concern			Supervisor-Rated Impression Management		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	.09			-.17*			.05		
Education	.06			.07			-.02		
Org. Tenure	-.25*			.30**			-.35**		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.04			.02			-.19+		
LMX	.08			.08			-.06		
Other Supervisor-Rated Motive ^a	.66**			.57**			-.07		
Other Supervisor-Rated Motive ^a	-.05	.44**		.21*	.52**		.35*	.20*	
Step 2									
Equity Sensitivity	.13			.00			-.10		
Conscientiousness	-.12			.08			.04		
Affective Commitment	-.08			.07			-.06		
Flexible Role Orientation	-.02	.48**	.04	-.04	.53**	.01	-.05	.21+	.01

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

^a For each DV, the other two motives, in the same order as listed as DVs (i.e., PV, OC, and IM) are entered as control variables.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 34
Results of Regression Analyses for Disposition and Attitudes as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated OCB Motives (2 dimensions) - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives			Supervisor-Rated Self-Serving Motives		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1						
Gender	-.09			-.02		
Education	.20+			-.02		
Org. Tenure	.07			-.29*		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.05			-.18		
LMX	.23*			-.05		
Other Supervisor-Rated Motive ^a	.14	.12+		.14	.13+	
Step 2						
Equity Sensitivity	.23*			-.15		
Conscientiousness	-.08			.04		
Affective Commitment	-.07			-.02		
Flexible Role Orientation	-.05	.20+	.07	-.05	.15	.02

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

^a For each DV, the other motive is entered as a control variable.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 35

Results of Regression Analyses for OCBs as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	-.19+			.18			.01		
Education	.04			-.02			.01		
Org. Tenure	.29**			.13			.24*		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.09			.15			.10		
LMX	.20+	.20**		-.15	.07		.21+	.14*	
Step 2									
OCBI	.29**			.20			.10		
OCBO	.15	.32**	.12**	-.14	.10	.03	.33**	.27**	.12**

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 36
Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBO and Supervisor-Rated Motives (3 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	-.19+			-.18			.01		
Education	.04			.15			.01		
Org. Tenure	.29*			.03			.24*		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.09			-.18			.10		
LMX	.20+	.20**		-.05	.09		.21+	.14**	
Step 2									
OCBO	.06			.09			.23*		
Supervisor-Rated Prosocial Values (PV)	.20+			-.04			-.11		
Supervisor-Rated Organizational Concern (OC)	.35*			-.12			.38*		
Supervisor-Rated Impression Management (IM)	-.33**	.46**	.26**	-.04	.11	.02	-.03	.32**	.18**
Step 3									
OCBO x Supervisor-Rated PV	-.17+	.48**	.02+	.08	.12	.01	-.02	.32**	.00
OCBO x Supervisor-Rated OC	.08	.46**	.00	-.05	.12	.00	-.18+	.35**	.03+
OCBO x Supervisor-Rated IM	.11	.47**	.01	-.04	.12	.00	-.06	.33**	.00

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 37

Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBI and Supervisor-Rated Motives (3 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	-.19+			-.18			.01		
Education	.04			.15			.01		
Org. Tenure	.29**			.03			.24*		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.09			-.18			.10		
LMX	.20+	.20**		-.05	.09		.21+	.14*	
Step 2									
OCBI	.14			.00			.19		
Supervisor-Rated Prosocial Values (PV)	.12			-.05			-.23		
Supervisor-Rated Organizational Concern (OC)	.37**			-.07			.49**		
Supervisor-Rated Impression Management (IM)	-.32**	.47**	.27**	-.05	.11	.02	-.05	.31**	.17**
Step 3									
OCBI x Supervisor-Rated PV	-.05	.47**	.00	.19	.14	.03	.17+	.33**	.03+
OCBI x Supervisor-Rated OC	-.12	.48**	.01	.13	.12	.01	.13	.32**	.01
OCBI x Supervisor-Rated IM	.15+	.49**	.02+	.05	.11	.00	.14	.32**	.02

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 38
Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBO and Supervisor-Rated Motives (2 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	-.19+			-.18			.01		
Education	.04			.15			.01		
Org. Tenure	.29**			.03			.24*		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.09			-.18			.10		
LMX	.20+	.20**		-.05	.09		.21+	.14*	
Step 2									
OCBO	.10			.06			.32**		
Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives	.42**			-.10			.14		
Supervisor-Rated Self-Serving Motives	-.28**	.44**	.24**	-.03	.11	.01	.04	.28**	.14**
Step 3									
OCBO x Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives	-.09	.44**	.01	.07	.11	.00	-.07	.28**	.00
OCBO x Supervisor-Rated Self-Serving Motives	.06	.44**	.00	-.02	.11	.00	-.11	.29**	.01

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 39
Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBI and Supervisor-Rated Motives (2 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	-.19+			-.18			.01		
Education	.04			.15			.01		
Org. Tenure	.29**			.03			.24*		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.09			-.18			.10		
LMX	.20+	.20**		-.05	.09		.21+	.14*	
Step 2									
OCBI	.12			-.01			.13		
Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives	.39**			-.08			.18		
Supervisor-Rated Self-Serving Motives	-.28**	.44**	.24**	-.04	.10	.01	.01	.21*	.07
Step 3									
OCBI x Supervisor-Rated Selfless Motives	-.04	.44**	.00	.16	.12	.02	.24*	.26**	.05*
OCBI x Supervisor-Rated Self-Serving Motives	.15	.46**	.02	.02	.10	.00	.08	.21*	.00

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 40

Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBO and Motives (3 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	-.19+			.18			.01		
Education	.04			-.02			.01		
Org. Tenure	.29**			.13			.24*		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.09			.15			.10		
LMX	.20	.20**		-.15	.07		.21+	.14*	
Step 2									
OCBO	.32**			-.04			.38**		
Prosocial Values (PV)	.14			.07			-.05		
Organizational Concern (OC)	.01			-.07			-.13		
Impression Management (IM)	.04	.28**	.08+	.04	.08	.01	.22+	.30**	.16**
Step 3									
OCBO x PV	-.10	.29**	.01	-.08	.09	.01	.14	.32**	.02
OCBO x OC	.06	.28**	.00	-.19	.11	.03	.01	.30**	.00
OCBO x IM	.05	.28**	.00	-.03	.08	.00	-.04	.30**	.00

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 41**Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBI and Motives (3 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Canada**

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	-.19+			.18			.01		
Education	.04			-.02			.01		
Org. Tenure	.29**			.13			.22*		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.09			.15			.10		
LMX	.20+	.20**		-.15	.07		.21+	.14*	
Step 2									
OCBI	.37**			.15			.26*		
Prosocial Values (PV)	-.02			.08			-.23+		
Organizational Concern (OC)	.09			-.07			-.03		
Impression Management (IM)	.07	.32**	.12*	.08	.10	.03	.22+	.25**	.10*
Step 3									
OCBI x PV	.05	.32**	.00	-.20	.13	.03+	-.09	.25*	.01
OCBI x OC	-.02	.32**	.00	-.17	.12	.03	-.17	.27**	.03
OCBI x IM	.09	.32**	.01	-.11	.11	.01	-.04	.25*	.00

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 42

Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBO and Motives (2 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	-.19+			.18			.01		
Education	.04			-.02			.01		
Org. Tenure	.29**			.13			.24*		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.09			.15			.10		
LMX	.20+	.20**		-.15	.07		.21+	.14*	
Step 2									
OCBO	.31**			-.05			.37**		
Selfless Motives	.16			.02			-.17		
Self-Serving Motives	.06	.28**	.09**	.05	.08	.01	.21*	.31**	.16**
Step 3									
OCBO x Selfless	-.07	.29**	.004+	-.12	.09	.01	.09	.31**	.01
OCBO x Self-Serving	.09	.29**	.01	.01	.08	.00	.00	.31**	.00

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 43

Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interaction Effects of OCBI and Motives (2 dimensions) as Predictors of Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment, Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation and Performance - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment			Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation			Individual Performance		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1									
Gender	-.19+			.18			.01		
Education	.04			-.02			.01		
Org. Tenure	.29**			.13			.24*		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.09			.15			.10		
LMX	.20+	.20**		-.15	.07		.21+	.14*	
Step 2									
OCBI	.36**			.16			.26*		
Selfless Motives	.08			.02			-.25		
Self-Serving Motives	.07	.32**	.12**	.09	.10	.03	.20+	.25**	.11*
Step 3									
OCBI x Selfless	.02	.32**	.00	-.20+	.13	.03+	-.11	.26**	.01
OCBI x Self-Serving	.11	.33**	.01	-.12	.11	.01	-.03	.25**	.00

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; Interactions in step 3 comprise individual regression equations; R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 44
Results of Regression Analyses for Reward Recommendations - Canada

Predictors	Reward Recommendations		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1			
Gender	.00		
Education	.03		
Org. Tenure	.10		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.21+		
LMX	.32**	.22**	
Step 2			
Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment	.07		
Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation	.15*		
Individual Performance	.70**	.70**	.49**

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 45
Results of Regression Analysis for Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1			
Gender	-.19+		
Education	.04		
Org. Tenure	.29**		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.09		
LMX	.20+	.20**	
Step 2			
Affective Commitment	.18	.22**	.02

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 46
Results of Regression Analysis for Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1			
Gender	.18		
Education	-.02		
Org. Tenure	.13		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.15		
LMX	-.15	.07	
Step 2			
Flexible Role Orientation	.00	.07	.00

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 47
Results of Regression Analysis for Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1			
Gender	-.19+		
Education	.03		
Org. Tenure	.30**		
LMX	.16	.19**	
Step 2			
Affective Commitment (AC)	.18		
Tenure with Supervisor	-.01	.21**	.02
Step 3			
AC x Tenure with Supervisor	.00	.21*	.00

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 48
Results of Regression Analysis for Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Affective Commitment		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1			
Gender	-.19+		
Education	.03		
Org. Tenure	.30**		
LMX	.16	.19**	
Step 2			
Affective Commitment (AC)	.18		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	-.10	.22**	.03
Step 3			
AC x Freq. of Supervisor Contact	.04	.22**	.00

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 49
Results of Regression Analysis for Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1			
Gender	.19		
Education	.00		
Org. Tenure	.11		
LMX	-.09	.05	
Step 2			
Flexible Role Orientation (FRO)	-.03		
Tenure with Supervisor	-.12	.06	.01
Step 3			
FRO x Tenure with Supervisor	.02	.06	.00

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 50
Results of Regression Analysis for Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation - Canada

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Flexible Role Orientation		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1			
Gender	.19		
Education	.00		
Org. Tenure	.11		
LMX	-.09	.05	
Step 2			
Flexible Role Orientation (FRO)	.00		
Frequency of Supervisor Contact	.15	.07	.02
Step 3			
FRO x Freq. of Supervisor Contact	.02	.07	.00

Note: $N = 86-88$; Gender 1 = male, 2 = female; Education higher values correspond to higher educational attainment; All predictors in Step 2 and 3 were centered; β , R^2 and ΔR^2 shown are for entire step.

+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 51
Cross-Sample Summary Comparison of Key Descriptives

	Pakistan		Future	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Employee age	29.10	6.79	36.76	8.89
Supervisor age	39.51	7.09	41.02	8.20
Employee org. tenure (months)	35.71	21.11	79.44	69.09
Supervisor org tenure (months)	43.19	30.49	126.35	61.17
Tenure w/ supervisor (months)	18.05	15.79	36.61	43.83
Frequency of contact w/ supervisor	5.45	1.57	4.74	2.07

Table 52
Summary Comparison of Results for Pakistan and Canada (reporting standardized regression coefficients)

Hypotheses	Pakistan β s	Canada β s
Hypotheses 1a-b: Individuals motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern will allocate more of their own time rather than take time away from core organizational tasks when performing OCBs.		
Prosocial values and own time	.23+	n.s.
Prosocial values and org. time	n.s.	n.s.
Organizational concern and own time	n.s.	n.s.
Organizational concern and org. time	n.s.	.59**
Hypothesis 1c: Individuals motivated by impression management will tend to take up time from core organizational tasks rather than from their own time when performing OCBs.		
Impression management and own time	-.22*	n.s.
Impression management and org. time	.19*	-.38**
Hypotheses 2a-c: Equity sensitivity will be negatively related to self-reported prosocial values and organizational concern and positively related to self-reported impression management.		
Equity sensitivity will be negatively related to self-reported prosocial values	-.17*	n.s.
Equity sensitivity will be negatively related to self-reported organizational concern	-.26*	-.26*
Equity sensitivity will be positively related to self-reported impression management	n.s.	n.s.
Hypotheses 3a-c: Conscientiousness will be positively related to self-reported prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to self-reported impression management.		
Conscientiousness will be positively related to self-reported prosocial values	.52*	n.s.
Conscientiousness will be positively related to self-reported organizational concern	.51*	.14*
Conscientiousness will be negatively related to self-reported impression management	.08*	.11*
Hypotheses 4a-c: Affective commitment will be positively related to self-reported prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to self-report impression management.		
Affective commitment will be positively related to self-reported prosocial values	.52*	.61*
Affective commitment will be positively related to self-reported organizational concern	.74*	.95*
Affective commitment will be negatively related to self-reported impression management	.19*	.35*
Hypotheses 5a-c: Flexible role orientation will be positively related to self-reported prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to self-reported impression management.		
Flexible role orientation will be positively related to self-reported prosocial values	n.s.	n.s.
Flexible role orientation will be positively related to self-reported organizational concern	n.s.	n.s.
Flexible role orientation will be negatively related to self-reported impression management	n.s.	n.s.
Hypothesis 6a: Self-reported prosocial values will be positively related to supervisor-reported prosocial values.	.67*	.17*
Hypothesis 6b: Self-reported organizational concern will be positively related to supervisor-reported organizational concern.	.62*	n.s.
Hypothesis 6c: Self-reported impression management will be positively related to supervisor-reported impression management.	.61*	n.s.
Hypothesis 6d: The relationships between self-reported prosocial values and supervisor-reported prosocial values and self-reported organizational concern and supervisor-reported organizational concern will be stronger than that between self-reported impression management and supervisor-reported impression management.	Y	X
Hypotheses 7a-c: Equity sensitivity will be negatively related to supervisor-reported prosocial values and organizational concern and positively related to supervisor-reported impression management.		
Equity sensitivity will be negatively related to supervisor-reported prosocial values	n.s.	n.s.
Equity sensitivity will be negatively related to supervisor-reported organizational concern	n.s.	n.s.
Equity sensitivity will be positively related to supervisor-reported impression management	n.s.	n.s.

Table 52
Summary Comparison of Results for Pakistan and Canada (reporting standardized regression coefficients) (cont'd)

Hypotheses	Pakistan β s	Canada β s
Hypotheses 8a-c: Conscientiousness will be positively related to supervisor-reported prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to supervisor-reported impression management.		
Conscientiousness will be positively related to supervisor-reported prosocial values	.16*	n.s.
Conscientiousness will be positively related to supervisor-reported organizational concern	n.s.	n.s.
Conscientiousness will be negatively related to supervisor-reported impression management	n.s.	n.s.
Hypotheses 9a-c: Affective commitment will be positively related to supervisor-reported prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to supervisor-reported impression management.		
Affective commitment will be positively related to supervisor-reported prosocial values	n.s.	n.s.
Affective commitment will be positively related to supervisor-reported organizational concern	.19**	n.s.
Affective commitment will be negatively related to supervisor-reported impression management	n.s.	n.s.
Hypotheses 10a-c: Flexible role orientation will be positively related to supervisor-reported prosocial values and organizational concern and negatively related to supervisor-reported impression management.		
Flexible role orientation will be positively related to supervisor-reported prosocial values	.10+	n.s.
Flexible role orientation will be positively related to supervisor-reported organizational concern	n.s.	n.s.
Flexible role orientation will be negatively related to supervisor-reported impression management	n.s.	n.s.
Hypothesis 11: OCBs are positively related to supervisor-rated affective commitment.		
OCBI is positively related to supervisor-rated affective commitment	n.s.	.29**
OCBO is positively related to supervisor-rated affective commitment	.25**	n.s.
Hypotheses 12: OCBs are positively related to supervisor-rated flexible role orientation.		
OCBI is positively related to supervisor-rated flexible role orientation	.37**	n.s.
OCBO is positively related to supervisor-rated flexible role orientation	-.32**	n.s.
Hypothesis 13: OCBs are positively related to overall performance evaluations.		
OCBI is positively related to supervisor-rated performance	-.25**	n.s.
OCBO is positively related to supervisor-rated performance	.58**	.33**
Hypotheses 14a-c: The positive relationship between OCB and supervisor-reported affective commitment is moderated by supervisor-reported citizenship motives. In other words, it is expected that OCBs will be more highly correlated with supervisor-reported affective commitment when they are perceived to be motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern than when they are perceived to be motivated by impression management.		
OCBI is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported affective commitment when motivated by high supervisor-reported prosocial values	n.s.	n.s.
OCBI is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported affective commitment when motivated by high supervisor-reported organizational concern	n.s.	n.s.
OCBI is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported affective commitment when motivated by low supervisor-reported impression management	n.s.	.15+
OCBO is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported affective commitment when motivated by high supervisor-reported prosocial values	n.s.	-.17+
OCBO is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported affective commitment when motivated by high supervisor-reported organizational concern	n.s.	n.s.
OCBO is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported affective commitment when motivated by low supervisor-reported impression management	n.s.	n.s.

Table 52
Summary Comparison of Results for Pakistan and Canada (reporting standardized regression coefficients) (cont'd)

Hypotheses	Pakistan β s	Canada β s
Hypotheses 15a-c: The positive relationship between OCB and supervisor-reported flexible role orientation is moderated by supervisor-reported citizenship motives. In other words, it is expected that OCBs will be more highly correlated with supervisor-reported flexible role orientation when they are perceived to be motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern than when they are perceived to be motivated by impression management.		
OCBI is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported flexible role orientation when motivated by high supervisor-reported prosocial values	.26**	n.s.
OCBI is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported flexible role orientation when motivated by high supervisor-reported organizational concern	.19**	n.s.
OCBI is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported flexible role orientation when motivated by low supervisor-reported impression management	n.s.	n.s.
OCBO is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported flexible role orientation when motivated by high supervisor-reported prosocial values	n.s.	n.s.
OCBO is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported flexible role orientation when motivated by high supervisor-reported organizational concern	n.s.	n.s.
OCBO is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported flexible role orientation when motivated by low supervisor-reported impression management	n.s.	n.s.
Hypotheses 16a-c: The positive relationship between OCB and overall performance evaluation is moderated by supervisor-reported citizenship motives. In other words, it is expected that OCBs will be more highly correlated with overall performance evaluations when they are perceived to be motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern than when they are perceived to be motivated by impression management.		
OCBI is more strongly and positively related to performance when motivated by high supervisor-reported prosocial values	-.22**	.17+
OCBI is more strongly and positively related to performance when motivated by high supervisor-reported organizational concern	n.s.	n.s.
OCBI is more strongly and positively related to performance when motivated by low supervisor-reported impression management	.16*	n.s.
OCBO is more strongly and positively related to performance when motivated by high supervisor-reported prosocial values	n.s.	n.s.
OCBO is more strongly and positively related to performance when motivated by high supervisor-reported organizational concern	.14*	.18+
OCBO is more strongly and positively related to performance when motivated by low supervisor-reported impression management	n.s.	n.s.
Hypotheses 17a-c: The positive relationship between OCB and supervisor-reported affective commitment is moderated by actual citizenship motives. In other words, it is expected that OCBs will be more highly correlated with supervisor-reported affective commitment when they are motivated by self-reported prosocial values and organizational concern than when they are motivated by self-reported impression management.		
OCBI is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported affective commitment when motivated by high self-reported prosocial values	n.s.	n.s.
OCBI is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported affective commitment when motivated by high self-reported organizational concern	n.s.	n.s.
OCBI is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported affective commitment when motivated by low self-reported impression management	n.s.	n.s.
OCBO is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported affective commitment when motivated by high self-reported prosocial values	n.s.	n.s.
OCBO is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported affective commitment when motivated by high self-reported organizational concern	n.s.	n.s.
OCBO is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported affective commitment when motivated by low self-reported impression management	n.s.	n.s.

Table 52
Summary Comparison of Results for Pakistan and Canada (reporting standardized regression coefficients) (cont'd)

Hypotheses	Pakistan β s	Canada β s
<p>Hypotheses 18a-c: The positive relationship between OCB and supervisor-reported flexible role orientation is moderated by citizenship motives. In other words, it is expected that OCBs will be more highly correlated with supervisor-reported flexible role orientation when they are motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern than when they are motivated by impression management.</p> <p>OCBI is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported flexible role orientation when motivated by high self-reported prosocial values</p> <p>OCBI is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported flexible role orientation when motivated by high self-reported organizational concern</p> <p>OCBI is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported flexible role orientation when motivated by low self-reported impression management</p> <p>OCBO is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported flexible role orientation when motivated by high self-reported prosocial values</p> <p>OCBO is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported flexible role orientation when motivated by high self-reported organizational concern</p> <p>OCBO is more strongly and positively related to supervisor-reported flexible role orientation when motivated by low self-reported impression management</p>	<p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p> <p><i>-.13+</i></p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p>	<p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p>
<p>Hypotheses 19a-c: The positive relationship between OCB and overall performance evaluation is moderated by citizenship motives. In other words, it is expected that OCBs will be more highly correlated with overall performance evaluations when they are motivated by prosocial values and organizational concern than when they are motivated by impression management.</p> <p>OCBI is more strongly and positively related to performance when motivated by high self-reported prosocial values</p> <p>OCBI is more strongly and positively related to performance when motivated by high self-reported organizational concern</p> <p>OCBI is more strongly and positively related to performance when motivated by low self-reported impression management</p> <p>OCBO is more strongly and positively related to performance when motivated by high self-reported prosocial values</p> <p>OCBO is more strongly and positively related to performance when motivated by high self-reported organizational concern</p> <p>OCBO is more strongly and positively related to performance when motivated by low self-reported impression management</p>	<p><i>-.21**</i></p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>.15*</p> <p>.16**</p> <p>n.s.</p>	<p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p>
<p>Hypotheses 20a-c: Perceived attitudes and outcomes of the good soldier (supervisor-reported affective commitment, perceived flexible role orientation and overall performance evaluations) will be positively related to reward recommendations.</p> <p>Supervisor-reported affective commitment is positively related to reward recommendations</p> <p>Supervisor-reported flexible role orientation is positively related to reward recommendations</p> <p>Performance is positively related to reward recommendations</p>	<p>.21**</p> <p><i>-.13*</i></p> <p>.45**</p>	<p>n.s.</p> <p>.15*</p> <p>.70*</p>
<p>Hypotheses 21-22: Supervisor ratings of the dependent variables (perceived affective commitment and perceived flexible role orientation) will be positively related to subordinate self-ratings of these same variables.</p> <p>Self-reported affective commitment is positively related to supervisor-reported affective commitment</p> <p>Self-reported flexible role orientation is positively related to supervisor-reported flexible role orientation</p>	<p>.47**</p> <p>.27**</p>	<p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p>
<p>Hypotheses 23-26: This relationship will be moderated by time spent working together such that it will be stronger with greater frequency of contact and longer relationship tenure.</p> <p>The positive relationship between self-reported affective commitment and supervisor-reported affective commitment is stronger when moderated by longer tenure between subordinate and supervisor</p> <p>The positive relationship between self-reported affective commitment and supervisor-reported affective commitment is stronger when moderated by higher frequency of interaction between subordinate and supervisor</p> <p>The positive relationship between self-reported flexible role orientation and supervisor-reported flexible role orientation is stronger when moderated by longer tenure between subordinate and supervisor</p> <p>The positive relationship between self-reported flexible role orientation and supervisor-reported flexible role orientation is stronger when moderated by higher frequency of interaction between subordinate and supervisor</p>	<p>n.s.</p> <p>.15*</p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p>	<p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p> <p>n.s.</p>

Note: Lighter and italicized values correspond to significant coefficients in a direction opposite to predicted.
+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

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Appendix 1

Equity Preferences Questionnaire (Sauley & Bedeian, 2000) (Self-Report)

Items were presented randomly and summed to yield a single equity sensitivity score.

1 (strongly disagree); 3 (disagree); 4(neither agree nor disagree); 6 (agree); 7 (strongly agree)

1. **I prefer to do as little as possible at work while getting as much as I can from my employer.**
2. **I am most satisfied at work when I have to do as little as possible.**
3. **When I am at my job, I think of ways to get out of work.**
4. If I could get away with it, I would try to work just a little bit slower than the boss expects.
5. It is really satisfying to me when I can get something for nothing at work.
6. It is the smart employee who gets as much as he/she can while giving as little as possible in return.
7. **Employees who are more concerned about what they can get from their employer rather than what they can give to their employer are the wise ones. (R)**
8. When I have completed my task for the day, I help out other employees who have yet to complete their tasks. (R)
9. Even if I received low wages and poor benefits from my employer, I would still try to do my best at my job. (R)

** 4 bolded items together gave the best fit in Pakistan and Canadian samples*

Appendix 2

Conscientiousness dimension of the Big Five Inventory (John, Donahue, & Kentle, 1991) (Self-Report)

1 (strongly disagree); 2 (disagree); 3 (neither agree nor disagree); 4 (agree); 5 (strongly agree)

I see myself as someone who...

1. Does a thorough job.
2. Can be somewhat careless. (R)
3. Is a reliable worker.
4. Tends to be disorganized. (R)
5. Tends to be lazy. (R)
6. Perseveres until the task is finished.
7. Does things efficiently.
8. Makes plans and follows through with them.
9. Is easily distracted. (R)

Appendix 3

Affective Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990) (Self- and Supervisor-Report)

1 (Strongly disagree); 2 (Disagree); 3 (Somewhat disagree); 4 (Neither agree nor disagree/Neutral); 5 (Somewhat agree); 6 (Agree); 7 (Strongly agree)

Self-report

- 1- I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.
- 2- I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
- 3- I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
- 4- I think I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (R)
- 5- I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)
- 6- I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)
- 7- This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
- 8- I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)

Supervisor-report

- 1- He/she would be very happy to spend the rest of his/her career in this organization.
- 2- He/she enjoys discussing his/her organization with people outside it.
- 3- He/she really feels as if this organization's problems are his/her own.
- 4- He/she thinks he/she could easily become as attached to another organization as he/she is to this one. (R)
- 5- He/she does not feel like "part of the family" at this organization. (R)
- 6- He/she does not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)
- 7- This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for him/her.
- 8- He/she does not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization. (R)

Appendix 4

Flexible role orientation (Parker, Wall, & Jackson, 1997; Parker 2007)) (Self- and Supervisor-Report)

The following questions concern your views about problems that may occur in your area. Some of these problems may be of concern to you; others may not be of concern to you - they may be someone else's concern (e.g. your boss's) or they may not be a problem.

Please indicate the extent to which each would be of personal concern to YOU.

Self-report

1. To no extent (of no concern to me)
2. Little extent
3. Moderate extent (of some concern to me)
4. Large extent
5. Very large extent (most certainly of concern to me)

- 1- Some colleagues in your area are not pulling their weight?**
- 2- Different people in your area are not coordinating their efforts?**
- 3- Costs in your area are higher than budget?**
- 4- There are strained relations among people in your area?
- 5- Stores and supplies in your area are higher than budget?
- 6- The quality of output from your area is not as good as it could be?**
- 7- Some essential equipment in your area (plant) is not being well maintained?
- 8- Errors in incoming information are increasing over time?
- 9- Your customers (internal or external) are dissatisfied with what they receive?

Supervisor-report

1. To no extent (of no concern to him/her) - 5. Very large extent (most certainly of concern to him/her)

- 1- Some colleagues in his/her area are not pulling their weight?**
- 2- Different people in his/her area are not coordinating their efforts?**
- 3- Costs in his/her area are higher than budget?**
- 4- There are strained relations among people in his/her area?
- 5- Stores and supplies in his/her area are higher than budget?
- 6- The quality of output from his/her area is not as good as it could be?**
- 7- Some essential equipment in his/her area (plant) is not being well maintained?
- 8- Errors in incoming information are increasing over time?
- 9- His/her customers (internal or external) are dissatisfied with what they receive?

** bolded items led to best fitting model for both self- and supervisor-report in Pakistani sample; Canadian sample included all items with the exception of 3 and 5)*

Appendix 5

Citizenship Motives Scale (Rioux & Penner, 2001) (Self and Supervisor)

ORIGINAL STEM

During the course of the workday people often **engage in prosocial or helpful behaviors. These behaviors are not a required part of the job and they are not formally rewarded (e.g., more money). Yet these behaviors are very important and help the organization function smoothly.** Examples of such behavior include:

- helping co-workers with a heavy workload
- not taking long lunches or breaks
- touching base with others before initiating action
- keeping informed of changes in the organization
- attending functions that aren't mandatory
- not complaining over small things

People are motivated to engage in these kinds of behaviors by many different things. Below is a list of motives that may influence people to engage in these behaviors. For each motive listed, please indicate **HOW IMPORTANT** that motive is for **YOU** to engage in these kinds of behaviors at work. Please see the scale below and darken in the number corresponding to your response.

REVISED STEM

During the course of a workday people may engage in **behaviors not directly related to one's work (as in the examples below).** [examples below adapted from Williams and Anderson's (1991) scale]

- Going out of your way to help a new employee
- Helping others who have been absent
- Conserving and protecting organizational property
- Adhering to informal rules devised to maintain order

Each behavior may be motivated by a different reason. Keeping this in mind, please indicate how important each motive listed below is for **engaging in these types of behaviors MOST OF THE TIME.**

- 1 - Not at all important
- 2 - Slightly important
- 3 - Somewhat important
- 4 - Important
- 5 - Very important
- 6 - Extremely important

Self-report

Organizational Concern

- 1- **Because I want to understand how the organization works.**
- 2- **Because I care what happens to the company.**
- 3- **Because I want to be fully involved in the company.**
- 4- **Because I feel pride in the organization.**
- 5- **Because the organization values my work.**
- 6- Because I have a genuine interest in my work.
- 7- Because I want to be a well-informed employee.
- 8- To keep up with the latest developments in the organization.
- 9- **Because the organization treats me fairly.**
- 10- **Because I am committed to the company.**

Prosocial Values

- 11- **Because I feel it is important to help those in need.**
- 12- **Because I believe in being courteous to others.**
- 13- **Because I am concerned about other people's feelings.**
- 14- **Because I want to help my co-workers in any way I can.**
- 15- **Because it is easy for me to be helpful.**
- 16- **Because I like interacting with my co-workers.**
- 17- To have fun with my co-workers.
- 18- **To get to know my co-workers better.**
- 19- **To be friendly with others.**
- 20- Because I can put myself in other people's shoes.

Impression Management

- 21- **To avoid looking bad in front of others.**
- 22- **To avoid looking lazy.**
- 23- To look better than my co-workers.
- 24- **To avoid a reprimand from my boss.**
- 25- **Because I fear appearing irresponsible.**
- 26- To look like I am busy.
- 27- **To stay out of trouble.**
- 28- Because rewards are important to me.
- 29- Because I want a raise.
- 30- To impress my co-workers.

Supervisor-report

Organizational Concern

- 1- **Because he/she wants to understand how the organization works.**
- 2- **Because he/she cares what happens to the company.**
- 3- **Because he/she wants to be fully involved in the company.**
- 4- **Because he/she feels pride in the organization.**
- 5- **Because the organization values his/her work.**
- 6- Because he/she has a genuine interest in his/her work.
- 7- Because he/she wants to be a well-informed employee.
- 8- To keep up with the latest developments in the organization.

9- **Because the organization treats him/her fairly.**

10- **Because he/she is committed to the company.**

Prosocial Values

11- **Because he/she feels it is important to help those in need.**

12- **Because he/she believes in being courteous to others.**

13- **Because he/she is concerned about other people's feelings.**

14- **Because he/she wants to help his/her co-workers in any way he/she can.**

15- **Because it is easy for him/her to be helpful.**

16- **Because he/she likes interacting with his/her co-workers.**

17- To have fun with his/her co-workers.

18- **To get to know his/her co-workers better.**

19- **To be friendly with others.**

20- Because he/she can put him/herself in other people's shoes.

Impression Management

21- **To avoid looking bad in front of others.**

22- **To avoid looking lazy.**

23- To look better than his/her co-workers.

24- **To avoid a reprimand from his/her boss.**

25- **Because he/she fears appearing irresponsible.**

26- To look like he/she is busy.

27- **To stay out of trouble.**

28- Because rewards are important to him/her.

29- Because he/she wants a raise.

30- To impress his/her co-workers.

** bolded items reflect best fit and were used in both the Pakistan and Canadian samples*

Appendix 6

Revised (2 dimension) Citizenship Motives Scale (Rioux & Penner, 2001) (Self and Supervisor)

REVISED STEM

During the course of a workday people may engage in **behaviors not directly related to one's work (as in the examples below)**. [examples below adapted from Williams and Anderson's (1991) scale]

- Going out of your way to help a new employee
- Helping others who have been absent
- Conserving and protecting organizational property
- Adhering to informal rules devised to maintain order

Each behavior may be motivated by a different reason. Keeping this in mind, please indicate how important each motive listed below is for **engaging in these types of behaviors MOST OF THE TIME**.

- 1 - Not at all important
- 2 - Slightly important
- 3 - Somewhat important
- 4 - Important
- 5 - Very important
- 6 - Extremely important

Self-report

Selfless motives

- 1- Because I care what happens to the company.
- 2- Because I am committed to the company.
- 3- Because I feel it is important to help those in need.
- 4- Because I believe in being courteous to others.
- 5- Because I want to help my co-workers in any way I can.
- 6- Because it is easy for me to be helpful.
- 7- Because I like interacting with my co-workers.
- 8- To get to know my co-workers better.

Self-serving motives

- 9- To avoid looking bad in front of others.
- 10- To avoid looking lazy.
- 11- To look better than my co-workers.
- 12- To avoid a reprimand from my boss.
- 13- Because I fear appearing irresponsible.
- 14- To stay out of trouble.

Supervisor-report

Selfless motives

- 15- Because he/she cares about happens to the company.

- 16- Because he/she is committed to the company.
- 17- Because he/she feels it is important to help those in need.
- 18- Because he/she believes in being courteous to others.
- 19- Because he/she wants to help his/her co-workers in any way he/she can.
- 20- Because it is easy for him/her to be helpful.
- 21- Because he/she likes interacting with his/her co-workers.
- 22- To get to know his/her co-workers better.

Self-serving motives

- 23- To avoid looking bad in front of others.
- 24- To avoid looking lazy.
- 25- To look better than his/her co-workers.
- 26- To avoid a reprimand from his/her boss.
- 27- Because he/she fears appearing irresponsible.
- 28- To stay out of trouble.

Appendix 7

OCB (OCBI and OCBO dimensions of Williams & Anderson's (1991) measure (Supervisor))

1 (Strongly disagree); 2 (Disagree); 3 (Neither agree nor disagree/Neutral); 4 (Agree); 5 (Strongly agree)

OCBI

- 1. Helps others who have been absent**
- 2. Helps others who have heavy work loads.**
- 3. Assists supervisor with his/her work (when not asked).**
4. Takes time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.
5. Goes out of the way to help new employees.
6. Takes a personal interest in other employees.
7. Passes along information to co-workers.

OCBO

- 1. Attendance at work is above the norm.**
- 2. Gives advance notice when unable to come to work.**
3. Takes undeserved work breaks. (R)
4. Spends a great deal of time with personal phone conversations. (R)
5. Complains about insignificant things at work. (R)
- 6. Conserves and protects organizational property.**
- 7. Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order.**

- *bolded items were retained in the Pakistan sample; all items were used in the Canadian Sample*

Appendix 8

Overall Performance (Wayne & Linden, 1995 and Tsui, 1984; Bolino et al., 2006) (Supervisor)

- 1- This subordinate is superior (so far) to other subordinates that I've supervised before
(1 strongly disagree – 7 strongly agree)

1 (strongly disagree); 3 (disagree); 4(neither agree nor disagree); 6 (agree); 7
(strongly agree)

- 2- Rate the overall level of performance that you have observed for this subordinate
(1=unacceptable, poor, below average, average, above average, excellent and
7=outstanding)

- 3- Overall, to what extent do you feel your subordinate has been effectively fulfilling his
or her roles and responsibilities?
(not effectively at all to very effectively)

1 (Very ineffectively); 2 (Ineffectively); 3 (Somewhat ineffectively); 4
(Neither effectively nor ineffectively/Neutral); 5 (Somewhat effectively);
6 (Effectively); 7 (Very Effectively)

- 4- Overall to what extent do you feel your subordinate is performing his or her job the
way you would like it to be performed?

1 (Not at all); 7 (Entirely)

- 5- To what extent has your subordinate's performance met your own expectations?

1 (Not at all); 7 (Entirely)

Appendix 9

OCB time allocation (Self-rated)

We each have only 24 hrs in a day. This question seeks to understand how you manage your time among various organizational demands not directly related to your job. In particular, please keep in mind how you manage your time when engaging in behaviors not directly related to your job such as:

- Going out of your way to help a new employees
- Helping others who have been absent
- Conserving and protecting organizational property
- Adhering to informal rules devised to maintain order

Please rate the following items on a scale of 1-7 (Not at all likely to Extremely likely):

1 (Very unlikely); 2 (Unlikely); 3 (Somewhat unlikely); 4 (Neither likely nor unlikely/Neutral); 5 (Somewhat likely); 6 (Likely); 7 (Extremely likely)

OCB time from core tasks time

- 1- I would likely take time from core work tasks (i.e. time allocated to these behaviors means less time spent on core work tasks) to perform these behaviors.
- 2- I would likely delay the performance of core work tasks when I come across many instances to perform behaviors such as helping my coworkers.

OCB time from own time

- 3- I would likely take time from my own discretionary time at work (i.e. time spent informally interacting with co-workers, taking a smoking break or resolving personal issues) to perform these behaviors.
- 4- When I come across many instances to perform these behaviors I am likely to stay overtime so that I may also complete all of my own required work tasks.

Appendix 10

Length and frequency of subordinate-supervisor contact (Self-rated)

1. How many months have you been working for your current supervisor?
2. In an average workday how frequently do you interact with your supervisor?
1 (Very infrequently); 2 (Infrequently); 3 (Somewhat infrequently); 4 (Neither frequently nor infrequently/Neutral); 5 (Somewhat frequently); 6 (Frequently); 7 (Very frequently)

Appendix 11

Leader-Member Exchange (Graen, Liden & Hoel, 1982) (Self-report)

1. How flexible do you believe your supervisor is about evolving change in your job?
4 = Supervisor is enthused about change; 3 = Supervisor is lukewarm to change; 2 = Supervisor sees little need to change; 1 = Supervisor sees no need for change.
2. Regardless of how much formal organizational authority your supervisor has built into his/her position, what are the chances that he/she would be personally inclined to use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?
4 = He certainly would; 3 = Probably would; 2 = Might or might not; 1 = No.
3. To what extent can you count on your supervisor to "bail you out," at his/her expense, when you really need him/her?
4 = Certainly would; 3 = Probably; 2 = Might or might not; 1 = No.
1. How often do you take suggestions regarding your work to your supervisor?
4 = Almost always; 3 = Usually; 2 = Seldom; 1 = Never.
5. How would you characterize your working relationship with your supervisor?
4 = Extremely effective; 3 = Better than average; 2 = About average; 1 = Less than average.