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Organizational Support and Motivation Theories: Theoretical Integration and Empirical Analysis

by

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Abstract

According to organizational support theory (OST), the relationship between perceived organizational support (POS) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is driven by social exchange mechanisms and mediated by felt obligation (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). This explanation may be incomplete or limited as well-established motivational concepts are omitted. A new conceptual model is described that extends OST by incorporating the several cognitive motivational concepts (e.g., behavioral intentions, self-efficacy) with the felt obligation concept. The proposed model is tested in two separate studies – an experimental study of undergraduate students ($N = 191$) and a field study of nurses ($N = 171$). In the experiment, induced organizational support was found to significantly affect all the dependent variables, including POS, felt obligation, self-efficacy, and intentions. Results of structural equation modeling were generally supportive of the proposed model. POS was found to be positively and indirectly related to both self-efficacy and intentions, through felt obligation. Consistent with expectations, felt obligation was positively related to both self-efficacy and intentions, while self-efficacy was positively related to intentions. The felt obligation-OCB relation was fully mediated by self-efficacy and intentions. As predicted, a positive relationship between intention and OCB was observed. Contrary to expectations, POS was not directly related to self-efficacy. POS-felt obligation was significantly moderated by exchange ideology significantly in the experimental study only. These findings suggest that employees who feel obligated to the organization as a result of high perceived

organizational support consider both their ability and form intentions to engage in OCBs before reciprocating. The results suggest that variance in felt obligation is associated with efficacy and goal states. The experimental study presented here successfully pioneers the use of vignettes to experimentally induce variance in POS. This research offers two contributions to theory. First, the present findings extend goal theory by demonstrating that felt obligation influences goal choice. Second, this research extends OST by integrating well-established motivational concepts with social exchange mechanisms to provide more detailed understanding of how POS is translated into OCB, and by demonstrating that reciprocation for POS is more conscious and deliberate than previously recognized.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Support is an important aspect of successful relationships, including the relationship people have with the organization that employs them. The amount and type of support provided by an organization affects how employees feel about the organization and how they behave at work. The extent to which employees believe that their organization cares about their well-being and appreciates their contributions is known as perceived organizational support (POS; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). POS is the focal concept in the framework of organizational support theory (OST), which examines the antecedents and consequences of POS, and the processes underlying its associations. The extant research has shown that important antecedents of POS include working conditions and the ways in which the organization (and its agents) treat employees. These include, for example, fairness, job conditions, recognition, compensation and rewards, promotions, autonomy, and training. High POS has favourable effects on organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, in-role performance, extra-role performance, turnover, and other forms of withdrawal behaviour (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

OST begins with an assumption that employees often personify their organization as a distinct entity and form global beliefs regarding the organization's benevolent or malevolent intentions towards them (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The positive relationship between POS and favourable employee

outcomes is largely attributed to reciprocation occurring within the context of a social exchange relationship. Social exchange relationships are characterized by mutual expectations and trust that there will be a mutually beneficial exchange of favours over time, such that a reasonable balance of exchange will be maintained (Blau, 1964). While the exchanged favours need not be identical, they should be approximately equal in value (Blau, 1964). An important maintenance mechanism in social exchange relationships is the norm of reciprocity, which holds that people who receive favourable treatment or benefits incur an obligation to repay their benefactor. In the context of the employment relationship, this means that employees first assess how much support the organization provides. When a high level of support (particularly support that is provided at the organization's discretion) is perceived, employees feel obligated to reciprocate. Employees typically discharge their outstanding obligation to repay the organization in kind by caring about its welfare and working hard to help achieve its objectives (Eisenberger et al., 2001) by increasing their in-role and extra-role performance and decreasing withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003).

Statement of the Research Problem

OST draws on the social exchange theory framework and reciprocity norms to explain the relationship between POS and its favourable consequences (Coyle-Shapiro, Morrow, & Kessler, 2006). While this framework effectively explains how and why POS leads to positive outcomes such as increased affective commitment and discretionary behaviours, it may not provide a truly

comprehensive explanation of the underlying process. Other concepts and mechanisms may also contribute to the process by which POS leads to positive employee behaviours. An important concept in motivation theory is the motivational hub (Locke, 2001; Mitchell, Thompson, & George-Falvy, 2000), which is composed of self-efficacy beliefs and behavioural intentions. Self-efficacy beliefs reflect an individual's belief that he could successfully perform a particular task or activity if he tried (Bandura, 1986), while behavioural intentions reflect that which an individual consciously wants, or is trying, to do (Locke, 1968). The motivational hub fuses "can do" with "will do", and strongly predicts actual behaviour. To date, however, OST has overlooked the potential role of motivational concepts as mechanisms underlying the relationship between POS and behaviour. The research problem addressed in my dissertation is whether motivational mechanisms contribute to the relationship between POS and discretionary behaviour. In addition to considering this issue from a theoretical perspective, I present two empirical studies that explicitly test the role of self-efficacy and behavioural intentions in the POS-OCB relation.

There is a wealth of social information in employees' work environment which shapes their attitudes and behaviour (Festinger, 1954; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). When considering how to respond to organizational support, employees may look beyond their own self-efficacy beliefs and behavioural intentions, and consider the behaviour of others. Norms are an important type of social information – they clarify for individuals what types of behaviour are valued, appropriate, effective, and rewarded (Cialdini & Trost, 1998). Blau (1964) argued

that social information and the behaviour of others within a workgroup could influence social exchange by establishing an acceptable rate of exchange within a group. Although the influence of social information on the process by which employees reciprocate for POS warrants attention, it has yet to be considered in the POS literature. In my dissertation, I consider, from a theoretical perspective, how perceived norms might influence employees' reciprocation for organization support through discretionary behaviour. Although I do not empirically examine the role of perceived norms in reciprocation for POS, consideration of its potential contribution provides a useful foundation for future research.

Research Scope and Underlying Assumptions

A number of favourable behavioural consequences are associated with employees' perceptions of high levels of organizational support. However, the motivational process model developed and tested in my dissertation focuses on a single behavioural outcome: organizational citizenship behaviour. Organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) are those voluntary day-to-day activities that are often necessary for effective organizational functioning. Examples of citizenship activities include being cooperative and helpful, performing tasks that are outside of one's formal job description, or performing expected in-role activities above minimally-acceptable standards (see Katz, 1964; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). OCBs have been described as "ideal wares for reciprocation" because they are easily given or withheld (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996, p. 220), and are less affected by employees' abilities and work processes than in-role performance (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). As a result, OCBs should be particularly responsive

(in both timing and content) to changes in the support provided by the organization. The discretionary and observable nature of OCB, coupled with its well-documented, positive relationship with POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) makes this concept a suitable criterion variable for testing the motivational process model.

Some underlying assumptions and boundary conditions of the model presented in my dissertation warrant comment. One of the underlying assumptions of the motivational process model presented in my dissertation is that organizational citizenship behaviour is a slack resource. In other words, I assume that employees have "room" to engage in organizational citizenship behaviour in the course of their workday, should they choose to do so. If employees did not have the time to engage in citizenship behaviour during their work day, or could only do so at the expense their in-role performance, then citizenship behaviour would not be a slack resource, and my model may not apply. A second assumption of my model is that the organization has at least some discretion in its treatment of employees – if the organization is bound to treat every employee identically – some of the practical implications associated with fostering POS in employees may not be as relevant. Organizational support theory maintains that POS is enhanced when the support provided to employees is perceived to be provided at the organization's discretion or is offered differentially to some employees and not others (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997). In some work environments, collective agreements may strongly limit the amount of discretion that organizations have to treat employees within the bargaining unit

differently. In work environments where organizational discretion with respect to organizational support is strongly limited or constrained, my model may also be less applicable.

Research Questions

To reiterate, the purpose my dissertation is to examine whether well-established cognitive mechanisms drawn from the motivation literature complement social exchange and reciprocity mechanisms, and together, provide a more comprehensive understanding of the POS-OCB relationship. My research is guided by the following research questions.

1. Does the expression of POS through discretionary behaviour involve motivational processes? More specifically, I ask whether behavioural intentions and self-efficacy – two well established motivational concepts – are involved in the process by which POS is translated into organizational citizenship behaviour. Behavioural intentions are fundamental concepts in goal theory (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990; Locke, 1968; Locke, 2001; Mitchell et al., 2000), the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the theory of planned behaviour (e.g., Ajzen, 1991), where they are positioned as the most immediate determinant of volitional behaviour. Although these theoretical frameworks would predict that behavioural intentions mediate the relationship between POS and OCB, the POS literature has yet to examine their role.

Self-efficacy is an important concept in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1986), goal theory, and the theory of planned behaviour. To the extent that individuals are more likely to engage in behaviours that they believe

they can execute successfully, self-efficacy beliefs could play a pivotal role in behavioural reciprocation for POS.

Although drawn from the motivation literatures, the behavioural intentions and self-efficacy concepts should be compatible with the social exchange mechanisms that OST currently emphasizes in explaining how and why employees perceptions of high levels of organizational support lead to increased levels of organizational citizenship behaviour.

Employee behaviour is influenced by relevant norms present in the social context in which the behaviour occurs (Johns, 2006). Since many of the behavioural consequences of POS are publicly enacted, behavioural norms will develop and will influence the behaviour of group members. The effect of social cues on behavioural intentions is recognized by goal theory (Locke & Latham, 1990; Mitchell et al., 2000), the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954), and normative behaviour theories (e.g., Cialdini & Trost, 1998). Social exchange theory also recognizes that social information and the behaviour of others can influence exchange relationships by establishing a rate of exchange within the group (Blau, 1964). OCB scholars have suggested that social information and norms will affect OCBs (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004; George & Jones, 1997). It stands to reason, then, that the normative behaviour of others in a workgroup could influence the behavioural reciprocation of POS through organizational citizenship behaviour.

2. *How does exchange ideology, an individual characteristic, moderate the motivational process model of the POS-OCB relationship?*

Prior research in the POS and OCB literatures suggests that exchange ideology should moderate some relations in the motivational process model of the POS-OCB relationship. Exchange ideology reflects the extent to which the individual believes that their work effort should depend on the benefits provided by the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). It has been found to moderate the relationship between POS and a number of outcomes (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 2001; e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1986; Ladd & Henry, 2000; Orpen, 1994; Sinclair & Tetrick, 1995; Witt, 1991).

The above questions guide the research presented in this dissertation. It should be noted that in answering these research questions, the level of analysis is the individual. In the next section, I provide a brief overview of the remaining chapters in the dissertation.

Chapter Summaries

The purpose of my research is to examine whether motivational cognitive mechanisms contribute to the relationship between POS and organizational citizenship behaviour. I focus on self-efficacy beliefs, behavioural intentions, and behavioural norms, and investigate how these concepts relate to felt obligation. In addition, I examine whether exchange ideology moderates the motivational process by which POS leads to OCB. The remainder of my dissertation is organized into four chapters.

In Chapter 2, I present a review paper which first describes the current conceptualization of reciprocation for POS, and subsequently introduces three well-known cognitive motivational concepts as mediators of the relationship between POS and organizational citizenship behaviour. A motivational process model of the relationship between POS and OCB is developed, in which self-efficacy beliefs, behavioural intentions, and perceived norms are intervening variables. The theoretical and practical implications of adding motivational concepts to the behavioural reciprocation model are discussed. I argue that reciprocation for POS is more conscious and deliberate than previously recognized, and describe a motivational process through which employees' responses to POS involve not only an assessment of their obligation to reciprocate, but also the relevant norms within their workgroup, as well as their own self-efficacy beliefs and intentions to engage in citizenship behaviour. The motivational process model developed in this chapter extends OST by arguing that cognitive mechanisms from the motivation literature can be integrated with social exchange mechanisms to better understand how POS leads to OCB.

In Chapters 3 and 4, I describe the results of two empirical studies that test a portion of the motivational process model developed in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 describes an empirical study that examines, using experimental methodology, how induced organizational support affects one's motivation to reciprocate. The motivational concepts measured in this study include feelings of obligation, perceptions of self-efficacy, and intentions (or goals). In essence, this paper examines whether variance in perceived support impacts motivation to act. Study

1 provides the first evidence that POS does, in fact, have motivational implications, and provides partial support for the broader model discussed in Chapter 2.

Chapter 4 describes the findings of a study of nurses that largely replicate the findings of Study 1 in a field setting, and extends the first study by including a measure of citizenship behaviour. The field study findings confirm the motivational significance of POS and reveal an interesting interplay among the motivational processes concepts, which, collectively, impact OCB. The pattern of findings suggests that social exchange and motivational mechanisms work together to explain how employees' perceptions of organizational support are translated to OCB.

Chapter 5 presents a general discussion of the preceding four chapters. I revisit the research questions posed here, and summarize the collective findings of Studies 1 and 2, and their respective tests of a portion of the theoretical model. The theoretical and practical implications of the findings are discussed, and the contributions of the work are considered.

Conclusion

The purpose of my dissertation is to examine the process by which POS is translated to OCB. More specifically, my research objective is to examine whether prominent motivational concepts play an intervening role in the process by which employees reciprocate for organizational support through citizenship behaviour. This objective is pursued in the chapters that follow. In the next chapter, I develop a theoretical model that integrates motivational mechanisms

with social exchange and reciprocity mechanisms to detail a more comprehensive explanation of the process by which POS is translated in OCB.

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CHAPTER 2

Introduction

Regardless of its form, whether implied or formally promised, a key ingredient in virtually any successful relationship is *support*. Close relationships are characterized by greater mutual concern and higher levels of emotional and informational support than more casual or distant relationships (Hays, 1989). Friendships are built on a foundation of trust and of giving and receiving various types of support, particularly during the earliest stages of the relationship, when the need for balance in the exchange is more prevalent (Hays, 1989). Social and emotional support are also important in marriage (Bradbury, Fincham, & Beach, 2000), where the expectations of support and reciprocity are formally promised through vows that typically specify that spouses will love, respect, and support one another through good times and bad. The social support that stems from these close relationships has positive effects on physical health and psychological well-being, and plays an important buffering role against various types of strains (Walen & Lachman, 2009).

A relationship with important implications for most people is the one they experience at work – with their organization. Although a relationship with a social entity, like an organization, is not the same as you would experience with a parent, friend, or spouse, there are some interesting parallels. In fact, many of our expectations of the work relationship are similar to those in interpersonal relationships. There is an expectation that mutually satisfying benefits will be exchanged: employees will provide the organization with effort and performance

and the organization will provide them with compensation and other forms of support. It is important for employees to feel supported because they are inherently less powerful than the organization (Godard & Delaney, 2000), and most employees are far more dependent on the organization than it is on them. More importantly, many employees are stressed or stretched by the needs and expectations placed on them at work, and feeling supported buffers employees against many of these effects (Butts, Vandenberg, DeJoy, Schaffer, & Wilson, 2009; Byrne & Hochwarter, 2006). The idea that feeling supported and appreciated matters to employees spawned an entire academic literature which examines how these feelings develop and how they affect employees' attitudes and behaviour.

In this chapter, I examine employees' perceptions of organizational support and discuss how these perceptions might influence their work-related attitudes, motivation, and behaviour. The chapter is organized as follows. First, I begin with a definition of perceived organizational support from the perspective of the individual employee. Next, I review the theoretical context for this focal concept, and outline the general research questions that the model will attempt to explain. The remainder of the chapter develops a rationale for a model that will be partly tested in subsequent chapters.

Perceptions of Organizational Support (POS)

The primary concept in this research is perceived organizational support. Eisenberger and his colleagues suggested that employees form global beliefs regarding the extent to which the organization values their contributions, cares

about their well-being, and shows concern for their interests; they called this concept perceived organizational support (POS; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). They suggested that employees consider the frequency, extent, and perceived sincerity of a range of rewards (including praise and approval, compensation, rank, participation, and job design), and draw conclusions about whether the organization's intentions towards them are benevolent or malevolent. Perceptions of organizational support help employees determine whether the organization will satisfy their socio-emotional needs for affiliation, approval, and esteem, and whether the organization will reward them for increased work effort and performance (Eisenberger et al., 1986). It is important to note that these beliefs stem from the employees' subjective perceptions, and thus the process is rather more informal than formal. POS is an individual-level concept. In this study, POS is defined as the extent to which employees believe that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

The extent of research undertaken since POS' introduction speaks to the importance of this concept in the workplace, as evident in a recent review by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002). For example, perceived organizational support is positively correlated with organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job performance, and discretionary behaviours, and is negatively correlated with absenteeism and other withdrawal behaviours (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). POS scholars have also examined the antecedent correlates of POS, and a recent review of the literature suggests that certain factors are more important than

others in determining how much support employees perceive. For example, fairness, supervisor support, the frequency and extent of organizational rewards such as compensation, promotions, and autonomy are positively correlated with POS, while organizational politics and role stressors are negatively correlated with POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). These findings suggest that the type of management practices and policies used by an organization can have a significant impact on employees' perceptions of organizational support. Eisenberger et al. (1986) introduced the concept of perceived organizational support within the context of organizational support theory. A review of this theory now follows.

Organizational Support Theory (OST)

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) is an important framework for organizational support theory (OST), which begins with an assumption that employees often personify their organization as a distinct entity that acts in accord with their attitudes and motives (Eisenberger et al., 1986). As a result, employees respond to the organization much as they would another person, and many of the expectations that people have about interpersonal relationships carry over to the employment relationship, including the expectation of giving and receiving support. According to OST, employees form perceptions of how much support the organization provides, which results in their feeling obligated towards the organization. Strong feelings of obligation, which are measured by the concept felt obligation, indicate that the employee recognizes that the organization must be repaid for the support it provides. This outstanding obligation is typically discharged when the employee cares about the organization's welfare and works

hard to help achieve its objectives by increasing his or in-role and extra-role performance and decreasing withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). This pattern stems, in large part, from employees' acceptance of the reciprocity norm (Gouldner, 1960) and the fact that many employment relationships are, in fact, social exchange relationships. As such, there are expectations and trust, on both sides of the relationship, of a mutually beneficial exchange of favours over time in order to maintain a reasonable balance of exchange (Blau, 1964). While the favours that are exchanged need not be identical, they tend to be approximately equal in value (Blau, 1964). In the context of the employment relationship, this often means that the organization provides employees with a range of supportive or discretionary benefits and job conditions, and in return, employees work harder and increase their extra-role efforts to help the organization succeed (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). Although felt obligation is widely assumed to mediate the relationship between POS and various outcomes, only two studies have empirically confirmed the mediation assumption (Coyle-Shapiro, Morrow, & Kessler, 2006; Eisenberger et al., 2001). A depiction of the mediation model is provided in Figure 2-1.

OST also contends that favourable treatment contributes more strongly to POS when the employees attribute it to discretionary, rather than constrained or obligated, actions on the organization's behalf (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997). When the reciprocity norm (Gouldner, 1960) is measured in the

context of a work relationship, it is operationalized as an exchange ideology, which is defined as an employee's belief that his or her work effort and concern for the organization depends on the level of support the organization provides (Eisenberger et al., 2001). For employees with strong exchange ideologies, caring about the organization and working hard to help it succeed are contingent on the amount of support that they receive from the organization.

Given that social exchange explanations have been the primary focus in the POS literature for explaining the effects of POS, this theoretical framework is emphasized in my dissertation. A central objective of my dissertation is to extend the traditional OST explanation of POS effects by incorporating ideas drawn from several motivational theories in the organizational behaviour literature. There have been suggestions in the OST literature that motivational processes – other than felt obligation – play a pivotal role in shaping employees' behaviour; however this has received only limited attention. For example, POS is thought to influence behaviour via the employees' performance-reward expectancies (Maurer, Pierce, & Shore, 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The opportunity to receive a desired reward signals to employees that the organization appreciates their contributions and should lead to the development of POS, which, in turn, should increase employees' expectations that rewards for high performance will be forthcoming (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). I will return to the concept of employee expectancies later in the chapter when discussing role of self-efficacy. Next, I discuss how expanding OST requires answers to the following two questions which guide my research.

Research Questions

1. Does the expression of POS through discretionary behaviour involve motivational processes? According to OST, POS causes employees to feel obligated to help the organization succeed, which positively affects their commitment and effort. While most work on the reciprocation of POS is grounded in social exchange theory and implicitly assumes the mediating role of obligation, few researchers have explicitly examined obligation's role in reciprocation. Only two studies have empirically demonstrated that the relationship between POS and discretionary performance is mediated by an individual's felt obligation (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2006; Eisenberger et al., 2001). While we know that POS is positively related to employees' feelings of obligation to help the organization, we don't know precisely *how* perceptions of organizational support and these feelings of obligation impact the underlying psychological processes that regulate goal-directed behaviour. A limitation with OST is its reliance on felt obligation as the sole motivational concept and its silence with respect to other known motivational concepts.

Three motivational concepts that potentially add explanatory value to OST are behavioural intentions, self-efficacy, and criterion-relevant norms. The notion that intentions are the most immediate determinant of volitional (self-regulated) behaviour is fundamental to goal theory (e.g., Locke, 1968; Locke, 2001; Locke & Latham, 1990; Mitchell, Thompson, & George-Falvy, 2000), the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). To date, however, the POS literature has not formally considered

the role of behavioural intentions or how intentions mediate social exchange processes.

From the perspective of social cognitive theory it would appear that another missing concept is efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1986). OST has largely overlooked how self-efficacy is evoked in situations where organizational support is provided and how efficacy perceptions combine with intentions to influence behaviour (e.g., Ajzen, 1991; Locke, 2001; Locke & Latham, 1990). It stands to reason that self-efficacy might play a pivotal role as employees discharge their felt obligations. Eisenberger and his colleagues have referenced expectancy theory when discussing the relationship between POS and performance-outcome expectancies (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), but focused more on the development of POS than reciprocation for organizational support.

Also missing in OST is a discussion regarding the role of criterion-relevant norms that are derived from the social context in which the behaviour occurs (Johns, 2006), and how these normative perceptions facilitate or forestall goal-directed behaviour. Given that many of the behavioural outcomes associated with POS are publicly enacted within a work group, behavioural norms for these various behaviours will form, and will influence the behaviour of group members. Goal theory (Locke & Latham, 1990; Mitchell et al., 2000), the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954), and normative behaviour theories (e.g., Cialdini, Reno, & Kallgren, 1990; Heywood, 2002) all

assert to some degree that intentions are potentially shaped by the social cues provided by others. Even social exchange theory, on which OST is based, recognizes that social information and the behaviour of others can influence exchange relationships by establishing an acceptable rate of exchange within a group (Blau, 1964). In summary, to address the first research question it will be necessary to develop the motivational story offered by OST to include concepts that have been shown to play an important role in determining the direction and intensity of behaviour, such as self-efficacy beliefs, behavioural intentions, and perceived norms.

2. How does exchange ideology, an individual characteristic, moderate the motivational process model of the POS-OCB relationship? Do the relations among POS, the motivational process variables, and discretionary behaviour depend on characteristics of the individual employee? Some evidence in the literature suggests that this might be the case. In this study I will specifically look exchange ideology. Exchange ideology is a trait characteristic that reflects the strength of the employee's acceptance of the reciprocity norm, and their belief that work effort should depend on the material and symbolic benefits provided by the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Exchange ideology has been shown to moderate the relationship between POS and a number of outcome variables (Eisenberger et al., 2001; e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1986; Ladd & Henry, 2000; Orpen, 1994; Sinclair & Tetrick, 1995; Witt, 1991) and is therefore relevant to considerations of how employees respond to POS.

These general questions are addressed within the context of a theoretical model that lays out several key concepts drawn from well-established motivation theories. The proposed model introduces three variables new to OST, including behavioural intentions, self-efficacy beliefs, and perceived norms. Moreover, the model considers the moderating role of exchange ideology on specific relations in the model. In the next section, I present a detailed discussion of a focal discretionary behaviour.

Focal Discretionary Behaviour: Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

One of the most frequently studied types of discretionary behaviour is organizational citizenship behaviour. Organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) are those voluntary day-to-day activities that are often necessary for effective organizational functioning. Examples of citizenship activities include being cooperative and helpful, performing tasks that are outside of one's formal job description, or performing expected in-role activities above minimally-acceptable standards (see Katz, 1964; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). OCB has been defined as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4).

While the OCB concept remains grounded in social exchange theory (Organ, 1990) the actual concept has evolved. Initially, the domain of OCB was believed to consist of two primary dimensions, altruism and generalized compliance (Smith et al., 1983). Altruism refers to citizenship behaviours directed towards individuals within the organization, such as voluntarily helping

coworkers who are experiencing difficulty. Generalized compliance refers to activities directed toward the organization, such as following the organization's rules, policies and procedures. Later, Organ (1998) expanded the definition of the concept domain from two to five primary dimensions. In addition to altruism and generalized compliance, three additional dimensions were added. Sportsmanship was defined as an individual's willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining. Courtesy included a variety of behaviours, such as seeking or sharing information in order to prevent problems for others. Lastly, civic virtue included employees' active participation in organizational affairs, along with a variety of daily tasks pertaining to correspondence, meetings and attention to broader organizational issues.

Williams and Anderson (1991) added a new element to this conceptualization by suggesting that the focus or target of the OCB should be considered. Whereas Organ's five-dimension model of OCB distinguishes between different *forms* of behaviour, Williams and Anderson's two-dimension model distinguishes between different *targets* for the behaviour. It is important to note, however, the strong link between the two models, as Williams and Anderson based their model on Organ's five-dimension taxonomy. Accordingly, OCB directed toward the organization (OCBO) includes conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship, while OCB directed toward other individuals (OCBI) includes altruism and courtesy (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Recent work appears to cast some doubt on the sharp distinction between these various dimensions. Lepine, Erez and Johnson (2002) argued in favour of a

single-factor or uni-dimensional model of OCB, and suggest that a more general definition of OCB as "a general tendency to be cooperative and helpful in organizational settings" (p. 61) would be appropriate. A recent meta-analytic confirmatory factor analysis of 40 OCB papers compared the single-factor OCB model and the the two-factor OCBO/OCBI model (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007). The confirmatory factor model for the two-factor OCBO/OCBI model was a good fit to the data, however, the extremely high intercorrelation (r = 0.98) between the two dimensions suggested that the two dimensions were not empirically distinct. The one factor OCB model was found to provide a better fit to the data. Their results supported the one factor model, and were consistent with Lepine et al's earlier recommendations. Though parsimonious, the one-factor model of OCB is less theoretically consistent with the notion of targeted reciprocation, which is explored in a limited fashion in my dissertation. Of the two empirical studies presented herein, one study uses a two-factor OCBO/OCBI model, while the other uses a one-factor OCB model.

In the next section, I provide an overview of the primary relationship that I am trying to explain – the relationship between POS and OCB. Refer to Figure 2-1 for a depiction of relationships that have been theoretically and empirically demonstrated in the OST literature. The numbers in the figure correspond to the propositions presented in this chapter.

The Primary Relationship: POS and OCB

POS is likely to develop in a context where the organization or its agents provide support at their discretion rather as a function of mandatory policy, i.e.,

support that is legislated or ordered does not have the same psychological impact as when support is freely provided, or when favourable treatment is provided for some individuals but not others (Eisenberger et al., 1997). In other words, when organizations provide support at their discretion, employees are more likely to feel obligated to reciprocate this goodwill than if support is provided to everyone as a matter of policy. In repaying the organization, it is natural for employees to offer what they can in the way of discretionary treatment. In this way, there is a similarity and balance in the nature of the favours being exchanged. Both the organization and the employees are choosing to demonstrate acts which fall outside normally prescribed roles or expectations. The discretionary nature of OCBs also makes them "ideal wares for reciprocation" because they are easily given or withheld (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996, p. 220) and are less affected by employees' abilities and work processes than in-role performance (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). These characteristics should also make it possible for employees to readily adjust the type, amount, and/or timing of OCBs they demonstrate if or when the organization makes changes to the type or amount of support it provides. The relationship between POS and OCB is well established (as depicted in Figure 2-1), and many studies have reported a positive correlation between the two constructs, across a variety of job and organizational contexts (ex. Byrne & Hochwarter, 2006; Chen, Eisenberger, Johnson, Sucharski, & Aselage, 2009; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Although the strength

of the POS-OCB relationship varied across studies, the overall pattern of a positive relationship between the two variables is quite robust, and has been substantiated by meta-analytic research. Rhoades and Eisenberger's (2002) meta-analysis of 16 published and unpublished POS-OCB studies found a moderate relationship between POS and extra-role behaviour, and reported an estimated true overall correlation of $r = 0.22$ between the two constructs. Extra-role behaviour refers to behaviours which are outside the boundaries of role expectations and attempt to benefit the organization. Van Dyne, Cummings, and McLean-Parks (1995) characterized OCB as a form of extra-role behaviour (ERB), which is defined more broadly. Figure 2-1 depicts the relationship between POS and OCB, as proposed by OST and established by empirical work in this field.

OST argues that employees will likely respond to organizational support in a targeted fashion as predicted by social exchange theory. If support is perceived to be coming from the organization, then reciprocation will be directed towards the organization. Therefore, OST proposes that the POS-OCBO relationship will be stronger than the POS-OCBI relationship. Several studies have tested this proposition, although findings are inconsistent. Some studies have found support for the prediction that the POS-OCBO relationship will be stronger (Ladd & Henry, 2000; Masterson et al., 2000; Moorman et al., 1998), whereas other studies have found no significant differences in the relationship between POS and OCBI, or OCBO, respectively (e.g., Shore & Wayne, 1993). Although social exchange theory calls for targeted reciprocation, the findings of equally

strong (or stronger) relationships of POS with OCBI in a few studies may reflect the fact that citizenship behaviours directed towards individuals within the organization still benefit the organization, albeit indirectly, which may satisfy the requirement for reciprocation, though perhaps less efficiently than reciprocation directed towards the organization. Testing the hypothesis of targeted reciprocation on the POS literature as whole, Rhoades and Eisenberger's (2002) meta-analysis examined the relationship between POS and the two dimensions of OCB. They reported a corrected correlation of r =.29 for POS and OCBO (after removing outliers), and r= 0.22 for POS with OCBI, which suggests that the overall body of empirical evidence for the POS studies included in their meta-analysis confirms OST's argument that employees' discretionary behavioural responses to organizational support are more likely to be directed specifically towards the organization as a whole.

Proposition 1: POS will be positively related to OCB, such that the higher the POS, the higher the OCB.

Proposition 2: The relationship between POS and OCBo will be stronger than it is between POS and OCBi.

POS and OCB: The Role of Felt Obligation

In social exchange relationships, acceptance of the reciprocity norm results in feelings of obligation, or of indebtedness towards the donor, when favours or beneficial treatment are received. This feeling of indebtedness has been defined as a state of tension, and as such, indebtedness motivates effort and behaviours as individuals strive to reduce it and the associated tension

(Greenberg, 1968, cited in Greenberg & Frisch, 1972). To the extent that employees control the timing, frequency, and extent of their own discretionary behaviours (e.g., OCB), these behaviours should be more sensitive to motivational states such as felt obligation. Thus, when employees feel an obligation to reciprocate, POS affects OCB. The assumption that acts of support by the organization and its agents cause employees to feel obligated to reciprocate this goodwill through their attitudes and behaviours is a generally accepted tenet in the POS literature (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998; Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995; Shore & Wayne, 1993), and is reflected in Figure 2-1. To my knowledge, only two studies have actually confirmed this assertion (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2006; Eisenberger et al., 2001). Notwithstanding the paucity of empirical support, on the basis of OST, I propose that employees who perceive that their organization and its agents offer a high level of support will feel obligated to repay the organization in kind, and that felt obligation will be expressed as discretionary behaviour.

Proposition 3: The relation between POS and OCB is mediated by felt obligation.

With these first 3 propositions, as illustrated in Figure 2-1, I have reviewed OST's conceptualization of the relationship between POS and OCB, and have explained how the reciprocation process is mediated by felt obligation. In the next section, I move beyond the current content and boundaries of OST, and introduce the proposed model, as depicted in Figure 2-2.

The Proposed Model

POS and OCB: Moving Beyond Organizational Support Theory

Up to this point, my review of the relationship between POS and OCB has been based on OST. In this section, I consider motivational dynamics other than social exchange as a basis for explaining how perceptions of support motivate individuals to exhibit OCB. As alluded to earlier, several cognitive mechanisms that are outside the OST framework may also explain POS-OCB relations. Specifically, intentions are the most immediate and potent determinants of behaviour – across several criterion domains – yet OST is silent on this issue. Efficacy is fundamental to all human behaviour, yet OST is silent on this issue. OCB is subject to normative control (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004; George & Jones, 1997), yet OST is silent on this issue. Thus, to extend our understanding of the motivational processes that mediate the relationship between POS and OCB, we need to go beyond OST as it exists today, as it is simply too narrow a perspective.

In this next section, I look beyond OST to several prominent motivation theories and identify three cognitive mechanisms that should mediate the relationship between POS and OCB. First, I look at behavioural intentions, which are central to goal theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) as well as the theory of reasoned action (TRA; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the theory of planned behaviour (TPB; Ajzen, 1991). Next, I examine self-efficacy beliefs, which stem from Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory. Together with intentions, self-efficacy (perceived control) form the "motivational hub" (Locke, 2001; Mitchell et al., 2000) in goal theory and are integral predictors of behaviour in the TPB.

Third, I consider the effect of the perceived norm for OCB to understand how social information might cue employees' reciprocation for POS.

I turn now to the development of a motivation process model intended to further explicate the POS-OCB relation and extend OST. A depiction of the model is presented in Figure 2-2. Propositions are numbered and correspond to paths in the model, and will be discussed in order. I begin by introducing each of the three cognitive mechanisms, and discuss relations between specific mechanisms within the motivational hub and OCB. Next, I assess the effects of POS on each of these cognitive mechanisms. I then discuss how the cognitive variables relate to one another, and to felt obligation. Finally, I examine how exchange ideology, an individual characteristic, moderates some of the relationships in the model.

Intentions and OCB

The adage "you can lead a horse to water, but you can't make it drink" makes specific reference to a behavioural intention – and suggests, rather convincingly, that this is not a benign motivational concept but rather is fundamental to understanding why people do what they do at work. The concept of behavioural intentions has a long history in the organizational behaviour literature across a variety of criterion domains. Most notably, the role of intentions (also referred to as internalized or personal goals) is pivotal for understanding how assigned goals affect motivation and task performance (Locke, Frederick, Lee, & Bobko, 1984; Locke & Latham, 1990; Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981; Locke, 1968; Locke, 2001), how behaviour is planned and choices

are made (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), and how dissatisfying work experiences affect turnover decisions (Mobley, 1977).

Locke (1968) defined intentions or goals, simply, as what an individual wants to do or is consciously trying to do. According to Locke et al. (1981), the motivational value of goals (or intentions) is that they direct attention and action to goal-relevant tasks or activities, they mobilize energy and effort in proportion to the perceived requirement of the task or activity, they increase persistence (e.g., directed effort over time), and they lead to the development of plans, strategies or action plans so that intentions or goals can be attained. An individual's internal goals or intentions have been found to be affected by a wide range of external inducements (e.g., explicit task instructions; assigned goals; performance feedback; monetary incentives), and internal states (e.g., personality characteristics; attitudes) (for a review of the factors that have been found to shape intentions, see Locke, 2001; Locke & Latham, 1990). All else equal (e.g. ability), the basic finding underlying goal theory (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990), is that specific, difficult goals will lead to higher performance than vague, easy, or "do your best" goals. Mitchell et al. (2000) speak to the importance of goals (or intentions) in their assertion that "almost all voluntary human activity is at least partially caused by goals" (p. 217). The positive effect of goals or intentions on behaviour has been shown repeatedly across a wide range of individuals, jobs, and organizational contexts (Locke & Latham, 1990, 2002), and is perhaps one of the most robust findings in the organizational behaviour literature (Mento, Steel, & Karren, 1987).

Intentions have also been found to play a fundamental role in the theories of reasoned action (TRA; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) and planned behaviour (TPB; e.g. Ajzen, 1991) as proximal predictors of behaviour. Intentions reflect people's motivation to perform a behaviour: intentions indicate how hard people will try, and how much effort they will exert, assuming the behaviour in question is under volitional control (Ajzen, 1991). As a general rule, Ajzen (1991) suggests that when people have the necessary resources and opportunities, "the stronger the intention to engage in a behaviour, the more likely should be its performance" (p. 181). The TRA and TPB have been applied across a broad range of behaviours, and on the whole, the empirical findings strongly support the role of intentions as an immediate predictor of behaviour. For example, in a meta-analysis of studies across a broad range of behavioural domains, Armitage and Conner (2001) reported a size-corrected correlation of $r = 0.47$ for the relationship between intentions and behaviour, and found that intentions accounted for 22% of the variance in behaviour.

The plurality of research focused on turnover shows a strong relationship between intentions to leave/quit and employee turnover (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978). In his early work on turnover, Mobley (1977; Mobley et al., 1978) draws on previous work on intentions by Fishbein (1967) and Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) TRA, as well as Locke's (1968) model of task motivation, to both define intentions and justify his argument that turnover intentions are the immediate precursor of turnover behaviour. In their turnover model, Mobley, et al. (1978) explain the intervening stages in employees' withdrawal decision

making process. The model specifies three intermediate steps that mediate the relationship between job dissatisfaction and quitting/staying. Employees may work through each stage in sequence, or may skip one, two, or even all three intermediate steps. In order, the steps in the withdrawal decision making process include: job dissatisfaction, thinking of quitting, intention to search (for a new job), intention to quit/stay, and lastly, actual quit/stay behaviour. The empirical literature offers robust support for the proposed relationship between turnover intentions and subsequent turnover. For example, turnover research has consistently found that turnover intentions significantly predict actual turnover (Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Mobley et al., 1978). A meta-analysis of 71 turnover studies estimated the average corrected correlation between intention to quit and actual turnover at $r = .35$, and confirmed that intentions to quit are the best predictor of actual turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). A number of turnover studies framed from a TPB perspective offer consistent findings (Hom, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979; Prestholdt, Lane, & Mathews, 1987; van Breukelen, van der Vlist, & Steensma, 2004). These findings that turnover intentions are a proximate predictor of turnover are relevant to POS-OCB, and suggest that employees' intentions to engage in OCBs will predict subsequent citizenship behaviour.

Although few studies have examined the relation between intentions and OCB, the evidence from two empirical studies indicates that intentions are significantly and positively related to OCB (Williams, Pitre, & Zainuba, 2002; Williams & Shiaw, 1999). Going forward, I use the terms "intentions to engage in

OCBs" and "OCB intentions" interchangeably; both terms reflect employees' behavioural intentions to perform, engage in, or demonstrate, organizational citizenship behaviours at work. Based on theoretical arguments and empirical findings, I feel it reasonable to assert that people who intend to engage in OCBs will, in fact, demonstrate these behaviours on the job (see Figure 2-2).

Proposition 4: Intentions to engage in OCB are positively related to OCB, such that the stronger the intentions, the greater the OCB.

Self-Efficacy and OCB

Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief about her capability to perform at some level, if the necessary effort is put forth (Bandura, 1986). In other words, this motivational concept captures our personal feelings about how well we think we can do with respect to the specific behaviour in question, regardless of the nature of the behaviour. The concept of self-efficacy has a long history in the organizational behaviour literature, across a variety of criterion domains. Bandura (1986) has written extensively about self-efficacy, and reports that people's self-efficacy beliefs play a central role in their choice of behaviour and decisions about how long to persist in a chosen course of action. Tasks and situations which are judged to exceed ones' capabilities tend to be avoided, whereas activities judged to be within ones' capabilities are readily undertaken. Bandura also claims that the greater people's self-efficacy beliefs, the greater their effort and persistence, particularly in the face of obstacles. Most importantly, self-efficacy beliefs help to motivate people to achieve their goals (or behavioural intentions; Bandura, 1986; Bandura & Cervone, 1983; Locke et al., 1984;

Mitchell et al., 2000), and may actually have a stronger effect on future performance than past experience (Bandura, 1982, 1986; Locke & Latham, 1990).

Several types of information contribute to the development of self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1986). These include enactive attainment (successful personal experience), vicarious experience (observation of similar others' successful attainment), verbal persuasion and social influence, and physiological states. The first two sources of information are particularly relevant. People's personal experiences with tasks or actions are a primary source of information in the development of self-efficacy beliefs: the more an individual succeeds (or fails) at a particular task or activity, the higher (or lower) their resulting self-efficacy beliefs. Self-efficacy beliefs are also shaped by the observed successes or failures of similar others. In other words, if an individual observes someone else (believed to be equally competent to the observer) succeeding at a task or action, the observer is likely to conclude that she is equally capable of successfully completing the activity. This points to the role of descriptive behavioural norms as an influence on self-efficacy beliefs, and will be addressed later in this chapter.

In TPB, self-efficacy and is an important determinant of intentions and behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). As in goal theory, the TPB proposes that self-efficacy has a direct effect on intentions and behaviour, as well as a mediated effect on behaviour through intentions. Early forms of the TPB focused on a more general construct known as perceived behavioural control, defined as the perceived controllability of behaviour (somewhat akin to a locus of behavioural control). In recent years, the scope of the TPB has expanded, and now encompasses both PBC

and a more traditional measure of self-efficacy (as defined by Bandura). Research attempting to distinguish between these two representations of self-efficacy has shown that there is a strong relationship between self-efficacy and intentions, whereas there is little consistency in the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intentions (Conner & Armitage, 1998). Across a range of behavioural domains, meta-analysis estimates the correlation between self-efficacy and behavioural intentions at $r = .34$, and suggests that self-efficacy accounts for an incremental 7% of the variance in intentions, and an additional 2% of the variance in behaviour (Armitage & Conner, 2001).

A tenet of goal theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) is that behaviour and performance flow from the motivational hub that is comprised of intentions or self-set goals and self-efficacy. Of these two cognitive mechanisms, the most immediate determinant of behaviour is intention; however self-efficacy beliefs also affect performance indirectly through intentions. In addition to this indirect effect (through intentions), self-efficacy has been found to have an independent effect on performance (see Locke et al., 1984; Meyer & Gellatly, 1988). Specifying a direct effect of self-efficacy on behaviour, separate from intentions, is consistent with the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). According to Bandura (1986), the direct effect of self-efficacy beliefs on performance can be explained because increased self-efficacy leads to increased commitment to a course of action, particularly in the face of obstacles and failures.

OCB scholars have theorized that self-efficacy beliefs contribute to the performance of discretionary behaviour. For example, George and Jones (1997)

suggested that employees' self-efficacy beliefs constrain or encourage spontaneous behaviour (i.e., citizenship behaviour). They argued that employees, regardless of their attitudes or mood, would only offer or perform those citizenship behaviours which they felt capable of doing. George and Jones (1997) also suggested that employees' self-efficacy beliefs can vary across the spectrum of spontaneous or citizenship behaviours, and that employees may feel competent at some behaviours but not others. In the empirical literature, positive relations have been observed between measures of self-efficacy and a range of work outcomes. In addition to a robust, positive relationship with job performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), work-related self-efficacy is positively correlated with various dimensions of OCB (or prosocial organizational behaviour or contextual performance) across a range of occupational groups (Bogler & Somech, 2004; Jawahar, Meurs, Ferris, & Hochwarter, 2008; Lee, 2001; Maurer, Mitchell, & Barbeite, 2002a; Todd & Kent, 2006). Here, and elsewhere in the thesis, I use the terms "self-efficacy for OCBs" and "self-efficacy" in reference to employee's beliefs that they could successfully perform OCBs if they tried. In accordance with goal theory, social cognitive theory, and the accumulated empirical evidence, I propose that self-efficacy beliefs for OCBs will be positively related to OCB (see Figure 2-2).

Proposition 5: Self-efficacy for OCB is positively related to OCB.

Normative Perceptions and OCB

Modeled after Cialdini and Trost's (1998) definition, the perceived (OCB) norm is a descriptive behavioural norm that refers to the level of citizenship

behaviours demonstrated by others within the social or work unit, as perceived by an individual (see Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004). Descriptive norms form through the observation of others' behaviour and clarify for an individual what types of behaviour are valued, appropriate, effective, and rewarded (Cialdini & Trost, 1998). Norms provide individuals with an informal means of knowing what they should do and how well they should perform (Mathieu & Button, 1992). According to the seminal work of Feldman (1984), normative beliefs often originate from the explicit statements and actions of supervisors or coworkers. The purposes of these messages are to increase compliance and predictability within the group by conveying to members role expectations, reward contingencies, and core values of the group (Feldman, 1984).

Employees' citizenship behaviour is affected by information and normative pressures in their work environment. George and Jones (1997) stated that individuals do not perform or withhold discretionary behaviours in a vacuum – the group and organizational context in which they work encourages or discourages spontaneous organizational behaviour. A more comprehensive model of group norms and citizenship behaviour was developed by Ehrhart and Naumann (2004), who proposed that individual citizenship behaviour is subject to group level influence, in the form of descriptive OCB norms (which describe appropriate behaviour and stem from the observable citizenship behaviours of others in the workgroup), and group-prescribed OCB norms (which go beyond description and prescribe the required or discouraged behaviours, and may include rewards or sanctions to reinforce group members' behaviour). It is

noteworthy that several empirical studies have confirmed that group norms affect employees' citizenship behaviour (Bommer, Miles, & Grover, 2003; Vigoda-Gadot, Beeri, Birman-Shemesh, & Somech, 2007), helping behaviour (Lin, Tang, Li, Wu, & Lin, 2007; Ng & Linn, 2005), prosocial behaviour (George & Bettenhausen, 1990), and deviant work behaviours (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). On the basis of theoretical and empirical evidence, I therefore propose that descriptive citizenship behaviour norms, or the perceived norm for OCB, in the employees' work group will be positively related to OCB, as illustrated in Figure 2-2.

Proposition 6: Perceived norm for OCB is positively related to OCB, such that higher norms for OCBs will lead to higher citizenship behaviour.

The next set of relations examines the theoretical link between POS and these cognitive mechanisms (see Figure 2-2). I begin by looking at the effect of POS on intentions. This is followed by the effects of POS on self-efficacy. Finally I examine the link between POS and the perceived norm for OCB.

POS and Intentions for OCB

Goal theory, the TPB, and the turnover process literatures have advanced arguments to the effect that behavioural intentions are likely shaped by employees' perceptions of work-related events and outcomes, as well as emotional responses (including attitudes) towards those events and outcomes. This provides a basis for my suggestion that POS may constitute an inducement capable of altering employees' intentions to engage in OCB. Organ and Konovsky (1989) suggested that "OCB has a deliberate, controlled character, somewhat akin

to conscious decision-making rather than expressive emotional behaviour" (p. 162). However, the notion that employees who perceive high levels of organizational support deliberately and consciously choose and plan to engage in OCBs seems to have been overlooked in the POS literature. In addition to initially determining whether reciprocation for organizational support is warranted, employees must decide when, how, and how much, to reciprocate. In making these decisions, as a consequence of their perceptions of organizational support, employees form intentions that direct their subsequent behaviour.

Goal theory research has shown that intentions can be externally induced. For example, when employees are assigned a goal by their manager, they subsequently form personal goals (or intentions) with respect to their performance (Locke & Latham, 1990; 2002). Additionally, some studies have shown that external inducements such as monetary rewards significantly affect intentions (Locke, 1968; Locke & Latham, 1990). Taken together, these findings suggest that employees' intentions are subject to external influence, in much the same way that I suggest that employees' intentions to engage in citizenship behaviour are affected by the level of support, recognition, and appreciation provided by their organization. Mitchell et al. (2000) developed an integrated model of the effects of goals on performance that offers some support for my assertion that perceptions of support will affect employees' behavioural intentions. As in Locke's (2001) core motivational hub, Mitchell et al. recognize that assigned goals, self-efficacy, and personal goals (i.e. intentions) affect performance. What is particularly relevant here is their proposition that a group of "other factors"

affect self-efficacy, personal goals (or intentions), and performance. They suggest that behavioural intentions are affected by other factors including norms, role models, instrumentality or valence, felt pressure, personality, and mood. I suggest that three of these other factors (norms, role models, and external sources of pressure) can be grouped to reflect work environment characteristics. I would further argue that the amount and type of support provided by the organization (i.e., POS) is similar in nature, and could also be included in this subcategory of work environment factors that influence behavioural intentions directly, as well as through the mediated effect of self-efficacy. Including POS in this category of other factors strengthens the theoretical grounding of my assertion that POS will affect behavioural intentions, specifically, OCB intentions.

Lastly, the turnover process literature offers additional, parallel, support for my argument that POS affects employees' behavioural intentions. The POS – OCB intentions relationship that I propose here parallels the job dissatisfaction – turnover intentions relationship in Mobley et al.'s (1978) model of employee turnover. They describe a process where employees' dissatisfaction with perceived aspects of their job leads to the formation of intentions to quit, which in turn leads to turnover behaviour. Similarly, in the model, employees' perceptions of organizational support lead to the formation of intentions to engage in OCBs to repay the organization.

Taken together, the above suggests that employees' intentions to engage in OCBs will be affected by perceptions of organizational support. Refer to Figure

2-2 for a depiction of the relationship between POS and intentions to engage in OCB.

Proposition 7: POS will be positively related to employees' intentions to engage in OCB.

POS and Self-Efficacy for OCB

In the model, I propose that self-efficacy beliefs are influenced by the level of organizational support that employees perceive. Self-efficacy develops through our first-hand experiences with the activities or behaviours involved. In short, we learn about ourselves and our capabilities by performing different activities and evaluating the results through the feedback we receive from others and the outcomes associated with each performance. Researchers have suggested that POS is part of a performance-outcome expectancy process, in which employees interpret the level of organizational support they receive as a form of performance feedback, or as a reward for past performance (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Maurer et al., 2002a). To the extent that greater rewards and higher levels of organizational support are perceived by employees as indicators that the organization recognizes their performance and competence, the level of support should be positively related to employees' self-efficacy beliefs (Maurer et al., 2002a). It is noteworthy that POS has been shown to positively influence general job-related self-efficacy beliefs (Bhanthumnavin, 2003; Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper, & O'Brien, 2001). Elsewhere, Maurer, Pierce and Shore (2002a) theorized that POS would be positively related to self-efficacy beliefs regarding employee development, which they characterized as a prosocial organizational behaviour.

Maurer, Mitchell and Barbeite (2002b) empirically demonstrated that resource availability (a form of organizational support) was positively related to employees' self-efficacy beliefs for development (Maurer, Mitchell, & Barbeite, 2002b). I therefore propose that employees' perceptions of organizational support will be positively related to their OCB self-efficacy beliefs (see Figure 2-2).

Proposition 8: POS is positively related to self-efficacy for OCB.

POS and Perceived Norm for OCB

Managers, supervisors, or even coworkers, acting as agents of the organization, convey the importance of caring for others and the organization as a whole through their supportive acts. Organizations, for instance, that enact family-friendly policies (e.g., flextime, paid sick leave) convey to members the importance of work-life balance. I propose that employees who perceive that their organization and its agents care about their well-being will infer that "supportive behaviours," directed towards the organization, such as citizenship (e.g., helping), are expected, encouraged and valued by all; consequently, high norms for OCB will likely develop in a context where the organization actively demonstrates "commitment" and "citizenship" towards its employees. This process may also result in the development of communal norms – norms which develop when benefits are provided to another based on concern for the other's welfare, without any reciprocal obligations (Mills & Clark, 1994). To the extent that supportive treatment and job conditions indicate that employees' well-being matters to the organization, employees may respond by demonstrating concern for the organization (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2006) and increasing the level of OCB

performed within the workplace. As illustrated in Figure 2-2, high levels of organizational support are expected to positively affect the perceived norm for OCB.

Proposition 9: POS is positively related to the perceived norm for OCB.

Having introduced each of the cognitive mechanisms, and presented the rationales for their relationship with OCB and with POS, I turn now to a discussion of the relations among the cognitive mechanisms.

Relationships Among the Cognitive Mechanisms

One of the most well-established relations in the model is between self-efficacy and intentions (personal or self-set goals) (Locke et al., 1984; Locke & Latham, 1990). Both concepts make up what Locke refers to as the motivational hub (Locke, 2001; Mitchell et al., 2000). These two concepts fuse "can do" with "will do." Research, over and over, has shown that individuals who believe they are capable of demonstrating specific behaviours or performing at high levels, all else equal (e.g., ability), express intentions commensurate with efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1991; Bandura & Wood, 1989; Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Dixon & Schertzer, 2005; Latham & Pinder, 2005; Mathieu & Button, 1992; Phillips & Gully, 1997; Taylor, Locke, Lee, & Gist, 1984). The relation between self-efficacy and behavioural intentions is also a key element in the TPB (e.g. Ajzen, 1991), and is well documented empirically, across a range of behaviours (e.g., Armitage & Conner, 2001; Terry, Hogg, & White, 1999; Terry & O'Leary, 1995; Warburton & Terry, 2000), including turnover (van Breukelen et al., 2004). A positive relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and behavioural

intentions for prosocial organizational behaviour has been theorized (Maurer et al., 2002a) and empirically confirmed (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994). Brief and Motowidlo (1986) defined prosocial organizational behaviour as a broad collection of behaviours carried out within an organizational setting and directed towards individuals or an organization with the intention of promoting their welfare. Since OCBs are considered a form of prosocial organizational behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), it is reasonable to expect that the same pattern found by Maurer and Tarulli will hold with OCBs. Therefore, employees' self-efficacy beliefs will be positively related to their intentions to engage in citizenship behaviour. This relationship is depicted in Figure 2-2.

Proposition 10: Self-efficacy for OCB will be positively related to employees' intentions to engage in citizenship behaviours.

As indicated in Figure 2-2, intentions to demonstrate citizenship behaviours are influenced by the perceived norm for OCB. Norms provide individuals with information on what behaviours are appropriate and what levels of performance are attainable (Mathieu & Button, 1992) and are an important component of many theories of motivation.

Norms are important predictors of behavioural intentions. The causal link between normative information and behavioural intentions (personal or self-set goals) has been most clearly articulated within the context of goal theory (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2000) and the theory of planned behaviour (e.g., Ajzen, 1991). As discussed, normative information conveys to group members what they should be doing and how well it should be done (Locke & Latham, 1990). This notion that

perceptions of normative information serve as an important behavioural benchmark has received considerable empirical support. Measures of intentions have been shown to be particularly sensitive to the level of the perceived norm: individuals set higher personal performance goals when exposed to a high performance norm than they do when a norm for low performance exists (e.g., Early & Erez, 1991; Mathieu & Button, 1992; Meyer & Gellatly, 1988). In the TPB, descriptive behavioural norms (like those included in the proposed model) have been found to significantly predict intentions across a range of discretionary behaviours in several empirical studies (Norman, Clark, & Walker, 2005; Warburton & Terry, 2000; White, Smith, Terry, McKimmie, & Greenslade, 2009), and a recent meta-analysis found that descriptive norms account for an incremental 5% of the variance in behavioural intentions above the baseline of 39% (Rivis & Sheeran, 2003). When faced with behavioural uncertainty, individuals should use social information provided by others as basis for personal attitudes, intentions and behaviours (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). In the context of reciprocating for POS, employees may be uncertain how, or how much, they should repay the organization to re-establish balance in the relationship. Under such circumstances, the OCB of others in the workgroup (i.e. the descriptive OCB norm) should have an impact on employees' individual intentions to engage in citizenship behaviour.

Proposition 11: Perceived norm is positively related to OCB intentions, such that higher norms for OCBs will lead to higher intentions.

People's beliefs regarding their self-efficacy for various behaviours have been linked to normative perceptions: people's beliefs about whether they can successfully perform certain behaviours are affected by social information such as norms. Norms indicate to individuals within a social unit what performance level is appropriate *and possible* (Locke & Latham, 1990). Norms also provide performance standards which contribute to the development of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986), such that individuals who perceive a norm for high performance are more likely to believe they are capable of achieving high performance than individuals who perceive a norm for low performance. Individuals who observe that similar others can do it believe that they can too (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy is directly influenced by available normative information (see Mitchell et al., 2000). The positive effect of normative information on self-efficacy beliefs has been reliability demonstrated in several experimental studies (Earley & Erez, 1991; Mathieu & Button, 1992; Meyer & Gellatly, 1988). In each of these studies, respondents exposed to high performance norms reported higher self-efficacy than did respondents exposed to low performance norms. The relation between normative information and self-efficacy beliefs is well established in the TPB (e.g. Ajzen, 1991), across a range of behavioural domains (e.g. Armitage & Conner, 2001). More recently, TPB scholars have reported a positive correlation between descriptive behavioural norms and self-efficacy beliefs (Terry et al., 1999; White et al., 2009).

In the context of the current model (see Figure 2-2), these findings suggest that employees who observe high levels of citizenship behaviour demonstrated by

others within their work group will have stronger self-efficacy beliefs regarding their capabilities to successfully engage in OCBs. Therefore, I propose that the individuals within a workgroup will have higher self-efficacy beliefs when the perceived norm for OCB is high.

Proposition 12: Perceived norm is positively related to self-efficacy for OCB, such that higher rather than lower norms will lead to higher self-efficacy.

Felt Obligations and the Motivational Hub

In this section, I examine the relationships between felt obligation and each of the variables in the motivational hub. Felt obligation has motivational characteristics and is related to concepts in the motivational hub. Greenberg (1968, cited in Greenberg & Frisch, 1972) described felt obligation as a motivational force. Indeed, feeling obligated or expected to act is a form of motivation. It remains unclear, however, whether felt obligation is primarily affective or cognitive in nature. Felt obligation, as currently operationalized in OST, includes both affective and cognitive elements but appears to be predominantly affective. Use of the word "felt" implies an emotional or affective state. Cognitive psychology suggests that cognition precedes affect, and that both cognitive and affective elements can co-exist, or that affect may persist, even if the cognitive basis upon which the affect developed is invalidated (Zajonc, 1980). Trust, for example, has distinct cognitive and affective components, and cognitive-trust contributes to the development of affective-trust (McAllister, 1995).

Obligations, by definition, are activities to which a person is bound that arise out of a sense of duty or out of a binding promise or contract (Merriam-Webster, 2010). Feelings of obligation should be positively related to self-efficacy beliefs. The fact that these activities are expected and integral to the relationship should suggest – to the indebted party – that these activities are, in fact, within the capabilities of the individual. Bandura (1986) suggests that verbal persuasion, especially the expectations of others, is a potent source of efficacy. Put another way, why would someone feel obligated to do something that they couldn't actually do? As one's feeling of indebtedness grows stronger, more and more attention should be brought to bear on those activities that will allow the individual to discharge their obligations (and on how this can be achieved). One's understanding of what they have to do should be accompanied by an elevated sense of confidence that one's obligations can be discharged. Another relevant perspective comes from the TPB literature, and the notion that, in some instances, felt obligation is experienced as a moral duty to "do the right thing." Moral norms or moral obligations are a source of social pressure, and are strongly correlated with self-efficacy beliefs (Conner & Armitage, 1998). To illustrate, a study by Brown and Rhodes (2006) examined people's self-efficacy beliefs with respect to walking regularly for exercise. They found a significant difference in self-efficacy beliefs between two groups of subjects: subjects who had a dog and reported feeling obligated to do what was best for their dog reported higher levels of self-efficacy for walking regularly than people who didn't have dogs. This study provides an interesting parallel to the relationship between an employee and the

organization – when the employee feels obligated to act in a way that is in the organization's best interests, they feel more capable of successfully carrying out the actions that would help it. Other studies have also demonstrated a positive relationship between moral obligations and self-efficacy beliefs across a range of behavioural domains (Beck & Ajzen, 1991; Conner & Armitage, 1998; Sparks & Guthrie, 1998; Warburton & Terry, 2000). Taken together, the above suggest that those who feel obligated to act in a particular manner will report higher rather than lower levels of self-efficacy.

Feelings of obligation should also be positively related to intentions. Assuming that the individual has the knowledge, skills and abilities to act (i.e., "can do"), the most immediate determinant of behaviour should be one's intentions to act (i.e., "will do") (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990; Ajzen, 1991; Mobley 1977). It follows, then, that felt obligation – if this concept is to affect OCB – must do so by affecting intentions to perform citizenship behaviours.

The model also depicts a relationship between the perceived norm for OCB and felt obligation. Normative theories of behaviour provide a basis for understanding how the perceived norm is likely to influence felt obligation. Normative theories of behaviour maintain that norms, especially descriptive norms, motivate behaviour by indicating to people what is effective and appropriate (Cialdini et al., 1990). According to Heywood (2002), obligations form the core cognitive component of norms, while the intensity of sanctions form the core emotional component of norms. Obligation underlies the socialization process, which teaches people to comply with norms, even when "no

one else is watching". People internalize an obligation to adhere to norms through their previous experiences of being sanctioned when they did not comply with the norm (Heywood, 2002). When sanctions are strong, people feel embarrassment, shame or guilt – the desire to avoid these types of psychological discomfort will further reinforce compliance with norms. This means that employees who have been socialized to accept behavioural norms in the workplace will feel obligated to comply with the norm for citizenship behaviour. Although the perceived norm is thought to be an antecedent of felt obligation, the possibility of a reciprocal causal sequence between these variables must be acknowledged. It is likely that felt obligation affects employees' behaviour in the workgroup, and therefore contributes to the development of descriptive norms.

Proposition 13a: Felt obligation will be positively related to the three cognitive mechanism variables in the motivational hub.

Proposition 13b: Perceived norms for OCB will be positively related to felt obligation.

The Role of Exchange Ideology

Some of the relations in the proposed model may be moderated by individual difference variables. Exchange ideology is particularly relevant here, and is discussed in this section.

Exchange Ideology

Exchange ideology is a general belief that develops through employees' personal experiences, observation, and persuasion by others (Eisenberger et al., 2001). It is an individual-level construct that reflects the employee's personal

belief that "it is appropriate and useful to base their concern with the organization's welfare and their work effort on how favourably they have been treated by the organization" (Eisenberger et al., 2001, pp. 42-43), as well as the extent to which employees' attitudes and behaviour depend on organizational reinforcement (Sinclair & Tetrick, 1995; Witt, 1991). Exchange ideology has been described as a continuum (Sinclair & Tetrick, 1995). At one end, "high exchange" employees work hard only when the organization treats them well, as their work effort depends on reinforcements provided by the organization. At the other end, "low exchange" employees work hard regardless of how the organization treats them, as their work effort does not depend on reinforcements. However, employees' unconditional effort and felt obligation may be bolstered by other beliefs or values, such as the Protestant work ethic (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

In essence, exchange ideology reflects employees' acceptance of the reciprocity norm. Research suggests that while employees differ in their acceptance of the reciprocity norm (Eisenberger et al., 1986), all employees accept the norm to some extent (Eisenberger et al., 2001). The empirical literature consistently confirms that exchange ideology moderates the relationships between several important constructs in organizational behaviour. For example, exchange ideology has been shown to significantly moderate the relation between POS and absenteeism (Eisenberger et al., 1986), job performance (Orpen, 1994), and commitment (Sinclair & Tetrick, 1995; Witt, Kacmar, & Andrews, 2001). Of particular importance here, exchange ideology has been shown to moderate the

relationship of POS with OCB (Ladd & Henry, 2000; Witt, 1991), and with felt obligation (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Consistent with the literature, and as depicted in Figure 2-3, I propose that exchange ideology will moderate the relationship between POS and felt obligation.

Proposition 14a: Exchange ideology will moderate the relationship between POS and OCB.

Proposition 14b: Exchange ideology will moderate the relationship between POS and felt obligation.

Implications of the Proposed Model for Theory and Practice

The most immediate contributions of these propositions are to provide direction for future research. Should these propositions be supported, there are implications for OST as well as for related literatures that make reference to the social exchange processes. There are also implications for management policy and practice.

OST and Social Exchange Processes

The proposed model advances OST in two important ways. First, we see that acts of organizational support have a direct impact on intentions and self-efficacy, and that this "motivational hub" regulates the reciprocation process that lies at the heart of OST. Viewed this way, reciprocation is a conscious and deliberate act wherein employees consider how, when, and how much to reciprocate for favours and support received from the organization. As with other deliberate actions (like decisions to stay or leave the organization), there can be a delay between the moment when the individual recognizes that action is

warranted and the time when those actions are actually carried out. It makes sense to explicitly recognize the role of behavioural intentions in this context – previously, the role of intentions as an immediate precursor of citizenship behaviour was assumed, rather than explicitly considered. Furthermore, given the potentially deliberate nature of reciprocation for organizational support, employees are likely to consider how they might repay their organization, and would therefore be likely to take the time to consider what types of reciprocation activities would be *appropriate*, as well as which ones would be *feasible*. Although OCBs are generally volitional, some forms of OCB may not be perceived as within the individuals' behavioural control, either because it would be too difficult, or because there may not be an opportunity to engage in that particular behaviour (George & Jones, 1997). Therefore consideration of one's self-efficacy for certain behaviours is relevant to understanding how employees plan to repay the organization for the support it has provided. It seems, then, that the behavioural reciprocation for POS is more deliberate and conscious than currently conceived by OST. The model presented here supposes that individuals who receive support from the organization recognize an obligation towards the organization, but their subsequent behaviour is only energized to the extent that individuals believe they can respond and that they have a goal to do so. Thus, felt obligations – on their own – do nothing. For POS to translate into behaviour, these feelings of obligation have to energize the motivational hub.

Second, the proposed model advances OST by clarifying the role of social information in the reciprocation of POS. Although Blau (1964) maintained that

social information contributes to the establishment of "exchange rates" in social exchange transactions within groups, POS researchers have yet to examine whether social information present in the work context influences the relationship between employee and organization. To date, the role of social information and social comparison in the *development* of POS has received limited attention (see Shore & Shore, 1995; Wayne et al., 2002; Zagenczyk, Scott, Gibney, Murrell, & Thatcher 2010), whereas the role of social information in the *reciprocation* of POS has yet to be examined. The model presented here extends OST by arguing that employees attend to the overall level of OCB and the corresponding norms within their workgroup, and that this social information contributes to the process by which they repay the organization for the level of support it provides.

Management Policy and Practice

The motivational process model presented here has a number of practical implications worth mentioning. Given the favourable effect of OCBs on firm performance (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000), organizations stand to benefit from trying to maximize OCBs demonstrated by their employees, particularly when they can do so without negatively affecting job performance. As discussed here, one of the best ways to incite discretionary behaviour on the part of employees is to treat them well, demonstrate loyalty towards them, and recognize and appreciate their contributions. The reciprocity norm is strongly entrenched, but it is important to recognize that research has shown that favours that are bestowed with strings attached or for selfish purposes don't necessarily trigger a perceived obligation to

reciprocate (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore & Shore, 1995; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). Therefore organizations should not be too heavy handed in drawing attention to POS. Ultimately, organizational support which is given out of a sincere appreciation and concern for employees, with limited expectations of reciprocation, will likely generate a stronger and more favourable response than support which is given with a clear expectation that much is expected in return.

Behavioural intentions (or goals) are sensitive to range of external inducements. Acts of support are ways that intentions to engage in pro-social behaviour and pro-organizational citizenship can be enhanced. But managers also need to be mindful that other factors may exert countervailing effects on intentions – for instance implementing an incentive system that bases rewards and punishments on individual performance. Reward contingencies, such as these, will exert an effect on intentions – so much so that one's motivation to engage in OCB might well be offset by pressure to meet performance expectations. In short, if you want to motivate and energize OCB you need to ensure that managerial policy and practices are consistent and aligned.

The extent to which managers attend to OCB in a workgroup may have important implications for employees' attention to that type of social information. Drawing on the group norms approach to OCBs developed by Ehrhart and Naumann (2004), it seems that important for managers to make OCB norms more salient by drawing employees' attention to the overall level of OCB in the work group (assuming it is high enough), and by recognizing and reinforcing high

levels of OCBs. In the context of reciprocation for POS, the higher the levels of OCB within the group, the higher the baseline exchange level in the POS for OCB exchange. This may increase the quantity and extent of OCBs performed by employees in exchange for a given level of organizational support. The social cognition processes that inform the development of self-efficacy beliefs would also suggest that managers who recognize employees' demonstration of OCBs would increase others' OCB self-efficacy beliefs, which in turn, would lead to higher levels of OCB.

The potential role of social information, in the form of perceived behavioural norms for OCB, suggests that there might be an element of social contagion in the reciprocation for POS to which organizations should attend. Given that the actions of high status employees strongly influence the attitudes and behaviours of other members of their work group (Festinger, 1954) managers would do well to pay attention to the level of OCBs demonstrated by their top performing or most influential employees, and draw others' attention to them when their overall reciprocation level is higher, or perhaps even when their OCBs are high. Social comparison mechanisms might result in all members of the work group offering higher levels of OCB for a given level of POS.

Conclusion

Over the past two decades, researchers have sought to understand how and why employees' perceptions of organizational support lead to positive attitudes and behaviours. Organizational support theory maintains that social exchange and reciprocation mechanisms underlie the observed relationship between POS and

one of its most important behavioural outcomes, citizenship behaviour. On the whole, theoretical explanations for the observed empirical relations are incomplete. A limitation of the current explanation is that the nature of the underlying motivational processes are assumed rather than explicated. By incorporating several key mechanisms drawn from well-established motivational theories, the present work provides a more complete theoretical explanation for POS-OCB relations by examining the role of behavioural intentions, self-efficacy beliefs, and perceived behavioural norms in the reciprocation of perceived organizational support.

Looking Ahead

The purpose of the present chapter was to present an over-arching theoretical model that not only drives the empirical studies presented in the subsequent chapters, but also provides a foundation for future research. To that end, a clear articulation of the scope of the empirical studies presented in the subsequent chapters is warranted. The empirical studies which follow explicitly examine the role of self-efficacy and behavioural intentions in reciprocation for POS. Chapter 3 presents an experimental study which examines how POS affects felt obligation, self-efficacy beliefs, and intentions to engage in OCBs. The field study presented in Chapter 4 examines how POS affects felt obligation, self-efficacy, behavioural intentions, and other-rated OCB. I turn next to the first empirical study, and examine how experimentally induced variance in POS affects one's motivation to engage in OCBs.

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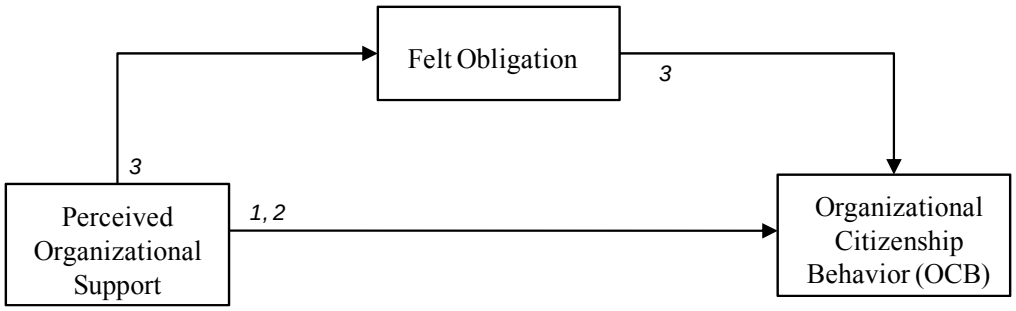

Figure 2-1. The relationships between perceived organizational support, felt obligation, and organizational citizenship behaviour, according to organizational support theory. Numbers in the figure refer to propositions associated with the relationship between concepts.

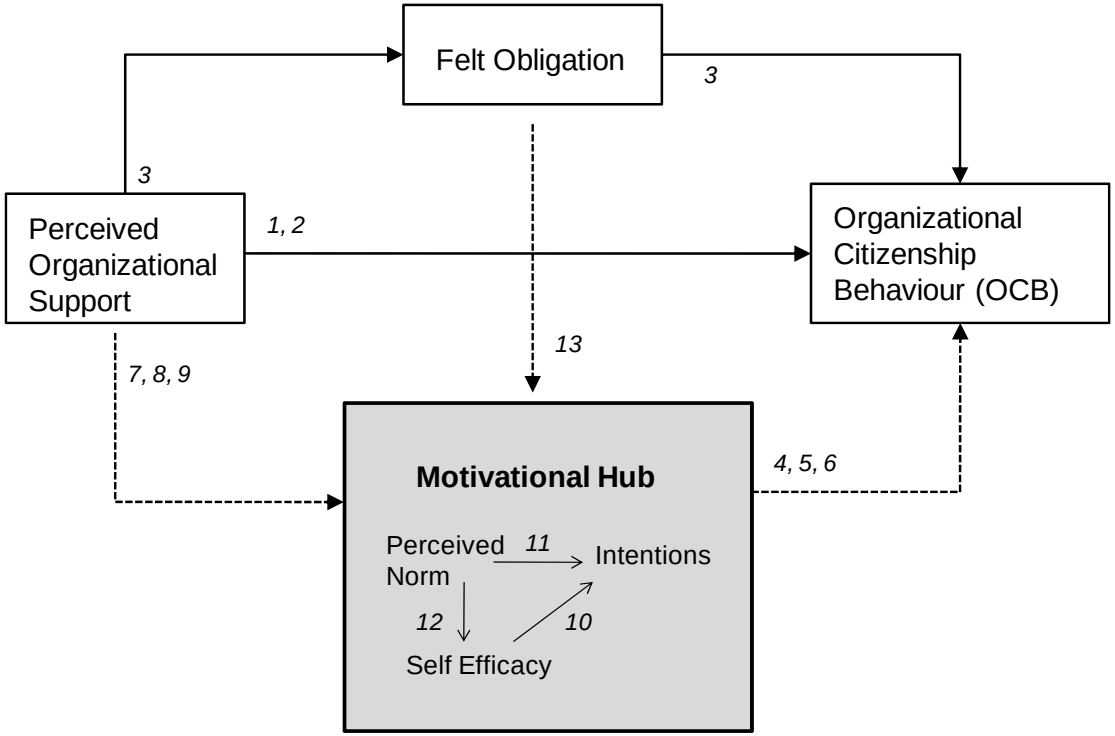

Figure 2-2. A depiction of the proposed process model for the relationship of Perceived Organizational Support with Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. Concepts in white boxes and solid-line relationships are currently incorporated in OST. Concepts in grey boxes and dashed-line relationships represent the proposed extension to OST. Numbers in the figure represent the propositions associated with each relationship.

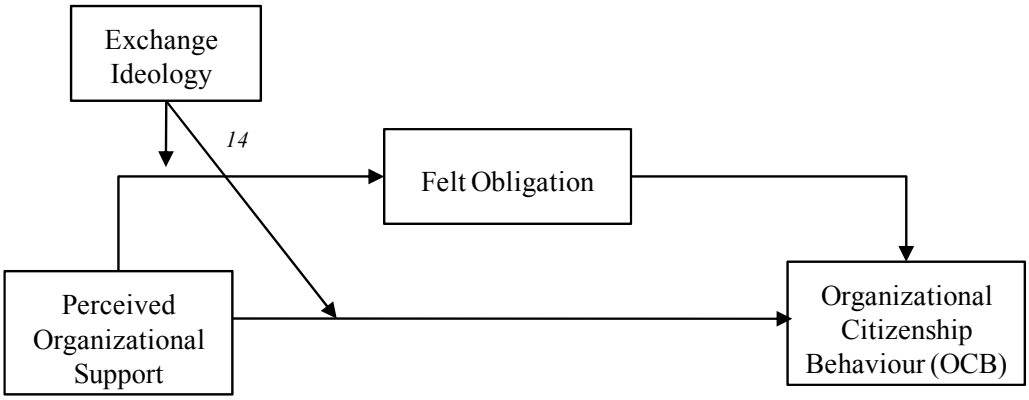

Figure 2-3. A portion of the model depicting the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behaviour, illustrating the moderating effects of exchange ideology. The number in the figure represents the propositions in which the moderated relations are advanced.

CHAPTER 3

Introduction

Employees are known to assess the level of support provided by their organization and to adjust their behavior accordingly. Perceived organizational support (POS) reflects the extent to which employees believe that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). According to organizational support theory (OST), employees who perceive high levels of organizational support feel obligated to repay the organization for the support it provides and typically reciprocate by caring about the organization's welfare and working hard to help the organization achieve its objectives by increasing in-role and extra-role performance and by decreasing withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). Indeed, recent empirical work confirms that felt obligation mediates the relation between POS and discretionary behavior (Coyle-Shapiro, Morrow, & Kessler, 2006; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). While we know that POS is positively related to employees' feelings of obligation to help the organization, we do not know precisely *how* perceptions of organizational support and feelings of obligation impact the underlying psychological processes that regulate goal-directed behavior. Thus, the purpose of the present study was to clarify the links between perceptions of organizational support and *one's motivation* to direct attention and effort towards organizational citizenship behavior. In this chapter, I focus specifically on three motivational concepts: felt obligation, self-efficacy, and intentions/goals. In

addition, this study examined the role of a relevant personal characteristic: exchange ideology. The chapter begins with a brief overview of the rationales and hypotheses for the model tested in this chapter. A depiction of the theoretical model is presented in Figure 3-1.

Perceived Organizational Support and Motivation

Felt Obligation

In social exchange relationships, parties exchange mutually beneficial support and favours under the governing norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). Acceptance of the reciprocity norm results in feeling obligated to the donor when favours or beneficial treatment are received. This feeling of obligation has been characterized as a state of tension; as such, these feelings of indebtedness direct attention and effort towards activities that might resolve these obligations and the associated tension (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Greenberg, 1968, cited in Greenberg & Frisch, 1972). A central tenet within OST is that supportive acts by the organization or its agents evoke feelings of obligation in employees, which, in turn, provide an impetus or motivation to resolve the feelings of obligation (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Although widely assumed, to my knowledge, only two studies have empirically confirmed that felt obligation is positively related to POS (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2006; Eisenberger et al., 2001). The logic of OST, however, would suggest that individuals who perceive high organizational support will feel a stronger obligation towards the organization than will those who perceive lower levels of support.

Hypothesis 1: Perceived organizational support will be positively related to felt obligation.

Intentions (for OCB)

Locke (1968) defined intentions or goals, simply, as what an individual wants to do or is consciously trying to do. According to Locke, Shaw, Saari, and Latham (1981), the motivational value of intentions (self-set goals) is that they direct attention, mobilize energy and effort, increase persistence (i.e., effort over time), and lead to the development of effective performance strategies (cf. Ajzen, 1991). Research has shown that intentions are affected by a wide range of external inducements (e.g., explicit task instructions, assigned goals, performance feedback, and monetary incentives) and internal states (e.g., personality characteristics and attitudes) (for a review of the factors that have been found to shape intentions, see Locke, 2001; Locke & Latham, 1990). As a general rule, Ajzen (1991) suggests that when people have the necessary resources and opportunities, "the stronger the intention to engage in a behaviour, the more likely should be its performance" (p. 181). To be sure, the positive effect of intentions (i.e., self-set goals) on task performance has been shown repeatedly across a wide range of individuals, jobs, and organizational contexts (Locke & Latham, 1990, 2002). In fact, this relationship is perhaps one of the most robust findings in the organizational behaviour literature (Mento, Steel, & Karren, 1987).

Goal theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) have explicitly and implicitly advanced the notion that behavioural intentions are shaped, in part, by a variety of situational characteristics (e.g.,

work-related events; reward contingencies; task instructions). Extending this causal logic to the POS literature, I advance the notion that salient acts of either support or lack of support directed toward an individual will alter his or her goal states. Specifically, employees who perceive high rather than low levels of organizational support will deliberately and consciously think about and plan their response to these acts of support. Conversely, employees who perceive low rather than high support should align their goals accordingly. In addition to initially determining whether reciprocation for organizational support is warranted, employees must decide when, how, and how much, to reciprocate. In making these decisions, as a consequence of their perceptions of organizational support, employees form intentions that direct their subsequent behaviour. The proposed positive POS-intentions (for OCB) relation parallels the job dissatisfaction – turnover intentions relation advanced by Mobley and his colleagues (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978). In their model, the authors describe a process whereby one's emotional response to the job situation (e.g., dissatisfaction with the work) initiates a decision-making process that culminates in intentions to stay or leave. Consistent with this line of thinking, I suggest that perceptions of organizational support will lead to the formation of intentions to reciprocate this goodwill.

Hypothesis 2: Perceptions of organizational support will be positively related to intentions to engage in organizational citizenship behaviour.

Self-Efficacy (for OCB)

Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief about her capability to perform at some level assuming the necessary effort is put forth (Bandura, 1986; 1997). In other words, this motivational concept captures our personal feelings about how well we think we can do with respect to the specific behaviour in question regardless of the nature of the behaviour. The concept of self-efficacy has a long history in the organizational behaviour literature across a variety of criterion domains. Bandura (1997) has written extensively about self-efficacy and reports that people's self-efficacy beliefs play a central role in their choice of behaviour and in their decisions about how long to persist in a chosen course of action. Tasks and situations judged to exceed ones' capabilities tend to be avoided whereas activities judged to be within ones' capabilities are readily undertaken. The stronger one's self-efficacy beliefs, the higher one's goals or intentions will be, as will the effort and persistence brought to bear on goal-relevant activities (Bandura, 1982; 1986; 1997; Locke & Latham, 1990).

In Chapter 2, I proposed that self-efficacy beliefs are influenced by perceived levels of organizational support. The logic underlying this assertion was based on Bandura's (1997) view that self-efficacy develops, in part, through our first-hand experiences with the activities or behaviours involved. In short, we learn about ourselves, especially our capabilities, through the feedback we receive from credible sources and through the outcomes associated with performance. When an organization directs support towards an individual it sends a powerful message to that individual that the organization "is behind you, cares about you,

and values your opinions and capabilities." Persuasive efficacy-enhancing cues from "significant others" (e.g., the organization or its agents) are powerful means of strengthening people's beliefs that they possess the capabilities to achieve what they seek. In other words, it is easier to sustain a sense of efficacy if significant others express faith in one's capabilities (Bandura, 1997). There is support for a positive association between POS and job-related self-efficacy beliefs (Bhanthumnavin, 2003; Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper, & O'Brien, 2001). Maurer, Mitchell and Barbeite (2002) demonstrated, for instance, that resource availability, a form of organizational support, was positively related to employees' self-efficacy beliefs for development. I therefore propose that individuals' perceptions of organizational support will be positively related to their self-efficacy perceptions, especially for those focal behaviours that are instrumental in reciprocating organizational support (e.g., citizenship).

Hypothesis 3: Perceptions of organizational support will be positively related to self-efficacy for organizational citizenship behaviour.

Relations Among The Motivational Concepts: Felt Obligation, Intention and Self-Efficacy

An important tenet in OST is that perceptions of organizational support increase an individual's feeling of obligation to care about the organization and help it succeed. This felt obligation, in turn, is typically discharged through both attitudes and behavior: specifically, employees experience increased levels of affective organizational commitment and in turn, demonstrate such discretionary behaviors as decreased withdrawal and increased organizational citizenship

behavior (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Eisenberger and his colleagues (2001) were the first to empirically demonstrate that felt obligation fully mediated the relation between POS and organizational spontaneity. More recently, Coyle-Shapiro et al. (2006) found that felt obligation mediated the relation between POS and some facets of service-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. Assuming that the individual has the knowledge, skills and abilities to act (i.e., "can do"), the most immediate determinant of behavior should be one's intentions to act (i.e., "will do") (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990; Ajzen, 1991; Mobley, 1977). It follows, then, that felt obligation – if this concept is to affect OCB – must do so by affecting intentions to perform citizenship behaviours. Thus, I expect that felt obligation will be positively related to intentions (for OCB).

Hypothesis 4: Felt obligation will be positively related to OCB intentions

The model depicted in Figure 3-1 suggests that the relation between POS and self-efficacy beliefs is mediated by felt obligation. Obligations, by definition, are activities to which a person is bound that arise out of a sense of duty or out of a binding promise or contract. The fact that these activities are expected and integral to the relationship should suggest to the indebted party that these activities are, in fact, within the capabilities of the individual. Bandura (1997) suggests that verbal persuasion - especially the expectations of others - is a potent source of efficacy. Put another way, why would someone feel obligated to do something that they couldn't actually do? As one's feeling of indebtedness grows stronger, more and more attention should be brought to bear on those activities

that will allow the individual to discharge their obligations (and how this can be achieved). One's understanding of what they have to do should be accompanied by an elevated sense of confidence that one's obligations can be discharged.

Another perspective comes from the TPB literature, and the notion that, in some instances, felt obligation is experienced as a moral duty to "do the right thing." Moral obligations are a source of social pressure, and are strongly and positively correlated with self-efficacy beliefs (Conner & Armitage, 1998). To illustrate, a study by Brown and Rhodes (2006) examined people's self-efficacy beliefs with respect to walking regularly for exercise. They found a significant difference in self-efficacy beliefs between two groups of subjects; specifically, subjects who had a dog and reported feeling obligated to do what was best for their dog reported higher levels of self-efficacy for walking regularly than people who did not have dogs. This study provides an interesting parallel to the relationship between an employee and the organization. When the employee feels obligated to act in a way that advances the organization's best interests, they also feel more capable of successfully carrying out actions that will help the organization. Other studies have also demonstrated a positive relation between moral obligations and self-efficacy beliefs across a range of behavioural domains (e.g., Beck & Ajzen, 1991; Conner & Armitage, 1998; Sparks & Guthrie, 1998; Warburton & Terry, 2000). Taken together, the above suggest that those who feel obligated to act in a particular manner will report higher rather than lower levels of self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 5: Felt obligation is positively related to self-efficacy for OCB.

One of the most well-established relations in the model is between self-efficacy and intentions (i.e., personal or self-set goals) (Locke et al., 1984; Locke & Latham, 1990). Both concepts make up what Locke refers to as the motivational hub (Locke, 2001; Mitchell, Thompson, & George-Falvy, 2000). Research has repeatedly shown that individuals who believe they are capable of demonstrating specific behaviours or performing at high levels, all else equal (e.g., ability), express intentions commensurate with efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1991; Bandura & Wood, 1989; Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Dixon & Schertzer, 2005; Latham & Pinder, 2005; Mathieu & Button, 1992; Phillips & Gully, 1997; Taylor, Locke, Lee, & Gist, 1984). The relation between self-efficacy and behavioural intentions is also a key element in the TPB (e.g. Ajzen, 1991) and is well documented empirically across a range of behaviours (e.g., Armitage & Conner, 2001; Terry, Hogg, & White, 1999; Terry & O'Leary, 1995; Warburton & Terry, 2000) including turnover (van Breukelen, van der Vlist, & Steensma, 2004). Thus, I propose that for such focal behaviour as citizenship acts self-efficacy will be related to intentions.

Hypothesis 6: Self-efficacy for OCB will be positively related to intentions to engage in citizenship behaviors.

The Moderating Role of Exchange Ideology

Exchange ideology is a personal attribute (much like a personality trait) that develops through an individual's personal experiences and observations and through persuasion by others; and it is believed to facilitate or forestall reactions to POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 2001). People who have a

strong exchange ideology believe, for instance, that relations are ruled by explicit or implicit contingencies (e.g., the level of effort you exert depends on the outcomes you expect to receive; how you treat someone depends upon how they treat you). Conversely, people who have a weak exchange ideology accept that their actions and the actions of others are not necessarily or closely related (e.g., you should work as hard as possible no matter what the organization thinks of you or your efforts). Viewed another way, exchange ideology reflects an individual's acceptance of the reciprocity norm and their belief that "it is appropriate and useful to base their concern with the organization's welfare and their work effort on how favourably they have been treated by the organization" (Eisenberger et al., 2001, pp. 42-43). The empirical literature reports that exchange ideology significantly moderates the relation between POS and: absenteeism (Eisenberger et al., 1986), job performance (Orpen, 1994), commitment (Sinclair & Tetrick, 1995; Witt, Kacmar, & Andrews, 2001), felt obligation (Eisenberger et al., 2001), and OCB (Ladd & Henry, 2000; Witt, 1991). In all cases, the relation between POS and behaviour is stronger when exchange ideology is high rather than low. As depicted in Figure 3-1, I propose that exchange ideology will moderate the relation between POS and felt obligation.

Hypothesis 7: Exchange ideology will moderate the relation between perceived organizational support and felt obligation.

Method

Sample

Data from 191 undergraduate business students were used to test study hypotheses. Study materials were distributed to 390 students in ten course sections. In total, 254 students completed their materials (65% response rate). Fifty students were excluded as duplicate participants (subjects reported having already completed the study in another course) and 8 students were removed due to missing data. Thus, the final sample size was 191. In the final sample, 52.0% of respondents were male and the typical respondent was 23.6 years of age with 3.7 years of post-secondary education and 5.1 years of work experience.

Scenario Development

Role playing scenarios (or vignettes) have been widely used in organizational research, and can be helpful in understanding what guides behavior in organizational contexts (e.g., Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Colquitt & Jackson, 2006; De Cremer, van Dijke, & Bos, 2007; Gelfand, Higgins, Nishii, Raver, Dominguez, Murakami, Yamaguchi, & Toyama, 2002; Greenberg & Eskew, 1993; Hitlan, Kelly, Schepman, Schneider, & Zarate, 2006; Kwon & Weingart, 2004; Leone & Corte, 1994; Scott & Colquitt, 2007; Shaw, Wild, & Colquitt, 2003; van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg, 2005). Scenario studies offer unique opportunities to deliberately increase the variance in independent variables which may demonstrate considerably less variance in the field; however, they are subject to some criticism. Two recognized shortcomings of scenarios are that subjects know that the situation is fictitious and that there are no real life consequences for

their responses (Greenberg & Eskew, 1993); therefore, respondents might answer differently than they would if they were truly held accountable for their judgments (Colquitt & Jackson, 2006). In spite of these limitations, scenario studies remain a valuable research methodology. Greenberg & Eskew (1993) argued that, while "role playing studies may not be able to tell us what people actually will do, they might be able to tell us something about what people think is appropriate behavior in certain contexts" (p. 232).

In order to test the hypotheses, scenarios were constructed to simulate three different levels of organizational support. Information within each of the three scenario descriptions was varied to induce three levels of organizational support: low, moderate, and high (see Appendix 3-A). Initial scenario content was based on the 36-item Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS; Eisenberger et al., 1986). The scenarios were then pilot-tested in two undergraduate classes ($N = 44$). Subjects were randomly presented with one of three hypothetical scenarios and were asked to imagine that the depicted scenario was real. Subjects then responded to 6 items from the short version of the SPOS to assess the effectiveness of the scenarios in manipulating organizational support ($M = 4.16$, $SD = 1.99$; coefficient alpha = .96). A one-way analysis of variance revealed that manipulated organizational support had the intended effect on the POS measure, $F(2, 42) = 73.46$, $p<.001$. Mean values for the three conditions were as follows: low support ($M = 2.14$, $SD = 0.89$), moderate support ($M = 4.64$, $SD = 1.10$), and high support ($M = 6.09$, $SD = 0.94$). In summary, pilot testing revealed that the three scenarios were effective in generating variance in POS.

Design

Subjects were randomly assigned to one of three organizational support conditions: low support, *N*=63; moderate support, *N*=65; and high support, *N*=63. Each condition required subjects to *experience* a level of organizational support as conveyed by the scenario descriptions described above.

Measures

Exchange ideology. Exchange ideology is an individual (i.e., personality) trait that reflects the extent to which the employee's efforts to help the organization achieve its goals are contingent upon the amount of support and favourable treatment the organization provides. It was measured using eight items from Eisenberger et al. (2001) (see Appendix 3-B). For each item, subjects were asked to rate the extent of their agreement (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Responses to the relevant items were averaged to produce a measure of exchange ideology ($M = 4.02$, $SD = 0.91$). The reliability of the exchange ideology measure was .79 (coefficient alpha).

Perceived organizational support. As mentioned earlier, POS refers to the extent to which employees believe that the organization appreciates their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). In this study, six items from the short form of the SPOS were used (Eisenberger et al., 2001) (see Appendix 3-B). For each item, subjects were asked to rate the extent of their agreement (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Responses to the relevant items were averaged to produce a measure of POS ($M = 4.33$, $SD = 1.74$). The reliability of the POS measure was .95 (coefficient alpha).

Felt obligation. Employees' felt obligation to care about the organization and help it achieve its goals was measured using six items from Eisenberger et al. (2001) (see Appendix 3-B). For each item, subjects were asked to rate the extent of their agreement (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Responses to the scale items were averaged to produce a measure of felt obligation (M = 4.70, SD = 1.32). The reliability of the felt obligation measure was .90 (coefficient alpha).

Self-efficacy. A measure of self-efficacy was created for this study. Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief that he or she has the ability to perform at some level if sufficient effort is put forth (Bandura, 1986). In the current study, this measure specifically targeted subjects' beliefs that they were capable of expressing citizenship behaviors if they tried. Self-efficacy for OCBs was adapted from Lee and Allen's (2002) 16-item OCB scale. Eight items were modified for this study to include the stem statement, "If I wanted to, I could…". For each item, subjects were asked to rate the extent of their agreement (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) (see Appendix 3-B). Responses to eight items (the four highest loading items for each of the two scales) were averaged to produce an aggregate measure of self-efficacy for OCB (M = 5.47, SD = 0.90). The alpha coefficient for the self-efficacy OCB measure was .90. Responses to the four self-efficacy OCBo items were averaged to produce a scale score (M = 5.37, SD = 1.18; coefficient alpha = .92). Responses to the four self-efficacy OCBi items were averaged to produce a scale score (M = 5.57, SD = 0.85; coefficient alpha = .85).

Intentions. A measure of intentions was created for this study. Broadly speaking, this measure reflected the extent to which subjects expressed their intentions to exhibit OCBs over the next few months. Eight items from Lee and Allen (2002) were modified for this study using the following stem: "Over the next few months, how often do you intend to…" For each item, subjects were asked to rate how often they intended to engage in the behavior in question (1 = never; 7 = always) (see Appendix 3-B). Responses to eight items (the four highest loading items for each of the two scales) were averaged to produce an aggregate measure of intentions OCB (M = 4.78, SD = 1.11; coefficient alpha = .91). Responses to the four OCBo items were averaged to produce an aggregate measure of intentions OCBo (M = 4.58, SD = 1.47; coefficient alpha = 0.924). Responses to the four OCBi items were averaged to produce an aggregate measure of intentions OCBi (M = 4.98, SD = 0.99; coefficient alpha = .85).

Procedure

Instructors in the participating courses briefly explained the study and invited students to participate on a voluntary basis in return for modest extra credit in the course. Subjects who agreed to participate were then randomly assigned to one of three experimental conditions. This was accomplished by having all study materials and conditions organized into questionnaires that were handed out. Each questionnaire contained an informed consent form and a paper survey which included one of three different hypothetical vignettes. Exchange ideology was measured prior to presenting the vignettes while all other measures

were assessed after the vignette. Subjects completed the paper and pencil survey and returned it and their signed consent form to their instructor.

Analytic Strategy

The hypotheses were tested using several statistical approaches. First, the measurement model was assessed, and relations among the measures were examined using confirmatory factor analysis. Second, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to determine the overall effectiveness of the scenario manipulation on the set of dependent variables. Next, the study hypotheses were formally tested using structural equation modeling. Finally, moderated regression analysis was carried out to test the interaction hypothesis.

Results

Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Testing Competing Measurement Models

To assess whether the measures of POS and the five motivational states were empirically distinct, competing measurement models were proposed and evaluated using confirmatory factor analyses (CFA). The four measurement models were specified as follows: (a) a null model where all 28 items were specified to load on their own factor; (b) a 1-factor model where all 28 items were specified to load on a single factor; (c) a 4-factor model: 6 POS items loading on a factor, 6 felt obligation items loading on a factor, 8 self-efficacy items loading on a factor, and 8 intention items loading on a factor; and (d) a 6-factor model: 6 POS items loading on a factor, 6 felt obligation items loading on a factor, 4 self-efficacy-OCBo items loading on a factor, 4 self-efficacy-OCBi items loading on a

factor, 4 intention-OCBo items loading on a factor, and 4 intention-OCBi items loading on a factor. Assessing the measurement model was an important consideration given that the self-efficacy and intention measures were developed for this study. The CFAs were performed using *LISREL 8.8* (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) and were assessed using a variety of absolute and relative fit indices (Kelloway, 1998).

Generally speaking, absolute fit indices assess the extent to which the software can reproduce the observed patterns of variance and covariance given the constraints imposed by a particular model specification. Poor fitting models suggest that the specified model is wrong or can be improved. Three absolute fit indices were used: chi-square (χ^2), root mean square residual (RMSEA), goodness-of-fit (GFI). The χ^2 index (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) compares sigma (i.e., the reproduced variance-covariance matrix based on model specification) with the data (i.e., the actual variance-covariance matrix). Significant chi-square values indicate that the two matrices are different (i.e., lack of fit). However, chi-square is highly sensitive to sample size with even modest or trivial discrepancies producing significant χ^2 values when samples are large. The RMSEA (Steiger & Lind, 1980) is another absolute fit index that assesses how well an *a priori* (i.e., specified) model reproduces the sample data. Values of the RMSEA below .08 indicate a reasonable fit and those below .05 indicate a good fit to the data. An advantage of the RMSEA index over the χ^2 index is that the former is less affected by sample size (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). The GFI (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) is a ratio of the sum of squared discrepancies to the observed

variances where values greater than .90 indicate a good fit to the data. The GFI in structural equation modeling is analogous to R^2 in regression analysis and may loosely be interpreted as the amount of variance and covariance explained by the specified model (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006).

Two measures of relative fit were examined. The comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990) is a relative or incremental fit index that reflects the improvement in fit by comparing the target model with a more restricted baseline model such as the null model in which all of the observed variables are assumed to be uncorrelated (see Hu & Bentler, 1999; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). The normed fit index (NFI; Bentler, 1990) works in much the same way. The NFI evaluates the incremental fit of a model in relation to a baseline model which is often the most restricted or null model (see Bentler, 1990; Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988; McDonald & Marsh, 1990). The CFI and NFI indicate the percentage improvement over the baseline independence model where values greater than .90 indicate a good fit to the data (Kelloway, 1998). In small sample models, however, the NFI may underestimate fit. Generally, relative or incremental fit indices with values approaching .95 indicate that there is a very good fit between the specified structural equation model and the observed data (e.g., Hu & Bentler, 1999; Medsker, Williams, & Holahan, 1994).

Fit indices for a number of competing models are provided in Table 3-1. Although all of the models had significant χ^2 values (indicating that the variance-covariance matrix predicted from the model does not match the actual pattern of relations in the data), the six-factor model appeared superior to the competing

measurement models with an RMSEA of .07 and CFI and NFI values that exceeded .90. Thus, the measures used in this study were empirically distinct. The intercorrelations among the latent factors in the six-factor model are presented in Table 3-2.

Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlations

Table 3-3 provides the means, standard deviations, alpha reliabilities, and intercorrelations among the study variables. Positive relations were observed between POS and all of the study measure with the exception of exchange ideology. Exchange ideology was found to be negatively related to all of the study variables. The correlations among the measures of felt obligation, self-efficacy (i.e., overall OCBo and OCBi), and intention (i.e., overall OCBo and OCBi) were all positive.

The Effectiveness of the POS (Scenario) Manipulation

A one-way MANOVA was conducted using the three support conditions as the grouping variable. The purpose of the MANOVA was to control for the inflated Type I error that would occur if a series of independent ANOVAs were carried out on a collection of inter-correlated dependent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The dependent variables for this analysis were perceived organizational support, felt obligation, self-efficacy beliefs (OCBo and OCBi), and intention to engage in OCB (OCBo and OCBi). A significant multivariate effect was found on the set of dependent variables (*Wilks' Lambda* = .23, $F(12, 366) = 33.40$, $p<.001$). Inspection of the univariate effects revealed main effects for: perceived organizational support, $F(2,188) = 304.53$, $p<.001$; felt obligation,

$F(2,188) = 55.59$, $p<.001$; self-efficacy for OCBo, $F(2,188) = 12.90$, $p<.001$; self-efficacy for OCBi, $F(2,188) = 4.30$, $p<.05$; intentions for OCBo, $F(2,188) = 79.58$, $p<.001$; and intentions for OCBo, $F(2,188) = 14.42$, $p<.001$. This pattern of results is consistent with hypotheses 1-4, confirming the expected effects of POS on motivational process variables.

In order to assess mean differences across the three support conditions, a series of mean comparisons were conducted using Fisher's Least Significant Difference test (Fisher, 1935). As illustrated in Table 3-4, the tests of means indicated that the levels of POS, felt obligation, intentions for OCBo, and intentions for OCBi differed significantly among subjects in the low, moderate, and high support conditions, respectively. A slightly different pattern was observed for the self-efficacy variables. For both self-efficacy for OCBo and OCBi, subjects in the low support condition reported significantly lower self-efficacy than subjects in the moderate and high conditions; however, there was no significant difference in self-efficacy between moderate and high support conditions. To summarize, the preliminary analysis revealed that the experimental scenarios were effective ways of inducing support experiences in respondents. The analysis also revealed that the levels of induced support were associated with expected changes in the motivation process variables. The latter relations are examined next.

Testing the Study Hypotheses: Test of the Three Structural Models

The primary tests of the study hypotheses were performed with latent concept structural equation modeling using *LISREL 8.8* (Jöreskog & Sörbom,

1993). Three models were specified that varied with respect to the motivational orientation: towards OCB generally speaking, towards the organization (OCBo), and towards individuals (OCBi), respectively. Notwithstanding the differing motivational foci, all three models provided tests of the hypotheses depicted in Figure 3-1 (excluding the exchange ideology concept and associated moderation). To recap the main hypotheses, positive relations were proposed between POS and: felt obligation (Hypothesis 1), intention (Hypothesis 2), and self-efficacy (Hypothesis 3). Positive relations were expected between felt obligation and intention (Hypothesis 4) and between felt obligation and self-efficacy (Hypothesis 5). Finally, positive relations were expected between self-efficacy and intention (Hypothesis 6). The three models were specified as follows. For Model A, the 8-item measures of self-efficacy and intention were used to reflect general OCB (i.e. both OCBo and OCBi content was included; see Figure 3-2). For Model B, 4-item measures of self-efficacy and intention were used that reflected OCBo content (see Figure 3-3). Likewise, for Model C, 4-item measures of self-efficacy and intention were used that reflected OCBi content (see Figure 3-4). In each of the three models, the measures of POS and felt-obligation were the same.

Model A. The item loadings for each of the latent concepts (i.e., measurement model) are presented in Table 3-5. The structural paths are depicted in Figure 3-2. As indicated earlier, the motivational orientation was OCB in general. The fit indices associated with the structural model (Figure 3-2) produced mixed results, but in total, indicate that this model is a poor fit to the data. The fit indices for Model A were as follows: $\chi^2 = 1064.61$, $df = 344$, $p < .01$; RMSEA =

.13; GFI = .66; CFI = .95; NFI = .93. Examination of the structural path coefficients provides support for most of the hypothesized relations between the latent concepts. The path between POS and felt obligation, for instance, was statistically significant (path coefficient =.74, p <.05), indicating support for Hypothesis 1. The path between POS and intention to engage in OCB was statistically significant (path coefficient =.36, p <.05), indicating support for Hypothesis 2. The path between POS and self-efficacy for OCB failed to reach a statistically-significant level, thus Hypothesis 3 was not supported. Hypothesis 4 was supported as the path between felt obligation and intention to engage in OCB was statistically significant (path coefficient =.56, p <.05). The path between felt obligation and self-efficacy for OCB was statistically significant (path coefficient =.51, p <.05), indicating support for Hypothesis 5. Finally, the path between self-efficacy for OCB and intention to engage in OCB was statistically significant (path coefficient =.13, p <.05), indicating support for Hypothesis 6. Looking at the R^2 values associated with the structural equations (one for each endogenous concept), this model accounted for 55% of the variance in felt obligation, 26% of the variance in self-efficacy for OCB, and 86% of the variance in intention to engage in OCB.

A summary of the standardized total and indirect effects is provided in Table 3-6, and provides information which can be helpful in understanding the direct and indirect effect among variables within the model. Contrary to predictions, the path between POS and self-efficacy was not statistically significant. The effect of POS on self-efficacy was predominantly indirect

(standardized effect = .33; standardized total effect = .41) through felt obligation. Findings that the effect of POS on intentions was more evenly split between the indirect (standardized effect = .47; standardized total effect = .82) and direct effect, is consistent with the statistically significant path from POS to behavioral intentions.

Model B. As mentioned previously, the item loadings for each of the latent concepts (i.e., measurement model) are presented in Table 3-5. The structural paths are depicted in Figure 3-3. The motivational orientation for Model B was OCB directed towards the organization (OCBo). The fit indices associated with the structural model were as follows: $\chi^2 = 354.56$, $df = 164$, $p<.01$; RMSEA = .08; GFI = .84; CFI = .98; NFI = .97. Taken together, these fit indices indicate an adequate fit between the model and the data. Examination of the standardized path coefficients indicates support for most of the hypothesized relations between variables. The path between POS and felt obligation was statistically significant (path coefficient =.74, $p <.05$) indicating support for Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2, which predicted a positive relation between POS and intention to engage in OCBo was supported (path coefficient = .37, $p <.05$). Again, Hypothesis 3 was not supported as the relation between POS and self-efficacy for OCBo was not statistically different from zero (path coefficient = .09, *ns*). The path between felt obligation and intention to engage in OCBo was statistically significant (path coefficient = .44, $p <.05$) lending support to Hypothesis 4. The path between felt obligation and self-efficacy for OCBo was statistically significant (path coefficient = .55, $p <.05$); thus, Hypothesis 5 was supported. Hypothesis 6, which

predicted a positive relation between self-efficacy for OCBo and intention to engage in OCBo was supported (path coefficient = .13, p <.05). Inspection of the R^2 values associated with the structural equations revealed that the model accounted for 55% of the variance in felt obligation, 26% of the variance in self-efficacy for OCBO, and 87% of the variance in intention to engage in OCBo – virtually identical to Model A.

A summary of the standardized total and indirect effects is provided in Table 3-6. The effect of POS on self-efficacy was predominantly indirect (standardized effect = .32; standardized total effect = .42) through felt obligation, which helps to explain why the path between POS and self-efficacy was not statistically significant in the model. Similarly, the effect of POS on intentions was largely indirect (standardized effect = .46; standardized total effect = .83).

Model C. The structural paths are depicted in Figure 3-4 (see Table 3-5 for factor loadings). The motivational orientation for Model C was OCB directed towards other individuals (OCBi). The fit indices were very similar to Models A and B (χ^2 = 347.21, df = 164, p <.01; RMSEA = .08; GFI = .84; CFI = .98; NFI = .95). Taken together, these fit indices suggest an adequate fit between the model and the data. The structural equations accounted for less variance in self-efficacy for OCBi (12%) and intention to engage in OCBi (59%) than in the other models. Examination of the structural paths provided support for Hypotheses 1, 4, 5 and 6. Hypotheses 2 and 3 were not supported. The path between POS and intention to engage in OCBi was not statistically significant nor was the path between POS and self-efficacy.

Examination of the total and indirect effects, as presented in Table 3-6, helps to explain why neither of the paths between POS, and self-efficacy, and behavioral intentions, respectively, were statistically signficant. The effect of POS on self-efficacy was predominantly indirect (standardized effect = .32; standardized total effect = .42) through felt obligation. Similarly, the effect of POS on intentions was largely indirect (standardized effect = .46; standardized total effect = .83), also through felt obligation.

To summarize, Models A and B were virtually identical and both were superior to Model C in terms of explaining variance in the structural equations. Across the three models, support was found for Hypotheses 1, 4, 5, and 6. Support was found for Hypothesis 2 in Models A and B. Across the three structural models, Hypothesis 3 was not supported. In short, with the exception of the direct path between POS and self-efficacy, all other paths received empirical support providing a general confirmation of the conceptual model in Figure 3-1. Clearly, POS has an effect on the three focal motivational process variables although it would appear from these data that the effect of POS on self-efficacy is completely mediated by felt obligation.

Tests of the Moderating Effect of Exchange Ideology

The model described in Figure 3-1 implies that the relation between POS and felt-obligation depends upon one's exchange ideology. To test for an interaction effect, the relevant measures were subjected to regression analysis following the recommendations of Aiken and West (1991). Predictor variables (i.e., POS and exchange ideology) were mean-centered to minimize the potential

effects of multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991, p. 35). The two centered predictor variables were multiplied together to form the interaction term. On the first step of the analysis, both predictors were entered, F (2,188) = 137.96, p <.01, R = .77, R^2= .595. On the second step, the interaction term was entered. Adding the interaction term to the equation on the second step explained an additional .02 percent of criterion variance, ΔF (2,187) = 8.11, p<.01, ΔR^2= .02. Results after all predictor terms were entered (i.e., after step two) were as follows: F (3,187) = 98.16, p <.01, R = .78, R^2= .612.

The presence of a significant interaction term in the overall analysis provides evidence that the regression of felt-obligation on POS varies across the entire range of exchange ideology (and vice versa). To test Hypothesis 7, simple regression equations were computed (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003) to examine the nature of the dependency between POS and exchange ideology. The estimated values of the relation between POS and felt obligation were computed, respectively, at low and high levels of exchange ideology by taking values one standard deviation below and above the mean. The resulting plot is depicted in Figure 3-5. Both simple slopes in Figure 3-5 were positive and significant (p <.05); however, as expected, the relation between POS and felt-obligation was stronger when exchange ideology was strong (simple slope = .46) rather than weak (simple slope = .33). Thus, Hypothesis 7 was supported.

Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to clarify the links between perceptions of organizational support and *one's motivation* to direct attention and

effort to organizational citizenship behavior. Specifically, the aim was to confirm relations between POS and three key motivational process variables: felt obligation, self-efficacy, and intention to engage in citizenship behavior (see Chapter 2 for an in-depth discussion of these concepts). OST maintains that the receipt of favours and support from the organization causes employees to feel obligated to reciprocate (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1986). The results confirm expected links between POS and felt obligation but also advance our understanding of the role of felt obligation. What has not been known until now is that variance in felt obligation is associated with both efficacy and goal states. By adopting the perspective that felt obligation has motivational characteristics, other motivational concepts and processes associated with goal-directed behavior became more salient in the context of reciprocation for POS. To the best of my knowledge, this is the first study to examine how perceptions of organizational support and feelings of obligation map to two pivotal motivational concepts that have been linked with a wide range of behaviours (Bandura, 1997; Locke & Latham, 1990). The findings provide a more thorough understanding of the process by which perceptions of organizational support lead to organizational citizenship behavior and advance research and theory on reciprocation for POS.

Perceived Organizational Support and Motivation

The conceptual model presented in Chapter 2 provides insights into how POS might affect OCB. I found, as expected, that POS was positively related to felt obligation and to intention to engage in OCBs. Contrary to expectations,

however, there was no *direct* relation between POS and self-efficacy for OCB. As predicted, however, there was an indirect effect for POS on self-efficacy through felt obligation. Felt obligation was positively related to behavioral intentions and self-efficacy beliefs. Finally, self-efficacy beliefs were positively related to behavioral intentions, as predicted by goal theory (Locke, 2001; Locke & Latham, 1990), the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997). Generally speaking, these patterns of relations held across three OCB criteria: overall OCB, OCBo, and OCBi. These relations are now discussed in greater detail.

The positive relation between POS and felt obligation observed in the present study is consistent with OST and with prior studies (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2006; Eisenberger et al., 2001). This result confirms, as Coyle Shapiro (2006) and her colleagues suggested, that social exchange theory is an appropriate framework for understanding how POS shapes behavior. The positive relation between felt-obligation and motivational concepts such as self-efficacy behaviour and behavioural intentions observed here extends OST and suggests that motivation theory is also an appropriate framework for understanding how POS shapes motivation for behaviour. The present study extends OST by demonstrating that social exchange mechanisms are compatible with cognitive motivation mechanisms and that they can be integrated to gain a better understanding of how POS influences citizenship behaviour.

Previous work has demonstrated a positive relation between POS and job-related self-efficacy beliefs (Bhanthumnavin, 2003; Erdwins et al., 2001) and

suggests that the rewards, recognition and appreciation provided by the organization (which contribute to the development of POS) signal to employees that the organization considers them high performers; in turn, this contributes to the development of self-efficacy beliefs. In the present study, the level of induced organizational support was found to have a significant and positive effect on subjects' self-efficacy beliefs. In the structural equation models, however, the path between POS and self-efficacy beliefs was not significant. Contrary to expectations that high levels of POS would act directly as a form of feedback to reinforce beliefs about performance capabilities, this is not what the data suggested. Instead, POS was found to work through felt obligation. The more organizational support perceived by the participant, the greater their felt obligation, and in turn, the stronger their self-efficacy for citizenship behaviours.

Bandura (1997) noted that self-efficacy beliefs develop through personal experience, vicarious experience (observation of similar others' successful attainment), verbal persuasion and social influence, and physiological states. One possible interpretation of the finding that POS affects self-efficacy indirectly through felt obligation is that when individuals feel that a particular behaviour is expected of them in the course of a relationship, they are more likely to feel that the behaviours are within their capabilities. After all, why would they be expected to do something they were incapable of doing? This is a type of normative persuasion, however, it stems from the individual's own assessment of what is expected rather than from overt verbal persuasion or social influence. It is unclear whether this reflects an avoidance of cognitive dissonance or some other

mechanism. Future work might examine individual's sense-making processes in response to felt obligation and how these perceived expectations contribute to self-efficacy beliefs.

Consistent with expectations, a significant and positive relationship was observed between POS and intention (for OCB). Not only was there a direct relation between these two concepts, there was also an indirect relation through felt obligation. As theorized, these findings appear to suggest that reciprocation for POS is more conscious and deliberate than previously recognized. Obviously, the next critical step is to demonstrate that the same pattern holds in the field, where actual OCB can be assessed. Nonetheless, the present findings hold promise that if POS and felt obligation affect OCB, they do so by affecting intentions to engage in OCBs.

POS, Exchange Ideology, and Felt Obligation

This study's findings for the moderating effect of exchange ideology are consistent with those reported by Eisenberger et al. (2001). In the present study, the relation between POS and felt obligation is stronger for employees with strong exchange ideologies. At any given level of POS, employees with weak exchange ideologies reported higher feelings of obligation towards the organization than employees with strong exchange ideologies.

The Use of Vignette Studies in POS Research

This study also offers a methodological contribution and may advance future research on POS. The present work is the first study (to my knowledge) to rely on an experimental design and to use vignettes to induce POS. Although this

methodology has been widely used with other focal concepts (e.g., justice, leadership, etc.), it was uncertain whether scenarios could be used to provoke perceptions of support in a fictitious organization. The pattern of results suggests that subjects can indeed envision themselves working in a fictitious organization, form beliefs about the level of support and the organization's intentions towards them, and imagine how they would feel and behave in response to such a scenario. Although there is an artificial aspect to this methodology, a notable strength of this approach was the fact that subjects were asked to play themselves rather than a fictitious and possibly unfamiliar role (Greenberg & Eskew, 1993). Although this approach limits the generalizability of the results, it also provided the control necessary to establish causal relations and can complement the use of field studies. The use of scenarios for POS research warrants further attention and future studies might seek to refine the manner in which scenarios are constructed. Scenario studies might also allow researchers to tap into the sense-making associated with the development of POS beliefs and to determine exactly what type of information is most salient in the development and/or reciprocation of POS.

Limitations and Future Research

The study's findings should be considered in light of the following limitations. First, the causal relations among the motivational (i.e., dependent) measures cannot be asserted with complete certainly because they were collected at the same time. However, the sequence of variables in the structural equation model was theory-driven. Future work might employ scenarios to tease out the

causal relationship among variables. Researchers attempting to replicate these findings in the field would be advised to incorporate a longitudinal design.

Second, while the measure of self-efficacy used in the present study is a proxy measure of self-efficacy strength, self-efficacy magnitude (Bandura, 1986, 1997; Lee & Bobko, 1994) was not assessed. This approach was necessary from a practical standpoint. When developing the present study it wasn't possible to know ahead of time the potential range of OCBs that might be induced by the scenarios; therefore, a more general approach focusing on confidence in performing a range of behaviors was adopted. Measures of self-efficacy strength call for participants to respond on a ten-point scale indicating their certainty about being able to perform a particular task, ranging from 10 (certain I can't do it) to 100 (certain I can do it) in increments of ten (Bandura, 1997). Consistent with the definition of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986; 1997), in the present study subjects described their certainty about their ability to successfully carry out particular behaviors: they rated how strongly they agreed (ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree) with OCB items introduced with the item stem "If I tried, I could…." Although a different rating format was used, the measure used here taps into participants' certainty regarding their ability to successfully carry out a particular behavior. Maurer and Andrews (2000) compared a simplified measure of self-efficacy (comparable to the style used here) with Bandura's traditional measurement approach, and found that the two measures were highly correlated. They concluded that a simplified (and abbreviated) scale is sufficient and appropriate when a general index of participants' confidence in high level tasks is

sought. It is important to recognize that, although a different measure of self-efficacy was used, such key findings as the positive relationship between self-efficacy and behavioral intention were consistent with goal theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) and the TPB (Ajzen, 1991). Prior studies used a more general measure of job self-efficacy whereas the present study focused specifically on self-efficacy for organizational citizenship behaviors. Since OCBs are often defined as unrewarded behaviors that fall outside the formal job role (Organ, 1988), perhaps POS does not trigger performance-rewards mechanisms and self-efficacy beliefs for OCB; rather, perhaps it activates the mechanism for more general job-related tasks and behaviors. Future work might address this issue by testing the model with a general measure of job self-efficacy, as well as the more focused measure of self-efficacy for OCB.

Third, the use of an experimental methodology might raise concerns over the generalizability of the results. However, the strength of experiments is that they permit the assessment of causality; therefore, the trade-off was worthwhile (Cook & Campbell, 1979). Generalizability occurs when the causal process which brings about a particular result is understood (Highhouse, 2009). It was critical for a first study to establish whether induced POS produced the predicted changes in cognition and affect. The use of a randomized experimental design in the present study demonstrated that different levels of organizational support do, in fact, cause statistically meaningful differences in felt obligation, self-efficacy, and intention (for OCB). The extent to which the information presented in the vignettes is representative of a true organizational environment (Dipboye &

Flanagan, 1979) is also relevant to the external validity of the study. However, the information contained in the vignettes was reverse engineered from the same survey instrument (SPOS) that is used to assess perceptions of organizational support in the field. As well, during the pilot testing stage, subjects did not identify any aspects of the vignettes as unrealistic when asked to provide feedback on the accessibility and realism of the vignettes. It should also be acknowledged that the subjects in the present study were undergraduate students; but, this is common in experimental research and students can be expected to behave the same way as other populations (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). Greenberg (1987) defends the use of student samples, arguing that "student and non-student samples may be equally useful sources of information about the processes underlying organizational phenomena" (p. 158). To dispel possible concerns about the generalizability of the present findings, future work should test the model in the field.

Finally, while the proposed model fit the data well, it must be acknowledged that the model was relatively narrow in scope from a conceptual perspective. Although the model tested here represents a more complete conceptualization of the relationship between POS and OCB than previously considered in OST, we cannot overlook the possibility that the process is even more complex. Future studies may consider extending the theoretical motivational framework by accounting for the effects of needs (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 2000), self-regulatory focus (Higgins, 1997; 1998), moods/emotions (Seo, Feldman Barrett & Bartunek, 2004; Lord & Kanfer, 2002), reward expectancies (e.g., Bandura 1997),

or organizational commitment (e.g., Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004: Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Implications for Theory

This study's finding offer mixed results in terms of supporting the corresponding portion of the theoretical model advanced in Chapter 2. Accordingly, the present study advances OST by demonstrating that the level of support provided by an organization impacts intention and self-efficacy for OCB. Prior work on reciprocation for POS (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2006; Eisenberger et al., 2001) focused on social exchange processes and mood as mechanisms underlying the relationship between POS and OCB or pro-social organizational behaviors. An important contribution of this work is its demonstration that Locke's motivational hub (Locke, 2001; Mitchell et al., 2000), which has not previously been included in OST, is relevant to the process by which employees reciprocate for organizational support. Viewed in this way, reciprocation is more conscious and deliberate than previously recognized, and recognizes that there may be a delay between the moment when the individual recognizes that reciprocation is warranted and the time when the corresponding behaviours are actually carried out. Previously, the role of intentions was implicitly assumed. The present study, however, explicitly tests their role in the process and finds that perceptions of organizational support, as well as the resulting feelings of obligation, trigger behavioural intentions.

The present study offers preliminary evidence which, with additional support from future research, may extend goal theory (Locke & Latham, 1990;

Mitchell et al., 2000). Goal theory recognizes that behavioural intentions can be externally induced. For example, goals assigned by managers are internalized as personal goals (or intentions) with respect to their performance (Locke & Latham, 1990). Along with external inducements such as monetary rewards (Locke, 1968; Locke & Latham, 1990), the level of support, recognition, and appreciation provided by an organization also appear to influence intentions for OCB. Taking a broader view of possible inducements for behavioural intentions, Mitchell et al. (2000) suggested that a range of factors (other than assigned goals, personal goals, and self-efficacy) including norms, role models, instrumentality or valence, felt pressure, personality, and mood influence behavioural intentions. To the extent that felt pressure and felt obligation are comparable, the findings from the present study offer empirical confirmation that felt pressure does, indeed, influence behavioural intention. As well, the present study would suggest that the group of other factors be enlarged to include the type and amount of support provided by the organization when examining behavioural intentions in the work context. Overall, the present findings imply that reciprocation and social exchange mechanisms can work in concert with motivational mechanisms. The recognition that behavioural intentions can also be induced by social exchange needs and/or mechanisms would extend goal theory.

Implications for Practice

The favourable impact of OCBs on firm performance is well-recognized (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000) and therefore organizations are well-advised to try to maximize

the OCBs performed by their employees. The present study clearly demonstrates that individuals who perceive low, moderate, or high levels of organizational support intend to engage in different types and amounts of OCBs, respectively, corresponding to the level of support they perceive. In essence, the more support the organization provides, the greater the individual's motivation to engage in OCBs in return.

Conclusion

The scenario study presented in this chapter is a first test of the theoretical model developed in Chapter 2. In this study, three motivational concepts – felt obligation, self-efficacy, and behavioural intentions/goals – are examined in relation to perceptions of organizational support. The results suggest that perceptions of organizational support have a positive effect on one's intention to engage in organizational citizenship behaviour and that the feelings of obligation that result from perceptions of organizational support activate the motivational hub. These findings extend OST by demonstrating that motivation theories can be integrated with social exchange theory to better understand how POS is related to behavioural outcomes.

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Table 3-1
Goodness of Fit Indices for Confirmatory Factor Analysis Models

Model	*df*	χ^2	*p*	RMSEA	GFI	CFI	NFI
Null	378	15,073.41	.00				
1 factor	350	2,166.14	.00	.21	.45	.88	.86
4 factor	344	1,062.42	.00	.13	.66	.95	.93
6 factor	335	669.41	.00	.07	.80	.98	.96

Note: N=191. 28 Items. χ^2 = chi-sqauare; RMSEA = root mean squared error of approximation ; GFI = goodness of fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; NFI = normed fit index (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993; Kelloway, 1988).

Null model: all items load to their own factor

1 factor model: all items load to a single factor

4 factor model: POS, felt obligation, OCB self-efficacy, OCB intentions

6 factor model: POS, felt obligation, OCBo self-efficacy, OCBi self efficacy, OCBo intentions, OCBi intentions

Table 3-2

Intercorrelations Among the Latent Factors in the Six-Factor Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Latent Factor	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
1. Perceived Organizational Support					
2. Felt Obligation	.74 *				
3. OCBo Self-Efficacy	.41 *	.50 *			
4. OCBi Self-Efficacy	.25 *	.35 *	.62 *		
5. OCBo Intentions	.83 *	.89 *	.59 *	.33 *	
6. OCBi Intentions	.53 *	.65 *	.34 *	.61 *	.71 *

Note: N = 191. 28 items. * p<.05

Table 3-2

Means, Standard Deviations, Alpha Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations Among Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. Perceived Organizational Support	4.33	1.75	*.95*						
2. Exchange Ideology	4.02	0.91	-.05	*.79*					
3. Felt Obligation	4.70	1.32	.71**	-.34**	*.90*				
4. Self-Efficacy for OCBo	5.37	1.18	.39**	-.07	.46**	*.92*			
5. Self-Efficacy for OCBi	5.57	0.85	.23**	-.13 *	.29**	.56**	*.85*		
6. Intentions to Engage in OCBo	4.58	1.47	.79**	-.17**	.82**	.53**	.30**	*.92*	
7. Intentions to Engage in OCBi	4.98	0.99	.47**	-.20**	.57**	.31**	.50**	.62**	*.85*

Note. N=191. Pearson's correlation coefficient, with scale reliabilities on the diagonal. * p <0.05, ** p <0.01. One-tailed. Listwise Deletion.

Table 3-4

Mean Differences Across Three Experimental Conditions

	Condition: Level Of Support		
	Low (N = 63)	Neutral (N = 65)	High (N = 63)
Variables	*Mean*	*Mean*	*Mean*
POS	2.38 a	4.49 b	6.12 c
Felt Obligation	3.63 a	4.89 b	5.57 c
Self-efficacy for OCBo	4.81 a	5.49 a,b	5.80 b
Self-efficacy for OCBi	5.35 a	5.58 a,b	5.79 b
Intentions for OCBo	3.29 a	4.74 b	5.71 c
Intentions for OCBi	4.54 a	4.98 b	5.42 c

Note: N = 191. Results of planned comparisons using Fisher's Least Significant Differences test are indicated with subscripts. Means in the same row with different subscripts are significantly different at $p < .05$.

Table 3-5
Structural Equation Model Loadings and Errors for OCB Model, OCBO Model, and OCBI Model

Statement	Model A		Model B		Model C	
	Loading	Error	Loading	Error	Loading	Error
Perceived Organizational Support						
The organization really cares about my well-being	.93	.13	.93	.14	.93	.13
The organization shows concern for me.	.83	.31	.83	.31	.83	.31
The organization values my contribution to its well being	.86	.26	.86	.26	.86	.26
The organization strongly considers my goals and values	.89	.21	.89	.21	.89	.21
The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor	.87	.24	.87	.24	.87	.25
The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	.90	.19	.90	.19	.90	.18
Felt Obligation						
I feel a personal obligation to do whatever I can to help the organization achieve it's goals	.93	.13	.93	.13	.92	.15
I owe it to the organization to give 100% of my energy to the organization's goals while I am at work	.91	.18	.91	.18	.91	.17
I have an obligation to the organization to ensure that I produce high quality work	.86	.26	.86	.26	.87	.24
I would feel an obligation to take time from my personal schedule to help the organization if it needed my help	.77	.40	.78	.40	.76	.42
I would feel guilty if I did not meet the organization's performance standards	.75	.44	.74	.45	.75	.44
I do not feel that the only obligation I have to the organization is to fulfill the minimum requirements of my job.	.46	.78	.46	.78	.47	.78
Self-Efficacy for OCBo						
If I wanted to, I could….						
Defend the organization when other employees criticize it	.84	.29	.86	.26		
Show pride when representing the organization in public	.90	.18	.91	.17		
Express loyalty toward the organization	.91	.17	.92	.16		
Take action to protect the organization from potential problems	.78	.39	.77	.41		
Self-Efficacy for OCBi						
If I wanted to, I could….						
Willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems	.52	.73			.73	.47
Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group	.53	.72			.80	.36
Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations	.60	.64			.85	.27
Give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems	.50	.75			.68	.54
Intentions to Engage in OCBo						
Over the next few months, how often do you intend to …						
Defend the organization when other employees criticize it	.87	.24	.87	.25		
Show pride when representing the organization in public	.92	.16	.64	.59		
Express loyalty toward the organization	.82	.32	.92	.16		
Take action to protect the organization from potential problems	.85	.28	.85	.27		
Intentions to Engage in OCBi						
Over the next few months, how often do you intend to …						
Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems	.58	.66			.74	.45
Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group	.63	.61			.85	.28
Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business of personal situations	.56	.68			.78	.39
Give up time to help othiers who have work or nonwork problems	.51	.74			.68	.54

Note: N=191 in all models. Standardized Estimates. All items loaded significantly on their predicted factors.
Model A: General OCB; Model B: Organization-directed OCB; Model C: Individual-directed OCB.

Table 3-6

Total and Indirect Effects in Structural Equation Models A (General OCB), B (Organization-Directed OCB), and C (Individual-Directed OCB)

	Model A (General OCB)			Model B (OCBo)			Model C (OCBi)		
Standardized Total Effects	*POS*	*FO*	*SE*	*POS*	*FO*	*SE*	*POS*	*FO*	*SE*
1. Perceived Organizational Support (POS)									
2. Felt Obligation (FO)	.74			.74			.74		
3. Self-Efficacy (SE)	.41	.45		.42	.44		.25	.36	
4. Intentions	.82	.62	.13	.83	.61		.53	.56	.44
Standardized Indirect Effects	*POS*	*FO*	*SE*	*POS*	*FO*	*SE*	*POS*	*FO*	*SE*
1. Perceived Organizational Support (POS)									
2. Felt Obligation (FO)									
3. Self-Efficacy (SE)	.33			.32			.27		
4. Intentions	.47	.06		.46	.13		.41	.16	

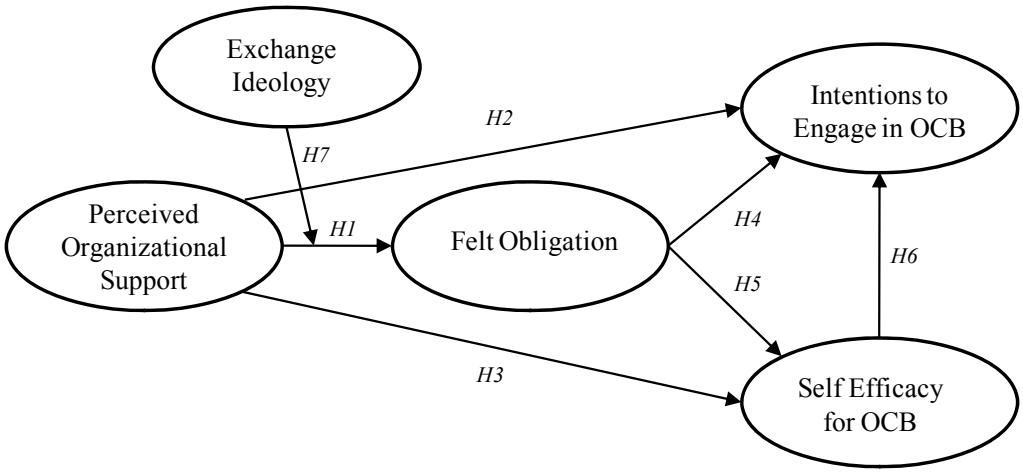

Figure 3-1. A depiction of the proposed process model for the relation between perceived organizational support and motivation for organizational citizenship behaviour. Numbers in the figure represent the hypotheses associated with each relation.

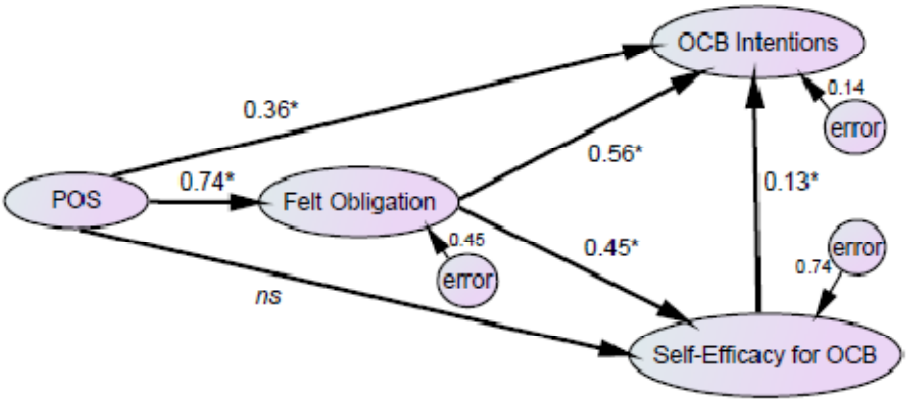

Figure 3-2. Model A: Structural equation model of the relations between perceived organizational support (POS) and motivation for general organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). *$p<.05$. Standardized path coefficients are displayed. Path parameters in italics are not significantly different from zero.

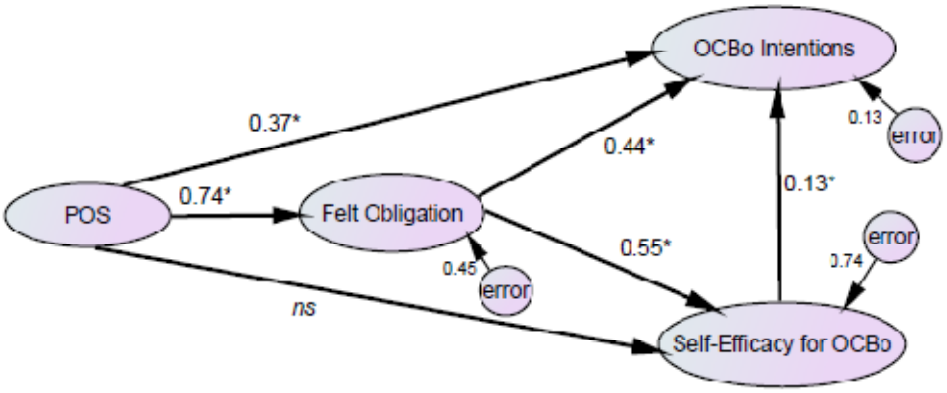

Figure 3-3. Model B: Structural equation model of the relation between perceived organizational support (POS) and motivation for organization-directed organizational citizenship behaviour (OCBo). *$p<.05$. Standardized path coefficients are displayed. Path parameters in italics are not significantly different from zero.

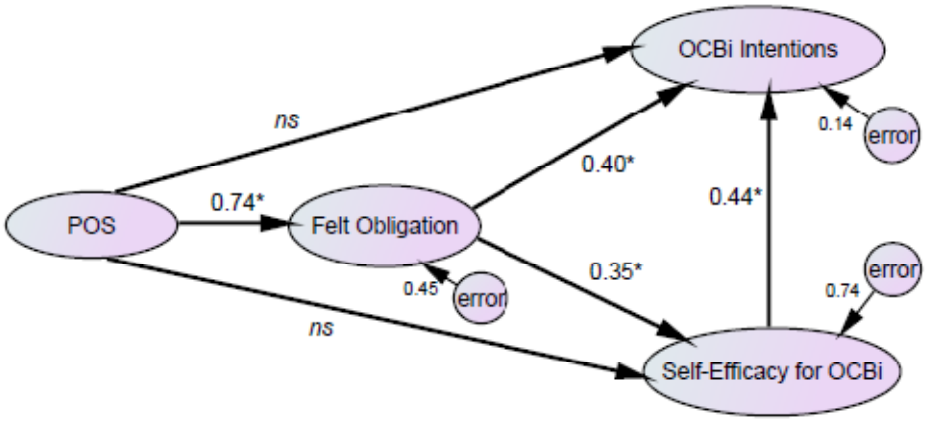

Figure 3-4. Model C: Structural equation model of the relation between perceived organizational support (POS) and motivation for individual-directed organizational citizenship behaviour (OCBi). *$p<.05$. Standardized path coefficients are displayed. Path parameters in italics are not significantly different from zero.

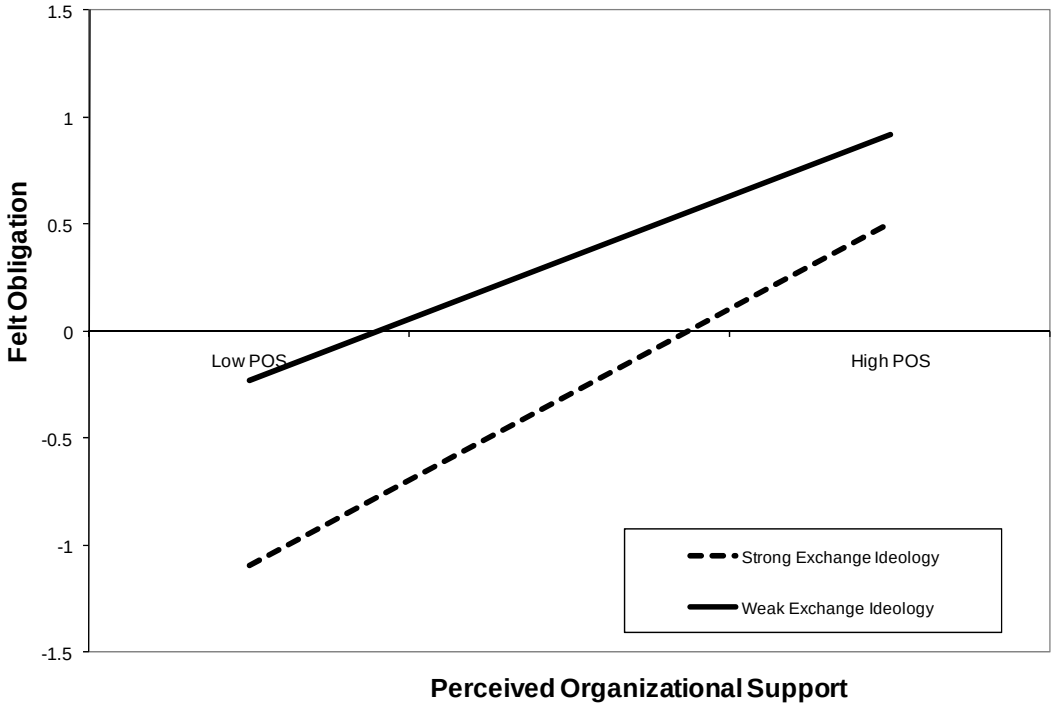

Figure 3-5. The relation between perceived organizational support (POS) and felt obligation as a function of employee exchange ideology. The criterion has been standardized.

Appendix 3-A

Vignettes

Scenario for the Low Perceived Organizational Support Condition

Four years after graduating with a B.Mgt, you continue to work for the same large organization that hired you right out of university. Your position is a good match for your undergraduate major and education, and you are very satisfied with the actual content of your job, and the work you do on a day-to-day basis.

The past four years have really dragged, and you've come to believe that the organization treats you very poorly and really doesn't care about you as a person or an individual. The company has a disappointing benefits package, and isn't at all helpful or accommodating when employees are ill, have problems, or need a favour. The organization doesn't conduct employee satisfaction surveys to find out what people think or follow up on employee suggestions, concerns, or complaints.

Your hard work and performance haven't been praised or recognized by the organization, and your salary has only been adjusted been for cost of living increases. Your extra effort goes unnoticed. The organization is known for ignoring employees' accomplishments, and not understanding that everyone makes an honest mistake now and then. You don't always have the resources, tools, or time you need to do well in your current position. And the organization is not doing much to help you advance your career - it isn't supportive of your development. The organization has no funding to support training or continuing

education at the organization's expense, won't pay for you to complete an MBA or other professional credential. You suspect that the organization wouldn't try to stop you if you said you were leaving. In this company, employees are just replaceable cogs in a big machine - they're nameless workers who aren't seen to contribute to the company's success or well-being.

Scenario for the Moderate Perceived Organizational Support Condition

Four years after graduating with a B.Mgt, you continue to work for the same large organization that hired you right out of university. Your position is a good match for your undergraduate major and education, and you are very satisfied with the actual content of your job, and the work you do on a day-to-day basis.

Over the past four years you've come to believe that the organization treats you fairly, and as well as any other company might. The benefits package is sufficient, and the company is sometimes helpful when employees are ill, have problems, or need a favour.

Your hard work and performance are noticed sometimes, but not always. Your raises have been reasonable and fair - nothing too generous or too cheap. Sometimes your extra effort is recognized. The organization is somewhat supportive in helping you advance your career, and recognizes that you'd like to be promoted some day. The organization has modest funding to support some training and continuing education for satisfactory performing employees. On the continuum where employees can be seen as "replaceable cogs in a big machine" at one end, and "unique and valued individuals who make important contributions to

the company's success and well-being" at the other, employees at this company land right in the middle of continuum.

Scenario for the High Perceived Organizational Support Condition

Four years after graduating with a B.Mgt, you continue to work for the same large organization that hired you right out of university. Your position is a good match for your undergraduate major and education, and you are very satisfied with the actual content of your job, and the work you do on a day-to-day basis.

The past four years have really flown by, and you've come to believe that the organization treats you very well and really cares about you as a person and an individual. The company has a really good benefits package, and is helpful and accommodating when employees are ill, have problems, or need a favour. The organization conducts regular employee satisfaction surveys to find out what employees think, and follows up on employee suggestions, concerns, and complaints.

Your hard work and performance have been publicly praised and recognized by the company on multiple occasions. Your name has been included in the monthly newsletter's section on "Noteworthy Accomplishments" several times. You've been rewarded with annual performance bonuses and generous raises. Your extra effort has always been appreciated. The organization is known for celebrating employees' accomplishments, while understanding that everyone makes an honest mistake now and then. The organization has helped you succeed in your current position by ensuring that you have the resources, tools, and time

that you need to complete your work. And the organization is also helping advance your career - it's been highly supportive of your development and preparation for your next promotion. You've received a great deal of training and continuing education at the organization's expense, and it's even willing to pay for you to complete an MBA or other professional credential. You know without a doubt that the organization is happy to have you, and would fight to keep you if you said you were leaving. In this company, employees are not just replaceable cogs in a big machine, they're unique and valued individuals who make important contributions to the company's success and well-being.

Appendix 3-B

Scale Items

Perceived Organizational Support (from Eisenberger et al., 1986)

The organization really cares about my well-being.

The organization shows very little concern for me. R

The organization values my contribution to its well being.

The organization strongly considers my goals and values.

The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favour.

The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

Felt Obligation (from Eisenberger et al., 2001)

I feel a personal obligation to do whatever I can to help the organization achieve it's goals.

I owe it to the organization to give 100% of my energy to the organization's goals while I am at work.

I have an obligation to the organization to ensure that I produce high quality work.

I would feel an obligation to take time from my personal schedule to help the organization if it needed my help.

I would feel guilty if I did not meet the organization's performance standards.

I feel that the only obligation I have to the organization is to fulfill the minimum requirements of my job. R

Self-Efficacy for OCBo (Adapted from Lee & Allen, 2002)

If I wanted to, I could….

…Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.

…Show pride when representing the organization in public.

…Express loyalty toward the organization.

…Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.

Self-Efficacy for OCBi (Adapted from Lee & Allen, 2002)

If I wanted to, I could….

…Willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems.

…Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.

…Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.

…Give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems.

Intentions to Engage in OCBo (Adapted from Lee & Allen, 2002)

Over the next few months, how often do you intend to …

…Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.

…Show pride when representing the organization in public.

…Express loyalty toward the organization.

…Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.

Intentions to Engage in OCBi (Adapted from Lee & Allen, 2002)

Over the next few months, how often do you intend to …

…Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.

…Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.

…Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business of personal situations.

…Give up time to help othiers who have work or nonwork problems.

Exchange Ideology (from Eisenberger et al., 1986)

An employee's work effort should not depend on the fairness of his or her pay R

Employees should not care about the organization that employs them unless that organization shows that it cares about its employees.

Employees should only go out of their way to help their organization if it goes out of its way to help them.

An employee should work as hard as possible no matter what the organization thinks of his or her efforts. R

If an organization does not appreciate an employee's efforts, the employee should still work as hard as he or she can. R

An employee who is treated badly by a company should work less hard.

An employees' work effort should depend partly on how well the organization deals with his or her desires and concerns.

An employee should only work hard if his or her efforts will lead to a pay increase promotion, or other benefits. R

CHAPTER 4

Introduction

Perceived organizational support (POS) reflects employee beliefs about the extent to which the organization cares about their well-being and appreciates their contributions (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). According to organizational support theory (OST) (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002), the relationship between POS and its outcomes occurs as a result of reciprocation (Blau, 1964) stemming from employee acceptance of the reciprocity norm (Gouldner, 1960) within the context of a social exchange employment relationship. In essence, employees who experience supportive job conditions and favourable treatment from the organization feel obligated to repay the organization. These employees typically discharge their outstanding obligation by working harder and increasing their extra-role effort to help the organization succeed (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger, Jones, Aselage, & Sucharski, 2004; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Two studies have demonstrated that felt obligation mediates the relationship between POS and important outcomes (Coyle-Shapiro, Morrow, & Kessler, 2006; Eisenberger et al., 2001). These studies lend empirical support to this widely accepted theoretical explanation of reciprocation for POS. A potential shortcoming of the extant model is the omission of other motivational concepts which might provide a more complete understanding of the process by which employee perceptions of organizational support are reciprocated through discretionary acts.

My work thus far has focused on two motivational concepts – self-efficacy beliefs and behavioural intentions. These concepts are not only linked to a wide range of employee behaviours (e.g., Ajzen, 1991; Bandura, 1997; Locke & Latham, 1990; Mitchell, Thompson, & George-Falvy, 2000), they are thought to play pivotal roles in translating perceptions of organizational support into behaviour. In Chapter 3, I presented the results of a study where several theory-based predictions were tested. Findings from Study 1 revealed that perceptions of organizational support affect both efficacy perceptions and intentions (i.e., self-set goals) with respect to citizenship behaviour. In Study 2, the purposes were to replicate the findings of Study 1 and to extend the process model by including a measure of actual citizenship behaviour. The two studies used different methodologies to test aspects of the integrative theoretical model presented in Chapter 2. In Study 1, the main objective was to establish a link between POS and the motivational process variables. In Study 2, the main objectives are to replicate the relations between POS and the motivational process variables and to assess whether these motivational process variables mediate the relation between POS and organizational citizenship behaviour. The chapter begins with a brief overview of the rationales and hypotheses for the model tested in this study (see Figure 4-1). This is followed by a description of the methodology and findings of the empirical study. Finally, a general discussion examines the research findings and considers the theoretical and practical implications.

Organizational Support Theory and Reciprocation

Organizational support theory (OST) is the framework which explains POS, identifies its antecedents and outcomes, and explains both how POS develops and is reciprocated. Social exchange theory (SET) (Blau, 1964) provides an important theoretical basis for OST. OST begins with an assumption that employees personify their organization and form general beliefs about whether the organization has benevolent or malevolent intentions towards them (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Employees are actively interested in the organization's regard for them because the organization is a source of important resources including tangible benefits like wages and benefits and socio-emotional resources such as caring and respect (Eisenberger et al., 2004). Key antecedents of POS include fairness, supervisor support, the frequency and extent of organizational rewards such as compensation, promotions, and autonomy (which are all positively correlated with POS) as well as organizational politics and role stressors (which are negatively correlated with POS) (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). OST holds that favourable treatment contributes more strongly to POS when employees attribute it to discretionary, rather than constrained or otherwise obligated, actions on the organization's behalf (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997).

According to OST, many employment relationships are social exchange relationships. When the organization provides resources and support, employee acceptance of the reciprocity norm (Gouldner, 1960) results in feelings of obligation to repay the organization. In order to repay the organization and to

discharge outstanding obligations, employees demonstrate increased concern about the organization's welfare and work harder to help achieve its goals (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). Maintaining the balance of exchange between employee and organization is important. Blau (1964) explains that, while the exchanged benefits need not be identical, they should be approximately equivalent in value. He further notes that since the timing and nature of reciprocation is controlled by the recipient, mutual trust is crucial and is built up during the course of multiple cycles of successful exchanges. While employees are known to reciprocate in a number of ways including increased affective commitment, increased in-role performance, and decreased withdrawal behaviours (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), one of most prominent forms of reciprocation is increased organizational citizenship behaviour.

The Primary Relationship: Perceived Organizational Support and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Employees frequently engage in organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB) as a means of repaying the organization for the support it provides (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2006; Eisenberger et al., 2004). OCB includes voluntary day-to-day activities that fall outside the formal job role but contribute to organizational effectiveness and performance (Organ, 1988; Organ, 1997; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). The discretionary nature of OCBs makes them "ideal wares for reciprocation" because they are easily given or withheld (Settoon, Bennett, &

Liden, 1996, p. 220) and are less affected by employees' abilities and work processes than in-role performance (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). These characteristics should also make them particularly responsive (in both timing and content) to changes in support provided by the organization. The positive relation between POS and OCB is well established across a variety of job and organizational contexts (e.g., Byrne & Hochwarter, 2006; Chen, Eisenberger, Johnson, Sucharski, & Aselage, 2009; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). A recent meta-analysis suggests that the overall POS-OCB relation is positive and robust (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Relations between POS and Three Motivational Concepts

The motivational process model presented here (and illustrated in Figure 4-1) posits that three motivational mechanisms mediate the relationship between POS and OCB. These motivational concepts include felt obligation, self-efficacy beliefs for OCB, and intentions to engage in OCB. The hypothesized relation between POS and each of these motivational concepts is now presented, in turn.

The assertion that acts of support by the organization and its agents cause employees to feel obligated to reciprocate this goodwill through their attitudes and behaviours is a generally accepted tenet in the POS literature (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998; Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995; Shore & Wayne, 1993) that has been empirically confirmed in two

studies (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2006; Eisenberger et al., 2001). Notwithstanding the paucity of empirical support, on the basis of OST I propose that employees who perceive that their organization and its agents offer a high level of support experience higher levels of felt obligation.

Hypothesis 1: Perceived organizational support will be positively related to felt obligation.

Behavioural intentions (or personal goals) are a fundamental concept in the organizational behaviour literature. Intentions (or goals) are defined as what an individual wants to do or is consciously trying to do (Locke, 1968). The motivational value of intentions stems from the fact that intentions direct attention and action to goal-relevant tasks or activity, mobilize energy and effort, increase persistence, and initiate the development of plans and strategies to ensure that intentions or goals can be realized (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981). Going forward, I use the terms "intentions to engage in OCB,", "intentions," and "intentions (for OCB)" interchangeably; all three terms reflect the employee's (behavioural) intentions to perform, engage in, or demonstrate organizational citizenship behaviours at work.

The notion that a variety of situational characteristics (e.g., work-related events, reward contingencies, or task instructions) influence behavioural intentions is recognized, either explicitly or implicitly, by both goal theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Extending this causal logic to the POS literature as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, I advance the notion that salient acts of support (or lack of support) directed toward an

employee will affect that individual's behavioural intentions. Specifically, employees who perceive high rather than low levels of organizational support will, deliberately and consciously, think about and plan their response to these acts of support. In addition to initially determining whether reciprocation for organizational support is warranted, employees must decide when, how, and how much to reciprocate. In making these decisions as a consequence of their perceptions of organizational support, employees form intentions that direct their subsequent behaviour.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived organizational support will be positively related to intention to engage in organizational citizenship behaviour.

Self-efficacy is defined as an individual's belief about his capacity to perform at some level if the necessary effort is put forth (Bandura, 1986). As discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, self-efficacy plays a central role in a person's choice of behaviour; more specifically, tasks or activities which are judged to be within one's capabilities are readily undertaken while those deemed to exceed one's capabilities are avoided. Self-efficacy also influences a person's decisions about persistence and effort and motivates people to achieve their goals. Self-efficacy is an important concept in both goal theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The terms "self-efficacy beliefs for OCB," "self-efficacy (for OCB)," and "self-efficacy" will be used synonymously throughout the chapter. All three terms refer to an employee's belief that he or she is capable of successfully carrying out OCBs if sufficient effort is put forth.

In Chapters 2 and 3, I proposed that self-efficacy beliefs are influenced by the perceived level of POS. The logic underlying this assertion was based on Bandura's (1997) view that self-efficacy develops, in part, through our first-hand experiences with the activities or behaviours involved. In short, we learn about ourselves, especially our capabilities, through the feedback we receive from credible sources and from the outcomes associated with each performance. When an organization directs support towards an individual, it sends a powerful message to that individual that the organization "is behind you, cares about you, and values your opinions and capabilities." Persuasive efficacy-enhancing cues from significant others (e.g., the organization or its agents) are powerful means of strengthening people's beliefs that they possess the capabilities to achieve what they seek. In other words, it is easier to sustain a sense of efficacy if significant others express faith in one's capabilities (Bandura, 1997; pp. 101). There is support for a positive association between POS and job-related self-efficacy beliefs (Bhanthumnavin, 2003; Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper, & O'Brien, 2001). Maurer, Mitchell and Barbeite (2002) demonstrated, for instance, that resource availability (a form of organizational support) was positively related to employees' self-efficacy beliefs for development. I, therefore, propose that individuals' perceptions of organizational support will be positively related to their self-efficacy perceptions for those focal behaviours that are instrumental in reciprocating organizational support (e.g., citizenship).

Hypothesis 3: Perceived organizational support will be positively related to self-efficacy for organizational citizenship behaviour.

Relations Among the Three Motivational Concepts

Social exchange norms compel individuals to reciprocate when they receive favourable treatment (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Thus, when employees receive support and favourable treatment from the organization, they incur an obligation to repay it in kind (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Eisenberger and his colleagues (2001) demonstrated that felt obligation fully mediated the relation between POS and organizational spontaneity. More recently, Coyle-Shapiro et al. (2006) found that felt obligation mediated the relationship between POS and some facets of service-oriented OCB. Assuming that the individual has the knowledge, skills, and abilities to act (i.e., "can do"), the most immediate determinant of subsequent behaviour should be one's behavioural intentions to act (i.e., "will do") (e.g., Ajzen, 1991; Locke & Latham, 1990; Mobley, 1977). If felt obligation is going to affect OCB, it follows that it must do so by affecting employees' intentions to engage in OCB.

Mitchell et al. (2000) developed a comprehensive goal theory model that summarized, among other things, the current view of inducements of behavioural intentions. Along with assigned goals, personal goals, and self-efficacy, they also identified a collection of other factors including norms, role models, instrumentality, personality, mood, and, of particular relevance here, felt pressure. If felt pressure and felt obligation are comparable, then the goal theory literature suggests that felt obligation should be positively related to employees' behavioural intentions. As illustrated in Figure 4-1, I expect that employee's felt

obligation towards their organization will be positively related to intentions to engage in organizational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 4: Felt obligation is positively related to intentions to engage in OCB.

The model depicted in Figure 4-1 suggests that self-efficacy beliefs for OCB are influenced by felt obligation; that is, employees who experience stronger feelings of obligation towards the organization will feel more capable of performing OCBs. Obligations, by definition, are activities a person is bound to perform that arise out of a sense of duty or out of a binding promise or contract. The fact that these activities are expected and integral to the relationship should suggest to the indebted party that these activities are, in fact, within the capabilities of the individual. Bandura (1997) suggests that verbal persuasion, especially the expectations of others, is a potent source of efficacy. Individuals who recognize an outstanding obligation are likely to believe that they are capable of successfully performing the expected activity. As employee's feeling of indebtedness grows stronger, more and more attention should be brought to bear on those activities that will allow the individual to discharge their obligations (and how this can be achieved). Employees' understanding of what they have to do should be accompanied by an elevated sense of confidence that their obligations can be discharged.

Research framed with the theory of planned behaviour has shown that, in some instances, felt obligation is experienced as a moral duty to "do the right thing." Moral obligations are a source of normative pressure, and are strongly

correlated with self-efficacy beliefs (Conner & Armitage, 1998). A recent study examined people's self-efficacy beliefs with respect to regular walking and exercise (Brown & Rhodes, 2006). The authors compared self-efficacy beliefs for regular excise among two groups and found that participants who owned dogs and felt obligated to do what was best for their dog reported significantly higher self-efficacy for regular exercise than participants who did not have dogs. The Brown and Rhoades study offers a parallel interpretation of the relationship between employees and the organization; for example, when the employee feels obligated to act in a way that will benefit the organization, they feel more capable of successfully carrying out organizationally supportive behaviours as OCB. Several studies have demonstrated a positive relationship between moral obligations and self-efficacy beliefs (Beck & Ajzen, 1991; Conner & Armitage, 1998; Sparks & Guthrie, 1998; Warburton & Terry, 2000). Taken together, the above suggest that employees who feel obligated towards the organization will report higher levels of self-efficacy for OCBs.

Hypothesis 5: Felt obligation is positively related to self-efficacy for OCB.

One of the most well-established relationships in the model exists between self-efficacy beliefs and behavioural intentions or self-set goals (Locke, Frederick, Lee, & Bobko, 1984; Locke & Latham, 1990). This relationship represents the fusion of "can do" with "will do" and makes up what Locke refers to as the "motivational hub" (Locke, 2001; Mitchell et al., 2000). Research shows that high self-efficacy beliefs are positively related to intentions (Bandura, 1991; Bandura & Wood, 1989; Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007;

Dixon & Schertzer, 2005; Latham & Pinder, 2005; Mathieu & Button, 1992; Phillips & Gully, 1997; Taylor, Locke, Lee, & Gist, 1984). The relationship between criterion behaviour-specific self-efficacy and intentions is also a key element in the theory of planned behaviour (e.g. Ajzen, 1991) and is well documented empirically across a range of behaviours (e.g., Armitage & Conner, 2001; Terry, Hogg, & White, 1999; Terry & O'Leary, 1995; Warburton & Terry, 2000) including turnover (van Breukelen, van der Vlist, & Steensma, 2004). Lastly, job self-efficacy is positively correlated with OCB and similar concepts across a range of occupational groups (Bogler & Somech, 2004; Jawahar, Meurs, Ferris, & Hochwarter, 2008; Lee, 2001; Maurer, Mitchell, & Barbeite, 2002a; Maurer, Pierce, & Shore, 2002; Maurer & Tarulli, 1994; Todd & Kent, 2006). Employees' self-efficacy beliefs (for OCB) should, therefore, be positively related to their intentions to engage in OCBs, as depicted in Figure 4-1.

Hypothesis 6: Self-efficacy for OCB will be positively related to intentions to engage in OCB.

The Motivational Concepts and OCB

OST posits that employees who perceive high levels of organizational support feel obligated to reciprocate and help the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore & Shore, 1995). Although limited, empirical evidence confirms a positive relationship between felt obligation and organizational spontaneity among postal workers (Eisenberger et al., 2001) and between felt obligation and some facets of organizational citizenship behaviour among contracted employees (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2006). Consistent with

theoretical and empirical evidence, I propose that employees' feelings of obligation towards the organization will be positively related to organizational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 7: Felt obligation will be positively related to OCB.

Goal setting research has repeatedly demonstrated the positive effect of intentions on behaviour across a wide range of individuals, jobs, and organizational contexts (Locke & Latham, 1990; Locke & Latham, 2002). The relation between intentions and behaviour is perhaps one of the most robust findings in the organizational behaviour literature (Mento, Steel, & Karren, 1987). In the theory of planned behaviour, (TPB) intentions reflect an individual's motivation to perform a given behaviour, and how much effort he or she will exert, assuming the behaviour in question is under volitional control (Ajzen, 1991). TPB research has shown that behavioural intentions strongly predict actual behaviour (e.g., Ajzen, 1991; Armitage & Conner, 2001). Similarly, research focused on employee turnover has robustly demonstrated that turnover intentions significantly predict actual turnover behaviour (Hom, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979; Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978; Prestholdt, Lane, & Mathews, 1987; van Breukelen et al., 2004). Finally, two studies in the OCB literature have demonstrated that intentions to engage in OCB are significantly and positively related to actual OCB (Williams, Pitre, & Zainuba, 2002; Williams & Shiaw, 1999). Based on theoretical arguments and empirical evidence, I expect that employees' intentions

to engage in OCB will be positively related to OCB in the workplace, as illustrated in Figure 4-1.

Hypothesis 8: Intentions to engage in OCB will be positively related to OCB.

OCB scholars have also proposed that self-efficacy beliefs can encourage or constrain the performance of discretionary behaviour; in other words, employees may not feel competent at all forms of OCB and will, therefore, only demonstrate behaviours which they feel capable of performing successfully, regardless of their attitudes or mood (George & Jones, 1997). A robust and positive relation between self-efficacy and job performance has also been demonstrated empirically (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Furthermore, a positive correlation between work-related self-efficacy and various dimensions of OCB as well as prosocial organizational behaviour and contextual performance (two broader concepts that are also related to OCB) has been observed across a range of occupational groups (Bogler & Somech, 2004; Jawahar et al., 2008; Maurer, Mitchell, & Barbeite, 2002b; Maurer et al., 2002; Maurer & Tarulli, 1994; Todd & Kent, 2006). For example, in Lee's (2001) study of nurses, job self-efficacy for nursing tasks was positively related to the altruism and service quality aspects of prosocial organizational behaviour among nurses. He suggests that employees' performance of prosocial organizational behaviours requires willingness as well as the belief that one has the capacity or capability to perform the task. In accordance with goal theory, social cognitive theory, and the accumulated

empirical evidence, I suggest that employees' self-efficacy for OCB will be positively related to their actual demonstration of OCB at work (see Figure 4-1).

Hypothesis 9: Self-efficacy beliefs for OCB will be positively related to OCB.

Although the theoretical model (Figure 4-1) posits a positive relation between POS and OCB (Hypothesis 1), the underlying logic of the model is that this observed (expected) correlation reflects a more complex set of cause-effect relations. The proposal put forward is that POS will covary with OCB only to the extent that POS produces changes in the motivational concepts, which, in turn, produce changes in OCB. Thus, the relation between POS and OCB is completely mediated by the set of motivational process concepts configured as outlined in Figure 4-1.

Hypothesis 10: the relationship between POS and OCB will be completely mediated by the motivational process variables.

The Moderating Role of Exchange Ideology

Exchange ideology is a general belief system that develops through individual personal experience, observation, and persuasion by others (Eisenberger et al., 2001). It is an individual trait that reflects the employee's acceptance of the reciprocity norm (Eisenberger et al, 2004) and is defined as a belief that "it is appropriate and useful to base their concern with the organization's welfare and their work effort on how favourably they have been treated by the organization" (Eisenberger et al., 2001, pp. 42-43). Exchange ideology has been shown to significantly moderate the relationship between POS

and a number of outcomes, including absenteeism (Eisenberger et al., 1986), job performance (Orpen, 1994), and commitment (Sinclair & Tetrick, 1995; Witt, Kacmar, & Andrews, 2001). Of particular relevance here, exchange ideology has been shown to moderate the relationship of POS with felt obligation (Eisenberger et al., 2001). As depicted in Figure 4-1, I propose that exchange ideology will moderate the relationship between POS and felt obligation.

Hypothesis 11: Exchange ideology will moderate the relationship between perceived organizational support and felt obligation.

Method

Study Participants and Occupational Context

The study hypotheses were tested using data provided by a sample of 171 medical and surgical (MS) nurses working in Canadian health care facilities. In hospitals, MS nurses work in either medical or surgical units where they face a number of unique challenges. Due to the diverse nature of patient conditions on medical and surgical units, MS nurses must possess a generalist knowledge base and skill set; yet, they must practice with a specialist's knowledge of adult health issues (Roberts, 2004). In addition, they are expected to lead bedside care with highly diverse care teams, rapidly changing technology, and the highest number of student nurses (compared to other nursing specialties). Together, these factors create conditions where citizenship behaviour is especially important.

MS nurses were selected as the study sample for several reasons. Firstly, as a group, representatives of MS nursing have reported feeling that they are less recognized for their breadth of knowledge and skills than in other recognized

nursing specialties. Also, MS nursing has lower status than other types of nursing (e.g., critical care and emergency nursing). In addition, MS nursing representatives report receiving less organizational support for continuing education and in-services (brief in-house training sessions) than nurses in other specialties (Simpson, 2006). These comments suggest that, while hospitals depend on MS nurses to demonstrate high levels of citizenship behaviour (particularly with respect to orienting new nurses and training student nurses who must all be trained in MS units), the organizations do not necessarily create environments where MS nurses feel motivated to engage in citizenship behaviour. Secondly, by surveying MS nurses at multiple health care facilities across the country, greater variance in perceptions of organizational support was expected. Together, these factors made MS nurses a particularly appropriate study population to test the proposed motivation process model.

Procedure

Study materials were distributed at numerous hospitals across Canada with a particular emphasis on Quebec and Alberta. Different recruitment procedures were used in order to gain access to hospitals of different sizes and in different health regions. In total, seven hospitals provided on-site access to participants while numerous other hospitals and provinces are represented by participants recruited by email for off-site participation.

Three recruitment methods were used to maximize participation and to reduce self-selection bias. Participants in Quebec completed the questionnaire during paid work time during a full day training session. In Alberta, participants

completed questionnaires during their unpaid lunch hours. Alberta participants were recruited via posters, email, unit announcements, and in-person invitations/reminders on the units by a clinical nursing educator on the day of the session. Lastly, a professional nursing association of MS nurses emailed its members across Canada on two separate occasions to invite them to participate in the study.

Participants who expressed an interest in participating in the study (*N*=284) were given or mailed a survey packet that included a cover letter, a survey for them to complete with a postage-paid return envelope, and a second package for another person to complete on their behalf. The second package also contained a cover letter, a shorter-version of the survey, and a postage-paid return envelope. Participants were instructed to complete the participant survey themselves and subsequently give the second package to an individual who shared their work environment and had ample opportunity to observe day-to-day work behaviors. The data consisted of returned participant surveys and the surveys from their nominated raters. All returned surveys were then reconciled by the researcher, with a match defined as a completed participant survey and a completed other-rater survey.

Data from 171 matched surveys were used to test the study hypotheses. Study materials were distributed to 284 MS nurses. In total, 251 participants returned surveys (88.4% response rate) and 210 other raters (selected by the participant) returned surveys (73.9% response rate). Surveys were excluded if they were unmatched, incomplete, from a student nurse or a respondent who had been at the

organization less than a year, or if the other rater reported seldom observing the focal participant. The data were examined for univariate and multivariate outliers as described in Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) and yielded a final matched sample of $N = 171$.

The respondent sample was characterized as follows: respondents were primarily female (92.4% of participants and 89.5% of other raters). Participants and other raters were equal in mean age (participants: $M = 40.59$, $SD = 11.68$; other raters: $M = 40.63$, $SD = 11.65$). On average, participants reported just over a dozen years of work experience in nursing ($M = 13.29$, $SD = 11.76$), nine years at their current organization ($M = 9.40$, $SD = 9.03$), and six years in their current position ($M = 6.01$, $SD = 6.12$). Nominated raters were similar in terms of work experience ($M = 12.92$, $SD = 11.65$) and organizational tenure ($M = 10.03$, $SD = 9.41$) but had been in their current position slightly longer ($M = 7.74$, $SD = 8.40$). Nominated (other) raters were asked to describe their relationship with the focal participant. 86.5% of other raters were the participant's peer, 1.2% were supervisors, 4.1% were managers, 3.5% were clinical nurse educators (in-house education instructors), and 4.7% characterized their relationship as "other." The amount of time the other raters had worked with the focal participant ranged from a few weeks to 20 years. Finally, other raters reported how frequently they observed the participant at work: 24.6%: now and then; 50.9%: often; and, 24.6%: very often.

Measures

Perceived organizational support. Perceived organizational support (POS) refers to the extent to which employees believe that the organization appreciates their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). POS was measured using six high loading items from the short form of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (Items 8, 9, 20, 22, 23, and 25; factor loadings from 0.72 to 0.84, from Eisenberger, et al., 1986) (see Appendix 4-A). For each item, respondents were asked to rate the extent of their agreement (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Responses to the relevant items were averaged to produce a measure of POS (M = 4.01, SD = 1.14). The reliability of the POS measure was .83 (alpha coefficient).

Felt obligation. Employees' felt obligation to care about the organization and help it achieve its goals was measured using the seven items from Eisenberger et al. (2001) (See Appendix 4-A). For each item, respondents were asked to rate the extent of their agreement (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Responses to the relevant items were averaged to produce a measure of felt obligation (M = 5.40, SD = 0.85). The reliability of the exchange ideology measure was .73 (alpha coefficient).

Exchange ideology. Exchange ideology is an individual trait which reflects the extent to which the employee's efforts to help the organization achieve its goals are contingent upon the support and favourable treatment the organization provides. It was measured using eight items from Eisenberger et al. (2001) (see Appendix 4-A). For each item, respondents were asked to rate the extent of their

agreement (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Responses to the relevant items were averaged to produce a measure of exchange ideology (*M* = 3.12, *SD* = 0.88). The reliability of the exchange ideology measure was .69 (alpha coefficient).

Intention (for OCB). Intentions to engage in OCB over the coming year were measured with a new measure created specifically for this study. Seven high loading items, including behaviours directed towards the organization (OCBo) and individuals (OCBi), were selected from Podsakoff et al. (1990) (see Appendix 4-A). For each item, respondents were asked to rate the extent of their agreement (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) with the statement that "Over the next twelve months, I intend to…". Responses to the relevant items were averaged to produce a measure of OCB Intention (*M* = 6.04, *SD* = 0.59). The reliability of the OCB intention measure was .69 (alpha coefficient). The subscales for self-efficacy for organizationally-directed (OCBo) and individually-directed (OCBi) forms of OCB could not be scored in the present study due to reliability issues.

Self-Efficacy (for OCB). Self-efficacy reflects the respondent's belief that he could successfully perform a behaviour if he tried (Bandura, 1977). The measure of perceived self-efficacy for OCB was developed for this survey and incorporates the same OCB items used in the intentions measure. The measured items used the stem "If I try, I am capable of …", with seven OCB items selected from Podsakoff et al. (1990) (see Appendix 4-A). For each item, respondents were asked to rate the extent of their agreement (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Responses to the relevant items were averaged to produce a

measure of OCB self-efficacy ($M = 6.17$, $SD = 0.60$). The reliability of the self-efficacy measure was .76 (alpha coefficient). The sub scales for intentions to engage in organizationally-directed (OCBo) and individually-directed (OCBi) forms of OCB could not be scored in the present study due to reliability issues.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. Organizational citizenship behaviour was assessed using a rating source other than the respondent to address concerns regarding common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). As described elsewhere, citizenship behaviours are defined as being discretionary in nature, not formally part of the employees' formal role, but "[contributing] to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance" (Organ, 1997, p. 91). In this study OCB was measured using the 24 item scale from Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fegger (1990) (see Appendix 4-A). For each item, respondents were asked to rate the extent of their agreement (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) regarding focal participant engagement in various behaviours at work. Podsakoff et al.'s measure of OCB produces a number of subscales (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007). It was developed to reflect Organ's (1988) five sub-dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior: altruism, courtesy, compliance, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. By aggregating some of the five dimensions, this measure can also accommodate William and Anderson's (1991) two-dimensional model with organizationally-directed OCB (OCBo: compliance, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) and individually-directed OCB (OCBi: altruism and courtesy). Hoffman et al. (2007) recently determined

that OCB is best characterized as a uni-dimensional concept. In the present study, only the overall OCB score was reliable enough to use for hypothesis testing. Therefore, responses to all 24 items were averaged to produce an aggregate measure of OCB ($M = 5.75$, $SD = 0.69$). The reliability for this composite was .91 (alpha coefficient).

Results

Sample Aggregation

Since respondents were sourced from different hospital sites, prior to aggregation, the data were checked for location effects. A one-way analysis of variance was conducted with hospital location as the grouping variable and OCB as the criterion. This analysis revealed an absence of location effects, $F(2,168) = 1.41$, $p = .247$, *ns*. Thus, the data was aggregated across locations.

Assessing the Proposed Measurement Model

To assess whether the self-reported predictor measures were empirically distinct, competing measurement models were proposed and evaluated using confirmatory factor analyses (CFA). The three measurement models were specified as follows: (a) a null model where all 35 items were specified to load on their own factor; (b) a 1-factor model where all 35 items were specified to load on a single factor; (c) a 5-factor model: 6 POS items loading on a factor; 7 felt obligation items loading on a factor; 8 exchange ideology items loading on a factor; 7 self-efficacy items loading on a factor; 7 intention items loading on a factor. Assessing the measurement model was an important consideration given that the self-efficacy and intention measures were developed for this study. The

CFAs were performed using *LISREL 8.8* (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) and assessed using a variety of absolute and relative fit indices (Kelloway, 1998). A description of the fit indices and their interpretation is provided in Chapter 3. The various fit indices associated with the three models are provided in Table 4-1. Although all of the models had significant χ^2 values, the five-factor model appeared superior to the competing measurement models, with an RMSEA of .08 (indicating a good fit to the data) and CFI and NFI values that exceeded .80. Thus, the proposed measurement model was confirmed. Table 4-2 shows standardized item loadings for the self-report predictors. Intercorrelations among the five latent factors are presented in Table 4-3.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 4-4 provides the means, standard deviations, scale reliabilities, and correlations among the study variables. Significant positive relations were observed between POS and all of the study measure with the exception of exchange ideology. Exchange ideology was found to be negatively and significantly related to all of the study variables. Felt obligation was significantly and positively related to all of the study measures. Self-efficacy was significantly and positively related to intentions, but was unrelated to OCB, while intentions were positively related to OCB. Overall, the patterns of correlations are consistent with Hypotheses 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8. The patterns of correlations are not consistent with Hypotheses 3 and 9.

Test of the Proposed Structural Model (Hypotheses 1-11)

The hypothesized paths in the structural model (Figure 4-1) were assessed using *LISREL 8.8* (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The results of the structural equation model are depicted in Figure 4-2. Figure 4-2 identifies all the paths that were tested; non-significant paths are identified with italic fonts. The fit indices for the model were as follows: $\chi^2 = .073$, $df = 1$, $p > .05$; RMSEA = .00; GFI = 1.00; CFI = 1.00; NFI = 1.00. The non-significant χ^2 value indicates that the model fits the data very well. Examination of the R^2 values associated with the structural equations (one for each endogenous concept) indicates that this model accounted for 25% of the variance in felt obligation, 23% of the variance in self-efficacy for OCB, 69% of the variance in intention to engage in OCB, and 11% of the variance in OCB.

In terms of the model paths, examination of the parameters indicates support for many of the hypothesized relations. As expected, the path between POS and felt obligation was statistically significant (path coefficient =.49, p <.05), indicating support for Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 4 was supported too, as the path between felt obligation and intention to engage in OCB was statistically significant (path coefficient =.19, p <.05). The path between felt obligation and self-efficacy for OCB was statistically significant (path coefficient =.54, p <.05), indicating support for Hypothesis 5. Hypothesis 6 was supported, as the path from self-efficacy to intention was statistically significant (path coefficient =.69, p <.05). The path from intention to OCB was statistically significant (path

coefficient =.50, p <.05); therefore, Hypothesis 8 was supported. Finally, Hypothesis 10 was supported.

The direct path between POS and intention to engage in OCB failed to reach a statistically-significant level; thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported (however, the model does show that the POS-intention relation is indirect via felt obligation). The path between POS and self-efficacy for OCB also failed to reach a statistically-significant level, and thus Hypothesis 3 was not supported. Hypothesis 7, which predicted a direct effect between felt obligation and OCB, was not supported as the path failed to achieve a level of statistical significance (however, the model does show that the felt obligation-OCB relation is indirect via intentions). Finally, the path from self-efficacy to OCB was statistically significant (path coefficient = -.44, p <.05) but was not in the predicted direction; thus, Hypothesis 9 was not supported.

The total and indirect effects in the structural equation model in Figure 4-2 are presented in Table 4-5. It is evident that the effect of POS on self-efficacy is predominantly indirect (standardized effect = .27; standardized total effect = .10), through felt obligation. Similarly, the effect of POS on intentions is predominantly indirect (standardized effect = .16; standardized total effect = . 29), again, through felt obligation.

The structural equation model presented in Figure 4-2 did not include a path between POS and OCB. Were such a path included, the model would be fully identified this would prevent the assessment of model fit and the determination of whether or not the observed data is consistent with the theorized

model. For illustrative purposes, and to determine if any of the significant paths change when a direct path from POS to OCB is included in the model, a fully identified model is presented in Figure 4-3. The structural equation model presented in Figure 4-3 is identical to the model in Figure 4-2, except for the addition of a direct path from POS to OCB. It is noteworthy that there is no change in the pattern of significant paths from the model in Figure 4-2. In addition, with the effects of the intervening motivational concepts controlled, the magnitude of the direct path between POS and OCB did not reach a statistically significant level.

Testing for Moderated Relations (Hypothesis 11)

The model described in Figure 4-1 implies that the relation between POS and felt-obligation depends on one's exchange ideology. To test for an interaction effect, the relevant measures were subjected to regression analysis following the recommendations of Aiken and West (1991). Predictor variables (POS and exchange ideology) were mean-centered to minimize the potential effects of multicolinearity (Aiken & West, 1991, p. 35).

Hypothesis 11, which predicted that the relation between POS and felt obligation would be moderated by exchange ideology, was tested. The two centered predictor variables were multiplied together to form the interaction term. In the first step of the analysis, both predictors were entered (F (2,168) = 2.36, p <.01, R = .17, R^2= .03). In the second step, the interaction term was entered. Adding the interaction term to the equation explained an additional .06 percent of criterion variance, ΔF (1,167) = 1.52, *ns*, ΔR^2= .06. After all predictor terms were

entered (i.e., after step two), F (3,187) = 2.65, *ns*, R = .56, R^2= .32. The addition of the interaction term was not statistically significant; therefore, Hypothesis 11 was not supported.

Discussion

The purposes of the present study were to replicate the findings of Study 1 in a field setting and to determine whether the relation between POS and OCB was mediated by a motivational process. Specifically, the aim was to confirm relations between POS and three key motivational variables: felt obligation, self-efficacy, and intentions to engage in OCBs (see Chapters 2 and 3 for an in-depth discussion of these concepts);and, to determine whether these concepts, in concert, transmitted the effects of POS on OCB. For the most part, these objectives were accomplished.

According to OST, the effects of POS on outcomes such as OCB occur to the extent that feelings of obligation (to reciprocate) are induced in the recipient of the support (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2006; Eisenberger et al., 2001). To be sure, the results in this study are in concert with prior studies that show a positive relation between POS and felt obligation and demonstrate the mediating role of felt obligation (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2006; Eisenberger et al., 2001). However, the present work also advances our understanding of the role of felt obligation by revealing its association with efficacy percepts and goal states – two motivational concepts that have been closely associated with the "can do" drivers of behaviour. In both Studies 1 and 2, the notion was advanced that felt obligation is inherently "motivational in nature,"

and, thus, should tie into the psychological processes associated with goal-directed activity. To the best of my knowledge, these studies are the first to explicitly examine how POS and feelings of obligation affect self-efficacy and behavioral intentions (Bandura, 1997; Locke & Latham, 1990) and, collectively, how these motivational concepts manifest themselves in citizenship behaviour. The present findings help explicate the process by which perceptions of organizational support are reciprocated as behaviour and suggest the possibility that social exchange theory and traditional motivation theories can be integrated to better explain and manage employee behaviour. Together, these results advance research and theory on reciprocation for POS and demonstrate that reciprocation via OCB is more conscious and deliberate than previously recognized.

Theoretical Integration: New Developments

The conceptual model presented in Chapter 2 offers insights into how POS might affect OCB. As expected, I found that POS was positively related to felt obligation. Contrary to expectations, however, there was no *direct* relation between POS and self-efficacy for OCB or between POS and intentions to engage in OCB. Consistent with my predictions, I observed an indirect effect of POS on self-efficacy through felt obligation as well as an indirect effect of POS on intention through felt obligation. In accordance with goal theory (Locke, 2001; Locke & Latham, 1990), the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997), self-efficacy beliefs were positively related to behavioral intentions which, in turn, were positively related to OCB. These relations are now discussed in greater detail.

Coyle-Shapiro and her colleagues (2006) suggested that their observation of a positive relation between POS and felt obligation could be interpreted as evidence that social exchange theory is an appropriate framework for understanding how POS affects employees' behavior. Consistent with their results, I observed a positive relationship between POS and felt obligation. My work, however, examines how felt obligation relates to two important motivation concepts – self-efficacy and behavioral intentions –and finds that felt obligation is strongly and positively related to both of these constructs. In other words, the present study demonstrates that, in the context of reciprocation for POS, felt obligation activates the motivational hub for citizenship behavior. This suggests that felt obligation's role in reciprocation may be more significant than previously recognized.

Self-efficacy beliefs are thought to develop through personal experience, vicarious experience (observation of similar others' successful attainment), verbal persuasion, social influence, and physiological states (Bandura, 1997). In the present study, POS affected self-efficacy indirectly through felt obligation which suggests that individuals who feel that particular behaviors are expected of them are more likely to feel that the behaviors are within their capabilities. Rather than stemming from overt verbal persuasion or social influence, this cognition stems from the individual's own assessment of what is expected in the context of the relationship. Whether this stems from an avoidance of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) or some other mechanism cannot be ascertained from the scope

of the current study. However, future work might examine how perceived obligations contribute to one's self-efficacy beliefs.

Behavioral intentions are held to be the immediate predictors of behavior in goal theory (Locke, 2001; Locke & Latham, 1990), the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), and theories of the employee turnover process (Mobley, 1977). Given the positive relationship between POS and OCB (e.g., Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), I expected a positive relation between POS and intentions for OCB. Although the bivariate correlation between these two concepts was positive, in the structural equation model the POS-intention relation was fully mediated by felt obligation. As with the finding that the relation between POS and self-efficacy was indirect through felt obligation, this result speaks to the importance of felt obligation as a trigger of the motivational hub in the POS reciprocation process. Possible explanations for the underlying mechanism warrant further attention. These may include avoidance of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957), fears of social sanction, or internal feelings of regret and shame for violating the reciprocity norm (Cialdini & Trost, 1998).

Goal theory (Locke 2001; Locke & Latham, 1990), the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), and social cognition theory (Bandura) predict a positive relationship between self-efficacy and behavior. Consistent with these expectations, a positive bivariate correlation was observed. However, when the other variables were controlled in the structural equation model, a significant and negative self-efficacy-OCB relation was observed. This is most likely due to a methodological issue. Significant and positive relationships between self-efficacy

and OCB have been reported elsewhere; however, these studies employed general measures of job self-efficacy. For example, Jawahar et al.'s (2008) study of MBA alumni measured general job self-efficacy while Lee's (2001) study of nurses used a nursing-specific measure of self-efficacy which focused on nursing tasks. The new measure in this study assessed the strength of participants' confidence in their abilities; it did not, however, assess the magnitude of self-efficacy beliefs across a range of behavioural situations (e.g., Bandura, 1977; Lee & Bobko, 1994). Finally, restricted variance might be a problem. Although OCBs are volitional in nature, they may not necessarily be difficult or require much skill, effort, or effort mobilization over time, for example, in the nursing work context. Indeed, the mean self-efficacy score reported by nurses in this study was quite high, suggesting that nurses feel highly capable of performing the assessed behaviors. The expected relationship between self-efficacy and OCB might be observed if a different measure of self-efficacy was used or if the measures were assessed in a different work environment or profession. Given that the methodological artifacts may have prevented a proper test of theory with respect to the efficacy-OCB relation, it should be examined in future work using different measures and under different circumstances.

Perhaps the most significant finding of the present study was the finding that self-efficacy and behavioral intentions fully mediated the relation between felt obligation and OCB. This suggests that reciprocation for POS is more conscious and deliberate than previously recognized. In addition, this result explicitly identifies an intervening step in the reciprocation process that was

previously overlooked in OST. Consequently, we now have a more thorough understanding of reciprocation for POS. When employees receive support and recognize their obligation to the organization, it appears that they consciously consider two questions: "can I successfully perform OCBs?" and "will I engage in OCBs?" This study extends OST by demonstrating that social exchange and reciprocation mechanisms associated with POS are tied in with the motivational hub. Considered more broadly, this suggests that examination of motivational concepts might be warranted in the context of other social exchange based theories of employee-organization relations such as psychological contract theory and leader-member-exchange theory.

The Moderating Role of Exchange Ideology

Contrary to expectations, exchange ideology did not significantly moderate the relationship between POS and felt obligation as previously demonstrated in the empirical literature (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 2001). Methodological issues are a possible explanation for the finding that exchange ideology was not a significant moderator in the present study. There may not have been sufficient variance in the exchange ideology measure due to restricted range issues in this sample. On average, the MS nurses sampled in this study were "weak exchangers." The average level of exchange ideology was moderately low, indicating that the effort they put forth at work is modestly affected by the way the organization treats them. Factors other than exchange ideology could also be relevant to nurses' felt obligation and may overshadow the potential moderating role of exchange ideology; for example, personal and professional values may

eclipse exchange ideology. The common socialization process within the nursing profession may also be a contributing factor. Future work should examine this finding.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The study's findings should be considered in light of the following limitations. In calling attention to these limitations, suggestions for future research are provided. First, the predictor measures in this study were all self-reported which raises concerns about possible common method bias or social desirability response bias (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). In order to avoid common method variance, the criterion variable, OCB, was confidentially assessed by an *other* rater. To further reduce the likelihood of common method bias and social desirability response bias, the survey design assured participants anonymity and confidentiality of their responses (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Second, while the measure of self-efficacy used in the present study is a proxy measure of self-efficacy strength, self-efficacy magnitude (Bandura, 1986, 1997; Lee & Bobko, 1994) was not assessed. This approach was necessary from a practical standpoint. As mentioned previously, the questionnaire had to be brief and could not accommodate assessment of both strength and magnitude. Measures of self-efficacy strength call for participants to respond on a 10-point scale corresponding to their certainty about being able to perform a particular task, ranging from 10 (certain I can't do it) to 100 (certain I can do it) (Bandura, 1997). Consistent with the definition of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986; 1997), in

the present study, subjects described their certainty about their ability to successfully carry out particular behaviours: they rated how strongly they agreed (ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree) with OCB items introduced with the item stem "If I tried, I could…." Although a simplified rating format was used, the measure used here taps into certainty with respect to successfully carrying out a particular behavior. Maurer and Andrews (2000) reported that simplified measures of self-efficacy are sufficient and appropriate when confidence regarding behaviors are sought at a high level, as in the present study. It is important to recognize that, in spite of the fact that a simplified measure of self-efficacy was used, key findings, such as the positive relationship between self-efficacy and behavioural intention, were consistent with goal theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) and the TPB (Ajzen, 1991). Prior studies which found positive relations between POS and self-efficacy used a more general measure of job self-efficacy whereas the present study focused specifically on self-efficacy for organizational citizenship behaviours. Since OCBs are often defined as unrewarded behaviours that fall outside the formal job role (Organ, 1988), perhaps POS does not trigger performance-rewards mechanisms and self-efficacy beliefs for OCB; rather, perhaps it activates the mechanism for more general job-related tasks and behaviours. Future work might address this issue by testing the model with both a general measure of job self-efficacy as well as the more focused measure of self-efficacy for OCB.

In addition to the measurement-based issues presented as a possible explanation for the negative relationship between self-efficacy and OCB, a more

substantive, though highly speculative, explanation may also be advanced. Self-efficacy is a complex concept, and may include personality characteristics as well as motivational components. If the positive path from self-efficacy to behavioral intentions controls for the motivational aspect the efficacy-OCB relationship, only the non-motivational aspect of self-efficacy is left in the efficacy-OCB path. If these non-motivational aspects of self-efficacy include darker, self-oriented aspects of self-efficacy, such as arrogance and conceit, these may be inconsistent with engaging in OCB, and its associated altruistic, helping, and selflessness behaviors.

Third, the sub scales self-efficacy and behavioral intentions for organizationally-directed (OCBo) and individually-directed (OCBi) forms for OCB could not be assessed in the present study due to reliability issues. Study 1 (see Chapter 3) revealed slight differences in the pattern of findings when the OCBo and OCBi models were compared. Future work should revisit the present study to compare the relations between variables when examined in the context of a two-dimensional model of OCB.

Fourth, a convenience sample was used in this study – that is, sampling of participants was not random but was based, rather, on ease of access. Since it is not possible to determine how representative this particular sample is of MS nurses in general, generalizations cannot be drawn. Some aspects of the study design, however, were included to lessen the impact of the non-random sample. Although weekday research sessions missed nurses working evening, night, or weekend shifts, sessions were scheduled from late morning to mid-afternoon to

accommodate nurses working two or three distinct break schedules. In most cases, sessions were held over several days at each location to accommodate days off. In Quebec, data collection was scheduled in both spring and fall to maximize the number of people who were invited to participate. To assess whether these findings generalize to the population of medical and surgical nurses, future research should use a different sampling process.

Fifth, although the proposed model fit the data well, it must be acknowledged that the model was narrow in conceptual scope. The present study builds on Study 1 (see Chapter 3) and was intended to both replicate the findings in a field setting and to extend the model by adding behaviour as the distal criterion. Although the model tested in Study 2 builds on the work of Study 1, and offers a more complete conceptualization of the relationship between POS and OCB than previously considered in OST, we cannot overlook the possibility that the process is even more complex. Future studies may consider extending the theoretical motivational framework by accounting for the effects of needs (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 2000), self-regulatory focus (Higgins, 1997; 1998), moods/emotions (Lord & Kanfer, 2002; Seo, Feldman Barrett & Bartunek, 2004), reward expectancies (e.g., Bandura 1997), or organizational commitment (e.g., Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004: Meyer & Hersovitch, 2001). Finally, this study focused exclusively on OCB. Other behavioural outcomes of POS, such as absenteeism, withdrawal behaviours, job performance, etc., (see Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) were not examined. Future research should seek to replicate

and extend the present model with other occupational groups and other behavioural outcomes associated with POS.

Practical Implications

An important practical implication of the present study is that organizations can increase employees' organizational citizenship behaviours by implementing human resource management practices and policies that increase employees' perceptions of organizational support. POS is likely to be strengthened by improvements in fairness, supervisor support, rewards and recognition, promotions, autonomy, role stressors, training, and job security (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). It is important to note, however, that favourable treatment delivered on a discretionary basis is more likely to increase POS than favourable treatment delivered based on competitive pressures or legislative requirements (Eisenberger et al., 2004). Managers may be able to frame their explanations of favourable treatment with this in mind. Attention to improving job conditions is likely to increase POS; and, reciprocation for the improvements in fair treatment, human resource management practices, and supervisor support should be reciprocated through higher levels of OCB being demonstrated in the workplace.

Acceptance of the reciprocity norm underlies employees' felt obligation in response to support provided by the organization. Since the motivational hub that drives OCBs is activated by felt obligation, organizations may find that incorporating and promoting the reciprocity norm as part of their organizational

values increases the frequency of OCBs performed in the workplace. This may have implications for the socialization of new employees.

The present study also speaks to the importance of self-efficacy beliefs in the workplace. Although self-efficacy beliefs regarding OCBs did not have a directly positive effect on OCBs, they did have an indirect effect through their positive relationship with behavioural intentions. It is possible that efforts to strengthen or reinforce positive self-efficacy beliefs for OCBs will increase employee's intentions to engage in OCBs, and subsequently result in higher levels of OCB being performed. Given that self-efficacy beliefs develop through personal and vicarious experiences, managers should recognize and praise employees who engage in OCBs. In this way, employees will experience positive outcomes when they perform OCBs themselves. As well, public recognition and reinforcement will signal to employees that their colleagues have successfully engaged in these behaviours which should, in turn, prompt them to realize that they can engage in OCBs too. Human resource management practices that empower employees may also have positive effects on self-efficacy beliefs (Lee, 2001) and increase OCBs.

Overall, the greater the level of support, recognition, and appreciation, provided by an organization, the greater employees' felt obligation towards the organization and the greater their intentions and actual OCB. Taken together, the findings from the present study emphasize the importance of providing high levels of support and recognizing the OCBs offered by employees in return.

Conclusion

The present study supports organizational support theory's view that social exchange mechanisms underlie the relation between POS and OCB. However, the results of the present study also demonstrate that social exchange mechanisms alone do not fully explain the POS-OCB relationship. These results show that *both* social exchange and motivational mechanisms are involved. It appears that the social exchange and reciprocity mechanisms activate the motivational hub (Locke, 2001). The finding that self-efficacy and behavioral intentions are the immediate antecedents of OCB suggests that the process by which employees reciprocate for POS through OCB seems more conscious and deliberate than previously recognized. When employees perceive high levels of organizational support, their belief that they should reciprocate activates the motivational hub wherein the "can do" and "will do" aspects of the relevant behaviours are assessed and are subsequently associated with organizational citizenship behaviour. Taken together, the present study's findings extend OST and demonstrate that the process by which POS is related to behavioral outcomes such as OCB is explained more thoroughly by considering both social exchange and motivation theories.

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Table 4-1

Goodness of Fit Indices for Confirmatory Factor Analysis Models

Model	*df*	χ^2	*p*	RMSEA	GFI	CFI	NFI
Null	595	4,398.53	.00				
1 factor	560	1,629.65	.00	.14	.55	.72	.63
5 factor	550	1,120.27	.00	.08	.70	.85	.75

Note: N=142. 35 Indicators. χ^2 = chi-sqauare; RMSEA = root mean squared error of approximation; GFI = goodness of fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; NFI = normed fit index (Kelloway, 1998)

Null Model: all items load to their own factor

1 factor model: all items load to a single factor

5 factor model: POS, Felt Obligation, Exchange Ideology, Self-efficacy (OCB), Intentions (OCB)

Table 4-2

Confirmatory Factor Analysis - Item Loadings

Statement	Loading
Perceived Organizational Support	
The organization really cares about my well-being	.81
The organization shows little concern for me (R)	.41
The organization cares about my opinions	.76
The organization is willing to help me if I need a special favour	.80
Help is available from my organization when I have a problem	.78
If given an opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me (R)	.48
Felt Obligation	
I feel a personal obligation to do whatever I can to help the organization achieve its goals	.69
I owe it to the organization to give 100% of my energy to the organization's goals while I am at work	.63
I have an obligation to the organization to ensure that I produce high-quality work	.57
I owe it to the organization to do what I can to ensure that patients are well-cared for and satisfied	.58
I would feel an obligation to take time from my personal schedule to help the organization if it needed my help	.59
I would feel guilty if I did not meet the organization's performance standards	.49
I feel that the only obligation I have to the organization is to fulfill the minimum requirements of my job (R)	.26
Exchange Ideology	
An employee's work effort should not depend on the fairness of his or her pay (R)	.35
Employees should not care about the organization that employs them unless that organization shows that it cares about its emloyees	.46
Employees shold only go out of their way to help their organization if it goes out of its way to help them	.43
An employee should work as hard as possible no matter what the organization thinks of his or her efforts (R)	.63
If an organization does not appreciate an employee's efforts, the employee should still work as hard as he or she can (R)	.71
An employee who is treated badly by a company should work less hard	.36
An employee's work effort should depend partly on how well the organization deals with his or her desires and concerns	.32
An employee should only work hard if his or her efforts will lead to a py increase, promotion, or other benefits	.46

Table 4-2, continued

Confirmatory Factor-Item Loadings

Statement	Loading
Self-Efficacy for Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	
If I try, I am capable of attending meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important	.40
If I try, I am capable of not taking extra breaks	.31
If I try, I am capable of obeying organizational rules and regulations even when no one is watching	.56
If I try, I am capable of helping others who have heavy work loads	.68
If I try, I am capable of taking steps to prevent problems with other employees	.79
If I try, I am capable of being mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs	.75
If I try, I am capable of helping others who have work related problems	.73
Intentions to Engage in Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	
I intend to attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important	.27
I intend to not take extra breaks	.42
I intend to obey organizational rules and regulations even when no one is watching	.48
I intend to help others who have heavy work loads	.60
I intend to take steps to prevent problems with other employees	.76
I intend to be mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs	.75
I intend to help others who have work related problems	.55

Note. $N = 142$. Standardized item loadings. All items loaded significantly on their predicted factors.

Table 4-3

Intercorrelations Among the Latent Factors in the Five-Factor Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Latent Factor	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*
1. Perceived Organizational Support				
2. Felt Obligation	.59 *			
3. Exchange Ideology	-.38 *	-.62 *		
4. OCB Self-Efficacy	.13	.37 *	-.45 *	
5. OCB Intentions	.22 *	.48 *	-.40 *	.78 *

Note: N = 142. 35 indicators. * p<.05

Table 4-4

Means, Standard Deviations, Alpha Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations Among Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
1. Perceived Organizational Support	4.07	1.14	*.83*					
2. Exchange Ideology	3.12	.88	-.25 **	*.69*				
3. Felt Obligation	5.40	.85	.44 **	-.44 **	*.73*			
4. Self-Efficacy (OCB)	6.17	.60	.08	-.34 **	.40 **	*.76*		
5. Intentions (OCB)	6.04	.59	.22 **	-.35 **	.49 **	.61 **	*.69*	
6. Other-Rated OCB	5.75	.69	.13 *	-.13 *	.14 *	-.01	.16 *	*.91*

Note. N=171. Pearson's correlation coefficient, with scale reliabilities on the diagonal. One-tailed *t* -test. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.

Table 4-5

Total and Indirect Effects in the Structural Equation Model in Figure 4-2

Standardized Total Effects	POS	FO	SE	INT
1. Perceived Organizational Support (POS)				
2. Felt Obligation (FO)	.50			
3. Self-Efficacy (SE)	.10	.54		
4. Intentions (INT)	.29	.56	.69	
5. OCB	.13	.11	-.10	.50

Standardized Indirect Effects	POS	FO	SE	INT
1. Perceived Organizational Support (POS)				
2. Felt Obligation (FO)				
3. Self-Efficacy (SE)	.27			
4. Intentions (INT)	.16	.37		
5. OCB	.13	.04	.35	

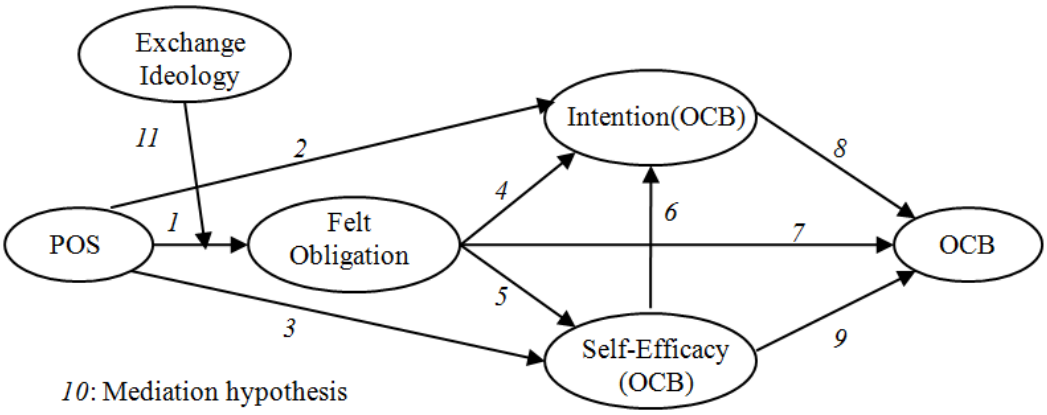

Figure 4-1. Theoretical model of the relationships among perceived organizational support (POS), felt obligation, self-efficacy(OCB), intentions(OCB), and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Numbers in the figure refer to the hypothesis in which the proposed relationship is addressed.

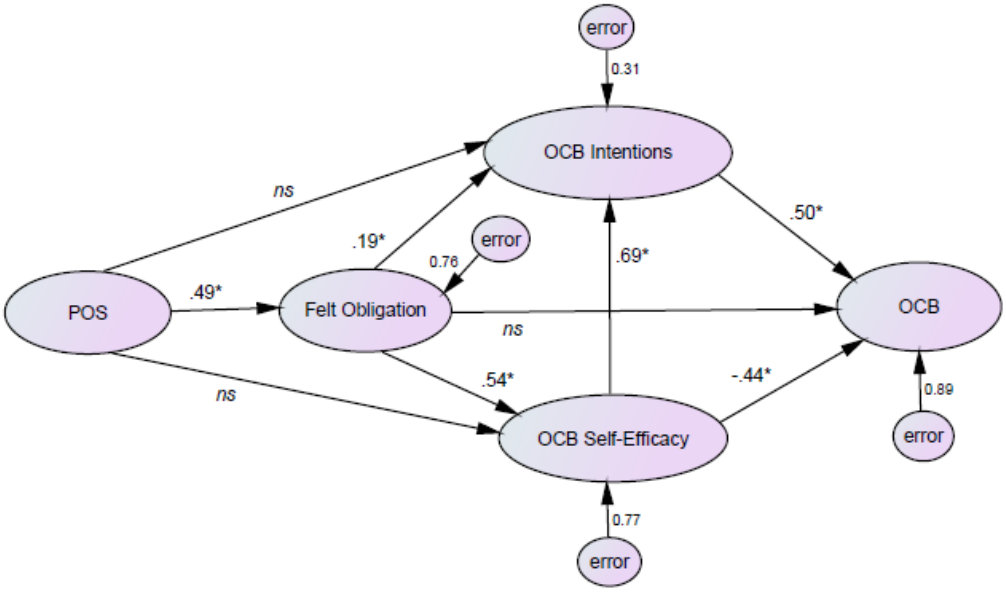

Figure 4-2. Structural equation model of the relationships among perceived organizational support (POS), felt obligation, self-efficacy (OCB), intention (OCB), and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Standardized path coefficients are displayed. Path parameters in italics are not significantly different from zero. $N = 171$.

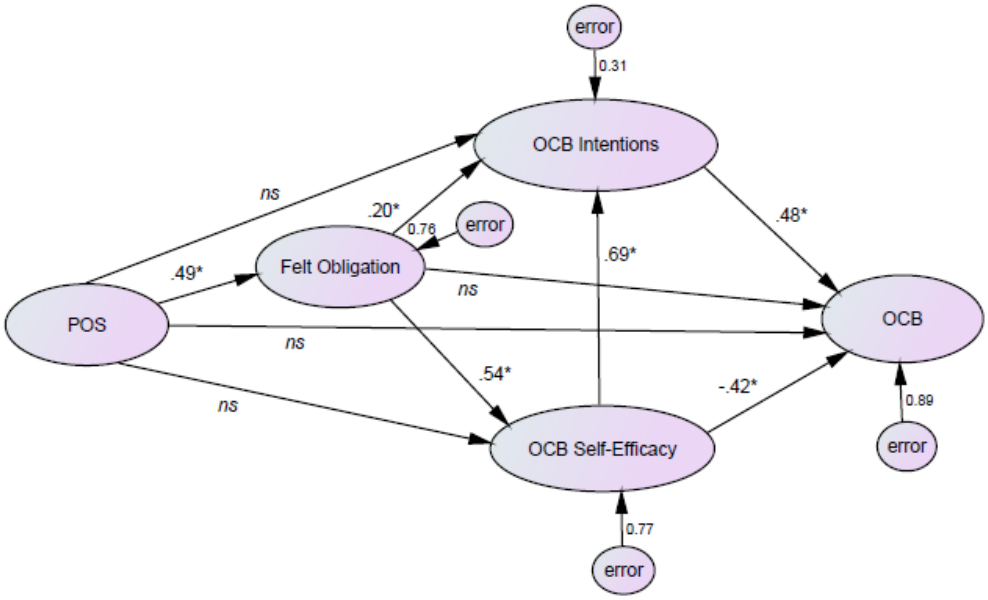

Figure 4-3. Fully identified structural equation model of the relationships among perceived organizational support (POS), felt obligation, self-efficacy (OCB), intention (OCB), and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Standardized path coefficients are displayed. Path parameters in italics are not significantly different from zero. $N = 171$.

Appendix 4-A

Scale Items

Scales from Participant Survey

Perceived Organizational Support (from Eisenberger et al., 1986)

The organization really cares about my well-being

The organization shows little concern for me (R)

The organization cares about my opinions

The organization is willing to help me if I need a special favour

Help is available from my organization whenever I have a problem

If given an opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me (R)

Exchange Ideology (from Eisenberger et al., 2001)

An employee's work effort should not depend on the fairness of his or her pay (R)

Employees should not care about the organization that employs them unless that organization shows that it cares about its employees

Employees should only go out of their way to help their organization if it goes out of its way to help them

An employee should work as hard as possible no matter what the organization thinks of his or her efforts (R)

If an organization does not appreciate an employee's efforts, the employee should still work as hard as he or she can (R)

An employee who is treated badly by a company should work less hard

An employee's work effort should depend partly on how well the organization deals with his or her desires and concerns

An employee should only work hard if his or her efforts will lead to a py increase, promotion, or other benefits

Felt Obligation (from Eisenberger et al., 2001)

I feel a personal obligation to do whatever I can to help the organization achieve its goals

I owe it to the organization to give 100% of my energy to the organization's goals while I am at work

I have an obligation to the organization to ensure that I produce high-quality work

I owe it to the organization to do what I can to ensure that patients are well-cared for and satisfied

I would feel an obligation to take time from my personal schedule to help the organization if it needed my help

I would feel guilty if I did not meet the organization's performance standards

I feel that the only obligation I have to the organization is to fulfill the minimum requirements of my job (R)

Intentions for OCB (Adapted from Podsakoff et al., 1990)

Over the next 12 months, I intend to…

... attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important

... not take extra breaks

... obey organizational rules and regulations even when no one is watching

... help others who have heavy work loads

... take steps to prevent problems with other employees

... be mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs

... help others who have work related problems

Self-Efficacy for OCB (Adapted from Podsakoff et al., 1990)

If I try, I am capable of…

… attending meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important

… not taking extra breaks

… obeying organizational rules and regulations even when no one is watching

… helping others who have heavy work loads

… taking steps to prevent problems with other employees

… being mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs

… helping others who have work related problems

Scale from the Other-Rater Survey

Other-Rated Organizational Citizenship Behavior (From Podsakoff et al., 1990)

Attendance at work is above the norm

Always focuses on what's wrong, rather than on the positive side (R)

Attends meetings that are not mandatory but are considered important

Does not take extra breaks

Tends to make "mountains out of molehills" (R)

Attends functions that are not required, but help the organization's image

Obeys organizational rules and regulations even when no one is watching

Always finds fault with what the organization is doing (R)

Keeps abreast of changes in the organization

Is one of the most conscientious employees I know

Is the classic "squeaky wheel" that needs greasing (R)

Reads and tries to keep up with organizational announcements, memos, and so on

Believes in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay

Spends a lot of time complaining about trivial matters (R)

Takes steps to try to prevent problems with other employees

Helps others who have been absent

Is mindful of how his/her behavior affects other people's jobs

Helps others who have heavy workloads

Does not abuse the rights of others

Helps orient new people even if it is not required

Tries to avoid creating problems for coworkers

Considers the impact of his/her actions on coworkers

Willingly helps others who have work related problems

Is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her

CHAPTER 5

Introduction

The purpose of the research presented in this dissertation was to understand the effects of organizational support. I was particularly interested in learning more about how perceptions of support (or the lack thereof) affect an individual. Of course, we can extend these discussions to any kind of relationship. However, in this work I am focused on employee-organization relationships. What has been learned? Prior studies have confirmed that reciprocity mechanisms (i.e., felt obligation) mediate the relationship between POS and OCB (Coyle-Shapiro, Morrow, & Kessler, 2006; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001), leading scholars to conclude that social exchange theory is an appropriate framework for understanding how POS leads to OCB. The research presented here builds on those findings, and demonstrates that previously overlooked motivational mechanisms are compatible with the social exchange framework. Furthermore, when these motivational concepts are incorporated in the POS reciprocation model, they provide a more complete understanding of how and why employees reciprocate for organizational support through OCB. As such, the present work extends OST and demonstrates that self-efficacy beliefs and behavioural intentions are important mediators of the POS-OCB relationship. Taken together, the present findings suggest that the process by which employees reciprocate for POS through OCB is more conscious and deliberate than previously recognized.

General Discussion

A noteworthy strength of the research presented in this dissertation is the use of different methodologies to test the theoretical model in two separate, empirical studies. The scenario and field studies, together, provide a more comprehensive test of the theoretical model than either study could, alone. The experimental design of the scenario study permits the testing of a causal relationship between levels of organizational support and the dependent variables. In the absence of a longitudinal design, the cross-sectional field study cannot assess causality in the relationships between the measures. The fact that many of the patterns in relationships between the variables were consistent between the two studies provides a clearer understanding of the causal sequence in the relationships between variables. Ultimately, however, a longitudinal field study – ideally in a different work context with a different population – is warranted. While the scenario study can only examine what subject say they would do given certain levels of organizational support, the field study includes other-rated OCB as its criterion measure. And finally, where the field study was constrained to the naturally occurring variance in POS among the participants, the scenario study deliberately induced variance in organizational support, yielding a balanced distribution in subjects' POS. Testing the proposed theoretical model with two complementary methodologies – including a scenario (i.e., laboratory) and a field test – was worthwhile.

Examining the findings of two empirical papers jointly reveals substantial similarities in the patterns of results, despite the different methodologies of the

two empirical studies. There are a number of commonalities in the relationships between the variables across the two studies. First, in accordance with OST and the accumulated empirical evidence, POS was positively related to felt obligation. In turn, felt obligation was positively related to both self-efficacy and behavioral intention. Taken together, these results speak to the importance social exchange mechanisms in the process by which employees engage in OCBs to repay the organization for the support it provides. These findings also draw our attention to the deliberate nature of reciprocation for POS – previously, the relationship between POS and OCB was understood to be mediated by felt obligation, but the possibility of variables mediating the relationship between felt obligation and OCB was overlooked. The two empirical studies presented here clearly illustrate that felt obligation activates Locke's (2001) motivational hub (i.e., self-efficacy and behavioral intentions) which mediates the relationship between felt obligation and OCB. It appears possible that employees who feel an obligation to repay the organization don't immediately engage in behavior to repay it. Consistent with goal theory (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990; Mitchell et al., 2000) and the theory of planned behavior (e.g., Ajzen, 1991), self-efficacy beliefs were positively related to behavioral intentions. George and Jones (1997) maintain that employees may not feel capable of performing all forms of OCBs, or may not perceive that there are opportunities for all forms of OCBs to be demonstrated in their workplace. The pattern of findings in the present studies would appear to be consistent with their argument. Taken together, the positive relations between feelings of obligation and both self-efficacy beliefs and behavioral intentions, as well as the

robustly positive relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and behavioral intentions, suggest that employees who feel obligated to repay the organization do so more consciously and deliberately than OST has previously recognized. My research suggests that there is an intervening step between the recognition of obligation and the performance of OCBs. During this intervening step, employees consider what behaviors they can, and are willing, to perform as a means of repayment.

Contrary to expectations, POS was not directly related to self-efficacy beliefs in either study, but POS was indirectly related to self-efficacy through felt obligation. Prior studies have observed a positive association between POS and self-efficacy (e.g., Bhanthumnavin, 2003; Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper, & O'Brien, 2001; Lee, 2001). In those studies, self-efficacy was assessed using more general measures of job-related self-efficacy. My two empirical studies measured self-efficacy beliefs for OCB specifically. Although different scale items were used in measuring self-efficacy in the two studies (the scenario study adapted Lee and Allen's (2002) scale, while the field study adapted Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fegger's (1990) more narrowly focused items), participants in both studies were asked to rate how confident they were in their abilities to carry out the behaviors in question. It remains unclear whether a positive relationship between POS and self-efficacy would have been observed if a general measure of job self-efficacy had been used – future testing of the proposed model should examine different forms and measures of self-efficacy, such as job self-efficacy

and other approaches to measuring OCB self-efficacy, to see if the pattern of findings observed here persists.

Although many of the findings were consistent across the two empirical studies, there were also some inconsistent results which warrant comment. Firstly, in the scenario study, as in the empirical literature, exchange ideology significantly moderated the relationship between POS and felt obligation. In the field study, however, exchange ideology didn't moderate the POS-felt obligation relationship, as has been reported in the literature (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2001). Both studies used established measures of POS and exchange ideology (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1986), so a methodological effect seems unlikely. While additional research on the model may shed light of the root of the inconsistency, it seems possible that the nurses' professional roles and norms may overshadow the effect of individual exchange ideologies, particularly if nurses' believed that patient care could be compromised if they withheld OCBs in response to low organizational support. A second difference between the two studies was the POS was positively related to behavioral intentions in the scenario study, whereas the relationship between POS and intentions for OCB was fully mediated by felt obligation in the field study. Additional research, testing the model in a variety of work contexts and with different populations, will help explain this discrepancy.

Having reviewed the shared and unique findings in the two empirical studies, I turn next to a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of

the aggregate research, summarize the contributions, and offer some final thoughts on the dissertation research as a whole.

Theoretical Implications

The primary theoretical implication of the present work is its clarification and extension of OST's conceptualization of the POS-OCB relationship. As discussed in the previous chapters, the relationship between POS and OCB is understood to operate through social exchange and reciprocity mechanisms. In OST's conceptualization of reciprocation, felt obligation is the immediate predictor (or antecedent) of the behaviours performed as repayment. The theoretical chapter in my dissertation argues that felt obligation is not the immediate antecedent of behaviour – instead, there are intervening concepts that mediate the obligation-behaviour relationship that have been overlooked by OST. My research shows that felt obligation is positively related to both self-efficacy and behavioural intentions, and that self-efficacy and behavioural intentions are the immediate antecedents of OCB. The empirical evidence presented in my dissertation supports the conceptual premise that social exchange and motivational mechanisms work together in the process by which employees reciprocate for organizational support through increased organizational citizenship behaviour.

With respect to goal theory, the pattern of findings in the two empirical studies is consistent with goal theory (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990) and the antecedents of performance. Mitchell, Thompson, and George-Falvy (2000) identify a number of external factors that are positively related to self-efficacy,

intentions, and performance, including: role models, instrumentality, personality, mood, felt pressure, and norms. In their model, felt pressure can be external (e.g., when manager pressures an employee to accept or meet a goal), or internal (e.g., when an employee wants to prove something to themselves and meet a particular performance goal). Norms refer to the performance expectation that is communicated and agreed upon by employees. Given that the felt obligation stemming from POS is positively related to self-efficacy and behavioural intentions, the collective findings from my empirical studies suggest that Mitchell et al.'s list of external factors might be incomplete. Although confirmation in future studies is required, my research offers preliminary evidence that social exchange mechanisms might be appropriate additions to Mitchell et al.'s model, which doesn't currently reflect social exchange, reciprocity or felt obligation. Although POS did not significantly predict self-efficacy beliefs, it was positively related to behavioural intentions in the scenario study. Further research should explore whether organizational support might be another type of external inducement of goal-directed behaviour.

Practical Implications

Collectively, the research presented in my dissertation offers a number of implications for management practice. Firstly, given the favourable impact of OCBs on firm performance (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000), organizations are well-advised to try to maximize employees' OCBs. Increasing the level of support provided to employees, such that they develop strong perceptions of organizational support, is

a critical step. Theoretical and empirical evidence indicate that employees will repay the organization for the support it provides, and that increased levels of OCBs are a prominent form of reciprocation (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger, Jones, Aselage, & Sucharski, 2004; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

To promote the strong perceptions of organizational support that ultimately lead to higher levels of citizenship behaviour, managers and leaders should demonstrate – through their words, actions, and policies – that they are committed to the employees, care about employees' well-being, and appreciate their contributions. In increasing the level of support they provide, it is important that organizations recognize that not all forms of support are equally effective in strengthening POS and inducing reciprocation. Feelings of obligation aren't automatically activated by the receipt of benefits or favours (Schopler & Thompson, 1968). Instead, employees discriminate between organizational support which warrants reciprocation and organizational support which does not. Favourable treatment provided at the organization's discretion is valued more highly than non-voluntary or constrained treatment (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore & Shore, 1995; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003), as it is taken as an indication of the donors' respect for the recipient (Eisenberger et al., 1997). Unfavourable treatment that is perceived to be beyond the organization's control has less of a negative effect on POS than unfavourable treatment that is seen to be volitional (Eisenberger et al., 2004). Eisenberger and his colleagues (2004) suggest that organizations should consider this in their communications regarding

changes in organizational support. By paying attention to the framing of working conditions and organizational support, managers can influence employees' attributions in such a way that POS is enhanced or buffered.

Blau (1964) argued that well-established social exchange relationships can be maintained in spite of delays in reciprocation and modest disparities in the nature of benefits being exchanged. Social exchange relationships, after all, do not require a tit-for-tat exchange – instead, goods of approximately equal value are exchanged. Blau also noted that it is the recipient who controls the timing and the content of reciprocation. Maintaining the relationship during the delay that precedes reciprocation depends on mutual trust being well-established. My research demonstrates that feelings of obligation induce behavioural intentions, which are positively related to OCB. Consistent with Blau's theory, it appears that reciprocation for POS is more deliberate than previously recognized by OST. From a practical standpoint, the possibility of delayed reciprocation implies that organizations and their agents should place a priority on earning and retaining employees' trust, and should communicate to employees that they are trusted. As elements of fair work environment, interpersonal, procedural, and distributive justice (see Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) should be a high priority for organizations and their agents. Not only are these forms of workplace fairness important antecedents of POS, they contribute to the preservation of social exchange relationships. The fact that it was felt obligation (rather than POS) that activated the motivational hub also speaks to the importance of framing the employment relationship as one of social exchange. Organizational norms and

values that emphasize support, trust, and reciprocation will help promote high levels of OCBs in the workplace.

In both empirical studies, self-efficacy beliefs were bolstered by felt obligation, but were not directly related to perceptions of organizational support. If managers hope to increase the overall level of OCBs in the organization, they should not assume that perceptions of organizational support, in and of themselves, are a sufficient means of persuading employees that they can successfully perform the desired citizenship behaviours. More direct forms of encouragement and persuasion will likely be required to strengthen employees' self-efficacy regarding citizenship behaviour. Bandura (e.g., 1997) reports that that first hand experiences are an important source of self-efficacy beliefs. Accordingly, managers should show that they recognize and appreciate an employee's citizenship behaviours, as this positive outcome will reinforce that individual's self-efficacy beliefs. To the extent that employees' self-efficacy beliefs are shaped by observing similar others successfully performing the behaviour in question, public recognition and appreciation of one employee's OCBs should also have a positive impact on coworkers' self-efficacy beliefs.

The Research Questions, Revisited

Having reviewed the collected body of research in my dissertation, including a brief summary of each of the chapters, and a discussion of the joint findings, and theoretical and practical implications, I now revisit the questions that guided my dissertation research from the outset, and attempt to answer my research questions.

1. Does the expression of POS through discretionary behaviour involve motivational processes??

Based on the pattern of findings in the two empirical studies presented here, the answer to this first question appears to be a resounding "Yes!" A positive relationship was observed between felt obligation and each of self-efficacy and behavioural intentions, in both the scenario and field studies. POS was positively related to behavioural intentions in the Study 1, and was indirectly related to behavioural intentions through felt obligation in Study 2. The patterns of results suggest that the feelings of obligation experienced by employees in response to POS are positively related to self-efficacy and behavioural intentions for OCBs. Clearly, the process by which employees reciprocate for organizational support via increased OCB involves both social exchange and motivational mechanisms.

Theoretical consideration of the potential role of norms on the POS-OCB relationship suggests that the level of organizational citizenship behaviour that employees perceive their coworkers to perform should affect their own self-efficacy beliefs as well as their personal behavioural intentions with respect to OCBs. The possibility that norms might mediate the relationship between POS (or felt obligation) and self-efficacy and behavioural intentions is promising, given recent studies framed with goal theory (e.g., Earley & Erez, 1991; Mathieu & Button, 1992; Meyer & Gellatly, 1988) or the theory of planned behaviour (e.g., Norman et al., 2005; Warburton & Terry, 2000; White et al., 2009). Although the

influence of perceived norms fell outside the scope of the empirical studies in my dissertation, it is a topic worth pursuing in future empirical work.

2. *How does exchange ideology, an individual characteristic, moderate the motivational process model of the POS-OCB relationship?*

The empirical studies presented mixed findings with respect to the moderating role of exchange ideology. Consistent with OST and the empirical literature (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1986), subjects' exchange ideology significantly moderated the relationship between POS and felt obligation in the scenario study. In Study 1, exchange ideology didn't moderate the relationships between POS and felt obligation. Further testing, in a different work context with a different population, should help clarify whether this result is simply a methodological artifact.

Contributions

A few noteworthy contributions are evident. As discussed in the section on theoretical implications, the primary contribution of my dissertation is an extension of OST. The process by which employees reciprocate for organizational support through citizenship behaviour has previously been understood to occur solely through social exchange and reciprocity mechanisms. My research demonstrates that self-efficacy and behavioural intentions – two prominent motivational concepts – work in concert with reciprocity mechanisms to explain how POS leads to OCB. By integrating social exchange and motivation mechanisms, we have clearer, more complete understanding of reciprocation for POS via OCB. My dissertation research also offers a methodological contribution.

Study 1 pioneers the use of an experimental design and vignettes to effectively induce POS. Although preliminary in nature, the results are promising enough to justify continued exploration of the use of vignettes in POS research.

Final Word

POS researchers have sought to understand how and why perceptions of organizational support lead to beneficial behaviours, such as increased citizenship behaviour. OST maintains that social exchange and reciprocity mechanisms underlie the relationship between POS and OCB. Drawing primarily on goal theory, the theory of planned behaviour, and social cognition theory, I have argued here that our current conceptualization of the POS-OCB relationship was incomplete. The collected work in my dissertation offers theoretical and empirical evidence supporting the critical, mediating role of self-efficacy and behavioural intentions – two prominent motivational concepts – in the reciprocation process. My research demonstrates that both social exchange and motivational mechanisms contribute to the process by which employees reciprocate for organizational support through increased organizational citizenship behaviour.

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