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Expectancy-Based Job Cognitions and Job Affect as Predictors of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors¹

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This study investigated the importance of expectancy-based job cognitions and job affect (the affective component of job satisfaction) in helping to account for "organizational citizenship behaviors" (OCBs; Organ, 1988). Data pertaining to the expectancy-based job cognitions (i.e., expectancies, instrumentalities, valences), job affect, and OCB performance of 65 state finance agency employees were examined. We anticipated that the effect of expectancy-based job cognitions on OCB would be partially mediated by affect-based job satisfaction. This expectation was confirmed in that, after controlling for negative and positive affectivity, generalized instrumentality beliefs were found to affect OCB-altruism directly, as well as indirectly through the influence of affect-based job satisfaction.

A stream of research has developed in the managerial sciences that focuses on "extra-role" or "citizenship" behaviors (e.g., Reed & Kelly, 1993; Schnake, Dumler, & Cochran, 1993; Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1994). As typically defined, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) are behaviors of a discretionary nature that are not part of employees' formal role requirements, but nevertheless contribute to the effective functioning of an organization (Organ, 1988). From a systems perspective, such behaviors are important because they serve to maintain an organization's internal equilibrium. Through the cooperative acts of employees responding to one another's needs, an organization's flexibility is increased and, therefore, the probability of its long-term success may be enhanced.

Because they may contribute to organizational effectiveness, an understanding of specific factors that foster OCB performance is desirable so that

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they may be recognized and nurtured. Direct evidence, however, pertaining to factors prompting citizenship behavior has only recently begun to accumulate. For example, Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ (1990) reported that task scope and perceived leader fairness accounted for more unique variance in the altruism dimension of OCB than did either satisfaction with supervision or satisfaction with work. Likewise focusing on the role of leadership, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) have presented results indicating that the effects of transformational leader behaviors on OCB activity are mediated by followers' trust in their leaders. Finally, results reported by Moorman (1991) may be interpreted to indicate that job satisfaction mediates the relation between justice perceptions and OCB performance.

As the preceding summary of results suggests, definitive conclusions pertaining to factors prompting citizenship behavior have yet to emerge. Thus, the purpose of this study is to report on an investigation into the importance of expectancy-based job cognitions and job affect (the affective or feeling component of job satisfaction) in accounting for OCB performance.

Background and Hypotheses

Job Satisfaction and OCB Performance

Recent research suggests that job satisfaction is the most robust antecedent of OCB activity (for reviews, see Organ & Ryan, 1994; Schnake, 1991). The notion that OCB activity follows from job satisfaction is, however, not entirely new. For example, Barnard (1938) reasoned that OCB, or "willingness to cooperate," depends on "net satisfactions or dissatisfactions experienced or anticipated" (p. 85). Organ (1990), expanding on Barnard's reasoning, has discussed OCB activity as an "essential condition of organization." Nevertheless, despite extensive treatment, the exact basis for the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB performance remains uncertain (Organ & Konovsky, 1989). One factor contributing to this uncertainty is disagreement over the definition of job satisfaction as an attitude construct.

Most contemporary researchers seem to agree that the characteristic attribute of job satisfaction is its evaluative (positive-negative) dimension. Wide disagreement, however, exists on the kinds of responses subsumed under the job satisfaction construct (Brief & Roberson, 1989). Following Ajzen (1989), however, it is possible to distinguish among three categories of job satisfaction responses: cognition (i.e., beliefs), affect (i.e., feelings), and conation (i.e., behaviors).

Given that job satisfaction is by definition a latent construct, job satisfaction measures should result in a score that locates an individual with respect to

all three response categories (Breckler, 1984). As Organ and Near (1985) note, however, several commonly used job satisfaction measures (e.g., Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire; Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) are heavily loaded with cognitive content. This has led Organ and Konovsky (1989) to conclude that previous research using such measures to explore the relation between job satisfaction and OCB performance should be more appropriately interpreted as only establishing a link between job cognitions and citizenship behavior. In support of this conclusion, Organ and Konovsky report finding that whereas job cognitions (i.e., beliefs about pay) predict OCB activity, job affect (measured as feelings at work over the preceding 6 months) does not.

A recent study, however, casts doubt on this conclusion. In counterpoint, George (1991) has reported finding OCB performance to be significantly and positively associated with job affect (i.e., self-reported feelings at work), but not job cognitions (i.e., beliefs about management fairness, distributive justice, and pay). This counterfinding consequently suggests that it is job affect rather than job cognitions, that primarily fosters OCB activity.

Upon closer inspection, however, we believe that what Organ and Konovsky (1989) call "job cognitions" are largely affective in nature, representing subjects' verbal reports of feelings about job-oriented factors. Indeed, taking a multicomponent view of job satisfaction, but in an effort to purportedly measure job cognitions (not job affect), Organ and Konovsky asked their respondents "how they felt about their pay and their job." To gauge job affect, they asked their respondents to indicate "how they typically felt at work' during the preceding 6 months. Differentiating between how respondents feel at work, as contrasted with how they feel about their work involves a subtle distinction. Although this distinction is theoretically important, both of Organ and Konovsky's measures (i.e., job affect and job cognitions) ask for affect-based evaluations. Consequently, contrary to their contention, Organ and Konovsky's results can be interpreted as being consistent with George's (1991) finding that it is job affect rather than job cognitions that primarily fosters OCB activity.

Given this interpretation of Organ and Konovsky's (1989) results, and in light of George's (1991) more recent findings, we expected, as will be explained below, that job affect, job cognitions, and OCB performance would be associated in a mediated relationship. That is, more specifically, we anticipated that the effect of expectancy-based job cognitions on OCB performance would be mediated by affect-based job satisfaction in what James and Brett (1984) refer to as a partial mediation model. If our expectation were to be empirically supported, then it may be inferred that expectancy-based job cognitions have both a direct effect on OCB performance and an indirect effect on OCB

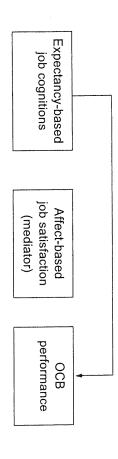


Figure 1. Proposed relations among study variables

justice, the conceptual framework shown in Figure 1 extends our understanding expectation is depicted in Figure 1 as a path diagram. Whereas previous ance to incorporate expectancy-based job cognitions. of citizenship behavior by drawing on expectancy-value models of performresearch has exclusively operationalized job cognitions as perceived equity or performance, the latter being conveyed by affect-based job satisfaction. This

Hypotheses

and stopped; Heckhausen, 1977; Porter & Lawler, 1968; Vroom, 1964) offer a organizational psychology literature on expectancy-value models of performemphasis on feeling good and doing good; George & Brief, 1992) and the respect, taken together, the social psychological literature on altruism (with its tion, we argue that both are important in explaining citizenship behavior. In this determinants of OCB performance (e.g., Moorman, 1993; Williams & Anderson, theoretical framework for explaining how both job affect and job cognitions ance (with their concentration on how effort is energized, directed, sustained relate to OCB performance. 1991). However, in consideration of a multidimensional view of job satisfac-Previous research has focused on job affect and job cognitions as competing

determined, in part, by the extent an individual believes that (a) high levels of probability of altruistic gestures (e.g., Rosenhan, Salovey, & Hargis, 1981) Isen, Clark, & Schwartz, 1976) and that, further, feeling good influences the outcomes can influence behavior through the experience of feeling good (e.g., results of numerous social psychological studies indicate that positively valent resulting outcomes are viewed as desirable (valence). At the same time, the performance will lead to positive outcomes (instrumentality), and (c) the effort will lead to high levels of performance (expectancy), (b) high levels of job satisfaction, to the extent that it represents overall positive feelings abou Thus, within a work setting, it could be reasonably expected that affect-based In Porter and Lawler's (1968) expectancy-value model, job satisfaction is

> expectancy-based job cognitions influence altruistic-OCB activity. or toward one's work, functions as a mediating mechanism through which

are governed by the same motivational dynamics. how both OCB (extra-role) and organizationally prescribed (in-role) activities the likelihood of altruistic gestures, explanation will have been provided for successful job performance and expected outcomes does influence positive (i.e., OCB) performance. That is, to the extent a perceived link between behavior, we propose that such models can be extended to include extra-role feelings about one's work (i.e., job satisfaction), and such feelings do influence Whereas traditional expectancy-value models focus on in-role effort or

mediators that reduce rather than totally eliminate the relation between an based job cognitions and OCB-altruism. As Baron and Kenny (1986) note, of the total effect of expectancy-based job cognitions on OCB-altruism would independent and a dependent variable. because most phenomena have multiple causes, it is much more realistic to seek based job satisfaction accounts for all the covariation between expectancylikely operation of multiple mediating factors, rather than suggest that affectbe mediated by affect-based job satisfaction. In doing so, we acknowledge the based job satisfaction as a generative mechanism, we anticipated that only part In linking expectancy-based job cognitions and OCB-altruism to affect-

be transmitted through affect-based job satisfaction (Hypothesis 2). influence of expectancy-based job cognitions on altruistic-OCB activity would tially mediate this relationship. Hence, we also expected that some of the job affect (the affective or feeling component of job satisfaction) would parrelated to altruistic-OCB activity (Hypothesis 1). However, we anticipated that To summarize, we expected that expectancy-based cognitions would be

Method

Sample and Data Acquisition

activities. Research packets were distributed on-site to potential participants. ent variable, study statistics are based on 65 cases. Compared to the agency's rate = 84%). Because not all supervisors returned ratings on the focal dependtion was voluntary. A total of 106 research packets were returned (participation the measures described below. Confidentiality was guaranteed and participa-The packets contained a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study, and finance agency having responsibility for overseeing budgetary and other fiscal to participate were judged as not being significantly different with regard to overall employee population (N = 126), the 106 respondents who volunteered The sample for this study was drawn from civil service employees in a state

sentative of their total population. A majority (59%) of respondents were age, work experience, or years of education. Thus, they appear to be reprerespectively. female. Their average age and organization tenure were 37.2 and 9.4 years,

at an all-time high. Third, for many years the estimated cost of government gruntlement with the "minimum" performance of public employees is perhaps more than those in-role behaviors required to remain employed. Second, dislong been criticized for "working to the rules"—that is, performing little our stated purpose and, thus, selected for study (Denhardt, 1993; Nutt & significance. service employees' work behavior thus have both practical and monetary services has steadily increased. Efforts to improve our understanding of civil Backoff, 1993; Sensenbrenner, 1991). First, civil service employees have There are several reasons why this sample was especially appropriate for

Measures

ties, and valences were measured using the Michigan Organizational Assessto 7 (almost always). Coefficient alpha for this measure was .88. performance." Response alternatives to each item were coded from 1 (never) hard results in doing my duty well," and "Working hard results in good job following three items: "Working hard results in high productivity," "Working general belief that effort would lead to performance) was measured with the ment Package (Nadler, Cammann, Jenkins, & Lawler, 1975). Expectancy (a Expectancy-based job cognitions. Generalized expectancies, instrumentali-

"You will get a bonus or pay increase," and "Your supervisor will praise you." Responses were scored using a 7-point response mode, ranging from tive outcomes), was measured using a 10-item scale. Example items are: 1 (not at all likely) to 7 (extremely likely). Coefficient alpha for this measure Instrumentality (a generalized belief that performance would lead to posi-

opportunity for promotion or advancement. Coefficient alpha for this meadents were asked to rate the perceived importance of 11 work outcomes on a Example outcomes include a pay raise, increased job security, and an 7-point basis, ranging from 1 (not very important) to 7 (extremely important). To gauge valence (the generalized value attached to outcomes), respon-

multiplying together an expectancy, an instrumentality, and a valence. The resulting composite was then generally correlated with other variables of interest. It has since been shown that correlations computed in this manner are Early tests of expectancy theory tended to gauge employee motivation by

> recommended by Evans (1991). nents and, thus, are inappropriate for analysis (Evans, 1991). Expectancies, dependent on the scale values used to measure a composite variable's compoinstrumentalities, and valences were thus treated as separate components, as

to: "Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time?" scored on the same 3-point response mode as the JDI. Respondents are asked dent affect (i.e., "general overall feelings about the job," Ironson et al., 1989, the JDI, it is considered more appropriate than facet scales for gauging respona longer time frame than the descriptive (i.e., belief) statements contained in Coefficient alpha for this measure was .88. p. 194). The JIG consists of 18 adjectives such as "good" and "pleasant," selected the Job-in-General (JIG) scale of the Job Description Index (JDI; Responses were averaged, with a high score representing positive job affect Ironson et al., 1989). Because the JIG scale is more evaluative and incorporates Job affect. To measure the affective component of job satisfaction, we

civil service employees (Osborne & Gaebler, 1992). a civil service setting, representing "what all employees must do" (Denhardt, interest in a client or customer). Beyond our earlier discussion of the social adhering to norms concerning punctuality, attendance, and comportment); and conceptual work, however, does suggest two broad dimensions (cf. Werner, Gregersen, 1991); and (c) altruistic behavior is not commonly associated with affective state to explain much of the variance in compliance behavior, which (e.g., punctuality) is typically prescribed (in-role) rather than discretionary in for several reasons: (a) what is generally classified as compliance behavior psychological literature on altruistic behavior, we focused on this dimension contributes to an organization (e.g., helping a coworker, taking a personal (b) altruistic behavior that benefits specific individuals and, thereby, indirectly no doubt exhibit many potential types of citizenship behavior, empirical and debated (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). Whereas an employee may is likely to be constrained by an organization's control system (Pearce & 1993); (b) one would not expect either an employee's individual cognitive or 1994): (a) compliance behavior that reflects general conscientiousness (e.g., OCB. The dimensionality and operationalization of OCB continues to be

supervisors on 13 separate items derived from the OCB literature and deemed social desirability, respondents were independently rated by their immediate sion of prosocial motives (Platow, 1994). Thus, to minimize the effects of research further suggests that, depending on the intended beneficiary, the behavior is not clearly defined" (Morrison, 1994, p. 1543). Moreover, recent time, it is noted that the "boundary between in-role rather than extra-role representative of altruistic behavior (cf. Becker & Vance, 1993). At the same Theoretical and empirical analyses have provided evidence for the expres-

to the researchers under separate cover. Coefficient alpha for this measure ment to new employees." Each OCB item was rated using a 6-point scale, does this behavior, at every opportunity). Item ratings were returned directly ranging from 0 (never has the opportunity to display this behavior) to 5 (always signments," "helps others who have heavy workloads," and "gives encourage-OCB items used in the present study include: "volunteers for additional as-(McNeely & Meglino, 1994). With these considerations in mind, examples of psychological processes that underlie extra-role behavior are different

expectancy-based cognitions, we entered respondent scores on the 20-item and NA were .88 and .72, respectively. from 1 (very slightly or not at all) to 5 (extremely). Coefficient alphas for PA about), for example, work. Response alternatives for each adjective were coded representing how respondents feel in general, rather than how they feel at (or specific context or time frame, the focus of the PANAS is dispositional, they "generally feel" (i.e., how they feel "on the average"). In the absence of a positive affectivity (PA) and 10 adjectives describing negative affectivity 1988) as control variables. The PANAS consists of 10 adjectives describing Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, (positive or negative) could be expected to correlate with both job affect and (NA). Respondents are instructed to indicate how each adjective describes how Control variables. Given that, as a trait, respondent dispositional affectivity

Analytical Procedures

all independent variables prior to conducting statistical analyses. well as an indirect effect through affect-based job satisfaction (Baron & Kenny, expectancy-based job cognitions have a direct effect on OCB performance, as partially mediated relation would be supported and it may be inferred that altruism is reduced by including job affect in the second regression, the anticipated job cognitions. The second regressed OCB-altruism on job affect (controlling ates. The first assessed the relation between OCB-altruism and expectancy-based tially biasing effect of respondent affectivity by using PANAS items as covarirelationship. Two regressions were conducted, each controlling for the poten-According to our logic, if the effect of expectancy-based cognitions on OCB-1986). Because of the different response scales represented, we standardized for respondent affectivity), followed by expectancy-based job cognitions. Ordinary least squares regression was used to test for the expected mediated

with respect to sample size n. In the present study, due to our moderate sample is largely an artifact of sample size, significance decisions should be interpreted Finally, as stressed by Thompson (1989), given that statistical significance

Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations Among Study Variables

| 3. Valences 4. Job affect 5. OCB-altruism 6. Negative affectivity 7. Positive affectivity 3.41 0.70 | Expectancies Instrumentalities | Variable | |
|---|---|--------------------|----|
| 5.92 2.12 3.20 1.59 3.41 | 5.91 4.28 | M | |
| 0.69 0.53 0.77 0.43 0.70 | 1.23 1.11 | M SD 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | |
| .27 .05 (.73) .15 .2912 (.88) 10 .3012 .38 1016 .0921 .45 .47 .12 .22 | (.88) .28 | _ | |
| .05 .29 .30 16 | (.84) | 2 | |
| (.73) 12 12 12 .09 | | 3 | Ţ, |
| (.88) .38 21 .22 | | 4 | |
| (.87) .08 | | 5 | |
| (.72) 15 | | 6 | |
| (.88) | | 7 | |

test). Coefficient alpha reliability estimates are reported on the diagonal. *Note.* n = 65. Correlations in this table $\ge |.25|$ are significant at the .05 level (two-tailed

l error, alpha, at .10. recommended by Cohen, 1992), we set the maximum risk of committing a Type size and to detect a conventional medium effect size of approximately .80 (as

Results

all study variables are presented in Table 1. Positive affectivity correlated .45 correlation of .38 with job affect and .30 with instrumentality, whereas the measures displayed moderate independence. OCB-altruism demonstrated a with expectancies and .47 with instrumentalities. The three expectancy-based latter two variables correlated at .29. Virtually all intercorrelations were mod-Variable means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations for

to generalized instrumentality beliefs. OCB-altruism (Hypotheses 1). Inspection of the accompanying standardized suggesting that expectancy-based job cognitions, as a set, are related to cognitions after controlling for positive/negative affectivity. The incremental sion assessed the relation between OCB-altruism and expectancy-based job betas weights, however, reveals that this relation may be attributed principally R^2 associated with expectancy-based job cognitions was .145 (p < .05), thus Results of the two regressions are summarized in Table 2. The first regres-

Table 2

Expectancy-Based Job Cognitions and OCB-Altruism Test of the Mediating Influence of Job Affect on the Relationship Between

| II. Job affect then expectancy-based cognitions (controlling for affectivity) Step 1: Positive and negative affectivity R² Step 2: Job affect beyond affectivity R² Rep 3: Expectancy-based cognitions beyond job affect and affectivity R² | I. Expectancy-based cognitions (controlling for affectivity) Step 1: Positive and negative affectivity R2 Step 2: Expectancy-based cognitions beyond affectivity R2 R2 R3 Standardized beta weights Instrumentalities Valences Negative affectivity Expectancies Positive affectivity | Regressions and standardized β |
|---|---|-----------------------------------|
| .010 .174* .164** .270* | .010 .155† .145* .310* 047 .188 180 073 | Altruism (variance explained) |

Note. n = 65

 $\dagger p < .10. *p \le .05. **p \le .01.$

expectancy-based job cognitions and OCB-altruism is associated with job affect (Hypotheses 2). indicate partial mediation in that some, but not all, of the covariation between was included as a mediator in the second regression. Combined, these results ping from .145 (p < .05) in the first regression to .096 (p = .07) when job affect job cognitions and OCB-altruism was markedly reduced, with the ΔR^2 dropand (b) when controlling for job affect, the relation between expectancy-based significant increase in OCB-altruism variance explained ($\Delta R = .164, p < .01$), comparison of the two regressions indicates: (a) job affect accounted for a positive/negative affectivity), and then expectancy-based job cognitions. A In the second regression, we entered job affect (again after controlling for

Discussion

performance. demonstrates that the latter is a potent factor in explaining variations in OCB OCB-altruism when affect-based job satisfaction is considered nevertheless causes. The reduction in the effect of expectancy-based job cognitions on based job satisfaction supports the belief that OCB performance has multiple based job cognitions on OCB-altruism is not completely mediated by affectaccounting for OCB performance. The fact that the effect of expectancy-OCB-altruism, indicating that affect-based job satisfaction is of significance in with respect to the link between generalized instrumentality beliefs and based job satisfaction. Support for such a mediating relation was obtained based job cognitions and job affect in predicting OCB performance. We formance directly, as well as indirectly through the influence of affecthypothesized that expectancy-based job cognitions would affect OCB per-The purpose of our study was to assess the importance of expectancy-

at work (George, 1991; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). with previous OCB research indicating that altruism is influenced by feelings is related to prosocial behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). It is also in accord research on altruism which indicates that situationally induced positive affect consistent with both our interpretation and a host of social psychologica performance. Our finding that job affect predicts altruistic-OCB activity is may be interpreted as suggesting a relation between job affect and OCB of job affect. Contrary to Organ and Konovsky's interpretation, our findings ily with affective content. As a result, both of their measures were indicators called "job cognitions" were actually evaluative job measures weighted heav-Upon closer inspection, however, we believe that what Organ and Konovsky that job and pay cognitions predicted altruism, whereas affect at work did not. Our findings contrast with those of Organ and Konovsky (1989) who found

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In contrast, Moorman (1991) found little support for the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relation between job cognitions (i.e., justice perceptions) and OCB-altruism. Moorman's data indicated that job satisfaction (as measured by the Brayfield-Rothe Scale) was unrelated to OCB-altruism (r = .08, p < .05). This particular finding is interesting because it is somewhat discrepant from other OCB research. Our data, which are consistent with previous research, indicate that job affect (as measured by the JIG scale) is significantly related to OCB-altruism (r = .38, p < .01). The difference between our findings and those of Moorman are possibly due to situational specificity and suggest that heretofore unmeasured contextual factors such as work unit size, peer group characteristics, and task interdependence should be included in models of OCB performance (Karambayya, 1990).

Given our interpretation of Organ and Konovsky's (1989) findings and George's (1991) inability to find a relation between OCB performance and either beliefs about management fairness or pay, empirical evidence to date does not overwhelmingly support Organ and Konovsky's contention that OCBs are solely driven by job cognitions. Rather, job affect seems to function as a generative mechanism through which expectancy-based job cognitions also influence altruistic-OCB activity.

In addition to supporting research on altruism and expectancies, our results carry important practical implications. Organ and Konovsky (1989) have suggested that OCB activity cannot be accounted for by incentives that sustain formal role behavior. Our results suggest otherwise. We found that when an employee perceives a link between performance and valued outcomes, OCB-altruism is likely to be an ancillary result influenced, albeit indirectly, through affect-based job satisfaction. In other words, our data are consistent with the hypothesis that generalized instrumentality beliefs influence how one feels about work (satisfied or dissatisfied), which, in turn, influences OCB-altruism. The mechanism for this relation is unclear. It might be due to perceptions of trust/fairness (e.g., Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Organ & Moorman, 1993); some other form of noneconomic/noninstrumental exchange (Witt, 1991); or simply when someone feels good, chances of altruistic activity are increased (cf. George & Brief, 1992).

At the same time, expectancy theory would suggest that effort resulting from generalized instrumentality beliefs is important (cf. Organ, 1990). If this is the case, one implication is that altruistic OCBs can be influenced by the degree to which a supervisor emphasizes in-role performance-outcome relations leading to desired outcomes. Because in-role behavior is also sustained by the same supervisory activities, they are likely to be doubly effective, reinforcing prescribed role behavior, while at the same time fostering altruism.

Supportive of this view, Schnake and Dumler (1993) report two studies in

which both perceived and actual reward practices were significantly related to OCB performance. Consistent with this finding, Werner (1994) has reported that supervisory ratings are positively influenced by subordinate performance of extra-role behaviors. This suggests that employees may engage in citizenship behaviors because they expect to be rewarded. To the extent that such behaviors are grounded in the anticipation of rewards, it may be argued (cf. McAllister, 1991) that they become substantially less "citizenship-like." Interpretation of employee expectations and supervisor ratings, however, are confounded by research which suggests that employees differ in what they define as in-role and extra-role behavior (Morrison, 1994), and that supervisors will respond differently depending on whether or not employees' extra-role activities are viewed as ingratiation tactics or citizenship behaviors (Eastman, 1994). Whatever the case, the fact that OCB performance is perceived to be instrumental to desired rewards does not delimit the discretionary component of such behaviors, but does arguably increase the likelihood that they will occur.

Our findings also highlight the importance of supervisors' positive mood in the incidence of OCB-altruism. George and Bettenhausen (1990) found that, at a group level of analysis, a leader's positive mood is related to prosocial behavior. They speculate that leader positive mood might be reflective of various behaviors a leader uses to motivate subordinates. This type of activity may be characterized by an active, confident approach to work. Thus, when a leader emphasizes positive work activities such as goal attainment and ensures that rewards are forthcoming (i.e., instrumentality), subordinates are likely to respond in kind and considerate ways (cf. Motowidlo, 1984).

Finally, our findings are also encouraging based on the level of prediction afforded by our measures of generalized instrumentality and job affect. Our predictors accounted for a full 27% of the variance in altruistic behavior. This stands in contrast to Organ and Konovsky's (1989) study in which the focal measures accounted for a little over 5% of the variance associated with altruism. Thus, it appears that instrumentality and job affect are important factors for explaining OCB performance. On the other hand, our data indicate that there is much yet to be known about conditions which prompt OCB activity. Because much of the variance uniquely associated with OCB performance remains to be explained, efforts to identify additional sets of predictors are recommended.

The present investigation is not without limitation. As in all cross-sectional studies, causal flow remains ambiguous. It could be that (a) the causal arrow is such that OCB activity influences job affect or instrumentality; (b) there exists an additional set of factors impacting job affect, instrumentality, and OCB-altruism; or (c) the causal flow among job affect, instrumentality, and altruistic OCBs is reciprocal in nature. Absolute attributions of cause and effect await further research.

reported results to a particular universe or population be done with caution, in size due to missing data) demands that any attempt to extrapolate the interventions. Likewise, the nature of the study's effective sample (reduced suggest that neither should be overlooked when designing OCB-oriented affect and generalized instrumentality as related to OCB performance and the reasonableness thereof being a function of judgment, experience, and At the very least, however, our results affirm the importance of both job

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