

THE IMPACT OF MOTIVATION ON ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP
BEHAVIORS

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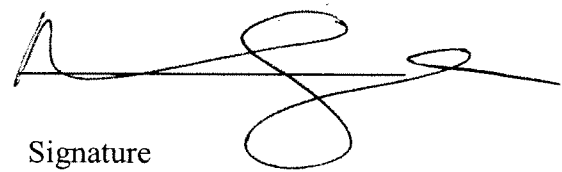
Bachelor of Arts

By

Marie Gurrola

May/2008

ON MY HONOR, I HAVE NEITHER GIVEN NOR RECEIVED
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THE IMPACT OF MOTIVAION ON ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS

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May, 2008

Economics

Abstract

This thesis examines the relationship between motivation and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). The purpose of motivation research is to uncover what compels individuals to perform specified tasks. Organizations try to produce motivation by creating situations that will lead to desired outcomes. This can be in the form of offering rewards (e.g. bonuses) acknowledging employees for their contributions to the organization, promotions or creating an ideal work environment. These approaches all share a common objective: motivating individuals to continue performing effectively and efficiently. However organizations decide to accomplish this goal, one of the potential benefits of motivating employees is job satisfaction. By establishing job satisfaction, an individual will be more compelled to exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs).

Motivation often leads to job satisfaction, and potentially the development of OCBs. The purpose of this thesis is to develop the relationship between motivation (i.e. job characteristics theory (JCT) and cognitive evaluation theory (CET)) and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). This thesis proposes that higher levels of motivation will lead to larger amounts of OCBs which in turn, will benefit an organization (e.g. higher retention rates).

KEYWORDS: (Motivation, Job Characteristics Theory, Cognitive Evaluation Theory, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors)

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of motivation research is to uncover what compels individuals to perform specified tasks. Organizations try to produce motivation by creating situations that will lead to desired outcomes. This can be in the form of offering rewards (e.g. bonuses) acknowledging employees for their contributions to the organization, promotions or creating an ideal work environment. These approaches all share a common objective: motivating individuals to continue performing effectively and efficiently. However organizations decide to accomplish this goal, one of the potential benefits of motivating employees is job satisfaction. By establishing job satisfaction, an individual will be more compelled to exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs).

Smith et al. (1983) proposes that “job satisfaction, to the extent that it represents a characteristic of enduring positive mood state, would account for some portion of citizenship behavior.”¹ Organizational citizenship behaviors are essential to a working environment “...because they lubricate the social machinery of the organization. They provide the flexibility needed to work through many unforeseen contingencies, they

¹ (Smith, Organ and Near 1983, 653)

enable participants to cope with the otherwise awesome condition of interdependence on each other.”²

Organ (1988) speculated that with sufficient time, OCBs could increase the effectiveness of an organization. Podsakoff et. al (2000) developed conceptual support favoring the notion that OCBs affect organizational effectiveness. Table 1.1 provides a table of their theoretical reasoning.

TABLE 1.1: SUMMARY OF REASONS WHY OCBs MIGHT INFLUENCE THE ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS³

<i>Potential Reasons Why OCBs Influence Work and/or Organizational Performance</i>	<i>Examples</i>
OCBs may enhance worker productivity	-Employees who help another coworker “learn the ropes” may help them to become more productive employees faster -Over time, helping behavior can help to spread “best practices” throughout the work unit or group
OCBs may enhance managerial productivity	-If employees engage in civic virtue, the manager may receive valuable suggestions and/or feedback on his or her ideas improving unit effectiveness. -Courteous employees, who avoid creating problems for coworkers, allow the manager to avoid falling into a pattern of “crisis” management.
OCBs may free resources up for more productive purposes.	-If employees help each other with work-related problems, then the manager doesn’t have to; consequently, the manager can spend more time on productive tasks, such as planning. -Employees who exhibit conscientiousness require less managerial supervision and permit the manager to delegate more responsibility to them, thus, freeing up more of the manager’s time -To the extent that experienced employees help in the training and orienting of new

² (Smith, Organ and Near 1983, 653)

³ (Podsakoff et al. 2000, 513)

	<p>employees, it reduces the need to devote organizational resources to these activities.</p> <p>-If employees exhibit sportsmanship, it frees the manager from having to spend too much of his/her time dealing with petty complaints</p>
OCBs may reduce the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions	<p>-A natural by-product of helping behavior is that it enhances team spirit, morale, and cohesiveness, thus reducing the need for group members (or managers) to spend energy and time on group maintenance functions</p> <p>-Employees who exhibit courtesy toward others reduce intergroup conflict, thereby diminishing the time spent on conflict management services</p>
OCBs may serve as an effective means of coordinating activities between team members across work groups	-Exhibiting civic virtue by voluntarily attending and actively participating in work unit meetings would help the coordination of effort among team members, thus potentially increasing the group's effectiveness and efficiency
OCBs may enhance the organization's ability to attract and retain the best people by making it a more attractive place to work	-Helping behaviors may enhance morale, group cohesiveness, and the sense of belonging to a team, all of which may enhance performance and help the organization to attract and retain better employees
OCBs may enhance the stability of organizational performance	<p>-Picking up the slack for others who are absent, or who have heavy workloads, can help to enhance the stability (reduce the variability) of the work unit's performance</p> <p>-Conscientious employees are more likely to maintain a consistently high level of output, thus reducing variability in a work unit's performance.</p>
OCBs may enhance an organization's ability to adapt to environmental changes	<p>-Employees who attend and actively participate in meetings may aid the dissemination of information in an organization, thus enhancing, its responsiveness</p> <p>-Employees who exhibit sportsmanship, by demonstrating, a willingness to take on new responsibilities or learn new skills, enhance the organization's ability to adapt to changes in its environment</p>

Referring to Table 1.1, one can deduce that the presence of OCBs compliments an organization's efficiency and effectiveness. OCBs permit an organization to function at an optimal level with minimal setbacks. OCBs produce a variety of positive outcomes for an organization such as group cohesiveness. If employees are willing to aid one another in work-related activities, there is a sense of teamwork and a stronger desire to succeed. According to Valero Energy Corporation CEO (1999) Bill Greene, "Your employees are the only assets you have."⁴ Employees could ultimately determine whether an organization thrives. An additional potential benefit produced by the presence of OCBs is lower turnover rates.

Since OCBs are not a job requirement, one can speculate that they would only be present if an individual was content. According to Lambert et al. (2001), job satisfaction is a "highly salient antecedent of turnover intent"; job satisfaction is dependent upon the work environment.⁵ Therefore, one can acknowledge the importance of creating an environment that fosters job satisfaction. If employees are displeased with their work environment, they will search until they find one that accommodates their needs. In the process, this will reduce productivity while increasing an organization's costs. Hence, it is essential to create an environment that will cultivate job satisfaction.

In order for OCBs to develop, motivation needs to present, which will contribute to job satisfaction and potentially produce OCBs. Motivation will lead to the development of job satisfaction. This satisfaction will lead to the development of OCBs, which this thesis speculates are a product of JCT and CET.

⁴ (Fisher 2007, 85-92)

⁵ (Lambert, Hogan and Barton 2001, 233)

The purpose of this thesis is to develop the relationship between motivation (i.e. job characteristics theory (JCT) and cognitive evaluation theory (CET)) and examining their impact on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). This thesis proposes that higher levels of motivation will lead to larger amounts of OCBs, which in turn, will benefit an organization

To begin examining this hypothesis, the next chapter reviews motivation research by establishing a foundation from precedent work. Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Alderfer's existence-relatedness-growth theory and Bandura's Taxonomy are examples of the research examined. Although numerous theories are reviewed, JCT, CET and OCBs are emphasized in order to develop the connection between motivation and OCBs. This theoretical link produces the required basis to test the hypothesis.

Chapter three provides the methodology of this study. It explains the sample selection, the regression model, the independent and dependent variables as well as the estimation procedures. Chapter four tests the hypothesis employing data from a government survey. The results are described and analyzed to determine whether a relationship exists between JCT, CET and OCBs. Finally, chapter five is the concluding chapter of this study. A brief synopsis is included of the previous chapters as well as the significance.

CHAPTER II

THEORY AND LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will review need-motive value theories (e.g. Maslow, Alderfer, cognitive evaluation theory (CET), job characteristic theory (JCT)), organizational justice theories, and finally organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). The purpose of this chapter is to establish the relationship between job motivation and citizenship behaviors. Essentially, this chapter will provide an overview of motivation research while emphasizing JCT, CET and OCBs since these theories will illustrate the relationship between motivation and OCBs.

Since motivation is believed to be related to OCBs, this notion will be further explored. A link will be developed demonstrating how motivation theories influence the amount of OCBs exhibited by individuals. The hypothesis being: higher motivation will result in a greater amount of OCBs.

The following section will begin by examining Maslow's hierarchy of needs and then proceed into Alderfer's existence-relatedness-growth theory. Following the need theories will be the motive theories which include Bandura's Taxonomy of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation, Deci's cognitive evaluation theory (CET) and the job characteristic

theory (JCT). Organizational justice theories will then be examined followed by organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). This chapter will conclude by linking both JCT and CET to OCBs.

Motivation Research Overview

Motivation reached a lofty status during the 1930s and 1940s when researchers were attempting to understand and examine drive-based learning theories; these theories entailed “learning as a function of arousal, incentive and habit strength.”¹ However during the 1950s and 1960s, motivation became less popular due to an increasing interest in cognitive based theories as well as problems associated with “drive-based conceptualizations of behavior.”² Motivation research was not entirely neglected during the 1950s and 1960s; further motivation studies were undertaken in personality, clinical, social and industrial and organizational psychology.³ During the 1980s motivation was tied to goals such as with Carver and Scheier’s self-regulation. Carver and Scheier proposed that self-regulation was used to “convey the sense of goal directedness and reliance on feedback as a guide for altering the course of behavior.”⁴ Bandura also falls into this category of goals with his social cognitive theory. Under Bandura’s theory, “goals increase people’s cognitive and affective reactions to performance outcomes

¹ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

² (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

³ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

⁴ (Carver and Scheier 1996, 32)

because goals specify the requirements for personal success.”⁵ Although motivation experiences trends, the variables utilized to measure motivation have generally remained unchanged.

When conducting motivation research, the most frequently used dependent variables include: direction of behavior, intensity of action and persistence of direction-specific behaviors over a period of time.⁶ Table 2.1 lists and defines the dependent variables as well as what they measure.

TABLE 2.1: DEPENDENT VARIABLES USED IN MOTIVATION RESEARCH

Dependent Variable	What does it measure?
Direction of behavior	Work behavior (e.g. absenteeism, job choice, task choice, voluntary termination); refers to an individual’s activity choice
Intensity of action	Task effort or task choice; can be either cognitive or physical; the amount of effort placed into a specific activity
Persistence of direction-specific behavior	Aides in determining intrinsic motivation, achievement motivation, and self-regulation research; how long an individual works

These dependent variables have been utilized to discern what drives motivation.

⁵ (Bandura, Martinez-Pons and Zimmerman 1992, 663)

⁶ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

Need

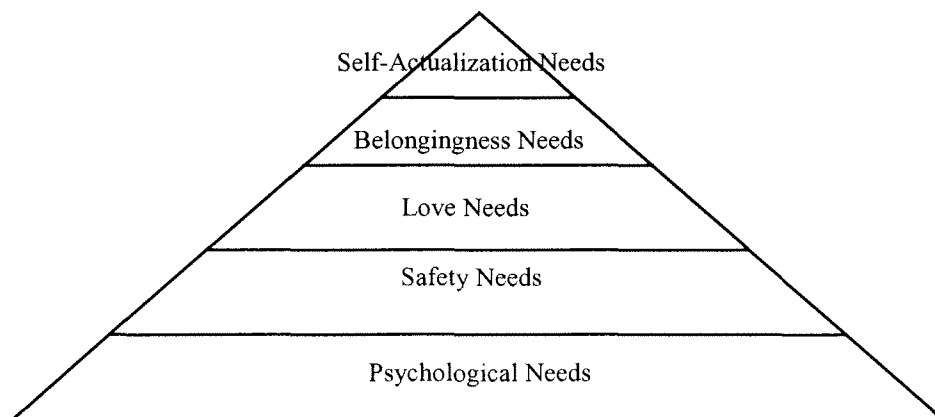
Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

According to Maslow (1943, 1954) and Alderfer (1969), the necessity to satisfy unmet needs is the determinant of behavior aligned along a hierarchy. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is illustrated in Figure 2.1. This theoretical structure operates under the *prepotency process principle* which Maslow defines as:

the most prepotent goal will monopolize consciousness and will tend of itself to organize the recruitment of various capacities of the organism. The less prepotent are minimized, even forgotten or denied. But when a need is fairly well satisfied, the next ("higher") need emerges, in turn to dominate the conscious life and to serve as the center of the organization of behavior, since gratified needs are not active motivators.⁷

Essentially this means that an individual must first satisfy psychological needs (e.g. food, shelter) before ascending the hierarchy to safety needs (e.g. health, protection from danger).

FIGURE 2.1: MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS⁸



⁷ (Maslow 1943, 370)

⁸ (Maslow 1943, 370)

Maslow defines the five needs in the following manner:⁹

Psychological- if an individual is deprived of all needs, psychological needs dominate the organism (e.g. food)

Safety- refer to seeking protection from danger or financial stability (e.g. job tenure, savings account, acquiring insurance etc...)

Love- an individual "will hunger for affectionate relations with people in general"

Esteem/Belongingness- the yearning for an individual to attain a credible appraisal of oneself, self-respect from oneself as well as from others

Self-Actualization- "What a man *can* be, he must be...the desire for self-fulfillment namely, to the tendency for one to become actualized in what one is potentially."

In 1999, Hagerty undertook a study attempting to discover which policy would increase the quality-of-life more quickly between China or Russia. This would be tested using Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. China adopted the belief that the citizen's basic needs had to be satisfied prior to the implementation of democracy.¹⁰ Whereas Russia chose the opposite approach; democracy would be enacted regardless of the citizen's needs. The independent variables of this model were Maslow's need hierarchy (where the parenthesized portion represents the measures): physiological (daily calories and GDP/person), safety (safety from war and murder; high life expectancy), belongingness and love (low divorce and child death rate), esteem (political rights and women's participation in the work force) and self-actualization (education attainment).¹¹ This study concluded that "faster growth in democracy occurs an average of 12 years after the fastest growth in GDP/Person."¹² These results suggest that in order for an individual, or in this case for democracy to be established, the lower needs must first be satisfied to achieve the desired results at a greater speed.

⁹ (Maslow 1943, 370)

¹⁰ (Hagerty 1999, 249)

¹¹ (Hagerty 1999, 249)

¹² (Hagerty 1999, 249)

Although similar to Maslow's, Alderfer adopts a new approach to his predecessor's theory.

Alderfer's Existence-Relatedness-Growth (ERG) Theory

The primary difference between Alderfer's and Maslow's is the notion that Alderfer assumes that the "three need states operate simultaneously."¹³ "ERG theory states that the more growth needs are satisfied, the stronger the growth --- providing the satisfaction is greater than simply eliminating the sensory deprivation."¹⁴ These three states of needs include: existence, relatedness and growth. The aforementioned are defined into two parts: (1) a target toward which the need is directed and (2) a process that is essential for satisfaction.¹⁵ Table 2.2 provides an overview of ERG including the respective targets and processes.¹⁶

TABLE 2.2: ERG AND ITS RESPECTIVE TARGETS AND PROCESSES

Group	Target	Process
Existence	Material objects (food, water etc)	There is no guarantee that there will be sufficient for everyone
Relatedness	Significant others; can be individuals or groups	Satisfied through reciprocation
Growth	Ecological settings	Satisfied through "individual differentiation and integration"

According to Alderfer, an individual can place greater importance on relatedness needs without having fulfilled existence needs; this creates a clear distinction between

¹³ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

¹⁴ (Alderfer and Guzzo 1979, 347-361)

¹⁵ (Alderfer and Guzzo 1979, 347-361)

¹⁶ (Alderfer and Guzzo 1979, 347-361)

Alderfer and Maslow's prepotency principle. "Alderfer also asserted that, while need strength should be negatively related to need satisfaction, individuals might, when frustrated by their environment in attainment of the next higher order needs, place greater importance on lower level needs that have already been satisfied."¹⁷ In order to clarify the distinction between Maslow and Alderfer, Table 2.3 is provided.¹⁸

TABLE 2.3: COMPARISON OF MASLOW'S HIERARCHY AND ERG

Maslow Categories	ERG Categories
Physiological	Existence
Safety—material	
Safety—interpersonal	Relatedness
Belongingness (social)	
Esteem—interpersonal	
Esteem—self confirmed	Growth
Self-actualization	

Although both of these approaches were accepted during the 1960s, their validity came into question when "several researchers noted difficulties in operationalizing higher order need categories and theoretical problems in explaining obvious exceptions to the

¹⁷ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

¹⁸ (Schneider and Alderfer 1973, 489-505)

prepotency principle (see Campbell & Pritchard, 1977).”¹⁹ Nonetheless, these theories served as the foundation for understanding human behavior relevant to the satisfaction of unmet human needs.

Motive (Intrinsic)

Theories in this section “focus on the influence of specific psychologically based motives”; in need fulfillment terms, intrinsic motive theories focus on satisfying higher order needs.²⁰

When Skinner developed the theory that behaviors were solely motivated by rewards, the notion of intrinsic motivation arose.²¹ Intrinsic motivation is not influenced by outside factors, such as Skinner proposed, but rather by one’s desire. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), “When intrinsically motivated a person is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external prods, pressures or rewards.”²² Simply worded, the pleasure of performing a specific task is enough gratification and no additional compensation is required. This is in contrast to the learning theory developed by Hull (1943) which states: “all behaviors are motivated by physiological drives (and their derivatives), intrinsically motivated activities were said to be ones that provided satisfaction of innate psychological needs.”²³ The subsequent sections will address

¹⁹ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

²⁰ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

²¹ (Ryan and Deci 2000, 54-67)

²² (Ryan and Deci 2000, 54-67)

²³ (Ryan and Deci 2000, 54-67)

motive theories, specifically, Bandura's Taxonomy, job characteristic theory and cognitive evaluation theory.

Bandura's Taxonomy

Bandura's taxonomy, a multidimensional approach, "distinguishes between different forms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation based on locus of the outcome and type of behavior-outcome contingency."²⁴ The notion being that individuals who perform a task based on extrinsic motivation, will deteriorate interest in future activities. To further elaborate on Bandura's approach, Figure 2.2 is provided to illustrate.

FIGURE 2.2: BANDURA'S TAXONOMY OF INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION

		<i>Behavior-Outcome Contingency</i>	
		Natural	Arbitrary
<i>Locus</i>	External	A) Intrinsic	B) Extrinsic
	Internal	C) Intrinsic	D) Intrinsic

Applying Bandura's approach, there are four potential combinations. Under the first combination (A), the consequences are bred in the environment but are still

²⁴ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

“naturally related to the behavior.”²⁵ Bandura explains that touching a hot surface deters an individual from continued contact; “because the sensory effects are intrinsic to the acts, they serve as highly effective regulators of behavior.”²⁶ A positive sensation will constitute future activity while vice versa is true.

The second pairing, (B), concerns external motivators with an arbitrary relationship to the outcome. These include expecting pay for the completion of work, appraisal for the successful completion of a task; these consequences are socially arranged instead of stemming from natural consequences.²⁷ If no arbitrary consequence is provided, work will deteriorate until an alternative method of compensation is provided.

The third grouping, (C), includes “behavior produces naturally occurring outcomes that are internal to the organism. Responses that generate physiological effects directly, rather than through the action of external stimuli...”²⁸ For example, physical exertion is cited by Bandura since it has the potential to cause headaches while other exercises may relieve tension.

The final combination, does not include enjoyment as a product of the activity nor does natural feedback provide satisfaction. Instead, satisfaction is acquired through an individual’s self-reaction.²⁹ Bandura cites athletic and artistic quests as activities that produce self-evaluative reactions that lead to the development of future incentives.³⁰

²⁵ (Bandura 1986, 617)

²⁶ (Bandura 1986, 617)

²⁷ (Bandura 1986, 617)

²⁸ (Bandura 1986, 617)

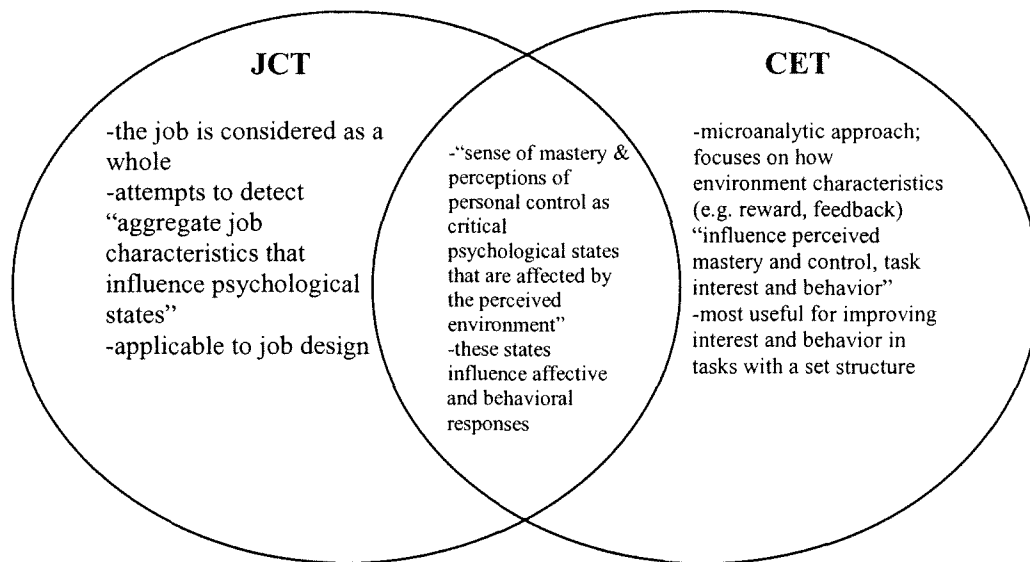
²⁹ (Bandura 1986, 617)

³⁰ (Bandura 1986, 617)

Job Characteristic Theory and Cognitive Evaluation Theory

The job characteristic theory (JCT) and the cognitive evaluation theory (CET) are also considered motive theories. Figure 2.3 illustrates these two theories with the usage of a Venn Diagram.

FIGURE 2.3: VENN DIAGRAM OF JCT AND CET³¹



Job Characteristic Theory

The job characteristic theory (JCT) “concerns the joint effects of individual differences in growth need strength and job characteristics on job satisfaction and work motivation.”³²

According to Hackman and Oldham (1971), there are six attributes that are positively related to work satisfaction and attendance: (a) variety; (b) autonomy; (c) task

³¹ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

³² (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

identity; (d) feedback; (e) knowledge and skill required; (f) responsibility.³³ These six attributes can be condensed further into three general job characteristics: (a) permit employees to feel personally responsible for a recognizable and significant portion of the work; (b) “provide work outcomes which are intrinsically meaningful or otherwise experienced as worthwhile;” (c) offer feedback regarding an individual’s performance.³⁴

In 1974 Hackman and Oldham revisited their original framework to define the five core dimensions as: (a) skill variety; (b) task identity; (c) task significance; (d) autonomy; and (e) feedback.³⁵ Although the three critical psychological states were generally the same, they were redefined as: (a) perceived meaningfulness of work; (b) perceived responsibility for outcome of work; (c) awareness of the results of the work activities. The core job dimensions create the critical psychological states which in turn lead to personal and work outcomes which include: (a) high internal work motivation; (b) high quality work performance; (c) high satisfaction with work and; (d) low absenteeism and turnover.³⁶ Figure 2.4 illustrates the relationship between the core job dimensions, critical psychological states and the outcomes.

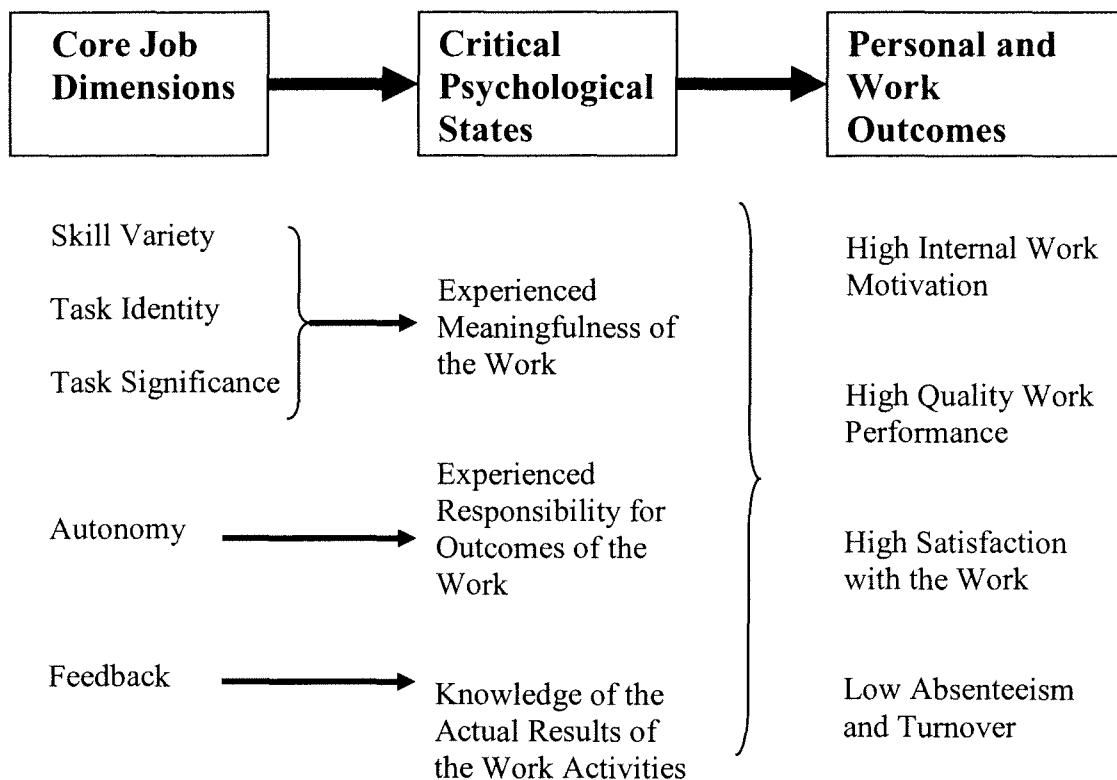
³³ (Hackman and Lawler III 1971, 259-286)

³⁴ (Hackman and Lawler III 1971, 259-286)

³⁵ (Hackman, Oldham and Yale Univ., New Haven,CT.Dept.of Administrative Sciences. 1974)

³⁶ (Hackman, Oldham and Yale Univ., New Haven,CT.Dept.of Administrative Sciences. 1974)

FIGURE 2.4: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE CORE JOB DIMENSIONS, CRITICAL PSYCHOLOGICAL STATES AND PERSONAL/WORK OUTCOMES³⁷



This theory suggests that critical psychological states are a product of the core job dimensions. The operational definitions of the core job dimensions and the critical psychological states follow.³⁸

The first psychological state, *experienced meaningfulness of the work*, is created by three-fifths of the core job dimensions (i.e. skill variety, task identity and task significance). Skill variety, as defined by Hackman et. al, occurs when an employee has the opportunity to utilize a variety of skills under challenging circumstances. There is

³⁷ (Hackman, Oldham and Yale Univ., New Haven,CT.Dept.of Administrative Sciences. 1974)

³⁸ (Hackman and And Others 1974)

potential to develop meaningfulness in a task if a skill is utilized; this potential is magnified when additional skills are applied. By implementing additional skills, a task loses its dullness and therefore attracts greater attention. Next, task identity is defined as a task required to be executed in its entirety; commencing a job and completing it. Finally, task significance is the importance that an employee places on a job; this importance is dependant upon the perceived impact that it will have immediately on people within an organization or the world at large.

The second psychological state, *experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work*, is the product of autonomy (increased sense of responsibility for a job). Autonomy is defined as “the degree to which the job gives the worker freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling work and determining how he will carry it out.”³⁹ If an individual has high autonomy in a job, there is a greater impression of personal responsibility for success or failure.

The final psychological state, *knowledge of the actual results of the work activities*, stems from feedback. Feedback is the information provided regarding the performance of a task. The purpose of feedback is to allow an individual to receive appraisal for a job well done, or suggestions on how to further improve performance on the next assignment.

High levels of critical psychological states, which are composed of core job dimensions, lead to desired outcomes (e.g. high motivation, high-quality work performance, high levels of job satisfaction and low absenteeism and turnover).⁴⁰ These

³⁹ (Hackman and And Others 1974)

⁴⁰ (Bowditch and Buono 1990)

outcomes create an optimal work environment (e.g. reducing turnover) and benefit the organization in its entirety.

In order to further determine the motivation of an individual, the JCT model was converted to a mathematical formula. Figure 2.5, derived from the JCT model, is the mathematical formula utilized to calculate the motivating potential score of an employee. Specifically, a Motivating Potential Score reflects “the potential of a job for eliciting positive internal work motivation on the part of the employees (especially those with high desire for growth need satisfaction).”⁴¹

FIGURE 2.5: JOB CHARACTERISTICS THEORY
(MATHEMATICAL MODEL)

$$\text{Motivating Potential Score (MPs)} \left[\frac{\text{Skill Variety} + \text{Task Identity} + \text{Task Significance}}{3} \right] * \text{Autonomy} * \text{Feedback}$$

The Motivating Potential Score can range from 1 to 350; the average score is 125.⁴²

Saavedra and Kwun (2000) conducted a study in order to determine whether job characteristics are related to affect. Their results determined that task significance and task autonomy were positively associated with an active pleasant affect.⁴³ The significance of these findings is to illustrate the importance of mood and how it effects individuals. Mood states have been shown to “impact motivation, information processing,

⁴¹ (Hackman, Oldham and Yale Univ., New Haven,CT.Dept.of Administrative Sciences. 1974)

⁴² (Hackman and And Others 1974)

⁴³ (Saavedra and Kwun 2000, 131-146)

and social behavior, producing varied effects on analytical reasoning, problem solving, decision making and creativity.”⁴⁴

Cognitive Evaluation Theory

Cognitive evaluation theory (CET) is a sub-theory of self-determination theory (SDT). Therefore, a brief overview will be given to SDT to further understand the basis of CET. SDT is divided into two branches of motivation: autonomous and controlled.⁴⁵ Autonomous motivation is concerned with actions that are influenced by a sense of volition; intrinsic motivation is an example of autonomous motivation.⁴⁶ Controlled motivation involves feeling a lack of power; an individual experiencing controlled motivation feels pressure and to a degree, coerced to perform certain tasks.⁴⁷

Deci’s cognitive evaluation theory (CET) falls into the autonomous motivation sub-theory of self-determination theory; CET assumes that either intrinsic or extrinsic motivation can be chosen through the implementation of managerial procedures.⁴⁸ “CET proposes that rewards can be interpreted by recipients primarily as controllers of their behavior or, alternatively, as indicators of their competence.”⁴⁹ In the first case where rewards are utilized to manipulate behavior, intrinsic motivation will be undermined. However, if the second approach is adopted, where rewards are used as a reflection of

⁴⁴ (Saavedra and Kwun 2000, 131-146)

⁴⁵ (Gagne and Deci 2005, 331)

⁴⁶ (Gagne and Deci 2005, 331)

⁴⁷ (Gagne and Deci 2005, 331)

⁴⁸ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

⁴⁹ (Deci, Koestner and Ryan 1999, 627-668)

competence, it will lead an individual to experience an enhancement of intrinsic motivation.⁵⁰

In a study conducted by Deci, Koestner and Ryan (1999) it was confirmed that when an individual was aware that a tangible reward would be offered, intrinsic motivation suffered. However, if the tangible reward was unexpected, motivation was not impacted. In regards to verbal rewards, they may positively impact an individual since they are unanticipated; this could stem from the fact that verbal rewards provide reaffirmation of an individual's capabilities.⁵¹ On the contrary, verbal rewards can potentially undermine intrinsic motivation if an individual is informed that feedback will be provided after the completion of a task. However, other studies have found that rewards do not necessarily always decrease intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1980; Fisher, 1978; Guzzo, 1979).⁵² CET attempts to uncover how organizational events including rewards, feedback and goal setting affect task interest, enjoyment and behavior.⁵³

Organizational Justice and Fairness Theories

Organizational Justice and Fairness theories focus on fairness and equality within an organization (i.e. work strategies, establishing task goals, evaluating job

⁵⁰ (Deci, Koestner and Ryan 1999, 627-668)

⁵¹ (Deci, Koestner and Ryan 1999, 627-668)

⁵² (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

⁵³ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

performance).⁵⁴ The presence of injustice will lead to the deterioration of motivation in the workplace. This subsection will focus on two theories within this area: Adams Equity Theory and Distributive and Procedural Fairness (Greenberg's Taxonomy [1987b]).

Adams Equity Theory

Adams equity theory (1963, 1965) is a "cognitive social exchange theory of distributive justice, assumes that individuals value and seek fairness in employee-employer relationships."⁵⁵ Adams defines inequity, using Festinger's (1957) theoretical model of cognitive dissonance as: "Inequity exists for Person whenever his perceived job inputs and/or outcomes stand psychologically in an obverse relation to what he perceives are the inputs and/or outcomes of Other."⁵⁶ Person is defined as an individual who may experience equity or inequity; Other can be an individual or group used a reference by Person as a social comparison for his inputs and outputs.⁵⁷

It should be noted that inequity does not solely exist when Person is underpaid but also when overpaid. In addition, equity will exist when Person's and Other's inputs/outcomes are analogous; however, when incongruent inputs/outcomes are present, inequity will exist.⁵⁸ The following formulas represent when inequality is experienced by a) Other, b) Person and finally c) when equality is present:⁵⁹

⁵⁴ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

⁵⁵ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

⁵⁶ (Adams 1963, 422)

⁵⁷ (Adams 1963, 422)

⁵⁸ (Adams 1963, 422)

⁵⁹ (Adams 1965, 267)

$$\text{a. } \frac{O_p}{I_p} < \frac{O_a}{I_a} \qquad \text{b. } \frac{O_p}{I_p} > \frac{O_a}{I_a} \qquad \text{c. } \frac{O_p}{I_p} = \frac{O_a}{I_a}$$

Where $O = \sum_{oi}$ (the summation outcomes that are believed to be relevant to a specific exchange); $I = \sum_{oi}$ (the summation of inputs that believed to be relevant to a specific exchange); finally p and a represent Person and Other, respectively.⁶⁰

The state of inequity will persuade Person to strive for equity or attempt to eliminate the imbalance. The motivation utilized to decrease equity discrepancies is dependant upon the amount of inequity.⁶¹ The proper measures to reduce inequality include the following:⁶²

1. Person can increase his inputs if they are low in comparison to Other's inputs and to his own outcomes.
2. Person can decrease his inputs if they are high in comparison to Other's inputs and to his own outcomes.
3. Person can increase his outcomes if they are low in comparison to Other's outcomes and to his own inputs.
4. Person can decrease his outcomes if they are high in comparison to Other's outcomes and to his own inputs.
5. If person is the victim of inequity, he may opt to resign from his job.
6. Person can "psychologically distort his inputs and outcomes, increasing or decreasing them as required."
7. Person can increase, decrease or misrepresent the inputs and outputs of Others, or coerce Other to resign.
8. "Person may change his referent Other when inequity exists."

⁶⁰ (Adams 1965, 267)

⁶¹ (Adams 1963, 422)

⁶² (Adams 1963, 422)

According to Adams, “the presence of inequity in Person creates tension in him. The tension is proportional to the magnitude of inequity present. Second the tension created in Person will motivate him to eliminate or reduce it. The strength of the motivation is proportional to the tension created.”⁶³

Adams equity theory was applied when examining the relationship between unfairness at work and absenteeism. The study “demonstrate[s] that perceived unfairness at work contributes to the explanation of future absence behavior over and above the impact of previous absenteeism and traditional work related stressors.”⁶⁴ If inequality is present at the work environment, employees could potentially develop feelings of anger, confusion that the organization operates in that manner, anger at supervisors and a deterioration of the employee’s self-worth.⁶⁵

Greenberg’s Taxonomy

Greenberg’s taxonomy (1987b) developed “two independent conceptual dimensions to distinguish between organizational justice theories: a process-content dimension and a reactive-proactive dimension.”⁶⁶ Greenberg’s approach can be summarized using Table 2.4.

⁶³ (Adams 1965, 267)

⁶⁴ (de Boer et al. 2002, 181-197)

⁶⁵ (de Boer et al. 2002, 181-197)

⁶⁶ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

TABLE 2.4: TYPE OF THEORY FOLLOWED BY THE REPRESENTATIVE QUESTION AND PROTOTYPICAL DEPENDENT MEASURES⁶⁷

Type of Theory	Representative Question	Prototypical Dependent Measures
Reactive Content	How do workers react to inequitable payments?	Reactions to overpayment or underpayment inequity
Proactive Content	How do workers attempt to create fair payments?	Adherence to justice norms in reward allocations
Reactive Process	How do workers react to unfair policies or legal procedures?	Reactions to unfair payment methods or dispute-resolution methods
Proactive Process	How do workers attempt to create fair policies or procedures?	Perceptions of procedural fairness

“Reactive content theories are conceptual approaches to justice that focus on how individuals respond to unfair treatment.”⁶⁸ If an individual perceives that inequity has occurred (e.g. unequal division of rewards and resources), he/she will proceed by displaying negative emotions; “they will be motivated to escape by acting so as to redress the experienced inequity.”⁶⁹ This negative employee outlook will transform into less efficient and less satisfied workers.⁷⁰ Proactive content theories are concerned with the approaches individuals apply to create fair outcome distributions; “Leventhal (1976b) contended that people sometimes proactively strive to create equitable distributions of reward---those in which the rewards received are proportional to the contributions made---because these will be the most beneficial to all concerned parties in the long run.”⁷¹

⁶⁷ (Greenberg 1987, 9-22)

⁶⁸ (Greenberg 1987, 9-22)

⁶⁹ (Greenberg 1987, 9-22)

⁷⁰ (Greenberg 1987, 9-22)

⁷¹ (Greenberg 1987, 9-22)

Albeit the distinction between content and process theories may be unclear, process theories differ from content theories in that they originate from law. Reactive process theories deal with fairness of methods which are used to make decisions. There is not a definite procedure used instead it can vary depending on the situation. If an additional party is involved, there are different approaches that allocate control to third party: (1) *autocratic procedure*—third party controls outcome and procedure; (2) *arbitration procedures*—third party controls outcome but not procedure; (3) *mediation*—third party controls procedure but not outcome; (4) *bargaining procedures*—third party controls neither process nor procedure.⁷²

Content-process dimension deal with how just an outcome is (distributive justice) and approaches utilized to determine the outcome (procedural justice); reactive-proactive makes a distinction between theories that are concerned with the reinstatement of justice and the others that concentrate on how people endeavor to gain justice.⁷³

Although the aforementioned four procedures were examined by Thibaut and Walker (1978), the two of greatest interest for comparison were autocratic and arbitrary since they are representative of major legal systems in the world (America & Britain vs. continental Europe, respectively).

The theory is concerned with how people will react to each of these decision-making procedures, thereby qualifying as reactive process theory. The theory predicts that both litigant and observing disinterested parties will be more satisfied with procedures giving them process control (e.g. adversary system [found in American and British courts]) than those that do not (e.g. the inquisitional system [found in continental Europe]).⁷⁴

⁷² (Greenberg 1987, 9-22)

⁷³ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

⁷⁴ (Greenberg 1987, 9-22)

The final component of Greeberg's Taxonomy is proactive process theories. The difference between reactive and proactive process theories should be noted; reactive process theories focus on the dispute-resolution procedures whereas proactive process theories focus on allocation procedures.⁷⁵ This theory endeavors to determine what procedures individuals will utilize to achieve justice; the preferred procedures will be those that aid the allocator attain the intended goals including those regarding the achievement of justice.⁷⁶

It is important to note that distributive and procedural theories have already been linked to the amount of extrarole behaviors exhibited by individuals. Moorman's (1991) findings, states: "The results indicate that fairness perceptions, particularly those derived from interactional justices, are instrumental in predicting the occurrence of citizenship."⁷⁷

In addition, research conducted by Mossholder et. al (1998) concluded that "individuals belonging to units with higher perceptions of procedural justice registered greater job satisfaction than would have been expected based on their individual justice perceptions alone."⁷⁸ Units that are capable of producing a sense of procedural justice will have a greater probability of maintaining individual commitment to the organization. It is essential to take into account that individuals' perception of justice may vary and consequently, their commitment will as well.⁷⁹

⁷⁵ (Greenberg 1987, 9-22)

⁷⁶ (Greenberg 1987, 9-22)

⁷⁷ (Moorman 1991, 845-855)

⁷⁸ (Mossholder, Bennett and Martin 1998, 131-141)

⁷⁹ (Mossholder, Bennett and Martin 1998, 131-141)

Summary of Research

The significance of need-motive value theories is to “emphasize the role of personality, stable dispositions, and values as a basis for behavioral variability.”⁸⁰ Need theories endeavor to discern the manner in which an individual satisfies needs. With the introduction of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, an interest in the motivation of individuals commenced. From Maslow’s theoretical perspective, individuals have a structural set of needs. In ascending order, these range from essential physical needs (e.g. food, shelter) to those that are required for developing a healthy sense of self (e.g. self-respect).

Following Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, Alderfer presented his existence-relatedness-growth (ERG) theory. Alderfer theorizes that the three states (existence, relatedness and growth) operate simultaneously. This differed from Maslow’s notion that a need had to be completed prior to proceeding onto the next higher-order need. Alderfer speculated that the three needs can operate simultaneously without completely fulfilling one. Under Maslow and Alderfer’s theories, research has provided evidence suggesting that individuals may operate under a need based system. Hagerty’s (1999) results found that the country that focused on the development of individuals (China), experienced faster GDP/person growth.

Motive theories specifically focus on motives with psychological origins. Bandura’s Taxonomy theorizes that motivation can be either intrinsic or extrinsic depending upon the locus and behavior-outcome contingency. While cognitive evaluation

⁸⁰ (Kanfer 1990-1994, 75)

theory (CET) focuses on environmental conditions (e.g. feedback, rewards).

Environmental conditions are then examined to discover their impact on behavior, sense of mastery within the individual and the amount of interest applied to a task. Research conducted in this area (Deci, Koestner and Ryan 1999) found evidence suggesting that when an individual is aware that rewards would be offered, intrinsic motivation would be undermined. However, if the individual was unaware that a reward would be offered, intrinsic motivation would not be impacted.

Job characteristic theory (JCT) is an additional form of motive theories. It pertains to job design and it develops a relationship between core job dimensions, critical psychological states and work outcomes. Research in this area conducted by Saaverda and Kwun (2000) concluded that task significance and task autonomy were positively related to active pleasant affect. These results indicate that pleseant affect, influences mood which in turn, impacts motivation.

Organizational justice and fairness theories are concerned with how fairness within an organization affects the attitudes and behaviors of those under its regulations. Although organization justice and fairness theories are not considered motivation theories, there is a relationship present with the amount of justice within an organization and the amount of motivation an individual exhibits on the job. If an employee feels there is no fairness, there will be no incentive to execute a job properly; the individual will not feel compelled to work at full potential. Adams equity theory focuses on whether Person experiences inequality, relative to Other, and what proper measures will be undertaken to eliminate it. Adams equity theory was applied when attempting to evaluate the

relationship between unfairness at work and absenteeism. The study concluded that perceived unfairness could be used to explain future absence behavior.

Greenberg's taxonomy divides organizational theories into content-process and reactive-proactive. Content theories are those that are concerned with how just an outcome is while process theories pertain to the methods employed to determine the outcome. Reactive theories endeavor to reinstate justice while proactive theories are those that concentrate on how individuals achieve the justice they desire. Research in this area has concluded that if individuals perceive that there is procedural justice present in an environment, there will be a greater degree of satisfaction experienced.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Since this thesis focuses on the impact of motivation on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), the proceeding section will provide an overview these behaviors.

Organ (1988) defined OCBs as:

individual behavior that is discretionary; not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. By discretionary, we mean that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person's employment contract with the organization; behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable

In simpler terms, OCBs can be described as behaviors that are not associated with the job requirements; it is an individual's choice and not enforceable by higher personnel. An employee's willingness to be involved within an organization can be determined by the amount of altruism (the act of

aiding coworkers within the work environment) and conscientiousness (the readiness to undertake tasks not associated with the minimal requirement in the areas of attendance, taking breaks and working overtime) displayed.

“Therefore, levels of OCBs imply the distance an employee would like to keep between himself or herself and the organization: The lower the level of OCBs, the larger the distance.”⁸¹ It can be deduced that the greater the distance between an individual and the organization, the greater the probability of higher turnover.⁸² Employees who are unsatisfied with their work environment may refuse to exhibit extrarole behaviors also known as OCBs. Wells and Muchinsky (1985) found that employees who quit their job were perceived as less reliable and dependable in comparison to those who were promoted, according to their supervisors.

OCBs are described as discretionary behaviors, meaning, that an employee may not be coerced to adopt new behaviors since it is not a requirement (Organ 1988). Although OCBs are entirely up to an individual, some employees still opt to exhibit these behaviors; high OCBs can potentially stem from: job satisfaction, organizational commitment or both (Organ & Ryan, 1995).⁸³ High OCBs can also be a residual of wishing to obtain positive performance evaluations, “because extrarole performance evaluations may influence employees’ overall performance evaluations (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff MacKenzie & Hui, 1993).”⁸⁴ Although employees display OCBs for personal gratification a portion of this behavior can be attributed to outside

81 (Chen, Hui and Segó 1998, 922)

82 (Chen, Hui and Segó 1998, 922)

83 (Chen, Hui and Segó 1998, 922)

84 (Chen, Hui and Segó 1998, 922)

influence or external factors. Penner, Midili, and Kegelmeyer (1997) “suggested that OCBs may also be a proactive behavior; that is, people may consciously choose to engage in OCB because such behaviors meet certain needs or satisfy one or more motives.”⁸⁵

In order to compel employees to stay in an organization, it needs to be operating at a satisfactory level. The characteristics of a functioning organization include:⁸⁶

1. individuals are induced to enter and remain within the system
2. carrying out specific role requirements in a dependable fashion
3. the presence of “innovative and spontaneous activity that goes beyond role prescriptions”

The third requirement of a functioning organization refers to citizenship behavior. This requirement “depends daily on a myriad of acts of cooperation, helpfulness, suggestions, gestures of goodwill, altruism, and other instances of what we might call citizenship behaviors.”⁸⁷ The environment that is ideal for harboring OCBs include:⁸⁸ A) supervisor consideration since many of the acts performed by superiors are distinguishable as citizenship behaviors (i.e. helping behavior); B) task interdependence, specifically the groups that are characterized by reciprocal interdependence (“frequent instances of spontaneous mutual adjustment in order to effect coordination”) which harbor a sense of cooperation norms, helping and being sensitive to others’ needs---this cohesion positively impacts satisfaction which consequently impacts citizenship behavior; and finally C) demographic variables such as ordinal birth position and

85 (Rioux and Penner 2001, 1306-1314)

86 (Smith, Organi and Near 1983, 653)

87 (Smith, Organi and Near 1983, 653)

88 (Smith, Organi and Near 1983, 653)

education level, according to research, are predictors of altruism and social responsibility, respectively.

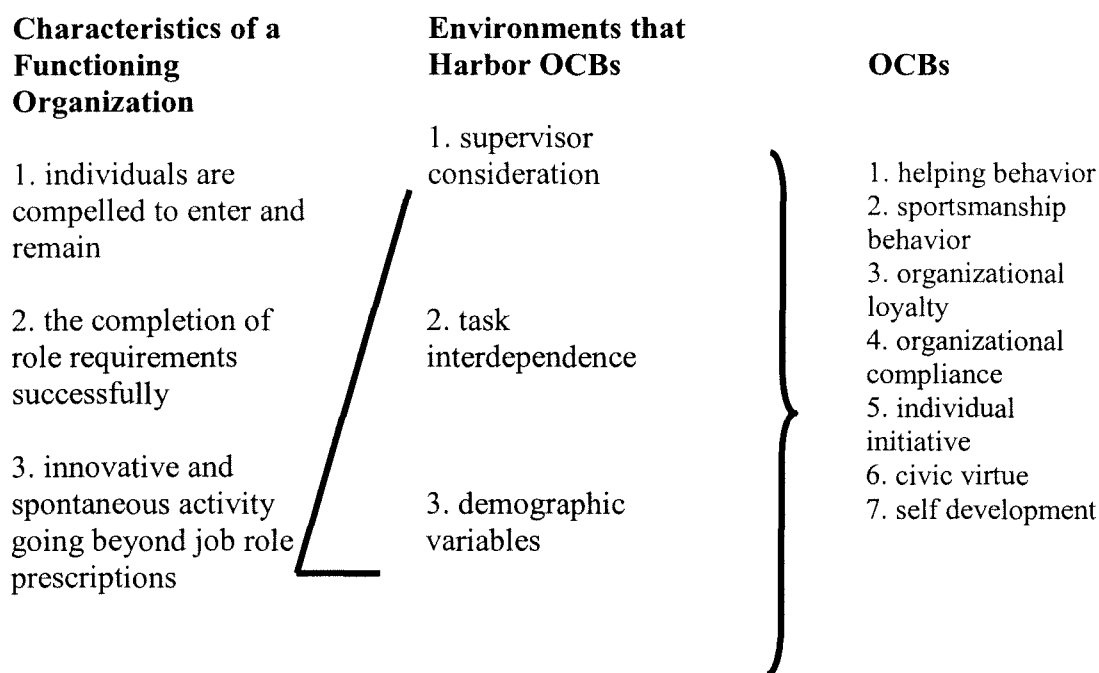
If a functioning organization and the ideal environment is created, citizenship behaviors will be present. Although there have been over 30 various forms of citizenship behaviors, a conceptual overlap exists. The 7 most common themes include:⁸⁹

1. Helping behavior which has been defined as willingly aiding others and attempting to prevent and minimize work-related problems.
2. Sportsmanship is the development of a tolerance towards unavoidable inconveniences and obligations without objection or complaint.
3. Organizational loyalty consists of “promoting the organization to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats, and remaining committed to it even under adverse conditions.”
4. Organizational compliance relate to an individual’s internalization and acceptance of the organization’s structure (e.g. rules, regulations, procedures) without supervision.
5. Individual initiative “it involves engaging in task-related behaviors at a level that is so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary favor” (e.g. willingly taking on additional tasks and motivating others to do the same, maintaining a high level of enthusiasm).
6. Civic virtue pertains to a “macro-level interest.” It concerns an individual’s motivation to participate in the operation of an organization such as by expressing opinions; to ensure the environment is free from outside threats (e.g. staying up-to-date with organizational trends and technology); and finally, to maintain the organization as a priority even if it is detrimental to oneself (e.g. reporting suspicious activity).
7. Self development entails personal growth that is attainable through the improvement or acquisition of skills, knowledge and abilities.

Figure 2.6 is provided to illustrate the relationship between the characteristics of a functioning organization, the environments for fostering OCBs and the outcome (OCBs).

89 (Podsakoff et al. 2000, 513)

FIGURE 2.6: DEVELOPMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS



The significance of OCBs is that they “lubricate the social machinery of the organization. They provide flexibility needed to work through many unforeseen contingencies.”⁹⁰ It can be inferred that if an individual experiences and exhibits OCBs, there will be greater motivation from that employee.

Linking Job Characteristics Theory to Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

After reviewing motivation research and placing an emphasis on JCT and OCBs, it is essential to establish a link among the two.

⁹⁰ (Smith, Organi and Near 1983, 653)

The purpose of JCT is to develop an environment that will increase work satisfaction and attendance. While OCBs are those behaviors that are not a job requirement but still exhibited by individuals; these lead to the functioning of an organization. If an individual is pleased with the job design, there will be a greater probability of displaying OCBs.

Referring this link to the theories themselves, one can see that the core job dimensions: feedback, autonomy and task significance are similar to the environments that foster OCBs (supervisor consideration, task interdependence, and education level, respectively). Table 2.5 is provided to illustrate this notion.

TABLE 2.5: JOB CHARACTERISTIC THEORY IN COMPARISON TO ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS

Job Characteristic Theory Core Job Dimensions	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors Environments Harboring OCBs
<i>Feedback</i> - information regarding the effectiveness of the performance	<i>Supervisor Consideration</i> - role model within the organization; performer of citizenship behavior
<i>Autonomy</i> - the amount of worker freedom, independence and discretion; feeling a sense of responsibility for successes and failures	<i>Task Interdependence</i> - groups that are reciprocally independent which leads to the development of cohesion
<i>Task Significance</i> - importance placed on a task by an employee; contingent on the impact it will have on the organization	<i>Demographic Variable</i> - individual characteristics This study will employ education as the demographic variable

From the table, the link between JCT and OCBs is easily established. The presence of feedback is the product of supervisor consideration. If a supervisor is thoughtful enough to provide feedback to an individual, it implies that there is a desire for

improvement or the need to provide appraisal for an executed task. So in essence, the more feedback provided, the greater amount of supervisor consideration.

The higher amount of autonomy present on a job is the product of a higher degree of task interdependence. Both autonomy and task interdependence foster a sense of responsibility. If an individual feels personally responsible for his/her job performance, there will be a sense of executing a task at full potential. If a task is completed, there is a sense of dependability within a group or organization. This task interdependence allows an organization to function with minimal setbacks and a greater degree of efficiency. Therefore, more autonomy leads to greater task interdependence.

Finally, task significance is partially the product of demographic variables. In this study, education will serve as the demographic variable. An individual may weigh the importance placed on a task based on certain characteristics such as education level. If an individual is able to acknowledge the significance of a task, there may be a relationship present. Individuals who have a higher education attainment will be assigned important tasks since they are expected to accomplish difficult assignments. Therefore, their responsibility is greater as well as their contribution to the organization. Consequently, the task significance may be associated with education level.

It can be asserted that the strength of the core job dimensions produce the strength of the OCBs' environment. If there is a desire to produce a greater amount of OCBs, the core job dimensions should be addressed. Since the core job dimensions lead to the strength of the OCBs' environment, the OCBs themselves are affected. Simply stated, the higher the core job dimensions, the more likely organizational citizenship behaviors will be present.

Linking Cognitive Evaluation Theory to Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Now that the link has been developed between JCT and OCBs, a connection will be established among CET and OCBs.

CET focuses on the influence of outside factors (e.g. rewards, feedback) that impact an individual's intrinsic motivation. According to Deci, intrinsic motivation is undermined with the presence of extrinsic rewards. Individuals will interpret these rewards as a manner to control their behavior or as a reflection of their competence. If individuals believe that rewards are used as a manner to control behavior, intrinsic motivation will be undermined. Consequently, this will reduce an individual's desire to exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors since these behaviors are not part of the job requirement. An individual will not feel compelled to undertake additional tasks without the presence of rewards.

If on the other hand, rewards are utilized to reflect competence, intrinsic motivation will not be undermined and OCBs will blossom. If an individual believes that the issuance of rewards indicates their ability, there will be a greater incentive to continue performing at an optimal level. This optimal level will allow individuals to exhibit OCBs which have been shown to benefit an organization. This effect will be dependent upon the individual; therefore, the level of OCBs has a high degree of variability.

The next chapter will develop a methodology to measure the relationship between job characteristics theory, cognitive evaluation theory and organizational citizenship behaviors.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research methodology used to examine the relationship between both job characteristic theory and cognitive evaluation theory and their impact on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). This chapter will commence with an explanation of the data. Next, the regression models are introduced followed by a clarification of the dependent and independent variables. Finally, this chapter is concluded with the estimated procedure.

Sample Selection

The data used in these regressions was acquired from a climate survey administered to a government agency in 1999; the purpose was to unfold “the issue and importance of organizational climate.”¹ For clarification purposes, organizational climate “has been defined as a set of characteristics that is relatively enduring over time, that influences the behavior of the people in an organization, and that describes an organization so that it is distinguishable from other organizations.”²

¹ Working Paper

² Working Paper

The survey itself was administered electronically, spanning a 6-week period (September 15th to November 1st 1999, with a 36% participation rate (n=181,199). The respondents consisted of enlisted individuals (62%), civilians (19%) and officers (19%).

Regression Models

These models will employ an ordinary least squares regression to measure the effect of job characteristic theory and cognitive evaluation theory on organizational citizenship behaviors. The regression models are as follows:

$$1. \text{OCBs} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \text{SKVRTY} + \beta_2 * \text{TSKIDTY} + \beta_3 * \text{TSK SIG} + \beta_4 * \text{FDBK} + \beta_5 * \text{ATMY} + \beta_6 * \text{EDULEVEL} + \beta_7 * \text{CET}$$

$$2. \text{OCBs} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \text{JCT} + \beta_2 * \text{CET} + \beta_3 * \text{EDULEVEL}$$

Where β_0 represents the y-intercept.

In regards to the first regression model, it is expected that skill variety, task identity, task significance, feedback, autonomy and CET are positively related to OCBs. JCT and CET will also be positively related to OCBs in the second regression model. While in both models, education will be positively related to OCBs. Table 3.1 defines the dependent and independent variables of both the regression models.

TABLE 3.1: DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable Abbreviation	Variable Name	Definition
OCBs	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	Extrarole behaviors exhibited by individuals that are not part of the job requirement
SKVRTY	Skill Variety	The ability given to an individual to use a variety of skills on the job
TSKIDTY	Task Identity	The ability to execute a job in its entirety
TSKSIG	Task Significance	The degree to which an individual feels a task is important
FDBK	Feedback	Feedback provided to an individual after the completion of a task
ATMY	Autonomy	A greater degree of provided to the individual
EDULEVEL	Education Level	The highest education level acquired by the surveyed
CET	Cognitive Evaluation Theory	The degree to which the individual feels competent to perform a task
JCT	Job Characteristics Theory	Job structure that leads to the development of psychological states which produce desired outcomes for an organization

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable of both models is organizational citizenship behaviors. OCBs are extrarole behaviors that are not associated with the job requirements. These are typically exhibited when an individual is satisfied with the work environment and the job itself. It can be inferred that if motive theories are present, an individual will be more inclined to display OCBs. These behaviors include: helping behavior, sportsmanship behavior, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self development.

The survey administered to the government agency measured helping behavior (dependent variable) of OCBs. The survey questions pertinent to this measurement were:

1. In my unit, people help each other out when they have heavy workloads.
2. In my unit, people make innovative suggestions for improvement.
3. In my unit, people willingly give of their time to help members who have work-related problems.
4. In my unit, people willingly share their expertise with each other.

The scale ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6); 7 was selected as a “don’t know” option.

Independent Variables

In order to determine the relationship between both JCT and CET on OCBs, regression models are developed. The independent variables of these models are the job characteristic theory developed by Hackman and Oldham and Deci’s cognitive evaluation theory. A demographic variable (i.e. education level) will also be used to examine its impact on OCBs.

As previously mentioned in Chapter two, the core dimensions of JCT are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. The five core dimensions produce the critical psychological states: meaningfulness, responsibility and knowledge of results. For the first model, the core job dimensions will be utilized as individual independent variables. The following definitions for the core job dimensions are retrieved from Chapter II.

Skill Variety

Hackman et. al (1974) defines skill variety when an employee has the opportunity to utilize a variety of skills under challenging circumstances. There is potential to develop meaningfulness in a task if a skill is utilized; this potential is magnified when additional skills are applied. By implementing additional skills, a task loses its dullness and attracts greater attention. Skill variety contributes to the experienced meaningfulness of a job.

Task Identity

Task identity is defined as a task required to be executed in its entirety; commencing a job and completing it. Task Identity contributes to the experienced meaningfulness of a job.

Task Significance

Task significance is the importance that an employee places on a job; this importance is dependant upon the perceived impact that it will have immediately on people within an organization or the world at large. Task significance contributes to the experienced meaningfulness of a job.

Autonomy

Autonomy occurs when an individual feels an increased sense of responsibility for a job; formally defined as “the degree to which the job gives the worker freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling work and determining how he will carry it out.”³ If an individual has high autonomy in a job, there is a greater impression of personal responsibility for success or failure. Autonomy contributes to the experienced responsibility of work outcomes.

Feedback

Feedback occurs when an individual performs a task, information is provided regarding the effectiveness of the performance. Feedback contributes to the knowledge of work results.

The psychological states created by the core job dimensions are experienced meaningfulness of a job, experienced responsibility of a job and knowledge of work results. These create high internal work motivation, increased satisfaction, increased

³ (Hackman and And Others 1974)

quality of work and lower absenteeism and turnover. Therefore it is speculated that the core job dimensions of JCT are positively related to OCBs.

The survey questions associated with the job characteristic theory are the following:

1. My job requires me to use a variety of skills. [*task variety*]
2. My job allows me to see the finished products of my work. [*task identity*]
3. Doing my job well affects others in some important way. [*task significance*]
4. My job is designed so that I know when I have performed well. [*feedback*]
5. My job allows me freedom to work with minimum supervision. [*autonomy*]

The scale ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6); 7 was selected as a “don’t know” option.

In the first regression model, JCT’s impact on OCBs will be evaluated by isolating the core job dimensions. This however will change in the second regression model where JCT will be kept as one factor. The reason being that when the core job dimensions are expanded, the regression results will provide more in depth results about JCT’s impact on OCBs. In the second model, JCT will be confined to one factor in an effort to examine the influence of CET over OCBs with reduced JCT interference.

Cognitive evaluation theory (CET) will also serve as an independent variable. CET proposes that external factors influence motivation. This variable is important to examine in the regression model since the more competent an individual feels performing a task, the more likely OCBs will be present. The survey questions pertinent to CET are the following:

1. My unit leadership sets challenging goals.
2. My unit leadership motivates me to achieve our goals.
3. I am adequately trained for the job I am expected to do.
4. My unit leadership rewards team performance fairly.
5. My unit leadership rewards individual performance fairly.

6. My unit leadership does a good job of recognizing people in all grades and types of jobs

The scale ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6); 7 was selected as a “don’t know” option. This study expects CET to be positively related to OCBs.

In addition to JCT and CET, a demographic variable (i.e. education) will be included in the regression since “demographic characteristics are commonly included in job satisfaction studies as control variables.”⁴ The question employed to determine education level is

1. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

Where 1=Some high school or less, but no diploma, certificate 2= High school diploma or GED 3= Less than 2 years of college, but no degree 4=Associate’s degree 5=Associate’s degree, plus additional college hours 6=From 3 to 4 years of college, but no degree 7=Bachelor’s degree 8=A year or more of graduate credit, but no degree 9=Master’s degree 10=Doctorate degree 11=Professional degree, e.g. MD, DDS, JD etc.

Although there is mixed support regarding the effect of education on OCBs, this thesis suggests that education is a significant variable. In a study conducted by Bogler (2004), the author concluded that self-efficacy and status were predictors of OCBs.⁵ Self-efficacy pertains to how competent an individual feels. While status refers to the manner in which individuals “perceive that they have the professional respect and admiration of their colleagues, in addition to acknowledgement of their expertise.”⁶ Hence, it can be implied that status is a product of education. A higher level of education

⁴ (Lambert, Hogan and Barton 2001, 233)

⁵ (Bogler and Somech 2004, 277-289)

⁶ (Bogler and Somech 2004, 277-289)

indicates greater knowledge which allows that individual to feel entitled to respect. Consequently, this sense of respect will, according to Bogler's findings, produce OCBs. Therefore, this study expects education level to be positively related to OCBs.

Estimation Procedure

As previously mentioned, this study will utilize an ordinary least squares regression to measure the impact of JCT and CET on OCBs. Under this regression method, a line will be produced regardless if a linear relationship between x_1 (JCT), x_2 (CET) and y (OCBs) exists.⁷ In order to verify the presence of a relationship, a T-stat will be performed; this determines if the coefficients differ from zero.⁸ In addition, an R-square test will be issued; this will calculate how closely the line fits the data.

The following chapter will apply this methodology to aid in determining whether a relationship exists between motivation and OCB.

⁷ (Fenn)

⁸ (Fenn)

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS

The purpose of this thesis is to establish the relationship between job characteristics theory (JCT), cognitive evaluation theory (CET) and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). The previous chapter established the regression models to be utilized to test this hypothesis; this chapter will serve as the analysis of the regression models.

Prior to conducting the regressions, the variables were tested using a reliability scale (Cronbach's Alpha). Cronbach's Alpha provides reassurance that the data will "elicit consistent and reliable response even if the questions were replaced with similar questions."¹ If the data is to be considered reliable, it must be greater than 0.7. Table 4.1 provides the reliability statistics for the scales that measured OCBs, JCT and CET.

¹ (Santos 1999)

TABLE 4.1: RELIABILITY STATISTICS FOR VARIABLES

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>
OCB	.89
JCT	.772
CET	.888

As table 4.1 illustrates, all of the variables exceeded the 0.7 requirement for reliability. These statistics offer additional assurance that the data is reliable.

Regression Models

The regression models utilized to test the hypothesis that motivation affects OCBs, were the following:

$$1. \text{OCBs} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \text{SKVRTY} + \beta_2 * \text{TSKIDTY} + \beta_3 * \text{TSKSIG} + \beta_4 * \text{FDBK} + \beta_5 * \text{ATMY} + \beta_6 * \text{EDULEVEL} + \beta_7 * \text{CET}$$

$$2. \text{OCBs} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \text{JCT} + \beta_2 * \text{CET} + \beta_3 * \text{EDULEVEL}$$

Where β_0 represents the y-intercept.

In regards to the first regression model, it is expected that skill variety, task identity, task significance, feedback, autonomy and CET are positively related to OCBs. JCT and CET will also be positively related to OCBs in the second regression model. While in both models, education will be positively related to OCBs

Regression Results

The first regression model's results were overestimated by this thesis. By examining the core job dimensions individually, there was little influence. Referring to Table 4.2, it is notable that the betas for this model were significant but small.

TABLE 4.2: COEFFICIENTS FOR THE 1ST REGRESSION MODEL

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.148	.046		24.711	.000
	CET1	.492	.005	.548	89.709	.000
	q01job01	.051	.008	.039	6.347	.000
	q02job02	.038	.007	.036	5.409	.000
	q03job03	.034	.009	.026	4.032	.000
	q04job04	.046	.006	.053	7.417	.000
	q05job05	.066	.007	.060	10.161	.000
	ceducatn	.017	.002	.041	7.928	.000

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

The purpose of the first regression model was to expand JCT by examining the core job dimensions independently. This would aid in determining if any had a stronger influence over OCBs. The results proved to be inconsequential. Although, it should be taken into account that autonomy (q05job05) had the greatest impact on OCBs out of the core job dimensions. This result is in conjunction with one of Saavedra and Kwun's (2000) findings that autonomy was a determinant of mood, which has been shown to affect motivation. Consequently, the first regression model will be discarded since autonomy is the only core job dimension that held any meaningful significance.

The second regression model proved to be more promising; table 4.3 provides the coefficients of the regression.

TABLE 4.3: COEFFICIENTS FOR THE 2ND REGRESSION MODEL

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.158	.042		27.662	.000
	JCT	.232	.009	.153	25.947	.000
	ceducatn	.017	.002	.042	8.143	.000
	CET1	.493	.005	.550	93.001	.000

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

As speculated, all three independent variables are positively related to OCBs. As table 4.3 demonstrates, the betas for JCT are now statistically significant with a beta of .153. This implies that the core job dimensions must operate cohesively rather than individually in order for OCBs to be impacted. This coefficient is interpreted as “A one unit change in the independent variable produces a change in the dependent variable equal to the value of the regression coefficient.”² So, a one unit change in the JCT results in a .153 change in OCBs.

The next independent variable in the regression model is education level. The coefficient for this variable, proved to be significant, with a beta of .042. This is interpreted as: a one unit change in education attainment results in a .042 change in OCBs. Although education has a positive affect on OCBs, the results are not as high as this thesis expected.

The last independent variable, which also happens to be the one that had the greatest impact on OCBs is CET. The partial coefficient for CET is .55. Therefore, a one unit change in CET, will result in a .55 change in OCBs.

In this model, the questions pertinent to CET were:

1. My unit leadership sets challenging goals.
2. My unit leadership motivates me to achieve our goals.
3. I am adequately trained for the job I am expected to do.
4. My unit leadership rewards team performance fairly.
5. My unit leadership rewards individual performance fairly.
6. My unit leadership does a good job of recognizing people in all grades and types of jobs

In an effort to evaluate which CET has the greatest impact on OCBs, an additional regression models was developed:

² (Eastman 1984, 59)

$$3. \text{OCBs} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \text{Q26LDR25} + \beta_2 * \text{Q28LDR29} + \beta_3 * \text{Q32TRA43} + \beta_4 * \text{Q42REC54} + \beta_5 * \text{Q43REC55} + \beta_6 * \text{Q44REC56} + \beta_7 * \text{EDULEVEL}$$

TABLE 4.4: COEFFICIENTS FOR THE 3RD REGRESSION MODEL

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.164	.042		27.592	.000
JCT	.226	.009	.149	24.802	.000
ceducatn	.018	.002	.042	8.272	.000
q26ldr25	.099	.007	.131	14.701	.000
q28ldr29	.108	.007	.148	14.944	.000
q32tra43	.081	.005	.098	16.989	.000
q42rec54	.081	.009	.111	8.952	.000
q43rec55	.054	.010	.075	5.516	.000
q44rec56	.075	.008	.105	9.244	.000

a Dependent Variable: OCB

By isolating the questions, it is easier to determine what CET characteristic contributes most to OCBs. Referring to the betas, q28ldr29 (My unit leadership motivates me to achieve our goals.), has the greatest impact on OCBs with a beta of .148. These results indicate that this managerial approach greatly affects the outcome of organizational citizenship behaviors. Since no rewards are present, intrinsic motivation is not undermined; this type of motivation could be interpreted as a form of verbal rewards. If a superior is providing motivation, it unquestionably must be positive. If the opposite were true, this question would have received a lower beta.

Under this interpretation (supervisor motivation=verbal rewards), verbal rewards positively impact an individual since they are unanticipated. This could potentially stem from the fact that verbal rewards provide reaffirmation of an individual's capabilities.³

³ (Deci, Koestner and Ryan 1999, 627-668)

Coefficient of Determination

In order to determine how much of the change in OCBs is explained by the independent variables, the coefficient of determination is used. Table 4.5 provides the model summary results.

TABLE 4.5: MODEL SUMMARY RESULTS

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.644 ^a	.414	.414	.81822

a. Predictors: (Constant), CET1, ceducatn, JCT

The coefficient of determination, also commonly referred to as R^2 , allows an evaluation to be performed on “of how good the theory is.”⁴ Although the R^2 and the adjusted R^2 are identical, the adjusted R^2 is typically used since it adjusts for degrees of freedom. Hence, we can interpret the data more confidently.

The adjusted R^2 for this model is .414. This indicates that 41% of the variation in the dependent variable (OCBs) can be explained by the variation in the independent variables.

Testing for Normality

In order to verify that the f-statistic as well as the t-statistic are valid for this model, normality needs to be present. Normality tests (e.g. Jarque-Bera) for this data set were not performed. However, these tests are not required to realize that this data is not normally distributed. The following three figures provide a histogram of JCT, CET and education.

⁴ (Eastman 1984, 59)

FIGURE 4.1: JCT HISTOGRAM

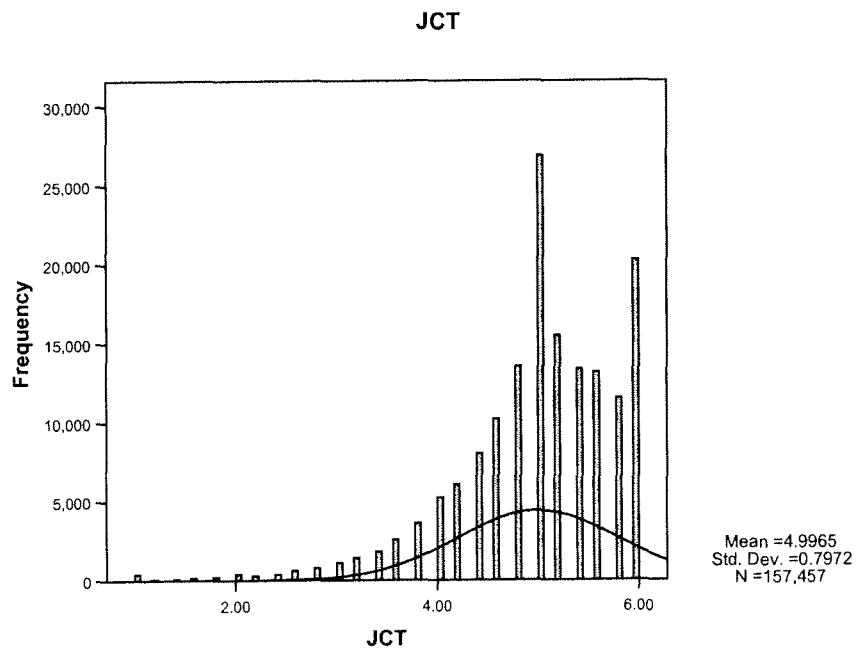


FIGURE 4.2: CET HISTOGRAM

D

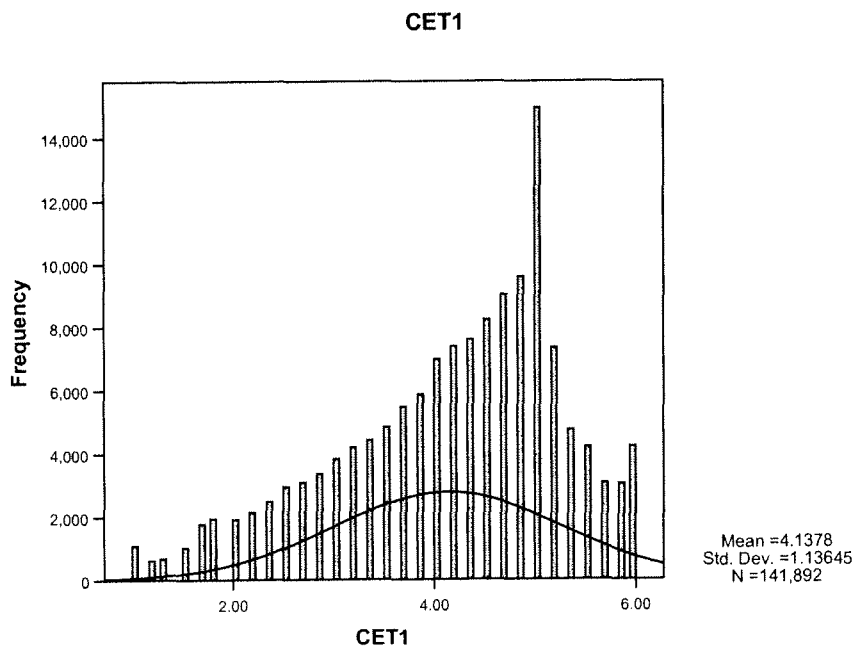
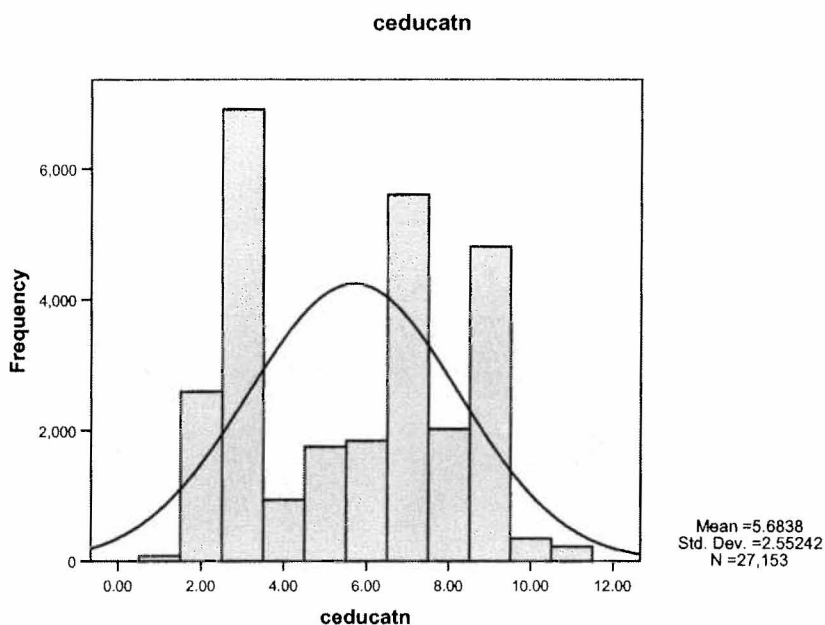


FIGURE 4.3: EDUCATION HISTOGRAM



To test for normality, the skewness and Kurtosis measures were adopted.

Skewness measures how the data is distributed or the asymmetry; if a negative number is calculated, the data is concentrated to the left. If a positive number is present, the data is primarily allocated to the right. (A skewness of zero indicates symmetry.) The Kurtosis measure considers how heavily distributed the data is in the tails. A high Kurtosis signals the data lies in the tails while the opposite is true (low Kurtosis= high distribution in center).

The three figures presented above illustrate that the independent variables are not normally distributed. Figure 4.1's (JCT) data is skewed -1.257 with a Kurtosis of 2.69. Figure 4.2 (CET) has a skewness of -.642 and a Kurtosis of -.213. Finally, education has a skewness of -.005 but a Kurtosis of -1.401.

CET is the only data set that has the characteristics of normally distributed data according to the skewness and Kurtosis measures. A t-statistic is used to determine if the coefficient is significantly different from zero. In the second regression model, CET's t-statistic is 93. With a 95% confidence interval, the critical value is 1.96. Hence, it can be concluded that CET is significantly different from zero since the t-statistic is much larger than the critical value.

An f-test is used to determine whether or not all of the coefficients are equivalent to zero. Since the only factor that is normally distributed is CET and as proven, is statistically significant, it can be inferred that the model is valid. At least one of the factors is not equal to zero.

Although it is not feasible to perform a t-statistic on the remaining factors (JCT and education) given that the data is not normally distributed, this should not deter from the findings in this regression. It has been shown that CET is a contributing factor to OCBs. The manner in which rewards are offered to employees affects the presence of OCBs. If an employee perceives that performance is awarded unfairly, that individual's intrinsic motivation will be undermined. In addition, feedback is related to the competency of individuals (i.e. setting challenging goals); if an individual feels that they are being challenged, there is an incentive to accomplish that goal. Thus, in the process, the individual will be satisfied with the work environment and exhibit these OCB behaviors.

The next chapter will provide an overview of the preceding chapters and offer a conclusion as to the significance of these findings.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

This thesis proposed that motivation, specifically job characteristics theory (JCT) and cognitive evaluation theory (CET), impact organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs).

Chapter one developed the importance of unveiling this relationship. One of the consequences of staggering motivation is the deterioration of job satisfaction. If employees are unsatisfied with their working environment, OCBs will be absent.

Referring once more to Smith et. al, OCBs “lubricate the social machinery.”¹ The presence of these behaviors allows an organization to function more efficiently and effectively. OCBs are extrarole behaviors or actions not considered as a job requirement. OCBs create an environment where individuals go beyond their job description in an effort to improve the organization. In the process, the organization benefits from these behaviors. For example, a potential consequence of these behaviors is reduced turnover.

This thesis proposed that motivation (i.e. job characteristics theory (JCT) and cognitive evaluation theory (CET)) affects the amount of OCBs in an organization.

¹ (Smith, Organi and Near 1983, 653)

Specifically, this thesis hypothesized that higher levels of motivation will lead to larger amounts of OCBs which in turn, will benefit an organization.

Chapter two provided the theories and literature review, supporting the hypothesis: higher motivation will result in a larger exhibition of OCBs. It began by providing a background of motivation. The research is categorized into need-motive value theories, organization justice and fairness theories and organizational citizenship behaviors. This chapter is concluded by theoretically developing the link between job characteristic theory and cognitive evaluation theory to organizational citizenship behaviors.

The need theories examined included Maslow's hierarchy of needs as well as Alderfer's existence-relatedness-growth (ERG) theory. Since these theories were not essential in establishing the relationship between motivation and OCBs, they were not emphasized. The motive theories which comprised this review were Bandura's Taxonomy, JCT and CET. Briefly stated, Bandura's Taxonomy focuses on the different forms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation that can be created depending on the locus and behavior-outcome contingency.

Job characteristics theory specializes in job design and how it impacts individuals psychological states. Under the theoretical structure developed by Hackman and Oldham (1974) there are five core job dimensions (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) that lead to the development of three psychological states (perceived meaningfulness of work, perceived responsibility for outcome of work and awareness of the results of the work activities) which produce personal/work outcomes

(high internal work motivation, high quality work performance, high satisfaction with work, and low absenteeism and turnover).²

The final motivation theory examined in this review is cognitive evaluation theory. This theory proposes whether motivation is intrinsic or extrinsic is reliant on how managerial procedures are implemented. A reward can be interpreted by the receiver as either intrinsic or extrinsic based on how it is offered. If the reward is utilized to manipulate behavior, intrinsic motivation will be undermined. However, if the reward is utilized as a reflection of competence, intrinsic motivation will be boosted.

The next category of theories examined is organizational justice and fairness theories. Although these are not classified as motivation theories, it is nonetheless important to acknowledge their impact in on motivation and OCBs. Adams equity theory proposes that individuals seek and prize fairness in employee-employer relations. If inequity is present in any form, Person will strive to achieve equity or eliminate the imbalance. Greenberg's taxonomy distinguishes between process-content and reactive-content dimensions. This theory attempts to postulate what procedures individuals will implement to achieve justice. The procedures of preference will be those that help the allocator achieve the intended goals including those pertaining to the attainment of justice. As previously mentioned, organizational justice and fairness theories are not considered motivation theories but they do influence it. Restating the findings from Mossholder et. al (1998), job satisfaction will be larger when individuals perceive that there is a perceived sense of procedural justice.

Finally, organizational citizenship behaviors, according to Organ (1988), is "individual behavior that is discretionary; not directly or explicitly recognized by the

² For an illustration of this progression, refer to figure 2.4

formal reward system and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization.” These behaviors are not associated with the job requirement and consequently, the decision of the individual to exhibit these. An individual’s willingness to be involved within an organization can be determined by the amount of altruism and conscientiousness. Essentially, if altruism and conscientiousness are high, OCBs will be high as well which would reduce the risk of turnover. OCBs will develop if an organization has innovative and spontaneous activity that goes beyond the job role descriptions. An environment that cultivates OCBs must have supervisor consideration, task interdependence and demographic variables (e.g. ordinal birth, education level). If the two previous requirements are met, OCBs will be created. The most common types of citizenship behaviors include: helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self development.³

The final components of chapter two are connecting JCT and CET to OCBs. It is theorized that core job dimensions (JCT) (i.e. feedback, autonomy and task significance) were similar to the environments that foster OCBs (supervisor consideration, task interdependence, and education level). Feedback is the product of supervisor consideration. This relationship suggests that the supervisor wishes to see his subordinates better themselves. Next, autonomy is a product of a higher degree of task interdependence. If an individual feels personally responsible for his/her job performance, there will be a sense of executing a task at full potential. If a task is completed, there is a sense of dependability within a group or organization. This task interdependence allows an organization to function with minimal setbacks and a greater degree of efficiency. Therefore, more autonomy leads to greater task interdependence.

³ For an illustration of this progression, refer to Figure 2.6

Finally this thesis included a demographic variable, education, and proposed that it was related to task significance. Individuals who have a higher education attainment will be assigned important tasks since they are expected to accomplish difficult assignments. Therefore, their responsibility is greater as well as their contribution to the organization. Consequently, the task significance may be associated with education level.

The final relationship is between CET and OCBs. If supervisors use rewards as a manner to control behavior, intrinsic motivation will be undermined. Hence, an individual's desire to exhibit OCBs will be undermined as well since these behaviors are not part of the job requirement. Consequently, an individual will not want to perform additional tasks without the presence of rewards. However, if rewards are used to reflect competence, OCBs will flourish. If an employee believes that a reward is indicative of ability, their will be a greater incentive to perform at an optimal level. This optimal level will lead to the development of OCBs.

In order to test the relationship between JCT, CET and OCBs, Chapter three developed a methodology. The data used to test this hypothesis was gathered from a 1999 government survey. Two regression models were developed:

$$1. OCBs = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * SKVRTY + \beta_2 * TSKIDTY + \beta_3 * TSKSIG + \beta_4 * FDBK + \beta_5 * ATMY + \beta_6 * EDULEVEL + \beta_7 * CET$$

$$2. OCBs = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * JCT + \beta_2 * CET + \beta_3 * EDULEVEL^4$$

All of the independent variables were anticipated to have a positive influence on OCBs.

The first regression model tests the core job dimensions to examine closely the affects of JCT on OCBs. The second regression model confines the core job dimensions

⁴ For definitions of the dependent and independent variables, refer to Table 3.1

to JCT in order to examine it as one variable. The regression results are found in chapter four.

Chapter four employed the models and ran a regression. The first model provided small betas. However the second regression model offered greater insight into the relationship between JCT, CET and OCBs. JCT now held a statistically significant beta of .153. The education's coefficient was a mere .042 while CET proved to be the most promising with a beta of .550. The fact that JCT experienced a larger beta when the questions are combined illustrates the notion that the core job dimensions must operate as one in order to impact OCBs. As with the first model, education held small statistical significance. CET, however, was the factor to have the greatest influence over OCBs. In an effort to find which question contributed most to these results, an additional regression model was developed:

$$3. \text{OCBs} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \text{Q26LDR25} + \beta_2 * \text{Q28LDR29} + \beta_3 * \text{Q32TRA43} + \beta_4 * \text{Q42REC54} + \beta_5 * \text{Q43REC55} + \beta_6 * \text{Q44REC56} + \beta_7 * \text{EDULEVEL}$$

This regression model revealed that Q28LDR29 (My unit leadership motivates me to achieve our goals) had the greatest impact on OCBs. This result implies that managerial procedures greatly affect the outcome of OCBs. Since no rewards are present, intrinsic motivation is unaffected. This type of motivation could be interpreted as a form of verbal rewards. Since this reward scheme is unanticipated, intrinsic motivation increases.

The one problem that plagued this regression was normality. Two of the factors had data that was not normally distributed according to two measures: skewness and Kurtosis. CET was the only factor that had normally distributed data and was possible to

apply a t-test. The t-test concluded that the coefficient was significantly different from zero.

The fact that the data is not normally distributed does not impede with the findings. As mentioned in the previous chapter, an f-statistic is used to determine whether all of the coefficients are equal to zero, and as it was shown, CET was statistically different from zero. Since the model is now valid, some conclusions can be made regarding the relationship between the factors and OCBs.

Firstly, although JCT had non-normally distributed data, some of the findings coincide with previous research. Saavedra and Kwun (2000) found that autonomy affects the mood states which impact motivation. In the first regression model, autonomy was the factor that had the greatest influence on OCBs out of the core job dimensions. It can be asserted that autonomy contributes to job satisfaction, which leads to motivation.

The second regression model produced a coefficient of .153 which implies that a one change in JCT, results in a .153 change in OCBs. Although this number may initially appear small, it nonetheless impacts OCBs. As predicted, JCT is positively related to OCBs; when JCT increases, OCBs increase as well.

By merely increasing the amount of core job dimensions, OCBs experience a boost. This minimal increase permits organizations to reap the benefits of these behaviors. Individuals who exhibit OCBs are perceived to be more dedicated to the organization. This dedication is produced from motivation to improve the organization and feeling satisfaction for being proactive in establishing change.

JCT proposes that the core job dimensions lead to the critical psychological states which produce personal/work outcomes. In Chapter two it was theorized that the core job

dimensions led to the strength of the environments that harbor OCBs. Under this assumption, the greater a job is oriented towards adhering to the core job dimensions, the more likely OCBs will be developed. The progression can be summarized as core job dimensions lead to environments that harbor organizational citizenship behaviors, which finally produce OCBs. (For clarification purposes, the environments that harbor OCBs are those that produce them.)

Next, although education did not seem to be a primary factor in determining OCBs, it should be concluded that its impact is inconclusive; this could be a result of having non-normally distributed data. In the previous chapter it was stated that there were mixed findings regarding this factor's impact on OCBs.

Additional research, such as Dyne's (1998), attempts to explore the relationship between education levels and the presence of OCBs with two Singaporean employee groups: contingent and regular workers. Dyne defines contingent workers as "temporary or on call, and they receive few if any benefits, are not routinely considered for promotions, and cannot expect a steady work schedule or long-term employment."⁵ Both contingent and regular workers had roughly the same education attainment (2.42 and 2.23 respectively; where a 2 = two years of technical school and a 3 = college). The regression coefficients for education and its impact on OCBs based on work status were 0.12 and 0.07 for regular and contingent workers, respectively.⁶

Dyne's findings only calculate a .04 discrepancy in the education attainment of regular and contingent workers. Dyne's study supports the findings in this thesis that

⁵ (Dyne 1998, 692)

⁶ (Dyne 1998, 692)

education is positively related to the presence of OCBs. The second regression model calculated a coefficient of .042. One can interpret, based on this thesis and other publications, that education does have a minimal role in the demonstration of OCBs. However, more research is required to completely understand the relationship.

Lastly, CET pertains to the manner in which motivation is affected by external influences. CET was the factor in the first two regressions that contributed the most to OCBs. In the third regression model, where the CET's survey questions were expanded, the question that held the most statistical significance was: My unit leadership motivates me to achieve our goals. This question epitomizes that motivation is a key factor in determining if OCBs will be exhibited by individuals. This furthermore highlights that motivation can lead to the development of OCBs.

The questions employed in the regressions can be divided into five categories: challenging goals, adequate training, supervisor motivation, rewards and recognition. If an individual is presented with challenging goals, it serves as a reflection of competency. Essentially, the more difficult a goal is, the more competent an individual is perceived to be. Adequate training refers to how competent an individual feels. This feeling can be the product of feedback as well as through the presentation of rewards. The third category, supervisor motivation, is a form of verbal rewards. This approach provides reaffirmation of an individual's capabilities from a superior. Finally, rewards and recognition are both a type of reward. Employees wish to be awarded fairly while highlighting their abilities.

If the reward is used to acknowledge an individual's competence, intrinsic motivation will not be undermined. If on the other hand, rewards are utilized as a manner

to manipulate behavior, OCBs will not be as prominent. Since OCBs are extrarole behaviors, an individual will be less compelled to exhibit OCBs if a reward is not offered.

This finding suggests that supervisors need to strongly consider how to distribute rewards. Therefore, supervisors should adopt the usage of rewards and feedback when providing a reflection of competence and not to manipulate behavior. Since CET was the factor that affected OCBs the most, it should be highly considered if an organization wishes to produce OCBs. Deci et. al (1999) concluded that if an individual is aware that a reward will be offered, intrinsic motivation will be negatively affected. Hence supervisors should avoid providing an award for every well-performed task. If an employee expects a reward for every completed task, intrinsic motivation can be obliterated.

This thesis set out to examine the relationship between JCT, CET and OCBs with the notion that higher motivation would result in larger amounts of OCBs. This motivation is created by job satisfaction which would benefit an organization by experiencing lower turnover. The regression models provided evidence suggesting that JCT and CET are both positively related to the exhibition of OCBs. Higher levels of JCT and CET will lead to a greater demonstration of OCBs. It can therefore be concluded that job characteristics theory as well as cognitive evaluation theory positively impact organizational citizenship behaviors.

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