

Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Its Nature and Antecedents

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It is argued here that a category of performance called citizenship behavior is important in organizations and not easily explained by the same incentives that induce entry, conformity to contractual role prescriptions, or high production. A study of 422 employees and their supervisors from 58 departments of two banks sought to elaborate on the nature and predictors of citizenship behavior. Results suggest that citizenship behavior includes at least two separate dimensions: Altruism, or helping specific persons, and Generalized Compliance, a more impersonal form of conscientious citizenship. Job satisfaction, as a measure of chronic mood state, showed a direct predictive path to Altruism but not Generalized Compliance. Rural background had direct effects on both dimensions of citizenship behavior. The predictive power of other variables (e.g., leader supportiveness as assessed independently by co-workers, personality measures) varied across the two dimensions of citizenship behavior.

Nearly two decades ago, Katz (1964) identified three basic types of behavior essential for a functioning organization: (a) People must be induced to enter and remain within the system, (b) they must carry out specific role requirements in a dependable fashion; and (c) there must be innovative and spontaneous activity that goes beyond role prescriptions. Concerning this third category, Katz noted, "An organization which depends solely upon its blue-prints of prescribed behavior is a very fragile social system" (p. 132). Every factory, office, or bureau depends daily on a myriad of acts of cooperation, helpfulness, suggestions, gestures of goodwill, altruism, and other instances of what we might call citizenship behavior.

Citizenship behaviors comprise a dimension of individual and group functioning that Roethlisberger and Dickson (1964) seemed to have in mind when they used the term *cooperation*. A close reading of the concluding chapters (22-26) in *Management and the Worker* reveals that cooperation refers to something other than productivity. The latter

was regarded as a function of the formal organization (the authority structure, role specifications, technology) and the "logic of facts." Cooperation, on the other hand, referred to acts that served more of a maintenance purpose, to "maintain internal equilibrium." Cooperation thus included the day-to-day spontaneous prosocial gestures of individual accommodation to the work needs of others (e.g., co-workers, supervisor, clients in other departments), whereas productivity (or efficiency) was determined by the formal or economic structure of the organization. Roethlisberger and Dickson viewed cooperation as a product of informal organization and, significantly, the "logic of sentiment." The latter was seen as influenced both by the quality of work experience and by previous social conditioning.

Failure to recognize these subtle distinctions may account for the often-voiced criticism (e.g., Lawler & Porter, 1967) of the Hawthorne research and "Human Relations" school as naively proposing that satisfaction causes performance. To be sure, Roethlisberger and Dickson implied that, at the aggregate level of analysis (e.g., the firm) and over the long run, efficiency and cooperation were interdependent with each other. But at the individual level of analysis, the emphasis on sentiment was due to the presumed connection to cooperation, or citizenship behavior.

Substantively, citizenship behaviors are im-

The data reported in this article are drawn from a doctoral dissertation project conducted by the first author, who died on April 27, 1982. She was posthumously awarded the degree of Doctorate in Business Administration in August, 1982.

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portant because they lubricate the social machinery of the organization. They provide the flexibility needed to work through many unforeseen contingencies, they enable participants to cope with the otherwise awesome condition of interdependence on each other. Theoretically, they are of interest precisely because they cannot, as Katz noted, be accounted for by the same motivational bases as those that induce people to join, stay, and perform within contractual, enforceable role prescriptions. Because citizenship behavior goes beyond formal role requirements, it is not easily enforced by the threat of sanctions. Furthermore, much of what we call citizenship behavior is not easily governed by individual incentive schemes, because such behavior is often subtle, difficult to measure, may contribute more to others' performance than one's own, and may even have the effect of sacrificing some portion of one's immediate individual output. To be sure, frequent acts of citizenship behavior will often be noted by organization officials (e.g., supervisors), and undoubtedly this has some influence on subjective appraisals of individual performance. But given the infrequency and unsystematic nature of most appraisal systems, coupled with the fact that many supervisors have limited control over formal rewards, it seems unlikely that most of the variance in "good citizen" behavior is explained by the calculated anticipation that they will pay off in largesse for the person. Consider, by analogy, the larger social order. A society functions for better or for worse as a consequence of the frequency of many acts of citizenship (i.e., spontaneous charitable acts to specific others, as well as more impersonal prosocial conduct) that are either not required by law or are essentially unenforceable by the usual incentives or sanctions. Thus, it would seem to be a worthwhile exercise to inquire into the antecedents of such behavior in organizations.

Determinants of Citizenship Behavior

Because much of what we call citizenship behavior has an altruistic character, it seemed worthwhile to explore the social psychology literature for determinants of altruism. The results of a number of studies (e.g., Berkowitz & Connor, 1966; Isen, 1970; Isen & Levin,

1972; Levin & Isen, 1975) can be summarized by concluding that mood state influences the probability of prosocial gestures. Subjects in whom a mood of positive affect had been induced—whether by prior success on a challenging task, the good fortune of receiving some windfall, or simply quiet meditation on past enjoyable experiences—were more likely to behave altruistically. Conversely, subjects in whom a negative mood (e.g., of frustration, disappointment, anger) had been aroused were less likely to show prosocial behavior. Thus, we might tentatively propose that job satisfaction, to the extent that it represents a characteristic or enduring positive mood state, would account for some portion of citizenship behavior.

Bateman and Organ (Note 1) found that job satisfaction, as measured by the Job Descriptive Index, did correlate with the extent of citizenship behavior as independently rated by supervisors. However, this study, which was characterized by a longitudinal, two-wave panel design, found the association to be limited to the concurrent correlations; there was no significant difference in the cross-lagged correlations. Thus, the correlation did not really pass the test of spuriousness. The authors suggested that other environmental factors (e.g., leader supportiveness) or individual attributes (e.g., traits, such as neuroticism) might independently affect both satisfaction and citizenship behavior.

On a general level, three alternative models, as shown in Figure 1, invite scrutiny. The first of these is consonant with a mood explanation of citizenship behavior. In this scheme, characteristic level of job satisfaction predicts citizenship behavior. Environmental and individual difference variables affect citizenship behavior only indirectly via satisfaction. The second model would accord a direct linkage from environmental and personality factors to citizenship behavior with concurrent, independent effects of those factors on satisfaction, thus rendering satisfaction and citizenship behavior correlated but functionally unrelated. The third model would account for citizenship behavior by a combination of direct effects from environmental and personality variables as well as indirect effects through satisfaction.

What environmental dimensions have direct implications for citizenship behavior and why?

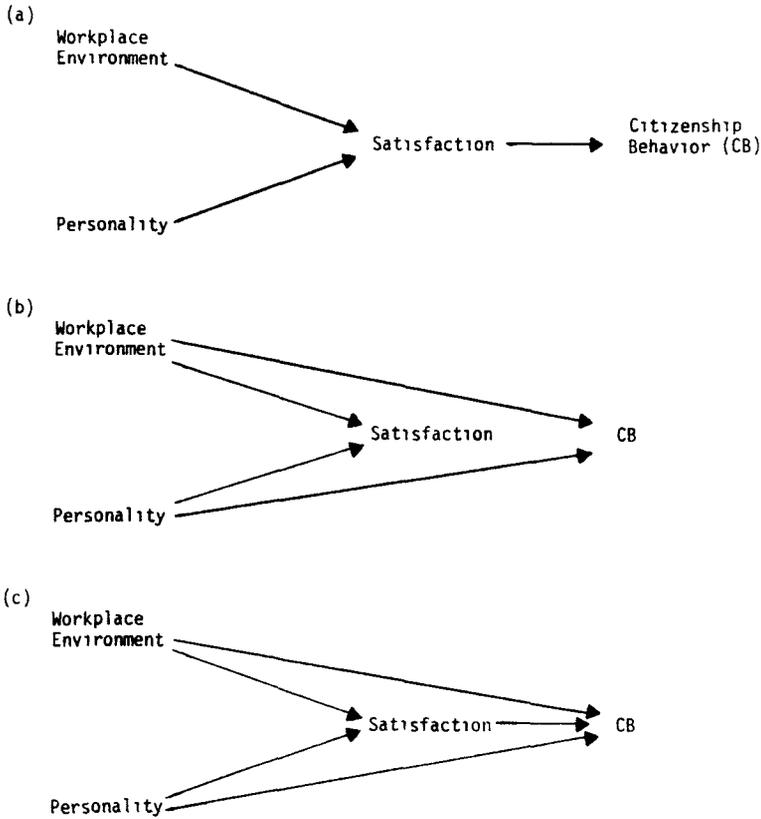


Figure 1 Competing models of prosystem maintenance behavior

Leader supportiveness may represent one such dimension, for two reasons. First of all, much of supervisor consideration is, in itself, citizenship behavior (i.e., discretionary acts aimed at helping others). Thus, the supervisor serves to some extent as a model, and social psychological studies (e.g., as reviewed by Krebs, 1970, and Berkowitz, 1970) strongly suggest that many forms of prosocial behavior are influenced by models. Models provide cues for what behavior is appropriate and make salient the situational needs for prosocial gestures. Second, at some point leader supportiveness initiates a pattern of exchange that is social and noncontractual in character (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). The exchange becomes subject to broader norms of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) or equity (Adams, 1965). Subordinates may choose citizenship behavior as a means of reciprocation to superiors. Moreover, they may choose citizenship behavior, as opposed to increased productivity,

because variation in the latter is more constrained by ability, work scheduling, or task design. And such reciprocity may occur net of any effect of supportiveness on general job satisfaction, because the latter may be largely determined by factors (e.g., pay) beyond the supervisor's control.

A second environmental variable possibly directly affecting citizenship behavior is task interdependence. Specifically, task groups characterized by reciprocal interdependence should display more citizenship behavior than groups in which independence or sequential dependence is the rule. Reciprocal interdependence, according to Thompson (1967), requires frequent instances of spontaneous mutual adjustment in order to effect coordination. This requirement presumably fosters social norms of cooperation, helping, and sensitivity to others' needs and makes salient a collective sense of social responsibility (Krebs, 1970). At the same time, it tends to promote, *ceteris*

paribus, higher levels of group cohesion than other task environments (Seashore, 1954); thus, because cohesion influences satisfaction, task interdependence is a potential source of common variance in both mood and citizenship behavior.

Citizenship behavior may represent just one manifestation of a broader disposition toward prosocial behavior. Insofar as individual attributes are concerned, the social psychology literature on altruism (Krebs, 1970) suggests that extraversion is positively correlated with prosocial behavior and that neuroticism (emotional instability) bears a negative relationship with such behavior. Extraverts tend to be more sensitive to their external environments, more sensitive to social stimuli, and more prone to spontaneity in behavior. Those who score high in neuroticism tend to be more preoccupied with their own anxieties and presumably do not have the emotional stamina to concern themselves with others' problems or general system requirements unrelated to their own immediate needs.

More recent research attests to the existence of a stable dimension of individual differences concerning "belief in a just world" (Lerner & Miller, 1978). And there is evidence (Zuckerman, 1975) that persons strongly endorsing this belief system are more likely to exhibit prosocial behavior. Presumably, individuals who have such beliefs are confident that they will, somehow and in good time, be rewarded for any charitable or responsible conduct (i.e., they accept the admonition from Ecclesiastes 11:1, "Cast thy bread upon the waters: for thou shalt find it after many days").

Finally, certain demographic variables have, with varying degrees of consistency, been cited as predictors of altruism or other forms of prosocial behavior. Ordinal birth position appears to have some significance in this regard, with firstborn subjects found to show more altruism (Krebs, 1970). A review by Gergen, Gergen, and Meter (1972) suggests educational level to be positively correlated with general social responsibility. The significance of urban versus rural origins with respect to altruism is more tenuous (Hansson, Slade, & Slade, 1978). In a work setting, one might expect to see more citizenship behavior displayed by those of rural or small-town origins, if we accept the hypothesis that such persons more

readily endorse a work ethic (Hulin & Blood, 1968) such that citizenship behavior is an end in itself.

In summary, this study attempted to assess the extent to which "good citizenship" behavior could be accounted for by characteristic mood state and the extent to which certain environmental forces and individual difference variables could independently predict citizenship behavior.

Method

Sample

Employees and their supervisors, representing 77 departments of two banks of a large midwestern city, participated in the study. During working hours, the subordinates in each department responded to a questionnaire that contained measures of general job satisfaction, personality, leader supportiveness, task interdependence, and items asking for demographic information. Within each department, employees were randomly divided into two groups: (a) subjects, from whom only the satisfaction, personality, and demographic data were used, and (b) descriptors, from whom only the responses concerning leader supportiveness and task interdependence were used. The responses of the descriptors within each department were averaged to provide indices of supervisor supportiveness and task interdependence as environmental factors, procedurally independent of the subjects' responses to satisfaction and individual difference measures. Supervisors responded to a separate questionnaire that asked them to assess each of their subordinates on items comprising a measure of citizenship behavior. The complete set of supervisory assessments of all subordinates was used only in preliminary analyses in order to assess psychometric properties of the citizenship behavior measure. Their assessments of the randomly selected subjects only were used in the major analyses of relationships among variables.

Work units with fewer than four subordinates were eliminated so that the subject and descriptor groups in each department would contain at least two persons. In units with an odd number of employees, the extra respondent was assigned to the subject group. Ultimately, usable data were obtained from 58 departments with 422 respondents, of whom 220 served as subjects and 202 as descriptors.

Measures

Citizenship behavior was defined by the 16 items shown in Table 1. These items represent the final product of semistructured interviews with a number of managers representing other organizations not included in the study. These managers were asked to identify instances of helpful, but not absolutely required, job behavior. A pool of such items was pilot tested with a group of 67 full-time employed managers enrolled in evening business classes in an urban campus setting. Respondents were asked to think of an employee who worked or had worked for them and to rate, on a 5-point scale, how characteristic each statement

Table 1
Principal-Factor Analysis With Varimax Rotation Citizenship Behavior

Item	Factor 1 Altruism	Factor 2 Generalized Compliance
1 Helps others who have been absent	<u>81</u>	24
2 Punctuality	23	<u>61</u>
3 Volunteers for things that are not required	<u>78</u>	28
4 Takes undeserved breaks ^a	21	<u>52</u>
5 Orients new people even though it is not required	<u>72</u>	04
6 Attendance at work is above the norm	21	<u>59</u>
7 Helps others who have heavy work loads	<u>76</u>	31
8 Coasts towards the end of the day ^a	33	.39
9 Gives advance notice if unable to come to work	22	<u>52</u>
10 Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations ^a	12	<u>51</u>
11 Does not take unnecessary time off work	07	<u>62</u>
12 Assists supervisor with his or her work	<u>70</u>	25
13 Makes innovative suggestions to improve department	<u>76</u>	08
14 Does not take extra breaks	06	<u>63</u>
15 Attend functions not required but that help company image	39	.34
16 Does not spend time in idle conversation	<u>11</u>	<u>55</u>
Eigenvalue	5.40	2.17
Percent variance explained	38.6	15.5
Cumulative percentage of variance explained	38.6	54.1

Note: Factor loadings of .50 and above are underscored.
^a Reversed scoring.

was of the employee. The responses were submitted to factor analysis, with communality estimates in the diagonals and using orthogonal varimax rotation. Results suggested two fairly interpretable and distinct factors, and the same factor structure emerged from responses of the 422 persons in the present study.

Factor 1 (see Table 1) appears to capture behavior that is directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in face-to-face situations (e.g., orienting new people, assisting someone with a heavy workload). The eliciting stimulus, in other words, is someone needing aid, as in the fashion of social psychological studies of altruism. Thus, this dimension is referred to as Altruism.

Factor 2, by contrast, pertains to a more impersonal form of conscientiousness that does not provide immediate aid to any one specific person, but rather is indirectly helpful to others involved in the system. The behavior (e.g., punctuality, not wasting time) seems to represent something akin to compliance with internalized norms defining what a "good employee ought to do." This factor will be referred to as Generalized Compliance. Only those items loading above .50 on one factor and less than .50 on the other were scored. Coefficient alpha reliability estimates were .88 and .85, respectively, for the two factors.

For data analytic purposes in the major part of this study, factor scores were estimated by simple summation of subjects' scores on the items loading on each factor. As shown below, this resulted in a correlation of .45 ($p < .001$) between the two supposedly independent factors.

This result prompted a reexamination of the factor structure, this time using an oblique rotation. The factor structure that emerged was identical to that produced by orthogonal rotation, with virtually identical loadings, and the factor pattern correlation was .43, virtually identical to that obtained when using unit weights to estimate factor scores. Thus, given the method used here to estimate factor scores, the question of orthogonality did not make much difference empirically, because either assumption ultimately led to the same degree of relatedness. Conceptually, it seems more plausible to assume some degree of association between the factors, given the nature of what the constructs are intended to represent.

Job satisfaction. Scott's (1967) semantic differential scale of the concept "me at work" was used. This measure consists of 20 bipolar adjectives separated by 7-point scales. Only those adjectives (e.g., satisfied-dissatisfied, penalized-rewarded, interested-bored) shown to load on the factor Affective Tone were used as the measure of facet-free generalized job satisfaction as a chronic mood state.

Leader supportiveness. The measure used in this study was the Supportive Leadership Behavior scale, developed by House and Dessler (1974). It consists of 10 questions drawn from Form XII of the Ohio State Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Stogdill, 1965). Seven items tapping other dimensions of leader behavior were used solely as filler items.

Task interdependence. The instrument used was an index developed by Van de Ven, Delbecq, and Koenig

(1976), which pictorially describes jobs on a continuum of independent, sequentially dependent, reciprocally dependent, and team work. Employees were asked to indicate what percent of the total work flow within their units conformed to each of the four types of work. Responses were weighted (i.e., from 1 for independent work to 4 for team work) in the direction of increased interdependence. Thus the score for any one person's responses could range from 100 to 400.

Extraversion and neuroticism These were measured by Eysenck's (1958) short version of his Maudsley Personality Inventory. The instrument contains six questions for each of the personality dimensions and four questions to comprise a lie scale. Each question is answered yes or no. Eysenck's (1958) findings suggest that the compactness of this short form does not unduly compromise the psychometric strengths of the longer version.

Belief in a Just World This is a measure developed by Rubin and Peplau (1973) to reflect the extent to which a person believes that people experience the fates that they deserve. Respondents indicate their agreement or disagreement with 16 statements on a 6-point scale. Studies by Rubin and Peplau (1973), Zuckerman (1975), and Miller (1977) attest to the adequacy of the instrument's psychometric properties.

Demographic measures Respondents were asked to report their sex, age, number of years of schooling, years with the company, and years in present position. They were also asked whether they were raised in the country (scored as 1), in a small city with population less than 100,000 (2), or in a city of over 100,000 people (3), and whether they were only-born children (scored as 1), first-born (2), second born (3), and so forth, up to fifth-or-more born (6).

Only the supervisors responded to the Altruism and Generalized Compliance items, thus they did in rating all of their individual subordinates. The subordinates themselves answered the questions in the remaining measures. The entire sample of 422 subordinates was used only for establishing psychometric soundness and factorial structure of the instruments. Otherwise, the job satisfaction, extraversion, neuroticism, belief in a just world, and demographic item scores were used only for those respondents randomly selected within each department as subjects. The leader supportiveness and task interdependence scores were used only from those respondents within each department who remained as descriptors. Within each department or work unit, the descriptors' scores for those two environmental variables were averaged to provide the best independent assessment of those variables.

Results

The use of averaged descriptor scores of the two environmental variables within each department is appropriate only if there is reliably greater variance in scores between departments than within work units. Thus, an analysis of variance of the leader supportiveness and task interdependence measures, by department, was performed. The results showed highly significant differences across departments for

both leader supportiveness, $F(57, 144) = 2.57$, $p < .001$ ($\eta^2 = .49$), and task interdependence, $F(57, 144) = 2.64$, $p < .001$ ($\eta^2 = .50$). These results correspond to an averaged interrater reliability of .70 or higher.

The zero-order correlations between the measures for the 220 subjects are shown in Table 2. The coefficient alpha reliability estimates for the entire sample are shown on the diagonal (omitting reliability estimates for one-item measures). Company identity is included as a variable, because there were significant differences between the two organizations in overall leader supportiveness and task interdependence scores.

Since Altruism and Generalized Compliance emerged as independent factors from the analysis of the citizenship behavior measure, the two factors were treated in separate regression analyses. Structural equation modeling (i.e., path analysis; Heise, 1969) was the analytic tool used. Using Heise's (1969) "theory trimming" approach, each of the two factors was regressed on the total set of environmental, personality, and demographic variables. "Trivial paths"—defined as those involving a standardized regression coefficient (path coefficient) of less than twice its standard error—were then deleted. Those variables surviving the trimming process were interpreted as having direct effects on the criterion. The path analysis was continued in order to identify variables having indirect effects on Altruism and Compliance; that is, each variable having a direct effect on either criterion was in turn regressed on the remaining environmental, personality, and demographic variables, and the trimming process was repeated.

The results of this procedure are shown for Altruism in Figure 2. The significant direct effects are those due to job satisfaction, education, and urban/rural background (those from smaller cities and rural areas displayed more altruism than those from large cities). Leader supportiveness and neuroticism were related to Altruism only indirectly through their effect on satisfaction. The remaining variables—task interdependence, extraversion, belief in a just world, and other demographic items—had no significant direct effect paths to Altruism nor indirect paths through satisfaction. The multiple correlation produced by the model is .40 ($R^2 = .16$, shrunken $R^2 = .12$).

Table 2
Intercorrelations Between Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1 Altruism	.91																
2 Compliance	.44	.81															
3 Job satisfaction	.31	.21	.84														
4 Company	.06	-.02	-.07	—													
5 Age	.00	.19	.10	-.08	—												
6 Sex	-.01	.07	.03	-.05	.10	—											
7 Years with company	-.04	-.08	-.08	.12	.60	.12	—										
8 Years in position	-.06	.00	-.04	.00	.50	.07	.69	—									
9 Education	.27	.10	.10	.13	-.08	-.26	-.14	-.13	—								
10 Birth order	.00	-.14	.15	-.06	-.16	.10	-.21	-.09	-.05	—							
11 Urban/rural	-.20	-.21	-.15	-.06	-.16	.02	-.08	-.11	-.01	-.00	—						
12 Belief in just world	.00	-.09	-.11	-.09	-.11	-.04	-.03	-.03	.16	-.08	.17	.62					
13 Neuroticism	-.19	-.13	-.21	.05	-.03	.13	.02	.06	-.14	-.06	.09	-.10	.68				
14 Extraversion	-.07	-.05	.02	.12	-.04	-.01	-.03	-.07	-.06	.07	.02	-.12	.02	.44			
15 Leader supportiveness	.05	.18	.26	-.33	.11	-.10	-.20	-.10	.17	-.04	-.03	.03	-.12	.06	.86		
16 Task interdependence	.09	.08	.06	.23	.05	-.18	.04	.00	.13	.07	-.01	.04	-.06	-.05	.02	—	
17 Lie scale	-.06	.21	.08	-.04	.12	.14	.13	-.01	-.07	.04	-.05	-.16	-.01	.04	-.01	-.04	.44

Note $n = 220$ (includes satisfaction, personality, and demographic data from subject group, supervisor ratings of subject group, and descriptor measures of leader supportiveness and task interdependence) Coefficient alpha reliability estimates are shown on the diagonal (omitting estimates for one-item measures)

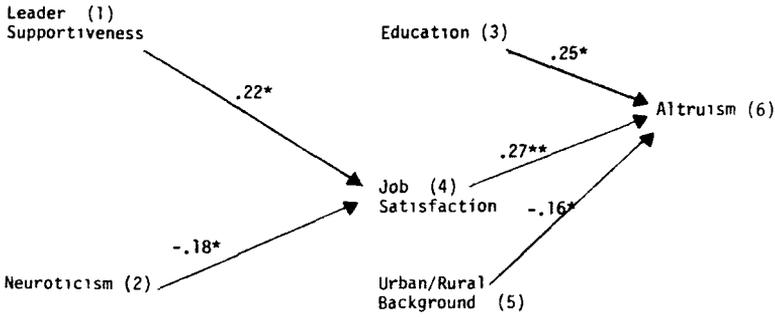


Figure 2 Altruism model with path coefficients (* $p \leq .05$ ** $p \leq .005$)

The path analytic model of Generalized Compliance is shown in Figure 3. In this instance, job satisfaction did not show a direct path. Leader supportiveness had a direct path unmediated by satisfaction. Again, urban/rural origin had a direct path. Surprisingly, subjects' lie scale scores on the Eysenck (1958) instrument showed a significant direct path. Again, task interdependence had no direct or indirect effects; nor did the personality measures. The model yields a multiple correlation of .34 ($R^2 = .12$, shrunken $R^2 = .08$)

Table 3 shows the comparison between the actual correlations of variables in the models and the expected correlations implied by the paths and their coefficients. The Altruism model understates the correlation between neuroticism and altruism by a fair margin; otherwise the discrepancies are minimal and the models present a reasonably good fit to the data.

There are, however, certain sources of ambiguity attendant to the interpretation and evaluation of the causal models. One point of equivocality arises because the data were collapsed across companies and also across departments. Any main effects of company and department could be erroneously attributed to the predictor variables in the models. Thus,

analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to attempt to sort out these effects.

ANCOVA of Altruism by company, with job satisfaction, education, and urban/rural origin as covariates showed no significant effect of company membership ($F = .012$), nor did the corresponding ANCOVA of Compliance ($F = .27$).

However, ANCOVAs by department showed significant main effects due to department on both Altruism and Compliance. For Altruism, the effect ($p < .02$) of department lowered to borderline significance the effects of both urban/rural origin ($p < .10$) and education ($p < .16$); the effect of job satisfaction remained highly significant ($p < .001$). For Compliance, isolating the effect of department ($p < .001$) reduced the effect of leader supportiveness ($p < .25$), but the effects of the lie scale ($p < .05$) and urban rural origin ($p < .001$) remained significant.

One can only speculate, from the available data, as to why there were significant effects on both types of citizenship behavior due to department, net of the effect of other variables measured. It is quite likely that this reflects in part some difference in response set (e.g., leniency) due to different supervisors, whereas the other predictors captured more intrarater

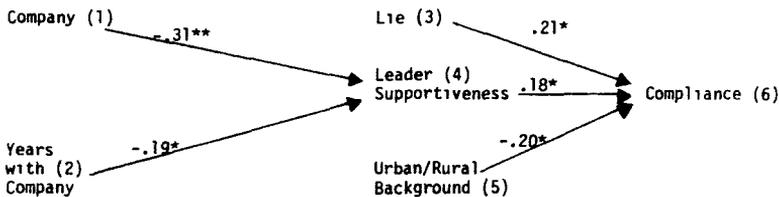


Figure 3 Compliance model with path coefficients (* $p \leq .05$ ** $p \leq .001$.)

Table 3
Test of Goodness of Fit of Models

Correlation	Predicted	Actual	Discrepancy
Altruism model			
r_{16}	.06	.05	-.01
r_{26}	-.05	-.19	-.14
r_{36}	.25	.27	.02
r_{46}	.27	.31	.04
r_{56}	-.16	-.20	-.04
r_{14}	.22	.26	.04
r_{24}	-.18	-.21	-.03
Compliance model			
r_{16}	-.06	-.02	.04
r_{26}	-.03	-.08	-.05
r_{36}	.21	.21	.00
r_{46}	.18	.18	.00
r_{56}	-.20	-.21	-.01
r_{14}	-.31	-.33	-.02
r_{24}	-.19	-.20	-.01

differences. It may also be due in part to a difference in some task dimension other than interdependence (e.g., task complexity, urgency) or group cohesion.

Another point of equivocality arises from the use of separate causal models for Altruism and Compliance, as if they were independent, when in fact they were appreciably correlated. Thus, a canonical correlation analysis was performed between the group of predictor variables as one set and Altruism and Compliance as the other set. The first pair of canonical variates correlated .44 (eigen value = .20). The criterion variate was dominated by Altruism with a loading of .93 and a structural coefficient of .99. The dominant loadings on the predictor variate were job satisfaction, education, and urban/rural origin. The second pair of covariates correlated .33 (eigen value = .11) and was dominated by Compliance on the criterion side (loading = 1.10, structural coefficient = .93) and by the lie scale and consideration on the predictor side, with urban/rural origin showing a borderline contribution. On the whole, then, the canonical correlation analysis produced results consistent with the causal models.

A final note of caution concerns the "bootstrapping" nature of generating the causal models. This may produce somewhat eccentric results in the regression that are unlikely to replicate. For example, job satisfaction had

the highest zero-order correlation with Compliance of any of the potential predictor variables yet did not figure in the causal model derived from the regression. This could, of course, occur if the variance shared between job satisfaction and Compliance were spread thinly over a number of other variables correlating with Compliance. Nonetheless, it would seem somewhat premature, given this pattern of data, to rule out some direct effect of satisfaction on Compliance.

Discussion

The findings suggest that there are at least two fairly distinct classes of citizenship behavior and that they are best accounted for in different fashions.

One type of citizenship behavior, Altruism, emerges as a class of helping behaviors aimed directly at specific persons. The eliciting stimuli appear to be situational, that is, someone has a problem, needs assistance, or requests a service. It resembles very much the forms of helping behavior previously studied by social psychologists (e.g., Berkowitz, 1972) in experimental or nonwork contexts. Consistent with many of those studies, Altruism here was strongly influenced by a "mood" of positive affect, defined for this study by job satisfaction as a characteristic mood state (i.e., higher job satisfaction suggests a more frequent or chronic state of good mood at work). Leader supportiveness, as an environmental factor, influenced Altruism only indirectly through its effect on satisfaction. The relationship between leader supportiveness and satisfaction could not be dismissed as common method or "same-source" variance, because the data came from different sources—descriptors and subjects.

It is more difficult to interpret the effects of education and urban/rural origin. Their effects were not mediated by satisfaction, indeed they were not reliably correlated with satisfaction. Conceivably, years of education is a rough surrogate for social class background. Krebs's (1970) review cited studies that showed greater frequency of altruism, and presumably a greater sense of social responsibility, among middle-class than among working-class subjects. Also, formal education might lead to a greater awareness of common fate among members of a social unit or simply make peo-

ple more competent to render constructive help.

The effect of rural or small-town origin on Altruism might be interpreted as part of the Protestant Work Ethic syndrome (Merrens & Garrett, 1975), such that people who endorse this ethic do what they believe a "good worker ought to do," regardless of mood or the likelihood of immediate instrumental reward. One might also invoke Milgram's (1970) notion of "stimulus overload." This explanation would argue that people from urban settings learn to cope with overstimulation from the physical and social environment by screening out many social stimuli, thus decreasing their sensitivity to others' needs. Foa and Foa (1976) suggested that the anonymity and overload occasioned by city environments lead to a dependence on more formalized and contractual transactions, with correspondingly less inclination toward noncontractual or diffuse exchange based on trust and personal needs.

Generalized Compliance emerged as a class of citizenship behavior factorially distinct from Altruism. Whereas Altruism appeared to represent the help accorded to specific persons as the situation prompted it, Generalized Compliance is a factor defined by a more impersonal sort of conscientiousness, more of a "good soldier" or "good citizen" syndrome of doing things that are "right and proper" but for the sake of the system rather than for specific persons. Perhaps not surprisingly, the path-analytic model accounting for this behavior differed substantially from the model explaining Altruism.

What was surprising was that the best direct predictor of Generalized Compliance was the subject's score on the 4-item lie scale. This cannot be dismissed as artifactual common method variance, because the criterion ratings came from the supervisor. More plausible is the notion that lie scale scores on the personality inventory reflect a need for social approval. Thus, norms dictating Generalized Compliance may exert more hold on persons who seek approval by conducting themselves in a socially desirable fashion.

Leader supportiveness also showed a direct effect on Generalized Compliance. Unlike the Altruism model, the effect here was not mediated by job satisfaction (satisfaction was uncorrelated with the criterion when controlling

for leader supportiveness). This can not easily be explained by the reversed causal sequence (i.e., that the supervisors were more considerate to those most compliant), because the leader supportiveness measure was obtained from Descriptor rather than Subject responses. However, such a causal direction is somewhat plausible as a rival explanation for the supervisory unit as a whole, if a history of mutually agreeable work relationships had led to a high level of compliance throughout and the supervisor was highly supportive of the whole group. Otherwise, leader supportiveness may function as a model for certain forms of citizenship behavior or it may elicit such behavior as reciprocation in social exchange.

To account for the effect of urban/rural origin, we can offer no explanation beyond that given for its effect on Altruism.

One of the banks showed generally higher scores for leader supportiveness, and longer tenured employees reported greater leader supportiveness. We can offer no explanation of why such relationships existed, but they did give rise to indirect effects on Generalized Compliance via leader supportiveness.

Task interdependence, extraversion, belief in a just world, and birth order showed no predictive value in direct or indirect effects on either dimension of citizenship behavior. The effects of such variables may be attenuated in the work setting (or the particular settings studied), or they may have effects on other aspects of citizenship behavior not examined in this study.

Referring back to Figure 1, the most tenable model at this point would seem to be the third one. In other words, satisfaction appears to have some manner of direct effect on some forms of citizenship behavior. However, this effect is likely to be overestimated unless due regard is given to other variables that may be correlated with satisfaction and also exert their own effects on citizenship behavior. The results here suggest, at the very least, that there are nonaffective determinants of altruism and generalized compliance.

The citizenship behavior measure used was rather simplistic, and the dimensionality of citizenship behavior based on the measure can scarcely be regarded as definitive. The study did not address longitudinal relationships, so the causal models used to interpret the findings

must be viewed as somewhat arbitrary, regardless of the goodness of fit. Nonetheless, the results show enough consistency with previous social psychological studies of prosocial behavior to warrant confidence in the general conceptual and methodological approaches taken here. There were unexpected results sufficiently interesting to suggest that citizenship behavior in the work setting is worthy of study in its own right.

Reference Note

- 1 Bateman, T S., & Organ, D W *Job satisfaction and the good soldier* Paper presented at the meeting of the Academy of Management, New York, 1982

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