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Ethical work climate, covenantal relations, and organizational citizenship behavior

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**ETHICAL WORK CLIMATE, COVENANTAL
RELATIONS, AND ORGANIZATIONAL
CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR**

by

Elizabeth C. Schubert, B.S., M.P.A.

**A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Business Administration**

**COLLEGE OF ADMINISTRATION AND BUSINESS
LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY**

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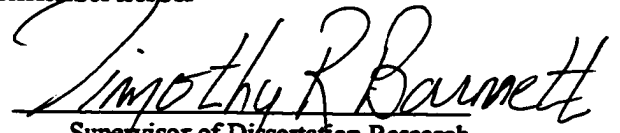
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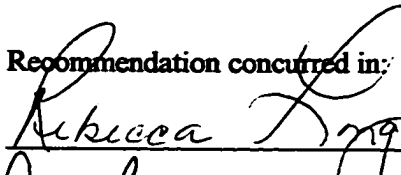
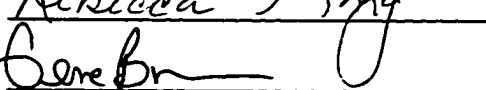
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entitled Ethical Work Climate, Covenantal Relations,
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ABSTRACT

The primary focus of this study was to provide an empirical evaluation of the relationship between perceptions of ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behavior. The study also investigated covenantal relations as a mediator of that relationship.

The sample for this research was comprised of subordinates and supervisors representing two locations of a national retail sales organization. Data were collected using both subordinate and supervisor responses. Subordinates reported on their perceptions of ethical work climate, covenantal relations between themselves and the organization, and their organizational citizenship behavior. Supervisors reported their perceptions of the subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior. Scales used to measure the constructs have been previously reported in the literature and have been tested for validity and reliability. The primary statistical technique used to test the research hypotheses was mediated regression analysis.

The data in this study support the multidimensionality of both ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behavior. Respondents differentiated among four ethical work climates: self-interest, proximal and distal benevolence, and rules and codes, which had varied effects on organizational citizenship behavior. Respondents also distinguished among three forms of organizational citizenship behavior: obedience, loyalty, and participation.

Regression results supported the hypotheses that covenantal relations was associated with ethical work climate. Results generally supported the relationship between covenantal relations and the subordinates' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior. General support was also found for the relationship between ethical work climate and subordinate perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior. Covenantal relations was supported as a mediator of that relationship. However, these hypotheses were not supported when supervisors' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior were studied.

These findings suggest that managers should build and foster covenantal relations to promote organizational citizenship behaviors. The findings also imply that managers may affect individual behavior by developing and promoting certain types of ethical work climates. Important implications may also be drawn from the perceptual differences between the supervisors and the subordinates regarding these relationships.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	iii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	x
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	xiii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
The Development of the OCB Construct.....	4
The Importance of Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	7
Need for Further Research.....	8
Statement of the Problem.....	10
Objectives of the Study.....	11
Definitions.....	12
Ethical Work Climate.....	12
Covenantal Relations.....	13
Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	13
Contributions of the Study.....	14
The Research Process.....	14
Plan of Study.....	16
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	17

Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	17
Precursive Research.....	18
Traditional Conceptualizations of OCB.....	20
Construct Development of OCB: Traditional Perspectives.....	24
Altruism.....	24
Conscientiousness.....	26
Sportsmanship.....	27
Courtesy.....	27
Civic Virtue.....	28
Reconceptualization of OCB in Terms of Political Theory.....	29
Relational Ties.....	30
Citizenship Rights.....	32
Citizenship Responsibilities.....	33
Construct Development of OCB in Terms of Political Theory.....	34
Organizational Obedience.....	34
Organizational Loyalty.....	34
Organizational Participation.....	35
Ethical Work Climate.....	36
Work Climate Research.....	37
Conceptualization of Ethical Work Climate.....	38
Ethical Criteria.....	39
Loci of Analysis.....	40

Construct Development of Ethical Work Climate.....	41
Research Variables.....	42
Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	42
Organizational Citizenship Behavior Research.....	44
Satisfaction-Performance (OCB) Relationship.....	45
OCB and Fairness Cognitions.....	48
OCB and the Nature of the Relationship Between the Individual and the Organization.....	52
Covenantal Relations.....	58
Covenantal Relations Research.....	62
Ethical Work Climate.....	70
Ethical Work Climate Research.....	72
Summary.....	79
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	80
Research Hypotheses.....	80
Operationalization of the Variables.....	89
Ethical Work Climate.....	90
Covenantal Relations.....	92
Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	98
Research Instrument.....	99
Design of the Study.....	101
Scale Reliability and Validity.....	102

Ethical Work Climate.....	102
Covenantal Relations.....	105
Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	105
Statistical Methodology.....	108
Chapter Summary.....	110
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSIS.....	111
Demographic Characteristics of Sample.....	111
Factor Analyses.....	114
Ethical Work Climate.....	114
Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	119
Measurement Scale Reliability.....	124
Descriptive Statistics.....	125
Self-Interest.....	126
Rules and Codes.....	126
Distal Benevolence.....	129
Proximal Benevolence.....	130
Covenantal Relationships.....	130
Loyalty.....	131
Obedience.....	131
Participation.....	132
Self-Loyalty.....	133
Self-Obedience.....	133

Self-Participation	134
Correlations	134
Tests of Hypotheses	137
Summary of Hypothesis Testing	148
Chapter Summary	152
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS	153
Research Findings, Conclusions, and Implications	153
Multidimensionality of Organizational Citizenship Behavior	154
Multidimensionality of Ethical Work Climate	154
Covenantal Relations and Organizational Citizenship Behavior	155
Ethical Work Climate and Covenantal Relations	158
Ethical Work Climate and Organizational Citizenship Behavior	160
Mediating Effect of Covenantal Relations	163
Directions for Future Research	164
Limitations of the Study	166
Research Design	166
Self-Reporting of Behavioral Measures	167
Sample Composition	168
Contributions of the Study	168
APPENDIX: DISSERTATION QUESTIONNAIRE	170
BIBLIOGRAPHY	186

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1	Criteria Used to Define OCB.....	23
Table 2.2	Research Identifying Dimensions of OCB.....	25
Table 2.3	Theoretical Ethical Climate Types.....	41
Table 2.4	Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	44
Table 2.5	Research Regarding OCB Measures and Satisfaction Indices.....	47
Table 2.6	Research Regarding OCB and Fairness Cognitions.....	49
Table 2.7	Research Regarding OCB and the Nature of the Relationship Between the Individual and the Organization.....	54
Table 2.8	Variables Related to Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	56
Table 2.9	Typology of Relational Ties.....	58
Table 2.10	Research Regarding Covenantal Relations and Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	64
Table 2.11	Research Regarding Ethical Work Climate.....	73
Table 2.12	Theoretical and Empirical Dimensions of Ethical Work Climate.....	74
Table 3.1	Operational Definitions of Variables.....	90
Table 3.2	Ethical Climate Questionnaire.....	93
Table 3.3	Covenantal Relationship Questionnaire.....	96
Table 3.4	Organizational Citizenship Behavior Questionnaire.....	100
Table 3.5	Reliability of Ethical Climate Scales.....	103

Table 3.6	Internal Consistency Reliability of 34-Item OCB Scale (Cronbach's Alphas).....	107
Table 4.1	Demographic Characteristics of Respondents.....	112
Table 4.2	Rotated Factor Matrix of Ethical Work Climate.....	116
Table 4.3	Retained Items Measuring Ethical Work Climate.....	118
Table 4.4	Rotated Factor Matrix of Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Supervisory Response.....	121
Table 4.5	Retained Items Measuring Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Supervisory Response.....	123
Table 4.6	Measurement Scale Reliability.....	125
Table 4.7	Descriptive Statistics.....	127
Table 4.8	Correlation Matrix.....	135
Table 4.9	Regression Results for Ethical Work Climates' Effects on Covenantal Relations.....	138
Table 4.10	Regressions Results for Ethical Work Climates' Effects on Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	139
Table 4.11	Regression Results for Ethical Work Climates' and Covenantal Relations' Effects on Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	141
Table 4.12	Results of Testing for Hypotheses 2a through 4c.....	150

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LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1	Proposed Relationships Among Ethical Work Climate, Covenantal Relations, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	12
Figure 3.1	Proposed Relationships Among Ethical Work Climate, Covenantal Relations, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	81
Figure 3.2	Proposed Relationships Among Egoistic Ethical Work Climates, Covenantal Relations, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	84
Figure 3.3	Proposed Relationships Among Benevolent Ethical Work Climates, Covenantal Relations, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	86
Figure 3.4	Proposed Relationships Among Principled Ethical Work Climates, Covenantal Relations, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	89

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

It is evident that the environments faced by many organizations are dynamic, requiring constant adjusting to the rapid dissemination of information and technology change. Organizations must promote flexibility, innovativeness, and responsiveness in order to function effectively. Consequently, it may be necessary for organizations to subscribe to concepts such as less hierarchy and structure, more individual creativity and innovation, and less specific job descriptions with more responsibility and accountability (Peters, 1992). Under these circumstances, organizational members will have more authority to govern their own performance and behavior. Therefore, it is important to identify and promote positive work behaviors, including behaviors that are not included in formal job descriptions or assessed on traditional performance appraisals, but hold promise for long-term organizational success.

Within the last fifteen years, researchers have begun to examine positive work behaviors and have collectively described them as "organizational citizenship behaviors" (Organ, 1988a; 1990; Graham, 1991). Although there have been several conceptualizations, early descriptions of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) generally refer to work behavior that contributes to organizational effectiveness, but that has been traditionally

omitted by job descriptions and typical measures used to assess job performance. Early researchers (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983) describe OCB as behavior that is both extra-role and organizationally functional.

Graham (1991) argues that it is difficult to distinguish between in-role and extra-role behaviors due to variance across persons, jobs, and organizations and proposes a reconceptualization of OCB based on political philosophy. According to this perspective, organizational citizenship is akin to civic citizenship and includes all positive organizationally relevant behaviors of individual organizational members. This broader theory of OCB includes traditional in-role job performance behaviors, organizationally functional extra-role behaviors, and political behaviors that have been typically excluded from organizational citizenship studies.

Traditional conceptualizations of OCB posit that organizational citizenship results from social exchange and a sense of reciprocity. Graham (1991) suggests that OCB is associated with a covenantal relationship rather than a social exchange. Covenantal relationships represent an enhanced form of relations in which affective ties are supplemented with a moral dimension that implies acceptance and internalization of the collective group values (Etzioni, 1988; Graham, 1991). An individual having a strong identification with a particular relationship or collectivity will more actively contribute to the collectivity (Almond and Verba, 1963; Verba and Nie, 1972). This geopolitical concept, extended to organizational analysis, implies that organizational values impact the strength of the relationship between individuals and the organization, as well as individual contributions in the form of citizenship behaviors.

Within an organization, shared values and beliefs may be viewed as an organizational culture or climate that serves to shape and guide behavior (Smircich, 1983; Victor and Cullen, 1987; 1988). Whereas culture gives rise to both apparent and assumed values, climate focuses on the values and beliefs that are known and perceived by organizational members.

Employee behavior may be significantly affected by organizational climate (Dieterly and Schneider, 1974; Frederiksen, Jensen, and Beaton, 1972; Schneider, 1975; White and Lippitt, 1968). Employee perceptions of the climate allow organizational members to learn the types of behaviors that are accepted and appropriate (Schneider, 1975). Once individuals become members of an organization, they learn "the right way" of behaving through formal and informal socialization processes.

Research suggests that an individual's decision to perform OCBs may depend on the degree to which the organization has taken steps to promote employee concern for the welfare of the group (Moorman and Blakely, 1995). Moorman and Blakely (1995) have found that if an individual holds collectivistic values or norms, he/she would be more likely to perform citizenship behaviors than an individual espousing individualistic values. Hofstede (1980) suggests that concern for the individual or the welfare of the group is a fundamental distinction defined by culture. Some cultures develop citizens who are primarily individualistic and act in self-interest, while others develop citizens who are collectivistic and consider the entire group (Earley, 1989; 1993).

The predominant perceptions of typical organizational activities that have ethical content comprise a culture subset referred to as "ethical work climate" (Victor and Cullen, 1988). The focus of ethical work climate is on those aspects of the work climate that guide

organizational members in the determination of right and wrong behavior at work (Victor and Cullen, 1987). Ethical work climates may be defined along two axes, ethical criteria and loci of analysis. The ethical criteria axis defines climates according to whether the basis of decision making is to maximize self-interests, maximize group interests, or adhere to universal principles. The latter two bases are posited to increase organizational citizenship behavior.

The primary focus of this study is to investigate the relationship between perceptions of organizational ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behavior. It is proposed that perceptions of ethical work climate affect the tendency to engage in organizational citizenship behavior. Furthermore, previous research indicates that the strength of the relationship between individuals and the organization also impact OCB. Thus, it is proposed that covenantal relations between the organization and the individual will have a direct affect on OCB. Additional prior research indicates that covenantal relations mediate the relationship between OCB and selected antecedents. Thus, a mediating effect of covenantal relations on the ethical work climate--organizational citizenship behavior relationship is investigated.

The Development of the OCB Construct

Although a formal definition of organizational citizenship behavior did not appear until the early 1980s, references to such behavior can be found much earlier in organizational literature. Barnard (1938) alludes to such behavior with his concepts of "bottom-up" organization, "informal organization," and "willingness to cooperate." Barnard suggests the importance of spontaneous contributions by organizational members that transcend contractual job specifications, legitimate authority, or a formal compensation system (Organ,

1988a). Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) cite the informal organization as a necessary condition for collaboration (which facilitates formal organizational functioning). Katz and Kahn (1966) report that employees engage in several types of behavior: in-role behavior, which is formally prescribed by the organization, and "spontaneous behavior," which goes beyond formal job requirements and is beneficial to the organization.

Organ (1988a) refers to this spontaneous behavior as "organizational citizenship behavior" and formally defines it 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" (p. 4). Examples of OCB include covering for a sick colleague, helping co-workers who fall behind in task performance, demonstrating to a novice how to better use tools on the job, volunteering for tasks that are not required, maintaining a clean work environment, positively promoting the organization in social situations, conserving organizational resources, and making suggestions for organizational improvement (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983; Organ, 1988a).

The earliest conceptualizations of OCB focused on two types of behavior: altruism and conscientiousness. Altruism refers to discretionary behaviors that involve helping a specific other person with an organizationally relevant task or problem (Organ, 1988a). Conscientiousness, in contrast, refers to actions that are more impersonal, actions that do not provide immediate aid to any one specific person, but indirectly assist others involved in the system (Smith et al., 1983). Additional studies of OCB led to the identification and classification of additional dimensions including sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue (see Graham, 1986; Organ, 1988a).

Organ's (1988a) OCB construct is defined by its place in a 2 X 2 matrix formed by in-role versus extra-role and organizationally functional versus dysfunctional behavior. This conceptual approach to organizational citizenship behavior has proven difficult to advance. The conceptualization and operationalization are not theory-driven. Thus, OCB's substantive content remains unspecified (Graham, 1991).

To meet the first criterion, OCB must be differentiated from in-role performance. Role messages may be derived from many sources: written job descriptions, verbal instructions, and the informal role expectations of supervisors, coworkers, subordinates, and customers. Additionally, messages conveyed by role-senders are inconstant over time. Because individual roles are derived from multiple, complex sources, it is difficult for researchers to draw an unambiguous line between in-role and extra-role behavior (Graham, 1991).

The second criterion, organizational functionality, is also difficult to specify. Employees' intentions do not ensure that results are beneficial or even match those intentions. Additionally, interested parties may disagree about what is organizationally functional in a specific situation, or what time horizon should be used to calculate the decision's impact. Thus, it becomes difficult for neutral observers to distinguish between organizationally functional/dysfunctional behavior (Graham, 1991).

Graham (1986, 1991) proposes building a theory of OCB on the political heritage of citizenship, rather than employing the extra-role/organizationally functional criteria. From this perspective, civic citizenship includes all positive community-relevant behaviors of individual citizens. By extension, Graham (1986, 1991) argues that organizational citizenship

should be conceptualized as a global concept that includes all positive organizationally relevant behaviors of individual organization members. OCB is positioned as the organizational equivalent of civic citizenship responsibilities, of which there are three categories: obedience, loyalty, and participation. Organizational citizenship is exhibited by above-average levels of a variety of substantive types of citizenship behaviors, rather than by the presence of behaviors that are theoretically distinct, but difficult to classify.

The Importance of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Theoretically, OCB is interesting because as Katz (1964) asserts, some behaviors may not be influenced by the same elements that induce individuals to perform contractual, enforceable job requirements. Since extra-role behavior extends beyond formal role requirements, it would theoretically be unrelated to organizational reward systems. Also, it is not easily managed because of measurement difficulties and contributions attributable to others' productivity in addition to one's own (Katz, 1964).

Individual performance has long served as a major dependent variable in organizational research. However, some forms of performance have been difficult to measure using previous methods. Graham's (1986; 1991) organizational citizenship represents a new global construct that attempts to capture some of these elements of performance that have formerly been largely ignored. In order for an organization to gain the most from individual efforts, it needs to be able to identify and elicit the behaviors which prove to be most beneficial to that organization. The organizational citizenship behavior construct attempts to identify all positive organizationally relevant behaviors that individuals may put forth. The

remaining question is how to elicit such behaviors in order to promote organizational effectiveness.

Need for Further Research

Although research on organizational citizenship is still in a relatively early stage of development, OCB has been recognized as an important variable for both researchers and managers (Schnake, 1991). Since citizenship behavior is perceived as vital to organizations, it should be highly beneficial to identify determinants of OCB in order to promote its occurrence.

Early OCB research focused on the long-debated relationship between satisfaction and performance, in which OCB represented a specific operational type of performance that may be more strongly related to job satisfaction than conventional measures of performance (see Organ, 1988a). The lack of substantive support for a job satisfaction--OCB relationship led to investigations regarding the effects of personal variables and environmental variables on organizational citizenship behavior.

Organ (1988b) argues that the lack of support for a strong relationship between OCB and job satisfaction may be due to the conceptualization of job satisfaction. He proposes that cognitive job satisfaction measures reflect perceived equity (or fairness) and that perceived equity/inequity causes employees to perform/withhold organizational citizenship behavior. Several studies empirically support this hypothesis (Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ, 1990; Moorman, 1991; Organ and Konovsky, 1989).

According to Organ (1988a), a social exchange is based on a long-run exchange of fairness (equity) that is based on reciprocity in the sense of diffuse obligations to reciprocate fairly. Trust and good faith guide the form and timing of reciprocating gestures and lead to citizenship behaviors (Organ, 1988a).

Graham's (1991) socio-political conceptualization of organizational citizenship states that OCB is associated with a covenantal relationship rather than social exchange. According to Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994), a covenantal relationship is based on commitment to the welfare of all concerned parties and is also based on a transcendent set of values. A social exchange is based on a general notion of fairness, while a covenantal relationship has a normative-affective foundation that differentiates it from other types of relations (Etzioni, 1988; Gordon, Anderson, and Bruning, 1992).

Parks (1992) proposes that covenantal contracts' emphasis on trust, mutuality and shared values will lead to high levels of citizenship behavior. Graham and Organ (1993) cite employee obedience, loyalty, and participation as results of covenantal relationships. These behaviors exemplify the responsibilities of citizenship and are founded on individuals' perceptions of mutuality in their relationships with their organizations (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Research by Van Dyne et al. (1994) found general support for covenantal relationships as a mediator between OCB and selected antecedents.

Covenantal relationships, emphasizing mutual trust, shared values, and open-ended commitment, represent an alternative to traditional exchange relationships (e.g., social, psychological, or transactional exchanges) in predicting OCB. Not only do they encompass the perception of equity/fairness factor previously reported as an antecedent of OCB, but

covenantal relationships have also been characterized by " . . . the expectation that some others in our social relationships have moral obligations and responsibility to demonstrate a special concern for other's interests above their own" (Barber, 1983, p. 14). Thus, it should be beneficial to investigate not only the reconceptualization of OCB in terms of political theory and covenantal relations, but also moral (ethical) antecedents to organizational citizenship.

Statement of the Problem

The development of OCB theory has progressed rather slowly (Konovsky and Pugh, 1994). Substantively, citizenship behaviors are significant because they afford the flexibility necessary to surmount many unforeseen contingencies; they enable participants to cope with the tremendous amounts of interdependence among them; they undoubtedly have some influence on subjective evaluations of individual performance; and they include behaviors that are either not formally required or are essentially unenforceable by the typical inducements or sanctions. Thus, it seems beneficial to inquire into the antecedents of such behavior in organizations (Smith et al., 1983).

Many research studies have attempted to establish relationships based upon the traditional conceptualization of organizational citizenship. However, the more recent and promising political conceptualization has yet to be subjected to rigorous empirical testing. Additionally, the covenantal relationships underlying this perspective have moral (ethical) connotations that have been previously unexplored.

Organizational climate and culture have been found to significantly affect employee behavior (Dieterly and Schneider, 1974; Frederiksen et al., 1972; Schneider, 1975; White and Lippitt, 1968). Research also suggests that elements of culture determine whether people act in self-interest or the welfare of the group. Individuals espousing group values are more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors (Moorman and Blakely, 1995). Ethical work climates may be distinguished according to whether decisions are made to maximize self-interest, to maximize group interest, or according to principle (Victor and Cullen, 1987; 1988). Therefore, it is logical to investigate the relationship between ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behaviors. Accordingly, this study is an empirical test of the relationships between ethical work climates and organizational citizenship behaviors, and the mediating effect of covenantal relations on those relationships.

Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study is to provide an empirical evaluation regarding the relationships among dimensions of ethical work climate and dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior and any mediating effect of covenantal relations on those associations. A general model of the proposed relationships is illustrated in Figure 1.1.

Specifically, the purposes of this study are: (1) to examine the relationship between ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behavior; (2) to investigate previous findings regarding the effect of covenantal relations on the relationship between organizational citizenship and specific antecedents (Van Dyne et al., 1994); and (3) to examine the previously unexplored underlying moral connotations associated with covenantal relations by

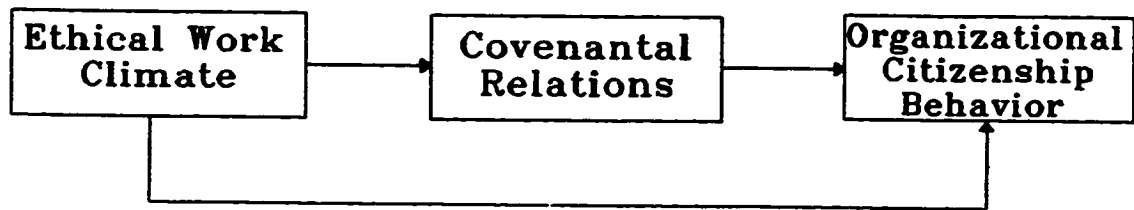


Figure 1.1

**Proposed Relationships Among Ethical Work Climate,
Covenantal Relations, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

incorporating ethical work climate dimensions (representing organizational values) as antecedents to OCB.

The variables in the hypothesized model are discussed briefly in the following section. Further elaboration regarding each of the variables is provided in Chapter 3.

Definitions

Ethical Work Climate

A work climate is defined as psychologically meaningful descriptions that individuals agree characterize a system's practices and procedures (Schneider, 1975). An ethical work climate consists of the predominant perceptions regarding typical organizational practices that have ethical content (Victor and Cullen, 1988). Some climate types representing organizational norms have an ethical basis in that they inform organizational members what one can do and what one "ought" to do regarding the treatment of others (Victor and Cullen, 1988). Individuals do not report on their own behavior and values, but on the practices and procedures that they perceive exist within the organization (Victor and Cullen, 1987; 1988).

Covenantal Relations

Political philosophy proposes that the character of the relationship between citizens and their government is crucial to individual citizenship behavior (Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch, 1994). Covenantal relationships represent an enhanced form of relations in which affective ties are supplemented with a moral dimension that implies acceptance and internalization of the collectivity's values (Etzioni, 1988; Graham, 1991). An individual having a strong identification with a particular relationship or collectivity and a feeling of value, will rely less on sanctions to resolve difficulties (MacNeil, 1985) and will more actively contribute to the collectivity (Almond and Verba, 1963; Verba and Nie, 1972). This geopolitical concept may be extended to organizational analysis to infer that the strength of relations between an individual and an organization may impact the degree to which an individual is an active member or engages in organizational citizenship.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Early conceptualizations of organizational citizenship behavior described it as "spontaneous behavior" which goes beyond formal job requirements and, in the aggregate, promotes the effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988a). A later conceptualization (Graham, 1986; 1991; Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch, 1994) defines OCB as including all positive organizationally relevant behaviors of organizational participants -- traditional in-role performance, as well as functional extra-role performance. For years, political philosophers have emphasized that responsible civic citizenship requires balanced engagement in obedience, loyalty, and participation (Cary, 1977; Inkeles, 1969; Janowitz,

1984; Lane, 1965; Pateman, 1970; Rossiter, 1950; Wolin, 1960). Graham (1991) extends these geopolitical concepts to the organizational arena and thus identifies obedience, loyalty, and participation as dimensions of responsible organizational citizenship behaviors (also see Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Contributions of the Study

This study was designed to ascertain the relationship among dimensions of ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behaviors. Additionally, it tests the mediating effect (if any) of covenantal relations on these relationships. The present research lends empirical credence to the relatively new conceptualization of organizational citizenship in terms of political and social theory. It also supports previous evidence indicating that covenantal relations have an effect on the relationship between OCB and selected antecedents. Furthermore, it is the first reported empirical research to incorporate ethical work climate as a factor influencing organizational citizenship behaviors. Additionally, this study provides a greater understanding of the antecedents of organizational citizenship. Finally, it contributes knowledge regarding organizational citizenship that will enable academicians and practitioners to promote OCB in an effort to increase organizational effectiveness.

The Research Process

The initial stage in the research process was an extensive review of the pertinent literature regarding organizational citizenship behavior, covenantal relations, and ethical work climate. The next stage in the research process was to develop a model illustrating the proposed relationships among the variables under investigation. This model was derived from

Graham's (1991) conceptualization of organizational citizenship with regard to civic citizenship and covenantal relations and Victor and Cullen's (1987; 1988) conceptualization of ethical work climate.

The following stage in the research process was to review existing scales used to measure the variables included in the proposed model. A research instrument was developed utilizing scales that have been previously tested and validated. The scales were used to measure perceived ethical work climate, covenantal relations, and organizational citizenship behavior.

The research instrument was distributed to the members of two locations of a national retail sales organization. Individual employees completed a questionnaire assessing their perceptions of organizational ethical work climate, the strength of covenantal relations between themselves and the organization, and their personal tendencies to engage in organizational citizenship behavior. Supervisors of the employees also responded to a questionnaire rating the particular employee's tendency to perform organizational citizenship behaviors.

Finally, the responses were collected. The employee questionnaire and the corresponding supervisor questionnaire rating that employee were matched together to comprise one useable response. Relationships among the variables were tested using a three-step mediated regression approach recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986) and utilized by Van Dyne et al. (1994).

Plan of Study

The first chapter of this study provides an introduction to the proposed research, a rationale for the study, a brief description of the variables involved, and a model of the proposed relationships among those variables. Chapter 2 reviews the literature pertinent to the variables included in the model. The third chapter addresses the research methodology including hypotheses development, research instrument and scales, the sampling plan, and statistical methodology. Chapter 4 concerns the results of data analysis including hypotheses testing. The fifth and final chapter presents conclusions and managerial implications, recommendations for future research, limitations of the study, and contributions of the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to review the relevant literature regarding organizational citizenship behavior, ethical work climate, and covenantal relations, focusing on both theoretical and empirical examinations. The first section of the chapter introduces organizational citizenship behavior literature including (1) precursive research, (2) conceptualizations of organizational citizenship behavior, and (3) construct development. The second section introduces ethical work climate literature including (1) work climate research, (2) conceptualization of ethical work climate, and (3) construct development. The third section presents a more detailed review of empirical research relevant to the variables included in the theoretical model, including covenantal relations, and the proposed relationships among them.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Individual performance has served as a major dependent variable in theories of management and organizational behavior for many years. However, researchers have acknowledged that individual performance is not a unitary construct (Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ, 1990). For example, Katz and Kahn (1966, 1978) distinguish among several

categories of individual performance and propose that their motivational dynamics are likely to be quite different.

One class of performance behaviors has become known as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). These behaviors include those that are in some way beyond the reach of traditional definitions and measures of job performance, but nonetheless are vital for an effectively functioning system (Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch, 1994). OCB may not be part of the traditional performance behaviors necessary to get the job done, yet it is still an important component of an employee's contribution to the system (Organ, 1988a). OCB is theoretically significant because it includes behavior extending beyond formal role prescriptions and therefore may not be motivated by the same factors that induce individuals to perform strictly within contractual, enforceable job requirements (Katz, 1964).

Precursive Research

Empirical studies specifically related to organizational citizenship were not conducted prior to 1980. However, there are allusions to OCB in prior research. Organ (1988a) illustrates that OCB has been implicitly acknowledged in several historically notable treatises, although it was neither emphasized nor conceptually developed at that time.

For example, Barnard's work, The Functions of the Executive (1938), states that organizations are "associations of cooperative efforts" (p. 4). Barnard emphasizes the willingness of individuals to contribute to the cooperative system. He is emphatic in his assertion that material or monetary inducements (purely contractual exchanges) are not sufficient to maintain and enhance the willingness to cooperate for an extended period of time.

He also emphasizes concepts such as bottom-up organization and the informal organization, implying that organizational performance is not strictly an aggregation of the fulfillment of individual contractual obligations. As reviewed by Organ (1988a), Barnard (1938) suggests the importance of spontaneous contributions by individuals that extend beyond contractual job requirements, legitimate authority, or receipt of compensation from the formal organization. Organized activity necessitates a willingness to cooperate. This willingness to cooperate varies across and within people and according to satisfactions arising from associational attractiveness and benefits accruing from the process of organizing (Organ, 1988a).

In their classic work Management and the Worker, Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) draw a distinction between the formal and informal organization. The formal organization "includes the systems, policies, rules, and regulations of the plant which express what the relations of one person to another are supposed to be in order to achieve effectively the task of technical production" (p. 558). However, informal arrangements develop incidentally to the relationships and transactions designated by the formal system. Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) assert that informal organization appears at all organizational levels and is a necessary condition for collaboration, which may facilitate functioning of the formal organization.

Katz and Kahn (1966), in their seminal work The Social Psychology of Organizations, state that effective organizations elicit three types of performance from participants: (1) joining an organization and maintaining membership, (2) fulfilling organizational role requirements, and (3) engaging in spontaneous behaviors that promote organizational

effectiveness but are not included in a job description. Inducements that attract and retain organizational members differ from the incentives that maintain dependable role requirements, which are also different from the stimuli that elicit innovative and spontaneous behavior beyond formal role prescriptions.

Traditional Conceptualizations of OCB

Presently, global competition is increasing and innovation and flexibility are more significant for effective organizational performance than in the past (Peters, 1992). This has prompted an intense stream of research dedicated to examining different forms of individual performance as a means to achieve long-term organizational success (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

As previously mentioned, Katz and Kahn (1966) distinguish between in-role behavior, which is formally prescribed by the organization, and "spontaneous behavior," which includes behavior that goes beyond formal role prescriptions and enhances the image of the organization. Organ (1988a) refers to this "spontaneous" behavior as "organizational citizenship behavior." Examples of OCB include: giving advance notice regarding absences, helping others who require assistance, volunteering for tasks, making suggestions, conserving organizational resources, and not wasting time (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988a; Schnake, 1991; Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983; Williams and Anderson, 1991). Organ's (1990) conceptualization of organizational citizenship also includes "behaviors that a person *refrains* from doing, even though he or she has every right to do so, such as frequently finding fault with other employees, expressing resentment, complaining about insignificant matters, and starting arguments with others" (p. 46).

Theoretically, OCB is intriguing because it may not be motivated by the same factors that induce individuals to perform contractual, enforceable job requirements (Katz, 1964). Because OCB includes behavior that is not always required by formal role prescriptions, a portion of OCB appears to be largely unaffected by organizational reward systems. Additionally, such behavior is not easily governed because it is often difficult to measure and may contribute more to others' productivity than one's own (Katz, 1964).

Throughout organizational literature, the terms "extra-role behavior," "functional behavior," and "prosocial organizational behavior" have been applied to behaviors similar to those referred to as "organizational citizenship behaviors." Distinctions have been made by various researchers among behaviors that comprise organizational citizenship and those that do not.

For example, references to prosocial organizational behavior are typical in early OCB studies, but it appears to be a broader construct than OCB. Brief and Motowidlo (1986) define prosocial organizational behavior as "behavior which is (1) performed by a member of an organization, (2) directed toward an individual, group, or organization with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organizational role, and (3) performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organization toward which it is directed" (p.711). In contrast to Organ's (1988a) conceptualization of OCB, prosocial organizational behavior is not limited to behaviors outside formal job requirements; prosocial behavior includes both in-role and extra-role behaviors.

In-role behaviors are those prescribed by job descriptions or requirements. Extra-role organizational behaviors include acts not formally specified by role requirements (Brief and

Motowidlo, 1986). Although employee behavior that is not formally prescribed by the organization is usually considered to be organizationally functional, this extra-role behavior may be either functional or dysfunctional. Dysfunctional extra-role prosocial behaviors may consist of acts that help co-workers or clients personally, but that detract from desirable organizational performance (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986).

Puffer (1987) includes the concept of negative citizenship, defined as discretionary behaviors which may be organizationally dysfunctional. She differentiates between "prosocial behaviors," defined as extra-role, functional organizational behaviors, and "noncompliant behaviors" defined as extra-role behaviors that negatively affect organizations. Organizational participants are good citizens to the extent that they perform prosocial behaviors and refrain from engaging in noncompliant behaviors.

Thus, it is obvious from previous research that there are several constructs closely related to the OCB concept (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; George, 1991; Graham, 1991; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter, 1991; Moorman, 1991; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Organ and Konovsky, 1989; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter, 1990; Puffer, 1987; Smith et al., 1983; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Williams and Anderson, 1991). Although operational definitions may differ, most early descriptions of OCB characterize it as extra-role, functional organizational behaviors directed toward individuals, groups, and/or organizations. Excluded from most definitions are prosocial behaviors that are in-role or noncompliant. Table 2.1 lists selected research that defines OCB along in-role/extra-role or organizationally functional/dysfunctional axes. Representative of traditional views, Organ (1988a) defines OCB 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" (p. 4).

Table 2.1

Criteria Used to Define OCB

RESEARCH/STUDY	CRITERIA USED TO DEFINE OCB	
	EXTRA-ROLE	ORGANIZATIONALLY FUNCTIONAL
Bateman & Organ (1983)	*	*
Smith, Organ, & Near (1983)	*	*
Brief & Motowidlo (1986)	*	*
Motowidlo, Packard, & Manning (1986)	*	
O'Reilly & Chatman, #1 (1986)		*
O'Reilly & Chatman, #2 (1986)	*	*
Williams, Podsakoff, & Cooper (1986)	*	*
Puffer (1987)	*	*
Scholl, Cooper, & McKenna (1987)	*	
Organ (1988a)	*	*
Organ & Konovsky (1989)	*	*
Organ (1990)	*	*
Graham (1991)		
MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter (1991)	*	*
Williams & Anderson (1991)	*	*
MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter (1993)	*	*

Source: Adapted from Graham (1991)

Construct Development of OCB: Traditional Perspectives

Research has emphasized both theoretical and empirical issues surrounding organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Bateman and Organ, 1983; Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter, 1991; Moorman, Niehoff, and Organ, 1993; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Organ and Konovsky, 1989; Smith et al., 1983). Several categories of OCB have been proposed, but empirical analyses of existing measures have not shown entirely consistent results (Organ, 1988a). Table 2.2 lists selected works that empirically distinguish several dimensions of organizational citizenship.

Early conceptualizations of organizational citizenship focus upon two types: altruism and conscientiousness, helping behaviors directed either at a particular individual or a group/organization, respectively. As research progressed, actions were observed that appeared to be subsumed within the definition of citizenship, but were not identifiable as either altruism or conscientiousness. This led to additional classifications of citizenship behaviors such as sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue.

Altruism. One of the earliest identified forms of organizational citizenship is altruism (see Organ, 1988a; Organ and Konovsky, 1989; Smith et al., 1983). Altruism is defined as discretionary behavior that has the effect of assisting a specific other person with an organizationally relevant task or problem. Although this form of OCB probably is most frequently directed toward a coworker, it may benefit customers, clients, vendors, or suppliers, as long as the action has organizational relevance (Organ, 1988a). Examples of altruism include assisting someone with a heavy workload, demonstrating to a novice how to

Table 2.2
Research Identifying Dimensions of OCB

YEAR	RESEARCHERS	DIMENSIONS IDENTIFIED
1983	Smith, Organ, and Near	Altruism and Generalized Compliance
1983	Bateman and Organ	Single Scale
1986	Williams, Podsakoff, and Huber	Altruism, Attendance, and Impersonal Conscientiousness
1986	O'Reilly and Chatman	Single Scale
1989	Organ and Konovsky	Altruism and Generalized Compliance
1990	Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ	Altruism and Generalized Compliance
1991	Moorman	Altruism, Courtesy, Civic Virtue, Sportsmanship, and Conscientiousness
1991	MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter	Altruism, Civic Virtue, Courtesy, and Sportsmanship
1991	Williams and Anderson	Altruism and Generalized Compliance
1993	Niehoff and Moorman	Altruism, Courtesy, Civic Virtue, Sportsmanship, and Conscientiousness
1993	Moorman	Altruism, Courtesy, Civic Virtue, Sportsmanship, and Conscientiousness
1993	MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter	Altruism, Sportsmanship, and Civic Virtue
1993	Schnake, Dumler, and Cochran	Altruism, Courtesy, Civic Virtue, Sportsmanship, and Conscientiousness
1993	Moorman, Niehoff, and Organ	Altruism, Courtesy, Civic Virtue, Sportsmanship, and Conscientiousness
1993	Becker and Vance	Altruism - Local, Altruism - Distant, and Conscientiousness
1994	Robinson and Morrison	Civic Virtue

Table 2.2 (Continued)

YEAR	RESEARCHERS	DIMENSIONS IDENTIFIED
1994	Morrison	Altruism, Involvement, Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, and Keeping Up
1994	Konovsky and Pugh	Altruism, Courtesy, Civic Virtue, Sportsmanship, and Conscientiousness

better utilize his tools at work, lending supplies to others, and helping a coworker who has been absent to stay informed (Organ, 1988a). Discretionary acts of kindness toward individuals outside the organization may, in the least, positively influence their sentiments regarding the organization. Altruism potentially affects customer loyalty, community goodwill, commitment of suppliers, and interest of prospective employees (Organ, 1988a).

Conscientiousness. A second form of organizational citizenship is generalized compliance (later referred to as conscientiousness). Conscientiousness refers to a more impersonal type of helping behavior that does not provide immediate aid to a particular individual, but is indirectly helpful to other people in the organization (Becker and Vance, 1993). This factor seems to encompass situations in which individuals perform certain role behaviors well beyond the minimum required levels (Organ, 1988a). Examples of conscientiousness include punctuality, meeting deadlines, cleanliness, attendance in discretionary situations (e. g. extreme weather conditions, crises at home, unused personal or vacation leave), and adherence to many formal and informal rules devised to preserve order (Organ, 1988a). Conscientiousness may contribute to organizational effectiveness by the

efficient use of resources (e.g., time, water, electricity, materials, and funds), which places more energy and effort at the disposal of the system (for planning, problem solving, and innovativeness) than could practicably be enforced (Organ, 1988a).

Some empirical studies (e.g., Konovsky, 1986; Podsakoff and Williams, 1986; Williams, Podsakoff, and Huber, 1986) report that conscientiousness breaks down into two factors. One factor represents attendance and the other factor refers to extraordinary adherence to other types of rules. Nevertheless, most researchers continue to identify conscientiousness as a single factor (see Table 2.2).

Sportsmanship. Re-evaluation of data compiled by Bateman and Organ (1983) sparked interest in an additional factor that has since been referred to as sportsmanship. This dimension refers primarily to items that people refrain from doing, such as complaining or making petty grievances. Sportsmanship contributes to organizational effectiveness in that it maximizes the total amount of stamina that can be devoted to constructive purposes (Organ, 1988a). Whenever complaints, grievances, or problems must be addressed, resources are diverted from planning, scheduling, organizational analysis, or other productive activities. Individuals who refrain from these behaviors increase aggregate organizational productivity.

Courtesy. Another dimension of organizational citizenship suggested by Organ (1988a) is courtesy. These behaviors are similar to altruistic actions, with one discriminating factor. Altruism addresses acts assisting a person with a problem, whereas courtesy refers to aiding someone in preventing a problem from occurring. Examples would include giving advance notice or reminders, passing along information, consulting, or briefing.

Courtesy behaviors benefit the organization by allowing individuals to anticipate how to prioritize and distribute their efforts, instead of having to react to an unexpected situation. Surprises often result in wasting considerable quantities of resources. Additionally, courtesy helps avoid emotions of frustration and rage, which may be a detriment to productive efforts (Organ, 1988a).

Civic Virtue. Graham (1986) proposes another type of organizational citizenship behavior representing responsible participation in the political life of the organization. This category, drawn from classical political philosophy, is termed civic virtue. Exhibiting civic virtue implies that organizational citizens participate in corporate governance by staying informed, expressing sentiments, and acting upon suggestions and complaints. Behaviorally, this category includes items such as attending meetings, voting, expressing opinions, and reading organizational mail and literature to gain knowledge (Organ, 1988a).

Civic virtue is an admirable form of organizational citizenship because it may require sacrifice of short-run productivity. Thus, individuals engaging in civic virtue activities, probably have the organization's long-term success in mind. Meetings, discussions, and debates, particularly those related to policy formulation and governance, consume enormous amounts of time and energy. Individuals focusing on immediate results may perceive these activities as unimportant or ineffective. However, misinformed or misdirected activities that may be efficient for the short-term, do not result in organizational effectiveness in the long-run (Organ, 1988a). Therefore, civic virtue activities promote organizational success for the present -- as well as the future.

Reconceptualization of OCB in Terms of Political Theory

Early studies (e.g., Bateman and Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983), define OCB by two criteria -- behavior that is extra-role and organizationally functional. The interdisciplinary study of altruism was typically used to guide these research efforts (e.g., Bateman and Organ, 1983; Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Smith et al., 1983). Organizational behavior studies (e.g., Graham, 1986; Organ, 1988a) led to the proposition and identification of other dimensions of OCB, including conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue.

Research on organizational citizenship continued to rely on variations of the original definition of OCB as extra-role and organizationally functional. Graham (1991) cites several disadvantages of this conceptualization. A major weakness of this definition is that "its substantive content remains unspecified" (p. 250). The escalation of OCB research has resulted in "a variety of concepts that are uneven in terms of their logical clarity, ties to established literatures, and consistency with one another" (p. 250). Additionally, the definition involves determining which behaviors are in-role or extra-role and which are organizationally functional or dysfunctional. This is a distinction which varies across persons, jobs, and organizations (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Graham's (1986; 1991) solution is an approach to organizational citizenship behavior based on citizenship research in philosophy, political science, and social history. According to this perspective, organizational citizenship may be conceived in terms of civic citizenship. Within this conceptualization, OCB includes all positive organizationally relevant behaviors

of individual organizational participants – including traditional in-role performance and organizationally functional extra-role behaviors (Van Dyne et al., 1994). This approach has several advantages: (1) it avoids having to categorize behaviors as in-role or extra-role; (2) it provides a theoretical basis for a conceptualization and operational definition of organizational citizenship behavior; and (3) it lays a theoretical foundation for future research on organizational citizenship (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Graham's (1991) essay associating organizational citizenship to civic/political citizenship examines three concepts that are interrelated: relational ties among individuals and collectivities, citizenship rights, and citizenship responsibilities. According to Graham, the relational ties and citizenship rights set the context for citizenship responsibilities, which she believes to be analogous to citizenship behaviors.

Relational Ties. Political philosophy proposes that the character of the relationship between citizens and their government is crucial to individual citizenship behavior (Van Dyne et al., 1994). An interdisciplinary analysis reveals several typologies for characterizing the relationship between individuals and their collectivities. Kanter (1972) distinguishes between "Gemeinschaft," affective, emotional, and expressive components of social action, as in a family, and "Gesellschaft," rational, contractual, and task-oriented action, as in a business organization. Similar typologies are identified by other researchers (e.g., Blau, 1964; Gordon and Babchuk, 1959; Grover, 1982; MacNeil, 1985; Rousseau, 1989).

Additionally, extensions of these relationships have been identified. One type of extension, coercive relationships (Etzioni, 1988), represent a diminished form of Gesellschaft

relations, in which individuals are forced involuntarily to comply with terms set by others (e.g., slavery). Historically, those coerced were considered less than citizens. Thus, their rights and their responsibilities were severely limited (Graham, 1991).

Another type of extension, covenantal relationships, represent an enhanced form of *Gemeinschaft* relations, in which affective ties are supplemented with a moral dimension -- shared commitment to a transcendent force, value, or principle of goodness (Graham, 1991). Covenantal relationships are distinguished by ". . . the expectation that some others in our social relationships have moral obligations and responsibility to demonstrate a special concern for other's interests above their own" (Barber, 1983, p. 14). Behavior required to maintain the relationship is not specifiable in advance (Graham, 1991). Covenants focus on a state of being and involve intrinsically motivated effort rather than contractual exchange (Van Dyne et al., 1994). They are characterized by mutual respect, support, and accountability (Graham, 1991).

In analyzing political citizenship, covenantal relationships are critical because they hold special status as the strongest form of social bond. Covenantal ties are characterized by mutual trust that gives individuals enough confidence in their status as permanent members to experiment, disagree, make mistakes, forgive, learn, and progress through difficult times (Graham, 1991). If an individual has a strong identification with a particular relationship or collectivity and the feeling of being valued, he will rely less on sanctions to resolve difficulties (MacNeil, 1985) and be a more active contributor to the collectivity (Almond and Verba, 1963; Verba and Nie, 1972). Instead of being based on a general notion of fairness as in a strictly social exchange relationship, a covenantal relationship has a normative-affective

foundation that implies acceptance and internalization of the collectivity's values (Etzioni, 1988).

Thus, the strength of the relational ties between the individual and the collectivity -- whether it be coercive, *Gesellschaft*, *Gemeinschaft*, or covenantal relations -- may have an impact upon the types of rights and responsibilities (behaviors) that are prevalent (Graham, 1991).

Citizenship Rights. Citizens have rights that are unavailable to those who are not citizens. As paraphrased by Graham (1991), T. H. Marshall (1965) identifies three categories of rights: (1) civil rights -- legal protection of life, liberty, and property; (2) political rights -- participation in decision-making; and (3) social rights -- adequate level of socioeconomic benefits. This categorization of civil, political, and social rights may be applied to organizations as well as societies. According to Graham (1991), organizational civil rights encompass fair treatment in routine personnel matters and due process in grievances or disciplinary proceedings. Organizational political rights include participation in decision making regarding operational matters, organizational policies, objectives, and budgetary concerns. Organizational social rights consist of economic benefits, social status symbols, and training/educational opportunities.

Citizens versus noncitizens may be distinguished on the basis of organizational rights. However, unequal rights are likely to be typical among citizens, given the hierarchical structure of most organizations. This has implications for researchers in that the distribution

of unequal rights may be related to the strength of relational ties and organizational citizenship behaviors (Graham, 1991).

Citizenship Responsibilities. According to Graham (1991), "citizenship behaviors" are analogous to "citizenship responsibilities." She identifies three types of citizenship responsibilities in her review of modern political theory and classical philosophy: obedience, loyalty, and participation (Aristotle, 1941; Cary, 1977; Inkeles, 1969; Janowitz, 1980, 1984; Lane, 1965; Pateman, 1970; Plato, 1892; Rossiter, 1950; Salkever, 1974; Tussman, 1960; Walzer, 1970; Wolin, 1960).

"Obedience" refers to the respect for orderly structure and processes. As citizens are protected by laws, they are also responsible for obeying existing laws. "Loyalty" concerns the expansion of the individual's perception of welfare to include the interests of others, the collectivity as a whole, and the values it represents. "Participation" includes assisting in implementing the law, adjudicating violations of the law, and changing the law to respond to new information and evolving understandings of the common interest.

These three interrelated substantive categories of civic citizenship responsibilities comprise what Inkeles described as "active citizenship syndrome" (1969, p. 1139). According to Van Dyne et al. (1994), political philosophers recognized long ago that citizenship includes multiple related responsibilities and emphasized that responsible civic citizenship requires balanced engagement in obedience, loyalty, and participation (Cary, 1977; Inkeles, 1969; Janowitz, 1984; Lane, 1965; Pateman, 1970; Rossiter, 1950; Wolin, 1960)." Graham (1991)

has extended this perspective on civic citizenship and applied these civic responsibilities to organizational settings to describe organizational citizenship behaviors.

To summarize, in political theory and philosophy, the citizenship relationship describes the status of belonging somewhere (relational ties) and implies both rights and responsibilities. According to Graham (1991), these concepts may be extended from geopolitical arenas to organizational arenas. Thus, citizenship responsibilities may be conceptually extended to develop a theoretical model of organizational citizenship behaviors.

Construct Development of OCB in Terms of Political Theory

Graham (1991) states that the typology of geopolitical citizen responsibilities -- obedience, loyalty, and participation -- may be extended to organizational settings to theoretically derive dimensions of organizational citizenship. To illustrate, Graham (1991, p. 255) paraphrases Inkeles' (1969, pp. 1122-1123) descriptions of the three terms (derived from political studies).

Organizational Obedience. An orientation toward organizational structure, job descriptions, and personnel policies that recognizes and accepts the necessity and desirability of a rational structure of rules and regulations. Obedience may be demonstrated by respect for rules and instructions, punctuality in attendance and task completion, and stewardship or organizational resources.

Organizational Loyalty. Identification with and allegiance to organizational leaders and the organization as a whole, transcending to parochial interests of individuals, work groups, and departments. Representative behaviors include defending the organization against threats; contributing to its good reputation; and cooperating with others to serve the interests of the whole.

Organizational Participation. Interest in the organizational affairs guided by ideal standards of virtue, validated by keeping informed, and expressed through full and responsible involvement in organizational governance. This includes attending nonrequired meetings, sharing informed opinions and new ideas with others, and being willing to deliver bad news or support an unpopular view to combat groupthink.

Using these three substantive categories proposed by political theory, Van Dyne et al. (1994) present an instrument to measure organizational citizenship behavior. It should be noted that this conceptualization of OCB does not include the dimension of altruism. Civic citizenship concerns the actions of individuals that have ramifications for the state, not behaviors that have consequences for interpersonal relationships. Since this helping behavior may or may not have consequences for the collectivity, it is not included in the dimensionality of civic citizenship or in the extended conceptualization of organizational citizenship (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

This conceptualization and operational definition of OCB is in contrast to some previous OCB studies, which Moorman and Blakely (1992) allege, extended the number of citizenship dimensions beyond the original conceptualization without explicit theoretical grounding. Graham's (1991) use of substantive political theory to define a typology provides a strong intellectual heritage for the OCB construct and should minimize expansion of the dimensions of OCB (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Additionally, Graham's (1991) typology incorporates much of the content and meaning of Organ's (1988a) five factor model (except altruism) used in much of the previous OCB research (Moorman & Blakely, 1995).

Ethical Work Climate

Once individuals become members of an organization, they learn "the right way" of behaving through formal and informal socialization processes. Individuals realize the values that are operative and rewarded in that particular organization (Victor and Cullen, 1987). The ethical work climate is comprised of the predominant perceptions of organizational practices and procedures that have ethical content (Victor and Cullen, 1988). The focus of ethical work climate is on those aspects that guide organizational members in the determination of right and wrong behavior at work (Victor and Cullen, 1987).

Researchers have expressed considerable interest in organizational climate since the 1960s. They have studied organizational climate as it relates to many factors such as innovation (Abbey and Dickson, 1983), warmth and support (Field and Abelson, 1982), absenteeism (McKee, 1988), achievement (Litwin and Stringer, 1968), service (Schneider, Parkington, and Buxton, 1980), nature of rewards (Schneider and Reichers, 1983), and safety (Zohar, 1980).

Additionally, studies have established that organizational climate may have a significant impact on the behavior of employees (Dieterly and Schneider, 1974; Frederiksen, Jensen, and Beaton, 1972; Schneider, 1975; White and Lippitt, 1968). Since previous studies have found a relationship to exist between organizational climate and behavior, it is likely that ethical climate is linked to a range of behaviors (Wimbush and Shepard, 1994). Thus, a logical extension in ethical climate research is to analyze the relationship between the dimensions of ethical work climate and employee behavior.

Work Climate Research

Ethical climate in organizations represents one dimension of the work climate. As such, major issues of ethical climate may be associated with more general conceptualizations of work climate. Work climate may be defined as prevalent perceptions that are psychologically significant descriptions that people can agree characterize a system's practices and procedures (Schneider, 1975).

Work climates represent a component of organizational culture (Ashforth, 1985; Sathe, 1983). Similar to climate, organizational culture may be viewed as an internal system characterized by shared beliefs and values that, in addition to other roles, serve to shape and guide behavior (Smircich, 1983; Victor and Cullen, 1987; 1988). However, culture gives rise to both apparent and assumed or implied values, whereas climate focuses only on the values and beliefs that are known and perceived by organizational members (Schein, 1984).

Organizational researchers have studied organizational climate for many years. Several extensive reviews of work climate research since the 1960s confirm its influence on organizational studies (e.g., Field and Abelson, 1982; Schneider, 1983; Schneider and Reichers, 1983). Thus, only major issues related to this study are discussed.

Schneider's (1975) thesis of individuals attempting to achieve homeostasis with their psychological environments provides a simple explanation of why work climates affect behavioral outcomes. Through climate perceptions and adapting to their environments, organizational members learn which type of behaviors are accepted and appropriate. Climate perceptions also influence behavior by informing individuals which types of behaviors will lead

to successful achievement of individual and organizational goals (Field and Abelson, 1982; Schneider and Reichers, 1983).

Conceptualization of Ethical Work Climate

In the cognitive moral development literature it is recognized that individual characteristics alone are insufficient to explain moral behavior. Thus, there is an increased interest in the influence of social factors on individual moral behavior (Victor and Cullen, 1988). Developmental psychologist Kohlberg and his associates introduced notions of "moral atmosphere" and "just community" regarding the social context of moral and ethical behavior (Higgins, Power, and Kohlberg, 1984). Ethical climate corresponds to the concept of moral atmosphere in its representation of prevailing norms of the group and not the individual's level of moral development (Victor and Cullen, 1988). However, Kohlberg's moral atmosphere research was directed toward moral education and not related to work climate literature.

According to Schneider (1983), the existence of an ethical work climate requires organizational members to perceive the existence of normative patterns in the organization with a measurable degree of consensus; normative systems must be institutionalized. Individuals do not report on their own behavior and values, but on the practices and procedures that they perceive to exist within the organization (Victor and Cullen, 1988).

An institutionalized normative system may be considered a component of culture (Honigmann, 1959). Thus, an organizational culture is more comprehensive and includes items such as patterns of behavior, artifacts, ceremonies, and language (Smircich, 1983). Individuals reporting on ethical climate describe only a portion of their organizational culture

-- the organizational norms concerning practices and procedures with ethical consequences (Ashforth, 1985).

Ethical Criteria. Kohlberg's (1969; 1984) theory of individual moral development proposes that individuals use different types of ethical criteria and display distinct types of moral reasoning as they develop morally. In contrast to cognitive reasoning as to how things "will" be resolved, moral reasoning refers to how moral dilemmas "ought" to be resolved. Kohlberg (1984) suggests that moral development follows a multi-stage sequence in which reasoning is first governed by fear of punishment, then concern for others, and then concern for universal rights and humanity. This sequencing delineates three major types of ethical standards: self-interest, caring, and principle (Kohlberg, 1984). It also coincides with the three major classes of ethical theory: egoism, utilitarianism, and deontology (Fritzsche and Becker, 1984; Williams, 1985). The ethical standards (or classes of ethical theory) may be distinguished in terms of their basic motives. Decisions are made to maximize one's own interests, to maximize joint interests, or to adhere to universal principles, respectively. Both Kohlberg's theory of moral development and much of moral philosophy share the assumption that these ethical criteria are importantly distinct -- the types of ethical reasoning are relatively incompatible (Gilligan, 1982; Haan, Aerts, and Cooper, 1985; Kohlberg, 1984). Similar to individuals who use one predominant type of ethical reasoning, the dominant type of ethical climate in an organization may influence the ethical conflicts considered, the resolution process, and the characteristics of the solution (Victor and Cullen, 1987).

To begin a study in organizational ethical climates and to develop a construct of ethical work climate, Victor and Cullen (1987; 1988) assume that corporate ethical climates also evolve along a dimension similar to Kohlberg's ethical standards and the three types of ethical theory: egoism, benevolence, and principle. Individuals make decisions in an effort to either maximize self-interests, maximize joint interests, or adhere to universal principles.

Loci of Analysis. In his stages of ethical development Kohlberg (1984) also distinguishes among the levels of ethical concern. As development takes place, ethical concern progresses from the context of the individual, to concern for the social system, and ultimately to concern for humanity as a whole.

These loci of analysis originated in sociological theories of roles and reference groups (Victor and Cullen, 1988). Merton (1957) draws a distinction between a local and a cosmopolitan role. For the local role, the sources of role definition are contained within the organization, such as a workgroup. For the cosmopolitan role, the sources of role definition are external to the organization, such as a professional association or body of law (Victor and Cullen, 1987; 1988). A third locus of analysis is individual. This locus is external to the focal organization in the sense that the prevailing normative climate supports a referent for ethical reasoning located within the individual, such as advocating use of personal ethics or engaging in self-interested behavior (Victor and Cullen, 1987; 1988).

Each of these three loci of analysis (individual, local, and cosmopolitan) contain expectations for behavior and attitudes that are quite different from each other. Thus, it appears that organizational ethical climates may be distinguished in terms of level of ethical

analysis. There may be different climates that emphasize individualism, an organizational focus, or cosmopolitan directed behavior. Additionally, it may be expected that there is a degree of mutual exclusion among these foci (Victor and Cullen, 1987).

Construct Development of Ethical Work Climate

Victor and Cullen (1987; 1988) conceptually cross-classified the three classes of ethical theory with the three referents to form nine theoretical dimensions of ethical climate (see Table 2.3). As illustrated on the vertical axis, the basis of an ethical system may be egoism, benevolence (utilitarianism), or principle (deontology). As depicted on horizontal axis, ethical referents may be individual, local, or cosmopolitan. Ethical climate may be expected to vary along the two axes (dimensions), suggesting the possibility of nine theoretical ethical climates: self-interest, company profit, efficiency, friendship, team interest, social responsibility, personal morality, rules and standard operating procedures, or laws and professional codes (Victor and Cullen, 1987; 1988).

Table 2.3

Theoretical Ethical Work Climate Types

ETHICAL CRITERIA	LOCUS OF ANALYSIS		
	INDIVIDUAL	LOCAL	COSMOPOLITAN
EGOISM	Self-Interest	Company Profit	Efficiency
BENEVOLENCE	Friendship	Team Interest	Social Responsibility
PRINCIPLE	Personal Morality	Standard Operating Procedures, Rules	Laws, Professional Codes

Source: Victor and Cullen (1987; 1988)

Research Variables

The hypothesized model encompasses three main variables and the potential relationships among them. The variables involved in the current research study are ethical work climate (consisting of a maximum of nine theoretical dimensions), covenantal relations, and organizational citizenship behavior (consisting of three theoretical dimensions). The overall framework is presented in detail in Chapter 3. This section discusses theoretical and empirical literature addressing each of the three variables.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Graham's (1986, 1991) political approach to organizational citizenship, in contrast to the original model (see Bateman and Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983) employs OCB as a global term describing all organizationally relevant individual behavior. This approach releases researchers from defining what behavior is or is not organizationally functional and from drawing distinctions between in-role and extra-role behavior. Conceptually, the intellectual heritage of citizenship research in philosophy and political science may be used as a theoretical foundation to identify substantive categories of citizenship responsibilities.

Political philosophers acknowledge that citizenship encompasses multiple responsibilities and emphasize that responsible civic citizenship requires balanced engagement in obedience, loyalty, and participation (Cary, 1977; Inkeles, 1969; Janowitz, 1984; Lane, 1965; Pateman, 1970; Rossiter, 1950; Wolin, 1960). Inkeles's (1969) definition of "active citizenship syndrome" is comprised of these three interrelated substantive categories of civic citizenship responsibilities. Obedience commands respect for orderly structures and

processes. Loyalty enlarges welfare functions to include serving the interests of the community as a whole and the values it represents. Participation entails active and responsible involvement in community self-governance in manners prescribed under the law (Inkeles, 1969). Graham (1991) extends this perspective of civic citizenship and applies the political categories and obedience, loyalty, and participation to citizenship in organizational settings. Table 2.4 presents Graham's (1991) application of Inkeles (1969) active citizenship syndrome model to define dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. This global conceptualization of organizational citizenship includes traditional in-role job performance behaviors, organizationally functional extra-role behaviors, and political behaviors, such as full and responsible organizational participation, that typically have been omitted from early studies of OCB (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Empirical results support discrete dimensions of loyalty and obedience. However, factor analysis results indicate that the participation category is more complex. This theoretical dimension actually factors into three empirical dimensions (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Participation items that are noncontroversial and that involve interaction with others (e.g., attending meetings, engaging in positive communications, and involvement in group activities) are labeled "social participation." Participation items targeting organizational members and reflecting controversy (e.g., innovation, maintenance of high standards, and suggestions for change) are labeled "advocacy participation." Participation items in which hard-working, highly committed individuals focus on themselves, yet contribute to organizational effectiveness (e.g., performing additional work activities, self-development, and volunteering)

are labeled "functional participation." Thus, Van Dyne et al. (1994) empirically derive a theory-based five factor model for organizational citizenship behavior.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Research

Since Graham's (1991) conceptualization of OCB may be designed to encompass much of the meaning of Organ's (1988a) conceptualization (with the exception of altruism), this section reviews relevant research incorporating either conceptualization of OCB.

Table 2.4

Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

OCB DIMENSION AND DEFINITION	REPRESENTATIVE BEHAVIORS
Obedience -- acceptance of the necessity and desirability of rational rules and regulations governing organizational structure, job descriptions, and personnel policies	respect for rules and instructions, punctuality in attendance and task completion, and stewardship of organizational resources
Loyalty -- identification with and allegiance to an organization's leaders and the organization as a whole, transcending the parochial interests of individuals, work groups, and departments	defending the organization against threats, contributing to its good reputation, and cooperating with others to serve the interests of the whole
Participation -- interest in organizational affairs guided by ideal standards of virtue, validated by an individual's keeping informed, and expressed through full and responsible involvement in organizational governance	attending nonrequired meetings, sharing informed opinions and new ideas with others, and being willing to deliver bad news or support an unpopular view to combat groupthink

Source: Information taken from Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch, 1994, p. 767

The literature follows three main streams: (1) the satisfaction-performance/OCB relationship, (2) OCB and fairness cognitions, and (3) OCB and the nature of the relationship between the individual and the organization. Additionally, these studies and others examine OCB in relation to demographics, personal variables, and situational variables.

Satisfaction-Performance (OCB) Relationship. Researchers have debated the satisfaction-performance hypothesis for decades. Over 40 years ago Brayfield and Crockett (1955) reviewed a large body of evidence that proved unsupportive of the proposition of any appreciable relationship among the two variables. Nonetheless, intuition drives researchers to continue examining the possible relationship (e.g., Iaffaldano and Muchinsky, 1985; Petty, McGee, and Cavendar, 1984; Vroom, 1964). Organ (1977) suggests that a reconciliation may lie in the various connotations of "performance." Organizational citizenship behaviors are proposed as an alternative type of performance. There are two distinct bases for thinking that such behavior would be influenced by satisfaction. Social exchange theory (Adams, 1965; Blau, 1964) implies that to the extent an individual's satisfaction results from the efforts of organizational officials, the individual will seek to reciprocate those efforts. Secondly, Clark and Isen (1982) found that prosocial gestures are most likely to occur when a person experiences a generalized mood state characterized by positive affect. To the extent that job satisfaction reflects this positive affective state, it is likely that more satisfied persons display more of the prosocial, citizenship behaviors (Bateman and Organ, 1983). Thus, early OCB research focused upon the satisfaction-performance (OCB) relationship.

Six studies, incorporating varied measures of OCB and satisfaction and surveying a variety of organizations and occupations, found statistically reliable associations (correlations ranging from .15 to .54) between job satisfaction and OCB. They are presented in Table 2.5. Collectively, the research is limited by the fact that it does not imply direction of causation. Individually, each study presents difficulties of interpretation due to procedural or measurement weaknesses. However, when viewed collectively, the studies lend reasonable support to the hypothesis that OCB bears a strong relationship to job satisfaction (Organ, 1988).

Job satisfaction has been regarded as virtually analogous to job attitudes. However, it is generally acknowledged that an attitude contains both a cognitive component (beliefs regarding an object) and an affective component (feelings or emotions elicited by the object). Research indicates that the attitude toward an object and the behavior with respect to the object may be driven by either the cognitive component or the affective component. When both the attitude and the behavior are driven by the same component, the correlation between attitude and behavior will be greater (Millar and Tesser, 1986).

Studies indicate that measures of satisfaction are dominated by a cognitive component (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Brief & Roberson, 1987; Campbell, 1976; Organ & Near, 1985). Given that job satisfaction measures reliably correlate with measures of OCB (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983; Graham, 1986), and given that a cognitive component dominates in satisfaction measures, it seems plausible that cognitions rather than affect drive OCB (Organ, 1988a).

Table 2.5

Research Regarding OCB Measures and Satisfaction Indices

RESEARCH STUDY	MAJOR FEATURES
Bateman & Organ (1983)	<p><u>Sample</u>: 77 nonacademic university employees</p> <p><u>OCB Measure</u>: 30 items/1 factor</p> <p><u>Predictor</u>: job satisfaction (JDI)</p> <p><u>Correlations</u>: .41, .41, .43 (time 1, time 2, cross-lagged correlations)</p>
Smith, Organ, & Near (1983)	<p><u>Sample</u>: 422 bank employees</p> <p><u>OCB Measure</u>: 16 items/2 factors (altruism, conscientiousness)</p> <p><u>Predictor</u>: job satisfaction (Scott's "Me at Work")</p> <p><u>Correlations</u>: .33, .29</p>
Williams, Podsakoff, & Huber (1986)	<p><u>Sample</u>: 453 nursing home employees</p> <p><u>OCB Measure</u>: 16 items/3 factors (altruism and two dimensions of generalized compliance)</p> <p><u>Predictor</u>: satisfaction with supervisor</p> <p><u>Correlations</u>: .15, .16, .24</p>
Puffer (1987)	<p><u>Sample</u>: 141 salespeople</p> <p><u>OCB Measure</u>: 5 items/prosocial behavior</p> <p><u>Predictor</u>: satisfaction with material rewards (pay, security)</p> <p><u>Correlations</u>: .27</p>
Graham (1986)	<p><u>Sample</u>: 386 members of four diverse organizations</p> <p><u>OCB Measure</u>: 5 forms of OCB (obedience, excellence, loyalty, neighborliness, civic virtue)</p> <p><u>Predictor</u>: overall job satisfaction</p> <p><u>Correlation</u>: .37, .42, .54, .19, .35</p>
Scholl, Cooper, & McKenna (1987)	<p><u>Sample</u>: 152 financial institution managers</p> <p><u>OCB Measure</u>: 30-item measure of 10 extra-role behaviors</p> <p><u>Predictor</u>: pay satisfaction and job equity</p> <p><u>Correlation</u>: .19, .41</p>

Organ and Konovsky (1989), Williams and Anderson (1991), and Moorman (1993) provide empirical evidence in support of this proposal. Their results lend qualified support

to the hypothesis that measures of cognitions surpass measures of affect in prediction of job-related prosocial behaviors. This implies that OCB has a "deliberate, controlled character, somewhat akin to conscious decision making rather than expressive emotional behavior" (Organ and Konovsky, 1989; p. 162). Thus, if OCB follows from cognitive appraisal of job outcomes, OCB would depend on the favorability of those appraisals, which are amenable to influence by organizational officials (Organ and Konovsky, 1989). The cognitive appraisals of job outcomes probably reflect an individual's opinions regarding the degree of fairness or justice characterizing the relationship with the organization (Organ, 1988a; Organ, 1988b; Organ and Konovsky, 1989). Summarily, the most plausible interpretation of the satisfaction-OCB correlation is that OCB varies positively with the extent to which a person believes that fairness is maintained within the relationship between the individual and the organization (Organ, 1988a, 1988b).

OCB and Fairness Cognitions. Following Organ's (1988a, 1988b) argument that OCB is related to an individual's perceptions of fairness, a stream of research evolved which investigates the relationship between fairness cognitions (or equity or justice) and organizational citizenship. Table 2.6 presents eight studies which examine this relationship.

Organ (1988b, 1990) suggests two justifications for the proposed relationship between fairness and citizenship. First, Adams' (1965) equity theory proposes that perceptions of unfairness or inequity will create individual tension, which that person will seek to resolve. Organ (1988a) suggests that OCB is conceivably an input that may be raised or lowered in response to perceived inequity. Organ (1988b) argues that altering OCB may be more

Table 2.6
Research Regarding OCB and Fairness Cognitions

RESEARCH STUDY	MAJOR FINDINGS
Organ (1988b)	Reviews evidence arguing that satisfaction more generally correlates with OCB than with traditional performance; suggests that fairness cognitions are the major factor leading to this correlation.
Organ & Konovsky (1989)	Found that cognitions surpass affect in predicting job-related prosocial behavior; suggests that fairness cognitions are associated with OCB.
Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ (1990)	Found that leader fairness and task characteristics are relevant causal variables, with OCB and satisfaction correlated because they are common effects of the causal factors.
Williams & Anderson (1991)	Found two job cognition variables to be related to OCB, but affective variables and organizational commitment were not significant predictors.
Moorman (1991)	Found job satisfaction unrelated to OCB when fairness perceptions are measured; perceptions of organizational justice influence job satisfaction and OCB; perceptions of procedural justice influence perceptions of distributive justice.
Moorman (1993)	Found that cognitive job satisfaction measures explain more variance in OCB than affective satisfaction measures.
Niehoff & Moorman (1993)	Monitoring methods of observation negatively influence OCB, but also have a positive influence through their effect on perceptions of fairness.
Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ (1993)	Relationships exist between procedural justice and commitment, satisfaction, and OCB; however, no relationships between commitment and OCB nor between satisfaction and OCB were found once relationships between justice and citizenship were controlled.

desirable than altering traditional performance because OCB includes discretionary behavior that is not subject to formal role requirements.

Second, Blau's (1964) discussion of economic and social exchange implies that if individuals consider their employment relationship to be characterized by conditions of social exchange, they may be more likely to exhibit OCB. Because social exchange exists beyond the bounds of strict contracts, the exchange is more ambiguous, allowing for individual discretionary behavior in the form of OCB. Organ (1988b) posits that perceptions of being treated fairly prompt individuals to define their relationship with the organization as one of social exchange rather than strictly contractual. Thus, it influences individuals to reciprocate in the form of organizational citizenship behavior.

Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ (1990) tested the hypothesis that composite measures of leader fairness and task scope each contribute uniquely to variance in OCB when controlling for the appropriate measures of satisfaction. They argue that previously reported relationships between OCB and job satisfaction are due to the correlations between job satisfaction and variables bearing a true relationship with OCB, specifically leader fairness and task scope.

Their results indicate that satisfaction is not a direct antecedent of either altruism or compliance dimensions of OCB. Leader fairness is directly related to satisfaction with supervisors and altruism. Task scope is directly related to altruism, compliance, and satisfaction with task. Essentially, leader fairness and task characteristics are relevant causal variables. OCB and job satisfaction are correlated because they are common effects of the causal factors (Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ, 1990).

Moorman (1991) provides additional support for this hypothesis. He found that job satisfaction was unrelated to OCB when perceptions of fairness are also measured. However, closer analysis indicates that the type of fairness perception may be important in predicting OCB. Analyses of individual relations between three dimensions of fairness and OCB resulted in differential effects attributable to distributive justice, formal procedures, and interactional justice. Moorman (1991) found that interactional justice was the only dimension of fairness to significantly relate to OCB. Thus, individuals perceiving fair treatment appeared more likely to exhibit citizenship behaviors.

Moorman, Niehoff, and Organ (1993) conducted a study regarding relationships among procedural justice, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and OCB. Results indicate that procedural justice is positively related to organizational commitment, work satisfaction, and OCB. However, when controlling for the relationship between procedural justice and OCB, neither work satisfaction nor organizational commitment predict OCB.

Moorman, Niehoff, and Organ (1993) offer an explanation for why procedural justice might predict OCB better than job satisfaction or organizational commitment. They suggest examining why individuals view certain procedures as fair. Lind and Tyler (1988) have proposed two models, the self-interest model and the group value model. Moorman, Niehoff, and Organ (1993) perceive the group value model as providing a more appropriate explanation in the case of organizational citizenship behaviors.

Lind and Earley (1991) suggest that with the group value model certain procedures are seen as fair because they "linked procedural justice judgments to values within a person's reference group and to the desire to be and be seen to be a full-fledged, full-status member

of the group, organization, or society that mandates the decision-making procedure" (p. 7). For example, procedures allowing participation convey individual worth as a group member. Procedures denying voice imply that the individual has nothing of value to contribute to the whole. Organizational citizenship behaviors are group-oriented behaviors that may not be expressly or contractually recompensed by individual gain. These behaviors are predicated on an individual's belief that the organization values the individual; he/she should perform behaviors that contribute to the welfare of the group. On the other hand, lack of procedural justice may imply no individual part in the group's fate, thus resulting in less of a moral obligation to contribute beyond minimal in-role requirements (Lind and Earley, 1991). The "group value model" (Lind and Tyler, 1988) implies that the relationship between the organization and the individual may be important in OCB studies.

OCB and the Nature of the Relationship Between the Individual and the Organization. There is a stream of OCB research examining the nature of the relations between the individual and the organization as a factor affecting OCB. Table 2.7 presents a summary of research literature regarding OCB and the nature of the relationship between the individual and the organization.

Organ and Konovsky (1989) emphasize that rendering OCB seems to reflect mainly a sense of social exchange with the organization in that it does not adhere strictly to contractual obligations. If an individual maintains trust in the organization, he/she does not worry about the compensation associated with the behavior. Atmospheres lacking such trust may lead to redefining the relationship along contractual or economic boundaries. The degree

to which OCB occurs may depend upon relationships affected by cognitive appraisal of fairness of treatment by the organization (Organ and Konovsky, 1989).

Konovsky and Pugh's (1994) findings are consistent with a social exchange model of organizational citizenship behavior. Trust in the supervisor mediates the relationship between procedural justice and OCB and suggests that OCB takes place in a setting in which social exchange characterizes the quality of superior-subordinate relationships. One source of trust is procedural fairness (Lind and Tyler, 1988). The use of procedurally fair practices demonstrates an authority's respect for the rights and dignity of individuals, thus resulting in individual trust in the long-run fairness in the relationship (Folger and Konovsky, 1989).

In contrast, distributive justice is typically a measure of fairness of transactional contracts and economic exchange. This implies that parties to an exchange give benefits with the expectation of receiving comparable benefits in return. Konovsky and Pugh (1994) found that distributive justice does not predict OCB. Organ's (1988a) theory that procedural justice would be subordinate to distributive justice in the employment context was not upheld. Empirical evidence (e.g., Konovsky and Folger, 1991; Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Moorman, 1991; and Podsakoff et al., 1990) indicates that procedural justice is not subordinate to distributive justice in determining OCB. Thus, implying that OCB occurs in conditions defined by social exchange.

Graham's (1991) conceptualization of organizational citizenship in terms of political theory associates OCB with a stronger, covenantal relationship rather than a social exchange. Political philosophy asserts that active citizenship syndrome is based on covenantal relations, characterized by open-ended commitment, mutual trust, and shared values (Bromley and

Table 2.7

**Research Regarding OCB and the Nature of the Relationship
Between the Individual and the Organization**

RESEARCH STUDY	MAJOR FINDINGS
Graham (1991)	Using political philosophy, OCB is positioned as the organizational equivalent of civic citizenship responsibilities; organizational rights are proposed as affecting relational ties between the organization and the individual; the stronger the relational ties, the higher levels of OCB are predicted.
Witt (1991)	Suggests that the salience of job attitudes in developing organizational behaviors may be influenced by individual exchange ideology; those with strong exchange ideology may be more likely to consider how the organization supports them in deciding whether or not to engage in OCB.
Organ & Moorman (1993)	Proposes that "fairness in the social contract" is a construct which accounts for the fusion of selfish and unselfish motives in organizations; transactional contracts cannot account for OCB.
Reed & Kelly (1993)	OCB is defined through exchange theory as the experience of membership and affiliation with an organization that arises from the exchange of rights, duties, and obligations between the individual and the organization.
Konovsky & Pugh (1994)	Role of trust in a supervisor as a mediator of the relationship between procedural justice and OCB suggests that OCB occurs in a context in which social exchange characterizes the quality of superior-subordinate relationships.
Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau (1994)	Suggests that citizenship may result from individuals' perceptions of their obligations to organizations and the degree to which they are reciprocated rather than from attachment, loyalty, or satisfaction.

Table 2.7 (Continued)

RESEARCH STUDY	MAJOR FINDINGS
Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch (1994)	OCB is reconceptualized in terms of political philosophy; in general, excluding obedience, results support covenantal relationship's mediation between OCB and personal, situational, and positional antecedents.
Moorman & Blakely (1995)	Individuals holding collectivistic values or norms are more likely to perform OCBs; this disposition drives OCB in early stages of employment until the employee is able to appraise the type of exchange defining the employment relationship; then, it is proposed that the relationship between disposition and OCB will be moderated by the employee's perception of fairness in that exchange.
Robinson & Morrison (1995)	When employees felt that the employer had violated the psychological contract, they were less likely to engage in OCB in the next time frame; there is evidence that the relationship is partially mediated by trust.

Busching, 1988; Elazar, 1980; Graham, 1991; Graham and Organ 1993; and Van Dyne et al., 1994). Parks (1992) argues that covenantal relations lead to higher levels of OCB perhaps by raising intrinsic motivation. Graham and Organ (1993) cite obedience, loyalty, and participation in organizational contexts as results of covenantal relations. Van Dyne et al. (1994) found that covenantal relations mediate the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviors and personal, situational, and positional antecedents.

In addition to examinations of the satisfaction-performance (OCB) relationship, OCB and fairness cognitions, and OCB and the nature of the relationship between the organization and the individual, many researchers have studied other variables in relation to OCB. These include demographic, individual, situational, and environmental variables. Table 2.8 presents

a summary of studies examining these variables (not specifically addressed elsewhere in this dissertation) in relation to organizational citizenship behavior.

Table 2.8
Variables Related to Organizational Citizenship Behavior

RESEARCH STUDY	VARIABLES RELATED TO OCB
Smith, Organ, & Near (1983)	Found that education, urban/rural background, neuroticism (indirectly through satisfaction), and leader supportiveness (indirectly through satisfaction) affect altruism. Found that lie scale, leader supportiveness, urban/rural background, years with company (indirectly through leader supportiveness), and company (indirectly through leader supportiveness) affect compliance.
Organ and Konovsky (1989)	Found that demographic variables as a set produced <u>no</u> statistically significant multiple correlations in either altruism or conscientiousness.
Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ (1990)	Found that leader fairness and task scope affect altruism. Task characteristics affect compliance.
George (1991)	Found positive mood as an affective state to affect altruism.
Williams & Anderson (1991)	Organizational commitment was found to bear <u>no</u> significant relationship to OCB
Schnake (1991)	Based on the Smith et al. (1983) study finding the lie scale to be related to OCB, Schnake proposes that the lie scale may reflect a need for social approval, which should be related to OCB. Based on Puffer (1987) finding need for achievement associated with prosocial behavior, Schnake proposes need for achievement as affecting OCB.
Graham (1991)	Proposes that sociopolitical culture, organizational culture, personal attitudes and beliefs, and stage of moral development affect OCB.

Table 2.8 (Continued)

RESEARCH STUDY	VARIABLES RELATED TO OCB
Schnake, Dumler, & Cochran (1993)	Traditional leadership contributes incremental explained variance beyond super leadership on five dimensions of OCB. Super leadership contributes <u>no</u> explained variance beyond traditional leadership.
Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ (1993)	When the relationship between procedural justice and OCB was controlled, the relationship between organizational commitment and OCB was <u>not</u> significant.
Niehoff & Moorman (1993)	The monitoring method of observation negatively influences OCB, but also has a positive effect through its effect on perceptions of fairness.
McNeely & Meglino (1994)	Prosocial behavior directed at the organization was significantly related to reward equity and recognition for desirable behavior. Behavior aimed at an individual depended upon dispositional factors. Values exert a direct effect on individual behavior at work.
Organ (1994)	Proposes that personality could explain the correlation between job attitudes and OCB.
Morrison (1994)	Employees differ in what they define as in-role and extra-role behavior. The differences are related to commitment and social cues. Employees are more likely to display OCB if they define the behavior as in-role rather than extra-role.
Van Dyne, Dienesch, & Graham (1994)	Regression of five categories of citizenship on six antecedents (job satisfaction, cynicism, values, motivating job characteristics, tenure, and job level) found 19 of 30 coefficients to be significant ($p < .10$).
Robinson & Morrison (1995)	Results indicate that when employees believe the employer has not fulfilled terms of the employment contract, they are less likely to engage in OCB.
Moorman & Blakely (1995)	Results suggest that if an individual holds collectivistic values or norms, he/she will be more likely to perform OCB than someone holding individualistic values or norms.

Covenantal Relations

Graham's (1991) conceptualization describes OCB as occurring in a context of covenantal relations, rather than social or transactional relations. It is important to review the defining characteristics of covenantal relations in comparison to other types of relational ties.

An interdisciplinary review offers several typologies for characterizing the relations between individual members and their collectivities (Graham, 1991). Graham and Organ (1993) propose a typology consisting of three categories: transactional, social exchange, and covenantal. Table 2.9 presents an overview of these types of relational ties.

Transactional ties to an organization are characterized by a contract signifying economic exchange. According to this concept, an individual enters into a binding agreement with an organization specifying the contributions to be rendered, the compensation to be

Table 2.9

Typology of Relational Ties

	TRANSACTIONAL	SOCIAL EXCHANGE	COVENANTAL
MOTIVATIONAL PARADIGM	Expectancy Theory	Equity Theory	Faith to Values
DEGREE OF INCLUSIVENESS	Narrowly Segmental	Broadly Segmental	Holistic
EXPECTED DURATION OF RELATIONSHIP	Short-Term	Intermediate	Long-Term
CULTURE	Weak	Moderate	Strong
COST OF EXIT	Low	Moderate	Substantial

Source: Adapted from Graham and Organ (1993)

received in exchange, and the specific rights and privileges of the parties to the contract. The individual's actions are directed toward maximizing his/her personal outcomes, given the terms of the contract. Involvement in the relationship is limited to skills or attributes that are instrumentally related to outcomes sought by the other parties. It is also expected that the parties abide by a temporary time horizon and continually search for higher self-interest transactional exchanges. Given the specific terms of the exchange, the limited inclusion, and short time horizon, there is conceivably little need for distinctive organizational culture to guide behavior. Additionally, with minimal personal investment in the relationship, there is a relatively low cost of exit if the individual perceives an opportunity to obtain better market terms (Graham and Organ, 1993).

Transactional relations provide maximum flexibility in relationships with participants because associations are easily terminated or terms may be changed. However, participants are not motivated to act beyond the scope of contractual terms. It should not be expected that such agreements would evoke loyalty and devotion (Graham and Organ, 1993)

A second type of relations, social exchange relations, are also characterized by mutual giving and receiving of benefits. However, social exchange is founded on a long-run exchange of fairness that is based on diffuse obligations to reciprocate fairly and no need to formally account for each exchange. Those with a strong sense of social exchange assume that individuals who are well-treated will contribute in ways that go beyond the letter of their job descriptions. Because forms of contribution are valued and not necessarily specified, social exchange ties form a basis for a greater degree of inclusion of participants. Because exchanges are not contractually specified, the individual maintains a longer relationship with

the organization knowing through trust and fairness that reciprocity governs over time and benefits will be received in proportion to inputs. Cultural development is made possible by longer-term relations. Additionally, culture is necessary to form and sustain consensus of how the interests of various parties are harmonized in the long run. Social exchanges provide for a higher cost of exit to the relationship because some forms of contributions are investments for which no return is realized until a later date (Graham and Organ, 1993).

Social exchange relations secure a broader array of contributions than the transactional type, including loyalty. Additionally, since obligations are diffuse, social exchange relations incur less transaction costs and burdens of planning. The only apparent problem with social exchange relations is that a violation of trust or fairness cannot be forgiven, so some employees may be reluctant to commit to that type of relationship (Graham and Organ, 1993).

The third type of relational ties, covenantal relations, commit parties to the welfare of each other through reciprocity and diffuse obligations, similar to a social exchange, but also to a set of values (Graham and Organ, 1993). In addition to affective ties, covenantal relationships include a moral dimension (Etzioni, 1988), shared commitment to a transcendent force, value, or principle of goodness (Graham, 1991). Work behavior may be the result of a calculative motivational force (as in expectancy and equity theory), but also a normative, value-based motivation force (Etzioni, 1988). Behavior in covenantal relations stems from the desire to realize a set of values or an idealized future state. Self-interest is present, as in other forms of relational ties, but the boundaries between self and others are ambiguous, and rational economic gain is positioned within strong normative constraints (Graham and Organ,

1993). Values such as "honesty, harmony, productivity, efficiency, justice, and creativity" (Haughey, 1989, pp. 76-77) construct covenantal ties in the work environment.

Inclusion in covenantal relations is holistic because ego-identity is saturated and at least partially defined by the set of transcendent values (Shamir, 1990). Holistic involvement encompasses routine in-role behaviors, but also requires any contribution, reasonable exertion, and tolerable sacrifice that preserves the covenant, sustains the welfare of the parties, and promotes the realization of transcendent values. A distinction between in-role and extra-role behavior is not feasible (Graham and Organ, 1993). Organizational citizenship, once viewed as extra-role discretionary behavior (Organ, 1988) is now conceived as responsibilities of citizenship in a holistic sense (Graham and Organ, 1993). These responsibilities include obedience, loyalty, and responsible participation in governance (Graham, 1991; Inkeles, 1969; Van Dyne et al., 1994).

The normative constraints characterizing covenantal relations sustain membership through hardship and sacrifice. Holistic inclusion and long-term membership lead to creation of a distinctive culture. This culture, in turn, is essential as a means of reaffirming the defining values of the covenant. In practicality, long-term involvement in a distinctive culture prescribes methods and practices that are not easily transferable to another organization. Additionally, sacrifice in the service of certain ideals creates more difficulty in the contemplation of exiting the organization. Thus, there is a substantial cost involved with a decision to sever covenantal relations (Graham and Organ, 1993).

In a stronger sense than social exchange relations, covenants serve to minimize transaction costs arising from equity considerations, self-interest, and opportunism (Ouchi,

1980). If parties internalize the defining values of the covenant, they are released from concern with self-interest. Self-interests are determined by, and coincide with, the defined values; individuals are pledged to benefit the welfare of all parties. Because the nature of covenants is holistic, an individual's entire set of attributes represent potential contributions to welfare. Contributions are not limited to in-role behavior, even broadly defined (Graham and Organ, 1993).

Covenantal Relations Research

According to Grover (1982), the historical development of the covenantal concept dates back to the second millennium, B.C. when Hittite archives distinguished between types of treaties -- the forerunner of the transactional exchange and the suzerainty covenant. From the same era, the Israelites developed a more distinctive notion of covenant. The Sinai covenant bound the Children of Israel to one another, collectively to God, and to the dissemination of certain ethical, social, and theocratic precepts.

Largely inspired by the Old Testament, the concept of covenantal relations was adopted by the Western world. Perhaps the most notable example in U.S. history refers to the Puritans of New England in the early 17th century. Additionally, in the early 18th century, various attempts at founding Utopian societies provide further expression of covenantal relations. Examples of covenantal agreements also extend to modern corporations. Companies such as Herman Miller, Inc., IBM, Meredith Corporation, and Cummins Engine have developed covenantal characteristics (Graham and Organ, 1993).

Since the history of covenantal relations extends from the time of the Old Testament to the present, it would be impractical to review covenantal relations research in its entirety. Therefore, this section reviews selected recent research pertinent to the association between covenantal relations, organizational citizenship and work climate/culture. Summaries are presented in Table 2.10.

Graham (1991) advocates a more comprehensive understanding of job performance and organizational citizenship than that employed in earlier research. Incorporating the intellectual heritage of the word "citizenship" from political philosophy, OCB is described as the organizational equivalent of citizenship responsibilities, of which there are three categories: (1) obedience, (2) loyalty, and (3) participation.

Political philosophy suggests that the nature of the relationship citizens have with their government is critical to their citizenship behavior. Active citizenship is founded on a covenantal relationship, the strongest form of relational ties, which is characterized by open-ended commitment, mutual trust, and shared values (Bromley and Busching, 1988; Elazar, 1980; Graham, 1991; and Grover, 1982).

Based on the extension of political citizenship concepts to organizational analysis. Graham (1991) proposed several relationships among citizenship rights, citizenship responsibilities (analogous to OCB), and relational ties. Generous rights are predicted to strengthen relational ties, and strength of relational ties was predicted to have a direct impact on all forms of OCB. As organizational civil rights increase, organizational obedience should also increase. As organizational social rights increase, organizational loyalty should also increase. As organizational political rights increase, organizational participation should also

Table 2.10

**Research Regarding Covenantal Relations
and Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

Graham (1991)	Using political philosophy, OCB is positioned as the organizational equivalent of civic citizenship; organizational rights are proposed as affecting relational ties between the organization and the individual; the stronger the relational ties, the higher levels of OCB are predicted; covenantal relations are presented as the strongest form of relational ties.
Graham & Organ (1993)	Transactional exchange, social exchange, and covenantal relations are compared and contrasted; varieties of organizational commitment are possible in all three cases; OCB is extra-role in social exchange; OCB is holistic in covenantal relations (there is no distinction between in-role and extra-role behavior)
Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ (1993)	Provides empirical support for a link between covenantal relations and OCB by invoking a group value model to account for the relationship between procedural justice and citizenship.
Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch (1994)	OCB is conceptualized in terms of political philosophy; in general, excluding obedience, results support covenantal relationship's mediation between OCB and personal, situational, and positional antecedents.

increase. Finally, stronger relational ties to the organization are predicted to enhance the individual direct relationships between the citizenship rights and OCB dimensions.

Graham (1991) argues that three categories of exogenous factors -- environmental, organizational, and personal factors -- are likely to influence organizational citizenship and would need to be considered when testing the propositions described. Cultural traditions or beliefs regarding human nature may predispose people to form or not to form covenantal

relationships. Extent of political participation and valued time horizons may be modeled after the sociopolitical culture in which an organization exists. Additionally, the culture internal to an organization may vary in a manner similar to the larger environment and create an atmosphere that is either hospitable or hostile to covenantal relations. Personal experiences, attitudes, and beliefs are likely to influence individuals' propensity to form strong relational ties with an organization. Finally, an individual's stage of moral development is likely to influence his/her choice of time horizon and welfare function (Graham, 1991).

As discussed earlier, Graham and Organ (1993) describe three prototypical forms of agreements linking individual participants and their organizations: (1) transactional, (2) social exchange, and (3) covenantal. The theoretical discussion focuses on the relationship between the individual and the organization and its affect on organizational commitment. However, several references are made to the impact of relational agreements on organizational citizenship behavior.

In transactional relations, the individual enters an agreement with the organization in which contributions to be rendered, compensation in exchange, and specific rights of the contracting parties are specified within the context of the agreement. In such a context, contributions not mandated by contract and not directly compensated (Organ's (1988a) organizational citizenship behavior) are not prevalent. Loyalty and devotion should not be expected under the terms of transactional relations (Graham and Organ, 1993).

In a social exchange relationship, organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988a) is critical. The agreement is based on a notion of reciprocity and fairness. The form or timing of gestures is not specified in advance. Benefits received create diffuse obligations for

returning favors and treating others fairly. Since the organization does not explicitly request such behaviors, they represent forms of citizenship behavior. The comparative advantage of social exchange relations over transactional ties is that since behaviors are not contractually specified (and thus, not limited) the organization secures a broader array of contributions, such as loyalty (Graham and Organ, 1993).

Covenantal relations commit parties to the welfare of one another, similar to the social exchange. However, covenantal agreements also commit those involved to a set of transcendent values, taking obligations beyond self-interest. The transcendent values saturate and at least partially define ego-identity or self-interest. Individuals are driven to contribute in a manner to achieve an idealized future state or to sustain the welfare of the group. The distinction between in-role and extra-role behavior becomes ambiguous. In covenantal relations Organ's (1988a) extra-role citizenship behavior is replaced by Graham's (1991) holistic sense of OCB which includes the responsibilities of obedience, loyalty, and participation (Graham and Organ, 1993).

Empirical support for the association between covenantal relations and organizational citizenship behavior has been reported by Moorman, Niehoff, and Organ (1993) who invoke a group value model of procedural justice to account for the relationship between justice and citizenship (Graham and Organ, 1993). Results indicate relationships between procedural justice and commitment, satisfaction, and OCB. However, once the relationships between justice and OCB were controlled, no relationships were found between commitment and OCB or between satisfaction and OCB. Moorman et al. (1993) suggest that this may be explained by ascertaining why employees perceive certain procedures as fair. They employ the group

value model (Lind and Tyler, 1988; Lind and Earley, 1991) previously discussed in this dissertation. In the group value model, organizational procedures are viewed as fair because they demonstrate the dignity and value of individual members of the group. The employee believes that because the organization considers him/her to be valuable as a group member, he/she should perform behaviors that contribute to the welfare of the group (Moorman et al., 1993). Respect for individual dignity and personal value is a feature of covenantal relations (Graham and Organ, 1993).

Van Dyne et al. (1994) provide additional empirical support for a relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and covenantal relations. They predicted a fully mediated model in which person, situational, and positional antecedents of OCB would have no effects beyond those that operate through covenantal relations.

Following the recommendation of Podsakoff and colleagues' (1990) that researchers a variety of antecedents to organizational citizenship behavior, Van Dyne et al. (1994), chose two variables to represent each of three basic types of antecedents. Personal factors were represented by an employee's affective state of satisfaction with job-related dimensions and an individual's dispositional tendency to approach situations cynically. Situational factors included perceptions of an organization's values and perceptions of the motivating potential of employee jobs. Positional factors encompassed organizational tenure and hierarchical job level. These factors are not intended to be an exhaustive list of antecedents, but they do represent a variety of constructs that have been deemed relevant to organizational behavior. It is hypothesized that these factors influence organizational citizenship behavior through the mediator of covenantal relationship (Van Dyne, et al., 1994).

Results of exploratory factor analysis on the organizational citizenship construct generally supported the three substantive categories of OCB derived from the political context of citizenship (obedience, loyalty, and participation). However, the respondents had a more complex conceptualization of participation than originally anticipated, indicating significant distinctions among social, advocacy, and functional participation.

Van Dyne et al. (1994) calculated zero-order correlation between covenantal relationship and the five OCB categories. Significant correlation coefficients ($p < .10$) ranging from .14 to .41 support the prediction that covenantal relationships are positively associated with the substantive categories of OCB. Thus, further analyses explored the hypothesized mediated relationships between OCB and its antecedents.

Overall, the results of a three-step regression analysis indicate mediated relationships for loyalty and the three dimensions of participation. There is no support, however, for a mediated relationship for obedience (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Loyalty had the strongest and most uniform pattern of full mediation. The effects of all six antecedents on loyalty were mediated by covenantal relationship. Five of the six relationships for loyalty were fully mediated (job satisfaction, cynicism, values, motivating potential, and tenure), and job level had a partially mediated effect on loyalty. Thus, personal, situational, and positional factors influence loyalty behaviors through the quality of the relationship they create between an organization and individual participants (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Participation fits the mediated theoretical model relatively well with most of the items having mediated effects (Van Dyne et al., 1994). The pattern of relationships varies within

the three categories of participation, thus supporting three dimensions of participation. Full mediated effects on functional participation are supported for job satisfaction, values, motivating potential, and job level. Partial mediation on functional participation was supported for cynicism. Moderate support is displayed for social participation, with full mediation indicated for job satisfaction, values, and motivating potential, and partial mediation is exhibited for job level. In contrast, results provide only weak support for mediated effects on advocacy participation. Motivating potential has fully mediated effects and job level has partially mediated effects (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Obedience was found to be related to only one antecedent, job satisfaction. However, the relationship between job satisfaction and obedience was not mediated by covenantal relations. The items in the obedience scale suggest that this dimension of OCB may be closer to traditional performance measures. The researchers argue that socialization, job instruction, and explicit incentives may provoke obedience directly and that covenantal relations may not be necessary for obedience to occur. They also state that five of the six chosen antecedents were unrelated to obedience. Perhaps a different set of antecedents may be related to obedience and possibly have mediated effects by covenantal relations similar to those for loyalty and participation (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

To summarize, Van Dyne et al. (1994) found evidence to support the conceptualization of OCB as multidimensional. Additionally, results support the mediating role of covenantal relationship for loyalty, functional participation, and social participation. Furthermore, they recommend that future research explore the implications of the multidimensional nature of OCB. Employees may choose among categories of OCB rather

than engage equally in all forms. These choices may be based on a variety factors, such as personality differences, structural constraints, incentives and recognition, supervisory style, and organizational culture.

Ethical Work Climate

Researchers conducting individual moral development studies have begun to acknowledge that individual characteristics alone are insufficient to explain moral and ethical behavior. Accordingly, there is an increasing concern for the influence of normative systems on individual moral behavior. One means for comprehending organizational normative systems is through the concept of work climate (Schneider, 1983).

In the context of Schneider's (1983) definition of work climate, the existence of an ethical work climate requires that organizational members perceive the existence of normative patterns in the organization with a measurable degree of consensus (Victor and Cullen, 1988). An ethical work climate consists of the prevalent perceptions of individuals regarding typical organizational practices and procedures that have ethical content (Victor and Cullen, 1988). An organization's ethical climate assists in determining which issues are ethically pertinent and what criteria to use to understand and resolve those issues. Ethical work climate is one component of the organizational culture that helps shape shared perceptions of what is ethically correct behavior and how ethical issues will be addressed (Cullen, Victor, and Stephens, 1989).

As presented earlier in this dissertation, Victor and Cullen (1987; 1988) cross-classified the three classes of ethical theory (egoism, benevolence, and principle) with the

three referents for ethical reasoning (individual, local, and cosmopolitan) to form nine theoretical dimensions of ethical climate (refer to Table 2.3).

In a situation defined by the egoism, the basic criterion used in moral reasoning is maximizing self-interests and the loci of analysis identifies the particular "self" in whose interests one is expected act. The individual locus of analysis defines the egoism criterion as attending to the needs and preferences of one's self (e.g., personal gain). The local locus of analysis defines the egoism criterion as considering the organization's interest (e.g., strategic advantage). The cosmopolitan locus of analysis defines the egoism criterion as regarding the larger social or economic system's interest (e.g., efficiency) (Victor and Cullen, 1988).

In a situation defined by benevolence, the basic criterion used in moral reasoning is maximizing joint interests and the loci of analysis identifies "we" and "our concerns." The individual locus of analysis defines the benevolence criterion as consideration of others without reference to organizational affiliation (e.g., friendship). The local locus of analysis defines the benevolence criterion as consideration of the organizational collectivity (e.g., team play). The cosmopolitan locus of analysis defines the benevolence criterion as consideration of constituencies external to the organization (e.g., social responsibility) (Victor and Cullen, 1988).

In a situation defined by principle, the basic criterion used in moral reasoning is adherence to principle. The individual locus of analysis defines the decision-making criteria as self-chosen principles (e.g., personal ethics). The local locus of analysis defines the decision-making criteria as organizational principles (e.g. rules and procedures). The

cosmopolitan locus of analysis defines the decision-making criteria as extraorganizational (e.g., the legal system and professional organizations) (Victor and Cullen, 1988).

Ethical Work Climate Research

This section reviews relevant theoretical and empirical research concerning ethical work climate. Table 2.11 presents a summary of pertinent ethical work climate literature.

Victor and Cullen (1987; 1988) developed the Ethical Climate Questionnaire to measure the types of ethical climates within organizations. Of the nine theoretical climates, five dimensions of ethical climate have been identified empirically: caring, rules, law and code, independence, and instrumental (Victor and Cullen, 1987; 1988).

The caring climate encompassed the three benevolent cells of friendship, team interest, and social responsibility. Employees working in an ethical climate dominated by the caring dimension would have sincere interest in the well-being of others who may be affected by their ethical decisions. The rules and standard operating procedures cell retained its separate rule-oriented climate. Workers operating in this type of climate strictly adhere to the organizational rules and policies in decision-making. Likewise, the laws and professional codes cell maintained its own law and code climate. Employees in this climate adhere to professional or governmental codes and regulations when making decisions. The independence cell comprises the personal morality dimension in which workers are guided by their personal moral beliefs in decision-making. Finally, the instrumental climate is comprised of the self-interest and company profit cells. In the instrumental climate, employees make decisions that benefit their own self-interest, even if decisions have the appearance of helping

Table 2.11

Research Regarding Ethical Work Climate

Victor & Cullen (1987; 1988)	Developed theory and measure of ethical work climate; empirically revealed five dimensions of ethical climate; identified three determinants of ethical climates in organizations.
Cullen, Victor, & Stephens (1989)	Proposed the ethical climate questionnaire as a practical tool for gauging ethical climates of organizations and identifying sources for change if results are undesirable.
Kelley, Skinner, & Ferrell (1989)	Found an inverse relationship between ethical climate and opportunism, indicating that beliefs regarding what is important to an organization are related to behavior.
Singhapakdi & Vitell (1991)	Results suggest that ethical climate influences salespersons' perceptions of ethical problems and courses of action.
Vitell, Rallapalli, & Singhapakdi (1993)	Found ethical climate to have little effect on marketers' acceptance of marketing-related norms; idealism, relativism, income, and gender were predictors of acceptance of some norms.
Elm & Nichols (1993)	Results suggest that manager moral reasoning is not influenced by the ethical climate of the organization.
Cullen, Victor, & Bronson (1993)	Research found that ethical climates are perceived at the psychological level; further research is required to substantiate climates at the organization and subunit level.
Sims & Kroeck (1994)	Ethical work climate is important in the study of person-organization fit
Wimbush and Shepard (1994)	Recommend focusing on the relationship between ethical climate and ethical behavior and on the multi-dimensionality of ethical climate.
Vaicys (1995)	Results indicate partial support for the moderating effect of ethical work climate between ethical ideology and ethical judgments and between ethical judgments and ethical behavioral intentions.

others. Additionally, it is worthy to note that the cosmopolitan/egoism items did not load on a stable factor in the Victor and Cullen (1988) study. However, Victor and Cullen (1987) reported that the "efficiency" items loaded as a distinct factor. A depiction of the relationship between the theoretically- and empirically-identified dimensions of ethical climate is presented in Table 2.12.

Table 2.12

Theoretical and Empirical Dimensions of Ethical Climate

Caring	Friendship Team Interest Social Responsibility
Rules	Rules and Procedures
Law and Code	Laws, Professional Codes
Independence	Personal Morality
Instrumental	Self-Interest Company Profit

Note: The "efficiency" theoretical dimension is not included due to the instability of factor loadings.

Examining the organizational bases of ethical work climate, Victor and Cullen (1988) found that perceptions of ethical climate varied both between and within companies by position, tenure, and workgroup position. Findings also indicate three sources of ethical work climates including the sociocultural environment, organizational form, and firm-specific history.

Cullen, Victor, and Stephens (1989) suggest that an assessment of the organization's ethical climate may be used to determine (1) issues organizational members believe to be ethically pertinent, and (2) criteria used to understand and resolve those issues. Depending upon results, management can strengthen and change the ethical climate through education and training; developing or revising a formal code of ethics; changing monitoring and supervision; and alternating objectives, selection processes, and incentive structures.

Kelley, Skinner, and Ferrell (1989) examined the perceptions of marketing research employees regarding the relationships between ethical climate/culture, ethical profiles, and opportunistic behavior in three types of research organizations. Opportunism is defined as behavior that is self-interested and involves intent to enhance one's position at the expense of another party to an exchange (Kelley et al., 1989). Ethical climate is defined as an organizational member's beliefs of what is viewed as ethically correct behavior within the organization (Victor and Cullen, 1987).

Results indicated a significant inverse relationship between ethical climate and opportunism. This implies a relationship between individual beliefs regarding what is important to an organization and subsequent individual behavior (Kelley et al., 1989). This supports previous literature stressing the relevance of organizational factors in ethical behavior (Ferrell and Gresham, 1985; Hunt and Vitell, 1986).

Singhapakdi and Vitell (1991) investigated the relative influence of corporate ethics codes, Machiavellianism, and gender on the perceptions of sales professionals regarding ethical problems and alternative behaviors. Results support the premise that sales professionals' perceptions are affected by an organization's ethical climate. Positive

relationships were indicated between (1) perceptions of ethical problems and corporate ethics codes and (2) ethical climate and perceptions of non-punitive actions to correct ethical issues. Ethical climate appears to be an essential factor influencing the ethical perceptions of salespeople. (Singhapakdi and Vitell, 1991).

Vitell, Rallapalli, and Singhapakdi (1993) found that ethical climate appears to have little effect on marketers' acceptance of marketing-related norms. They posit that the lack of association may be due to the fact that norm acceptance is dominated by individual factors instead of a firm's support for ethical behavior (Vitell et al., 1993).

Elm and Nichols (1993) conducted a study of factors which could be expected to influence managers' moral reasoning. Contrary to expectations, results indicated that neither perceived ethical climate nor self-monitoring are related to managers' moral reasoning. Elm and Nichols (1993) suggest that researchers further examine the relationships between ethical climate and decision making behavior. Their results indicate the presence of "combination" (p. 829) ethical climates, which theoretically represent a combination of two moral philosophies. It is conceivable that managers may use different philosophical rationales for different situations. They also suggest that organizational role definitions, level of personal responsibility, and/or gender may possibly affect the way managers reason about ethical issues (Elm and Nichols, 1993).

Although results indicate that the level of managers' moral reasoning about ethical issues is not influenced by the organization's ethical climate, personal self-monitoring propensity, or an interaction of the two, Elm and Nichols (1993) noted that this interpretation may be obscured by multicollinearity among the ethical climate scales employed in the study.

Multicollinearity can increase difficulty in determining whether a significant portion of the variance may be explained by a variable in the regression equation (Elm and Nichols, 1993).

Cullen, Victor, and Bronson (1993) assessed the development and validity of the ethical climate questionnaire and reported results of the latest survey. The original ethical climate questionnaire used by Victor and Cullen (1987; 1988) consisted of 26 items. Results provide reliable evidence that ethical climates are perceived at the psychological level. Five climates are empirically identified in the research studies. The 1993 study (Cullen et al., 1993) incorporated 36 items in the ethical climate questionnaire. Results of this study indicate the presence of seven ethical climates as perceived by individuals within the firms.

All three studies (Victor and Cullen, 1987; 1988; Cullen et al., 1993) identified the three principled climates (personal morality, rules and standard operating procedures, and laws and professional codes) and the egotistic self-interest climate in a wide variety of samples, indicating validity of the construct and high reliability for the scales. The efficiency climate was identified in the 1987 and 1993 study, but absent in the 1988 study. After incorporating the additional ten items in the questionnaire, the 1993 study indicated social responsibility as a discrete climate. The benevolence climates of friendship and team interest have loaded on the same factor in all three studies. Only company profit remains undocumented as a psychological ethical climate.

Victor and Cullen hypothesized that ethical work climates have organizational bases distinct from psychological (individual) perceptions. At the psychological level of analysis, 1,167 individuals, representing 12 organizations, have been surveyed. At the psychological and group level of analysis, seven ethical climates have been observed. However, the small

sample of organizations and lack of diversity among them questions the presence of ethical macroclimates. Larger populations of organizations must be surveyed in order to substantiate a typology of organizational ethical climates (Cullen et al., 1993).

Sims and Kroeck (1994) examined the influence of ethical fit on employee attitudes and intentions regarding turnover. Results indicate the ethical work climate is significant for person-organization fit. Ethical fit was found to be related to turnover intentions, and to continuance and affective commitment, but not to job satisfaction.

Results indicate that employees choose environments which match their personal ethical preferences. Data also indicate that the differences between preferred and described climate decreased as the length of tenure increased, with the exception of the instrumental (self-interest) climate. There was also a significant relationship between the absolute difference in the independence climate and turnover intentions and affective commitment. As differences in independence increase, turnover intentions increase, and affective commitment decreases. This suggests that fit in the area of ethical climate may be more important in employee retention than fit in other areas. Differences in caring were also negatively related to affective commitment. Finally, a significant relationship exists between continuance commitment and the absolute difference in instrumental climate. Continuance commitment increases as the absolute differences in instrumental climate increases. In summary, ethical fit was determined to significantly impact turnover intentions, continuance commitment, and affective commitment, but not job satisfaction (Sims and Kroeck, 1994).

Wimbush and Shepard (1994) propose further investigation regarding the conceptual relationship between (1) ethical climate and ethical/unethical behavior in organizations and

(2) between supervision, ethical climate, and subordinate behavior. A linkage between ethical climate and ethical behavior represents an extension from the theoretical basis of ethical climate to the behaviors the climate dimensions are expected to promote.

Wimbush and Shepard (1994) proposed that: (1) individuals in groups characterized by caring, law and code, rules, or independence climates are more likely to behave ethically than employees in groups characterized by an instrumental climate; (2) overall group performance will be higher when caring, independence, law and code, and rules climates are predominant and lower when an instrumental climate is prevalent; and (3) the ethical behavior of subordinates will reflect the ethical climates espoused by their immediate supervisors. These propositions were offered as suggestions for investigation. Continued empirical research regarding variables that are related to the nature, antecedents, and consequences of ethical climate will provide a better understanding of ethical behavior in organizational workgroups (Wimbush and Shepard, 1994).

Summary

This chapter has reviewed important research literature pertaining to the current study, specifically addressing organizational citizenship behavior, covenantal relations, and ethical work climate. The next chapter specifies the research hypotheses and explains the methodology of the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research hypotheses and the methodology of the study. The first section introduces the proposed model and the hypotheses to be tested. Second, the definitions and operationalizations of the variables in the proposed model are discussed. The third section describes the research instrument. Fourth, the research design for the study is presented. Reliability and validity of the scales used to measure the constructs is reviewed in the fifth section. Finally, the last section of the chapter considers the statistical methodology employed in the study.

Research Hypotheses

The formal research hypotheses outlined in this section were derived from the literature review presented in the previous chapter. The general model of the proposed relationships is illustrated in Figure 3.1.

Graham's (1991) conceptualization of organizational citizenship describes it as occurring in a context of covenantal relations. Covenantal relational ties commit parties to the welfare of each other through reciprocity and diffuse obligations (Graham and Organ, 1993). Affective ties are also supplemented by a moral dimension characterized by shared

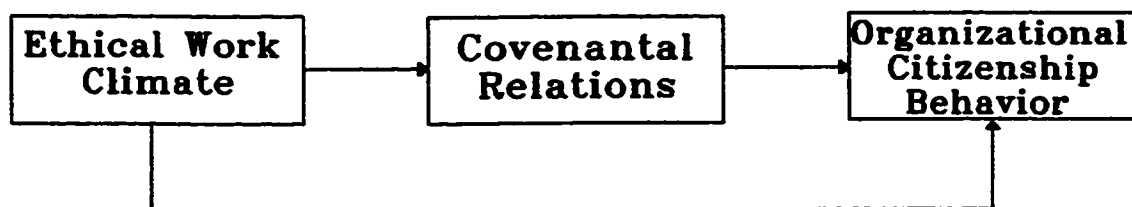


Figure 3.1

**Proposed Relationships Among Ethical Work Climate,
Covenantal Relations, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

commitment to a transcendent force, value, or principle of goodness (Etzioni, 1988; Graham, 1991). Work behavior results from not only a calculative motivational force, but also a normative, value-based force (Etzioni, 1988). Covenantal relationships elicit behavior through the desire to realize a set of values or an idealized future state of being.

Inclusion in covenantal relations is holistic because identity is partially defined by the set of transcendent values (Shamir, 1990). Holistic involvement incorporates routine behavior, but also compels any contribution, exertion, or tolerable sacrifice that preserves the covenant, sustains the welfare of the group and promotes the realization of transcendent values. In covenantal relationships organizational citizenship is conceived as responsibilities of citizenship in a holistic sense (Graham and Organ, 1993) including obedience, loyalty, and participation (Graham, 1991; Inkeles, 1969; Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Parks (1992) argues that covenantal contracts' emphasis on trust, mutuality, and shared values will lead to high levels of citizenship behavior. Extensions of political philosophy to organizational analysis suggest that the nature of the relationship that organizational members have with their organization should have a direct impact on

organizational citizenship behaviors. Empirical studies do indicate a positive association between covenantal relations and organizational citizenship behavior (Moorman et al., 1993; Van Dyne et al., 1994) In covenantal relations individuals are driven to contribute to achieve an idealized future state or to sustain the welfare of the group. The distinction between in-role and extra-role behavior becomes unclear, organizational citizenship behavior occurs in a holistic sense (Graham and Organ, 1993). Therefore, the following hypothesis is offered:

Hypothesis 1: Covenantal relations will be positively related to the substantive categories of organizational citizenship behavior.

In an ethical climate characterized by egoism, the basic criterion used in moral decision making is maximizing self-interests. Covenantal relationships are characterized by moral obligations and responsibility to demonstrate a concern for others' interests above one's own (Barber, 1983). Self-interest is present in covenantal relations although the boundaries between self and others are ambiguous (Graham and Organ, 1993). Ego-identity is saturated and partially defined by the set of transcendent values of the group (Shamir, 1990). Thus, it is conceivable that a relationship between the individual and organization can form in an egoistic culture if the individual's interests coincide closely with the values and interests of the organization.

However, when self-interest serves as a defining factor for decision-making, the relationship between the individual and organization is based more on prudence, rather than trust. The momentum is toward reductionism rather than holistic involvement (Graham and Organ, 1993). The individual is viewed as an autonomous agent, acting from self-interest and

with freedom of rational choice (Grover, 1982). There is no reason to expect that such an individual will feel committed to anything not explicitly defined in the contract. This type of relationship, an economic or transactional exchange, motivates individuals according to expectancy theory. It is short-term, weak, and narrowly segmental, when compared to covenantal relations (Graham and Organ, 1993).

Individuals in covenantal relationships are pledged to the welfare of all parties (Van Dyne et al., 1994). They internalize the defining values of the covenant; they do not concern themselves with self-interest. Self-interests are determined by, and coincide with, the defined values. Those who work in terms of their personal advantage are unlikely to form covenants. Thus, covenantal relationships are not likely to exist in an egoistic climate. The relationship between egoistic ethical work climates and covenantal relationships appears to be negative (see figure 3.2) and the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2a: Ethical work climates characterized by egoism will be negatively related to covenantal relations.

According to Moorman and Blakely (1995) some cultures develop citizens who are primarily individualistic and others develop citizens who are collectivistic. The individualistic concept is quite similar to the egoistic ethical criteria; the individual considers his/her personal interests more important than the interests of the group. Moorman and Blakely (1995) found that if individuals hold collectivistic values or norms, they would be more likely to perform citizenship behaviors. Those holding individualistic values or norms would be less likely to perform OCB. Egoism would cause individuals to subordinate the interest of the group to

their own self-interest. This finding implies that an egoistic climate would have a negative impact on OCB. In Figure 3.2, the dimensions of climate characterized by an egoistic ethical criterion are proposed to bear a negative relationship with the tendency to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2b: Ethical work climates characterized by egoism will be negatively related to the substantive categories of organizational citizenship behavior.

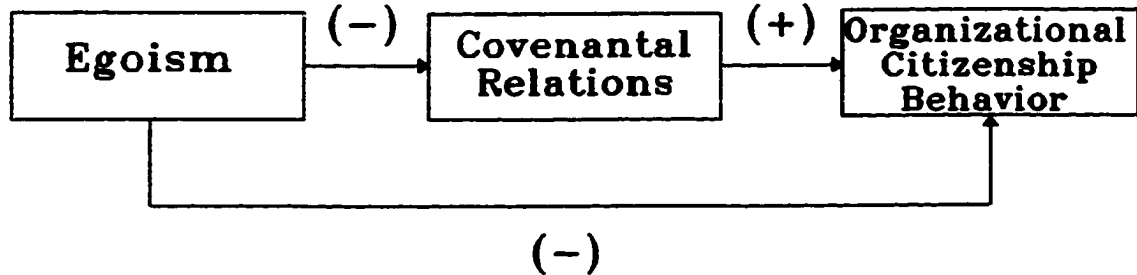


Figure 3.2

Proposed Relationships Among Egoistic Ethical Work Climates, Covenantal Relations, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Recently, researchers have begun to study the mediating processes that account for relationships between OCB and certain antecedents. For example, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) investigated the potential mediating role of trust in the relationship between leader behavior and citizenship. Moorman (1991) examined satisfaction as a potential mediator of the relationship between leader behavior and citizenship. Konovsky and Pugh (1994) demonstrated that trust mediated the effects of procedural justice on

citizenship. According to a study by Van Dyne et al. (1994) covenantal relations mediate the relationship between selected antecedents (including organizational values) and the loyalty and participation dimensions of OCB.

As previously mentioned, it is expected that egoism is negatively related to covenantal relationships and that covenantal relations positively affect organizational citizenship behavior. It is suggested that covenantal relations partially mediate the negative relationship between egoistic ethical work climates and organizational citizenship. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2c: Covenantal relations will partially mediate the relationship between egoistic ethical work climates and the substantive categories of organizational citizenship.

In ethical work climates characterized by benevolence, the basic criterion used in moral reasoning is maximizing joint interests. Employees working in a benevolent climate would display sincere interest in the well-being of others who may be affected by their decisions (Victor and Cullen, 1987; 1988).

This type of climate strongly coincides with the defining features of a covenantal relationship. Covenants are characterized by commitment to the welfare of the parties to an exchange, mutual trust, and shared values (Graham, 1991; Graham and Organ, 1993; Van Dyne et al., 1994). Thus, it seems that benevolent climates are positively related to the formation of covenantal relations and the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3a: Ethical work climates characterized by benevolence will be positively related to covenantal relationships.

Organizational citizenship behaviors are often performed by individuals to support the interests of the organization although they may not directly lead to individual benefits. An attribute of collectivistic societies is that individuals subordinate personal interests to advance the goals of the collective. Since OCB supports organizational welfare and often requires subordinating self-interest, it is expected that individuals espousing more collectivistic tendencies would be more likely to engage in OCB (Moorman and Blakely, 1995). In Figure 3.3, the climate dimensions characterized by a benevolent ethical criterion, where decisions are made to maximize joint interests, are proposed to bear a positive relationship with the tendency to engage in organizational citizenship. The following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3b: Ethical work climates characterized by benevolence will be positively related to the substantive categories of organizational citizenship behavior.

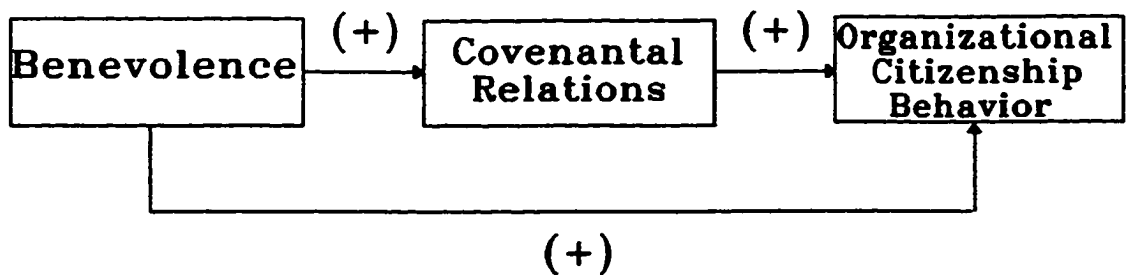


Figure 3.3

**Proposed Relationships Among Benevolent Ethical
Work Climates, Covenantal Relations, and
Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

The more strongly an individual identifies with the collective and forms a close relationship, the more he/she will be an active contributor (Almond and Verba, 1963; Verba

and Nie, 1972). Covenantal relations epitomize this closeness that leads to active contribution. Contributions rendered to benefit the collective organization typify organizational citizenship. Therefore, it appears that covenantal relations should partially mediate the positive relationship between benevolent ethical work climates and organizational citizenship. Therefore, the following hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 3c: Covenantal relations will partially mediate the relationship between benevolent ethical work climates and the substantive categories of organizational citizenship behavior.

In principled ethical work climates, moral reasoning is based upon adherence to principle, whether it be personal ethics, rules and procedures, or legal systems and professional organizations. With a largely principled climate, the application and interpretation of rules or law may be the dominant force influencing decisions and subsequent behavior (Victor and Cullen, 1988).

One precondition for development of covenantal relations appears to be the presence of charismatic leadership. Such leadership articulates a compelling vision or set of values (Graham and Organ, 1993; House, 1977). The values may already have been held privately by organizational members as a function of selection and attrition, or the values may emerge from the leadership presence. In order for the charisma to outlast the originating leadership, it must be institutionalized; it must be preserved through oral and written methods. Culture becomes essential as a means of reaffirming the defining values of the covenant. Rites, rituals, and ceremonies diffuse and preserve the charisma of the leadership which forged the original covenant. In practical terms, long-term involvement in a distinctive culture involves the

investment of learning many specific ways of doing things that are not easily transferable to another organization (Graham and Organ, 1993).

Culture entails communicating norms, formal or informal rules governing behavior in various situations. These rules and principles help describe culture, and may apply to virtually every aspect of the organization's activities. Rules and principles reaffirm and institutionalize the values and beliefs promoted by the covenant between the organization and its members. Principled climates assist in preserving that covenant and the welfare of the group. Thus, principled ethical work climates are hypothesized to positively affect covenantal relations:

Hypothesis 4a: Ethical work climates characterized by principle will be positively related to covenantal relations.

The substantive categories of citizenship involve respect for orderly structures, processes and responsible participation in governance. Responsible citizens recognize rational-legal authority and obey the law (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Individuals who are principled tend to follow the rules and are less sensitive to particular effects on others (Kohlberg, 1984). However, most rules or principles are made to preserve the welfare of the group, whether it be the organization or society. In Figure 3.4, the dimensions of climate characterized by a principled ethical criteria, where decisions are made to adhere to universal principles, are proposed to bear a positive relationship with the tendency to engage in organizational citizenship. The following hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 4b: Ethical work climates characterized by principle will be positively related to the substantive categories of organizational citizenship.

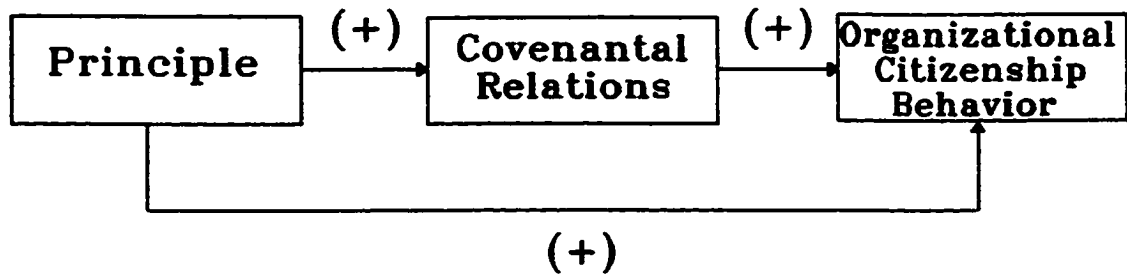


Figure 3.4

**Proposed Relationships Among Principled Ethical
Work Climates, Covenantal Relations, and
Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

It is expected that principled climates are positively related to covenantal relations, which are positively associated with organizational citizenship behaviors. It is proposed that covenantal relations will partially mediate the positive relationship between principled ethical work climates and organizational citizenship behaviors. Thus, the following hypothesis is offered:

Hypothesis 4c: Covenantal relations will partially mediate the relationship between principle ethical work climates and the substantive categories of organizational citizenship behavior.

Operationalization of the Variables

The following section discusses the operationalization of each variable included in the study. Table 3.1 presents a summary of the operational definitions of the constructs.

Table 3.1

Operational Definitions of Variables

Ethical Work Climate	Prevalent individual perceptions regarding typical organizational practices and procedures that have ethical content
Covenantal Relations	An enhanced form of relations in which affective, emotional, traditional, and expressive components of social action are supplemented with the involvement of or shared commitment to a transcendent force, value, or principle of goodness
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	A global concept including all positive organizationally relevant behaviors of individual organization members, encompassing traditional in-role job performance, organizationally functional extra-role behaviors, and political behaviors such as full and responsible organizational participation

Ethical Work Climate

An ethical work climate is comprised of the predominant perceptions regarding typical organizational practices that have ethical content (Victor and Cullen, 1988). The organizational values concerning questions of right and wrong contribute to the ethical work climate. It contains shared perceptions of correct behavior and how to deal with ethical issues (Cullen, Victor, and Stephens, 1989).

The Ethical Climate Questionnaire (ECQ) was developed to extract respondents' perceptions of how organizational members typically make decisions regarding various "events, practices, and procedures" requiring ethical criteria (Victor and Cullen, 1987, p. 57). Individuals do not report on their own behavior and values, but on the practices and

procedures that they perceive to exist within the organization (Victor and Cullen, 1987; 1988). The measure of ethical climate does not focus on whether certain behavior is ethical or unethical, nor on whether the ethical climate is good or bad. The respondent only provides descriptions regarding bases of ethical decision making, not feelings regarding decisions (Victor and Cullen, 1987).

One initial assumption of the Ethical Climate Questionnaire is that organizational ethical climates, as aggregate individual perceptions, divide along dimensions similar to Kohlberg's (1984) ethical criteria for individual ethical standards. Ethical climates may be distinguished in terms of egoism, benevolence, or principle (Cullen, Victor, and Bronson, 1993). Ethical climates may also be expected to vary along Kohlberg's (1981) loci of ethical concern. Kohlberg argued that ethical concern progresses from exchanges between individuals to concern for a social system, and ultimately, to concern for humanity as a whole.

Victor and Cullen (1987; 1988) cross-classified the three ethical criteria (egoism, benevolence, and principle) with the three referents of ethical concern (individual, local, and cosmopolitan) to form nine theoretically possible ethical climates (refer to Table 2.3).

The Ethical Climate Questionnaire used in Victor and Cullen's 1987 and 1988 studies contained 26 items. The most recent revision of the ECQ consists of 36 items, four for each of the nine theoretical climate types including: self-interest, company profit, efficiency, friendship, team interest, social responsibility, personal morality, company rules and procedures, and laws and professional codes (Cullen, Victor, and Bronson, 1993). The Ethical Climate Questionnaire is presented in Table 3.2.

The questions are presented in a Likert-type format. Respondents are asked to indicate on a six-point scale how accurately each of the items describes their general work climate. The scale has six anchors ranging from completely false to completely true. Scores on the instrument are tabulated by computing the mean score of the items representing each of the nine ethical work climates.

As mentioned previously, five to seven of the nine dimensions of ethical work climate have been derived empirically. Five have been referred to as: caring, rules, law and code, independence, and instrumental climates (refer to Table 2.13). Recent research by Cullen, Victor, and Bronson (1993) identifies seven ethical climates: self-interest, efficiency, friendship and team interest (loading on the same factor), social responsibility, personal morality, rules and standard operating procedures, and laws and professional codes. Research by Vaicys, Barnett, and Brown (1995) identifies six ethical climate dimensions: self-interest, efficiency, friendship and team interest (loading on the same factor), social responsibility, personal morality, and rules and standard operating procedures and laws and professional codes (loading on the same factor).

Covenantal Relations

Covenantal relationships are associations of mutual commitment in which specific behaviors necessary to sustain the relationship or pursue common ends are not specifiable in advance (DePree, 1989). Covenants deviate from contractual, exchange, or other instrumental relationships (Blau, 1964), in that covenants are existential; they focus on a state of being and "involve intrinsically motivated effort rather than earning something or getting

Table 3.2

Ethical Climate Questionnaire

INSTRUCTIONS TO OBSERVERS:

We would like to ask you some questions about the general climate in your company (or other unit reference). Please answer the following in terms of how it really is in your company, not how you would prefer it to be. Please be as candid as possible; remember, all your responses will remain strictly anonymous.

Please indicate whether you agree with each of the following statements about your company. Please use the scale below and write the number which best represents your answer in the space next to each item.

To what extent are the following statements true about your company?

Completely False 0	Mostly False 1	Somewhat False 2	Somewhat True 3	Mostly True 4	Completely True 5
Theoretical Dimension*		Item Number and Content			
EI	1.	In this company, people are mostly out for themselves.			
EC	2.	The major responsibility for people in this company is to consider efficiency first.			
PI	3.	In this company, people are expected to follow their own personal and moral beliefs.			
EL	4.	People are expected to do anything to further the company's interests.			
BI	5.	In this company, people look out for each other's good.			
EI	6.	There is no room for one's own personal morals or ethics in this company.			
PL	7.	It is very important to follow strictly the company's rules and procedures here.			
EL	8.	Work is considered sub-standard only when it hurts the company's interests.			
PI	9.	Each person in this company decides for himself what is right and wrong.			
EI	10.	In this company, people protect their own interest above other considerations.			
PI	11.	The most important consideration in this company is each person's sense of right and wrong.			
BL	12.	The most important concern is the good of all the people in the company.			
PC	13.	The first consideration is whether a decision violates any law.			

Table 3.2 (Continued)

PC	14.	People are expected to comply with the law and professional standards over and above other considerations.
PL	15.	Everyone is expected to stick by company rules and procedures.
BI	16.	In this company, our major concern is always what is best for the other person.
EL	17.	People are concerned with the company's interests – to the exclusion of all else.
PL	18.	Successful people in this company go by the book.
EC	19.	The most efficient way is always the right way, in this company.
PC	20.	In this company, people are expected to strictly follow legal or professional standards.
BL	21.	Our major consideration is what is best for everyone in the company.
PI	22.	In this company, people are guided by personal ethics.
PL	23.	Successful people in this company strictly obey the company policies.
PC	24.	In this company, the law or ethical code of their profession is the major consideration.
EC	25.	In this company, each person is expected, above all, to work efficiently.
BC	26.	It is expected that you will always do what is right for the customer and the public.
BL	27.	People in this company view team spirit as important.
BC	28.	People in this company have a strong sense of responsibility to the outside community.
EL	29.	Decisions here are primarily viewed in terms of contributions to profit.
BC	30.	People in this company are actively concerned about the customer's and the public's interest.
BL	31.	People are very concerned about what is generally best for employees in this company.
BI	32.	What is best for each individual is a primary concern in this organization.
EI	33.	People in this company are very concerned about what is best for themselves.
BC	34.	The effect of decisions on the customer and the public are a primary concern in this company.
BI	35.	It is expected that each individual is cared for when making decisions here.
EC	36.	Efficient solutions to problems are always sought here.

Table 3.2 (Continued)

*** EI denotes egoism on an individual level; EL denotes egoism on a local level; EC denotes egoism on a cosmopolitan level; BI denotes benevolence on an individual level; BL denotes benevolence on a local level; BC denotes benevolence on a cosmopolitan level; PI denotes principle on an individual level; PL denotes principle on a local level; PC denotes principle on a cosmopolitan level**

somewhere" (Van Dyne et al., 1994, p. 768). Covenantal relations are characterized by moral obligations, responsibility to demonstrate a special concern for others' interests above one's own (Barber, 1983) and subscription to a transcendent set of values (Bromley and Busching, 1988). These relationships are reciprocal, based on ties that bind individual participants to the organization and the organization to its members (Kanter, 1968; Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Van Dyne et al. (1994) developed an instrument designed to assess covenantal relationship. The questionnaire is comprised of 23 items representing a unique combination of cross-level relationships devised to capture the reciprocal nature of covenants.

The first part of the instrument consists of eight items representing the individual's perceptions of the organization's relationship (or covenant) with organizational members in general. Five of the eight items are from Bass's (1985) individualized consideration measure of leader behavior toward employees, and the other three items are from the Index of Organizational Reaction's measure of company identification (Dunham, Smith, and Blackburn, 1977; Smith, 1976).

The second part of the instrument contains 15 items representing the individual's relationship with the organization. These items are from the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982) which measures shared values and goals, intent to remain an organizational member, and willingness to exert extra effort on its behalf.

Together, the two subscales gauge the reciprocal relationship between the individual participant and the organization. Since the number of items in the two subscales is unequal, the items were each standardized and then averaged to form the combined measure of covenantal relationship. The covenantal relationship questionnaire is presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3

Covenantal Relationship Questionnaire

Part A: Organizational Relationship with Employees (8 items)

Individualized Consideration:

1. My superior gives personal attention to subordinates who seem neglected.
2. My superior delegates responsibilities to me to provide me with training opportunities.
3. My superior treats each subordinate as an individual.
4. My superior spends a lot of time coaching each individual subordinate who needs it.
5. My superior gives newcomers a lot of help.

Company Identification:

6. I think (organization name) considers employees
 - (1) much less important than sales and profits, to
 - (5) much more important than sales and profits.
 7. How do you describe (organization name) as a company to work for?
 - (1) poor
 - (2) just another place to work,
 - (3) fairly good,
 - (4) very good,
 - (5) couldn't be much better
 8. From my experience, I feel (organization name) probably treats its employees:
 - (1) poorly,
 - (2) somewhat poorly,
 - (3) fairly well,
 - (4) quite well,
 - (5) extremely well
-

Table 3.3 (Continued)**Part B: Employee Relationship with Organization (15 items)****Organizational Commitment Questionnaire****INSTRUCTIONS:**

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working (company name) please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by checking one of the seven alternatives below each statement.^N

-
9. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.
 10. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.
 11. I feel very little loyalty to this organization. (R)
 12. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.
 13. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.
 14. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.
 15. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar. (R)
 16. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.
 17. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. (R)
 18. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.
 19. There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. (R)
 20. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees. (R)
 21. I really care about the fate of this organization.
 22. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.
 23. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part. (R)
-

^N Responses to each item are measured on a 7-point scale with scale point anchors labeled: (1) strongly disagree; (2) moderately disagree; (3) slightly disagree; (4) neither disagree nor agree; (5) slightly agree; (6) moderately agree; (7) strongly agree. An "R" denotes a negatively phrased and reverse scored item.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior (Graham, 1991; Van Dyne et al., 1994) is a global concept including all positive organizationally relevant behaviors of individual organization members, encompassing traditional in-role job performance, organizationally functional extra-role behaviors, and political behaviors such as full and responsible organizational participation. Three interrelated substantive categories modeled after Inkeles' (1969) definition of active citizenship syndrome, comprise OCB. Organizational obedience indicates recognition of the necessity and desirability of rational rules and regulations governing organizational structure, job descriptions, and personnel policies. Organizational loyalty represents affiliation with and devotion to an organization and its leaders, transcending the narrow interests of individuals and work groups. Organizational participation is attention to organizational matters directed by ideal standards of virtue, substantiated by keeping informed, and expressed through full and responsible involvement in organizational governance (Graham, 1991; Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Utilizing the three substantive categories of citizenship suggested by political philosophy, Van Dyne et al. (1994) developed a new instrument to measure organizational citizenship behavior. Obedience was assessed with 16 items describing conscientious work habits. Those items were adapted and expanded from the Smith et al. (1983) study. Sixteen items measuring loyalty and 22 items measuring participation were developed for the Van Dyne et al. (1994) study. The items were generated by focus group interviews held with organizational participants from diverse job levels at three of the research sites. The initial

OCB instrument was comprised of 54 items employing seven-point Likert scales. To avoid response set bias, approximately half of the items were reverse-coded.

Exploratory factor analysis on the original data and confirmatory factor analysis on the cross-validation data resulted in retention of 34 items. In summary, the exploratory factor analysis generally supports the three substantive categories of OCB. However, the respondents to Van Dyne et al. (1994) had a more complex conceptualization of participation, indicating distinctions among social, advocacy, and functional participation. The 34-item measure of organizational citizenship is presented in Table 3.4.

Research Instrument

The research instrument is presented in Appendix A. The first three sections utilize subordinate responses to assess the ethical climate, covenantal relationships, and self-assessments of organizational citizenship behaviors. Section 4 consists of 9 items regarding personal information for classification purposes. These four sections comprise the subordinate response and consist of a total of 105 items.

Section 5 utilizes supervisor responses to 37 items assessing citizenship behavior for each subordinate. The sixth section contains 9 items regarding supervisor personal information for classification purposes. It is completed by the supervisor one time only.

To simplify the response process for study participants, sections 1, 2, 3, and 5 were modified from the original questionnaire formats to a uniform five-point Likert-type scale. Instructions and questions were also modified for clarity, to inquire about the "store" versus the "organization" or "company."

Table 3.4**Organizational Citizenship Behavior Questionnaire****INSTRUCTIONS:**

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible characteristics of individuals working within this organization. Refer to one specific employee's behavior for the entire questionnaire. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement, by checking one of the seven alternatives below each statement.^N

1. Represents organization favorably to outsiders
2. Does not go out of way to defend organization against outside threats (R)
3. Does not tell outsiders this is a good place to work (R)
4. Does not defend organization when employees criticize it (R)
5. Actively promotes organization's products and services
6. Would accept job at competing organizations for more money (R)
7. Would not urge coworkers to invest money in organization (R)
8. Rarely wastes time while at work
9. Produces as much as capable of at all times
10. Always comes to work on time
11. Regardless of circumstances, produces highest quality work
12. Does not meet all deadlines set by organization (R)
13. Is mentally alert and ready to work when arrives at work
14. Follows work rules and instructions with extreme care
15. Sometimes wastes organizational resources (R)
16. Keeps work area clean and neat
17. Sometimes misses work for no good reason (R)
18. Only attends work-related meetings if required by job (R)
19. Shares ideas for new projects or improvements widely
20. Keeps informed about products and services and tells others
21. Works so personal appearance is attractive and appropriate
22. Is not involved in outside groups for benefit of organization (R)
23. Frequently makes creative suggestions to coworkers
24. Uses professional judgment to assess right/wrong for organization
25. Encourages management to keep knowledge/skills current
26. Encourages others to speak up at meetings
27. Helps coworkers think for themselves
28. Keeps well-informed where opinion might benefit organization
29. Does not push superiors to perform to higher standards (R)
30. Does not pursue additional training to improve performance (R)

Table 3.4 (Continued)

-
-
- | | |
|-----|--|
| 31. | Avoids extra duties and responsibilities at work (R) |
| 32. | Does not work beyond what is required (R) |
| 33. | Volunteers for overtime work when needed |
| 34. | Has difficulty cooperating with others on projects (R) |
-
-

^N Responses to each item are measured on a 7-point scale with scale point anchors labeled: (1) strongly disagree; (2) moderately disagree; (3) slightly disagree; (4) neither disagree nor agree; (5) slightly agree; (6) moderately agree; (7) strongly agree. An "R" denotes a negatively phrased and reverse scored item.

Design of the Study

The sample for this research study was comprised of subordinates and supervisors representing two locations of a national retail sales organization. The data were collected using both subordinate-response and supervisor-response surveys.

Supervisor respondents at the two organizational sites received instructions from the researcher, basic information regarding the nature of the study, and assurances of confidentiality. Each supervisor was given a package containing subordinate-response surveys, subordinate-response envelopes, supervisor-response surveys, a supervisor-response envelope, and an assignment sheet. When the supervisor distributed a subordinate-response survey to a subordinate, the supervisor recorded the survey number and subordinate's name on the assignment sheet. The subordinate completed the survey at his/her convenience, sealed the survey in the subordinate-response envelope bearing the survey number on the outside to maintain confidentiality of his/her responses, and returned it to the supervisor.

The supervisor completed the supervisor-response questionnaire with a particular employee in mind, using the supervisor survey number that corresponded with that

individual's subordinate-response survey. The supervisor obtained that subordinate's survey number from the assignment sheet used to distribute the subordinate surveys. The supervisor completed each survey at his/her convenience and sealed the survey in the supervisor-response envelope bearing the same survey number on the outside. To prevent the researcher from breaching confidentiality, the supervisor retained the assignment sheet that identified which individual was assigned a particular survey number.

Supervisors and employees completed the surveys within a two-week deadline period. At the end of the two weeks, the researcher collected the surveys from the supervisors. The researcher matched the subordinate-response survey bearing a particular number with the supervisor-response bearing that same number. Together, they comprise one questionnaire response.

Scale Reliability and Validity

Assessments of reliability and validity are necessary if one is to make inferences regarding relationships between measured values and true values. The constructs included in the hypothesized models shown in figures 3.1 through 3.4 were measured using scales for which reliability and validity have been previously reported. The following section addresses the reliability and validity of those scales.

Ethical Work Climate

In Victor and Cullen's 1987 and 1988 studies, a 26-item questionnaire was employed with Cronbach alpha reliabilities ranging from 0.60 to 0.82 for sub-scales. The Cullen et al. (1993) study, employing the 36-item questionnaire reported Cronbach alpha reliabilities

between 0.69 and 0.85. Additional research by Vaicys (1995) reports alpha reliabilities ranging from 0.62 to 0.89. Alpha values are presented in Table 3.5.

Research has produced reliable evidence that ethical climates are perceived at the psychological level (Vaicys, Barnett, and Brown, 1995; Victor and Cullen, 1987; 1988; and Victor, Cullen, and Bronson, 1993). Seven ethical work climates were identified in 1993, leaving only two of the hypothesized climates unsubstantiated (Cullen, et al., 1993). A large sample of individuals ($n = 1,167$) indicated the presence of ethical work climates. However, given the small sample of organizations ($n=12$) and lack of diversity among the organizations, the validity of ethical climates at aggregate levels remained contestable. Cullen et al. (1993) suggested that a larger sample of organizations would be necessary to substantiate a typology of organizational ethical climates. Vaicys, Barnett, and Brown (1995) incorporated a larger sample of organizations ($n=200$) to validate a typology of ethical climates.

Table 3.5
Reliability of Ethical Climate Scales

ETHICAL CLIMATES	
Victor and Cullen (1987)	
Professionalism	.81
Caring	.82
Rules	.75
Instrumental	.78
Efficiency	.73
Independence	.65

Table 3.5 (Continued)

Victor and Cullen (1988)	
Caring	.80
Law and Code	.79
Rules	.79
Instrumental	.71
Independence	.60
Cullen, Victor, and Bronson (1993)	
Self-Interest	.80
Efficiency	.69
Friendship and Team Interest	.85
Social Responsibility	.85
Personal Morality	.77
Rules, Standard Operating Procedures	.76
Laws, Professional Codes	.76
Vaicys, Barnett, and Brown (1995)	
Self-Interest	.83
Efficiency	.65
Team Spirit	.88
Social Responsibility	.89
Personal Morality	.62
Rules and Codes	.80

Covenantal Relations

Covenantal relationship is measured with a 23-item scale developed by Van Dyne et al. (1994). The first part of the measure is comprised of five items from Bass's (1985) individualized consideration measure of leader behavior toward employees and three items from the Index of Organizational Reaction's measure of company identification (Dunham, Smith, and Blackburn, 1977; Smith, 1976). This part represents employee perceptions of an organization's relationship with employees in general. The second part of the measure consists of fifteen items from the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982). This part represents an employee's relationship with an organization.

Together, the two subscales measure the reciprocal relationship between the individual and the organization. Van Dyne et al. (1994) calculated a Cronbach's alpha of the 23-item scale of 0.90, indicating a unidimensional construct that captures employee perceptions regarding the mutual relationship between individuals and their organization.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Van Dyne et al. (1994) developed a new instrument to measure organizational citizenship using the three substantive categories (obedience, loyalty, and participation) suggested by political philosophy. The initial OCB instrument contained 54 items. Both supervisor-reported and self-reported data on OCB were used to assess the reliability and factor analytic structure of the new OCB instrument. Exploratory factor analysis on the

original data and confirmatory factor analysis on the cross-validation data resulted in retention of 34 items.

Factor analysis of self-reported responses of employees (N=538) to the 54-item OCB scale resulted in five factors: (1) obedience, (2) loyalty, (3) social participation, (4) advocacy participation, and (5) functional participation. The five factors included at least three items and had eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The researchers (Van Dyne et al., 1994) deleted items with multiple loadings, indicated by a differential of less than 0.20 between factors. This resulted in a total of 37 items.

The dimensionality and factor structure of the new OCB scale were also assessed with confirmatory factor analysis on the cross-validation data (Hayduk, 1987). Van Dyne et al. (1994) estimated the five-factor model on the 37-item scale using maximum likelihood techniques with LISREL VII. The initial assessment produced a goodness-of-fit index of 0.76 (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1989). Modification index values (Long, 1983) and subsequent theoretical examination (Van Dyne et al., 1994) indicated that eliminating three items would improve the model. The five-factor model, now measured by 34 items resulted in a goodness-of-fit index of 0.80.

Van Dyne et al. (1994) calculated scale reliabilities on the 34-item scale for each of the five categories of organizational citizenship. First Cronbach's alphas were calculated using supervisory ratings of 154 subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior from three research sites. Cronbach's alphas were also calculated on the cross-validation data, as recommended by DeVellis (1991) to assess the internal consistency reliability of the scale for a different set of respondents. Eighty-five supervisors completed the questionnaire on the

OCB of 412 subordinates. Temporal stability of the OCB instrument was also assessed with responses from a subset of 85 of the supervisors. Forty-seven supervisors completed the OCB instrument on 233 subordinates four weeks after the original data collection. Results are presented in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6
Internal Consistency Reliability of 34-Item OCB Scale
(Cronbach's Alphas)

Obedience	0.88	0.83	0.81
Loyalty	0.84	0.79	0.88
Social Participation	0.68	0.68	0.76
Advocacy Participation	0.86	0.84	0.83
Functional Participation	0.75	0.75	0.83
Entire 34-item OCB scale	0.95	0.91	0.92

The theoretical foundation provided by political philosophy differentiates the Van Dyne et al. (1994) study from other OCB research. However, it is still important to explore the construct validity of their instrument. Van Dyne et al. (1994) conducted three sets of analyses: (1) assessment of the convergent validity in the cross-validation data of the overall OCB scale by comparing supervisor responses to the new scale with supervisor responses to three general items designed to assess the overall OCB of subordinates; (2) confirmatory

factor analysis of the new measure on the cross-validation data with factor loadings based a priori on the theory presented; and (3) assessment of the relationships proposed in their hypotheses testing. Although these steps do not prove the construct validity of the instrument, Van Dyne et al. (1994) suggest that the results provide strong preliminary support for the construct validity of the OCB measure.

Pearson product-moment correlation analyses of responses from 85 supervisors on 412 subordinates in the cross-validation data support convergent validity. Second, the confirmatory factor analysis also provides preliminary support for the construct validity of the new OCB scale. Third, theory-based relationships are the key to examining construct validity (Carmines and Zeller, 1979; Kerlinger, 1986; Nunnally, 1967; and Schwab, 1980). Empirical examination of a theory-driven network provides a firm foundation for future research by specifying a domain with boundaries that limit proliferation of dimensions of OCB and facilitate examination of the hypothesized dimensions in more detail. Results of hypotheses testing indicate that the instrument measures what it was intended to measure (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Statistical Methodology

The present study incorporated a variety of statistical techniques. First descriptive statistics were calculated for the variables included in the study. Cronbach's alphas were used to assess the reliability of the measurement scales. Factor analysis was utilized to determine the dimensionality of the scales.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that covenantal relationship would be positively associated with the substantive categories of organizational citizenship behavior. The first step was to calculate the zero-order correlation between covenantal relations and the OCB categories derived from the factor analysis. Partial support for Hypothesis 1 justifies further analyses to investigate the hypothesized mediated relationships between OCB and the ethical work climate dimensions.

Hypotheses 2(a, b, c) through 4(a, b, c) proposed that covenantal relations would mediate the relationships between organizational citizenship behavior and the ethical work climate antecedents. The primary statistical technique used to test the hypotheses was a three-step mediated regression approach recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986) and employed by Van Dyne et al. (1994): (1) the mediator is regressed on the independent variable; (2) the dependent variable is regressed on the independent variable; and (3) the dependent variable is regressed simultaneously on both the independent variable and the mediator.

The three regression equations were performed for each of the hypotheses (2-4). Assuming that Y was the dependent variable (organizational citizenship behavior), X was the independent variable (ethical work climate), and Z was the mediator (covenantal relations), the following regressions were performed:

$$(1) \quad Z = b_0 + b_1X$$

$$(2) \quad Y = b_0 + b_1X$$

$$(3) \quad Y = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Z$$

Mediation is indicated if the following conditions are met: (1) the independent variable must affect the mediator in the first equation; (2) the independent variable must affect the dependent variable in the second equation; (3) the mediator must affect the dependent variable in the third equation; and (4) the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second equation (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Van Dyne et al., 1994). If the independent variable has no significant effect when the mediator is controlled, full mediation is indicated. If the independent variable's effect is smaller, but still significant, when the mediator is controlled, partial mediation is indicated (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Chapter Summary

This chapter addressed the research methodology of the study. The model and hypotheses were presented. Variables included in the model were defined and operationalized. The research instrument and design of the study were discussed. The measurement scales were addressed in terms of reliability and validity. Finally, the statistical methodology employed in the study was discussed.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis. The demographic characteristics of the study participants are presented in the first section. The second section presents the results of factor analyses of ethical work climate and organizational citizenship. Descriptive statistics for each of the main variables are presented in the third section. Correlations among the variables are discussed in the fourth section, followed by evaluations of scale reliabilities in the fifth section. The sixth section concludes the chapter by examining the results of hypotheses testing.

Demographic Characteristics of Sample

The demographic characteristics of the study participants are summarized in Table 4.1. The sample frame comprised 270 employees representing two locations of a large national retail organization. Each subordinate participant received a self-report type questionnaire and completed usable responses were returned by 194 subordinate participants, for an effective response rate of approximately 72 percent. These subordinate responses were combined with the immediate supervisors' ratings of those subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior to form complete survey responses. Subordinate respondents from the two locations were

compared with regard to age, gender, race, marital status, and education. No significant differences were found between the respondents from the two locations.

Table 4.1
Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS			
AGE	Under 21	19.3	
	21-30	32.5	29.5
	31-40	14.9	34.7
	41-50	15.4	
	51-60	11.8	
	Over 60	6.1	
GENDER	Male	34.2	
	Female	65.8	
RACE	White	48.2	
	African-American	45.5	
	Other	2.6	
	Asian-American	2.1	
	Hispanic	1.6	
MARITAL STATUS	Single	44.7	
	Married	37.7	
	Widowed	5.9	
	Separated/divorced	11.7	
HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION	Grade school	0.5	
	Some high school	10.1	
	High school graduate	26.6	
	Some college	45.2	
	College graduate	10.1	
	Some graduate education	3.2	
	Graduate degree	4.3	

Table 4.1 (Continued)

JOB DESCRIPTION			
non-commission sales	38.1		
hourly base plus commission	29.1		
commission sales	3.2		
loss prevention/security	1.6		
office/clerical	6.3		
replenishment/stockworker	12.7		
other	9.0		
YEARS WITH COMPANY			
under 1	29.6		
1-10	55.1	4.9	1.8
11-20	10.5		
21-30	3.7		
over 30	1.1		

The average age of the respondents was 34.7 years. The sample was composed of more females (65.8 percent) than males (34.2 percent), but almost equally of whites (48.2 percent) and minorities (49.2 percent). While most of the respondents were single (44.7 percent), more than one-third (37.7 percent) were married. Approximately 27 percent of the sample had graduated from high school and 45.2 percent had attained some college education. About 17 percent of the respondents were college graduates, with some having graduate education. The majority of the respondents were either commission, base-pay plus commission, or non-commission sales associates (70.4 percent), while other participants held various jobs such as loss prevention/ security, replenishment/stockworker, office/clerical, and others. The average tenure of the respondents was 4.9 years with the company. Most of the

participants had been working with the company between one and ten years (55.1 percent), and 29.6 percent had been with the company for less than one year.

Factor Analyses

Prior research suggests that the constructs of ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behavior are composed of several underlying dimensions. Theoretically, the Ethical Work Climate Questionnaire includes nine underlying ethical climate types. These nine theoretical dimensions (self-interest, friendship, personal morality, company profit, team interest, rules and standard operating procedures, efficiency, social responsibility, and laws and professional codes) are presented in Table 2.3 (Victor and Cullen, 1987, 1988). The organizational citizenship behavior questionnaire used in this study theoretically includes three dimensions based on political theory. These dimensions are obedience, loyalty, and participation (VanDyne et al., 1994). Previous studies have indicated differing results regarding the factor structure of these two constructs, as discussed earlier in this dissertation. Therefore, factor analysis was performed on each of these constructs to evaluate their factor structures. Results of the factor analyses of ethical work climate and of organizational citizenship, using supervisory responses, are presented in the following section.

Ethical Work Climate

The items describing the theoretical ethical work climate types were factor analyzed using a principal components solution with a varimax rotation, consistent with prior research by Victor and Cullen (1987, 1988). The varimax rotation converged in 12 iterations, resulting in a ten-factor pattern matrix. The minimal factor loading was .39 (see Table 4.2). After

three factors were eliminated due to single-question loadings and three factors were eliminated for unacceptably low reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha $<.70$), four factors were retained.

The eigenvalue for factor 1 was 9.03 and the percent of variance explained was 25.1. Factor 2 had an eigenvalue of 2.61 and the variance explained was 7.3 percent. The eigenvalue for factor 3 was 2.12 and the percent of variance explained was 6.0. Factor 4 had an eigenvalue of 1.71 and the percentage of variance explained was 4.7. The cumulative variance explained by the four factors was 43.1 percent.

These four remaining factors were further refined due to multiple loadings (differentials of less than .20 between factor loadings) and for clarity of interpretation. This allowed maintenance of empirical measurements that are congruent with their theoretical definitions. This reduced the total number of items to 14. These items are presented in Table 4.3.

Factor 1 was termed Distal Benevolence because it was comprised of three items identified by Victor and Cullen (1987, 1988) as social responsibility and one item referred to as team interest. The questions inquire about the customer, the public, and the team in general terms. These items are benevolence descriptors, local/cosmopolitan in reference, and more expansive compared to items alluding to social interaction on an individual level.

Factor 2 was termed Proximal Benevolence because it was comprised of two items classified by Victor and Cullen (1987, 1988) as team interest and two items identified as friendship. These items are individual/local in reference and describe situations that are more familiar and close in proximity.

Table 4.2

Rotated Factor Matrix of Ethical Work Climate

Q26	.73590	.00641	-.01216	.19944	-.06011
Q27	.70667	.14475	.26526	.16536	.14223
Q30	.69315	.11915	.21961	.11364	.05168
Q34	.67968	.08053	.01895	.05014	-.00108
Q36	.58112	.32634	.03719	.17231	-.03415
Q25	.57324	.18955	.07704	.26659	-.07707
Q23	.52362	.38175	.16828	.17570	-.03963
Q28	.50225	.49322	.30716	-.06015	.10615
Q7	.40759	-.04002	.11647	.21662	-.10550
Q24	.38871	.23977	.19327	.21076	.15163
Q12	.08819	.72345	.13185	.36121	.06148
Q21	.31317	.66680	.28494	.20037	.19768
Q16	.07373	.64008	.21716	.02989	-.09263
Q32	.29212	.59126	.27757	-.04073	.10395
Q11	-.07748	.58934	-.07004	.15877	.20789
Q35	.41555	.52190	.12799	.07067	.20221
Q18	.41005	.43013	.06995	.09649	-.20514
Q10	-.11768	-.12293	-.79653	-.15434	.06377
Q1	-.07274	-.19466	-.76318	-.06810	.10673
Q33	-.12635	-.09766	-.71990	.17579	.02870
Q5	.12582	.21280	.52981	.11254	.13482
Q13	.07241	.19200	.06098	.73722	.03668
Q14	.33206	.23721	.01899	.67095	.05827
Q15	.36224	.19143	-.00333	.57048	-.08776
Q20	.48148	.00569	.03361	.56601	.24824
Q9	-.09939	.19306	-.15547	-.45366	.28664
Q22	-.02189	.14325	-.08531	.07782	.76615
Q3	.02580	.07191	-.07256	.02412	.70181
Q6	-.09851	.04538	-.19180	.10831	-.52046
Q8	-.11148	-.08840	-.09060	-.23066	-.09368
Q4	.08117	.04136	-.14469	.17165	-.01845
Q2	.03032	.00878	.03329	.15807	.04225
Q19	.36619	.35187	-.03087	.09774	-.11470
Q17	.16900	.08058	.07909	.14662	-.06684
Q29	.08823	-.00182	-.16642	.01233	-.16412
Q31	.03577	.20486	.07243	.02107	.05828

Table 4.2 (Continued)

Q26	.21282	-.03106	-.01524	-.11644	.00544
Q27	-.00351	-.01495	.01748	.16737	.01601
Q30	-.04048	.05682	.06561	.30688	-.02858
Q34	-.13144	.02178	.18430	.04304	.00517
Q36	-.17687	.08754	-.08370	-.12890	.19103
Q25	.26412	.32617	-.11303	-.10481	.06305
Q23	-.28915	.23964	.08145	-.22602	-.00473
Q28	-.11816	-.04200	.08469	.19207	-.08989
Q7	-.15768	.15949	.19866	.28620	-.31299
Q24	-.15489	.31716	.15905	-.23399	.04456
Q12	-.05394	.04377	-.01840	.03700	.03747
Q21	.07751	-.00343	-.16115	-.00416	.01926
Q16	.13119	.04324	.12857	-.18048	.17323
Q32	-.15309	.07039	.05361	.15875	.19921
Q11	.11247	.08395	.07989	.06755	-.46902
Q35	-.15657	.11647	.16316	-.03174	.13892
Q18	-.40743	.21028	.11106	-.10761	-.00920
Q10	.07859	.05655	-.08240	.07438	-.10029
Q1	.14954	.07430	.06740	-.02000	-.10539
Q33	-.01128	-.16658	.08098	.09246	.09136
Q5	-.09817	.06281	.23181	-.04725	-.00223
Q13	.01648	.20699	.18549	.14151	-.08623
Q14	.11769	.05226	.00391	-.12498	.01698
Q15	-.15028	.00820	.08550	.01535	-.04122
Q20	-.02383	.21495	.10388	-.03989	.04001
Q9	.31757	.01753	.25774	.01386	-.27357
Q22	-.00053	-.14162	.07202	.03905	.00061
Q3	.03560	.14285	-.17062	-.14217	.04910
Q6	.38425	-.01053	-.04010	.13248	.04854
Q8	.66590	.12281	-.08041	.18787	-.03927
Q4	.62533	-.02214	.29790	-.13212	.00034
Q2	.11501	.83954	-.04078	.09257	.02428
Q19	-.15536	.57985	.23870	-.06910	.04364
Q17	.10775	.03824	.82108	-.00904	.08069
Q29	.09848	.03261	-.02798	.78640	.13080
Q31	-.00696	.08035	.11303	.14524	.73028

Table 4.3

Retained Items Measuring Ethical Work Climate

1	Q26	benevolence cosmopolitan	It is expected that you will always do what is right for the customer and public.
1	Q27	benevolence local	People in this store view team spirit as important.
1	Q30	benevolence cosmopolitan	People in this store are actively concerned about the customer's and the public's interest.
1	Q34	benevolence cosmopolitan	The effect of decisions on the customer and the public are a primary concern in this store.
2	Q12	benevolence local	The most important concern is the good of all the people in the store.
2	Q21	benevolence local	Our major consideration is what is best for everyone in the store.
2	Q16	benevolence individual	In this store, our major concern is always what is best for the other person.
2	Q32	benevolence individual	What is best for each individual is a primary concern in this store.
3	Q10	egoism individual	In this store, people protect their own best interest above other considerations.
3	Q1	egoism individual	In this store, people are mostly out for themselves.
3	Q33	egoism individual	People in this store are very concerned about what is best for themselves.

Table 4.3 (Continued)

4	Q13	principle cosmopolitan	The first consideration is whether a decision violates any law.
4	Q14	principle cosmopolitan	People are expected to comply with the law and professional standards over and above other considerations.
4	Q15	principle local	Everyone is expected to stick by store rules and procedures.

Factor 3 was termed Self-Interest because the three items coincide exactly with Victor and Cullen's (1987, 1988) theoretical egoism dimension on an individual level. The items refer to individuals deciding upon actions that benefit their own self-interests.

Factor 4 was termed Rules and Codes because it was a combination of two items representing laws and professional codes and one item describing rules and standard operating procedures based on Victor and Cullen's (1987, 1988) research. The items discuss basing decisions on compliance with laws, professional standards and rules.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The supervisor responses regarding their subordinates' level of organizational citizenship behavior were factor analyzed using principal components factor analysis with an oblique rotation. This is consistent with VanDyne et al. (1994) and theory suggesting that good citizenship is demonstrated by high levels of all three dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. The dimensions should be positively correlated. The oblique rotation

converged in 21 iterations, resulting in a seven-factor pattern matrix. The minimal factor loading was .35 (see Table 4.4). After one factor was eliminated due to a single-question loading and three factors were eliminated for unacceptably low reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha $<.70$), three factors were retained. The eigenvalue for factor 1 was 12.62 and the percent of variance explained was 37.1. Factor 2 had an eigenvalue of 2.39 and the variance explained was 7.0 percent. The eigenvalue for factor 3 was 1.81 and the percent of variance explained was 5.3. The cumulative variance explained by the three factors was 49.5 percent.

As with the ethical work climate factors, these three factors were further refined due to multiple loadings (differentials of less than .20 between factor loadings). The remaining 15 items are presented in Table 4.5.

Factor 1 was termed Participation and was comprised of seven items. Six items were devised theoretically to measure participation (VanDyne, et al., 1994). The seventh item was intended to measure loyalty, but also factored as a form of participation in the research conducted by VanDyne, et al. (1994). The item, "keeps informed about products and services and tells others," includes connotations that logically could be interpreted as participatory.

Factor 2 was termed Obedience and was comprised of four items that were theoretically intended to measure obedience and have factored in a similar manner in prior research (VanDyne, et al., 1994). These items discuss issues such as timeliness and productivity.

Table 4.4

**Rotated Factor Matrix of Organizational
Citizenship Behavior: Supervisory Response**

Q130	.79541	-.10613	-.02866	-.09846	.14634
Q128	.78346	.13182	.02147	-.04386	-.06249
Q124	.73484	.31087	.07126	.02610	-.16966
Q131	.70890	-.04396	.08117	.18083	.12478
Q132	.70178	.20679	.11855	.07498	-.09997
Q133	.68097	.06489	-.00108	-.14737	.09001
Q125	.61807	.12365	.18375	-.05464	.05043
Q129	.51280	-.13722	.09963	-.49006	-.01778
Q134	.43326	-.03968	-.08646	-.11444	.30223
Q113	.04891	.79719	.04405	-.00901	.00643
Q117	.02620	.75020	-.06692	-.06679	.06480
Q114	.12270	.73670	.10049	.15698	-.01988
Q116	.16212	.62684	.10147	-.11224	.04230
Q118	.11772	.47249	-.00057	-.43250	.08960
Q137	.28169	.35082	.10607	-.25854	.16622
Q108	-.02393	-.07756	.81664	-.11272	.19610
Q109	-.06316	.05993	.77958	-.05789	.14901
Q112	.15347	-.00962	.67882	-.11132	-.36886
Q107	.11664	.06548	.66234	.21124	.14076
Q106	.20711	.13244	.44503	-.28846	-.02938
Q110	.10986	.06587	.40838	-.28037	.29428
Q139	.01043	.13871	.12800	-.66793	.01024
Q119	.09050	.04526	.10426	-.58233	.22260
Q126	.30549	-.13364	-.01774	-.58126	-.03620
Q120	-.24243	.29714	.13316	-.56558	-.02558
Q122	-.08624	.26927	-.11498	-.36868	.31253
Q138	-.03429	.06976	.21938	.01516	.59246
Q123	.11051	.00151	.24618	.10700	.56008
Q121	.12619	.21627	-.13926	-.20664	.46655
Q135	.36516	.02967	.16595	-.12896	.42624
Q136	.17637	.27134	.20744	-.19014	.37758
Q127	.09858	.15506	-.08474	-.05610	.27534
Q115	.10882	.24171	-.05332	.12139	.18042
Q111	-.05170	.08683	.04949	-.04318	-.06544

Table 4.4 (Continued)

Q130	.06059	-.01345
Q128	-.10912	-.00921
Q124	-.09262	-.09762
Q131	.08829	.03818
Q132	.00642	.08692
Q133	-.02893	.13725
Q125	-.03219	-.04276
Q129	.04230	-.00187
Q134	.15538	.26398
Q113	.06070	.08888
Q117	-.12237	-.06777
Q114	.10656	.23856
Q116	.10966	.09832
Q118	.15239	-.19028
Q137	-.02053	.04342
Q108	.02279	.04439
Q109	.00396	.09512
Q112	.12608	.09968
Q107	-.13384	-.03803
Q106	.11059	-.11076
Q110	-.00183	-.16246
Q139	-.10909	-.07745
Q119	.18018	.07184
Q126	-.16373	.23884
Q120	-.01102	.11722
Q122	.33492	.11508
Q138	-.06432	-.01278
Q123	-.05374	.15019
Q121	.09345	-.14724
Q135	-.00426	-.00079
Q136	-.07018	-.01803
Q127	-.72492	.17463
Q115	.64865	.19738
Q111	-.03095	.89742

Table 4.5

**Retained Items Measuring Organizational
Citizenship Behavior: Supervisory Response**

1	Q130	Participate	Encourages management to keep knowledge/skills current
1	Q128	Participate	Frequently makes creative suggestions to coworkers
1	Q124	Participate	Shares ideas for new projects or improvements widely
1	Q131	Participate	Encourages others to speak up at meetings
1	Q132	Participate	Helps coworkers think for themselves
1	Q133	Participate	Keeps well-informed where opinion might benefit others
1	Q125	Loyalty	Keeps informed about products and services and tells others
2	Q113	Obedience	Rarely wastes time while at work
2	Q117	Obedience	Does not meet deadlines set by store (R)
2	Q114	Obedience	Produces as much as capable at all times
2	Q116	Obedience	Regardless of circumstances, produces highest quality work
3	Q108	Loyalty	Does not tell outsiders this is a good place to work (R)
3	Q109	Loyalty	Does not defend store when employees criticize it (R)
3	Q112	Loyalty	Would not urge coworkers to invest money in the organization (R)
3	Q107	Loyalty	Does not go out of way to defend store to outside threats (R)

Factor 3 was termed Loyalty and contained four items that were intended to measure loyalty. These four items have factored as such in prior research (VanDyne, et al., 1994). These items refer to issues such as investing in the company, defending criticism of the company, and defending the company against outside threats.

In addition to the supervisor ratings of questionnaire items regarding organizational citizenship, this study also tested the proposed hypotheses incorporating subordinate self-ratings regarding organizational citizenship behavior. The subordinate self-ratings of OCB were not factor analyzed. For comparative purposes, the study incorporated the subordinate responses to the same questionnaire items as those included based on the factor analysis of the supervisor responses. The supervisor ratings of the OCB dimensions were referred to as “obedience,” “loyalty,” and “participation.” The self-ratings of the OCB dimensions bore the same names, but were preceded by the prefix “self-.”

Measurement Scale Reliability

Reliability of measurement scales is a necessary condition for the validity of the measurement instrument (Peter, 1979). A summary of previously reported reliability assessments was presented in Chapter 3. Measurement scale reliabilities were also evaluated utilizing data generated for this research study. A summary of the reliabilities, as indicated by Cronbach’s alpha, is presented in Table 4.6. The minimum alpha value proposed as acceptable by Nunnally (1978) is 0.70. All values reported met this criterion with the exception of self-reported obedience (coefficient alpha = 0.58). However, as mentioned previously, for comparative purposes it was comprised of the questionnaire items which

corresponded to the supervisor-rated obedience dimension, which had a coefficient alpha reliability measure of 0.85. All other measurement scales had relatively high reliability coefficients.

Table 4.6
Measurement Scale Reliability

Proximal Benevolence	0.79
Distal Benevolence	0.77
Self-Interest	0.76
Rules & Codes	0.71
Covenantal Relations	0.91
Participation	0.91
Obedience	0.85
Loyalty	0.81
Self-Participation	0.80
Self-Obedience	0.58
Self-Loyalty	0.71

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics for each of the main variables included in this study are presented in the following section. There were no significant differences between the two locations regarding the study variables, with one exception. Respondents in one location rated

themselves somewhat more obedient than respondents in the other location ($p < .05$). A summary of the descriptive statistics appears in Table 4.7.

Self-Interest

The first four variables presented in Table 4.7 are the four ethical work climate dimensions. The self-interest subscale consisted of three items. Values ranged from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 5.00, with a standard deviation of 0.99. The mean score of 3.13 indicates that on average the respondents felt that the items describing the ethical climate of their organization as one in which individuals make decisions to maximize their self-interests were neither true nor false (rating of 3) to mostly true (rating of 4).

Victor and Cullen (1988) identified a similar climate which involved local and individual egoism criteria descriptors. They referred to the climate as instrumental. The respondent scores in their study similarly indicated that it was somewhat to mostly true that individuals in their company make decisions to maximize their own self-interest. Vaicys (1995) also identified a similar climate, but respondents indicated that the self-interest descriptors were neutral to somewhat false for their organizations.

Rules and Codes

The second variable in Table 4.7, rules and codes, is represented by a subscale consisting of three items from the ethical work climate questionnaire. The values ranged from a maximum of 5.00 to a minimum of 1.00 with a standard deviation of 0.72. The mean score of 4.33 indicates that the respondents felt that the ethical climate was one in which individuals make decisions that adhere to organizational rules and policies, laws, and professional codes.

Table 4.7
Descriptive Statistics

	4.00	4.00	3.00	4.00
	1.00	1.00	2.00	1.00
	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
	3.13	4.33	4.17	3.39
	3.00	4.67	4.25	3.50
	3.67	5.00	4.75	4.00
	0.99	0.72	0.69	0.92
	-.23	-1.48	-.87	-.52
	-.71	3.22	0.28	-.16
Statistical	Coverage	Loyalty	Obedience	Participation
	3.41	4.00	4.00	4.00
	1.37	1.00	1.00	1.00
	4.78	5.00	5.00	5.00
	3.51	3.41	3.33	3.45
	3.49	3.25	3.50	3.43
	2.88	3.00	3.50	3.29
	0.68	0.74	1.02	0.82
	-.27	0.02	-.31	-.47
	-.09	0.20	-.45	0.27

Table 4.7 (Continued)

4.00	2.75	4.00
1.00	2.25	1.00
5.00	5.00	5.00
3.80	4.09	3.73
3.75	4.00	3.71
5.00	5.00	3.29
0.84	0.68	0.68
-.33	-.47	-.43
-.28	-.380	1.29

A rating of 4 indicates the items are mostly true while a rating of 5 indicates the items are completely true.

Victor and Cullen (1988) identified two separate climate dimensions for laws/codes and rules. Results for these dimensions indicate that the majority of respondents somewhat to mostly agreed with descriptors of their company climate as one which adheres to company rules and follows professional codes and laws. Vaicys (1995) reported similar interpretations, but like the current study, identified only one dimension for rules and codes. The current study suggests a stronger emphasis on rules and codes in the two retail locations than prior studies.

Distal Benevolence

The distal benevolence subscale consisted of four items from the ethical work climate questionnaire. The values ranged from a minimum of 2.00 to a maximum of 5.00 with a standard deviation of 0.69. No respondent assigned a rating of 1.00. This indicates that all respondents felt that the impact of decisions on the customer and the public are considered during decision making. The mean score of 4.17 indicates that on average the respondents felt that the organizational climate was one in which individuals care about a decision's impact on the customer and the public (a rating of 4 indicates mostly true; a rating of 5 indicates completely true).

Victor and Cullen (1988) theoretically described this climate type as two separate dimensions, social responsibility and team interest, but did not verify them empirically. Vaicys (1995) identified a social responsibility climate type which included benevolent descriptors at the cosmopolitan level, and a team interest climate type which included benevolence at the local level. Respondents somewhat agreed with items describing a socially responsible climate and remained neutral regarding team spirit. The current study's respondents responded to these descriptors as being mostly to completely true, thus providing stronger support for this climate type in the retail locations than previous studies. However, the climate type identified represents a combination of the team interest and social responsibility climates previously identified.

Proximal Benevolence

The proximal benevolence subscale also consisted of four items from the ethical climate questionnaire. The values range from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 5.00 with a standard deviation of 0.92. The mean score of 3.39 indicates that the respondents felt that the items describing the ethical climate of their organization as one in which individuals care about a decision's impact on the individuals working within the organization were neither strongly true nor false to mostly true.

Victor and Cullen (1988) theoretically identified friendship and team interest climates, and empirically identified a caring climate which encompassed benevolence descriptors at the individual, local, and cosmopolitan level. Respondents indicated these items were somewhat true. Vaicys (1995), as discussed previously, identified two benevolent climate types. The current study identified a climate that would represent a portion of the team interest climate, combined with a benevolent climate at the individual level.

Covenantal Relationships

The fifth variable in Table 4.7, covenantal relationships was represented by a scale consisting of 23 items representing the respondents feelings regarding the relationship between the individual and the organization. The first eight items represent the perceived strength of the relational tie coming from the organization to the employee. The score from this directional perspective was computed by summing the scores and dividing by eight. The next fifteen items represent the individual's commitment to the organization. The score from the directional perspective was computed by summing the scores and dividing by fifteen. The

total covenantal relationship score was computed by adding the two subscale scores and dividing by two. The values ranged from a minimum of 1.37 to a maximum of 4.78 with a standard deviation of 0.68. The mean score of 3.51 indicates that the respondents slightly agreed with the positive statements regarding the mutual covenantal relationship between themselves and the organization.

Loyalty

The next three variables presented in Table 4.7 are subordinates' organizational citizenship dimensions as assessed by the supervisors. The loyalty subscale consisted of four items from the organizational citizenship behavior questionnaire. The values range from a maximum of 5.00 to a minimum of 1.00 with a standard deviation of 0.74. The mean score of 3.41 indicates that the supervisors only slightly agreed with the items stating that subordinates defend the organization against threats, contribute to the organization's good reputation, and cooperate with others to serve the interests of the whole. Van Dyne et al. (1994) incorporated a 7-point Likert scale to measure loyalty. The mean response for loyalty was 4.93. This indicated that respondents slightly/somewhat agreed with statements indicating that organizational participants engage in actions conveying loyalty to their particular organization. That response indicates approximately the same exhibition of loyalty as the response in the current study.

Obedience

The obedience subscale of the organizational citizenship behavior questionnaire consisted of four items indicating respect for rules and instructions, punctuality in attendance

and task completion, and stewardship of organizational resources. Supervisors rated subordinates with values ranging from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 5.00 with a standard deviation of 1.02. The mean score of 3.33 indicates that supervisors only slightly agreed with items describing subordinates' obedient behaviors.

As with the loyalty dimension, Van Dyne et al. (1994) incorporated a 7-point Likert scale to measure obedience. The mean response reported in their study was 5.60, indicating that items describing obedient behavior were somewhat to mostly true for the respondents' organizations. That response indicates more obedient behavior in these organizations than the responses provided in the current study.

Participation

The next variable presented in Table 4.7, participation, was represented by seven items from the organizational citizenship behavior questionnaire. The values ranged from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 5.00 with a standard deviation of 0.82. The mean score of 3.45 indicates that supervisors slightly agreed with the items indicating that subordinates are interested in organizational affairs, attempt to keep informed, and express responsible involvement in organizational activities.

Van Dyne et al. (1994) identified three types of participation in their study: social, advocacy, and functional. The items describing participation in the current study align most directly to their advocacy participation. Responses in their study indicated that respondents slightly agreed with items indicating that organizational members participate in organizational activities. The response in the current study was somewhat more neutral.

Self-Loyalty

The final three variables presented in Table 4.7 are the subordinates' self-assessments of their own organizational citizenship behavior. The self-loyalty subscale consisted of the four items in the subordinate self-rating of OCB, which corresponded to the same four items in the supervisor rating of OCB. The values ranged from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 5.00 with a standard deviation of 0.84. The mean score of 3.80 indicates that the subordinate respondents slightly agreed with the questionnaire items stating that they defend the organization against threats, contribute to the organization's good reputation, and cooperate with others to serve the interests of the whole. The subordinate self-rated responses indicates somewhat stronger perceptions of loyalty than the supervisor responses.

Self-Obedience

The self-obedience subscale of the OCB questionnaire was represented by four items that coincide with the four items from the supervisor-rated obedience dimension. These items indicated respect for rules and instructions, punctuality in attendance and task completion, and stewardship of organizational resources. Subordinates rated themselves with values ranging from a maximum of 5.00 to a minimum of 2.25 with a standard deviation of 0.68. The mean score of 4.09 indicates that subordinates slightly to strongly agreed with items describing their obedient behaviors. Employees perceived themselves as more obedient than their supervisors.

Self-Participation

The self-participation variable consisted of seven items from the organizational citizenship behavior questionnaire that corresponded to the seven items from the supervisor-rated participation dimension. Subordinates responded with values ranging from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 5.00, with a standard deviation of 0.68. The mean score of 3.73 indicates that subordinates slightly agreed that they are interested in organizational affairs, attempt to keep informed, and express responsible involvement in organizational activities. Subordinates perceived themselves as slightly more participatory than their supervisors, who reported a mean of only 3.45.

Correlations

Correlations among the study variables were computed and the correlation matrix is presented in Table 4.8. The correlations among the variables are discussed in the following section.

There were significant ($p < .01$) positive correlations among proximal benevolence, distal benevolence, and the rules and codes ethical climate. There were significant ($p < .01$) negative correlations between the self-interest climate and both benevolent climates. Rules and codes exhibited a negative, but insignificant correlation to self-interest.

The supervisor-reported organizational citizenship behaviors: obedience, loyalty, and participation, exhibited significant inter-correlations ($p < .01$). The same was true for the three OCB dimensions as reported by the subordinates' ratings.

The supervisor-reported obedience dimension was significantly ($p < .01$) and positively correlated with the subordinate self-reported dimensions of participation and obedience. The supervisor-reported participation variable exhibited a similar pattern: it was significantly and positively correlated to self-reported participation and obedience ($p < .01$). The supervisor reported loyalty dimension was significantly and positively correlated to self-reported participation ($p < .01$).

All four ethical work climates were significantly ($p < .01$) correlated with covenantal relations. Self-interest was negatively correlated, while both benevolent climates and the rules and codes climate were positively correlated with covenantal relations. All three self-reported dimensions of OCB were significantly ($p < .01$) and positively correlated to covenantal relations. The supervisor-reported OCB dimension of obedience was significantly and positively correlated to covenantal relations ($p < .05$).

There were no significant correlations between the ethical work climates and supervisor-reported OCB. There were several strong correlations reported between the ethical work climates and the subordinate self-ratings of organizational citizenship behaviors. Proximal benevolence was significantly and positively correlated to all three self-reported dimensions of OCB: participation, obedience, and loyalty ($p < .01$). Distal benevolence was also positively correlated to all three dimensions: participation and loyalty ($p < .01$) and obedience ($p < .05$). Self-interest was negatively correlated to self-reported obedience and loyalty ($p < .01$). Rules and codes was significantly and positively correlated to self-reported participation and obedience ($p < .05$) and loyalty ($p < .01$).

Tests of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 was tested by calculating the zero-order correlation between covenantal relations and the OCB dimensions identified through factor analysis. The primary statistical technique used to test Hypotheses 2(a, b, c) through 4 (a, b, c) was a three-step mediated regression approach recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986), incorporated by VanDyne et al. (1994), and discussed in Chapter 3 of this dissertation.

Hypothesis 1: Covenantal relationships will be positively related to the substantive categories of organizational citizenship behavior.

The correlations between covenantal relations and the OCB dimensions are presented in Table 4.7. As shown in Table 4.7, all three subordinate self-reported dimensions of OCB (obedience, loyalty, and participation) were significantly and positively related to covenantal relations ($p < .01$). The supervisor-reported obedience dimension was also significantly and positively related to covenantal relations ($p < .05$). Supervisor-reported loyalty and participation were positively, but insignificantly related to covenantal relations. These results provided partial support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2a: Ethical work climates characterized by egoism will be negatively related to covenantal relationships.

The test for Hypothesis 2a was the first step in Baron and Kenny's (1986) three-step mediation regression approach. In this first step, covenantal relations was regressed on the self-interest (egoistic) ethical work climate. The regression results are presented in Table 4.9. The regression coefficient representing the self-interest climate's main effects on covenantal

relationships was both negative and statistically significant ($p < .001$). The adjusted R^2 was 0.16. These results satisfied Step1 of the test for mediation and supported Hypothesis 2a.

Table 4.9

**Regression Results for Ethical Work Climates'
Effects on Covenantal Relations**

Self-Interest	-0.40***
Proximal Benevolence	0.54***
Distal Benevolence	0.45***
Rules and Codes	0.33***

N=194 Standardized regression coefficients reported. *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 2b: Ethical work climates characterized by egoism will be negatively related to the substantive categories of organizational citizenship behavior.

The test for Hypothesis 2b was the second step in Baron and Kenny's (1986) three-step mediated regression approach. In this second step, each organizational citizenship behavior dimension was regressed on the self-interest dimension of ethical work climate. Results for this regression are shown in Table 4.10. As presented in Table 4.10, findings indicated mixed results. Negative, significant ($p < .001$) regression coefficients were found for the self-interest climate's effects on self-reported obedience and self-reported loyalty. The regression coefficients for the self-interest climate's effects on the other OCB dimensions were insignificant. The adjusted R^2 ranged from 0.00 to 0.09. These findings partially supported Hypothesis 2b.

Table 4.10**Regression Results for Ethical Work Climates' Effects on Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

	.05	-.04	-.06	.02
	-.09	.09	.11	.03
	.03	.04	.08	.01
	-.04	.22 **	.31 ***	.18 *
	-.25 ***	.18 *	.32 ***	.16 *
	-.30 ***	.32 ***	.45 ***	.24 ***

N=194 Standardized regression coefficients reported. * p<.05; ** p<.01; *** p<.001

Hypothesis 2c: Covenantal relations will partially mediate the relationship between egoistic ethical work climates and the substantive categories of organizational citizenship behavior.

The test for Hypothesis 2c was the third step in Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediated regression approach. The organizational citizenship behavior dimensions were regressed on the self-interest dimension of ethical work climate and the hypothesized mediating covenantal relations. Step 3 requires that covenantal relations affect each OCB dimension in the third regression equation, and that the effects of the self-interest climate be lower in magnitude in the third versus the second regression equation (from Hypothesis 2b). As seen in Table 4.11, the regression coefficient representing covenantal relations main effects on the OCB dimension of loyalty was significant ($p < .05$). The regression coefficients representing

covenantal relations main effects on the OCB dimensions of self-participation, self-obedience, and self-loyalty were also significant ($p < .001$). The coefficients were insignificant for participation and obedience. The second part of the Step 3 test required that the partial regression coefficients representing the self-interest ethical work climate's main effects on the OCB dimensions be lower in magnitude in the regression equations that controlled for covenantal relations (shown in Table 4.11) than the regression coefficients obtained from the regression equations that excluded covenantal relations (Step 2 regression results shown in Table 4.10).

During this three-step process of testing for mediation, self-reported obedience and self-reported loyalty were the only OCB dimensions that satisfied Steps 1 and 2 and the first portion of Step 3. Therefore, these were the only variables analyzed for mediation during the second portion of Step 3. A comparison of the regression coefficients revealed that the effects of self-interest on self-obedience and self-loyalty were lower in magnitude when covenantal relations were controlled. These findings satisfied the second part of the Step 3 test for mediation and provided partial support for Hypothesis 2c.

If the partial regression coefficients representing the self-interest ethical work climate's effects on self-obedience and self-loyalty were significant when covenantal relations was controlled, support for partial mediation is provided. However, if the partial regression coefficients were not significant when covenantal relations was controlled, support for complete mediation is provided. As shown in Table 4.11 the partial regression coefficient for self-obedience was significant ($p < .05$), while the partial regression coefficient for self-loyalty was not significant. This indicates that covenantal relations was a partial mediator of the

Table 4.11

**Regression Results for Ethical Work Climates'
and Covenantal Relations' Effects on
Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

	.10	-.07	.07
	.05	.14	.16*
	-.14	-.01	-.09
	.15	.18*	.18*
	.01	.03	-.01
	.07	.16	.13
	.02	-.01	-.02
	.07	.17*	.13
	.12	-.15*	-.07
	.45***	.28***	.56***
	-.03	-.02	-.02
	.41***	.34***	.60***
	.15*	.21**	.22***
	.33***	.24**	.49***
	.09	.06	.05
	.37***	.32***	.57***

N=194 Standardized regression coefficients reported. * p<.05; ** p<.01; *** p<.001

relationship between the self-interest ethical work climate and self-reported obedience and a complete mediator of the relationship between the self-interest ethical work climate and self-reported loyalty.

Hypothesis 3a: Ethical work climates characterized by benevolence will be positively related to covenantal relationships.

The first step in Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediated regression approach was used to test Hypothesis 3a. Covenantal relations was regressed on each of the benevolent ethical work climates identified in the factor analysis. Regression results are shown in Table 4.9. As presented in the table, the regression coefficient representing the main effects of proximal benevolence on covenantal relationships was positive and statistically significant ($p < .001$). The same was true for the distal benevolent climate's main effects on covenantal relationships. The adjusted R^2 was 0.29 for proximal benevolence and 0.20 for distal benevolence. These results satisfied Step 1 of the test for mediation and supported Hypothesis 3a.

Hypothesis 3b: Ethical work climates characterized by benevolence will be positively related to the substantive categories of organizational citizenship behavior.

The second step in Baron and Kenny's (1986) three-step mediated regression approach was used to test Hypothesis 3b. In this second step, each organizational citizenship behavior dimension was regressed on the proximal benevolence dimension of ethical work climate. The process was repeated for the distal benevolence ethical work climate. Regression results are presented in Table 4.10. As seen in Table 4.10, the regression

coefficient for the proximal benevolence climate's effect on self-reported obedience was positive and significant ($p < .05$). Additionally, positive and significant regression coefficients were found for the proximal benevolence climate's effects on self-reported participation ($p < .01$) and loyalty ($p < .001$) dimensions of OCB. The distal benevolence climate's effects on all three self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors were also positive and statistically significant ($p < .001$). However, no significant regression coefficients were reported for the effects of either benevolent climate on the supervisor-reported OCB dimensions. The adjusted R^2 ranged from 0.00 to 0.10 for proximal benevolence and from 0.00 to 0.20 for distal benevolence. These findings partially supported Hypothesis 3b.

Hypothesis 3c: Covenantal relations will mediate the relationship between benevolent ethical work climates and the substantive categories of organizational citizenship behavior.

The third step in Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediated regression was used to test Hypothesis 3c. The organizational citizenship behavior dimensions were regressed on the proximal benevolent ethical work climate dimensions and the hypothesized mediator, covenantal relations. The process was then repeated incorporating the distal benevolent climate in the place of proximal benevolence. Step 3 requires that covenantal relations affect each OCB dimension in the third equation and that the effects of the benevolent climate be lower in magnitude in the third versus the second regression equation (from Hypothesis 3b).

In the first part of this third step, the organizational citizenship behavior dimensions were regressed on the proximal benevolent ethical work climate and the hypothesized mediator, covenantal relations. As shown in Table 4.11, the regression coefficients

representing covenantal relations main effects on the OCB dimensions were all positive and statistically significant, except for the supervisor-reported participation dimension. The Step 3 test also requires that the partial regression coefficients representing the proximal benevolence ethical work climate's main effects on the OCB dimensions be lower in magnitude in the regression equations that controlled for covenantal relations (shown in Table 4.11) than the regression coefficients obtained from the regression equations that excluded covenantal relations (presented in Table 4.10).

Throughout this three-step test for mediated regression involving proximal benevolence, the three self-reported OCB dimensions satisfied the criteria for mediation while the supervisor-reported OCB dimensions did not. Therefore, the self-reported OCBs were the only OCB dimensions that were analyzed for mediation during Step 3. A comparison of the regression coefficients revealed that the effects of proximal benevolence on self-reported obedience, loyalty, and participation were lower in magnitude when covenantal relations was controlled. These findings supported the Step 3 test for mediated regression involving proximal benevolence and the self-reported OCBs. Partial support was thus provided for Hypothesis 3c.

This third step in Baron and Kenny's (1986) test for mediated regression was repeated with distal benevolence. The OCB dimensions were regressed on the distal benevolent ethical work climate and the hypothesized mediator, covenantal relations. Table 4.11 shows that the regression coefficients representing covenantal relations main effects on the OCB dimensions were all positive, statistically significant ($p < .01$) for self-reported OCBs, and insignificant for supervisor-reported OCBs. Step 3 also requires that the partial regression coefficients

representing the distal benevolence climate's effects on the OCB dimensions be lower in magnitude in the equations controlling for covenantal relations (shown in Table 4.11) than the coefficients obtained from the equations excluding covenantal relations (presented in Table 4.10).

The only OCB dimensions to satisfy prior steps of testing for mediated regression were the self-reported OCBs. Therefore, they were the only dimensions that were analyzed in the latter part of Step 3. Comparing the regression coefficients revealed that the effects of distal benevolence on self-reported obedience, loyalty, and participation were lower in magnitude when covenantal relations was controlled. These findings supported Step 3 of the test for mediated regression involving distal benevolence and the self-reported OCB dimensions. Partial support was thus provided for Hypothesis 3c.

If the partial regression coefficients representing the benevolent ethical work climate's effects on the self-reported OCB dimensions were significant when covenantal relations was controlled, support for partial mediation is provided. However, if the partial regression coefficients were not significant when covenantal relations was controlled, support for complete mediation is provided. As shown in Table 4.11, the partial regression coefficients were significant for the effects of distal benevolence on self-reported obedience, loyalty, and participation. This indicates that covenantal relations was a partial mediator of the relationship between the distal benevolent ethical work climate and the self-reported OCB dimensions. The partial regression coefficients were insignificant for the effects of proximal benevolence on the self-reported OCB dimensions. This indicates that covenantal relations

was a complete mediator of the relationship between the proximal benevolent ethical work climate and self-reported obedience, loyalty, and participation.

Hypothesis 4a: Ethical work climates characterized by principle will positively affect covenantal relations.

As in the testing of Hypotheses 2a and 3a, Hypothesis 4a was tested utilizing Step 1 of Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach for mediated regression. In this step, covenantal relations was regressed on the Rules and Codes (principle) ethical work climate. Regression results are presented in Table 4.9. As seen in the table, the regression coefficient representing the Rules and Codes climate's main effects on covenantal relations was both positive and statistically significant ($p < .001$). The adjusted R^2 was 0.10. These findings supported Hypothesis 4a.

Hypothesis 4b: Ethical work climates characterized by principle will positively affect the substantive categories of organizational citizenship.

The second step in Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediated regression was used to test Hypothesis 4b. In Step 2, each organizational citizenship behavior dimension was regressed on the Rules and Codes ethical work climate dimension. As shown in Table 4.10, the regression coefficients representing the Rules and Codes climate's effects on OCB dimensions were positive across all dimensions. However, the coefficients representing the Rules and Codes climate's effects on the three supervisory-reported OCB dimensions were insignificant, while the effects on the three self-reported OCB dimensions were significant. The adjusted R^2 ranged from 0.00 to 0.05. These results partially supported Hypothesis 4b.

Hypothesis 4c: Covenantal relations will mediate the relationship between principled ethical work climates and the substantive categories of organizational citizenship behaviors.

The test for Hypothesis 4c was the third step in Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediated regression approach. The organizational citizenship behavior dimensions were regressed on the Rules and Codes dimension of ethical work climate and the hypothesized mediator, covenantal relations. Step 3 requires that covenantal relations affect each OCB dimension in this third equation, and that the effects of the Rules and Codes climate be lower in magnitude in this third equation versus the second regression equation (from Hypothesis 4b). Table 4.11 shows that the regression coefficients representing covenantal relations main effects on supervisor-reported obedience and all three self-reported OCB dimensions were significant ($p < .001$). The coefficients were insignificant for the supervisor-reported participation and loyalty dimensions. The second part of the Step 3 test required that the partial regression coefficient representing the Rules and Codes climate's main effects on the OCB dimensions be lower in magnitude in the regression equations that controlled for covenantal relations (shown in Table 4.11) than the regression coefficients obtained from the regression equations excluding covenantal relations (shown in Table 4.10).

During this process of testing for mediation, the three self-reported OCB dimensions are the only dependent variables that satisfied Steps 1 and 2 and the first portion of Step 3. Therefore, these OCB dimensions were the only OCB dimensions analyzed for mediated regression in the second part of Step 3. Comparing the regression coefficients revealed that the effects of Rules and Codes on the self-reported OCB dimensions were lower in magnitude

when covenantal relations was controlled. These findings satisfied the second part of the Step 3 test for mediated regression and provided partial support for Hypothesis 4c.

If the partial regression coefficients representing the Rules and Codes climate's effects on the self-reported OCB dimensions were significant when covenantal relations was controlled, support for partial mediation is provided. However, if the partial regression coefficients were insignificant when covenantal relations was controlled, support for complete mediation is provided. As presented in Table 4.11, the partial regression coefficients for self-obedience, self-loyalty, and self-participation were all three insignificant, thus indicating that covenantal relations was a complete mediator of the relationship between the Rules and Codes ethical work climate and the three self-reported OCB dimensions.

Summary of Hypothesis Testing

The correlation coefficients for the relationship between covenantal relations and the OCB dimensions provided partial support for Hypothesis 1. It was concluded that covenantal relations is positively related to self-reported obedience, self-reported loyalty, self-reported participation, and supervisor-reported obedience.

Mediated regression analysis provided partial support for the mediating effect of covenantal relations on the relationship between the four ethical work climate dimensions and the six organizational citizenship behavior dimensions. Table 4.12 provides a summary of the testing results for Hypotheses 2 (a, b, c) through 4 (a, b, c).

Regression results provided support for Hypotheses 2a, 3a, and 4a. Findings indicate that ethical work climates characterized by egoism will negatively affect covenantal relations.

Additionally, it was concluded that ethical work climates characterized by both proximal and distal benevolence and by principle will positively affect covenantal relations.

Regression results for testing Hypotheses 2b, 3b, and 4b indicate partial support for relationships between the ethical work climate dimensions and the OCB dimensions. Findings indicate that ethical work climates characterized by egoism will negatively affect self-reported (subordinate perceptions) obedience and self-reported loyalty. Additionally, it was concluded that ethical work climates characterized by benevolence (both proximal and distal) will positively affect self-reported obedience, self-reported loyalty, and self-reported participation. Furthermore, findings indicate that ethical work climates characterized by principle will also positively affect all three self-reported organizational citizenship behavior dimensions.

Testing of Hypotheses 2b, 3b, and 4b indicated some relationships were supported and others were not. Variables involved in those supported hypotheses were further analyzed in Hypotheses 2c, 3c, and 4c. It was concluded that covenantal relations is a complete mediator of the relationship between the self-interest ethical work climate (EWC) and the self-loyalty OCB dimension. Also, covenantal relations is a partial mediator of the relationship between the self-interest EWC and the self-obedience OCB dimension. Testing of Hypotheses 3c revealed that covenantal relations is a partial mediator of the relationship between distal benevolence and all three of the self-reported OCB dimensions and a complete mediator of the relationship between proximal benevolence and all three of the self-reported OCB dimensions. Conclusions from testing Hypothesis 4c were that covenantal relations is a complete mediator of the relationship between the Rules and Codes (principle) EWC and all three of the self-reported OCB dimensions. In summary, Hypotheses 2a, 3a, and 4a were

Table 4.12
Results of Testing for Hypotheses 2a through 4c

Covenantal Relations	Self-Interest		Supported
Participation	Self-Interest		Not Supported
Obedience	Self-Interest		Not Supported
Loyalty	Self-Interest		Not Supported
Self-Participation	Self-Interest		Not Supported
Self-Obedience	Self-Interest		Supported
Self-Loyalty	Self-Interest		Supported
Self-Obedience	Self-Interest	Covenantal Relations	Partial Mediation Supported
Self-Loyalty	Self-Interest	Covenantal Relations	Complete Mediation Supported
Covenantal Relations	Proximal Benevolence		Supported
Covenantal Relations	Distal Benevolence		Supported
Participation	Proximal Benevolence		Not Supported
Obedience	Proximal Benevolence		Not Supported
Loyalty	Proximal Benevolence		Not Supported
Self-Participation	Proximal Benevolence		Supported
Self-Obedience	Proximal Benevolence		Supported
Self-Loyalty	Proximal Benevolence		Supported
Participation	Distal Benevolence		Not Supported
Obedience	Distal Benevolence		Not Supported
Loyalty	Distal Benevolence		Not Supported
Self-Participation	Distal Benevolence		Supported
Self-Obedience	Distal Benevolence		Supported
Self-Loyalty	Distal Benevolence		Supported

Table 4.12 (Continued)

Self-Participation	Proximal Benevolence	Covenantal Relations	Covenantal Relations	Complete Mediation Supported
Self-Obedience	Proximal Benevolence	Covenantal Relations	Covenantal Relations	Complete Mediation Supported
Self-Loyalty	Proximal Benevolence	Covenantal Relations	Covenantal Relations	Complete Mediation Supported
Self-Participation	Distal Benevolence	Covenantal Relations	Covenantal Relations	Partial Mediation Supported
Self-Obedience	Distal Benevolence	Covenantal Relations	Covenantal Relations	Partial Mediation Supported
Self-Loyalty	Distal Benevolence	Covenantal Relations	Covenantal Relations	Partial Mediation Supported
Covenantal Relations	Rules and Codes			Supported
Participation	Rules and Codes			Not Supported
Obedience	Rules and Codes			Not Supported
Loyalty	Rules and Codes			Not Supported
Self-Participation	Rules and Codes			Supported
Self-Obedience	Rules and Codes			Supported
Self-Loyalty	Rules and Codes			Supported
Self-Participation	Rules and Codes	Covenantal Relations	Covenantal Relations	Complete Mediation Supported
Self-Obedience	Rules and Codes	Covenantal Relations	Covenantal Relations	Complete Mediation Supported
Self-Loyalty	Rules and Codes	Covenantal Relations	Covenantal Relations	Complete Mediation Supported

supported through hypothesis testing. Results indicated partial support for Hypotheses 1, 2b, 3b, 4b, and 2c, 3c, 4c.

Chapter Summary

This chapter provided the results of the data analysis. It presented demographic characteristics of the study participants, factor analyses for ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behavior, descriptive statistics of the main variables, correlations, measurement scale reliabilities, hypothesis testing, and results of the study. The following chapter discusses implications and contributions of the research findings. It also presents limitations of the research study and directions for future research.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss and interpret the results of the study. The first section of the chapter provides a discussion of the research findings and their managerial implications. Directions for future research are suggested in the next section. Limitations of the study are addressed in the third section. Finally, contributions of the study are presented in the fourth section.

Research Findings, Conclusions, and Implications

This study investigated the relationship between perceptions of organizational ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behavior. It was hypothesized that perceptions of ethical work climate affect the tendency to engage in organizational citizenship behavior. It was also hypothesized that covenantal relations between the organization and the individual would mediate the relationship between ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behavior. In view of the critical nature of identifying positive, beneficial work behaviors and determining antecedents of such behaviors to promote their occurrence, the findings of this investigation and their managerial implications are presented in this section.

Multidimensionality of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Political philosophy and prior research by Van Dyne et al. (1994) suggest that citizenship is a multidimensional construct comprised of obedience, loyalty, and participation. The data in this study support this multidimensionality in that respondents differentiated among these three forms of citizenship. This finding implies that if organizational members perceive three distinct forms of organizational citizenship, then they may distinguish among the alternate forms of OCB and may choose to engage in any one form or a combination of more than one (Graham, 1991). Additionally, these alternate forms of OCB may be motivated by differing antecedents. Implications for managers include identifying the specific antecedents that evoke specific desired forms of organizational citizenship behavior.

Multidimensionality of Ethical Work Climate

Victor and Cullen (1987; 1988) conceptually cross-classified the three classes of ethical theory with the three referents of analysis to form nine theoretical dimensions of ethical work climate. The data in this study support the multidimensionality of ethical work climate in that respondents distinguished among alternate forms of ethical work climate. Although the respondents identified only four dimensions, these dimensions do represent each of the three classes of ethical theory, but combine some of the referents of analysis. The respondents in this study distinguished among self-interest, proximal benevolence, distal benevolence, and rules and codes. Implications for managers include identifying the effects

each climate may have on individual behavior and identifying antecedents to the formation of a particular climate.

Covenantal Relations and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Hypothesis 1 predicted that covenantal relations would be positively associated with the substantive categories of OCB. The correlations between covenantal relations and the OCB categories provided partial support for this hypothesis. Significant correlation coefficients were reported for subordinate self-rated obedience, loyalty, and participation. Only one supervisor-rated OCB dimension exhibited a significant correlation to covenantal relations. Supervisor-rated obedience exhibited a significant correlation, while supervisor-rated loyalty and participation did not.

An important implication is drawn from analyzing covenantal relations as an alternative to traditional exchange relationships between organizations and their members. Organizational participants in this study reported that covenantal relations is positively associated with their tendency to engage in all three forms of organizational citizenship behavior. Since covenantal relations implies a long-term mutual commitment between organizations and their members, this type of relationship may serve as an effective vehicle for opposing excessive emphasis on short-term outcomes. Covenantal relations should inspire consistent contributions to long-term organizational welfare, which may be in the form of organizational citizenship behavior (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Covenantal relations also capture an individual's entire set of attributes as the pool for potential contributions and citizenship behavior due to the holistic involvement in this type of relationship (Graham and Organ,

1993). Therefore, it would appear that this study's findings have direct implications, from the subordinates' perspective, for managers to build and foster covenantal relations emphasizing mutual trust, shared values, and commitment between the organization and its participants.

Although all three self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors were positively associated with covenantal relations, the correlation between covenantal relations and self-reported loyalty was considerably stronger than either self-reported obedience or participation. These results appear logical considering the nature of exchange relationships. Obedience behavior would seem to be specified by contractual terms defining a transactional relationship. Individual participation may be motivated by a desire to maximize personal outcomes, given the terms of the contract in a transactional exchange, or by a sense of reciprocity in the context of a social exchange. However, participants are not highly motivated to perform beyond the scope of the contract, or beyond the perceived equity to be derived from future reciprocation. Thus, extreme loyalty and devotion are not to be expected in a transactional or social relationship. However, if the relationship is defined according to a covenant, the parties are committed not only to a contract and a sense of reciprocity, but also to a set of shared values. Work behavior may be the result of not only expectancy and equity, but also a normative, value-based force. Therefore, while all three OCBs would exhibit positive associations with covenantal relations, obedience and participation may rely on structured, contractual and reciprocal bases that merely reside within the covenant, while loyalty may be more wholly dependent on the value-based moral foundation that defines the deeper ties of the covenantal relationship. This implies that managers desiring loyal employees should rely not only on contractual and social agreements that evoke basic

obedience and participation, but should also seek to build covenantal relationships founded upon commitment to a moral dimension implying acceptance of the organization's values.

Another important implication is drawn from analyzing the perceptual differences between the supervisors and the subordinates. While the subordinates perceived significant associations between covenantal relations and all three forms of OCB, the supervisors only perceived a significant association between covenantal relations and the subordinates' obedience dimension of OCB. There are several possible explanations that may require future investigation. First, the strength of the relationships reported in the subordinates' self-ratings may be attributable to artificial inflation due to common source variance or pressure for positive self-presentation on the self-reported OCB. Second, it may be possible that the strength of the covenantal relationship makes the subordinates feel more actively involved in all three forms of citizenship whether they are or not.

It may also be possible that supervisors do, in fact, perceive that obedience behaviors are more strongly linked to a covenantal relationship. Organizational loyalty references identification with and allegiance to organizational leaders and the organization as a whole. Organizational participation represents interest in organizational affairs and responsible involvement in organizational governance. It is possible that supervisors may perceive that loyalty and participation are derived from other sources. Transactional exchanges may elicit such behavior to the extent that it coincides with self-benefit. Social exchanges may elicit loyalty or participation through a sense of reciprocity and a desire to belong. It is also possible that in the organizational sampled, rules and procedures may not be explicitly

defined, communicated, and enforced. Thus, the managers may need to foster a covenantal relationship to induce obedience out of respect or a common sense of values.

Ethical Work Climate and Covenantal Relations

Hypotheses 2a, 3a, and 4a predicted that covenantal relations would be associated with the perceived ethical work climate of the organization. The regression results supported these relationships. More specifically, the self-interest ethical work climate exhibited a significant negative association to covenantal relations. Both proximal and distal benevolence, as well as the rules and codes ethical work climate exhibited significant positive associations to covenantal relations. These relationships were all relatively strong and as predicted according to theory. The results are meaningful because they reveal several important relationships that have not been investigated or established in prior research.

The self-interest (egoistic) ethical work climate was significantly and negatively associated with covenantal relations. This implies that in the retail organization sampled, subordinates perceived that a self-interest ethical work climate is detrimental to the formation of covenantal relationships. This result is as predicted and logical given the definition of the constructs. In a self-interest ethical work climate individuals base their decisions upon maximizing their personal outcomes. Covenants, however serve to minimize the transaction costs associated with self-interest (Ouchi, 1980). If individuals internalize the defining values of the covenant they are released from concern with self-interest. Individuals are not void of self-interest, but the self-interest is ambiguous. Boundaries between self and others become blurred. Self-interests are determined by, and coincide with, the defined values; individuals

are pledged to the welfare of all parties (Graham and Organ, 1993). Self-interest is, by the definition utilized in this study, incompatible with covenantal relations. The research findings do support a significant negative relationship between the two variables.

Proximal and distal benevolence were both positively and significantly associated with covenantal relations. In the retail organization sampled, subordinates perceived that a benevolent ethical work climate is positively related to the formation of covenantal relationships. In benevolent ethical work climates, the basic criterion for moral reasoning is maximizing joint interests. Proximal benevolence is individual and local in reference; joint interests would include personal interests as well as those of the immediate work group or organization. Distal benevolence is local and cosmopolitan in reference; joint interests would include those of the immediate work group or organization, and possibly customers, suppliers, and the public. Employees working in a benevolent climate would display sincere interest in the well-being of others who may be affected by their decisions (Victor and Cullen, 1987; 1988). This type of climate strongly coincides with the defining features of a covenantal relationship. These results are relatively strong and as predicted according to theory.

The rules and codes (principle) ethical work climate was also positively and significantly associated with covenantal relations. This implies that in the retail organization sampled, the subordinates perceived that a rules and codes ethical work climate fosters the development of covenantal relationships. In a rules and codes ethical work climate, participants base their decisions on compliance with laws, professional standards, and rules. Rules and principles reaffirm and institutionalize the values and beliefs promoted by a

covenant between an organization and its members. Principled climates assist in preserving the covenant and the welfare of the group. This result was relatively strong and as predicted.

These findings regarding the associations between ethical work climates and the formation of covenantal relations have important implications. The ethical work climate of an organization may influence the quality of the relationship that develops between itself and individual members. People in covenantal relationships with their organizations should be more likely to contribute consistently to long-term organizational welfare. Fostering such a relationship may be an effective vehicle for combating short-term results orientations (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Such a relationship is characterized by mutual trust, shared values, and open-ended commitment. This may prove effective for uniting efforts toward goal attainment. Results of this study indicate that developing benevolent and/or principled ethical work climates may help build covenantal relationships, while egoistic ethical work climates may deter the formation of covenantal relationships. These findings bear important implications for managerial actions and programs which serve to develop and sustain organizational culture and climate.

Ethical Work Climate and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Hypotheses 2b, 3b, and 4b predicted that the perception of ethical work climate would be associated with an individual's tendency to engage in organizational citizenship behavior. Of the twelve relationships examined between the dimensions of ethical work climate and the subordinate self-reported dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior, regressions

results were significant for eleven relationships. Regression coefficients for the associations between the perceived ethical work climates and the supervisor-reported OCBs did not indicate any significant relationships.

Regression coefficients indicated significant positive relationships between: (1) proximal benevolence and self-rated participation, self-rated obedience, and self-rated loyalty; (2) distal benevolence and self-rated participation, self-rated obedience, and self-rated loyalty; and (3) rules and codes and self-rated participation, self-rated obedience, and self-rated loyalty. Regression coefficients indicate significant negative relationships between the self-interest ethical work climate and self-rated obedience and self-rated loyalty. Although the regression coefficient was negative, no significant relationship was found between the self-interest ethical work climate and self-rated participation. Regression coefficients did not yield any significant results for possible relationships between the perceived ethical work climates and supervisor-rated organizational citizenship behavior.

These findings indicate that the subordinates in the sample perceived an association between their perceptions of the prevalent ethical work climate and their individual tendency to engage in organizational citizenship behavior. However, no relationship was found between the subordinates' perceptions of the ethical work climate and the supervisors' perception of the subordinates' tendency to engage in OCB. These results raise questions regarding the source of the OCB ratings and the differences between the subordinates' and the supervisors' perceptions of the relationships among the variables.

Although it is presumed to be better to obtain OCB ratings from a variety of sources (Moorman, 1991) supervisors have been the chosen source in the majority of the literature

(i.e., Bateman and Organ, 1983; Organ and Konovsky, 1989; Podsakoff et al. 1990; Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983). However, some researchers have chosen to incorporate self-ratings in certain stages of their research studies. Van Dyne et al. (1994) utilized self-ratings of OCB during factor analysis, while several other researchers (i.e., Robinson and Morrison, 1995; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Moorman and Blakely, 1995) employed self-ratings of OCB in their substantive analysis.

There are certain disadvantages associated with using supervisory assessments of OCB. First, much genuine OCB may not be direct observable and may escape the supervisor's attention. Thus, the measure may contain primarily the activity intended to impress the supervisor. Second, like various means of subjective performance appraisal, it probably does not lend itself to comparisons across different raters, given the differences in perception and leniency versus strictness tendencies of individual raters (Organ and Konovsky, 1989). However, there are certain advantages as well. First, supervisory assessments provide ratings that are procedurally independent of the subordinate's self-reports of affect and cognition (Organ and Konovsky, 1989). Second, Williams (1988) found that, when compared with co-workers, supervisors were able to provide relatively accurate and complete pictures of an employee's OCB. Williams (1988) also found that there was little measurement difference between supervisor ratings and self-report ratings. However, when relationships between job attitudes and OCB were tested, self-reports may contaminate the relationships with common method variance.

Assuming that the reported perceptual differences between the supervisors and subordinates are real leads to many important implications for managers. First, there appears

to be an opportunity for communication between the supervisors and the subordinates to bridge their perceptual differences. This concept bears numerous implications for training, policies, procedures, and other potential vehicles of communication between the groups. Second, if the subordinates do perceive that the ethical work climate affects their tendency to engage in OCB, then supervisors should seek to determine what antecedents shape that climate in a manner that evokes the desired OCB. Third, if a self-interest ethical work climate negatively affects OCB, while the other ethical work climates positively affect OCB, then the identification of antecedents to the particular ethical work climate dimensions becomes even more urgent. Finally, if these ethical work climates are based on motives or bases for decision making, there may be methods to revert to an individual level of analysis. If possible, this may allow hiring decisions, through testing of potential candidates, to shape ethical work climate.

Mediating Effect of Covenantal Relations

Hypotheses 2c, 3c, and 4c predicted a mediated model in which the ethical work climate would have no effects on organizational citizenship behavior beyond those which operate through the covenant. In general, results support covenantal relations' mediation between ethical work climate and subordinate self-ratings of OCB. Complete mediation is supported for the relationships between all three self-reported OCB dimensions and the rules and codes and the proximal benevolence ethical work climates. Complete mediation is also supported between self-reported loyalty and the self-interest ethical work climate. Partial mediation is supported for the relationships between all three self-reported OCBs and the distal benevolence climate, as well as between self-reported obedience and the self-interest

ethical work climate. There was no mediation supported between self-rated participation and the self-interest ethical work climate.

Overall, the rules and codes and the proximal benevolence ethical work climates had the strongest pattern of complete mediation. Thus, these ethical work climates in the organization influence obedience, loyalty, and participation behaviors through the quality of the relationship they create between the organization and its employees. The distal benevolence climate presented a pattern of partial mediation. It is possible that a distal benevolent climate may evoke covenantal relational ties with a collectivity more encompassing than the organization. Therefore, the relationship is partially mediated to the point where the organization's policies and values are aligned with those of the larger collective (i.e., customers, stakeholders, community, general public).

It is suspected, as in Van Dyne, et al. (1994), that the presence of full mediation means that citizenship is entrenched in many different facets of the relationships between organizations and their individual members. Although the results for the supervisor-rated OCBs did not indicate any mediated relationships, the self-rated OCB findings may still have managerial implications for the job attitudes of subordinates. If so, such individual participants may be motivated both extrinsically by organizational incentive structures, and intrinsically, through covenantal relations.

Directions for Future Research

Organizational citizenship behaviors are significant because they increase flexibility to surmount unforeseen contingencies; they enable organizational members to cope with

interdependence; they influence subjective performance appraisals; and they include behaviors either not formally required or traditionally unenforceable by normal incentives or sanctions (Smith et al., 1983). In an ever-changing, global, competitive market, the need to understand such behaviors and how to elicit them is imperative for long-term productivity and organizational survival.

The results of this study, as well as prior research by Van Dyne et al. (1994), support the multi-dimensionality of the organizational citizenship behavior construct inspired by political theory. Van Dyne et al. (1994) identified five dimensions, whereas the current research indicated three dimensions. Future research should attempt to further assess and refine the multi-dimensionality of the OCB construct.

The current study reported a discrepancy between supervisors and subordinates perceptions of the tendency to engage in OCB. Subordinate perceptions were higher than supervisor perceptions. This may be expected due to self-report bias. However, future studies should investigate the causes and consequences of such a discrepancy.

Additionally, although the organizational citizenship dimensions are correlated, organizational members may choose to engage in certain forms of OCB rather than all of them. These choices may be predicated on a variety of factors including personality, organizational structure, recognition and incentives, supervisors, and culture (Van Dyne et al., 1994). The current study indicates that organizational ethical work climate does impact these choices. Future research should continue to assess under what circumstances particular forms of OCB occur.

This research study examined the mediating effect of covenantal relations on the relationship between ethical work climate and OCB. Continued research is needed to ascertain the nature of the relationship between ethical work climate and organizational behavior. Additional empirical evidence is needed regarding the various dimensions of ethical work climate. Future research would also contribute to better understanding ethical climate and its affect on organizations, relationships among its members, and individual behavior.

Covenantal relations was found to serve as a mediator of the relationship between ethical work climate and self-reported organizational citizenship behavior. Future research may conduct analyses to determine the types of climates or cultures which foster covenantal relations rather than alternative exchange relationships. Given the long-term benefits of covenantal relations suggested by prior research, future research might benefit from examining its development and evolution over time (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Limitations of the Study

Several factors exist which influence the external validity, generalization, and interpretation of these research findings. These limitations are addressed in the following section.

Research Design

The design of the current study, as with all research studies, is subject to limitations. The study is cross-sectional, and consequently the findings cannot indicate directional causality. It is conceivable that the construct flow is reversed and organizational citizenship behavior causes covenantal relationships to form (VanDyne et al., 1994). It is also possible

that these two variables influence perceptions of ethical work climate. Therefore, it is recommended that future research include a design which may more accurately detect or control for causality.

Self-Reporting of Behavioral Measures

Data for the organizational citizenship behavior construct were gathered from two sources: self-reports from organizational participants and supervisor ratings of the organizational participants. To minimize self-report bias, respondents were assured of anonymity and confidentiality regarding their responses. Additionally, respondents were assured that only aggregate reports would be issued, with no individual responses identified.

Factor analysis was conducted using the supervisor-reported organizational citizenship behavior. The items in the self-reports which were analogous to those that factored in the supervisor-reports were then also included as separate variables during hypothesis testing. It is important to note that the regression results indicate significant relationships involving self-reported OCB variables, but not supervisor-reported OCB dimensions.

Another limitation related to the self-reported behavioral measures is that the reliability coefficient for self-reported obedience was 0.58. It was incorporated in the study on the basis that the same items that were supervisor-rated presented a reliability coefficient of 0.85. Also, for comparative purposes it was necessary to use the same questionnaire items. However, this suggests that future research may likely improve the OCB scale through iterative work to better the factor structure and reliability.

Sample Composition

The sampling frame was comprised of members of two locations of one national retail sales organization, positioned in the same geographical market. The sample was relatively small. Therefore, results should not be generalized to other populations. Future research should incorporate other sampling frames to assess a variety of industries and individuals.

Contributions of the Study

This study provided a number of significant contributions to the research literature regarding organizational citizenship, covenantal relations, and ethical work climate. First, this is the only known reported research that investigates the mediating effect of covenantal relations on the relationship between ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behavior. Results indicated partial support for the relationships between ethical work climate and covenantal relations, between covenantal relations and organizational citizenship behavior, and between ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behavior. They also indicated partial support for the mediating effect of covenantal relations on the relationship between ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behavior.

Additionally, this study provided empirical evidence of the multi-dimensionality of ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behavior. The study lends credence to the theory-driven Van Dyne et al. (1994) political conceptualization of OCB. The factor analysis resulted in the three dimensions identified by their political theory reference: obedience, loyalty, and participation. Although ethical work climate did not factor according to Victor and Cullen's (1987; 1988) nine theoretical dimensions, it did result in one egoistic, one

principled, and two benevolent climates. Thus, this research contributes empirical evidence by identifying potentially important climate types.

This research study supports previous evidence indicating that covenantal relations affect the relationship between OCB and selected antecedents. Furthermore, it is the first reported empirical research to incorporate ethical work climate as a factor influencing organizational citizenship behavior. Finally, this study contributes findings that may enhance the understanding of OCB and may enable academicians and practitioners to evoke OCB as a method to increase organizational effectiveness.

The purpose of this exploratory study was to investigate a relationship between ethical work climate and organizational citizenship behavior and the mediating effect of covenantal relations of those relationships. This investigation contributed knowledge to the field of organizational citizenship behavior and ethical work climate research.

APPENDIX

DISSERTATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Section 2a:**Instructions:**

Listed below is a series of statements that represent possible feelings that you might have regarding the relationship between you and the store for which you are now working.

Please indicate whether you agree with each of the following statements about your store. Please use the scale and write the number which best represents your answer in the space next to each item.

-
- | | | |
|-------|-----|---|
| _____ | 37. | <p>My superior gives personal attention to subordinates who seem neglected.</p> <p>1. strongly disagree</p> <p>2. slightly disagree</p> <p>3. neither disagree nor agree</p> <p>4. slightly agree</p> <p>5. strongly agree</p> |
| _____ | 38. | <p>My superior delegates responsibilities to me to provide me with training opportunities.</p> <p>(1) strongly disagree</p> <p>(2) slightly disagree</p> <p>(3) neither disagree nor agree</p> <p>(4) slightly agree</p> <p>(5) strongly agree</p> |
| _____ | 39. | <p>My superior treats each subordinate as an individual.</p> <p>(1) strongly disagree</p> <p>(2) slightly disagree</p> <p>(3) neither disagree nor agree</p> <p>(4) slightly agree</p> <p>(5) strongly agree</p> |
| _____ | 40. | <p>My superior spends a lot of time coaching each individual subordinate who needs it.</p> <p>(1) strongly disagree</p> <p>(2) slightly disagree</p> <p>(3) neither disagree nor agree</p> <p>(4) slightly agree</p> <p>(5) strongly agree</p> |
| _____ | 41. | <p>My superior gives newcomers a lot of help.</p> <p>(1) strongly disagree</p> <p>(2) slightly disagree</p> <p>(3) neither disagree nor agree</p> <p>(4) slightly agree</p> <p>(5) strongly agree</p> |
| _____ | 42. | <p>I think this store considers employees</p> <p>(1) much less important than sales/profits</p> <p>(2) less important than sales/profits</p> <p>(3) equally important as sales/profits</p> <p>(4) more important than sales/profits</p> <p>(5) much more important than sales/profits</p> |

- _____ 43. **How do you describe this store as a store to work for?**
- (1) **poor**
 - (2) **just another place to work**
 - (3) **fairly good**
 - (4) **very good**
 - (5) **couldn't be much better**
- _____ 44. **From my experience, I feel this store probably treats its employees:**
- (1) **poorly**
 - (2) **somewhat poorly**
 - (3) **fairly well**
 - (4) **quite well**
 - (5) **extremely well**

Section 2b:**Instructions:**

Listed below is a series of statements that represent possible feelings that you might have regarding the relationship between you and the store for which you are now working.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by placing the number which best represents your answer in the blank next to each item.

	Strongly disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
_____	45.	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this store be successful.			
_____	46.	I talk up this store to my friends as a great store to work for.			
_____	47.	I feel very little loyalty to this store.			
_____	48.	I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this store.			
_____	49.	I find that my values and the store's values are very similar.			
_____	50.	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this store.			
_____	51.	I could just as well be working for a different store as long as the type of work was similar.			
_____	52.	This store really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.			
_____	53.	It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this store.			
_____	54.	I am extremely glad that I chose this store to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.			
_____	55.	There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this store indefinitely.			
_____	56.	Often, I find it difficult to agree with this store's policies on matters relating to its employees.			
_____	57.	I really care about the fate of this store.			
_____	58.	For me this is the best of all possible stores for which to work.			
_____	59.	Deciding to work for this store was a definite mistake on my part.			

Section 3:**Instructions:**

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible characteristics of individuals working within this store. Refer to your own behavior for this section of the questionnaire.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by placing the number which best represents your answer in the blank next to each item.

	Strongly disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
_____	60.	I represent this store favorable to outsiders.			
_____	61.	I do not go out of my way to defend this store to outside threats.			
_____	62.	I do not tell outsiders this is a good place to work.			
_____	63.	I do not defend the store when employees criticize it.			
_____	64.	I actively promote the store's products and services.			
_____	65.	I would accept a job at competing stores for more money.			
_____	66.	I would not urge coworkers to invest money in the organization.			
_____	67.	I rarely waste time while at work.			
_____	68.	I produce as much as I am capable of at all times.			
_____	69.	I always come to work on time.			
_____	70.	Regardless of circumstances, I produce highest quality work.			
_____	71.	I do not meet all deadlines set by the store.			
_____	72.	I am mentally alert and ready to work when I arrive at work.			
_____	73.	I follow work rules and instructions with extreme care.			
_____	74.	I sometimes waste organizational resources.			
_____	75.	I keep the work area clean and neat.			
_____	76.	I sometimes miss work for no good reason.			
_____	77.	I only attend work-related meetings if required by job.			
_____	78.	I share ideas for new projects or improvements widely.			

	Strongly disagree 1	Slightly disagree 2	Neither agree nor disagree 3	Slightly agree 4	Strongly agree 5
_____	79.	I keep informed about products and services and tell others.			
_____	80.	I work so personal appearance is attractive and appropriate.			
_____	81.	I am not involved in outside groups for benefit of the store.			
_____	82.	I frequently make creative suggestions to coworkers.			
_____	83.	I use professional judgement to assess right/wrong for the store.			
_____	84.	I encourage management to keep knowledge/skills current.			
_____	85.	I encourage others to speak up at meetings.			
_____	86.	I help coworkers think for themselves.			
_____	87.	I keep well-informed where my opinion might benefit the store.			
_____	88.	I do not push superiors to perform to higher standards.			
_____	89.	I do not pursue additional training to improve performance.			
_____	90.	I avoid extra duties and responsibilities at work.			
_____	91.	I do not work beyond what is required.			
_____	92.	I volunteer for overtime work when needed.			
_____	93.	I have difficulty cooperating with others on projects.			
_____	94.	I am one of my supervisor's best employees.			
_____	95.	All things considered , I am an outstanding employee.			
_____	96.	All things considered, I perform my job the way my supervisor likes to see it performed.			

Section 4:

The following information will be used for classification purposes only. Your answers will remain confidential.

97. Your age? _____
98. Your gender? (please circle) Male Female
99. Your race? (please circle)
- African-American Hispanic Asian-American White Other
100. Your marital status? (please circle)
- Single Married Widowed Separated/Divorced
101. Your highest level of education? (please check)
- _____ grade school
- _____ some high school
- _____ high school graduate
- _____ some college
- _____ college graduate
- _____ some graduate/professional education
- _____ graduate/professional degree
- _____ doctoral degree
102. Your job description? (please check)
- _____ non-commission sales associate
- _____ hourly base-pay plus commission sales associate
- _____ strictly commission sales associate
- _____ loss prevention associate
- _____ office/clerical associate
- _____ replenishment associate
- _____ other (please specify) _____
103. If you are a sales associate, in which area do you work?
- _____ childrens
- _____ womens
- _____ shoes
- _____ mens
- _____ hardware
- _____ appliances
- _____ electronics
- _____ lawn/garden
- _____ bed/bath
- _____ housewares
- _____ automotive

104. The store unit in which you presently work? _____
(company specified unit number)

105. Length of employment with this company? _____ years _____ months

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND EFFORT

PLEASE SEAL YOUR RESPONSES IN THE ASSOCIATE ENVELOPE PROVIDED

Section 5:**SURVEY NO:** _____**Instructions:**

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible characteristics of individuals working within this store. Refer to one specific employee's behavior for an entire questionnaire.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by placing the number which best represents your answer in the blank next to each item.

	Strongly disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
_____	106.	Represents this store favorably to outsiders.			
_____	107.	Does not go out of way to defend this store to outside threats.			
_____	108.	Does not tell outsiders this is a good place to work.			
_____	109.	Does not defend the store when employees criticize it.			
_____	110.	Actively promotes the store's products and services.			
_____	111.	Would accept a job at competing stores for more money.			
_____	112.	Would not urge coworkers to invest money in the organization.			
_____	113.	Rarely wastes time while at work.			
_____	114.	Produces as much as capable of at all times.			
_____	115.	Always comes to work on time.			
_____	116.	Regardless of circumstances, produces highest quality work.			
_____	117.	Does not meet all deadlines set by the store.			
_____	118.	Is mentally alert and ready to work when arrives at work.			
_____	119.	Follows work rules and instructions with extreme care.			
_____	120.	Sometimes wastes organizational resources.			
_____	121.	Keeps the work area clean and neat.			
_____	122.	Sometimes misses work for no good reason.			
_____	123.	Only attends work-related meetings if required by job.			
_____	124.	Share ideas for new projects or improvements widely.			

	Strongly disagree 1	Slightly disagree 2	Neither agree nor disagree 3	Slightly agree 4	Strongly agree 5
_____	125.	Keeps informed about products and services and tell others.			
_____	126.	Works so personal appearance is attractive and appropriate.			
_____	127.	Is not involved in outside groups for benefit of the store.			
_____	128.	Frequently makes creative suggestions to coworkers.			
_____	129.	Uses professional judgement to assess right/wrong for the store.			
_____	130.	Encourages management to keep knowledge/skills current.			
_____	131.	Encourages others to speak up at meetings.			
_____	132.	Helps coworkers think for themselves.			
_____	133.	Keeps well-informed where my opinion might benefit the store.			
_____	134.	Does not push superiors to perform to higher standards.			
_____	135.	Does not pursue additional training to improve performance.			
_____	136.	Avoids extra duties and responsibilities at work.			
_____	137.	Does not work beyond what is required.			
_____	138.	Volunteers for overtime work when needed.			
_____	139.	Has difficulty cooperating with others on projects.			
_____	140.	This employee is one of my best employees.			
_____	141.	All things considered, this employee is outstanding.			
_____	142.	All things considered, this employee performs his/her job the way I like to see it performed.			

PLEASE SEAL YOUR RESPONSES IN THE SUPERVISOR ENVELOPE PROVIDED

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND EFFORT

Section 6:

The following information will be used for classification purposes only. Your answers will remain confidential.

1. Your age? _____
2. Your gender? (please circle) Male Female
3. Your race? (please circle)
 African-American Hispanic Asian-American White Other
4. Your marital status? (please circle)
 Single Married Widowed Separated/Divorced
5. Your highest level of education? (please check)
 _____ grade school
 _____ some high school
 _____ high school graduate
 _____ some college
 _____ college graduate
 _____ some graduate/professional education
 _____ graduate/professional degree
 _____ doctoral degree
6. Length of employment with this company? _____ years _____ months
7. Length of time of management experience? _____ years _____ months
8. Length of time in present position? _____ years _____ months
9. How many people report directly to you? _____
10. Job description? (please check)
 _____ sales supervisor
 _____ sales support supervisor
 _____ other (please specify) _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION
PLEASE SEAL YOUR RESPONSES IN THE ENVELOPE PROVIDED

(Date)

Dear Supervisor,

I am a sales manager employed in a local unit and a doctoral student conducting a survey of (Company Name) employees to obtain data for my dissertation. I can only afford to administer a limited number of questionnaires. Your responses and those of your subordinates, are extremely important to my study. I realize this is an imposition, but it will only take a few minutes to complete each enclosed questionnaire.

All responses will remain strictly confidential--they will not be identified according to individuals. Additionally, your responses will be grouped with other responses, and only composite reports will be issued. To make things as convenient as possible, I've enclosed an instruction sheet for completing the surveys.

Your cooperation is critical to my study. Please take a few minutes to complete the questionnaires by (deadline date). On that date, I will pick up the completed questionnaires. If you would like a copy of the results, include your name and address on a separate sheet of paper.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation. Please contact me or my dissertation chairman, Dr. Tim Barnett, if we can be of assistance.

Sincerely,

Elizabeth C. Schubert
Sales Manager, (Company Name)
Doctoral Candidate, Louisiana Tech University

General Instructions for Supervisor

The following has been provided in this package:

- * Survey sections 1-4 containing questions 1-105 to be completed by each associate; enough copies are provided for each associate under your supervision
- * Survey section 5 containing questions 106-142 to be completed by the supervisor; enough copies are provided to rate each associate under your supervision
- * Survey section 6 containing questions 1-10 to be completed by the supervisor; one copy is provided
- * An assignment sheet to match survey numbers and ensure confidentiality

Each survey contains a survey number. Distribute one copy of survey sections 1-4 (with corresponding envelopes) to each associate under your supervision. As you distribute them, use the assignment sheet to record which associate received which survey number. The associates will complete the survey according to their instructions, seal them in the envelopes provided, and return them to you or mail them to the researcher.

Using the assignment sheet, answer survey section 5 one time for each associate under your supervision. Be careful to choose an associate, find his/her survey number on the assignment sheet, find survey section 5 with that corresponding number, and rate that particular associate, being careful to match the survey number to the associate being rated. It will take approximately two to five minutes to rate each associate. To ensure confidentiality do not write the associates' name on any surveys. Seal all copies of survey section 5 in the envelopes provided.

Complete survey section 6, which will take approximately one minute, and seal it in the envelope provided.

The surveys should be completed by (deadline date). Each associate who completes and returns a questionnaire will have his/her survey number entered in a drawing for cash prizes, so please retain the assignment sheet until after the drawing has taken place.

If you have any questions, I may be reached at (home telephone number) or (work telephone number).

Thank you for your help.

Beth Schubert

General Instructions for Associate

This questionnaire is comprised of 4 sections with a total of 105 questions. It will take approximately ten to fifteen minutes to complete the entire questionnaire.

Please read the instructions, answer each question, and then seal the survey in the envelope provided and return it to your supervisor or mail it to the researcher. Please do not place your name on the survey.

Please return this questionnaire by (deadline date). Each associate who completes and returns a questionnaire will have his/her survey number entered in a drawing for two \$50 prizes and one \$100 prize. Your supervisor has a log of the survey numbers, but please remember your survey number.

If you have any questions, I may be reached at (home telephone number) or (work telephone number).

Thank you for your help.

Beth Schubert

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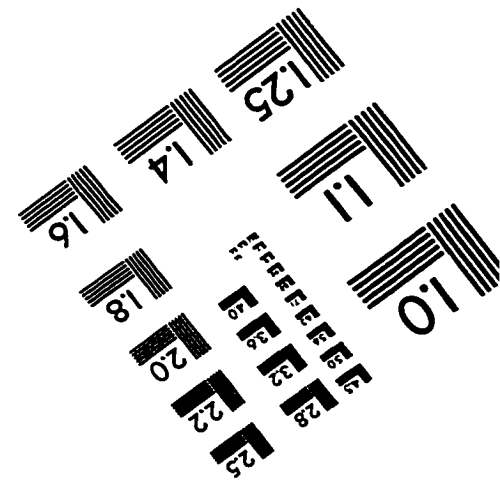
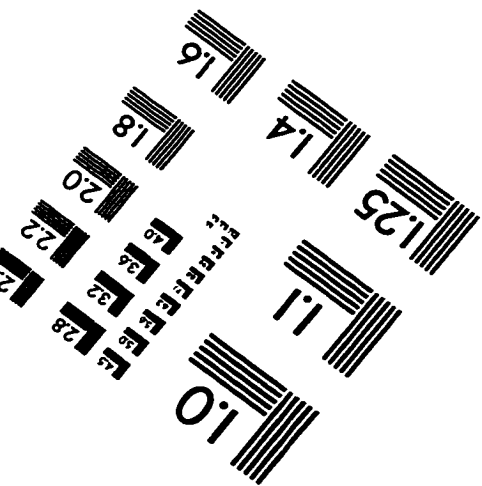
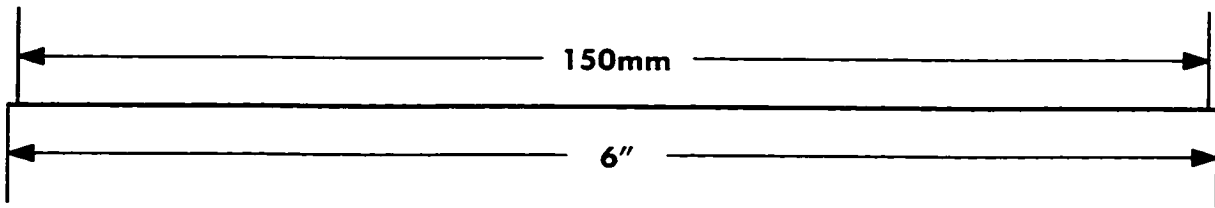
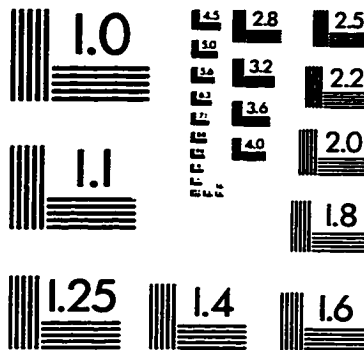
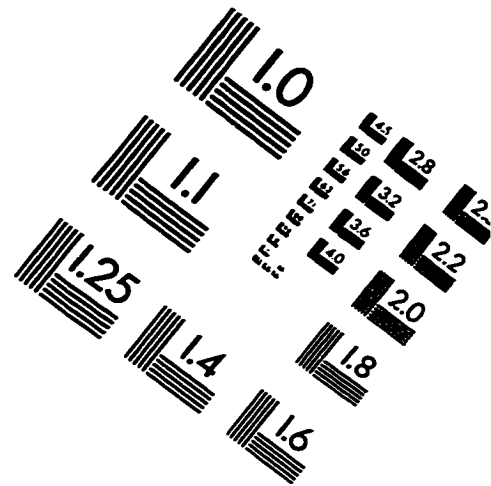
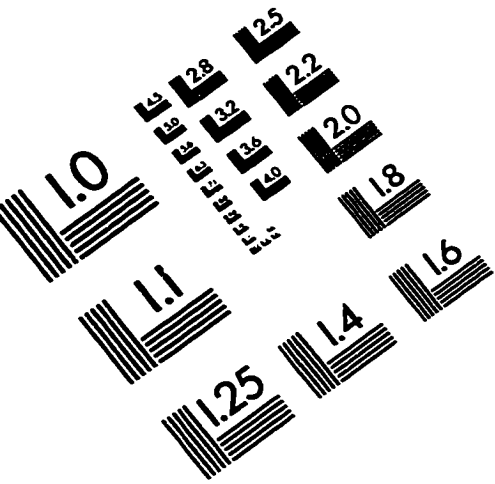
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IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



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