

# EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIORS: IN PURSUIT OF CONSTRUCT AND DEFINITIONAL CLARITY (A BRIDGE OVER MUDDIED WATERS)

Linn Van Dyne, L.L. Cummings,  
and Judi McLean Parks

---

## ABSTRACT

This paper proposes a nomological network for extra-role behaviors based on detailed examination of construct definitions and domains for four specific extra-role behaviors: Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), ProSocial Organizational Behavior (PSOB), Whistle-Blowing (WB), and Principled Organizational Dissent (POD). In this paper, we clarify the similarities and differences among these four constructs and, based on a critical and integrative review of the literature, offer theoretical solutions to three conceptual and definitional problems with the current research. We conclude the paper with six specific recommendations for construct clarification.

---

Research in Organizational Behavior, Volume 17, pages 215-285.  
Copyright © 1995 by JAI Press Inc.  
All rights of reproduction in any form reserved.  
ISBN: 1-55938-743-2

## INTRODUCTION

Roles are crucial in how we think about work and work behaviors. The construct of role is, perhaps, one of the most central behavioral constructs in the organizational sciences. Roles delineate expected behaviors, and form the foundation of job descriptions, expectations and stereotypes. They specify the metric for assessing job performance and selection as well as whether employees have met or exceeded role expectations. Understandably, organizational scholars have demonstrated a high degree of interest in the concept of organization roles, most recently in the domain of extra-role behaviors. Extra-role behavior constructs, however, are not always well defined and have not yet been integrated into a nomological network that clarifies the theoretical similarities and differences between the constructs. Currently, the proliferation of constructs and the increasing quantity of empirical research on various forms of extra-role behavior (ERB) have muddied the waters concerning definitions of extra-role behavior and its antecedents and consequences. In this paper, we argue that the volume of research on extra-role behavior now justifies (and in fact demands) construct clarification and development of an initial nomological network. The four extra-role constructs that we examine in detail are:

- Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB): (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988, 1990; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994);
- ProSocial Organizational Behavior (PSOB): (e.g., Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; George, 1990, 1991; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986);
- Whistle-Blowing (WB): (e.g., Dozier & Miceli, 1985; Near & Miceli, 1987); and
- Principled Organizational Dissent (POD): (Graham, 1983, 1986b).

The purpose of this paper is to develop an initial nomological network for ERB based on clarification of the construct definitions and relationships among these four specific extra-role behaviors. A number of researchers (e.g., Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Graham, 1991; McAllister, 1991; Near & Jensen, 1983; Organ, 1988; Schnake, 1991; Van Dyne & Cummings, 1990) have expressed concerns about the somewhat haphazard and casual development of these constructs and the need for construct clarity. We believe that the growth in the number of constructs and the increasing quantity of research on extra-role behavior make this integrative review necessary. More important, the recommendations for construct clarification and the proposed nomological network included in the paper extend prior theory development and should improve future research on extra-role behavior. We propose four general categories of ERB (affiliative/promotive, challenging/prohibitive, challeng-

ing/promotive, and affiliative/prohibitive) and develop four separate, but related, nomological networks that highlight the similarities and differences in the antecedents and consequences of these four types of ERB.

Our paper differs significantly from other recent work on extra-role behavior (see, e.g., George & Brief, 1992; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991). First, we take a more fundamental or more basic approach to extra-role behaviors. Instead of testing substantive issues or proposing a *new* construct and developing a model of antecedents and/or consequences, the paper concentrates on improving the definitional clarity of ERB as a *multidimensional construct*. Second, we concentrate on constructs that have already received significant amounts of research attention (Organizational Citizenship Behavior, ProSocial Organizational Behavior, Whistle-Blowing, and Principled Organizational Dissent) and highlight notable gaps in the research. Third, we acknowledge that definitions of constructs typically evolve during early stages of exploratory research. Nevertheless, we argue that research on extra-role behavior has progressed beyond initial developmental stages. Definitional clarity is essential and must be resolved before additional substantive research occurs (Schwab, 1980).

This paper is organized in four primary sections. The first section examines the importance of extra-role research and some of the difficulties of conducting this research. The second section enumerates the conceptual problems caused by these challenges. The third section examines the existing research on four specific ERB constructs and presents a detailed examination of the evolving and sometimes inconsistent definitions of these extra-role constructs. Finally, the fourth section presents an initial nomological network for extra-role behaviors and six specific recommendations for future research.

## THE IMPORTANCE OF EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIOR

### What is Extra-Role Behavior?

For many years scholars have recognized the importance of positive discretionary behaviors which go beyond delineated role expectations and also benefit the organization (e.g., Barnard, 1938; Katz, 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978). It is only recently, however, that extra-role behavior in organizations has been the focus of concerted empirical effort (e.g., Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Dozier & Miceli, 1985; George, 1991; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; McLean Parks, 1990; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Organ, 1988; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Puffer, 1987; Scholl, Cooper & McKenna, 1987; Staw & Boettger, 1990; Van Dyne, 1993; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Katz and Kahn (1978) defined a role as the set of expected activities associated with the occupancy of a given position or job. In addition, they acknowledged the existence of multiple and potentially conflicting roles within organizations. Graen and Cashman (1975) and Graen (1976) developed the concept of role-making to represent an even more individualized conceptualization of role. Finally, Miner (1987) has argued that even in highly formalized organizations, idiosyncratic jobs are not unusual. Thus, jobs, roles, and behavior are not synonymous because behavior in organizations is *not* limited to formal job descriptions or formal role expectations.

In this paper we define extra-role behavior as follows:

*extra-role behavior (ERB) is defined as behavior which benefits the organization and/or is intended to benefit the organization,<sup>1</sup> which is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations.*

This definition highlights the important point that extra-role behavior is not simply behavior that is outside of role expectations which happens to occur within an organization. The behavior must be *directed toward* or be seen as *benefiting* the organization. Helping behavior which occurs within an organization which is directed interpersonally toward another individual may or may not benefit the organization; it also may or may not be intended to benefit the organization. Thus our definition specifies a particular type of behavior (positive) and focuses on the organizational level of analysis.

Our definition of extra-role behavior has four implications. First, the definition requires that the behavior must be voluntary. In other words, it is not role-prescribed nor part of formal job duties. It is not formally rewarded and failure to engage in the behavior cannot be formally penalized. Second, the employee's actions must be intentional—she or he must make an active decision to engage in the behavior. The third implication is that the behavior must be positive—either the behavior is intended positively by the actor or is perceived positively by an observer. The fourth and final implication is that the behavior must be primarily disinterested from the perspective of the employee (the actor). This means that an employee must engage in the behavior primarily to benefit someone or something other than him/herself. It is important to note, however, that disinterest does not require an *absence* of interest on the employee's part.

In this paper, we focus on behavior that benefits the organization. We view benefit to the organization *from the organization's perspective*. This is for two reasons. First, this is a critical and integrative analysis with emphasis on recommendations for future research. Thus it is important to start with the existing literature which has adopted the perspective of the organization (for important exceptions, see Morrison, 1992, 1993; Staw & Boettger, 1990). Second, we acknowledge the importance of management's perspective in

contingent decision making. Management determines hiring, firing, merit increases, transfers, promotions, and employee awards. Thus, management's perspective concerning behavior that is expected has significant consequences for employees. We acknowledge that our approach is incomplete because it does not provide equal coverage for the employee's perspective of role expectations. When there is more research on role expectations from the employee's perspective, an integrative analysis and critique of this second alternative perspective will provide material for another paper.

Although there is some disagreement in the literature concerning whether extra-role behavior (ERB) can be differentiated from in-role behavior (IRB), we argue that extra-role behavior is conceptually distinct from in-role behavior. Graham (1991) has suggested that organizational citizenship can be viewed as an enlarged form of job performance, and as such, is not extra-role. In Graham's view, in-role behavior and extra-role behavior are two dimensions of a more global construct (organizational citizenship behavior) that encompasses all employee behavior that occurs in the work context. Graham compared organizational citizenship (all behavior of organizational members) with civic citizenship (all behavior of societal members). Although moving to this higher level of abstraction avoids having to differentiate in-role and extra-role behavior and may appear to make our jobs as researchers easier, we believe this approach is misguided for two reasons.

First, and as will be demonstrated in this paper, much of the research on ERB has been characterized by a lack of precision in the definition and use of terms. Clear delineation of the *theoretical* differences between in-role behavior and extra-role behavior is important in order to obtain conceptual clarity. *Application* of these theoretical differences is a different issue and should not effect theoretical conceptualizations. Although classifying a specific behavior as IRB or ERB can, at times, be difficult, acknowledging the theoretical differences in the constructs adds value to research even when application of the distinction is problematic. For example, in a different context, Elickson (1987) argued that although the color of light ranges through an infinite number of hues, the distinct concepts of "green" and "blue" are useful. Second, even though it can be difficult, at times, to apply the theoretical distinction between ERB and IRB to specific behaviors, this does not mean that the conceptual distinction should be disregarded. We acknowledge that the distinction between ERB and IRB can be blurred in some specific instances, but we take the position that the dynamic and relative nature of extra-role behavior (which, as expanded below, is what makes the classification difficult) is an important characteristic of the construct. In fact, we believe that extra-role behavior varies along multiple dimensions and that it is the occasional confusion of these dimensions that creates ambiguity about what is in-role versus extra-role.

Table 1. Examples of Labeling Differences in IRB and ERB (Holding Behavior Constant)

Actor	Observer 1	Observer 2	Key Characteristic
<i>Example 1: Observer 1 and Observer 2 observe the same employee behavior</i>			
Employee A	IRB	ERB	Different expectations from different observers
<i>Example 2: Observer 1 observes Employee B and Employee C engage in the same behavior</i>			
Employee B	ERB		Different expectations from the same observer directed toward two different employees
Employee C	IRB		
<i>Example 3: Observer 1 observes Employee D engage in the same behavior at two different times</i>			
Employee D			
Time 1	ERB		Different expectations from the same observer at two different points in time
Time 2	IRB		

There are at least three reasons why it is sometimes difficult to differentiate in-role behavior and extra-role behavior. The same behavior might be considered in-role or extra-role depending on:

1. the perspective of the observer who is doing the labeling (two observers),
2. the characteristics of the employees being observed (two employees),
3. the time frame (one employee at two different times).

Table 1 illustrates examples of each of these situations. Example 1 in Table 1 suggests that differences in labeling an employee's behavior IRB versus ERB might be a function of the expectations of the observer. For example, if a drafting technician changed personal plans in order to work overtime on a critical project, the immediate supervisor might consider this behavior ERB. In contrast, the department head might not be aware of the employee's personal plans and might expect all drafting technicians to work overtime on an occasional critical project. This is a typical example of role conflict (Katz & Kahn, 1978) which could develop because the two observers have different standards and expectations for the drafting technician (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1992; Kidder & McLean Parks, 1993; Toffler, 1981).

A second reason why both IRB and ERB labels might be applied to the same behavior is illustrated in Example 2 in Table 1. This example suggests that one observer could view two different employees engaging in the same behavior and label the behavior of one employee as in-role while

simultaneously labeling the behavior of the other employee as extra-role. For example, if a junior financial analyst and a senior financial analyst each prepared special reports analyzing the sales department's expenses, the department manager might view the behavior of the junior analyst as ERB and the behavior of the senior analyst as IRB. This could be due to having different standards and expectations for different employees based on ability, motivation, training, or available resources.<sup>2</sup>

Third, as illustrated in Example 3 of Table 1, perceptions can change over time. In both a formal and an informal sense, jobs evolve, roles expand and contract, expectations change, and relationships change (Graen, 1976; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1992; Miner, 1987). Therefore, what might originally have been considered extra-role behavior can, over time, become an in-role expectation. This can be due to factors such as employee socialization, skill improvement, performance, or promotability. For example, if a newly hired mail clerk took the initiative to find a forwarding address for mail that could not be delivered, the supervisor might consider this ERB. On the other hand, after that same employee had been on the job one year and was fully trained, the supervisor might consider this type of initiative a routine part of the job (IRB). In addition, many organizations are faced with increasingly competitive environments with higher standards for excellent performance (Miles, 1989; Porter, 1985). To enhance competitive advantage, organizations reorganize or restructure and consequently expect employees to "do more" as an expected part of their jobs. The above temporal examples suggest that extra-role behavior can evolve into in-role behavior. We suggest that in-role behavior can also evolve into extra-role behavior. In other words, expectations can change in either direction. For example, an employee might develop a medical illness or disability which changes work-related capabilities. This, in turn, could cause an observer to expect less over time. Accordingly, a behavior that was considered in-role could become extra-role.

As illustrated in the above examples, there are legitimate reasons why a specific behavior is sometimes labeled ERB and at other times is labeled IRB. It is important to note, however, that the definition of the IRB/ERB constructs is not changing in these examples. Instead, the application of the construct (ERB versus IRB) to a specific behavior depends on particularistic characteristics (the observer and the actor), relational characteristics (the specific relationship between the observer and the actor), and dynamic characteristics (changes in the actor's perceived capability over time). This gives ERB a dynamic and relational characteristic which suggests that the difference between ERB and IRB should be assessed within the perspective of a particular context. Accordingly we argue that the conceptual distinction between extra-role behavior and in-role behavior is meaningful. IRB is explicitly expected and rewarded behavior; ERB is not explicitly expected nor required. In addition, we argue that extra-role behavior can be defined *only* in contrast

to in-role behavior. By definition, there is no meaning to behavior that is *outside* of roles or expectations without some sense of what constitutes behavior that is *inside* of roles or expectations. Thus there is a critical link between extra-role behavior and in-role behavior. For purposes of this paper,

*in-role behavior (IRB) is defined as behavior which is required or expected as part of performing the duties and responsibilities of the assigned role.*

#### Where Has the Research Taken Us?

Although the subtle and dynamic differences between ERB and IRB make research on extra-role behavior in organizations difficult, there is a growing interest in substantive research on the topic. This is not surprising, because behaviors which go beyond delineated role expectations can be important and even crucial to the survival of an organization. For example, researchers have suggested important relationships between extra-role behaviors and other constructs such as satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983), commitment (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), perceptions of fairness (Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1988; Folger, 1993; Martin & Bies, 1991; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993), perceptions of pay equity (Organ & Konovsky, 1989), intrinsic and extrinsic job cognitions (Williams & Anderson, 1991), individual performance (George, 1991; MacKenzie et al., 1991; McLean Parks & Conlon, 1991; Puffer, 1987; Scholl et al., 1987), global performance (Graham, 1991), work group performance (George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Karambaya, 1991; Van Dyne, 1993), moral development (Brabeck, 1984; Kidder & McLean Parks, 1993), leader behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Smith et al., 1983), contextual factors (Karambaya, 1990; McLean Parks & Conlon, 1991; Perrucci, Anderson, Schendel, & Trachtman, 1980), perceived competition among peers (Puffer, 1987), retaliation (McLean Parks & Kidder, 1994; Near & Jensen, 1983), group cohesiveness and socialization experiences (George & Bettenhausen, 1990), covenantal relationships (Van Dyne et al., 1994), and work group climate (George, 1990). However, the extra-role literature lacks a conceptual framework (nomological network) which has resulted in overlap and ambiguity in the definitions and operationalizations of various extra-role constructs. We believe that the current emphasis on substantive research is premature because the constructs have not been adequately clarified or validated (Schwab, 1980).

### CONCEPTUAL PROBLEMS IN EXISTING ERB RESEARCH

In this section of the paper, we identify three basic conceptual problems with the existing research on extra-role behavior: (1) the *absence of a nomological*

network (Schwab, 1980), (2) the *occasional use of first degree constructs* that do not have precise definitions and that are not supported by scientific evidence (Calder, 1977), and (3) the *preponderance of research on substantive issues* and the relative absence of construct validation studies (Schwab, 1980).

#### The Need for a Nomological Network

The first conceptual problem is the lack of a nomological network for extra-role behaviors. This is important because a nomological network defines and differentiates constructs based on their proposed relationships with each other and with other constructs (Reynolds, 1971; Schwab, 1980). According to Schwab, "Constructs are of interest only if they are connected to other constructs" (1980, p. 6). When research proceeds without a nomological framework, there are two types of problems. The first concerns relationships with other constructs. The second concerns evolution in construct definitions. Both problems can lead to incomplete and inconsistent operationalizations and raise serious questions about the construct validity of substantive research.

Although the extra-role literature contains evidence of both conceptual and operational problems, we concentrate our attention on conceptual issues and suggest that operationalization issues are material for another paper. We believe that resolving definitional inconsistencies before examining operational inconsistencies will lead to more productive research in the long run. We also think that a focus on operationalization issues at this time would be premature. This is because we believe that the conceptualization or definition of a construct should not be driven by operationalization or instrumentation. For example, researchers should not select constructs for research based on operational characteristics (such as reliability). Constructs should be selected based on their theoretical relevance to the research question being examined. Theoretical relevance can only be determined after a construct has been clearly defined and its domain has been specified. Examples of past construct validity problems illustrate situations where operationalizations were used extensively without adequate attention to conceptual issues: need satisfaction, over-reward inequity (Schwab, 1980), and the least preferred co-worker (Rice, 1978). In an effort to avoid similar construct validity problems for research on extra-role behavior, we now discuss two types of possible construct validity problems: construct problems concerning relationships and evolutionary problems concerning changing definitions.

#### Construct Problems—Relationships with Other Constructs

Most research on extra-role behavior focuses on one particular construct and ignores potential relationships between that construct and other extra-role constructs. Although each construct can be studied independently, this

approach to research is incomplete, will not yield cumulative findings, and will not produce a nomological network.

There also is a second problem concerning relationships with other constructs. When extra-role researchers do recognize potential connections between constructs, there is a tendency to stretch constructs and recommend subsuming other constructs under that researcher's primary construct of interest. At times Organizational Citizenship, Principled Organizational Dissent, and Whistle-Blowing have been described as forms of ProSocial Behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Dozier & Miceli, 1985; Graham, 1983). At other times, Whistle-Blowing and Principled Organizational Dissent have been described as forms of Organizational Citizenship (Graham 1986a; Smith et al., 1983). Sometimes Whistle-Blowing has been viewed as a form of Principled Organizational Dissent (Graham, 1986b), while at other times Principled Organizational Dissent has been described as a form of Whistle-Blowing (Near & Miceli, 1987). Osgiech (1989, p. 582) has taken a strong position *against* construct stretching and argued that "because concept stretching results in amorphous, unclear conceptualizations, what appears to have been a gain in extensional coverage (breadth) often has been matched and even surpassed by losses in connotative precision (depth)."<sup>3</sup>

Although identification of connections and extensions among extra-role constructs is useful in suggesting relationships among constructs, continued ambiguity in definitions and attempts to subsume other constructs without explicit consideration of a broader nomological network does not facilitate efficient or effective research. This blurring of conceptual definitions does not provide a stable platform for empirical research and may lead to partially redundant and insufficiently distinct conceptualizations (Morrow, 1983) as well as to contamination or deficiency (Schwab, 1980).

#### *Evolutionary Problems—Changing Definitions*

The literature on ERB also shows evidence of construct evolution problems. Some researchers (e.g., Graham, 1986a; Near & Jensen, 1983; Near & Miceli, 1985; Organ, 1988, 1990) have modified their constructs over time. In other cases, different researchers use slightly different conceptualizations. Certainly we would expect refinement and development of constructs as part of the natural process of research (Schwab, 1980). Nevertheless, excessive flexibility and evolution of construct definitions in the early stages of construct development can be counterproductive. In addition, beyond a certain point in the development of a construct, we would expect definitions to stabilize. At this time we feel adequate initial development has occurred and it is now essential to clarify definitions of ERB constructs. This will facilitate further empirical research and avoid Osgiech's (1989, p. 579) concern that researchers tend "to derive concepts loosely and fallibly, thus, muddying the understanding

of them [the concepts] and the ability to develop and test specific hypotheses." We now turn our attention to the second definitional problem associated with the extra-role research—the use of first degree constructs.

#### The Use of First Degree Constructs

The second definitional problem is the occasional use of first degree constructs. First degree constructs do not have precise definitions and are not supported by scientific evidence. In his article on leadership, Calder differentiated first and second degree constructs. First degree constructs belong to the world of everyday explanation. Their validity "lies only in the social construction of reality by a group of actors" (Calder, 1977, p. 182). Second degree constructs, on the other hand, are abstract conceptualizations that are supported by scientific evidence. Second degree constructs are carefully defined and can be differentiated from other constructs both conceptually and empirically.

Given the increasing volume of research on extra-role behaviors, it is important at this point in time to examine each of the extra-role constructs to determine which ones meet Calder's criteria for second degree constructs and which should more properly be assigned to casual, everyday use. Inspection of the definitions of the four specific constructs examined in this paper shows that three of the four extra-role constructs (OCB, WB, and POD) have reasonably specific and precise definitions of construct substance and domain and that, in addition, each can be differentiated from the other three constructs. In contrast, the fourth construct, ProSocial Organizational Behavior (PSOB), appears to be a first degree construct or perhaps an overly broad second degree construct. The only requirement of ProSocial Organizational Behavior is that it be "directed toward an individual, group, or organization" with whom the individual "interacts while carrying out his or her organizational role" (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986, p. 710). Given the breadth of this definition, PSOB appears to include virtually all behavior that occurs within an organization that is directed toward others. PSOB can be functional or dysfunctional. PSOB can be conceptualized to include or overlap with OCB, POD, and WB (see Figure 1). Thus, we conclude that PSOB is a first degree construct which can include forms of Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Whistle-Blowing, and Principled Organizational Dissent. While PSOB appears to have face validity (prosocial behavior that occurs in connection with organizational roles), it is not precisely defined and cannot be differentiated from other similar constructs. This reasoning will be developed in more detail in the section on PSOB that occurs later in the paper.

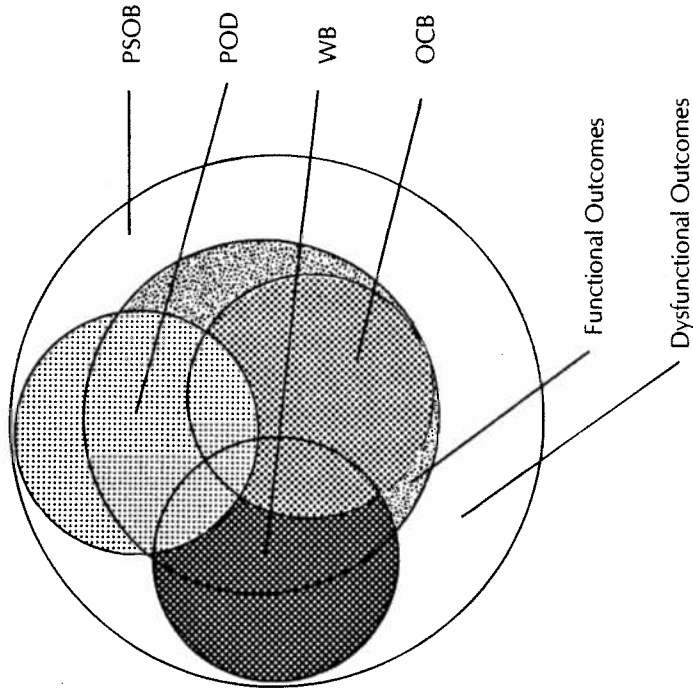


Figure 1. PSOB, OCB, WB, and POD

#### The Preponderance of Research on Substantive Issues

The third and final problem is that the preponderance of research on substantive issues has proceeded without adequate attention to construct definitions and validity.<sup>4</sup> Schwab (1980) argued that in general there has been an overemphasis on substantive issues and an inadequate amount of work on construct validity, across various research domains. As mentioned earlier in this paper, definitional problems have sometimes been identified only after numerous researchers have invested significant resources examining constructs that do not represent the theories supposedly being tested, or using instruments that do not measure the constructs that they are intended to measure. When Organ published his book on OCB, he pointed out the lack of precise definitions for OCB and commented that his book might be "premature." With this important qualification, he published preliminary findings in order to stimulate

additional research (Organ, 1988, p. xiii). Now, six years and numerous studies later, it seems important to pause and examine extra-role construct definitions as a precursor to more detailed construct validation studies. By adopting more precise definitions and by using them more rigorously, research on extra-role behavior can progress more efficiently in the long run and can avoid some of the definitional and construct validity problems such as those encountered in the research on organizational commitment (see Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982), or the research on absence (see Johns & Nicholson, 1982), or the research on the Job Characteristics Model (see Roberts & Glick, 1981) when construct validity was assumed based on face validity. As Reynolds (1971) and Dubin (1969) have pointed out, constructs cannot be observed and they cannot be measured directly. Therefore, careful attention to precise and consistent definitions is essential for quality research. This becomes especially important when attempting to do research on concepts such as extra-role behavior where intent cannot be observed, self-report behavior is subject to self-presentation bias, and observers are likely to make attribution errors.

### CRITICAL REVIEW AND INTEGRATION OF EXISTING LITERATURE ON ERB

#### What Are Key Extra-Role Constructs and How Do They Differ?

Much of the research on extra-role behavior concerns four key constructs: Organizational Citizenship Behavior, ProSocial Organizational Behavior, Whistle-Blowing, and Principled Organizational Dissent. We now examine each of these definitions in depth in order to build a foundation for the preliminary nomological network that we present later in the paper. Brief definitions of each construct follow.

*Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)*: Organ (1988) defined Organizational Citizenship Behavior as "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 ... the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description ... the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice" (p. 4). Organ used numerous examples to illustrate that citizenship behaviors are "modest, some would even say trivial" behaviors ... "that in and of themselves do not often invite public scrutiny or official documentation" (p. 6).

*ProSocial Organization Behavior (PSOB)*: Brief and Motowidlo (1986) defined ProSocial Organizational Behavior as "behavior which is (a) performed by a member of an organization, (b) directed toward an

individual, group, or organization with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organizational role, and (c) performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organization toward which it is directed."

*Whistle-Blowing Behavior (WB)*:<sup>5</sup> Near and Miceli (1985) defined Whistle-Blowing as "organizational members' disclosing illegal, immoral, or illegitimate practices under the control of their employers, to parties who may be able to effect action" (p. 525). Most studies have focused on individuals who engage in public Whistle-Blowing where they report the wrong doing to authorities outside of the organization (Near & Miceli, 1985).

*Principled Organization Dissent (POD)*: Graham (1986b) defined Principled Organizational Dissent as "a protest and/or effort to change the organizational status quo because of a conscientious objection to current policy or practice ... The term *principled* applies to the issue at stake, e.g., one which violates a standard of justice, honesty, or economy" (pp. 1-2).

All four definitions contain (but are not limited to) behavior that meets the criteria of being extra-role. In addition, the four concepts fall into two natural groupings. Organizational Citizenship and ProSocial Organization Behavior describe actions that are directly and obviously affiliative or promotive. On the other hand, Whistle-Blowing and Principled Organization Dissent describe actions that are challenging or prohibitive. Table 2 illustrates these categories. Yet, the above definitions do not highlight the similarities and linkages among the four constructs.

In the following section, we compare and contrast definitions of Organizational Citizenship, ProSocial Organizational Behavior, Whistle-Blowing, and Principled Organizational Dissent as used in the existing literature (see Table 3). This comparison illustrates key differences among the constructs based on the following five characteristics:

1. whether the focus is on the intent of the actor or the perceived outcome of the action, as well as whether intent is perceived to be positive and/or negative;

Table 2

<i>Affiliative/ Promotive Extra-Role Behaviors</i>	<i>Challenging/ Prohibitive Extra-Role Behaviors</i>
Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)	Whistle-Blowing (WB)
ProSocial Organizational Behavior (PSOB)	Principled Organizational Dissent (POD)

Table 3. Key Similarities and Differences of ERB as Illustrated in Existing Literature

<i>Characteristic of Behavior under Examination</i>	<i>OCB</i>	<i>PSOB</i>	<i>WB</i>	<i>POD</i>
Focuses on:				
Actor's Intent	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Perceived Outcome	Yes	No	No	No
Intent (+ or -)	+	+	+/-	+
Extra-role In-role	Yes No	Yes Yes	Yes Yes	Yes Yes
Actor Status	Member	Member	Current or Former Member	Current or Former Member
Actor Motivation	Promotive	Promotive	Prohibitive	Prohibitive
Target of the behavior:				
Individual	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Group	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Organization	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Intended Beneficiary	Organization	Target	Constituency Organization	Constituency Organization

2. whether the behavior is limited to extra-role or can also include in-role behaviors;
3. whether the actor is a current member of the organization or is a former member of the organization;
4. whether the action is based primarily on affiliative/promotive behaviors (cooperation and helping others) or challenging/prohibitive behaviors (disclosing illegal, immoral, or illegitimate behaviors, or raising conscientious objections based on moral principles); and finally
5. whether the target is an individual, a group or the organization and whether the beneficiary of the behavior is the target, organization, or constituency.

The first characteristic addresses whether the focus of the ERB is on intent or outcome, as well as on the direction of that intent. Intent is definitionally important for all four ERBs, but only OCB stresses the outcome in the definition. The constructs also differ regarding whether or not negatively intended behaviors are included in the definitions. The definitions of Principled Organizational Dissent and ProSocial Organizational Behavior are limited to behaviors that are intendedly positive by the actor and do not include behaviors that are intendedly destructive or negative. In contrast, Whistle-Blowing



includes behaviors with *both* positive and negative intentions by the actor (Bok, 1980; Dozier & Miceli, 1985). Finally, the initial definition of Organizational Citizenship Behavior did not address intent and instead stressed the perceived outcome of the behavior (Organ, 1988). Later definitions of OCB, however, encompass both positive intent and perceived positive outcome (Organ, 1990).<sup>6</sup>

The second characteristic concerns whether the construct includes in-role as well as extra-role behaviors. With the exception of Graham's (1991) conceptualization of citizenship as global performance, most theorists explicitly limit definitions of Organizational Citizenship to extra-role behaviors.<sup>7</sup> On the other hand, ProSocial Organizational Behavior, Whistle-Blowing, and Principled Organizational Dissent can include both in-role and extra-role behaviors. Thus, not all forms of Organizational Citizenship Behavior, ProSocial Organizational Behavior, Whistle-Blowing, and Principled Organizational Dissent are truly extra-role.

The third characteristic addresses temporal issues concerning the actor's status. Can ERB occur *only* while the actor is an organizational member (i.e., in an organizational role)? Can ERB be enacted by a *former* organizational member? Organizational Citizenship and ProSocial Organizational Behavior require that the actor be a current organizational member. In contrast, definitions of Whistle-Blowing and Principled Organizational Dissent include behavior by current as well as former members. This raises the interesting question of how role is defined. We argue that employees and former employees occupy different roles and different domains of behavior. Our examination of ERB focuses on organizational roles and extra-role behavior *within an organizational context*. In addition, we focus only on behavior that is intended to benefit the organization or which does benefit the organization. Therefore, within this framework, former members are no longer in organizational roles, and consequently cannot engage in extra-role behavior relative to their organizational roles. They can, however, perform both in-role and extra-role behaviors in other roles. We recognize that some termination or severance agreements specify behaviors that former members can and cannot enact as part of the agreement. In addition, there are informal norms for acceptable behaviors on the part of former employees such as not revealing company secrets, strategic plans, or dirty laundry. Although these roles and norms exist, we argue that they are different from organizational roles because they apply to individuals who no longer hold organizational roles.

The fourth characteristic concerns the motivation underlying the behavior. Organizational Citizenship and ProSocial Organizational Behavior are primarily "affiliative" or "promotive" behaviors such as helping, sharing, and cooperating. In contrast, Whistle-Blowing and Principled Organizational Dissent are "challenging," "stopping," or "prohibiting" behaviors which attempt to prevent or prohibit other behaviors. Whistle-Blowing discloses illegal, immoral, and/or illegitimate behavior and Principled Organizational

Dissent points out inappropriate behaviors or the absence of appropriate behaviors based on conscientious objections.

Finally, the fifth characteristic identifies the target and/or beneficiary of the action. The immediate target of extra-role behavior can vary for each construct (individual, group, or organization) and in a general sense, all four behaviors could be construed as benefiting society. The constructs, however, emphasize different levels of analysis as the primary beneficiary. Organizational Citizenship is the most direct in its identification of the organization as the beneficiary of the aggregate of all the small acts of citizenship, even though the individual acts are often targeted toward specific individuals. As Organ indicated, it is an assumption that these individual acts of good citizenship add up to positive consequences for the organization as a whole. Each of the other three behaviors is more general in describing the beneficiary, allowing it to range from individual to group to organization to society. Determination of the intended beneficiary for Whistle-Blowing and Principled Organizational Dissent depends on the perspective used to evaluate the behavior. In one sense, the beneficiary can be identified as the employing organization. This assumes that in the long run the organization will have a better reputation if it refrains from engaging in certain illegal, immoral, or unprincipled behaviors. On the other hand, it is possible to argue that the true beneficiary of bringing attention to inappropriate acts is the constituency, community, or society as a whole. Finally, although social psychology research on ProSocial Behavior (PSB) typically focuses on acts that are intended to benefit strangers, the definition of ProSocial Organizational Behavior offered by Brief and Motowidlo defines the intended beneficiary of the action as the target (an individual, group, or organization).

As evidenced above, there are definitional differences among these four extra-role constructs. These differences based on the definitions, however, are not always preserved in empirical investigations. Researchers do not always use tight and consistent definitions of the terms, and therefore the distinctions between Organizational Citizenship, ProSocial Organizational Behavior, Whistle-Blowing, and Principled Organizational Dissent are not always clear in the empirical research. For example, although O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) and Puffer (1987) used the ProSocial nomenclature, their items parallel those found in the work of Organ and his colleagues (e.g., Smith, Organ & Near, 1983) in the OCB area. Similarly, George and Bettenhausen (1990) used the terms ProSocial Behavior and ProSocial Organizational Behavior to describe role prescribed customer-service behaviors.

Table 4 summarizes much of the existing research on extra-role behavior and related constructs. A review of the table suggests several trends in the extra-role arena, some of which are general, and some specific to the individual constructs. First, the studies listed in the table demonstrate that citizenship behavior is the best known and most heavily researched extra-role concept.

Table 4. Characteristics of ERB Studies

Study	Primary Domain	DV or IV?	Affiliative?	Promotive?	Percent Female
Bateman and Organ (1983): Time 1	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	NR <sup>a</sup>
Time 2					62
Becker and Vance (1993)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	38
Bies, Martin, and Brockner (1993)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	24
Burke, Weir, and Duncan (1976)	Helping	DV	Yes	Yes	96
Dalton and Cosier (1988)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	NR
Decktop, McClendon, and Harris-Perels (1993)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	65
Farh, Dobbins, and Cheng (1991)					
Study 1	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	
Nursing sample					1
Other samples					63
Study 2					NR
Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ (1991)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	80
Farrell (1983)	Voice-EVLN <sup>b</sup>	DV	No	Yes	63
George (1990)	PSOB	DV	Yes	Yes	NR
George (1991)	PSOB	DV	Yes	Yes	16
George and Bettenhausen (1990)	PSOB	DV	Yes	Yes	NR
Hui, Organ, and Crooker (1993)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	NR
Karambayya (1990)	OCB-Graham	DV	Both <sup>c</sup>	Yes	NR
Karambayya (1991)	OCB-Graham	DV	Both	Yes	NR
Kemery, Bedeian, and Zacur (1994)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	41
Konovsky and Organ (1993)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	56
Konovsky and Pugh (1994)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	56
MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1991)	OCB-Organ	IV	Yes	Yes	76
MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1993)	OCB-Organ	IV	Yes	Yes	
Study 1					82
Study 2					93
Study 3					NR
McNeely and Meglino (1992)	PSOB	DV	Yes	Yes	0
McLean Parks and Conlon (1991)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	NR
Manogran and Conlon (1993)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	50
	OCB-Graham				
Mayer and Schoorman (1992)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	34
Miceli and Near (1984)	WB	DV	No	No	NR
Miceli and Near (1985)	WB	DV	No	No	NR
Moorman (1991)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	NR
Moorman (1993)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	NR
Moorman and Blakely (1993)	OCB-Organ	DV	Both	Yes	20
	OCB-Graham				
Moorman, Niehoff, and Organ (1993)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	51
Morrison (1992)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	21
Near and Jensen (1983)	WB	DV	No	No	0
Niehoff and Moorman (1993)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	NR
O'Reilly and Chatman (1986)	PSOB	DV	Yes	Yes	NR
Study 1					NR
Study 2					NR
Organ and Konovsky (1989)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	NR
Organ and Lingl (1991)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	
Sample 1					83
Sample 2					26
Orr, Sackett, and Mercer (1989)	Prescribed/Nonprescribed	IV	Yes	Yes	76
Pearce and Gregersen (1991)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	NR
Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, and Dunham (1989)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	
Study 4					NR
Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	90
Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, and Williams (1993)	OCB-Organ	IV	Yes	Yes	
Sample 1					77
Sample 2					32
Sample 3					NR
Puffer (1987)	PSOB	DV	Yes	Yes	71
Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, and Mainous (1988)	Voice-EVLN	DV	No	Yes	
Sample 1					50
Sample 2					54
Sample 3					50

(continued)

Table 4. (Continued)

Study	Primary Domain	DV or IV?	Affiliative?	Promotive?	Percent Female
Schnake, Dumler, and Cochran (1993)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	100
Smith, Organ, and Near (1983)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	NR
Staw and Boettger (1990)	Task Revision	DV	No	Yes	NR
Tansky (1993)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	73
Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994)	OCB-Graham	DV	Both	Yes	
Sample 1					53
Sample 2					NR
Werner (1994)	OCB-Organ	IV	Yes	Yes	NR
Williams and Anderson (1991)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	59 <sup>d</sup>
Withey and Cooper (1989)	Voice-EVLN	DV	No	Yes	
Sample 1					66
Sample 2					53
Witt (1991)	OCB-Organ	DV	Yes	Yes	NR
Wright, George, Farnsworth, and McMahan (1993)	Spontaneity	DV	Yes	Yes	NR

Notes: <sup>a</sup> NR indicates gender distributions were not reported or could not be ascertained.

<sup>b</sup> Voice-EVLN refers to the Farrell (1983) instrument which includes exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect subdimensions.

<sup>c</sup> The entry "Both" in the Affiliative? column indicates both affiliative and challenging behaviors were included in the study.

<sup>d</sup> Although the relative number of male respondents was not reported, a conservative estimate of the number of males in the respondent sample could be inferred from other information provided by the authors.

Second, with few exceptions (e.g., MacKenzie et al., 1991, 1993; O'R, Sackett, & Mercer, 1989; Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, & Williams, 1993; Werner, 1994), extra-role behavior is positioned as the dependent variable. This results in a lack of information concerning the *consequences* of extra-role behavior. Third, few studies have reported salient distributional characteristics of their sample populations, and of those which have, approximately half report samples where one gender or the other represents 30% or less of the sample. Given the gender differences in helping behavior, this could be an important omission (see review by Eagly & Crowley, 1986). Fourth, the constructs can be conceptually categorized as either affiliative or challenging and as either promotive (intended to promote or encourage particular behaviors) or prohibitive (attempting to halt or prevent particular behaviors). In addition, the research we reviewed suggests that while OCB confines itself exclusively to extra-role behaviors by definition, a close examination of some OCB dimensions suggests an in-role flavor. In contrast, Whistle-Blowing, ProSocial Organizational Behavior, and Principled Organizational Dissent have included both in-role and extra-role conceptualizations in the definitions. Finally, the dimensionality of the construct has only been addressed in one stream of research, that of OCB. Consequently, the citizenship research has the greatest proliferation of constructs and conceptualizations.

#### Affiliative and Promotive Behaviors

Two extra-role research streams can be conceptualized as primarily affiliative and promotive. These are Organizational Citizenship and ProSocial Organizational Behavior. As noted above, citizenship behavior has received much more empirical attention than the other extra-role constructs and citizenship is the only construct for which the issue of dimensionality has been specifically addressed. Currently, there is a proliferation of citizenship constructs and overlapping conceptualizations which are sometimes used interchangeably and imprecisely.

Most of the early citizenship research focused on two dimensions: (1) altruism (characterized by helping specific employees in the organization), and (2) conscientiousness (characterized by a more impersonal orientation, including behaviors such as work attendance and diligence (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff & Williams, 1986). These two dimensions have been the focus of a continuing stream of research (Martin & Bies, 1991; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Pearce & Gregersen, 1991; Smith et al., 1983; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Three additional dimensions of citizenship emerged in this stream of research (Graham, 1966a; MacKenzie et al., 1991; Mooman, 1991; Organ & Lingl, 1991; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Mooman, & Fetter, 1990): (1) sportsmanship (maintaining a positive attitude), (2) courtesy

(including keeping the boss and coworkers informed), and (3) civic virtue (responsible participation in the political life of the organization). Finally, Van Dyne et al. (1994) used political philosophy as a theoretical framework and suggested five different dimensions of OCB: (1) loyalty (allegiance to and promotion of the organization), (2) obedience (respect for rules and policies), (3) advocacy participation (innovation and proactively synergizing others), (4) functional participation (work-oriented effort and self-development), and (5) social participation (engaging in group meetings and activities).

Unlike the citizenship research, the PSOB research has not specifically addressed the dimensionality of the construct. Occasionally, although the stated research construct is PSOB, scales have been drawn from those of OCB (e.g., George, 1991; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Conceptually, however, PSOB is a broader construct than OCB (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). PSOB makes no distinction between in-role and extra-role and includes items such as helpfulness to customers. PSOB can be focused at an individual or at the organization. Most of the research, however, has addressed PSOB which is focused at individuals within an organizational context.

An examination of the research looking at these affiliative and promotive constructs reveals several trends. First, the consequences of OCB and PSOB generally have not been the focus of empirical research (an exception is MacKenzie et al., 1991). Second, the independent variables examined have typically included personal characteristics and affective states (Bateman & Organ, 1983; George, 1991; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Moorman, 1991; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Organ & Lingl, 1991; Smith et al., 1983; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Williams & Anderson, 1991), as well as organizational and work group characteristics (George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Karambayya, 1990; Martin & Bies, 1991; Moorman, 1991; Pearce & Gregersen, 1991; Smith et al., 1983; Van Dyne et al., 1994). Third, some conceptualizations of OCB have been operationalized as in-role characteristics and may not be extra-role (e.g., conscientiousness, obedience, courtesy, and civic virtue) or may only be extra-role for a small number of jobs. Fourth, as suggested by Williams and Anderson (1991), the dimensions of OCB can be categorized based on the target of the behavior. In other words, the behaviors can be classified based on an orientation toward individual employees within the organization (altruism and courtesy) or toward the organization itself (obedience, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue, loyalty, advocacy, and functional and social participation). Fifth, the literatures on both PSOB and OCB have emphasized the affiliative and promotive aspects of helping behavior and have not addressed the more challenging types of behavior as recommended by Graham (1986a) or Van Dyne (1993) which are sometimes included as types of citizenship behavior.

### Challenging and Prohibitive Behaviors

Two different streams of research can be characterized as challenging and prohibitive. These are the research on Whistle-Blowing and Principled Organizational Dissent.

Whistle-Blowing is the disclosure of acts that are perceived as illegitimate, illegal, or immoral (Elliston, 1982; Miceli & Near, 1985; Near & Jensen, 1983; Perrucci et al., 1980). In its early stages, the research on Whistle-Blowing focused on external reporting (e.g., Perrucci et al., 1980), however, more recently, internal reporting has also been described as Whistle-Blowing (Near & Miceli, 1987). In addition, Whistle-Blowing has, at various times, been characterized as both in-role and extra-role. Thus some elements of the definition of Whistle-Blowing have remained stable (e.g., illegality and immorality), while other elements (in-role versus extra-role) have varied across researchers as well as across time. Like Whistle-Blowing, Principled Organizational Dissent represents an attempt to prohibit or stop certain behaviors. WB, however, concerns an illegal act while POD concerns a conscientious principle held by the individual actor. Several trends are apparent in the domains of Whistle-Blowing and Principled Organizational Dissent. First, the research focuses on the construct as a dependent variable. Second, the independent variables have generally included characteristics of the wrong doing, characteristics of the organization (e.g., climate, location), and characteristics of the individual (e.g., education level). Third, both Whistle-Blowing and Principled Organizational Dissent address internal and external reporting mechanisms. Fourth, by definition POD and WB are challenging or prohibitive in nature and attempt to modify the status quo by prohibiting illegal (WB) or unprincipled (POD) behavior.

### A More Detailed Examination of the Evolution of These ERB Constructs

In this section, we take a more precise look at the evolution of the construct definitions for these four specific extra-role behaviors followed by a discussion of the relationship of each construct to the others. This will begin preliminary specification of the nomological network that links and differentiates different types of extra-role behavior.

### How Has the Definition of Citizenship Behavior Evolved?

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is probably the best known and most heavily researched extra-role concept. We focus our discussion on the conceptualizations of OCB used by Organ (1988), Williams and Anderson (1991), Graham (1991), and Van Dyne et al. (1994). Organ (1988, p. 4) defined OCB as "[b]ehavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized

by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization." Organ (1990, p. 45) emphasized that many OCBs make small contributions, and that "these acts, taken singly, seem ... mundane and humble." He further noted that their mundane character may not invite public scrutiny or official documentation. Two critical components of Organ's definition are: (1) the behavior is not part of the employee's job responsibilities and is not rewarded explicitly, and (2) the behavior is usually not obvious but does in aggregate benefit the organization. For these reasons OCB is typically limited to incidental acts of good will exercised by one organizational member toward another.

Based on prior research (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Graham, 1986a; Smith et al., 1983), Organ (1988) enumerated five dimensions of Organizational Citizenship. *Altruism* is characterized by acts which help a specific person. *Conscientiousness* includes attendance, cleanliness, and punctuality that go beyond minimum required levels. *Conscientiousness* is more impersonal in nature. *Sportsmanship* is characterized by maintaining a positive attitude. *Courtesy* includes keeping the boss and co-workers informed. Finally, *Civic Virtue* is characterized by responsible participation in the political life of the organization such as attending meetings and reading company mail.

Although one can imagine circumstances where each of these five components could be construed as extra-role behavior, it seems more likely that the examples often given for Conscientiousness, Courtesy, and Civic Virtue are in-role job expectations for many jobs. First, Conscientiousness becomes extra-role only when an employee comes to work early or stays late and is productive during this extra time (perhaps without extra compensation). Second, Courtesy or keeping the boss and co-workers informed is expected in many jobs. Only in special instances when the behavior goes beyond normal role expectations does Courtesy become extra-role. Third, Civic Virtue or attending meetings and reading company mail are in-role expectations for many jobs. This behavior can be construed as extra-role only when it is not part of role expectations and when engaging in these behaviors makes a positive contribution to the organization. In other words, the employee who attends meetings for personal or social motives or the employee who reads company mail out of personal curiosity (even when not specified by the job) is not engaging in Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. Likewise, attending meetings and reading mail as an expected part of the job is not ERB. Organ acknowledged this limitation and suggested, for example, that Conscientiousness becomes extra-role only based on intensity. Much of the empirical research, however, does not maintain this distinction.

Williams and Anderson (1991) suggested that there are two broad categories of Organizational Citizenship Behavior: (1) OCB, or behaviors which benefit the organization and are focused on the organization (e.g., adhering to informal organizational procedures by giving advance notice of an absence), and (2)

OCBI, or behaviors which immediately benefit particular individuals and indirectly benefit the organization (e.g., helping another worker who has been absent catch up). Williams and Anderson (1991, p. 3) prefer the terms OCB and OCBI to the more commonly used labels of altruism and compliance, stating that "the altruism and compliance terms imply restrictive assumptions about external rewards that are inconsistent with present conceptualizations of OCBs." This approach avoids the "excess baggage" which terms such as compliance and altruism are likely to carry. Much of the research on citizenship has operationalized citizenship as helping another employee within the organization with the intent or outcome of helping the organization (OCBI), for example, helping another worker catch up after a busy day. Even though OCB has received less attention, it is equally important. OCB includes behaviors such as staying after hours to meet an unexpected deadline or making innovative suggestions concerning a project—behaviors which are beneficial to the organization but are not oriented directly towards another employee (Williams & Anderson, 1991). We find the distinction between OCB and OCBI useful.

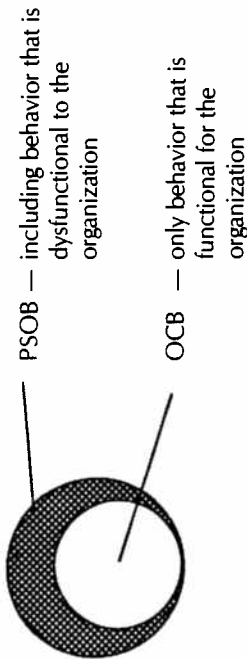
Graham (1986a) used geo-political theory to develop a theoretical foundation for Organization Citizenship Behavior. She proposed that the definition and dimensions of Organizational Citizenship be based on Inkeles' (1969) three categories of geo-political citizenship: Obedience, Loyalty, and Participation. Additionally Graham suggested that Organizational Citizenship Behavior should be viewed as "employee overperformance" which results from relational (Macneil, 1985) rather than on literal contracts.<sup>8</sup> In a more recent extension of Graham's initial work on OCB, Van Dyne et al. (1994) identified five dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior: (1) Loyalty (allegiance to and promotion of the organization), (2) Obedience (respect for rules and policies), (3) Advocacy Participation (innovation and proactively synergizing others), (4) Functional Participation (work oriented effort and self development), and (5) Social Participation (engaging in meetings and group activities).

#### What is the Relationship between OCBs and other ERBs?

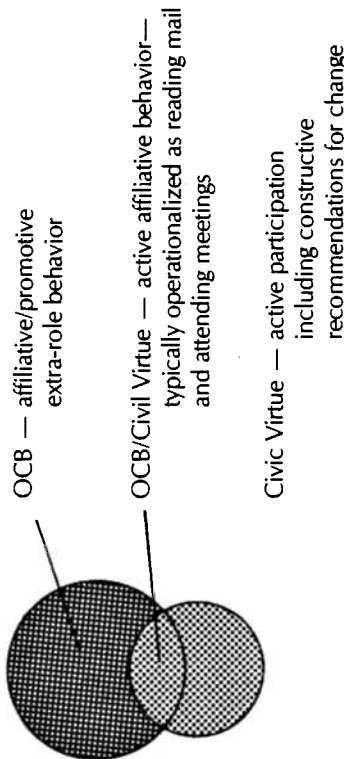
Organ (1988) acknowledged the potential links between OCB and ProSocial Organizational Behavior and raised the question of whether the two concepts are interchangeable. He concluded, however, that ProSocial Organizational Behavior is a larger and more inclusive concept that includes behaviors such as helping a co-worker in ways that might actually hurt the organization. For this reason, Organ differentiated OCB from PSOB (see Figure 2a).

Organ's treatment of OCB did not emphasize more challenging extra-role behaviors. Graham's (1986a) original conceptualization of Civic Virtue as responsible participation in the political life of the organization definitely

### a. OCB and PSOB



### b. OCB and Civic Virtue



### c. PSOB and ERB

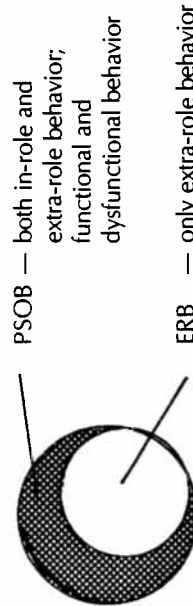


Figure 2. OCBs and Affiliative ERBs

included examples of constructive dissent such as some forms of Whistle-Blowing and Principled Organizational Dissent. The examples of Civic Virtue given by Organ, however, such as attending meetings and reading company mail, suggest a more compliant and affiliative meaning for this dimension of citizenship (see Figure 2b). We believe that Graham's research on

Organizational Citizenship presents a more balanced and complete view of the participation dimension of citizenship. Graham defined responsible political behavior within the organization to include encouraging others to speak up at meetings, using professional judgment to assess right and wrong, and challenging the majority. An unresolved issue in the research on extra-role behavior is whether Organizational Citizenship should be expanded (as recommended by Graham) to include some of the more challenging aspects of citizenship or whether it should be limited to the more traditional and affiliative acts of helping.

### How has the Definition of ProSocial Behavior Evolved?

ProSocial Organizational Behavior is the second type of extra-role behavior examined in this paper. Brief and Motowidlo (1986, p. 711) defined Prosocial Organizational Behavior (PSOB) as "behavior which is (a) performed by a member of an organization, (b) directed toward an individual, group, or organization with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organizational role, and (c) performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organization toward which it is directed." Brief and Motowidlo differentiated PSOB from ProSocial Behavior (PSB) with the following definition of PSB: "helping, sharing, donating, cooperating, and volunteering. . . . positive social acts carried out to produce and maintain the well-being and integrity of others" (p. 710).

When Brief and Motowidlo (1986) compared ProSocial Organizational Behavior to Katz's (1964) third criteria for effective organizational performance (spontaneous and innovative extra-role behaviors), they concluded that PSOB is broader than the Katz conceptualization. In fact, unlike the Katz concept, PSOB can be functional or dysfunctional to the organization, role-prescribed or not prescribed, and directed toward an individual or toward the organization (see Figure 2c). Brief and Motowidlo listed a wide variety of behaviors that they considered ProSocial Organizational Behavior. The following list demonstrates the breadth and somewhat contradictory nature of these behaviors. We argue that it is this definitional diversity which makes it difficult to interpret the precise meaning of the PSOB concept.

1. Assisting co-workers with job-related matters
2. Assisting co-workers with personal matters
3. Showing leniency in personnel decisions
4. Providing services or products to consumers in organizationally consistent ways
5. Providing services or products to consumers in organizationally inconsistent ways

6. Helping consumers with personal matters unrelated to organizational services or products
7. Complying with organizational values, policies, and regulations
8. Suggesting procedural, administrative, or organizational improvements
9. Objecting to improper directives, procedures, or policies
10. Putting forth extra effort on the job
11. Volunteering for additional assignments
12. Staying with the organization despite temporary hardships
13. Representing the organization favorably to outsiders

We note three problems with this construct definition. First, although Brief and Motowidlo acknowledged that the actual results of PSOB can be functional or dysfunctional for the organization, the key element in their definition is the intent to benefit others. Beyond this element, it is difficult to define ProSocial Organizational Behavior. PSOB is an extremely broad concept as illustrated by the definition (in-role and extra-role, directed toward an individual and toward the organization, and functional and dysfunctional). We agree with Brief and Motowidlo that "these three distinctions do not necessarily define clearly separable sets of behavior. For example, a prosocial act might not have only functional or only dysfunctional consequences—it might be functional for organizational effectiveness in some ways, and dysfunctional in others" (p. 712). This breadth in the construct definition does not facilitate empirical research. In fact, this definition causes us to raise the question: what type of behavior within an organization would *not* qualify as PSOB?

Second, the contradictory nature of some of the 13 examples of PSOB suggests that PSOB has some "schizophrenic" characteristics. For example, PSOB is defined to include assisting co-workers with job-related matters as well as with personal matters; providing consistent and inconsistent services or products to consumers; and complying with policies as well as objecting to policies. Although it is possible to imagine particular situations that fit these seemingly contradictory examples, the juxtaposition of such extreme opposites does not provide a clear foundation for construct definition and empirical research.

Third, examination of the thirteen "types" of PSOB reveals that it would often be difficult to classify a particular behavior into one category without having doubts that perhaps the behavior should have been classified into another category. Brief and Motowidlo (1986, p. 720) recognized this shortcoming of their classification system: "The analysis presented here suggests 13 different ways in which people can act prosocially in organizations, but they probably covary to form a smaller number of underlying factors." Unfortunately these authors do not suggest what the underlying factors might

be. Examination of the examples, however, suggests that providing consistent service to consumers overlaps with complying with organizational values, policies, and regulations. Similarly, providing services to consumers in an inconsistent way overlaps with helping consumers with personal matters in ways that are unrelated to organizational services or products. In other words, the 13 types of PSOB do not appear to be independent or mutually exclusive categories of behavior. Thus, although we support Brief and Motowidlo's expansion of the conceptualization of extra-role behaviors beyond the most obvious affiliative and helping behaviors to include behaviors that may appear challenging to some organizational members, the breadth and contradictory nature of their definition and examples hinder rather than facilitate future research.

#### What is the Relationship between PSOBs and Other ERBs?

Brief and Motowidlo included acts targeted at individuals and at the organization as PSOB and did not attempt to differentiate ProSocial Behavior from Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Graham (1986a), on the other hand, proposed a distinction that simultaneously links and differentiates the two concepts. Graham suggested that ProSocial Behavior is directed toward a specific individual while Organizational Citizenship Behavior is directed toward an organization. Intent, according to Graham, rather than outcome, is the key factor in determining the target of the behavior and, therefore, whether the behavior is intended as PSOB or OCB. This approach differs from that of Williams and Anderson who suggest, as mentioned earlier, that OCB can be subdivided into OCBI and OCBO, thus eliminating the need for an additional construct such as PSOB.

Three empirically based studies purport to examine ProSocial Behavior in organizational settings. Each adopts the more traditional definition of ProSocial Behavior as helping behavior that is compatible with organizational goals. Puffer (1987) differentiated ProSocial Behavior (nontask behaviors that have positive implications for organizations) from noncompliant behavior (nontask behaviors that have negative organizational implications). Results from the Puffer (1987, p. 619) study indicated that "prosocial and noncompliant behaviors are distinct types of nontask behavior that have a common achievement-motivation base but are influenced by different perceived situational contingencies." A second study conducted by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986, p. 493) differentiated "(a) in-role or prescribed behaviors expected of all job holders (e.g., punctuality), and (b) extra-role or prosocial acts that are not directly specified by a job description but which are of benefit to the organization and which are not of direct benefit to the individual." Finally, a third study (George & Bettenhausen, 1990) examined customer service as a form of ProSocial Organizational Behavior directed at helping customers.

In contrast to the work of Puffer and O'Reilly and Chatman, the George and Bettenhausen research focused on in-role behavior. As can be seen from the above descriptions, none of these studies operationalized the complex and somewhat contradictory definition of PSOB proposed by Brief and Motowidlo. Instead, all of these studies use measures more similar to the Smith et al. (1983) conceptualization of citizenship and simply used the ProSocial Organizational Behavior nomenclature.

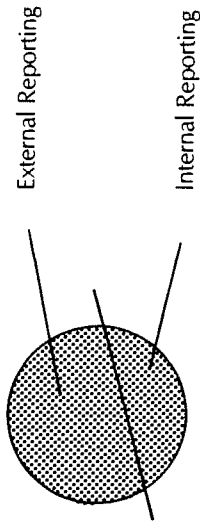
#### How Has the Definition of Whistle-Blowing Evolved?

Whistle-Blowing (WB) is an extra-role concept that has received significant amounts of popular press attention. Often, however, the coverage is sensational because it exposes illegal or immoral behavior by organization members to the external world. Miceli and Near (1985, p. 525) defined Whistle-Blowing as "organizational members' disclosing illegal, immoral, or illegitimate practices under the control of their employers, to parties who may be able to effect action." This definition builds on the earlier work of Elliston (1982), Near and Jensen (1983), and Perrucci et al. (1980) who stressed the perceived illegitimacy of the act being reported.

Defining Whistle-Blowing as a process rather than as an event, Near and Miceli (1985) argued that a whistle-blower must be or must have been a member of the organization and that the whistle-blower may or may not choose to remain anonymous. Although this definition allows some flexibility, these authors are very clear and insistent that Whistle-Blowing is not simply an attempt to change the organization. "If organization members report 'wrongdoing' which they believe to be illegitimate acts outside the organization's purview to authority, then this is truly whistle-blowing. If the organization members simply provide suggestions to improve organization actions they dislike, this may represent some other form of dissidence" (1985, p. 3). Although Near and Miceli (1987, p. 326) differentiated two types of Whistle-Blowing based on the intent of the individual (dissidents and reformers), a key component of their definition is the belief that the reported act is illegitimate and beyond the organization's realm of authority. Whistle-Blowing does "not include simple disagreements about how the organization should be run or political behavior to create change."

Initially, the Whistle-Blowing research focused on reports made by organizational members to outsiders (see Perrucci et al., 1980 for an example). In 1985, Near and Miceli (like Elliston, 1982) acknowledged that different authors have taken different positions on whether the report of wrong-doing must be made to individuals who are outside the organization or whether it can be made to other organizational members (see Figure 3a). They suggested that empirical studies are needed to examine whether "direct voice" (external reporting) is different from "indirect voice" (internal reporting). Two years later

#### a. Whistle-Blowing: External and Internal Reporting



#### b. Whistle-Blowing: IRB and ERB

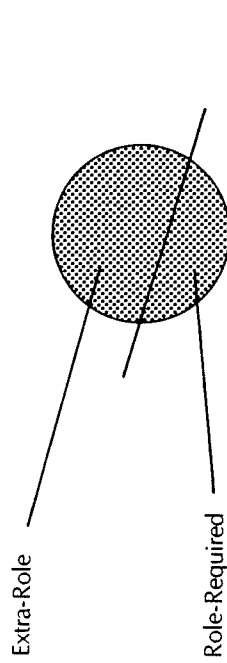


Figure 3. Whistle-Blowing: Focus of Reporting and Relationship with IRB and ERB

in a theoretical piece, however, Near and Miceli revised their position and recommended that organizational members who report inappropriate behavior to other internal members of an organization should be viewed as Whistle-Blowers and that "internal- and external-channel whistle-blowing incidents represent two categories of a general class of behaviors" (1987, p. 329). They pointed out the similarities between internal and external reporting: both are based on perceived wrong-doing, both include the intent to improve the situation, and both are positive alternatives to sabotage, exit, or violence. Referring to empirical evidence that shows most external Whistle-Blowing is preceded by internal reports, Near and Miceli suggested that

certain operational problems are solved by the use of a broader definition. First, in viewing internal whistle-blowing as very different from other whistle-blowing, one may prematurely conclude that certain variables that predict one type are irrelevant to the other. We would prefer that this question be addressed empirically. Second, in many cases, it may be difficult to determine whether a given incident—under an "external only" definition—would represent whistle-blowing. For example, does reporting an unsafe product or work environment to a union steward constitute whistle-blowing? What if the action results in a wildcat strike that costs the organization thousands of dollars in lost production and negative publicity? Similarly, federal employees who report agency fraud to a member of



Congress, would not, under a narrow definition, be considered whistle-blowers, yet reason compels us to recognize them as such.

Therefore, it seems more appropriate to view the role of the complaint recipient as one that potentially affects how the whistle-blowing process is played out, rather than as one that serves to exclude internal incidents from consideration." (1987, pp. 328-329)

Although Near and Miceli cited Bok (1980) to support their claim that Whistle-Blowing should include both internal and external reporting, we feel that Bok's elements of Whistle-Blowing (dissent, breach of loyalty to the organization, and accusation of wrongdoing) are more supportive of the position that Whistle-Blowing requires reporting to an external agent. Internal reporting such as informing a union steward of an unsafe working condition may result in high costs or negative publicity for the organization, but this is not breach of loyalty to the organization. Similarly, if a subordinate goes around his or her supervisor and reports an illegal act to another organizational member, this may be a breach of loyalty to the supervisor, but it does not constitute a breach of loyalty to the organization.

Near and Miceli acknowledged the "conflicting definitions of whistle-blowing," yet their position that Whistle-Blowing "may be formally role-prescribed" (1987, pp. 323-324) as well as extra-role (see Figure 3b) further confounds attempts to define the construct. This ambivalence and flexibility in the definition of Whistle-Blowing, although not as extreme as PSOB, make it difficult to determine construct validity. Earlier in this paper we acknowledged the difficulty of differentiating in-role and extra-role behaviors. Yet, if constructs are defined so broadly as to include both in-role and extra-role behaviors, it will be difficult to focus on the specific behavior of interest and exclude peripherally related behaviors.

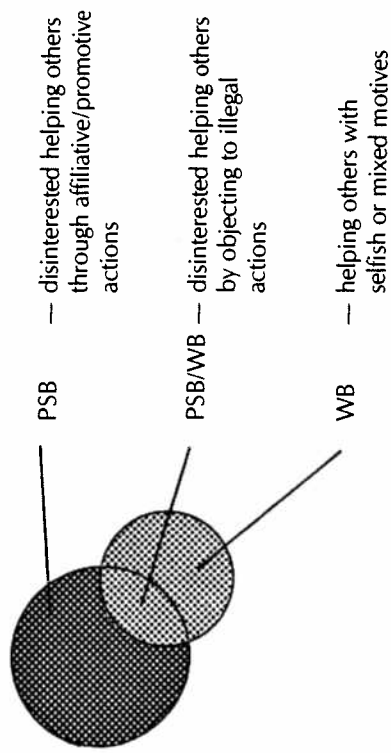
As can be seen from the above summary, some elements of the definition of Whistle-Blowing (e.g., illegality, immorality) have remained stable and other elements (role expectations, recipient, anonymity) have varied across researchers and across time. For example, researchers have emphasized the necessity for the reported behavior to be illegal, immoral, or illegitimate. Near and Miceli (1985, p. 3) argued that simply speaking up and making suggestions to improve the situation or disagreeing over facts or opinions about how things should be done do not qualify as Whistle-Blowing. On the other hand, these same researchers have reinforced flexibility in the definition of Whistle-Blowing relative to who does the reporting (employee or former employee), who receives the report (internal organizational member or external individual/organization), whether the report is public or anonymous, and whether the behavior is in-role or extra-role. Unfortunately, there is no consistent definition of the Whistle-Blowing construct.

### What is the Relationship between WB and Other ERBs?

Not only is there no agreement on the precise definition of Whistle-Blowing, but there are also varying descriptions of the relationship between Whistle-Blowing and other extra-role behaviors. Dozier and Miceli (1985) defined Whistle-Blowing as a form of ProSocial Behavior (PSB). Based on Staub (1978), they defined ProSocial Behavior as "positive social behavior that is intended to benefit other persons. But unlike altruism, Whistle-Blowers can also intend to gain rewards for themselves." Thus they allowed selfish or mixed motive antecedents to some forms of Whistle-Blowing behavior (see Figure 4a). Although they claimed that "whistle-blowing can be viewed as ProSocial Behavior because it generally also will benefit persons (or organizations) other than the whistle-blowers" (p. 825), they did not demonstrate how blowing the whistle meets the traditional definition of ProSocial Behavior as helping *individual persons*. Even if one acknowledges that some Whistle-Blowing is based on mixed or self-interested motivations, the implicit assumption behind Whistle-Blowing is that the exposure will benefit society or the organization in the long run. In fact, much of the empirical research indicates that employees believe they will be hurt if they blow the whistle (Miceli & Near, 1984; Near & Miceli, 1986). The positive consequences accordingly are more likely to accrue to employees in general or to society rather than to specific individuals. Thus although Whistle-Blowing may at times share some similar characteristics with the general form of ProSocial Behavior (such as intending to make things better), Whistle-Blowing does not necessarily involve helping other individuals.

Near and Miceli suggested that Graham's concept of Principled Organizational Dissent "would cover some of the activities we would refer to as whistle-blowing, but also considers forms of dissent other than whistle-blowing" (1985, p. 330). No examples are given to support this comparison. Examination of the definitions, however, suggests that when Whistle-Blowing is based on ethical standards or principles it could also be labeled Principled Organizational Dissent. Whistle-Blowing, however, need not be based on ethical principles and thus is not necessarily Principled Organizational Dissent. For example, Whistle-Blowing can include behavior such as self-aggrandizement that is not based on an external standard of justice (Bok, 1980). Our analysis, therefore, suggests that the primary difference between Principled Organizational Dissent and Whistle-Blowing is whether the challenge is based on a conscientious standard of justice or honesty (see Figure 4b). Thus it is not clear what types of behaviors Near and Miceli would consider Principled Organizational Dissent but not Whistle-Blowing. Additionally, it is not clear how or why they feel that "Graham's model is thus more extensive than ours [Near and Miceli's] and does not permit the specificity possible when a particular form of dissent is analyzed alone" (1985, p. 330). In contrast, we

## a. PSB and WB



## b. WB and POD

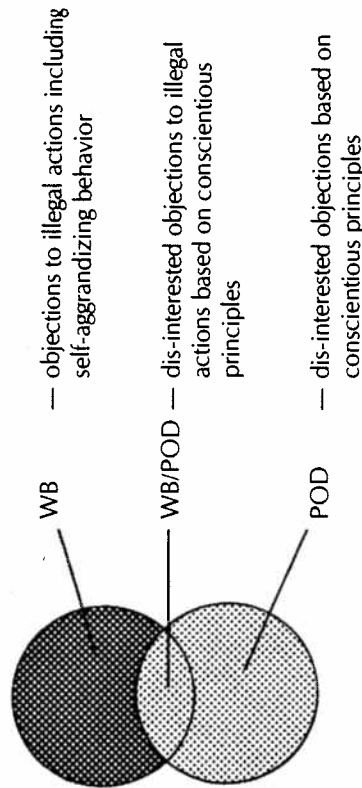


Figure 4. Whistle-Blowing and Other ERBs

would suggest that Graham's definition is more specific, more precise, and more stable than the definitions of Whistle-Blowing reviewed in this paper.

Our conclusion, after reviewing the literature on Whistle-Blowing, is that a more precise and stable definition of Whistle-Blowing could facilitate future research. Statements such as "thus 'distinctions' among helping and whistle-blowing and other prosocial behavior may not be important" (Dozier & Miceli, 1985, p. 828) do not lead to construct clarity. The flexibility and lack of precision in defining Whistle-Blowing diffuse attention and make empirical research difficult. In addition, evolving definitions make comparisons of empirical studies difficult.

## How Has the Definition of Principled Organizational Dissent Evolved?

Principled Organizational Dissent (POD) is a form of extra-role behavior that unfortunately has received less research attention than some of the more traditional extra-role concepts such as Organizational Citizenship or Whistle-Blowing. We use the term "unfortunate" because we believe that extra-role behaviors need not be limited to the more obvious affiliative and promotive behaviors typically given as examples of citizenship or ProSocial Behaviors. In fact, we share Stanley's (1981) view that under certain circumstances the more challenging forms of extra-role behavior have the potential to make the most significant contributions to organizational performance in the long run. (Graham defined Principled Organizational Dissent as "a protest and/or effort to change the organizational status quo because of a conscientious objection to current policy or practice" (1986b, p. 1). She expanded this with the following: "The term *principled* applies to the issue at stake, e.g., one which violates a standard of justice, honesty, or economy; it does not necessarily describe the ultimate motive of the person who raises it" (1986b, p. 2).

Graham initially outlined three types of organizational dissent: conflict among people or units (individual level), disagreement on how best to achieve organization goals (organization level), and policies or practices that violate legal or ethical principles (super-organizational level). Her work, however, focused on the super-organizational level of *principled dissent* where an employee reports that a legal or ethical principle has been violated. The key in Graham's definition is *conscientious* objection. Principled dissent, according to Graham, requires violation of some impersonal system of value such as justice or honesty. POD, therefore, carries a strong normative connotation and would not apply in situations where an employee simply criticizes the status quo. POD only applies when the behavior is based on some principle or value to which the dissenter subscribes.

Graham's definition of Principled Organizational Dissent emphasized the word *principled*, yet, she used the following examples: "Principled organizational dissent can take a variety of forms.....Examples include constructive criticism or protest expressed to others within the organization; reports to interested audiences outside the organization; blocking actions, such as working to rule or even sabotage; and resigning in protest" (1986b, p. 3) to illustrate Principled Organizational Dissent. Taken in a literal sense, none of these examples on a stand-alone basis qualifies as Principled Organizational Dissent. None of these examples includes explicit reference to conscientious grounds or principles of justice or honesty. Although one can easily imagine situations where constructive criticism is based on an underlying moral value or ethical standard, the examples given by Graham are not overtly principled. For purposes of clarification and consistency, it would be better if the examples

of Principled Organizational Dissent were obviously based on conscientious grounds and therefore in keeping with Graham's more formal definition.

#### What is the Relationship between POD and Other ERBs?

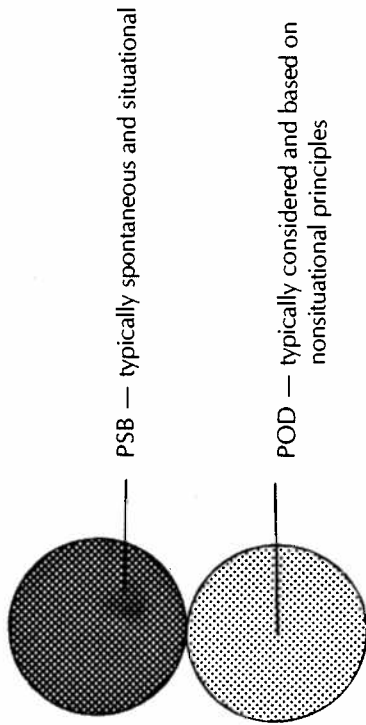
The key definitional difference between Principled Organizational Dissent and Whistle-Blowing is the focus of the challenge or objection. Whistle-Blowing discloses something illegal or immoral while Principled Organizational Dissent challenges something based on conscientious principles. Thus, Principled Organizational Dissent overlaps with Whistle-Blowing when Whistle-Blowing involves a matter of conscientious principles (see Figure 4b). Yet, Principled Organizational Dissent can clearly be differentiated from Whistle-Blowing behavior when WB is not based on external standards or principles, such as when an actor blows the whistle for revenge, self-aggrandizement, or publicity (Dozier & Miceli, 1985). In addition, Graham has argued that Whistle-Blowing which results in personal benefits to the whistle-blower does not qualify as Principled Organizational Dissent.

Graham differentiated Principled Organizational Dissent from ProSocial Behaviors (PSB) based on degree of spontaneity. Specifically, she has argued that dissent is more considered and planned while ProSocial Behaviors are more spontaneous, situational, and transient (see Figure 5a). In addition, POD must, as previously mentioned, be based on the employee's own moral principles or standards.

POD can also be differentiated from the Advocacy Participation (AP) element in Van Dyne et al.'s (1994) work on Organizational Citizenship because Advocacy Participation need not be based on moral principles. Instead, participation involves having an innovative and possibly better idea of how things might be done in the organization (see Figure 5b). The following items from the Advocacy Participation measure illustrate the more challenging aspects of the construct and yet show that it is not based on moral principles: "I keep myself well-informed about organizational issues where my opinion might be useful to the organization," "I encourage others to speak up at meetings," "I frequently make creative suggestions to coworkers about organizational improvements" (1994, p. 781).

The previous four sections examined four specific extra-role behaviors (Organizational Citizenship Behavior, ProSocial Organizational Behavior, Whistle-Blowing, and Principled Organizational Dissent) and the definitional problems that are associated with each construct. The next section presents an integration of the extra-role literature in the form of a preliminary nomological network for four general types of extra-role behavior based on the two key dimensions identified earlier in the paper: affiliative versus challenging behaviors and promotive versus prohibitive behaviors.

#### a. PSB and POD



#### b. AP and POD

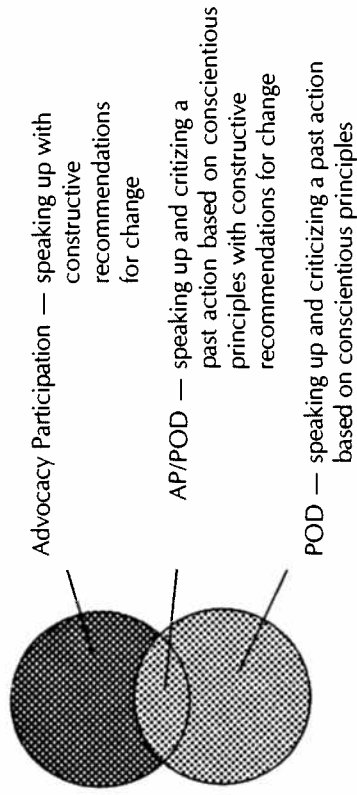


Figure 5. Principled Organizational Dissent and Other ERBs

### PRELIMINARY NOMOLOGICAL NETWORK FOR EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIOR

Based on the conceptual arguments presented earlier in this paper, we now focus our attention on the two underlying dimensions of the extra-role behaviors we have discussed. The first dimension is that of *affiliative/challenging*. This dimension represents a continuum which captures whether the behavior would tend to solidify/preserve the relationship (affiliative), or whether there is a risk that it could damage the relationship (challenging). Thus, challenging ERB might damage relationships with others. Affiliative behavior

Table 5. A Typology of Extra-Role Behaviors

	Prohibitive	Promotive
Affiliative	Stewardship	Helping
Challenging	WB + POD	Voice

includes helping other employees do their work; challenging behavior includes criticizing the inefficiency of the status quo.

The second underlying dimension is *promotive/prohibitive*. This continuum addresses whether the behavior is intended to promote and/or encourage something (to cause it to *occur*) or whether it is intended to prohibit and/or stop something (prevent it from occurring or continuing to occur). Promotive behavior is exemplified by suggesting new ways of doing things or facilitating task completion; prohibitive behavior is exemplified by reporting wrong-doing or interceding to prevent a harmful event. These two dimensions result in a typology of extra-role behaviors, with four general types of ERB: Affiliative/Promotive, Challenging/Prohibitive, Challenging/Promotive, and Affiliative/Prohibitive (see Table 5).

Affiliative/promotive behavior includes most of the work on Organizational Citizenship with its emphasis on helping and cooperative behaviors that are noncontroversial. Challenging/prohibitive behaviors include Whistle-Blowing and Principled Organizational Dissent. The remaining two general types of ERB have received less attention in the literature. Challenging/promotive behavior includes Voice behavior and is characterized by the constructive expression of challenge with an intent to improve, rather than criticize the situation. Affiliative/prohibitive behavior includes Stewardship behavior. Stewardship is characterized by unequal power or authority where a more powerful individual prohibits or constrains a less powerful individual's behavior with the intent of protecting the less powerful individual. This protection could prevent unfair treatment, injustice, or harm. The more powerful, experienced or skilled employee intervenes on the behalf of a less powerful or disadvantaged organizational member for the overall benefit of the organization. Table 6 provides a comparison of the basic characteristics of these four general types of ERB.

The two newer categories of behavior are developed in more detail later in the section including a discussion of the unique contributions that these types of ERB can make in organizational settings. We now turn our attention to a discussion of the potential antecedents and consequences of each of these four general types of extra-role behavior (see Figure 6). We realize that this nomological network is not comprehensive and that we have not fully developed the logic for each proposed relationship. We chose the constructs

Table 6. Proposed Differences between Forms of Extra-Role Behavior

Example	Affiliative/Promotive Behaviors	Challenging/Promotive Behaviors	Challenging/Prohibitive Behaviors	Affiliative/Prohibitive Behaviors
Primary Action	Helping	Suggesting Changes	Voice	WB + POD
Overall Affective State	Satisfied	Satisfied	Mundane	More Dramatic
Type of Behavior	Mundane	Mundane	Met	Violated
Justice Expectation	Met	Met	Performance/Excellence	Standards/Ethics
Primary Allegiance	Proximal Relationships	Performance/Excellence	Future	Past
Orientation	Present	Future	"It's not right"	"It could be worse"
View of the Situation	"It's okay"	"It could be better"	Future	Future

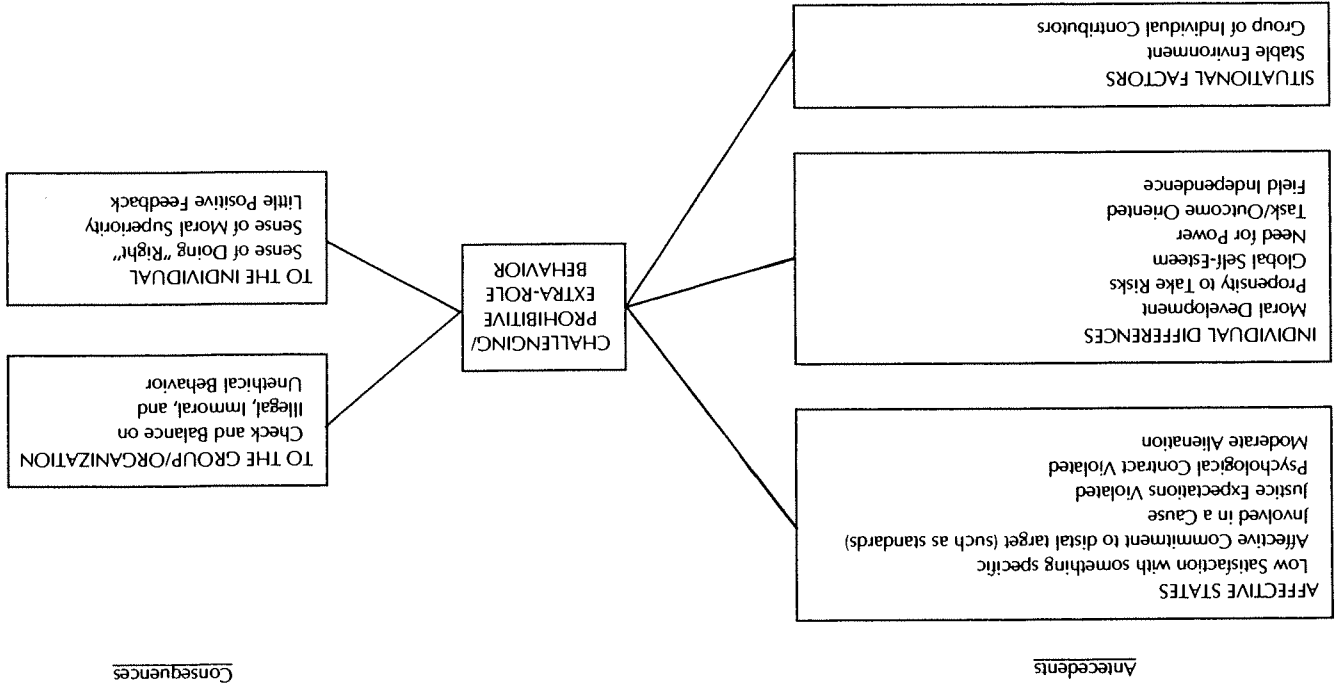


Figure 6b. A Preliminary Nomological Network for Challenging/Prohibitive Extra-Role Behaviors

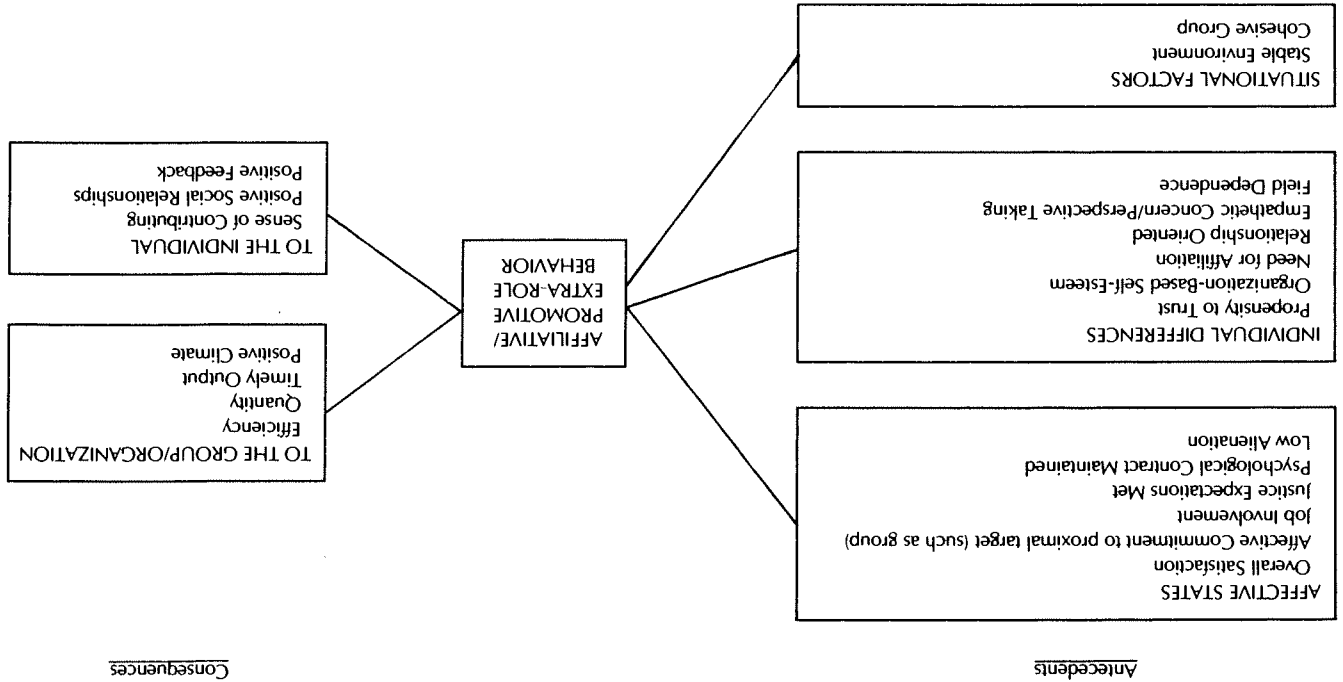


Figure 6a. A Preliminary Nomological Network for Affiliative/Promotive Extra-Role Behaviors

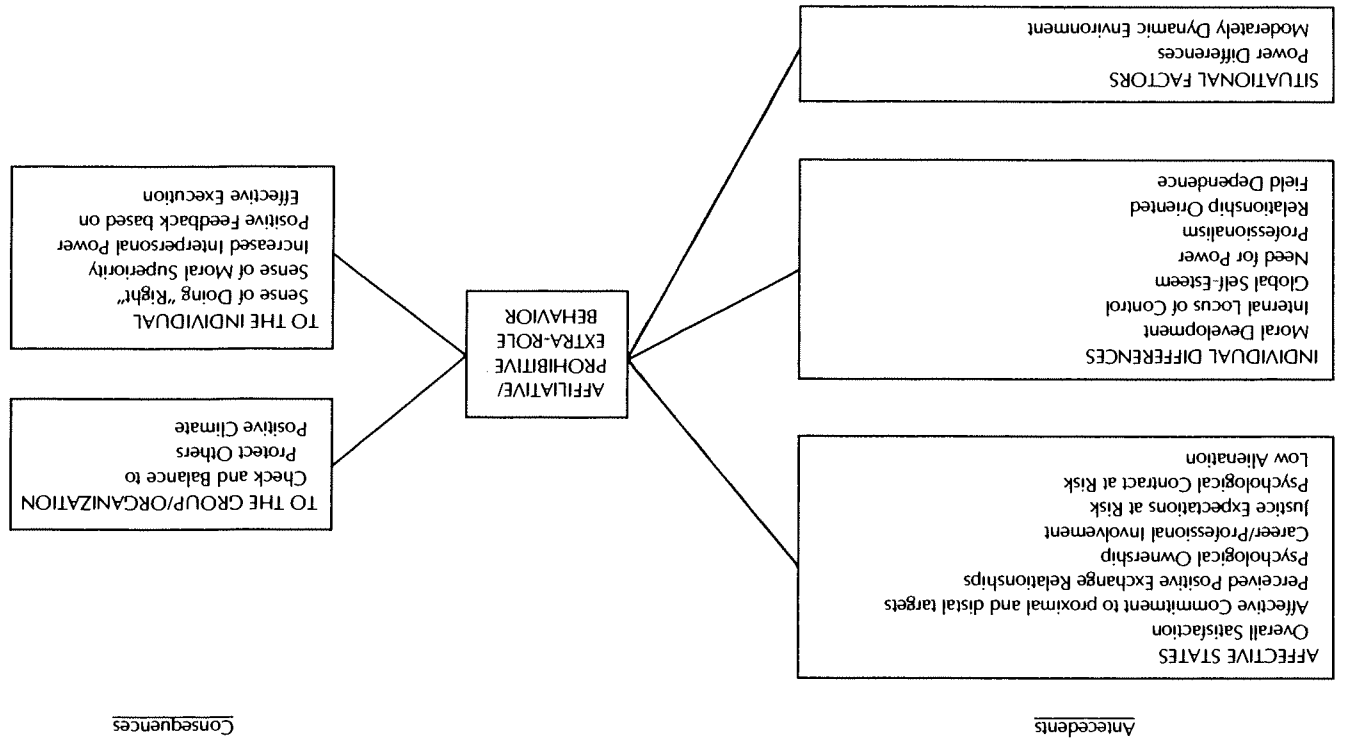


Figure 6d. A Preliminary Nomological Network for Affiliative/Prohibitive Extra-Role Behaviors

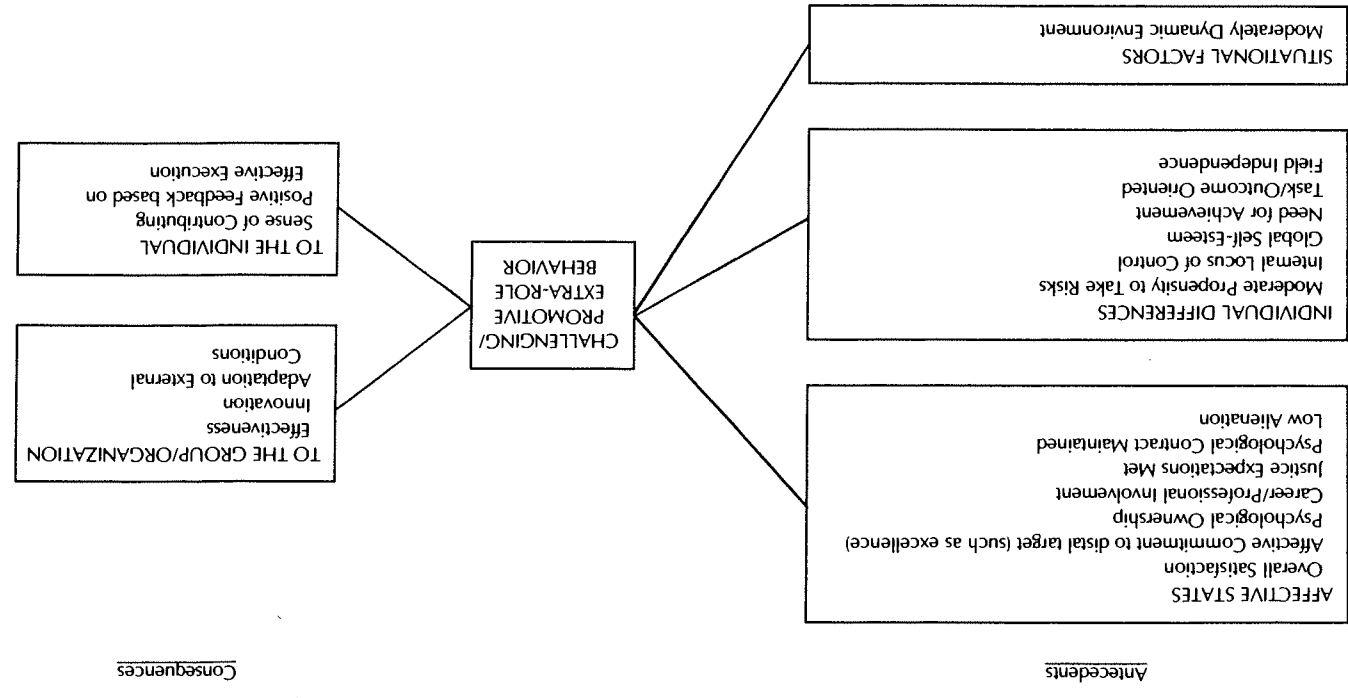


Figure 6c. A Preliminary Nomological Network for Challenging/Promotive Extra-Role Behaviors

which we have included in the nomological network based on two considerations. First, we included constructs where prior research results with similar, but different constructs, allowed us to expect significant relationships with the four types of ERB. Second, we chose these specific constructs to highlight potential differences in the antecedents and consequences for each of the four types of ERB. We believe that this approach enriches our definitional comparison of the ERB constructs and at the same time it also provides guidance for future research. Thus readers will note that some of the same constructs are repeated (for example, satisfaction is included in all four models) and some constructs are not included in all models (for example, moral development is included only in the affiliative/promotive and challenging/prohibitive models). This is because we felt that moral development had particular relevance only to two of the types of ERB.

#### Affiliative/Promotive Behaviors

##### *Antecedents*

We organize our treatment of the antecedents of affiliative/promotive extra-role behaviors into three categories: affective states, individual differences, and situational factors (see Figure 6a). We use these three general categories to organize our discussion of the antecedents for each of the four general types of extra-role behavior in order to facilitate comparisons across types of ERB. Examination of Figure 6, accordingly, highlights similarities and differences in our proposed nomological network. We realize that the list of constructs is incomplete; it is, however, a preliminary step toward developing proposed antecedents and consequences of various types of ERB.

*Affective States.* Affiliative/promotive ERB are cooperative and noncontroversial. They are spontaneous acts. They are not criticism or attempts to change the situation. Instead, they reinforce the status quo, focus on the present, and make their contribution by increasing efficiency or leveling workloads. Based on prior research and theory we propose that the following affective states will be antecedents to affiliative/promotive extra-role behaviors:

- Overall Satisfaction
- Affective Commitment to a proximal target (such as the work group)
- Job Involvement
- Perceptions that Justice Expectations have been met
- Perceptions that the Psychological Contract has been maintained
- Low Alienation

This general pattern of relationships is based on empirical studies that have demonstrated a relationship between Organizational Citizenship and satisfaction, commitment, justice, and low alienation (e.g., Moorman, 1991; Moorman et al., 1993; Smith et al., 1983; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Williams & Anderson, 1991). We extend the prior literature by emphasizing the cooperative and noncontroversial nature of these behaviors and suggesting that job involvement and perceptions that the psychological contract has been maintained will also have a significant effect on these types of extra-role behavior (McLean Parks, 1990; McLean Parks & Kidder, 1994; McLean Parks & Smith, forthcoming; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993). Following George and Brief (1992), we believe that the positive affect represented by these antecedents presents a clear picture of affiliative/promotive extra-role behavior as an outcome of positive affect.

*Individual Differences.* We propose the following relationship-oriented constructs as individual difference antecedents to affiliative/promotive extra-role behavior:

- Propensity to Trust
- Organization-Based Self-Esteem
- Need for Affiliation
- Relationship-Oriented
- Empathetic Concern/Perspective Taking
- Field Dependence

This set of antecedents represents individual difference constructs that are expected to remain fairly stable over time. These factors represent an employee's tendency to enter relationships, value relationships, see the needs of others, and respond to the proximal environment. To date, empirical research has demonstrated the importance of trust (Podsakoff et al., 1990), organization-based self-esteem (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989), relationship orientation of the supervisor (Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990; Tansky, 1993), as well as empathetic concern and perspective taking (McLean Parks, 1990). However, we are unaware of published work that addresses propensity to trust, need for affiliation, relationship orientation, or field dependence of the employee relative to affiliative/promotive types of citizenship. Previous research on these individual difference constructs, however, suggests that propensity to trust, need for affiliation, relationship orientation, and field dependence should be related to affiliative/promotive ERB. For example, those with a high propensity to trust others should be less suspicious of others and more willing to cooperate with and help others (Rotter, 1980). Those with a high need for affiliation should value their relationships with others and should be more likely to engage in affiliative behaviors

(McClelland, 1961). We also would expect that those who place primary emphasis on relationships (rather than task accomplishment) would engage in affiliative/promotive behaviors (Bales, 1950; McLean Parks & Smith, forthcoming; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993). Finally, those who are field dependent should be more responsive to their immediate environments (Mausner & Graham, 1970). In other words, the behavior of a field dependent person is significantly influenced by those around him/her. Thus we would expect a field dependent employee to be aware of others and their needs and, in addition, to provide assistance when appropriate. In summary, this suggests that relationship-oriented individual difference constructs will be antecedents to affiliative/promotive extra-role behavior.

*Situational Factors.* We also propose two key situational factors as antecedents to affiliative/promotive extra-role behaviors: a stable external environment and a cohesive group. We argue that employees will be more likely to engage in helpful and cooperative extra-role behaviors when their groups or organizations experience relatively stable external environments. This is because a stable environment allows employees to anticipate events and their responses. Thus they should be more able to manage their own work flow and also have the capacity to reach out and initiate behaviors that will help others. When an organization faces an extremely dynamic environment, we would expect employees to be more rigid and concerned with their own work (Staw, Sandelands, & Dutton, 1981). Accordingly they would be less likely to perceive the needs of others and less likely to help others. We also propose a cohesive work group as another situational antecedent. In a cohesive group, we would expect employees to be sensitive to others and to be willing to help them (Schachter, Ellertson, McBride, & Gregory, 1951). Consequently, we would expect a cohesive group to lead to affiliative/promotive extra-role behaviors.

### Consequences

We propose two key categories of consequences: consequences to the group/organization and consequences to the employee (see Figure 6a).

*Consequences to the Group/Organization.* Based on our conceptual definition of affiliative/promotive extra-role behaviors, we suggest four key consequences to the group/organization: efficiency, quantity, timely output, and positive climate. When employees assist each other and cooperate, we would expect a generally positive climate. In other words, employees would have positive attitudes toward each other, toward the organization, and toward their experiences within the organization. In addition, we would expect affiliative/promotive ERB to lead to efficiency, a high quantity of output, and timely output. This is based on the definitional emphasis on accepting the basic

situation and making an extra-role contribution by helping others with their work or working extra hours to make a special deadline. Thus, this type of ERB involves continued performance of the standard job or routine and being more efficient, more productive, and more timely. We would not, however, expect affiliative/promotive ERB to lead to higher effectiveness, innovation, or change-oriented adaptation because the emphasis in this type of ERB is on accepting current procedures (i.e., nonchallenging behaviors).

*Consequences to the Individual.* The second category of consequences for affiliative/promotive ERB focuses on outcomes that effect the employee directly. Here we propose three consequences: a sense of contributing, positive social relationships, and positive feedback. When employees engage in affiliative/promotive extra-role behaviors, we would expect them to have a sense of contributing to the group/organization and also would expect them to have positive social relationships. Affiliative contributions and helping others will facilitate social interaction and close relationships. In addition, we propose that those who engage in affiliative/promotive forms of ERB will receive positive feedback. This feedback might be from peers, superiors, or from the organization in general.

### Challenging/Prohibitive Extra-Role Behaviors

#### Antecedents

We use the same organizing structure for our treatment of the antecedents of challenging/prohibitive extra-role behaviors: affective states, individual differences, and situational factors (see Figure 6b). We believe this conceptualization of challenging/prohibitive ERB extends prior ERB literature by specifying common antecedents for WB and POD while at the same clarifying differences in their antecedents compared to affiliative/promotive ERB (such as OCB).

*Affective States.* Challenging/prohibitive extra-role behaviors criticize the current situation or the behavior of others. The focus is stopping what is seen as inappropriate behavior. As such, challenging/prohibitive ERB is often viewed as controversial behavior. Unlike affiliative/promotive acts, these types of ERB are typically planned and considered. Logical arguments based on legal, moral, or ethical standards are used to challenge past behavior. Thus, this ERB focuses on what is wrong with past actions. Based on prior research and theory we propose that the following affective states will be antecedents to challenging/prohibitive extra-role behaviors:

- Low Satisfaction with a specific behavior/event
- Affective Commitment to a distal target (such as standards or values)



Involvement in a Cause  
 Perceptions that Justice Expectations have been violated  
 Perceptions that the Psychological Contract has not been maintained  
 Moderate Alienation

These proposed relationships suggest significant differences in the affective antecedents of challenging/prohibitive ERB compared to affiliative/promotive ERB. While affiliative/promotive behaviors are based on general satisfaction, we propose that challenging/prohibitive behaviors are based on a low level of satisfaction with a specific behavior or event. We are not suggesting, however, that low overall satisfaction or high overall satisfaction is an antecedent to these types of ERB. If an employee had low overall satisfaction, we would not expect him/her to be willing to exert the effort of engaging in ERB. On the other hand, an employee might or might not have high overall satisfaction. The key point is that we would expect focused dis-satisfaction as an antecedent to challenging/prohibitive ERB. Similarly, we propose that this second general type of ERB will be a result of affective commitment to a distal target. Thus affective commitment to a set of values, morals, or standards would be an antecedent to Whistle-Blowing or Principled Dissent. A distal target (such as commitment to standards) contrasts with a proximal target (such as the work group) that is proposed as an antecedent for affiliative/promotive ERB.

Another contrast between these two types of ERB that is highlighted by the proposed nomological network concerns involvement. We propose that job involvement (a proximal construct) will be an antecedent for affiliative/promotive ERB, but that the more distal concept of involvement in a cause or perhaps involvement in some other organization will be an antecedent for challenging/prohibitive ERB. Thus the second type of ERB may result when an employee feels as though he/she has allegiances to a higher cause or more important set of values. We also would expect that perceived violations of justice expectations or the psychological contract will be antecedents to challenging/prohibitive ERB. Finally, using an argument similar to that used for satisfaction, we suggest that a moderate level of alienation will be an antecedent of challenging/prohibitive ERB. An employee who is fully alienated would not invest the effort to develop a logical case for criticizing a past behavior. Thus we would expect a moderately alienated employee to engage in Whistle-Blowing or Principled Organizational Dissent.

*Individual Differences.* For the second category of antecedents, we propose the following individual difference constructs:

Moral Development  
 Global Self-Esteem

Need for Power  
 Task/Outcome-Oriented  
 Field Independence  
 Propensity to Take Risks

Each of these factors represents an employee's tendency to look beyond the immediate situation for behavioral guidelines. This reliance on external standards might be based on moral principles (Graham, 1986b; Kohlberg, 1969), global self-esteem (Brockner, 1988), need for power (McClelland, 1961), or an orientation to the task and task outcomes (Bales, 1950). Finally, this type of ERB might be based on a general tendency to disregard events in the immediate proximity and place emphasis on "the bigger picture" (Mausner & Graham, 1970) or on a general tendency to engage in risk taking behavior. To date, there is little published work that assesses these individual difference antecedents. Nevertheless, the comparison of affiliative/promotive ERB with challenging/prohibitive ERB supports each of the proposed relationships.

*Situational Factors.* We also propose two key situational factors as antecedents to challenging/prohibitive ERB: a stable external environment and membership in a group of individual contributors. We argue that employees will be more likely to engage in challenging/prohibitive extra-role behaviors when their groups or organizations are experiencing relatively stable external environments. This is because a stable environment allows employees to assess events and develop their challenges in response. In an extremely dynamic environment, employees might be so busy coping with change that they do not have the extra energy to engage in WB or POD (Staw et al., 1981). We also propose that being an individual contributor would be an antecedent to engaging in challenging/prohibitive ERB. An example of individual contributors is professional employees who have a clear idea of their own jobs and high expectations for others (perhaps with less than full understanding of the other person's situation). Professional employees in individual contributor positions are often reinforced for critical thinking and this could lead to WB or POD.

Support for these proposed antecedents can be developed from the definition of challenging/prohibitive ERB as well as based on the Whistle-Blowing (Miceli & Near, 1984; Near & Miceli, 1985, 1987) and Principled Organizational Dissent (Graham, 1986b) literatures. For example Graham (1986a) and Near and Miceli (1987) both emphasized the importance of moral development, commitment to external standards, and awareness of problems as antecedents to POD and WB.

### Consequences

Our proposed nomological network for challenging/prohibitive extra-role behaviors includes two key categories of consequences: consequences to the group/organization and consequences to the employee (see Figure 6b).

*Consequences to the Group/Organization.* Based on our conceptual definition of challenging/prohibitive extra-role behaviors, we suggest one key consequence for the group/organization. This is the provision of checks and balances to prevent illegal, immoral, or unethical behavior by the group or organization. Thus, the benefit is the prevention or curtailment of inappropriate behaviors. Challenging/prohibitive extra-role behaviors are a control mechanism for regulating organizational behavior (Graham, 1986b).

*Consequences to the Individual.* The second category of consequences for challenging/prohibitive ERB focuses on outcomes that effect the employee directly. Here we propose three consequences: a sense of doing the "right" thing, a sense of moral superiority, and the absence of large amounts of positive feedback. When an employee engages in Whistle-Blowing or Principled Organization Dissent, he/she is challenging others. This may generate positive internal feelings. For example, an employee may experience a feeling of having spoken up to "right a wrong" or to prevent a particular undesirable behavior from being performed again in the future. Thus, WB or POD may lead to internal satisfaction. On the other hand, most of the literature stresses the potential negative consequences that can occur to an employee who challenges the system. On average we would not expect that those who perform WB or POD would receive positive feedback. In general we would expect most of the feedback to be negative and potentially punitive (Graham, 1986b; Near & Miceli, 1986). Thus a key characteristic that differentiates challenging/promotive ERB from affiliative/promotive ERB is the potential for negative consequences to the employee (little positive feedback and possibly negative feedback).

### Challenging/Promotive Extra-Role Behaviors

We now shift our attention to a somewhat different type of extra-role behavior, one that falls within the domain of challenging and promotive behaviors (see Table 5). Although broadly speaking, Voice can be construed as a form of organizational citizenship, it carries with it the potential to damage the relationship and thus is challenging, rather than affiliative in nature. Voice does not focus on prohibiting or preventing activities, but rather has a proactive focus, directed at encouraging or promoting change.

Although there is a considerable amount of theoretical and empirical literature on the construct of voice (see, for example, Farrell, 1983; Hirschman,

### Extra-Role Behaviors

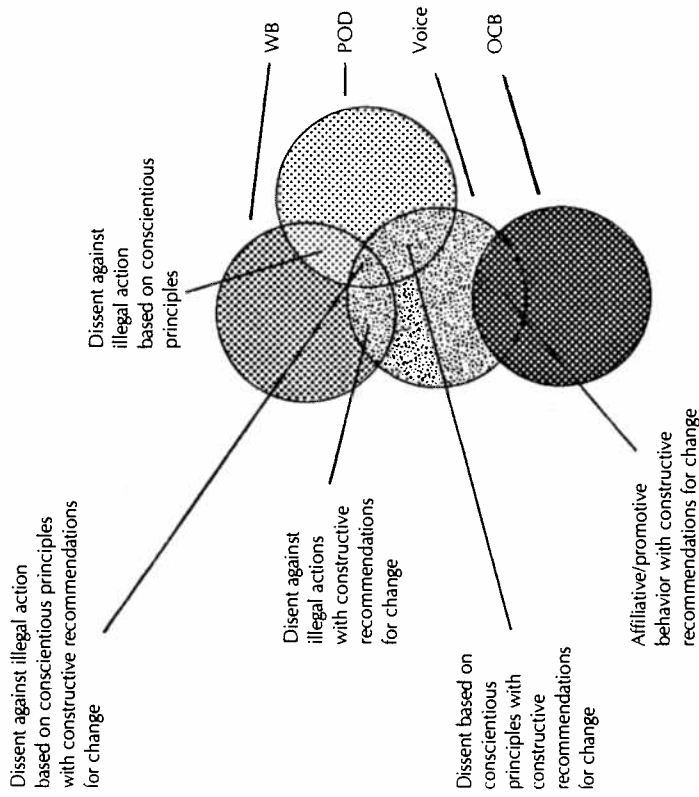


Figure 7. Proposed Conceptual Overlap and Differences between Voice, WB, POD, and OCB

1970; Hornstein, 1986; Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988; Schein, 1968; Whitney & Cooper, 1989), voice has typically not been considered a form of extra-role behavior. As described earlier, there are references to Civic Virtue in some of the Organizational Citizenship literature (see, for example, Graham, 1986a; MacKenzie et al., 1991; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Although Graham (1986a) originally defined Civic Virtue in a manner consistent with Hirschman's (1970) definition of Voice, operationalizations of Civic Virtue have been deficient (Schwab, 1980). When included as a dimension of OCB, Civic Virtue has typically been operationalized by affiliative/promotive behaviors such as attending meetings and reading company mail. It has not included the more important characteristics of challenging the status quo and making constructive suggestions for change.

Before considering a preliminary nomological network for this third general type of ERB (challenging/change-oriented behaviors), we clarify more precisely the distinctions between Voice, WB, POD, and OCB. Figure 7 graphically summarizes the differences between these behaviors in an attempt

to facilitate future research. The core of Whistle-Blowing is speaking up about illegal or immoral issues. The core of Principled Organizational Dissent is speaking up based on conscientious principles, and is both challenging and prohibitive. The core of Voice is speaking up with constructive recommendations for change. Like POD, voice is challenging, however, unlike POD, voice is promotive and not prohibitive. The core of OCB is helping behavior, which is both affiliative and promotive. As can be seen in the Venn diagram, Voice has some degree of overlap with each of the other constructs. WB and POD also overlap with each other given their emphasis on challenging/prohibitive behaviors. In contrast, this diagram limits OCB, as typically operationalized to cooperative, nonchallenging behaviors. This clarifies the meaning of OCB, differentiates OCB from POD and WB, and is also consistent with Organ's (1988) original conceptualization of organizational citizenship as small, mundane acts that when added up contribute to organizational effectiveness.

#### *Antecedents*

We use the same organizational structure for our treatment of the antecedents of challenging/promotive extra-role behaviors: affective states, individual differences, and situational factors (see Figure 6c). This approach clarifies the similarities and differences between challenging/promotive forms of ERB and the other two forms of ERB we have thus far discussed.

*Affective States.* Challenging/promotive extra-role behaviors proactively challenge the status quo and make constructive recommendations for change. Although these actions are sometimes considered a form of criticism, the emphasis here is on making suggestions rather than on complaining. Thus the behavior would be perceived more constructively than challenging/prohibitive ERB. The focus is on the *possibility* of a better solution rather than on *stopping* what is seen as inappropriate behavior. Based on prior research and theory (e.g., Farrell & Rusbult, 1992; Rusbult et al., 1988) we propose that the following affective states will be antecedents to challenging/promotive extra-role behaviors:

- Overall Satisfaction
- Affective Commitment to a distal target (such as excellence or performance)
- Psychological Ownership and a Sense of Responsibility
- Career or Professional Involvement
- Perceptions that Justice Expectations have been met
- Perceptions that the Psychological Contract has been maintained
- Low Alienation

These proposed relationships suggest an overall pattern of significant differences in the affective antecedents of challenging/promotive ERB. In general the affective antecedents seem more similar to those of affiliative/promotive ERB than to those of challenging/prohibitive ERB. Especially important is the proposal that challenging/promotive behaviors are based on general satisfaction, low alienation, psychological ownership, and perceptions that justice expectations have been met and the psychological contract has been maintained. In contrast, however, the nomological network calls for more distal targets of affective commitment (perhaps to excellence) and involvement (perhaps to the profession). This is more similar to the antecedents of challenging/prohibitive ERB. Support for these affective antecedents can be drawn from the empirical literature on Voice as well as developed logically based on the definition of Voice.

*Individual Differences.* For the second category of antecedents to challenging/promotive behaviors, we propose the following individual difference constructs:

- Moderate Propensity to take Risks
- Internal Locus of Control
- Global Self-Esteem
- Need for Achievement
- Task/Outcome Orientation
- Field Independence

Each of these factors represents a balance between promotive and prohibitive behaviors. For example, like prohibitive behaviors, external standards are an important driving force for many of the antecedents in this list. Thus employees who look beyond the immediate situation before determining their behavior are more likely to engage in challenging/promotive ERB. This reliance on external standards might be based on global self-esteem (Brookner, 1988), need for achievement (McClelland, 1961), an orientation to the task and task outcomes (Bales, 1950), and a belief in control over one's own environments (Rotter, 1966). Finally, this type of ERB might be based on a general tendency to disregard events in the immediate proximity and place emphasis on "the bigger picture" (Mausner & Graham, 1970). In contrast to the nomological network on challenging/prohibitive behaviors, we propose a difference in the risk propensity antecedent for challenging/promotive behaviors. This is a key difference because we would argue that challenging/promotive behavior involves less risk and accordingly should have fewer negative consequences to the employee.

*Situational Factors.* We also propose one key situational factor as an antecedent to challenging/promotive ERB: a moderately dynamic external

environment. We argue that employees will be more likely to engage in challenging/promotive extra-role behaviors when their groups or organizations are experiencing relatively dynamic external environments. This is because a moderately dynamic environment will serve as a catalyst. It will unfreeze people's thinking (Lewin, 1952) and make them more likely to think of different and perhaps innovative ways to perform their jobs. In an extremely dynamic environment, we would argue that employees would be so busy trying to adapt to the changes that they would not have the attention to consider making suggestions. On the other hand, a stable environment would not provide an impetus to trigger conceptualization and speaking up about improvements or innovations.

#### Consequences

Again, our proposed nomological network for challenging/promotive extra-role behaviors includes two key categories of consequences: consequences to the group/organization and consequences to the employee (see Figure 6c).

*Consequences to the Group/Organization.* Based on our conceptual definition of challenging/promotive extra-role behaviors, we suggest three critical consequences for the group/organization. First, we would expect higher levels of overall effectiveness based on the creative and constructive suggestions that constitute Voice. Second, we would expect higher levels of innovation. Third, we would expect better adaptation to external changes in the environment (Nemeth, 1986; Nemeth & Staw, 1989).

*Consequences to the Individual.* The second category of consequences for challenging/promotive ERB focuses on outcomes that affect the employee directly. Here we propose two consequences: a sense of contributing and the receipt of positive feedback when the challenging/promotive ERB is executed effectively. We believe that effective execution involves constructive framing, specificity, factual documentation, sensitive delivery, and appropriate timing. This is because challenging behavior, even if intended constructively, can be destructive if it is overly critical, vague, insensitive, or delivered at the wrong time. When an employee engages in Voice, he/she is making suggestions for change. If these ideas are communicated effectively, the behavior will be viewed as constructive and the employee will receive positive feedback. On the other hand, if the ideas are communicated ineffectively, the recipients may be offended or threatened and may become defensive. This suggests that challenging/promotive ERB may be a somewhat more complex behavior than affiliative/promotive or challenging/prohibitive ERB. Figure 8 summarizes these differences in the expected relationship between type of ERB and positive feedback.

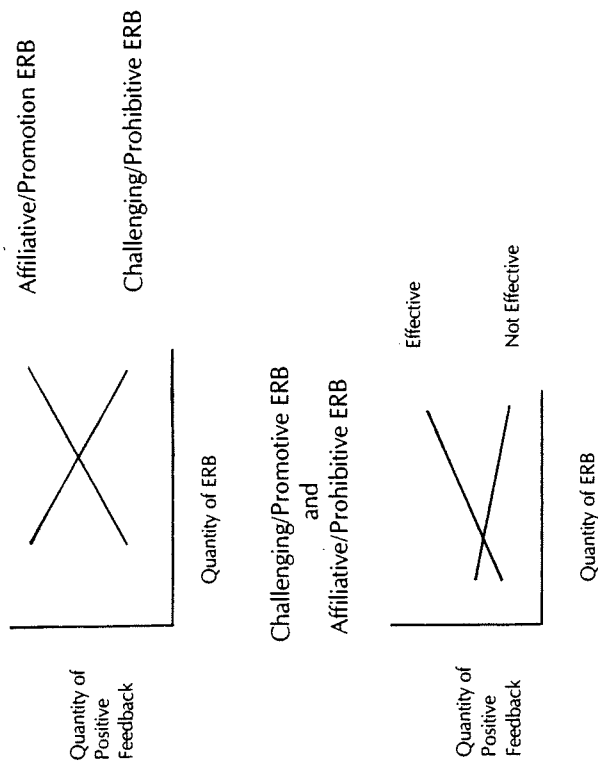


Figure 8. The Relationship between Quantity of Extra-Role Behavior and Positive Feedback

#### Antecedents

Once again, we use the same organizational structure for our treatment of the antecedents of affiliative/prohibitive extra-role behaviors: affective states, individual differences, and situational factors (see Figure 6d). This approach of using the same basic categories clarifies the similarities and differences between affiliative/prohibitive forms of ERB and the other three forms we have thus far discussed.

*Affective States.* Affiliative/prohibitive extra-role behaviors are Stewardship behaviors oriented towards stopping actions which could cause harm. The behavior is based on relationships (affiliative) and is protective (preventing an act that could be dangerous or harmful). Typically, affiliative/prohibitive behavior occurs in situations of unequal power where a more senior individual

prevents a behavior in order to protect a more junior individual. For example, this would include actions a mentor might take to protect a protégé. We suggest the following affective states will be antecedents to affiliative/prohibitive ERBs:

- Overall Satisfaction
- Affective Commitment to both proximal (work unit or the other employee) and distal (such as standards or values) targets
- Positive Exchange Relationship (e.g., LMX)
- Psychological Ownership and a Sense of Responsibility
- Career or Professional Involvement
- Perceptions that Justice Expectations are at risk
- Perceptions that the Psychological Contract is at risk
- Low Alienation

These proposed relationships suggest an overall pattern of significant differences in the affective antecedents of affiliative/prohibitive ERB compared to the other three types of ERB we have discussed. We would expect the employee to be generally satisfied, to have a low level of alienation, and to have positive affective commitment to both proximal (a specific employee, perhaps a protégé) and distal (standards or values) targets. We also suggest that the employee would perceive a positive exchange relationship with the target employee (Seers & Graen, 1984) and would feel a sense of psychological ownership and a willingness to invest in the relationship. Additionally, we would expect a high level of career/professional involvement rather than high involvement with the immediate job. Finally, we suggest a general concern that justice and the psychological contract are at risk. Thus, the employee is willing to take explicit action to prevent injustice and/or harm.

*Individual Differences.* For the second category of antecedents to affiliative/prohibitive behaviors, we propose the following individual difference constructs:

- Moral development
- Internal Locus of Control
- Global Self-Esteem
- Need for Power
- Professionalism
- Relationship Orientation
- Field dependence

External standards (both moral and professional) are an important driving force for affiliative/prohibitive behaviors. A willingness to rely on external standards may once again be based on global self-esteem (Brockner, 1988), yet in this case, the focus is on the relationship rather than the task (Bales,

1950). A need for power, expressed through a desire to have an impact on others (McClelland, 1975) and a belief in control over one's environment (internal locus of control; Rotter, 1966) are also important in facilitating affiliative/prohibitive ERBs. Finally, this type of ERB might be based on a general tendency to focus on events in the immediate environment (Mausner & Graham, 1970).

*Situational Factors.* We propose two key situational factors as antecedents to affiliative/prohibitive ERB: power differences between actor and target, and a moderately dynamic external environment. Due to the protective orientation of these behaviors, it is likely that there will be power differences between the actor and the target, with the actor being the relatively more powerful party. This differential could be based on the position power or personal power of the steward, or even on power which she or he has acquired due to unique expertise (French & Raven, 1968). In contrast, it could also be based on the inexperienced or disadvantaged status of the target employee. For the second situational antecedent, we argue that employees will be more likely to see a need for, and to engage in affiliative/prohibitive extra-role behaviors when their groups or organizations are experiencing relatively dynamic external environments. This is because a moderately dynamic environment will serve as a catalyst and highlight inappropriate aspects of past practices.

### Consequences

Again, our proposed nomological network for affiliative/prohibitive extra-role behaviors includes two key categories of consequences: consequences to the group/organization and consequences to the employee (see Figure 6d).

*Consequences to the Group/Organization.* Based on our conceptual definition of affiliative/prohibitive extra-role behaviors, we suggest (like challenging/prohibitive extra-role behaviors) that the provision of checks and balances will be one key consequence to the group/organization. In this case, the checks and balances protect specific other employees from unfair treatment, injustice, or harm. In addition, we would suggest that the climate of the workplace would improve when subordinates or less powerful individuals realize that they will be supported and protected when conditions warrant such protection.

*Consequences to the Individual.* The employee who engages in affiliative/prohibitive ERB will experience several consequences. First, like challenging/prohibitive ERBs, the employee will feel a sense of doing the "right" thing and a sense of moral superiority. Like challenging/prohibitive ERB, we suggest that the type and amount of feedback which the employee gets will be a function of the effectiveness of the behavior (see Figure 8). More specifically, we suggest

that employees who engage in Stewardship will receive positive feedback only if they "protect" others appropriately. We define effective or appropriate behavior in this context in terms of the intent of the actor as perceived by the recipient. If the stewardship intervention appears controlling, manipulative, or demeaning, the behavior is not effective. In contrast, a protecting behavior that demonstrates respect, a concern for justice, and sensitivity would be considered effective Stewardship. Additionally, we propose that the employee will expand his or her base of interpersonal power (French & Raven, 1968), and experience the loyalty and trust of other employees in the work unit.

This concludes the presentation of our preliminary nomological network of extra-role behaviors. We close this discussion with an acknowledgment that reciprocal relationships are not only possible, but likely. For example, the positive consequences of performing affiliative/promotive behaviors will reinforce the behavior and increase its occurrence. In addition, engaging in affiliative ERB will reinforce employee affective states such as overall satisfaction, affective commitment, and job involvement. Similarly, receiving negative feedback after expressing a challenge could lead to increased WB or POD and may reduce positive affect. In some cases, negative feedback may cause reactance and result in increased affective commitment to a particular cause. Engaging in challenging behavior might reinforce an employee's sense of dis-satisfaction, increase affective commitment to standards, increase involvement in a cause, and increase the employee's sense of alienation. Similarly a feeling of moral superiority might increase a person's sense that the psychological contract had been broken or that justice expectations were violated. Engaging in challenging/promotive behavior might reinforce an employee's commitment, psychological ownership, and involvement. Likewise positive feedback for well-executed voice would increase the incidence of voice in the future. Similarly, affiliative/prohibitive behaviors may create indebtedness on the part of the "protected" party, further increasing power differences. Thus we would anticipate reciprocal relationships in a fully developed model. We now conclude the paper with six recommendations for future research.

## RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Based on the preceding critical analysis of the extra-role literature and our proposed nomological network, we have developed six recommendations to address Morrow's (1983) issues of redundant and insufficiently distinct conceptualizations and Schwab's (1980) concerns about contamination and deficiency. We view these recommendations as first steps toward the precise explication of constructs that is vital for construct validity (Cook & Campbell, 1979). These six recommendations are: (1) acknowledge that ERB is a

multidimensional construct and focus future research on specific dimensions rather than on the more global construct; explore those less well explicated constructs separately; (2) drop the construct of PSOB; (3) clarify the conceptualization of OCB to exclude behavior which is challenging/promotive and affiliative/prohibitive; (4) limit the domain of WB to external reporting of activities; (5) modify the theoretical conceptualization of the term "principled" in POD to exclude disagreements based on economic or efficiency standards; and (6) encourage researchers to examine the dynamic and evolving classification of behaviors as ERB and IRB.

Our first recommendation is consistent with that of Dubin (1969, p. 66), who suggested that "summative units" be subdivided into smaller and more precise units for rigorous study.

**Recommendation 1.** Researchers should acknowledge that ERB is a multidimensional construct and should focus future research on specific types of ERB rather than on the more global construct. In addition, researchers should explore the two less well explicated forms of ERB: the challenging/promotive behaviors exemplified by Voice, and the affiliative/prohibitive behaviors exemplified by Stewardship.

Positive extra-role behavior, as illustrated in this paper includes four key types of behaviors (affiliative/promotive, challenging/prohibitive, challenging/promotive, and affiliative/prohibitive behaviors) which can have very different characteristics. In addition, we have proposed different nomological networks for each of these three general types of ERB. Thus each will have a unique configuration of antecedents and consequences. By differentiating these general types of extra-role behavior and avoiding research on the more general construct of extra-role behavior, researchers can test and refine our proposed nomological network. This approach should facilitate empirical research by eliminating incomplete and overlapping conceptualizations.

Our second recommendation follows from the first recommendation but is directed at one specific construct: PSOB. This recommendation is based on Dubin (1969) and also on Calder's (1977) caution against using first degree constructs in research.

**Recommendation 2.** Researchers should drop the construct ProSocial Organizational Behavior (PSOB) and instead concentrate research on the other forms of extra-role behavior in organizations (Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Principled Organizational Dissent, and Whistle-Blowing).

Due to the general and somewhat contradictory nature of the definition of ProSocial Organizational Behavior as well as the breadth of behaviors that

are encompassed by the definition, ProSocial Organization Behavior cannot consistently be differentiated from other forms of extra-role behavior. Each of the other three constructs is more focused and provides a stronger foundation for empirical research. In addition, dropping the PSOB construct does not eliminate valuable forms of extra-role behavior from consideration by researchers because, taken together, the other three constructs cover the behaviors included in ProSocial Organizational Behavior.

Our third recommendation concerns Organizational Citizenship Behavior and is intended to assure that OCB is conceptualized and operationalized as affiliative/promotive behavior.

**Recommendation 3.** The conceptual definition and subsequent operationalizations of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) should focus on citizenship behavior that is affiliative and promotive and should not include challenging/prohibitive, challenging/promotive, or affiliative/prohibitive behaviors.

Organ (1988) originally conceptualized citizenship as affiliative and promotive behaviors that are not controversial or change-oriented. This provides a clear focus to the construct and avoids construct stretching (Osigweh, 1989). If citizenship evolves to include a variety of other more challenging behaviors such as Whistle-blowing, Principled Dissent, or Voice, the original emphasis on mundane acts will be obscured and empirical relationships will be confounded. We therefore recommend that the conceptualization and operationalization of Organizational Citizenship Behavior should continue to focus on cooperative, nonchallenging behaviors such as altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, and sportsmanship. If civic virtue is retained as a dimension of OCB in future research, it should be conceptualized as an affiliative/promotive form of participation with emphasis on nonchallenging forms of active participation. Thus, it might include attending meetings and reading company mail when these behaviors are clearly outside of normal role expectations. Future research should explore the challenging/promotive behaviors of Voice and the affiliative/prohibitive behaviors of Stewardship as separate constructs.

Our fourth and fifth recommendations focus on Whistle-Blowing and Principled Organizational Dissent. Our proposed nomological network includes both of these forms of ERB in the same category: challenging/prohibitive ERB. Thus, we propose that they are similar and have similar antecedents and consequences. In addition, we have two more specific recommendations concerning future research on Whistle-Blowing and Principled Organizational Dissent. Recommendation 4 is directed toward reducing the danger of construct contamination (Schwab, 1980) and construct stretching (Osigweh, 1989) in order to provide a more precise definition and

operationalization of Whistle-Blowing. This will further resolve the ambiguity and overlap currently found in this literature.

**Recommendation 4.** The conceptualization and operationalization of Whistle-Blowing should be limited (as originally defined) to reports that are delivered to authorities *outside* of the organization.

Although Near and Miceli (1987) recommended that internal and external Whistle-Blowing be viewed as two categories of a general class of behavior, this expansion of the traditional concept of Whistle-Blowing risks contaminating (Schwab, 1980) or stretching (Osigweh, 1989) the construct beyond a meaningful empirical domain. Limiting Whistle-Blowing to public disclosure outside the organization would eliminate the current partial redundancy between Whistle-Blowing and other forms of extra-role behavior.

Our fifth recommendation is designed to provide consistency between the theoretical conceptualization and illustrative examples of Principled Organizational Dissent in order to avoid construct stretching (Osigweh, 1989).

**Recommendation 5.** The theoretical conceptualization of the term "principled" in Principled Organizational Dissent (POD) should be modified slightly so that disagreements based on economic standards or efficiency standards are not included as examples of Principled Organization Dissent.

Principled Organization Dissent should be limited (as typically described and operationalized) to conscientious challenges that are based on ethical standards or moral principles *held by the individual actor*. POD is dissent based on moral standards or principles, not on economic criteria. We believe that when Graham added economic criteria to POD, she went beyond dissent based on moral principals because economic criteria have a more instrumental foundation. We recognize that ethical standards and principals are inherently relative and subjective and suggest that examples used to illustrate POD should include explicit reference to the standard of justice or honesty being used as the basis of the dissent. Thus we believe that it is important for research on Principled Organizational Dissent to recognize the multiplicity of justice standards which different actors may bring to bear in deciding whether or not to dissent. These changes would more clearly differentiate Whistle-Blowing that challenges norms or practices based on economic or rational standards from challenges based on principles.

Our sixth and final recommendation is an attempt to stimulate research which will yield a richer understanding of extra-role behaviors.

**Recommendation 6.** Additional research should be devoted to understanding the dynamic and evolutionary classification of behavior as extra-role versus in-role.

As jobs become more complex in an increasingly technological and service oriented society, it will become more difficult to delineate all expected job behaviors precisely (i.e., the incomplete contract problem noted by Williamson, 1979, 1985 and others). As we have discussed, extra-role behavior is dynamic. It can vary across hierarchical, temporal, individual, and professional levels of analysis. It is important to understand the processes through which in-role behavior evolves into extra-role behavior (and vice versa). Implicit throughout much of the extra-role research is the unstated notion that employees have only one organizational role. Yet, any given employee has multiple roles and these roles are frequently dynamic and sometimes conflicting (e.g., Kidder & McLean Parks, 1993). Roles are also emergent (i.e., incumbent defined roles). The complexity and dynamic nature of organizational roles may be one reason why it has been difficult to attain clarity and consistency across scholars on conceptual and empirical definitions of ERB. Instead of ignoring this complexity, we believe that ERB researchers should incorporate the dynamic and evolutionary nature of ERB into future research agendas.

In summary, we believe the above six recommendations would facilitate future research on positive forms of extra-role behavior. Specification and clarification of construct conceptualizations would reduce duplication and minimize confusion among these forms of extra-role behavior. Minor modifications in conceptualizations, interpretation of conceptualizations, and operationalization would facilitate consistent differentiation between different types of positive extra-role behavior. Tighter construct definitions would increase consistency of operationalization and allow comparison of research results from different studies as well as improved longitudinal research. As Osigweh (1989, p. 591) observed, "organizational science, a developing field consisting of management scholars who are interested in the study of organizations, has devoted little attention to concept formation issues. As a result, 'misinformed' concepts prevail. The imprecise nature of these concepts has added to our field's lag in development as a science." Similarly, Cameron, Kim, and Whetton (1987, pp. 224-225) noted that in emerging areas, "A related characteristic of a new field is lack of perspective, in the sense that advocates of the new viewpoint tend both to exaggerate its uniqueness as a cause and overstate the breadth of its consequences. While this intellectual zealotness is understandable, if left unvalidated, it can eventually undermine even the legitimate claims of the new perspective." We believe that the general concept of extra-role behavior and the potential contributions that can result from the study of extra-role behavior are too important to ignore past lessons concerning the importance of precise definitions and construct validity.

One additional point deserves consideration. Researchers may want to use the new terminology proposed in this paper (affiliative/promotive, challenging/prohibitive, challenging/promotive, and affiliative/prohibitive) in future research. Application of the classification scheme would position new research in the context of the nomological network developed here and would minimize additional conceptual and operational ambiguity concerning ERB constructs.

Our recommendations are based on conceptual and theoretical analysis of extra-role behaviors. A second and different approach to improving the research on extra-role behavior would be to examine empirical results of existing studies and attempt to clarify extra-role construct definitions based purely on empirical findings. Although empirical results can contribute to our understanding of constructs, we believe that construct validity must begin with careful analysis of construct definitions. The next step is examination of substantive relationships such as those proposed in the nomological network presented in this paper.

## SUMMARY

We began this paper by examining the challenges of doing research on extra-role behavior. Regardless of these difficulties, a significant amount of research has been done on extra-role behaviors. Much of this research, however, has occurred without construct and definitional clarity. We identified three critical conceptual problems that apply to much of the research on extra-role behavior. We then developed an initial nomological network for four general types of extra-role behavior and concluded with six recommendations that combined with the nomological network should facilitate future research.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Portions of the material reported here were presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Management, San Francisco, CA, 1990. The authors would like to thank Jill Graham, Susan Jackson, Rekha Karambaya, Dennis Organ, and Donald Schwab for their helpful comments on an earlier draft of this manuscript.

## NOTES

1. Clearly there are also negative extra-role behaviors which are intended to harm the organization (see, e.g., McLean Parks & Kidder, 1994). We acknowledge those behaviors. We are limiting our discussion, however, to those behaviors which are positive or which are intended positively in keeping with Barnard (1938) and the Katz (1964) and Katz and Kahn (1978) original conceptualizations of extra-role behavior. In addition, this is consistent with the orientation toward positive behavior that has dominated the literature to date.



2. Kidder and McLean Parks (1993) make the point that these different standards and expectations for different employees may also be based on the different expectations derived from the employee's achieved (job) and ascribed roles (e.g., gender, ethnicity). Thus, for some employees, the interaction between these two types of roles may implicitly broaden (or narrow) the range of expected behaviors for that employee.
3. We note and recommend a more precise use of terms here. In this paper, the term "concept" is defined as a general idea or understanding—especially one derived from specific instances or occurrences (as in inductive reasoning). In contrast, the term "construct" is defined as something synthesized or constructed from simple elements, especially from concepts (as in deductive reasoning).
4. There are exceptions. Dalton and Cosier (1988) examined the psychometric properties of the Bateman and Organ (1983) citizenship scale, and Becker and Vance (1993) examined construct validity. Podsakoff et al. (1990) and MacKenzie et al. (1991) used confirmatory factor analysis to assess the psychometric properties of new scales that they developed to measure citizenship. Neither Podsakoff et al. nor MacKenzie et al., however, followed Schwab's (1980) recommendation that scale development and hypothesis testing should be done on different samples. Thus there is uncertain evidence about the validity of the measures and the results of the hypothesis testing in these two more recent studies.
5. This paper does not cover the entire domain of the Whistle-Blowing literature. Instead, and in keeping with our definition of ERB, it is limited to Whistle-Blowing that involves organizational members. This concentrates attention on the work that has been done by Near, Miceli, and their colleagues.
6. We note that although Organ (1990) defines OCB as positive in terms of both intent and outcome, it is possible to imagine intendedly positive acts of ERB that have negative outcomes. For example, an employee who is trying to help a co-worker could be viewed as meddling or interfering. Tension between the two could reduce overall efficiency of the work unit. Alternatively, an employee could neglect his or her own responsibilities while helping another employee.
7. We note, however, that although OCB definitions are explicitly extra-role, some dimensions of OCB such as Conscientiousness do not always specify behaviors that extend beyond normal role expectations. Conscientiousness is usually defined and operationalized as attendance and punctuality. As Organ noted, "the items that define the factor Conscientiousness do have an in-role flavor, only the marked level or intensity of those items connote a 'going beyond what is required'" (1988, pp. 104-105).
8. Graham makes a distinction between relational and literal contracts. This distinction, however, may not be meaningful for citizenship behaviors. First, a contract does not need to be literal (or in writing) to be binding. Implicit contracts are increasingly enforced by the courts (e.g., Berns, 1987; Kubasek & Browne, 1991; Leonard, 1983; Santiago, 1989; Shearer, 1991; *Toussaint v. Blue Cross*, 1980) and can be either relational or transactional in form (e.g., McLean Parks & Smith, forthcoming; Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993). Second, it may be possible, and in fact desirable, to obtain or encourage extra-role behaviors from those whose contract is transactional as well as those whose contract is more relational in nature. Whether or not extra-role behaviors are associated with different types of contracts (implicit or otherwise) is an empirical question.

## REFERENCES

- Bales, R.F. (1950). *Interaction process analysis: A method for the study of small groups*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Barnard, C.I. (1938). *The functions of the executive*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard.
- Bateman, T.S., & Organ, D.W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee citizenship. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26, 587-595.
- Becker, T., & Vance, R. (1993). Construct validity of three types of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Management*, 19, 663-682.
- Berns, B. (1987). Employers beware: The implied contract exception to the employment-at-will doctrine. *Boston College Law Review*, 28, 327-356.
- Bies, R.J., Martin, C.L., & Brockner, J.L. (1993). Just laid off, but still a "good citizen?" Only if the process is fair. *Employee Responsibility and Rights Journal*, 6(3), 227-238.
- Bok, S. (1980). Whistle-blowing and professional responsibilities. In P. Callahan & S. Bok (Eds.), *Ethics teaching in higher education* (pp. 277-295). New York: Plenum.
- Brabeck, M. (1984). Ethical characteristics of whistle blowers. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 18, 41-53.
- Brief, A.P., & Motowidlo, S.J. (1986). Prosocial organizational behaviors. *Academy of Management Review*, 11, 710-725.
- Brockner, J. (1988). *Self-esteem at work: Research, theory, and practice*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Burke, R.J., Weir, T., & Duncan, G. (1976). Informal helping relationships and work organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 19, 370-377.
- Caldar, B.J. (1977). An attribution theory of leadership. In B.M. Staw & G.R. Salancik (Eds.), *New directions in organizational behavior* (pp. 179-204). Chicago, IL: St. Clair Press.
- Cameron, K.S., Kim, M.U., & Whetton, D.A. (1987). Organizational effects of decline and turbulence. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 32, 222-240.
- Cook, T.D., & Campbell, D.T. (1979). *Quasi-experimentation: Design & analysis issues for field settings*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.
- Dalton, D.R., & Cosier, R.A. (1988). Psychometric properties of the organizational citizenship scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 48, 479-482.
- Deckop, J.R., McClendon, J.A., & Harris-Perels, K.L. (1993). The effect of strike militancy intentions and general union attitudes on the organizational citizenship behavior of university faculty. *Employee Responsibility and Rights Journal*, 6(2), 85-97.
- Dozier, J.B., & Miceli, M.P. (1985). Potential predictors of whistle-blowing: A prosocial behavior perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 10, 823-836.
- Dubin, R. (1969). *Theory building*. New York: Free Press.
- Flugly, A., & Crowley, M. (1986). Gender and helping behavior: A meta-analytic review of the social psychological literature. *Psychological Bulletin*, 100, 283-308.
- Flickson, R. (1987). A critique of economic and sociological theories of social control. *Journal of Legal Studies*, 16, 67-99.
- Hillston, F.A. (1982). Civil disobedience and whistleblowing: A comparative appraisal of two forms of dissent. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1, 23-28.
- Furth, J.L., Dobbins, G.H., & Cheng, B.S. (1991). Cultural relativity in action: A comparison of self-ratings made by Chinese and U.S. workers. *Personnel Psychology*, 44(1), 129-147.
- Furth, J., Podsakoff, P.M., & Organ, D.W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior in the Pacific rim: A constructive replication and extension of U.S. studies*. Paper presented at Academy of Management, Anaheim, CA (August).
- Furth, J., Podsakoff, P.M., & Organ, D.W. (1990). Accounting for organizational citizenship behavior: Leader fairness and task scope versus satisfaction. *Journal of Management*, 16, 705-721.
- Furrell, D. (1983). Exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect as responses to job dissatisfaction: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26, 596-607.
- Furrell, D., & Rusbult, C.E. (1992). Exploring the exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect typology: The influence of job satisfaction, quality of alternatives, and investment size. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 5(3), 201-218.
- Folger, R. (1993). Justice, motivation, and performance beyond role requirements. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 6(3), 239-248.

- French, J.R.P., Jr., & Raven, B. (1968). The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright & A. Zander (Eds.), *Group dynamics* (3rd ed., pp. 259-269). New York: Harper and Row.
- George, J.M. (1990). Personality, affect, and behavior in groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 107-116.
- George, J.M. (1991). State of trait: Effects of positive mood on prosocial behaviors at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 299-307.
- George, J.M., & Bettenhausen, K. (1990). Understanding prosocial behavior, sales performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 698-709.
- George, J.M., & Brief, A.P. (1992). Feeling good-doing good: A conceptual analysis of the mood at work-organizational spontaneity relationship. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112, 310-329.
- Graen, G. (1976). Role-making processes within complex organizations. In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial/organizational psychology* (pp. 1201-1245). Chicago: Rand-McNally.
- Graen, G., & Cashman, J.F. (1975). A role-making model of leadership in formal organizations: A developmental approach. In J.G. Hunt & L.L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership frontiers* (pp. 143-165). Kent, OH: Kent State University Press.
- Graham, J.W. (1983). *Principled organizational dissent*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northwestern University, Evanston, IL.
- Graham, J.W. (1986a). *Organizational citizenship informed by political theory*. Paper presented at Academy of Management meeting, Chicago, IL (August).
- Graham, J.W. (1986b). Principled organizational dissent: A theoretical essay. In B.M. Staw & L.L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 8, pp. 1-52). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Graham, J.W. (1991). An essay on organizational citizenship behavior. *Employee Rights and Responsibilities Journal*, 4(4), 249-270.
- Hirschman, A.O. (1970). *Exit, voice, and loyalty: Responses to decline in firms, organizations, and states*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Hornstein, H.A. (1986). *Managerial courage: Revitalizing your company without sacrificing your job*. New York: Wiley.
- Hui, C., Organ, D.W., & Crooker, K. (1993). *Time pressure, type A behavior, and organizational citizenship behavior: A field study and an experiment*. Working paper, Indiana University.
- Ilgel, D.R., & Hollenbeck, J.R. (1992). The structure of work: Job design and roles. In M.D. Dunnette & L.M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (2nd ed., Vol. 2, pp. 165-207). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Inkeles, A. (1969). Participant citizenship in six developing countries. *American Political Science Review*, 63, 1120-1141.
- Johns, G., & Nicholson, N. (1982). The meanings of absence: New strategies for theory and research. In B.M. Staw & L.L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 4, pp. 127-172). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Karambaya, R. (1990). *Work unit characteristics with implications for organizational citizenship behavior*. Working paper, York University, North York, Ontario.
- Karambaya, R. (1991). Contexts for organizational citizenship behavior: Do high performing and satisfying units have better 'citizens'? Working paper, York University, North York, Ontario.
- Katz, D. (1964). The motivational basis of organizational behavior. *Behavioral Science*, 9, 131-146.
- Katz D., & Kahn, R.L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations*. New York: Wiley.
- Kemery, E.R., Bedeian, A.G., & Zaccor, S.R. (1994). *Expectancy-based job cognitions and job affect as predictors of organizational citizenship behaviors*. Working paper, University of Baltimore, Baltimore, MD.
- Kidder, D.L., & McLean Parks, J. (1993). The good soldier: Who is s(he)? In D.P. Moore (Ed.), *Academy of Management Best Papers Proceeding*, pp. 363-367.
- Kohlberg, L. (1969). Stage and sequence: The cognitive developmental approach to socialization. In D.A. Goslin (Ed.), *Handbook of socialization theory and research* (pp. 347-480). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Konovsky, M.A., & Organ, D.W. (1993). *Dispositional versus contextual determinants of organizational citizenship behavior*. Working paper, Tulane University, New Orleans, LA.
- Konovsky, M.A., & Pugh, S.D. (1994, August). Citizenship behavior and social exchange. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 656-669.
- Kubasek, N., & Browns, M.N. (1991, May). Recruiter beware: The oral promise of lifetime employment may be more than a mere inducement. *Labor Law Journal* pp. 273-284.
- Leonard, M. (1983). Challenges to the termination-at-will doctrine. *Personnel Administrator*, 28, 49-56.
- Lewin, K. (1952). Group decisions and social change. In G.E. Swanson, T.N. Newcomb, & E.L. Hartley (Eds.), *Readings in social psychology*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- MacKenzie, S.B., Podsakoff, P.M., & Fetter, R. (1991). Organizational citizenship behavior and objective productivity as determinants of managerial evaluations of salespersons' performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 123-150.
- MacKenzie, S.B., Podsakoff, P.M., & Fetter, R. (1993). The impact of organizational citizenship behavior on evaluation of salesperson performance. *Journal of Marketing*, 57, 70-80.
- Macneil, I.R. (1985). Relational contracts: What we do and do not know. *Wisconsin Law Review*, pp. 483-525.
- Manogran, P., & Conlon, E. (1993). *A leader-member exchange approach to explaining organizational citizenship behavior*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management, Atlanta, GA.
- Martin, C.L., & Bies, R.J. (1991). *Just laid off, but still a "good citizen"?* Only if the process is fair. Paper presented at the Academy of Management, Miami Beach, FL (August).
- Mayer, R.C., & Schoorman, F.D. (1992). Predicting participation and production outcomes through a two dimensional model of organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35, 671-684.
- Mausner, B., & Graham, J. (1970). Field dependence and prior reinforcement as determinants of social interaction in judgement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 16, 486-493.
- McAllister, D.J. (1991). *Regrounding organizational citizenship behavior research*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management, Miami Beach, FL (August).
- McClelland, D.C. (1961). *The achieving society*. New York: Van Nostrand.
- McClelland, D.C. (1975). *Power: The inner experience*. New York: Irvington.
- McLean Parks, J. (1990). *Contracts as a control metaphor for relationships in organizations: The effects of social distance and contractual specificity on citizenship behaviors*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Iowa.
- McLean Parks, J., & Conlon, E.J. (1991). *Effects of social distance and contractual specificity on citizenship behaviors: An experimental test*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Meetings, Miami, FL.
- McLean Parks, J., & Kidder, D.L. (1994). Till death us do part: The changing nature of organizational contracts and commitments. In C. Cooper & D. Rousseau (Eds.), *Trends in organizational behavior* (pp. 111-136). London: Wiley & Sons.
- McLean Parks, J., & Smith, I.I. (forthcoming). Organizational contracting: A "rational" exchange? In J. Halpern & R. Stern (Eds.), *Non-rational elements of organizational decision making: An interdisciplinary exploration*. Ithaca, NY: ILR Press.
- McNeely, B., & Meglino, B. (1992). *Good soldiers or good duty? The role of work value and contextual antecedents in prosocial organizational behavior*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Meetings, Las Vegas, NV.

- Miceli, M.P., & Near, J.P. (1984). The relationships among beliefs, organizational position, and whistle-blowing status: A discriminant analysis. *Academy of Management Journal*, 27, 687-705.
- Miceli, M.P., & Near, J.P. (1985). Characteristics of organizational climate and perceived wrongdoing associated with whistle-blowing decisions. *Personnel Psychology*, 38, 525-544.
- Miles, R.E. (1989). Adapting to technology and competition: A new industrial relations system for the 21st century. *Human Relations*, 31, 9-28.
- Miner, A.S. (1987). Idiosyncratic jobs in formalized organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 32, 327-351.
- Moorman, R.H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 845-855.
- Moorman, R.H. (1993). The influence of cognitive and affective based job satisfaction measures on the relationship between satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Relations*, 46, 759-776.
- Moorman, R.H., & Blakely, G.L. (1993). *Individualism-collectivism as an individual difference predictor of organizational citizenship behavior*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management, Atlanta, GA.
- Moorman, R.H., Niehoff, B.P., & Organ, D.W. (1993). Treating employees fairly and organizational citizenship behavior: Sorting the effects of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and procedural justice. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 6(3), 209-225.
- Morrison, E.W. (1992). *Toward an employee-centered approach to organizational citizenship behavior*. Paper presented at Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Montreal, Quebec (May).
- Morrison, E.W. (1993). Toward an understanding of employee role definitions and their implications for organizational citizenship behavior. In D.P. Moore (Ed.), *Academy of Management best paper proceedings* (pp. 248-252).
- Morrow, P.C. (1983). Concept redundancy in organizational research: The case of work commitment. *Academy of Management Review*, 8, 486-500.
- Mowday, R.T., Porter, L.W., & Steers, R.M. (1982). *Employee-organization linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*. New York: Academic Press.
- Near, J.P., & Jensen, T.C. (1983). The whistleblowing process: Retaliation and perceived effectiveness. *Work and Occupations*, 10, 3-28.
- Near, J.P., & Miceli, M.P. (1985). Organizational dissidence: The case of whistle-blowing. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 4, 1-16.
- Near, J.P., & Miceli, M.P. (1986). Retaliation against whistleblowers: Predictors and effects. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 137-145.
- Near, J.P., & Miceli, M.P. (1987). Whistle-blowers in organizations: Dissidents or reformers? In L.L. Cummings & B.M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 9, pp. 321-368). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Nemeth, C.J. (1986). Differential contributions of majority and minority influence. *Psychological Review*, 93, 23-32.
- Nemeth, C.J., & Staw, B.M. (1989). The tradeoffs of social control and innovation in groups and organizations. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 22, pp. 175-210). New York: Academic Press.
- Niehoff, B.R., & Moorman, R.H. (1993). Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36, 527-556.
- 283
- Extra-Role Behaviors
- O'Reilly, C. III, & Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 492-499.
- Organ, D.W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Organ, D.W. (1990). The motivational basis of organizational citizenship behavior. In B.M. Staw & L.L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 12, pp. 43-72). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Organ, D.W. (1994). Personality and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Management*, 20, 465-478.
- Organ, D.W., & Konovsky, M. (1989). Cognitive versus affective determinants of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74, 157-164.
- Organ, D.W., & Lingl, A. (1991). *Personality, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior*. Working paper, Indiana University.
- Orr, J.M., Sackett, P.R., & Mercer, M. (1989). The role of prescribed and nonprescribed behaviors in estimating the dollar value of performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74, 34-40.
- Osigweh, C.A.B. (1989). Concept fallibility in organizational science. *Academy of Management Review*, 14, 579-594.
- Pearce, J.L., & Gregersen, H.B. (1991). Task interdependence and extrarole behavior: A test of the mediating effects of felt responsibility. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 838-844.
- Perrucci, R., Anderson, R.M., Schendel, D.E., & Trachtman, L.E. (1980). Whistle-blowing: Professionals' resistance to organizational authority. *Social Problems*, 28, 149-164.
- Pierce, J.L., Gardner, D.G., Cummings, L.L., & Dunham, R.B. (1989). Organization-based self-esteem: Construct definition, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32, 622-648.
- Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., & Fetter, R. (1993). Substitutes for Leadership and the Management of Professionals. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 4, 1-44.
- Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Moorman, R.H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1, 107-142.
- Podsakoff, P.M., Niehoff, B.P., MacKenzie, S.B., & Williams, M.L. (1993). Do Substitutes for Leadership Really Substitute for Leadership? An Empirical Examination of Kerr and Jermier's Situational Leadership Model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 54, 1-44.
- Podsakoff, P., & Williams, L. (1986). The relationship between job performance and job satisfaction. In E.A. Locke (Ed.), *Generalizing from laboratory to field settings* (pp. 207-253). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Porter, M.E. (1985). *Competitive advantage: Creating and sustaining superior performance*. New York: Free Press.
- Puffer, S.M. (1987). Prosocial behavior, noncompliant behavior, and work performance among commission salespeople. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72, 615-621.
- Keynolds, P.D. (1971). *A primer in theory construction*. New York: Bobbs-Merrill.
- Rice, R.W. (1978). Construct validity of the least preferred co-worker score. *Psychological Bulletin*, 85, 1199-1237.
- Roberts, K.H., & Glick, W. (1981). The job characteristics approach to task design: A critical review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 66, 193-217.
- Kotter, J.B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs*, 80(1, Whole No. 609).
- Kotter, J.B. (1980). Interpersonal trust, trustworthiness, and gullibility. *American Psychologist*, 35, 1-7.

- Rousseau, D.M. (1989). Psychological and implied contracts in organizations. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 2(2), 121-139.
- Rousseau, D., & McLean Parks, J. (1993). The contracts of individuals and organizations. In L.L. Cummings & B. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 15, pp. 1-43). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Rusbult, C.E., Farrell, D., Rogers, G., & Mainous, A.G., III. (1988). Impact of exchange variables on exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect: An integrative model of responses to declining job satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, 31, 599-627.
- Santiago, F. (1989, September 3). Iowa court gives fired workers new weapon. *Des Moines Sunday Register*, pp. 1-26.
- Schachter, S., Ellertson, J., McBride, D., & Gregory, D. (1951). An experimental study of cohesiveness and productivity. *Human Relations*, 4, 229-238.
- Schein, E.H. (1968). Organizational socialization and the profession of management. *Industrial Management Review*, 9, 1-16.
- Schnake, M. (1991). Organizational citizenship: A review, proposed model, and research agenda. *Human Relations*, 44, 735-759.
- Schnake, M., Dumler, M.P., Cochran, D.S. (1993). The relationship between "traditional" leadership, "super" leadership, and organizational citizenship behavior. *Group and Organization Management*, 18, 352-365.
- Scholl, R.W., Cooper, E.A., & McKenna, J.F. (1987). Referent selection in determining equity perceptions: Differential effects on behavioral and attitudinal outcomes. *Personnel Psychology*, 40, 113-124.
- Schwab, D.P. (1980). Construct validity in organizational behavior. In B.M. Staw & L.L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 2, pp. 3-43). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Seers, A., & Graen, G.B. (1984). The dual attachment concept: A longitudinal investigation of the combination of task characteristics and leader-member exchange. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 33, 283-306.
- Shearer, R. (1991, April). Specifying the terms of employment agreements: How long does the 'annual' contract last? *Labor Law Journal*, pp. 214-221.
- Smith, C.A., Organ, D.W., & Near, J.P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68, 653-663.
- Stanley, J.D. (1981). Dissent in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 6, 13-19.
- Staub, E. (1978). *Positive social behavior and morality: Social and personal influences* (Vol. 1). New York: Academic Press.
- Staw, B.M., & Boettger, R.D. (1990). Task revision: A neglected form of work performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33, 534-559.
- Staw, B.M., Sandelands, L.E., & Dutton, J.E. (1981). Threat-rigidity effects in organizational behavior: A multilevel analysis. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 28, 582-600.
- Tansky, J.W. (1993). Justice and organizational citizenship behavior: What is the relationship? *Employee Responsibility and Rights Journal*, 6(3), 195-207.
- Toffler, B.L. (1981). Occupational role development: The changing determinants of outcomes for the individual. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 26, 396-418.
- Toussaint v. Blue Cross. (1980). 408 Michigan, 579, 292N.W.2d880.
- Van Dyne, L. (1993). *In-role and extra-role behaviors: Cross level and longitudinal effects of individual similarity to other group members*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN.
- Van Dyne, L., & Cummings, L.L. (1990). *Extra-role behaviors: The need for construct and definitional clarity*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management, San Francisco, CA.
- 285
- Extra-Role Behaviors
- Van Dyne, L., Graham, J.W., & Dienesch, R.M. (1994, August). Organizational citizenship behavior: Construct redefinition, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 765-802.
- Werner, J.M. (1994). Dimensions that make a difference: Examining the impact of in-role and extra-role behaviors on supervisory ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 98-107.
- Whithey, M.J., & Cooper, W.H. (1989). Predicting exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 34, 521-539.
- Witt, A. (1991). Exchange ideology as a moderator of job attitudes: Organizational Citizenship Behaviors relationships. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 21, 1490-1501.
- Williams, L.J., & Anderson, S.E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behavior. *Journal of Management*, 17, 601-617.
- Williamson, O. (1979). Transaction-cost economics: The governance of contractual relations. *Journal of Law and Economics*, 3, 233-261.
- Williamson, O. (1985). *Economic institutions of capitalism*. New York: Free Press.
- Wright, P., George, J., Farnsworth, S., & McMahan, G. (1993). Productivity and extra-role behaviors: The effects of goals and incentives on spontaneous helping. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 374-381.