Southern African Business Review
DHET accredited
ISSN: 1998-8125

Volume 21
2017

Striking a balance between types of organisational citizenship behaviour

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ABSTRACT

An increasing number of studies suggest that organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) may produce both positive and negative results for organisations and individuals. Few empirical studies, however, evaluate when OCBs are likely to be most or least effective. Based on a sample of 210 participants, and drawing on the entropic citizenship behaviour framework, the theories of conservation of resources, attention capacity and resource allocation, the aim of this study is to examine the relative effects of the personal aspects of OCB (OCB-I); of its impersonal aspects (OCB-O) and of the balanced aspects on employee innovative work behaviours (IWB) and affective commitment. The results indicate that employees who engaged in both types of OCB reported higher IWB than employees who engaged in either OCB-I or OCB-O (at the exclusion of the other). Conversely, the average measures of IWB between employees who engaged in OCB-I and those who engaged in OCB-O separately did not differ significantly. Even though employees who engaged in both OCB-O and OCB-I were more affectively committed than employees who engaged solely in either OCB-O or OCB-I, the differences were not statistically significant. These results and their implications are discussed, and prospects for future research in this area are outlined.

Key words: affective commitment; balance; innovative behaviours; organisational citizenship behaviours

Introduction

Management scholars broadly agree that discretionary, cooperative and innovative behaviours that exceed role requirements contribute to organisational effectiveness.

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The best known of these is organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006; Podsakoff, Whiting & Podsakoff, 2009; Van Scotter, 2000), originally defined by Organ (1988: 4) as 'the behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation'. To align OCB with Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) contextual performance concept, Organ (1997: 95) aptly redefines OCB as 'performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place'.

Despite the broad agreement that OCBs contribute to organisational effectiveness, there are fewer studies on the consequences of OCB than on its antecedents (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach 2000; Podsakoff et al. 2009; Van Scotter 2000). Furthermore, many studies still focus on the positive consequences of OCB (Spitzmuller, Van Dyne & Ilies 2008), and this tends to generate a pro-OCB bias, i.e., a disproportionate focus on the positive aspects of OCBs while disregarding how they might detract from individual and organisational effectiveness (Harari, Reaves & Viswesvaran 2016). In line with what Anderson, Potoňik and Zhou (2014) call 'innovation maximisation fallacy', this pro-OCB bias or stereotype may, in part, be caused by what can be called OCB maximisation fallacy – the belief that OCBs are always good, and that more is always better.

Researchers have started to question the prevailing notion that OCBs are, in and of themselves, good for performance and do not have a dark side (Koopman, Lanaj & Scott 2016). In general, recent studies have indicated that OCB is a resource-depleting activity (Bolino & Klotz, 2015), and when employees' self-control resources are depleted, according to ego-depletion theory (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven & Tice 1998), they may engage in undesirable work behaviours. In line with this strand of research, recent conceptual models have discussed the negative aspects of OCBs. For instance, Vigoda-Gadot (2006, 2007) and Coldwell and Callaghan (2014) introduce the concepts of compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) and entropic citizenship behaviour (ECB) respectively, as involuntary and imbalanced forms of OCB that may have negative consequences for organisational effectiveness. These models, however, remain largely conceptual and empirically untested.

The aim of the current article is to examine the relative effects of two types of OCB on desirable individual and organisational outcomes. Specifically, the aim is to explore the influence of the personal (OCB-I) and impersonal aspects of OCB (OCB-O) on employee commitment and innovative work behaviour (IWB). Organisational commitment is a classic example of employee attitude (Meyer & Allen 1991), while IWB is an example of organisational performance (Harari et al. 2016). Spitzmuller et al. (2008) observe that studies that differentiate between the impact of OCB-I and OCB-O on performance have produced inconsistent results.

This article employs Coldwell and Callaghan's (2014) ECB framework to account for the differential effects of OCB-I, OCB-O and the combination of OCB-I and OCB-O (balanced OCB) on employee commitment and IWB.

The article contributes to the existing literature on the outcomes of OCB in at least two ways: first, it draws from empirical data to demonstrate that neither OCB-I nor OCB-O is sufficient to maximise individual and organisational effectiveness. This is core to Coldwell and Callaghan's (2014) ECB model, and challenges the prevailing blanket view that OCBs are intrinsically good for organisational effectiveness. Second, in contrast to past studies that focused exclusively on either the positive or negative aspects of OCB, it is argued that individual and organisational performance can be increased if employees balance OCB-I and OCB-O.

The quest to identify boundary conditions for the effectiveness of OCB archetypes on organisational effectiveness is nothing new. For instance, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) posit that the differential impact of OCB-I and OCB-O on effectiveness may be due to the nature of work. In support of this proposition, Bachrach, Powell, Bendoly and Richey (2006) note that task interdependence moderates the effectiveness of helping on organisational results. Koopman et al. (2016) employed the cognitive-affective processing system framework and conservation of resources theory to account for the daily positive and negative impact which helping OCB (moderated respectively by promotion focus and prevention focus) has on positive affect and work goal progress, which in turn affects employee wellbeing. The study by MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Podsakoff (2011) found that the relationship between challenge-oriented OCB and workgroup task performance had an inverted-U shape, and was moderated by affiliation-oriented OCBs.

It is submitted that the impact of OCB on organisational and individual outcomes may be influenced by the extent to which employees balance OCB-I and OCB-O, such that those who engage in both, feel and perform better than those who engage in one at the expense of the other.

The article unfolds as follows: the next section after the introduction presents Coldwell and Callaghan's (2014) OCB/ECB model of organisational effectiveness, followed by an outline of the research methodology. Thereafter the focus is on the study results, and section five provides a discussion thereof. The final section concludes the article.

OCB, ECB and organisational effectiveness

Based on a dynamic combination of the thermodynamic theory of entropy, Laffer's curve model of taxation, extensive examples taken from military history and organisations, and two levels of analyses of OCB (personal and organisational

support), Coldwell and Callaghan (2014) introduced the concept of ECB as consisting of imbalanced states of OCB (see Figure 1).

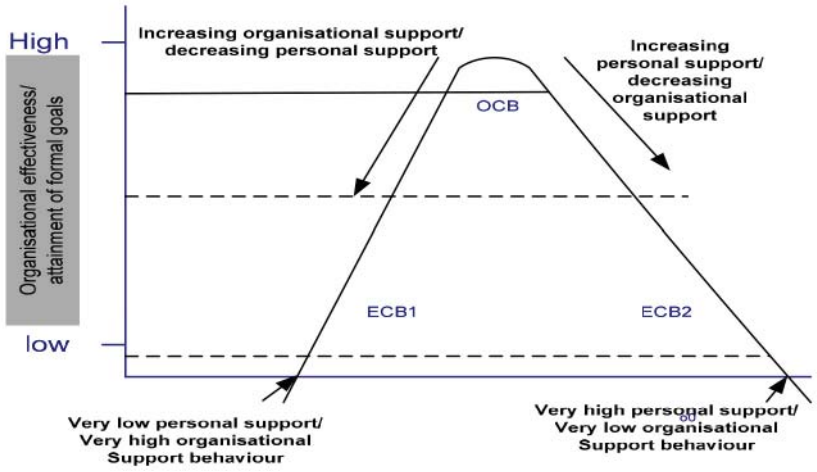

Figure 1: Diagrammatic representation of OCB, ECB and organisational effectiveness

Source: Adapted from Coldwell and Callaghan (2014: 359)

The central argument of Coldwell and Callaghan's (2014: 348) model is 'that extreme forms of personal or organisational support OCB generate ECB which is inimical to the attainment of formal organisational goals'. In other words, too much focus on either OCB-I or OCB-O may reduce organisational effectiveness. This view is supported by the attention capacity and resource allocation theories, which posit that individuals have finite attentional capacity and resources, and that using resources involves opportunity costs (Harari et al. 2016; Harrison & Wagner 2016; Hobfoll 2002). In this regard, when individuals focus their attention and cognitive energy on one task, they may deplete their attention and the stock of cognitive resources they have available for another task (Harrison & Wagner 2016). This implies that spending time helping others may come at the cost of helping the organisation (Bergeron 2007; Coldwell & Callaghan 2014). Note, however, that Coldwell and Callaghan (2014) do not only hypothesise the negative aspects of OCB, but also suggest that the effectiveness of OCB is enhanced when a degree of balance exists between personal support and organisational support behaviours which translate into organisational effectiveness. In other words, goal attainment is likely to be increased when employees balance the personal and organisational aspects of OCB.

The core proposition in OCB studies is that in the aggregate, OCBs promote organisational effectiveness or goal attainment (Podsakoff et al. 2000). For instance,

based on a sample of teachers drawn from 38 schools in the Western Cape, South Africa, Mahembe and Engelbrecht (2014) found a positive relationship between OCB and team effectiveness.

Although many prior studies have reported the benefits of OCB (Podsakoff et al. 2009), its negative aspects (Bergeron 2007; Vigoda-Gadot 2006, 2007) and the simultaneous positive and negative effects on desirable outcomes (e.g. Koopman et al., 2016), few studies have reported the boundary conditions in which types of OCB are most likely to be effective (e.g., MacKenzie et al. [2011] found that beyond some point, challenge-oriented OCBs need to be buttressed by affiliation-oriented OCBs to produce desirable outcomes). In this article the hypothesis is put forward that if employees engage in either OCB-I or OCB-O at the exclusion of the other, their IWB (performance) or affective commitment (wellbeing) would be lower than if they engaged in both forms.

OCB and IWB

There is broad consensus that performance is a multi-faceted construct which is central to studies in management research (Viswesvaran & Ones 2000). These performance domains include task performance, OCB, counterproductive work behaviour (CWB), adaptive behaviour, knowledge transfer and IWB (Harari et al. 2016). In temporal occurrence or causal ordering, OCB is expected to predict IWB (Harari et al. 2016). To date, however, the differential effects of types of OCB on IWB remain undocumented.

According to Coldwell and Callaghan (2014), when employees engage in extreme forms of either personal support or organisational support behaviours, their effectiveness may be compromised. This is because employees have a fixed time schedule in which to discharge their duties, and if they engage in too much OCB-I they may not have enough time to engage in OCB-O, and vice versa (Bergeron 2007). This resonates with the conservation of resources theory, which holds that individuals accumulate valued resources in order to cope with work demands (with a subsequent increase in individual wellbeing), but also that stressful work events deplete accumulated resources and result in stressful situations (Hobfoll 1989). For example, when an employee engages in helping behaviour (OCB-I), s/he builds valued resources such as reputation, self-worth and social capital, all of which may translate into positive affect and wellbeing. However, since performing OCB is a 'time-dependent' activity, engaging in OCB-I may compete for time resources with engagement in OCB-O (organisational support behaviour), and hence deplete personal resources and negatively affect wellbeing. The inability to perceive progress

toward work goals increases perceptions of workload and time pressures that may, in turn, aggravate emotional exhaustion (Koopman et al. 2016:418). Conversely, progress toward work goal achievement may result in the accumulation of psychological and material resources such as job satisfaction, promotion and salary increases, but these resources may come at the expense of building relationships with others, which may be stressful and may deplete accumulated cognitive resources. For instance, organisations today value creativity and innovation (organisational goal), but since creative and innovative performance may be a source of workplace disruption, creative employees may harm existing relationships with their colleagues (Anderson et al. 2014, MacKenzie et al. 2011) and may thus deplete the social support resources they enjoy as individuals. In support of the paradoxical nature of OCB, Koopman et al. (2016) found that helping behaviour not only increased positive affect, but also reduced the perception of progress towards goal achievement – both of which affected individual wellbeing. In the context of academic work, Bergeron, Ostroff, Schroeder and Block (2014) found that while internally oriented OCBs influenced outcomes negatively, externally oriented OCBs influenced them positively.

The bright and dark sides of OCB have implications for balancing OCB-I and OCB-O to increase organisational effectiveness. Research suggests that some individuals may be more adept at balancing competing demands on their time than others (Koopman et al. 2016), and in the view of the authors of this article, those who balance their time well can perform better than those who do not. Bergeron (2007) suggests that balancing OCB with task performance is difficult, yet imperative for organisational effectiveness. These views are echoed by Hotho and Champion (2010), who argue that even though it is difficult for organisations to balance exploration with the exploitation of innovation (ambidexterity), ambidextrous organisations balance the two to achieve the innovation imperative. On the basis of these arguments, the following hypothesis is put forward:

H_1: *Employees who engage in both OCB-I and OCB-O exhibit higher IWB than employees who engage in either OCB-I or OCB-O alone.*

OCB and organisational commitment

In addition to the effect OCB has on organisational effectiveness, there is merit in investigating the implications it has for those who engage in it. Spitzmuller et al. (2008) concede that there has been little research on the consequences of OCB for those who perform it. This is surprising, because it is widely acknowledged that engaging in OCB may result in the actor's wellbeing, one indicator of which is organisational commitment (Koopman et al. 2016; Van Scotter 2000). According

to Meyer and Allen (1991: 67), organisational commitment is 'one's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in a particular organization'; it comprises affective commitment (emotional attachment to the organisation), continuance commitment (awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation) and normative commitment (sense of obligation to remain in the employ of the organisation). In this article the focus is on affective commitment, because it is closely related to emotions and feelings.

Although many studies assume that organisational commitment is a precursor of OCB, direct temporal causality is difficult to confirm because most studies are cross-sectional in nature (Organ & Ryan 1995; Van Scotter 2000). Here, the assertion is made that engaging in OCB may result in affective commitment. Since engaging in helping behaviour (OCB-I) may generate personal resources such as social capital and work-related support, it can make employees feel good about themselves and their jobs (Koopman et al. 2016). Two attitudinal indicators of wellbeing are job satisfaction and affective commitment. Employees with high organisational commitment have high job satisfaction, and view their jobs and organisations as fulfilling and meeting their personal needs (Van Scotter 2000). Conversely, the resource allocation theory (Hobfoll 2002) holds that engaging in OCB-I may come at the expense of engaging in OCB-O and the perception of progressing towards goals (Koopman et al. 2016), which has implications for organisational commitment. In support of these assertions, Van Scotter (2000: 93) found that employees whose contextual performance (OCB) was previously high reported being more satisfied and committed than those whose OCB was previously low. While this result may be explained in terms of the conservation of resources theory, which posits that available resources help individuals generate more resources to create resource caravans/spirals which can boost performance (Bakker & Xanthopoulou 2013; Hobfoll 2002), it also lends support for the assertion that OCB may lead to affective commitment. Confirming this assertion, Koopman et al. (2016) found that OCB affected emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and organisational commitment through positive affect and the perception of progress toward goal achievement. In the context of schools, Runhaar, Konermann and Sanders (2013) found that teachers' work engagement related positively to both OCB-O and OCB-I.

It is therefore plausible that those employees who balance OCB-I and OCB-O can have higher affective commitment than those who engage in one, at the exclusion of the other. The following hypothesis can be put forward:

H_2: *Employees who engage in both OCB-I and OCB-O are more affectively committed than employees who engage in either OCB-I or OCB-O alone.*

Method

Research design

The current study adopted a cross-sectional quantitative research design. Specifically, semi-structured questionnaires were used to collect data.

Sample and procedures

The sample consisted of 110 teachers who attended part-time classes for their Bachelor of Education Primary (BEd Primary) degree at a medium-sized public university in Lesotho, and a further 100 teachers recruited from eight different high schools within the Maseru district.

The purpose of the study was communicated to participants in both samples, who were informed that participation was optional while anonymity and confidentiality were guaranteed.

With the permission of one of the facilitators, the participants recruited at the university were requested to fill out a questionnaire in class. In total, 95 useable questionnaires were returned – a return rate of 86%. Of the 100 questionnaires distributed to those recruited from schools, 54 (54%) were returned (about seven teachers per school), of which four questionnaires were not usable. Of the respondent sample, 73% were female and 27% male. Thirteen per cent of respondents were in the age group 20–30, 58% in the age group 31–40, 23% in the age group 41–50, and six per cent were above 50 years of age. Of the participants, who had an average tenure of 11.28 years (SD = 6.23), 74% did not have any supervisory responsibility, 22% were heads of department, and only four per cent held the position of school principal.

Measures

Innovative work behaviour: Nine items drawn from the scale developed by Janssen (2000) were used to measure individual IWB. Participants were asked to rate how often they performed innovative activities on a scale from 0 (never) to 4 (always). Sample items were '*creating original solutions for problems*' and '*making important school members enthusiastic about innovative ideas*'.

Affective commitment: Five items were adapted from the scale created by Cook and Wall (1980) to measure affective organisational commitment. On a scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), participants were asked to assess the extent to which they agreed with the listed statements. A sample item was '*I feel a strong sense of belonging to my school*'.

To examine the dimensionality of IWB and affective commitment, the principal component factor analysis (varimax rotation) was used (see Table 1).

Table 1: Factor analysis of IWB and affective commitment items

	Factor	
	1	2
Evaluating the utility of innovative ideas	**.893**	.116
Transforming innovative ideas into useful applications	**.889**	-.020
Making important school members enthusiastic about innovative ideas	**.852**	-.015
Introducing innovative ideas into the work environment in a systematic way	**.836**	.023
Generating original solutions for problems	**.832**	.189
Mobilising support for innovative ideas	**.773**	.009
Creating new ideas for difficult issues	**.722**	.136
Searching new working methods, techniques or instruments	**.707**	-.206
Acquiring approval for innovative ideas	**.617**	.223
I am quite proud to tell people that I work at my school	-.007	**.934**
I can recommend a close friend to work at my school	.015	**.907**
I feel a strong sense of belonging to my school	.127	**.904**
I am quite proud to be part of my school	.007	**.899**
I feel like 'part of the family' at my school	.122	**.827**
Extraction method: Principal component analysis. **Rotation method**: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation. Rotation converged in three iterations.		

As expected, two factors emerged from the factor analysis of IWB and affective commitment items. The Kaizer-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy indicated an adequate figure of 0.82 (which is better than the cut-off figure of 0.60), while Bartlett's test of sphericity ($X^2 = 520.39$, $df = 91$, $p \leq 0.001$) was significant and hence acceptable.

Factor 1 refers to IWB and factor 2 refers to affective commitment. The internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the overall IWB scale was 0.88. Even though that IWB scale was unidimensional, for the purposes of supplementary analyses the concept was separated into creativity ($\alpha = 0.67$) and innovation ($\alpha = 0.88$). The internal reliability of the affective commitment scale was 0.91. With the exception of the internal reliability of creativity scale, the internal reliability figures of other scales were higher than Nunnally's (1978) cut-off point of 0.70.

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB-I and OCB-O): To measure OCB types for the purpose of this study, participants were asked to respond to an open-ended question. They were prompted to think of instances (examples) of helpful job

behaviours which they frequently perform, but which are neither specifically part of their job description nor rewarded in their organisations. They were then asked to give a brief description of such behaviours. An inductive approach was used to gather and analyse the descriptions of OCB incidents given by the study participants. The incidents were classified into categories by means of content analysis, and an agreement index was constructed by a panel of three people – the first author and two other researchers (a PhD student in information systems and a lecturer in HRM) – who independently categorised and coded OCBs, collected through the open-ended question, as either OCB-I or OCB-O.

In a pre-analysis meeting, the panel had discussed and agreed to use Organ's (1988) definition of OCB (to decide whether the described behaviour was OCB) and Williams and Anderson's (1991) categorisation of OCBs (to decide whether the OCB was OCB-I, OCB-O or both).

Respondents who did not answer the open-ended question (or gave non-behavioural or ambiguous answers) were coded 0; those who gave answers reflecting OCB-I were coded 1; those whose answers reflected OCB-O were coded 2; and those reflecting both OCB-I and OCB-O were coded 3. There was an agreement in 89% of the OCB incidents, and after deliberation the panel agreed on the appropriate coding of the remaining incidents.

Analyses: The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, version 20) was used to analyse data. Specifically, the analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's post-hoc analyses were conducted to address the hypotheses.

Results

The inter-correlations of the study variables are shown in Table 2.

Table 2 indicates that the measure of OCB types correlated positively and significantly with IWB ($r = 22, p \leq 0.01$); creativity ($r = 18, p \leq 0.05$); innovation ($r = 20, p \leq 0.05$) and affective commitment ($r = 25, p \leq 0.05$). Even though affective commitment correlated significantly with innovation ($r = 19, p \leq 0.05$), it did not correlate significantly with IWB ($r = 15, p \geq 0.05$) and creativity ($r = 0.06, p \leq 0.05$). As could be expected, creativity and innovation correlated positively and strongly ($r = 66, p \leq 0.01$) because they are components of IWB.

Table 2: Means, standard deviations and inter-correlations of variables

Variable	Mean (SD)	α	IWB	Creativity	Innovation	Commitment	OCB
IWB	2.94 (0.64)	0.88	1				
Creativity	3.12 (0.58)	0.67	0.84**	1			
Innovation	2.83 (0.76)	0.88	0.96**	0.66**	1		
Commitment	3.88 (1.10)	0.91	0.15	0.06	0.19*	1	
OCB	–	–	0.22**	0.18*	0.20*	0.25**	1
* Correlation is significant at 0.05. ** Correlation is significant at 0.01							

To test for the differences in IWB and affective commitment across the types of OCB (none, OCB-I, OCB-O, and both OCB-I and OCB), the one-way ANOVA test was conducted. To further investigate the differences in IWB, supplementary ANOVA tests of OCB types across IWB components (creativity and innovation) were also conducted. The ANOVA results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: ANOVA results of the influence of types of OCB on IWB, creativity, innovation and commitment

OCB	**IWB**	**Sum of squares**	**df**	**Mean square**	**F**	**Sig.**
	Between groups	3.917	3	1.306	3.404	0.020
	Within groups	49.863	130	0.384		
	Total	53.780	133			
	CREATIVITY					
	Between groups	2.190	3	0.730	2.219	0.089
	Within groups	44.747	136	0.329		
	Total	46.937	139			
	INNOVATION					
	Between groups	5.627	3	1.876	3.404	0.020
	Within groups	73.845	134	0.551		
	Total	79.472	137			
	COMMITMENT					
	Between groups	11.177	3	3.230	3.404	0.024
	Within groups	156.878	136	1.154		
	Total	168.055	139			

As indicated in Table 3, IWB, innovation and commitment differed significantly across the OCB types (F '3, 130' = 3.40, p = 0.02; F '3, 134' = 3.40, p = 0.02; and F '3, 136' = 3.23, p = 0.02 respectively). Conversely, Table 3 suggests that employee creativity did not differ significantly across the coded OCB groups at the confidence level of 95% (F '3, 136' = 2.22, $p \geq 0.05$). The Tukey post-hoc multiple comparisons of OCB groups are shown in Table 4.

The Tukey post-hoc comparisons of groups indicated that employees who engaged in both OCB-I and OCB-O (M = 3.34, SD = 0.66) exhibited significantly higher IWB than those who did not report engaging in any type of OCB (M = 2.85, SD = 0.69), (p = 0.01, d = 92); and those who engaged only in OCB-I (M = 2.90, SD = 0.67), (p = 05, d = 96); and slightly higher than those who engaged only in OCB-O (M = 2.86, SD = 0.67), (p = 0.09, d = 91). In each case the effect size was found to exceed Cohen's (1988) cut-off point for a large effect (d = 0.80).

There were no statistically significant differences in performance of IWB among those who did not report engaging in any type of OCB, those who engaged only in OCB-I and those who only engaged in OCB-O ($p \geq 0.10$, d = trivial).

The mean score differences are plotted in Figure 2. While Figure 2 does not closely resemble Figure 1, because the latter is plotted based on only four points of grouped data, it strikingly resembles the inverted-U shape envisaged by Coldwell and Callaghan (2014).

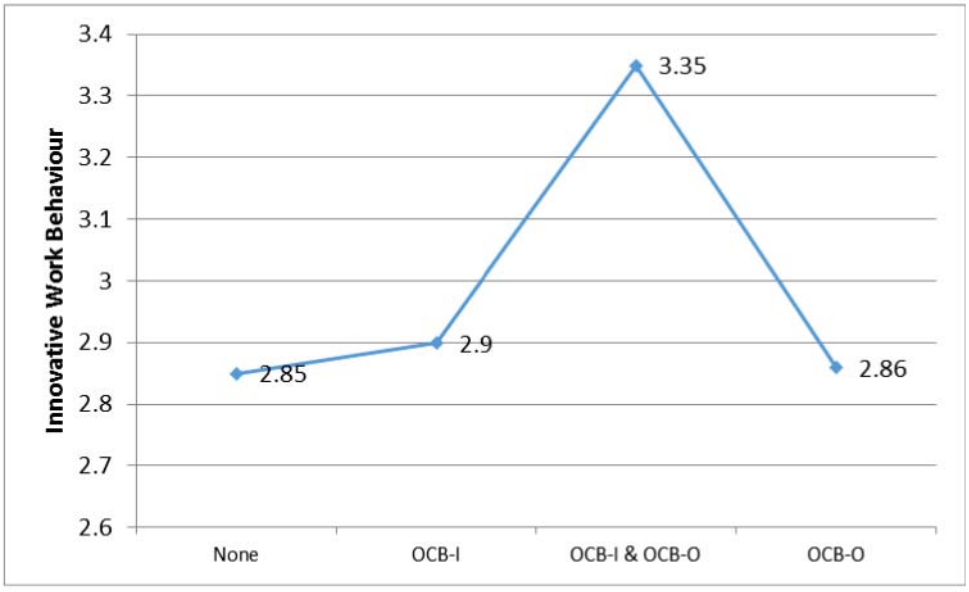

Figure 2: Impact of OCB types on IW

Table 4: Tukey post-hoc multiple comparisons of OCB types on IWB, creativity, innovation and commitment

Dependent variable	OCB engagement (I)	Comparison OCB group (J)	Mean (M) Difference (I-J)	Std. error	95% confidence interval		**Cohen's d**
					Lower bound	**Upper bound**	
IWB	OCBI (n=36, M=2.90, SD=0.67)	None (n=68, M=2.85, SD=0.69)	0.05	0.13	-0.29	0.39	0.08 Trivial
	OCBO (n=20, M=2.86, SD=0.67)	None (n=68, M=2.85, SD=0.69)	0.01	0.17	-0.43	0.45	0.02 Trivial
		OCBI (n=36, M=2.90, SD=0.67)	-0.04	0.18	-0.51	0.44	-0.06 Trivial
	OCBI & OCBO (n=21, M=3.34, SD=0.66)	None (n=68, M=2.85, SD=0.69)	**0.49****	0.16	0.08	0.91	**0.92 Large**
		OCBI (n=36, M=2.90, SD=0.67)	**0.44****	0.17	-0.01	0.90	**0.96 Large**
		OCBO (n=20, M=2.86, SD=0.67)	**0.48***	0.20	-0.05	1.01	**0.91 Large**
Creativity	OCBI (n=36, M=3.06, SD=0.56)	None (n=68, M=3.06, SD=0.61)	0.00	0.12	-0.31	0.31	0.00 None
	OCBO (n=20, M=3.12, SD=0.65)	None (n=68, M=3.06, SD=0.61)	0.06	0.15	-0.32	0.44	0.10 Trivial
		OCBI (n=36, M=3.06, SD=0.56)	0.06	0.16	-0.35	0.48	0.10 trivial
	OCBI & OCBO (n=21, M=3.42, SD=0.35)	None (n=68, M=3.06, SD=0.61)	0.36*	0.15	-0.02	0.74	0.73 Medium
		OCBI (n=36, M=3.06, SD=0.56)	0.36	0.16	-0.05	0.78	0.76 Medium
		OCBO (n=20, M=3.12, SD=0.65)	0.30	0.18	-0.17	0.77	0.56 Medium

Dependent variable	OCB engagement (I)	Comparison OCB group (J)	Mean (M) Difference (I-J)	Std. error	95% confidence interval		**Cohen's d**
					Lower bound	**Upper bound**	
Innovation	OCBI (n=36, M=2.79, SD=0.68)	None (n=68, M=2.74, SD=0.85)	0.05	0.16	-0.35	0.46	0.07 Trivial
	OCBO (n=20, M=2.68, SD=0.74)	None (n=68, M=2.74, SD=0.85)	-0.06	0.20	-0.59	0.46	-0.08 Trivial
		OCBI (n=36, M=2.79, SD=0.68)	-0.11	0.22	-0.69	0.45	-0.22 Small
	OCBI & OCBO (n=21, M=3.30, SD=0.35)	None (n=68, M=2.74, SD=0.85)	0.56**	0.19	0.08	1.05	**0.86 Large**
		OCBI (n=36, M=2.79, SD=0.68)	0.51*	0.20	-0.03	1.04	**0.93 Large**
		OCBO (n=20, M=2.68, SD=0.74)	0.62**	0.24	-0.01	1.26	**1.07 Large**
Commitment	OCBI (n=36, M=3.94, SD=1.18)	None (n=68, M=3.65, SD=1.10)	0.29	0.23	-0.30	0.88	0.26 Small
	OCBO (n=20, M=3.99, SD=1.16)	None (n=68, M=3.65, SD=1.10)	0.34	0.28	-0.40	1.08	0.30 Small
		OCBI (n=36, M=3.94, SD=1.18)	0.05	0.31	-0.77	0.87	0.04 Trivial
	OCBI & OCBO (n=21, M=4.46, SD=0.66)	None (n=68, M=3.65, SD=1.10)	0.81**	0.27	0.12	1.51	**0.90 Large**
		OCBI (n=36, M=3.94, SD=1.18)	0.52	0.30	-0.25	1.30	0.55 Medium
		OCBO (n=20, M=3.99, SD=1.16)	0.47	0.34	-0.42	1.38	0.51 Medium

Notes: *The mean difference is significant at the 0.1 level; ** The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level; ** The mean difference is significant at the 0.01 level. M = mean; SD = standard deviation. The computed figures have been rounded to two decimal places.

In summary, the results indicate that employees who engaged in both OCB-O and OCB-I reported higher IWB than those who solely engaged in either OCB-O or OCB-I. Hypothesis 1 is hence supported.

The Tukey post-hoc comparisons of OCB groups with regard to differences in innovation indicate that employees who engaged in both OCB-I and OCB-O (M = 3.30, SD = 0.35) exhibited significantly higher innovation than those who did not

report engaging in any type of OCB ($M = 2.74$, $SD = 0.85$), ($p = 0.02$, d =0.86); those who engaged only in OCB-O ($M = 2.68$, SD = 0.74), ($p = 05$, d = 1.07) and slightly higher than those who engaged only in OCB-I ($M = 2.79$, $SD = 0.68$), ($p = 0.07$; d = 0.93). In each case the effect size exceeded Cohen's convention for a large effect (d = 0.80).

There were no statistically significant differences in innovation among those who did not report engaging in any type of OCB, those who engaged only in OCB-I and those who only engaged in OCB-O ($p \geq 0.10$, d = trivial/small). Conversely, in line with Table 3, the Tukey post-hoc analysis with regard to differences in creativity indicated that OCB types differed slightly, but not significantly, in creativity ($p \geq 0.05$); and the effect sizes only reached Cohen's convention of a medium effect (d = 0.50). These results suggest that the differences of performance in IWB between those who engaged in both OCB-I and OCB-O, compared to those who engaged in either OCB-I or OCB-O alone, may be due to differences in innovation (idea support and idea implementation), not creativity (idea generation) *per se*.

With regard to affective commitment, the Tukey post-hoc analyses of groups indicate that employees who engaged in both OCB-I and OCB-O ($M = 4.46$, $SD = 0.66$) were significantly more committed than those who did not report engaging in any type of OCB ($M = 3.65$, $SD = 1.10$), ($p = 0.02$, d = 0.90). Even though employees who engaged in both OCB-I and OCB-O ($M = 4.46$, $SD = 0.66$) reported on average higher commitment than those who engaged only in OCB-I ($M = 3.94$, $SD = 1.18$), ($p = 0.30$, d= 0.55) and those who engaged only in OCB-O ($M = 3.99$, $SD = 1.16$), ($p = 0.51$, d = 0.51), the differences were not statistically significant ($p \geq 0.05$). In terms of effect sizes, the mean differences only reached Cohen's convention for a medium effect (d = 0.50).

In general, the differences in employee commitment can only be attributed to the mean differences between those who balance OCBs and those who did not report engaging in any OCB. The mean differences are plotted in Figure 3.

In summary, the statistically significant evidence was not found to support hypothesis 2.

Discussion

The extant literature suggests there is more research on the antecedents than the outcomes of OCB (Podsakoff et al. 2009). Of these outcomes, the majority highlight the importance of OCB, and only a few studies focus on its dark side (Koopman et al. 2016). There is also a paucity of research on the consequences of OCB for those who engage in it (Spitzmuller et al. 2008). Even though researchers tend to

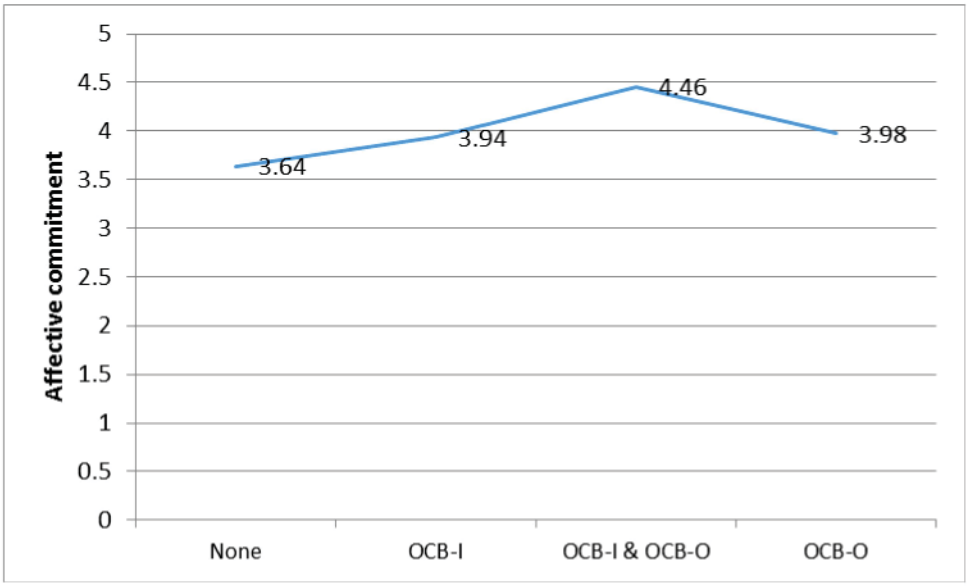

Figure 3: Impact of OCB types on affective commitment

categorise OCB into its components (e.g. OCB-I and OCB), the impact of these types of OCB on goal attainment and employee wellbeing is yet to be systematically and empirically tested. Based on Coldwell and Callaghan's (2014) OCB/ECB framework, the current article represents a modest attempt to bridge some of these gaps.

It was found that employees who engaged in both OCB-O and OCB-I reported higher IWB than employees who engaged in either OCB-O or OCB-I (at the exclusion of the other). While this article cannot rely on current data sets and results alone to definitively claim that engaging solely in either OCB-I or OCB-O reduced IWB, the results provided some support for Coldwell and Callaghan's (2014) claim that employees who balance OCB types can achieve higher organisational goals. It is noted that employees engaging in each type of OCB on average reported IWB above the mid-point of 2. It may be that, as indicated by Coldwell and Callaghan (2014) as a caution, some balancing of OCBs, however small, takes place in organisations: '[W]e cannot strictly speak of 100 percent personally oriented citizenship behaviour and zero percent organisationally oriented citizenship behaviour because human behaviour in organisations will always consist of some degree of both, however small' (Coldwell & Callaghan 2014: 359). Referring to the same issue, i.e., the balancing of behaviours, Bergeron (2007) suggests that even though OCB takes time away from

executing task activities, engaging in OCB can be helpful so long as employees also engage in task or in-role activities.

Based on the results, it is submitted that balancing types of OCBs may result in good performance, and engaging in predominantly OCB-O or OCB-I may result in relatively lower performance. This article cannot, however, account for the unsatisfactory performance exhibited by those who did not indicate the type of OCB they engaged in – an aspect which calls for further investigation.

Supplementary analyses revealed that employee innovation (not creativity) may be the variable that accounted for differences in engagement, in terms of IWB, between employees engaging in different types of OCBs. The immediate reason for this is not clear, but it may be attributed to the social nature of OCB (Organ 1997). It has been posited that creativity (idea generation) involves (relatively stable) intra-individual cognitive processes, whereas innovation primarily involves inter-individual processes which are amenable to social influences (Anderson et al. 2014: 1299).

Even though employees who engaged in both OCB-I and OCB-O reported on average higher commitment than those who engaged solely in either OCB-I or OCB-O, the differences were generally not statistically significant. Two reasons may be advanced to explain this unexpected finding. First, as indicated by Koopman et al. (2016), it is possible that, unlike work goal progress (indicated by IWB in this study) which is influenced directly by OCB, the relationship between OCB and affective commitment (wellbeing) is mediated by positive affect and work goal progress. Second, O'Connor (2008) suggests that teaching involves caring for others, and as such teachers find their jobs intrinsically satisfying, hence they are emotionally involved in their work. Since teachers are already affectively committed, it is possible that engaging in either OCB-I or OCB-O or both would not produce major differences in their commitment.

Koopman et al. (2016) imply that research should go beyond addressing whether OCB is good or bad. They aptly suggest that a more appropriate question could be: *For whom* is OCB good or bad, and why? This article suggests that it may also be important to ask and respond to the question: *When* is OCB good or bad for performance? The results of this study partly suggest that OCB can produce superior performance when OCB types have been duly balanced in organisations.

Limitations and prospects for future research

Like many studies of this nature, the current article has limitations that need to be considered before decisions are made. First, the way OCB types were measured was not fully structured, and hence involved some researchers' interpretations.

For example, one respondent would describe OCB examples in two lines, while another would use more than half a page. This did not help the members of the panel determine the extent to which a respondent engaged in the described type of OCB. The panel members were, however, advised to disregard the length of the narrative and rely on the type of OCB indicated by the respondent. Also, because of the qualitative nature in which OCB forms were ascertained, the panel could only produce categories of OCBs – however, the extent to which OCBs are performed may not be framed in categories. Future studies could find continuous ways of measuring OCBs, and use a mixed-methods approach to confirm or refute the propositions advanced here. Second, as the sample was small and confined to a particular profession (teaching), this limits the generalisability of the findings. Future studies can test the hypothesised relationships using larger and more diversified samples. Third, this study was cross-sectional in nature, and as such cannot claim causality of variables. Future work can include experimental and/or longitudinal approaches to confirm such causality. Fourth, while the use of different scales to measure different variables mitigated the problem of common method bias, this bias could not be totally eradicated because the study relied on one source to measure all variables using the same instrument. Future studies can benefit from using different sources of data to eliminate the problem of same-source bias. Fifth, instead of using an actual measure of effectiveness, IWB (behaviour) was used as an indicator of organisational effectiveness. It is, however, general practice to define performance criteria in terms of behaviours, the results of those behaviours and organisational effectiveness/performance (MacKenzie et al. 2011: 567). This study relied on behaviours because the latter two measures, though objective, can easily be confounded by factors beyond the employees' control (e.g. economic growth and access to markets).

Managerial implications

The results of this study have implications for individual as well as managerial action. Individual employees can easily be drawn into manifesting OCBs that are observable and rewarded (e.g. OCB-O) without difficulty, and ignore OCBs that are taken for granted, such as helping colleagues (OCB-I). Conversely, some employees (e.g. teachers) may decide to gratify the immediate need to serve others (students, in this case) and ignore activities that advance their organisation (e.g. serving on school committees). This study suggests that the unbalanced performance of OCBs can result in sub-optimum achievement. It is therefore recommended that employees be urged to balance OCBs to improve their performance and advance

their careers. Supervisors should encourage both forms of OCB and refrain from engaging in behaviours that reward only those OCBs that advance the short-term goals of the organisation. They can achieve this by adopting a long-term view of performance, and specifically adapting employees' performance appraisal systems to include measures that reflect both types of OCB. Zheng, Liu and Gong (2016) posit that leader attention scope and transformational leadership influence the extent to which employees balance exploitation and the exploration of innovation (ambidexterity). This study suggests that it is possible for employees who engage in both OCB-O and OCB-I to receive balanced support from their organisation and colleagues, to become more creative and innovative.

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