

**The Common Good:  
Examining Predictors of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors in Non-profit Staff**

Amanda Morita

A Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of  
The Chicago School of Professional Psychology  
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in  
Organizational Leadership

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Amanda Lynn Morita

2020

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### Abstract

The study examined potential predictors for organizational citizenship behaviors in paid non-profit staff. Hierarchical regression modeling ( $n = 502$ ) explored the direct effect of three types of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) and organizational identification on organizational citizenship behaviors. In addition, job satisfaction and perceived organizational support were examined as moderators of these relationships. Control variables included tenure, salary, and role clarity. Demographics variables included age, race/ethnicity, gender, organization size, and education. Salary, affective commitment, and organizational identification showed significant positive main effects on organizational citizenship behaviors. The moderator variables of job satisfaction and perceived organizational support were found to be non-significant to the relationship between organizational commitment and identification with organizational citizenship behaviors. Discussion and areas for future research are presented in Chapter 5.

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## Chapter 1: Nature of the Study

The Internal Revenue Service defines non-profit organizations as organizations organized and operated exclusively for exempt purposes set forth in section 501(c)(3) of the Revenue and Tax Code (Internal Revenue Service, 2017). Non-profit organizations can include those that promote the arts, culture, humanities, education, healthcare, and human services. Organizations that do not fall into these categories may be labor unions and business and professional organizations (McKeever & Gaddy, 2016). Mission-based organizations not only provide jobs and wages for their employees, but also provide opportunities for entrepreneurialism, leadership development, and professional development (National Council of Nonprofits, 2016).

Non-profit sector work is a rapidly growing industry in the United States. In 2014, non-profit employees made up 10.6% of the entire workforce and earned 8.9% of all wages paid. These organizations contributed 937.7 billion dollars to the United States economy in the same year, which equates to 5.4% of the Gross Domestic Product (National Council of Nonprofits, 2016).

In 2014, the non-profit sector saw a 76% increase in demand for services. In the same year, 28% of social and human service organizations were forced to lay off employees, freeze or reduce salaries, and reduce employee benefits. Most non-profits surveyed were unable to meet the community's demand for services and saw no hope for bridging that gap in the following year (McKeever, 2015).

### Background

There are many theories as to why non-profit organizations struggle to meet the demands placed upon them by their respective communities. One such theory suggests that the inability to retain staff long term due to conflicting values, goals, and ideas is a major contributor to this

inability to meet demands (McKeever, 2015). By and large, most staff working in non-profit organizations are unpaid volunteers who share some level of value alignment with the organization and its mission and goals (McKeever, 2015). Research into what keeps volunteer staff engaged and active in non-profit organizations is abundant, but there is a lack of exploration into what keeps paid staff engaged and active despite low pay, lack of benefits, and lack of upward mobility.

Volunteers often have monetary motivations outside of the non-profit world that make their unpaid commitment to an organization sustainable for them. They are able to provide for themselves and their families in ways that are not directly connected to their involvement with the non-profit organization and thus, are able to create and maintain time and task boundaries and remove themselves from the organization at-will (Vecina et al., 2013). Participation for this set of people is 100% voluntary and is the result of their value alignment with the organization, as well as their desire to see the mission of the organization come to fruition (Bang et al., 2013; Penner, 2002).

Paid staff in non-profit organizations do not share the same luxury as volunteer staff. They are bound by their organizational duties and responsibilities. While they are paid, it is often an unsustainable compensation that may require they supplement their income in other ways. Unless an organization is large and financially lucrative, there is rarely the option for benefits (medical insurance, retirement matching, paid time off) or upward mobility (Haslam et al., 2006). While many of these factors can contribute to feelings of exploitation, many paid staff remain committed to their organizations in the long term and exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors both intra-organizationally and inter-organizationally (Tang & Ibrahim, 1998; van Dick et al., 2006).

### **Problem Statement**

There is little understanding about what keeps paid staff engaged and active in non-profit organizations outside of the duties connected to their compensation. Non-profits consistently struggle to meet the demands of the respective communities they serve (McKeever, 2015). Reliance on paid staff who share value alignment with their organization and have high levels of organizational citizenship behaviors is essential to bridging the gap between service demand and service fulfillment (McKeever, 2015). Given the continued increase in the number of non-profit organizations and the number of staff working in them, it is important to better understand the non-monetary motivation of paid staff and their commitment to their organizations long term.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between organizational commitment, organizational identification and organizational citizenship behaviors through the lens of social identity and social exchange theory. This study examined the effect of organizational commitment and organizational identification on organizational citizenship behavior. In addition to the direct effect of organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behaviors, the study measured the moderating effect of job satisfaction and perceived organizational support on the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors.

### **Research Questions**

1. Does an individual's level of perceived organizational support (POS) moderate the effect of an individual's level of affective commitment (AC) on their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?

2. Does an individual's level of perceived organizational support (POS) moderate the effect of an individual's level of normative commitment (NC) on their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?
3. Does an individual's level of job satisfaction (JS) moderate the effect of an individual's level of affective commitment (AC) on their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?
4. Does an individual's level of job satisfaction (JS) moderate the effect of an individual's level of normative commitment (NC) on their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?
5. What is the effect of an individual's continuance commitment (CC) on the level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?
6. What is the effect of an individual's organizational identification (OI) on the level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?
7. Does an individual's role clarity within an organization have an effect on their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?
8. Does an individual's level of compensation have an effect on their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?
9. Does an individual's length of tenure within an organization have an effect on their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?

### **Conceptual Framework**

This study uses social identity theory and social exchange theory to examine the relationships between organizational commitment, organizational identification and organizational citizenship behaviors. Tidwell (2005) presented the social identity model of prosocial behaviors which showed that organizational commitment, organizational identification and organization satisfaction were predictors of prosocial behaviors.



Organizational identification is a specific type of social identity whereby an individual defines themselves in terms of their membership in a specific organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1995). Uncertainty reduction and self-enhancement are independent and fundamental human needs that motivate an individual's organizational identification (Hogg & Terry, 2000). The strength of one's organizational identification will determine their cognitive attachment to the organization, helping them make sense of their experiences, organize their thoughts, and anchor themselves (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Dutton et al., 1994). Individuals with a strong sense of organizational identity are shown to exhibit high levels of pride in their organizational membership (Tajfel, 1978).

Prosocial behaviors are behaviors that are enacted by an individual towards another individual (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). While individual prosocial behaviors are important to organizational functionality, the researcher is more interested in the existence of organizational citizenship behaviors, which are defined as behaviors that are solely for the benefit of the organization (Chattopadhyay, 1999; Kumar & Shah, 2015; Tang & Ibrahim, 1998).

Identifying organizational citizenship behaviors as the dependent variable in this study, the researcher hypothesized that the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors is moderated by job satisfaction and perceived organizational support, which is supported by the literature (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Dinc, 2017; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Fuller et al., 2003).

Demographic data of importance to this study includes age, race, gender, education, compensation, and tenure at the organization. These factors have been identified as key factors that increase the likelihood that an individual would engage in organizational citizenship behaviors (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Chattopadhyay, 1999; Lee, 2001; Tang & Ibrahim, 1998).

See Appendix A for a visual representation of the conceptual framework for this study.

### **Definition of Terms**

The key terms for this study and their definitions are as follows:

*Job Satisfaction (JS)*. Job satisfaction is defined as the degree of positive emotions an employee has towards a work role (Currivan, 1990; Dinc, 2017; Srivastava, 2013). Job satisfaction is a highly researched construct in the field of industrial and organizational psychology. The construct has been shown to be highly correlated with organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors, in some instances acting as a predictor of both constructs (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Srivastava, 2013; Williams & Anders, 1991).

*Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB)*. Organizational citizenship behaviors are defined as individual behaviors by people inside the organization that are discretionary, are not formally recognized or rewarded, and as a whole contribute to the success and promotion of the organization (Organ, 1988). These behaviors can exist both intra-organizationally and inter-organizationally. Organizational citizenship behaviors can be divided into two categories dependent upon the beneficiary of the behaviors: individual to individual and individual to organization (Lee & Allen, 2002). Studies have shown consistently that high levels of organizational commitment and organizational identification contribute to an individual's engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors (Tidwell, 2005; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

*Organizational Commitment (OC)*. Organizational commitment, as a construct, has been studied extensively, especially by researchers in the field of organization and management development. Organizational commitment has been shown to be influenced by the feelings of connection a volunteer or employee feels within their employing organization (Goulet & Frank,

2002; Vecina et al., 2013). Allen and Meyer (1990) identified the 3 conceptualizations of organizational commitment as affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Continuance commitment is commitment based on the cost the employee associates with leaving the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Normative commitment refers to the feelings of obligation an employee has about staying in an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

*Organizational Identification (OI)*. Organizational identification is a specific type of social identity whereby an individual defines themselves in terms of their membership in a specific organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1995). Uncertainty reduction and self-enhancement are independent and fundamental human needs that motivate an individual's organizational identification (Hogg & Terry, 2000). The strength of one's organizational identification will determine their cognitive attachment to the organization, helping them make sense of their experiences, organize their thoughts, and anchor themselves (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Dutton et al., 1994). Individuals with a strong sense of organizational identity are shown to exhibit high levels of pride in their organizational membership (Tajfel, 1978).

*Perceived Organizational Support (POS)*. Perceived organizational support can be interpreted as an individual's perception of an organization's commitment to them as a person, specifically as it pertains to the value placed on their contributions and the care they show for the individual's well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Perceived organizational support has been shown to increase positive behavioral and attitudinal outcomes within the workforce (Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Individuals with high levels of perceived organizational support tend to have a sense of obligation in repaying the organization for support

received (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Studies have consistently found that perceived organizational support is positively related to organizational commitment, primarily because an individual is more likely to become committed to an organization if they perceive the organization is committed to them (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; LaMastro, 1999).

*Role Clarity.* Role clarity is the clearly communicated expectations an employee receives from an employer with regards to their work performance, behaviors, and responsibilities (Lang et al., 2007; Rizzo et al., 1970). Perceived role clarity has been shown to reduce the ambiguity of an individual's role within an organization, increase their commitment, and strengthen their identification with the organization (Karim, 2010; Lang et al., 2007; Rizzo et al., 1970).

*Social Exchange Theory.* Social exchange theory suggests that given certain conditions, individuals within an organization seek to reciprocate behaviors to those who benefit from them (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Social exchange and the norm of reciprocity are key factors to positive attitude and behaviors in employees in an organizational setting (Settoon et al., 1996). Social exchange happens at two levels: (1) between employee and supervisor and (2) between employee and the organization (Settoon et al., 1996).

*Social Identity Theory.* Social identity can be defined as the self-conception an individual has about their group membership or their knowledge that they belong to a certain social group. This self-conception or knowledge combined with some emotional and value significance to them of the group membership makes up an individual's social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Social identity theory suggests that individuals categorize their world and the categories to which they belong are how they derive their sense of self (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Membership in various group categories (social identity) combined with idiosyncratic traits (personal identity) form the full self-concept of the individual (Abrams & Hogg, 1990; Hogg & Terry, 2000).

### **Significance of the Study**

The information that comes from this study will be used to inform best practices within non-profit organizations with regards to recruitment, hiring, training, and retention. In addition, non-profit organizations that employ paid staff may use this information to create and promote professional development and personal growth opportunities for their staff members.

### **Assumptions**

All measures for this study are self-report measures. Participants were expected to understand concepts and adequately report their connection to the concepts. Each participant may have interpreted concepts differently or measure their connection in a different way than other participants. Mitigating this threat required offering a clear explanation of concepts as they have been operationalized. Mitigating the threat in this manner reduced participant subjectivity.

### **Limitations**

The apprehension that existed with participants had the potential to influence how they self-report. Participants may have feared reprisal or judgment for providing honest answers about their employer and work environment. To mitigate this fear the researcher committed to maintaining anonymity and confidentiality of participants, including but not limited to, the secure storage of data with access limited to essential research team members.

## Chapter 2: Comprehensive Review of the Literature

### Chapter Overview

There is little understanding about what keeps paid staff engaged and active in non-profit organizations outside of duties connected to their compensation. Given the continual increase in the number of non-profit organizations and the number of staff working in them, it is imperative that we better understand the non-monetary motivation of paid staff and their commitment to their organizations long term. This chapter explores the concepts of this study in greater detail and connects them to one another, as laid out in the relevant literature.

### Social Identity Theory

Social identity can be defined as self-conception as a group member or the individual's knowledge that he or she belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him or her of the group membership (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Social identity theory suggests that individuals categorize their world and the categories to which they belong are how they largely derive their sense of self (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Membership in various group categories (social identity) combined with idiosyncratic traits (personal identity) form the full self-concept of the individual (Abrams & Hogg, 1990).

Social identity theory is the result of wanting to better understand group level social conflict (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Taylor & Moghaddam, 1994), but does not go so far as to reduce the individual to their group affiliations. While recognizing that personal identification is salient, social identity theory suggests that social identification is salient as well (Abrams & Hogg, 1990). Social identity is grounded in the 'in group' versus 'out group' identification of individuals (Tajfel & Turner, 1985).

The key factors that contribute to social identity are the distinctiveness of the group's values and practices in relation to those of comparable groups, the salience of out-groups, and the prestige of the group in question (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Several foundational studies have examined the way group identification is formed (Tajfel & Turner, 1985) and supports the supposition that the knowledge that one is a member of a certain group makes up a substantial part of their identity (Taylor & Moghaddam, 1994).

The foundation of social identity theory is the idea that one's identity and self-concept are the result of social factors. The individual is deemed multifaceted and is shaped by interaction with society (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Stets & Burke, 2000). Individual identity is formed through direct experiences and relationships in the world at large. This contributes to an individual's identity formation in that the individual is continuously comparing themselves to others based upon social categories and classifications (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Stets & Burke, 2000; Tajfel, 1974).

The individual may belong to many groups and occupy many roles, often at the same time. Each of these roles and belongings can provide meaning, identity, and expectations for the individual. Identity, once formed, can influence attitudes and behaviors (Doosje et al., 1999). Specifically, identifying with a work group leads individuals to consider the collective goals of the group and internalize those goals as their own. When this happens, the individual sets aside their own individual interests, deeming them less important (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006).

### **Social Identity in Organizations**

Non-profits can brand and sell a unique type of identity. Individuals may interact with non-profits as employees, donors, or volunteers, all of which contribute in some way to the

overall mission of this type of organization to promote social good. When employees prioritize the group goals and interest over their own, they are often willing to accept reduced salaries in exchange for the ‘psychic income’ they receive because of membership in the group.

Social identity theorists suggest that when individuals feel a connection with the non-profit they work in, they value their attachments and work to enhance the organization through increased volunteerism and cooperation (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Batson et al., 2002; Becker & Dhringa, 2001, Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Participants are motivated to increasingly serve the organization because it improves the organization’s image and functionality, as well as indirectly improves the individual’s “positive social identity” (Dutton et al., 1994; Smidts et al., 2001; Tajfel, 1978). Strong organizational identification has been shown to increase prosocial behaviors in for-profit organizations (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986) and may explain related behaviors among non-profit staff and volunteers (Becker & Dhringa, 2001; Penner, 2002).

Organizational identification is a specific type of social identity whereby an individual defines themselves in terms of their membership in a specific organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1995). Uncertainty reduction and self-enhancement are independent and fundamental human needs that motivate an individual’s organizational identification (Hogg & Terry, 2000). The strength of one’s organizational identification will determine their cognitive attachment to the organization, helping them make sense of their experiences, organize their thoughts, and anchor themselves (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Dutton et al., 1994). Individuals with a strong sense of organizational identity are shown to exhibit high levels of pride in their organizational membership (Tajfel, 1978).



Self-definition is a core concept in social identity theory. In an organizational context, this self-definition leads to the linkage between the individual and the organization (Tavares et al., 2016). Organizational identification leaves individuals with a perception of oneness and belonging with the organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Individuals who feel connected to an organization, will internalize that feeling and it will become a central part of their sense of who they are (van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). In this situation, the individual moves from seeing themselves as independent from the organization to seeing themselves as a true and integral part of the organization, leading to shared value alignment, goals, and objectives (Tavares et al., 2016). The greater the alignment between the individual and the organization, the more likely individuals are to behave in ways that prioritize the benefits to the organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994; van Knippenberg, 2000)

### **Social Exchange Theory**

Social exchange theory suggests that given certain conditions, individuals within an organization seek to reciprocate behaviors to those who benefit them (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Social exchange and the norm of reciprocity are key factors to positive attitude and behaviors in employees in an organizational setting (Settoon et al., 1996). Social exchange happens at two levels: (1) between employee and supervisor and (2) between employee and the organization (Settoon et al., 1996).

Reciprocity is a core concept of social exchange theory and it is the assumption that the organization will reward the individual for individual behaviors that benefit the organization (Tavares et al., 2016). The norm of reciprocity is best reflected in the concept of perceived organizational support. When an employee perceives the organization has their best interests in

mind, the employee is more likely to engage in behaviors that benefit the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

### **Organizational Citizenship Behaviors**

Organizational citizenship behaviors are defined as individual behaviors by people inside the organization that are discretionary, are not formally recognized or rewarded, and as a whole contribute to the success and promotion of the organization (Organ, 1988). These behaviors can exist both intra-organizationally and inter-organizationally. Organizational citizenship behaviors can be divided into two categories dependent upon the beneficiary of the behaviors: individual-to-individual and individual-to-organization (Lee & Allen, 2002). Studies have shown consistently that high levels of organizational commitment and organizational identification contribute to an individual's engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors (Tidwell, 2005; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

There are two specific types of organizational citizenship behaviors: functional and dysfunctional (Lee, 2001). Functional behaviors contribute to the success and accomplishment of organizational goals and objectives while dysfunctional behavior detracts from the organization's effectiveness (Lee, 2001). Organization citizenship behaviors can be either role-prescribed or extra-role, which implies that these behaviors may or may not be a requirement of a specific role within the organization (Lee, 2001).

### **Non-profit Organizations and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors**

Non-profit organizations are unique in their need for committed and engaged staff, whether paid or unpaid (McKeever, 2015; McKeever & Gaddy, 2016). Funding disparity and governmental policies have an impact on how these organizations carry out their missions and goals (McKeever & Gaddy, 2016; National Council of Nonprofits, 2016). It is imperative that

staff find value alignment, and both commit and identify with the organization to increase the likelihood that they will engage in behaviors that are beneficial to the organization overall (Bang et al., 2013; Tidwell, 2005; Vecina et al., 2013).

The Internal Revenue Service defines non-profit organizations as “organizations organized and operated exclusively for exempt purposes set forth in section 501(c)(3) of the Revenue and Tax Code Add quotation mark here? (Internal Revenue Service, 2017). Non-profit organizations can include those that promote the arts, culture, humanities, education, healthcare, and human services. Organizations that do not fall into these categories may be labor unions and business and professional organizations (McKeever & Gaddy, 2016). Mission-based organizations not only provide jobs and wages for their employees, but also provide opportunities for entrepreneurialism, leadership development, and professional development (National Council of Nonprofits, 2016).

Non-profit sector work is a rapidly growing industry in the United States. In 2014, non-profit employees made up 10.6% of the entire workforce and earned 8.9% of all wages paid (McKeever, 2015; McKeever & Gaddy, 2016; National Council of Nonprofits, 2016). These organizations contributed 937.7 billion dollars to the United States economy in the same year, which equates to 5.4% of the Gross Domestic Product (National Council of Nonprofits, 2016).

In 2014, the non-profit sector saw a 76% increase in demand for services (McKeever, 2015; McKeever & Gaddy, 2016; National Council of Nonprofits, 2016). In the same year, 28% of social and human service organizations were forced to lay off employees, freeze or reduce salaries, and reduce employee benefits. Most non-profits surveyed were unable to meet the community’s demand for services and saw no hope for bridging that gap in the following year (McKeever, 2015; McKeever & Gaddy, 2016; National Council of Nonprofits, 2016).

Given the growth of the non-profit sector and its contribution to the United States economy, more Americans are working in or for non-profit organizations (McKeever & Gaddy, 2016). Due to an increased demand in health services, hospitals and healthcare organizations are growing and expanding, which has led to a greater need for workers in this area (McKeever & Gaddy, 2016). More than half of all non-profit workers are employed in the healthcare and social assistance industry which includes hospitals, mental health centers, crisis hotlines, blood banks, soup kitchens, senior centers, and similar organizations (McKeever, 2015).

It is difficult to identify the total number of non-profit organizations operating in the United States, as religious congregations and organizations with less than \$50,000 in annual revenue are not required to register with the Internal Revenue Service (McKeever, 2015). However, in 2016, the National Council of Nonprofits calculated that more individuals in the United States work for non-profit organizations than national defense, construction, real estate, and space research combined (National Council of Nonprofits, 2016). Given the large number of employees in this sector, it is unclear why the largest and most significant areas of missing data focus on employees (McKeever, 2015).

### **Determinants of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors**

The literature suggests there are many determinants of organizational citizenship behavior. Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational identification have been shown to have the greatest positive direct effect on these behaviors (Lee, 2001). Determinants of importance, but not explored in depth in this study are leadership styles, organizational climate, organizational stressors, and learning/modeling (Lee, 2001). Other determinants that are less significant are positive work attitudes, group cohesiveness, and reinforcement contingencies (Lee, 2001).

## Organizational Commitment

Many studies have noted the positive effects of organizational commitment on behaviors within the organizational context. Tidwell (2005) found that organization commitment has a positive effect on prosocial behaviors. Riketta (2002) found that increased commitment was directly related to an increase in engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors.

Organizational commitment, as a stand-alone construct, has been studied extensively, especially by researchers in the field of organization and management development. It is defined as the relative strength of an individual's attachment with and involvement in an organization (Goulet & Frank, 2002). Allen and Meyer (1990) identified the 3 conceptualizations of organizational commitment as affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization. Continuance commitment is commitment based on the cost the employee associates with leaving the organization. Normative commitment refers to the feelings of obligation an employee has about staying in an organization.

Organizational commitment has been shown to be influenced by the feelings of connection a volunteer or employee feels within their employing organization (Goulet & Frank, 2002; Vecina et al., 2013). The most connected volunteers and employees are those who believe the organization shares their values and motivations (Bang et al., 2013). The existence of shared values and motivations between workers and the organization lead to greater levels of job satisfaction, overall well-being, and a desire to remain engaged with the employing organization (Bang et al., 2013; Goulet & Frank, 2002; Vecina et al., 2013).

Non-profit organizations experience a higher level of organizational commitment from volunteers and employees when compared to for-profit and public sector organizations (Goulet

& Frank, 2002). Research into what makes volunteers and employees in non-profit organizations more likely to make long term commitments shows that the greatest predictor of organizational commitment is the ability to see their work as challenging, interesting, and enjoyable, rather than stressful and demanding (Vecina et al., 2013). Non-profit organizations striving to retain long term commitments from their workers focus on creating opportunities for deeper connection and engagement, which influences the workers' overall wellbeing and sense of belonging (Bang et al., 2013; Goulet & Frank, 2002; Vecina et al., 2013).

### ***Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction***

Organizational commitment and job satisfaction have been studied extensively, both as individual constructs and as connected constructs (Bang et al., 2013; Currivan, 1990; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Huang & Hsaio, 2007). Studies have supported the theory that job satisfaction has a significant positive effect on both affective and normative commitment. While not significant, it has some influence on continuance commitment (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017). The empirical evidence suggests that the roles of job satisfaction and organizational commitment on one another are highly contextual. Sharma and Bajpai (2010) found that organizational commitment was a predictor of job satisfaction, while Eslami and Gharakhani (2012) found that job satisfaction was a predictor of organizational commitment. Also in 2012, Norizan conducted a study which found that none of the 3 dimensions of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) had a predictive effect on job satisfaction.

### ***Perceived Organizational Support***

Perceived organizational support can be interpreted as an individual's perception of an organization's commitment to them as a person, specifically as it pertains to the value placed on their contributions and the care they show for the individual's well-being (Eisenberger et al.,

1986). Perceived organizational support has been shown to increase positive behavioral and attitudinal outcomes within the workforce (Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Individuals with high levels of perceived organizational support tend to have a sense of obligation in repaying the organization for support received (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Studies have consistently found that perceived organizational support is positively related to organizational commitment, primarily because an individual is more likely to become committed to an organization if they perceive the organization is committed to them (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; LaMastro, 1999).

### ***Role Clarity***

Role clarity is the clearly communicated expectations an employee receives from an employer with regards to their work performance, behaviors, and responsibilities (Lang et al., 2007; Rizzo et al., 1970). Role clarity or definition contributes to individual identification within an organization (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). When roles are clearly defined, feelings of self-esteem connected to the organization are increased and this contributes to job satisfaction and a sense of obligation or commitment to the organization (Blader et al., 2017). Perceived role clarity has been shown to reduce the ambiguity of an individual's role within an organization, increase their commitment, and strengthen their identification with the organization (Karim, 2010; Lang et al., 2007; Rizzo et al., 1970).

### **Demographic Determinants of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors**

Demographics may have a large impact on whether individuals engage in organizational citizenship behaviors and to what degree (Chattopadhyay, 1999). Organizational specific demographics such as compensation and length of tenure are important to consider in the

motivation to engage in organizational behaviors, while age, race, gender and education level may be important to the responsiveness of individuals to such behavior (Chattopadhyay, 1999).

### **Compensation**

The nature of non-profit work is such that organizations often rely heavily on volunteer labor and retain few paid staff members (McKeever, 2015). The relevant literature suggests that pay will have a significant impact on the commitment, identification, and citizenship behaviors within the organization.

### **Tenure**

Individual time commitment to an organization has been shown to have an impact on their commitment to the organization, their identification with the organization and their citizenship behaviors within the organization (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017).

### **Summary**

As non-profit organizations continue to grow and become a larger part of the U.S. economy, it is important to explore the core concepts of organizational theories within them. Social identity theory explains how individuals develop an identity within an organization and social exchange theories explains how that identity impacts the person to person or person to organization exchange within an organization. A well-formed social identity contributes to a strong organizational identity and strong organizational identity leads to proactive engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors.

Organizational citizenship behaviors are key to the success of non-profit organizations, especially in the current economic climate. Exploring the relationship between organizational commitment, organizational identification and organizational citizenship behaviors through the



lenses of social identity theory and social exchange theory may help to reinforce mutually beneficial behavior between individuals and the organizations in which they work.

### Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology

This study is a quantitative study examining the unique relationships between organizational commitment, organizational identification, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Due to the inclusion of the moderating variables, job satisfaction and perceived organizational support, the data from this study was analyzed using a multiple linear regression model. Study design, participant criteria, sampling strategies, measurements and instruments, and procedures are detailed below.

#### Rationales, Research Questions, Hypotheses, and Statistical Results

There is little understanding about what keeps paid staff engaged and active in non-profit organizations outside of the duties connected to their compensation. Non-profits consistently struggle to meet the demands of the respective communities they serve (McKeever, 2015). Reliance on paid staff who share value alignment with their organization and demonstrate organizational citizenship behaviors is essential to bridging the gap between service demand and service fulfillment (McKeever, 2015). Given the continued increase in the number of non-profit organizations and the number of staff working in them, it is imperative that we better understand the non-monetary motivation of paid staff and their commitment to their organizations long term.

#### **Affective commitment, normative commitment, perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behaviors**

Individuals with high levels of perceived organizational support tend to have a sense of obligation in repaying the organization for support received (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Studies have consistently found that perceived organizational support is positively related to organizational commitment, primarily because an individual is more likely to become committed to an organization if they perceive the organization is committed to them (Eisenberger &

Stinglhamber, 2011; LaMastro, 1999). The specific type of organizational commitment impacted by perceived organizational support is not reported, therefore, focusing on the sub-type of organizational commitment may reveal relevant information about this relationship.

Research Question 1: Does an individual's level of perceived organizational support (POS) moderate the effect of an individual's level of affective commitment (AC) on their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?

Null Hypothesis 1: Perceived organizational support (POS) will not moderate the effect of affective commitment (AC) on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB).

Alternative Hypothesis 1: Perceived organizational support (POS) will moderate the effect of affective commitment (AC) on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB).

Specifically, the effect of affective commitment (AC) on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) will be stronger when perceived organizational support (POS) is high and weaker when perceived organizational support (POS) is low.

Statistical Result: The affective commitment (AC) by perceived organizational support (POS) interaction would need to be significant ( $p < .05$ ) for partial support of alternative hypothesis 1.

Research Question 2: Does an individual's level of perceived organizational support (POS) moderate the effect of an individual's level of normative commitment (NC) on their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?

Null Hypothesis 2: Perceived organizational support (POS) will not moderate the effect of affective commitment (AC) on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB).

Alternative Hypothesis 2: Perceived organizational support (POS) will moderate the effect of normative commitment (NC) on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB).

Specifically, the effect of normative commitment (NC) on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) will be stronger when perceived organizational support (POS) is high and weaker when perceived organizational support (POS) is low.

Statistical Result: The normative commitment (NC) by perceived organizational support (POS) interaction would need to be significant ( $p < .05$ ) for partial support of alternative hypothesis 2.

### **Affective commitment, normative commitment, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors**

Organizational commitment and job satisfaction have been studied extensively, both separately and in relation to one another. Many of these studies have supported the theory that job satisfaction has a significant positive effect on both affective and normative commitment (Bang et al., 2013; Currivan, 1990; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Huang & Hsaio, 2007). Empirical evidence suggests that the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment is highly contextual, with studies showing job satisfaction as a predictor of organizational commitment as well as the reverse (Eslami & Gharakhani, 2012; Sharma & Bajpai, 2010).

Research Question 3: Does an individual's level of job satisfaction (JS) moderate the effect of an individual's level of affective commitment (AC) on their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?

Null Hypothesis 3: Job satisfaction (JS) will not moderate the effect of affective commitment (AC) on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB).

Alternative Hypothesis 3: Job satisfaction (JS) will moderate the effect of affective commitment (AC) on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Specifically, the effect

of affective commitment (AC) on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) will be stronger when job satisfaction (JS) is high and weaker when job satisfaction (JS) is low.

Statistical Result: The affective commitment (AC) by job satisfaction (JS) interaction would need to be significant ( $p < .05$ ) for partial support of alternative hypothesis 3.

Research Question 4: Does an individual's level of job satisfaction (JS) moderate the effect of an individual's level of normative commitment (NC) on their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?

Null Hypothesis 4: Job satisfaction (JS) will not moderate the effect of normative commitment (NC) on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB).

Alternative Hypothesis 4: Job satisfaction (JS) will moderate the effect of normative commitment (NC) on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Specifically, the effect of normative commitment (NC) on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) will be stronger when job satisfaction (JS) is high and weaker when job satisfaction (JS) is low.

Statistical Result: The normative commitment (NC) by job satisfaction (JS) interaction would need to be significant ( $p < .05$ ) for partial support of alternative hypothesis 4.

### **Continuance commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors**

Choosing to stay embedded in an organization because of the personal cost and sacrifice required to leave demonstrates a high level of continuance commitment (Panaccio et al., 2014). Several studies indicate that individuals who have high levels of continuance commitment are committed to the organization, but only as it meets their needs (Maertz & Campion, 2004). This increases the likelihood that individuals in this category are not engaging in prosocial behaviors at the same rate as those who demonstrate affective or normative commitment (Bentein et al., 2005).

Research Question 5: What is the effect of an individual's continuance commitment (CC) on the level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?

Null Hypothesis 5: Continuance commitment (CC) will have no effect on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB).

Alternative Hypothesis 5: Continuance commitment (CC) will have an effect on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). As an individual's level of continuance commitment (CC) increases, their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) will decrease.

Statistical Result: The effect of continuance commitment (CC) on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) will need to be significant ( $p < .05$ ) for partial support of alternative hypothesis 5.

### **Organizational identification and organizational citizenship behaviors**

Individuals with a strong sense of organizational identity are shown to exhibit high levels of pride in their organizational membership (Tajfel, 1978). Individuals who feel connected to an organization will internalize that feeling and it will become a central part of their sense of self (van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). The greater the alignment between the individual and the organization, the more likely individuals are to behave in ways that prioritize the benefits to the organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994; van Knippenberg, 2000).

Research Question 6: What is the effect of an individual's organizational identification (OI) on the level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?

Null Hypothesis 6: Organizational identification (OI) will have no effect on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB).

Alternative Hypothesis 6: Organizational identification (OI) will have an effect on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Specifically, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) will be stronger when organizational identification (OI) is high and weaker when organizational identification (OI) is low.

Statistical Result: The effect of organizational identification (OI) on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) would need to be significant ( $p < .05$ ) for partial support of alternative hypothesis 6.

### **Role clarity and organizational citizenship behaviors**

Role clarity or role definition contributes to individual identification within an organization (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). When roles are clearly defined, feelings of self-esteem connected to the organization are increased and this contributes to job satisfaction and a sense of obligation or commitment to the organization (Blader et al., 2017).

Research Question 7: Does an individual's role clarity within an organization have an effect on their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?

Null Hypothesis 7: Role clarity will have no effect on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB).

Alternative Hypothesis 7: Role clarity will have an effect on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Specifically, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) will be stronger when role clarity is high and weaker when role clarity is low.

Statistical Results: The effect of role clarity on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) would need to be significant ( $p < .05$ ) for partial support of alternative hypothesis 7.

## Compensation and organizational citizenship behaviors

The nature of non-profit work is such that organizations rely heavily on volunteer labor and retain few paid staff members (McKeever, 2015). Identification with an organization is increased when an individual is chosen as one of the few paid staff members, which is likely to have an impact on commitment and engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors (Chattopadhyay, 1999; McKeever, 2015).

Research Question 8: Does an individual's level of compensation have an effect on their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?

Null Hypothesis 8: Level of compensation will have no effect on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB).

Alternative Hypothesis 8: Level of compensation will have an effect on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Specifically, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) will be stronger when level of compensation is high and weaker when level of compensation is low.

Statistical Results: The effect of level of compensation on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) would need to be significant ( $p < .05$ ) for partial support of alternative hypothesis 8.

## Tenure and organizational citizenship behaviors

Individual time commitment to an organization has been shown to have an impact on their commitment to their organization, their identification with the organization and engagement in citizenship behaviors within the organization (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017).

Research Question 9: Does an individual's length of tenure within an organization have an effect on their level of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)?



Null Hypothesis 9: Length of tenure will have no effect on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB).

Alternative Hypothesis 9: Length of tenure will have an effect on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Specifically, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) will be stronger when length of tenure is longer and weaker when length of tenure is shorter.

Statistical Results: The effect of length of tenure on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) would need to be significant ( $p < .05$ ) for partial support of alternative hypothesis 9.

See Appendix A for Conceptual Framework Map.

### **Procedure**

This study used an online survey that gathered participant responses around the constructs of organizational citizenship behaviors, organizational commitment, organizational identification, job satisfaction, perceived organizational support, and role clarity. Demographic data about race, age, gender, income, length of employment, and education level was collected from participants. Participants were anonymous and their responses were confidential. No identifying information was collected. The risks associated with this type of research are minimal and include a potential breach in confidentiality.

All participants were made aware of the potential risk and were asked to certify their consent to participate in the study. The document paid out all procedures, as they took place, and assured participants of the voluntary nature of participation. All participants were given the opportunity to make a final decision about submission of their responses.

Data was collected through an online survey. The researcher created an online survey through a reputable online survey vendor. This survey consisted of six empirically validated measures and a demographic survey. Data was collected from the online survey which was given to the survey vendor's panel who met study participation requirements. Prior to screening or exposure to the study's measures, participants were presented with an informed consent form. Upon consent to participate in the study, potential participants were presented with a screening sheet asking them to identify in which industry they are employed and whether that employment is full time (30 or more hours per week) or part time (less than 30 hours per week). If the potential participant met the inclusion criteria (full-time employment in the human and social services/mental health services industry of the non-profit sector), they were allowed to complete the survey.

See Appendix C for the screening sheet and Appendix D for the informed consent form.

Participants received each of the six measures in a randomly generated order. Each measure was completed and submitted independent of one another in an effort to avoid instances of missing or incomplete data. Individual measures were required to be completed in their entirety before participants were able to move to the next measure. Following completion of all six measures, participants were asked to respond to a demographic survey to collect information about race, age, gender, income, length of employment, education level, non-salary benefits, and organization size.

See Appendix K for the complete demographic survey.

Upon completion of the demographic survey, participants were thanked for their participation. In addition, the contact information for the researcher was made available should the participant have follow-up questions or an interest in the study outcome. All data collected

through online survey measures was kept confidential and made available only to the research team.

### **Participants and Sampling**

Convenience sampling was used to recruit participants to this study. There are two criteria for participation in this study: (1) full-time status and (2) employment in the human and social services/mental health services industry of the non-profit sector. Full time status refers to working thirty or more hours per week. Employment refers to the receipt of monetary compensation in exchange for an individual's work product. A g-power analysis was conducted using 30 predictors as the baseline. The result for a significant sample size was 192. In order to account for missing, incomplete, or unusable data an extra 30% of that number was added to the final sample size. The total sample size necessary to show statistical significance for this study is 250 individuals. Due to the number of predictors in this study and the likelihood that additional statistical testing may be necessary on subgroups of the sample, the study will seek out an additional 250 participants, bringing the total sample size to 500.

See Appendix B for G-Power analysis.

### **Instrumentation**

There were eight variables to be measured for this study. Six of the eight variables were measured using a previously validated instrument. The instruments have been tested for reliability and have been shown to accurately measure the construct they are tailored to measure. The remaining two variables (level of compensation and length of tenure) were included in the demographic survey for this study.

### **Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale**

The organizational citizenship behavior scale was developed in 2002 by Lee and Allen. The scale is made up of 16-items and is designed to measure how often an individual participates in citizenship behaviors within their organization. The measure focuses on two distinct components of organizational citizenship behaviors: individual-to-individual and individual-to-organization.

The instrument uses a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) never to (7) always. Respondents are asked to select the point on the scale the best represents how often they engage in specific behaviors. Sample statements from the individual-to-individual portion of this measure are, “I help others who have been absent,” “I assist others with their duties,” and “I share personal property with others to help their work.” Sample statements from the individual-to-organization portion of this measure are, “I keep up with the developments in the organization,” “I express loyalty towards the organization,” and “I show pride when representing the organization in public.”

This scale has a Cronbach’s alpha score of .83 for the individual-to-individual portion and a score of .88 for the individual-to-organization portion. Lee and Allen (2002) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis with sample size of 155. The two-factor model confirmed the empirical distinction between individual-to-individual OCB and individual-to-organization OCB.

See Appendix E for the full organizational citizenship behavior scale.

### **Organizational Commitment Scale**

The organizational commitment questionnaire was developed in 2004 by Rego and Souto. This measure was adapted from the original Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed and validated by Allen and Meyer in 1990. The scale is made up of 14-items, with 5

items measuring affective commitment, 5 items measuring continuance commitment, and 4 items measuring normative commitment.

The instrument uses a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) the statement doesn't apply to me at all to (7) the statement applies to me completely. Respondents are asked to select their level of agreement with statements such as, "I really care about the fate of this organization (affective)," "I remain in this organization because leaving would imply great personal sacrifices (continuance)," and "I feel I owe a great deal to this organization (normative)."

This scale has a Cronbach's alpha score of .85 for the affective commitment portion, .76 for the normative commitment portion, and .86 for the continuance commitment portion. Convergent validity was tested against the original Allen and Meyer (1990) 3-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. The convergent validity score for this measure was  $r = .70$ .

See Appendix F for the full organizational commitment questionnaire.

### **Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) Short Form**

The Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire was developed in 1967 by Weiss et al. This measure was adapted from the original Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) Long form developed and validated by Weiss et al. in 1967. The scale is made up of 20-items and is designed to measure an individual's level of satisfaction with their current job. The instrument specifically measures intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and general satisfaction.

The instrument uses a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) very dissatisfied to (5) very satisfied. Respondents are asked to select their level of satisfaction with statements such as, "My level of satisfaction with being able to keep busy all the time is..." and "My level of satisfaction with the change to work alone on the job is..."

This scale has a Cronbach's alpha score of .86 for intrinsic satisfaction, .80 for extrinsic satisfaction, and .90 for general satisfaction. When tested for validity against the original Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Long Form, the short form was found to have parallel validity.

See Appendix G for the full Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short Form.

### **Perceived Organizational Support Measure**

The perceived organizational support measure was developed in 2013 by Cheng et al. The scale is made up 6-items and is designed to measure the individual's perception of their organization's support. This measure is adapted from the survey of perceived organizational support created by Eisenberger et al. in 1986. The measure consists of 5 positive statements and 1 negative statements. All negative statements will be reverse coded during data analysis.

The instrument uses a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) does not describe at all to (7) describes exactly. Respondents are asked to select their level of agreement with statements such as, "The organization values my contributions to its wellbeing," and "The organization strongly considers my goals and values."

This scale has a Cronbach's alpha score of .92. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using the original survey of perceived organizational support created by Eisenberger et al. (1986). The analysis confirmed the measure's convergent validity.

See Appendix H for the full survey of perceived organizational support.

### **Organizational Identification Questionnaire**

The organizational identification questionnaire was developed in 2004 by Gautum et al. The scale is made up of 8-items and is designed to measure in the level of identification an individual has with an organization. This measure is adapted from the organizational

identification questionnaire originally designed by Cheney in 1983. The measure consists of 8 positive statements and 0 negative statements. No reverse coding will be necessary for this measure.

The instrument uses a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. Respondents are asked to select their level of agreement with statements such as, “I am proud to be an employee of the organization,” “I have warm feelings towards the organization as a place to work,” and “I tell others about projects the organization is working on.”

This scale has a Cronbach’s alpha score of .70. A confirmatory one-factor analysis showed the adapted 8-item scale was sufficiently reliable to assess organizational identification with a validity score of .90 when compared to the original organizational identification questionnaire. In addition, a confirmatory factor analysis to examine discriminant validity showed that while the adapted scale is correlated to measures of organizational commitment, it is distinguishable as an independent concept with validity scores of .65 with affective commitment, .29 with continuance commitment, and .67 with normative commitment (Gautum et al., 2004).

See Appendix I for the full organizational identification questionnaire.

### **Role Clarity**

The role clarity questionnaire was created by Rizzo et al. in 1970. The scale is made up of 4-items and is designed to measure an individual’s role clarity within their organization. The measure consists of 4 positive statements and 0 negative statements. No reverse coding will be necessary for this measure.

The instrument uses a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. Respondents are asked to select their level of agreement with statements such as

“I know exactly what is expected of me” and “There are clear planned goals and objectives for my job.”

This scale has a Cronbach’s alpha score of .87. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted and produced validity scores of .74 for item 1, .84 for item 2, .80 for item 3, and .87 for item 5 (Karim, 2010).

See Appendix J for the full role clarity questionnaire.

### **Demographic Questionnaire**

The demographic questionnaire for this study consisted of 9 items, 2 of which are control variables. The questionnaire asked 6 questions about individual demographics: age, gender, race, education level, income level, and length of employment. Three additional questions were asked about the organization in which they work: number of employees, types of benefits provided by the organization, and how their salary compares to others in similar roles in the for-profit sector. Though information was collected about length of employment and income level from the demographic survey, these variables were treated as control variables in this study.

### **Data Processing**

Data collected during the data collection phase of this study was analyzed using a hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis. The goal of this analysis was to explore which of the study variables have an effect on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) and explain variances in organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) scores. The regression model for this study was made up of 4 blocks of variables. As each block is tested for correlation, the next block of variables was added to the testing model. In addition to multiple linear regression analysis, other statistical analyses were conducted as needed.

Table 1 details each of the 4 blocks in this model.



**Table 1***Multiple Linear Regression Variable Blocks*

Block 1	Block 2	Block 3	Block 4
Age Gender Race Education Benefits Org. Size	Block 1 + Role clarity Compensation Tenure	Block 1 + Block 2 + Perceived Organizational Support Job Satisfaction Affective Commitment Normative Commitment Continuance Commitment Organizational Identification	Block 1 + Block 2 + Block 3 + Affective Commitment X Perceived Organizational Support Affective Commitment X Job Satisfaction Normative Commitment X Perceived Organizational Support Normative Commitment X Job Satisfaction

**Dependent and Independent Variables**

The dependent variable in this study is organizational citizenship behaviors. The primary independent variables of interest are affective organizational commitment, normative organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment and organizational identification. Control variables for this study are role clarity, level of compensation, and length of tenure, in addition to other control variables. Interactions were tested.

**Organizational Citizenship Behaviors**

Organizational citizenship behaviors are defined as individual behaviors by people inside the organization that are discretionary, are not formally recognized or rewarded, and as a whole contribute to the success and promotion of the organization (Organ, 1988). Studies have consistently shown that high levels of organizational commitment and organizational identification contribute to an individual's engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors (Tidwell, 2005; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

**Organizational Commitment**

Organizational commitment has been shown to be influenced by the feelings of connection a volunteer or employee feels with their employing organization (Goulet & Frank,

2002; Vecina et al., 2013). Allen and Meyer (1990) identified the 3-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. The components are affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment.

Affective commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Goulet & Frank, 2002).

Normative commitment refers to the feelings of obligation an employee has about staying in an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Vecina et al., 2013). Continuance commitment is commitment based on the cost the employee associates with leaving the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Goulet & Frank, 2002).

### **Organizational Identification**

Organizational identification is a specific type of social identity whereby an individual defines themselves in terms of their membership in a specific organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1995). Individuals with a strong sense of organizational identity are shown to exhibit high levels of pride in their organizational membership (Tajfel, 1978). Strong organizational identification has been shown to increase prosocial behaviors in for-profit organizations (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) and may explain related behaviors among paid non-profit staff and volunteers (Becker & Dhringa, 2001; Penner, 2002).

### **Moderating Variables**

A moderating variable is a non-primary variable that effects the strength of the relationship between a primary independent variable and the dependent variable (Darlington & Hayes, 2017). The effect may be negative, positive, or neutral. This study introduced job satisfaction and perceived organizational support as moderating variables in the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors.

## **Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction is defined as the degree of positive emotions an employee has towards a work role (Currivan, 1990; Dinc, 2017; Srivastava, 2013). Job satisfaction is a highly researched construct in the field of industrial and organizational psychology. The construct has been shown to be highly correlated with organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors, in some instances acting as a predictor of both constructs (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Srivastava, 2013; Williams & Anders, 1991). Due to the nature of these empirical relationships, it was believed that job satisfaction would moderate the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors.

## **Perceived Organizational Support**

Perceived organizational support can be interpreted as an individual's perception of an organization's commitment to them as a person, specifically as it pertains to the value placed on their contributions and the care they show for the individual's well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Perceived organizational support has been shown to increase positive behavioral and attitudinal outcomes within the workforce (Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Individuals with high levels of perceived organizational support tend to have a sense of obligation in repaying the organization for support received (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Studies have consistently found that perceived organizational support is positively related to organizational commitment, primarily because an individual is more likely to become committed to an organization if they perceive the organization is committed to them (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; LaMastro, 1999).

## **Control Variables**

Demographics may have a large impact on whether individuals engage in organizational citizenship behaviors and to what degree (Chattopadhyay, 1999). Organizational specific demographics such as compensation, tenure, and role clarity are important to consider in the motivation to engage in organizational behaviors, while age, race, and gender may be important to the responsiveness of individuals to such behavior (Chattopadhyay, 1999). These factors have been identified as key factors that increase the likelihood that an individual would engage in organizational citizenship behaviors (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Chattopadhyay, 1999; Lee, 2001; Tang & Ibrahim, 1998). For the purposes of this study, these variables were treated as control variables.

### **Compensation**

Compensation of study participants by their organizations is of major importance to this study. The nature of non-profit work is such that organizations often rely heavily on volunteer labor and retain few paid staff members (McKeever, 2015). The relevant literature suggests that pay will have a significant impact on the commitment, identification, and citizenship behaviors within the organization (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Koslowsky et al., 1991). Information about compensation was collected during the administration of the demographic portion of the online survey. Respondents self-reported their compensation using preset income brackets.

### **Tenure**

Length of employment, whether paid or unpaid, of study participants was also of importance to this study. An individual's time commitment to an organization has been shown to have an impact on their commitment to the organization, their identification with the organization and their citizenship behaviors within the organization (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017;

McKeever & Gaddy, 2016). Information about tenure was collected during the administration of the demographic portion of the online survey. Respondents self-reported the length of their tenure in years and months.

### **Role Clarity**

Role clarity or definition contributes to individual identification within an organization (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). When roles are clearly defined, feelings of self-esteem connected to the organization are increased and this contributes to job satisfaction and a sense of obligation or commitment to the organization (Blader et al., 2017). Information about role clarity was collected using the role clarity questionnaire, designed by Rizzo et al. in 1970.

### **Demographics**

Demographic information has been shown to have some impact on an individual's engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors (Chattopadhyay, 1999). Specifically, age, gender, education and race have been shown to have this impact in specific organizational contexts (Chattopadhyay, 1999). For the purposes of this study, impact of demographic data on organizational citizenship behaviors was examined in a purely exploratory manner.

### **Summary**

This chapter details the methods and procedures that were used to conduct this study. It introduced the reader to the study's research questions and hypotheses, as well as to study design, sampling information, and instrument selection and rationale. Moderating and control variables were explained.

## **Chapter 4: Findings**

### **Introduction**

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the effect of organizational commitment and organizational identification on organizational citizenship behaviors amongst paid staff working in non-profit human and social service organizations. In addition to the direct effect of organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behaviors, the study also explored the moderating effect of job satisfaction and perceived organizational support on the relationship between the two.

This chapter provides an analysis of the data collected and a summary of the research findings. Included in this chapter are demographics and descriptive statistics of the sample population and a moderated hierarchical regression model testing the significance of predictor variables on organizational citizenship behaviors. Results are presented in an effort to accept or reject the null hypotheses presented in Chapter 3.

### **Setting and Sample Specifics**

Participants for this study were surveyed through a third-party vendor, which disseminated the study protocol via direct email solicitation. Screening questions built into the survey and additional screening conducted by the third-party vendor ensured that all survey takers were part of the targeted demographic. Participants self-identified as paid full-time staff working in non-profit organizations providing human and social services. No other criteria were required. See Appendix L for instrument reliability scores.

The participant pool was geographically diverse within the United States, but no specific location information was collected. The final sample size was 502 participants. Due to the need for a high number of completions, the survey was created to require responses for all questions

before participants were allowed to move on to more questions. All 502 participants completed the survey protocol in its entirety and all participants were included in the data analysis.

### **Demographics**

All participants were required to complete the demographic portion of the survey protocol which included two categories of questions: individual identity demographics and individual occupational demographics. Individual identity demographics consisted of questions about age, race/ethnicity, gender, and education. Individual occupational demographics consisted of questions about tenure length in their current organization, annual compensation, organization size, access to benefits, and how they compared their compensation to their for-profit counterparts. This demographic information was used to understand the diversity in the sample and to control for variances in final survey scores.

The identity demographics of age, gender, and ethnicity of the sample population was found to be highly representative of the targeted demographic population at large. The mean age range of study participants was 36 – 41 years old, with 61% of the sample population falling into the 24 to 41-year age range, while 77% of the sample population identified as Caucasian or white. The majority of the sample population identified as female with a total of 86%. Education levels demonstrated high levels of college and graduate degrees, with 46% of the sample population holding a bachelor's degree and 28% holding a master's degree.

The occupational demographics of salary, tenure, organization size, benefits, and for-profit comparison show the connection individuals have to their organization. The mean salary range for the sample population was \$30,001 - \$50,000 with 98% of the sample population reporting some type of extra-salary benefit provided by their organization. With regards to organization size, 45% reported working in an organization with 100 or less employees and 60%

of the sample population reported a tenure length of 1 – 5 years in their organization. When asked to compare their compensation to for-profit counterparts, 55% reported their salaries to be slightly less than for-profit or substantially less than for-profit salaries.

All demographics information was used in the data analysis at different stages, with the exception of for-profit salary comparisons. This information was collected for potential exploratory testing but was not tested in the following data analysis.

See Appendix M for complete demographic breakdowns.

### **Descriptive Statistics**

The dependent variable for this study was organizational citizenship behaviors ( $M = 5.22$ ;  $SD = 1.20$ ). The independent variables of primary interest for this study were affective organizational commitment ( $M = 5.48$ ;  $SD = 1.22$ ), continuance organizational commitment ( $M = 4.41$ ;  $SD = 1.38$ ), normative organizational commitment ( $M = 3.79$ ;  $SD = 1.26$ ), and organizational identification ( $M = 5.32$ ;  $SD = 1.09$ ). The moderator variables for this study were perceived organizational support ( $M = 4.69$ ;  $SD = 1.20$ ) and job satisfaction ( $M = 3.87$ ;  $SD = 0.64$ ). Tenure ( $M = 1.81$ ;  $SD = 1.28$ ), salary ( $M = 3.66$ ;  $SD = 1.1.70$ ), and role clarity ( $M = 5.52$ ;  $SD = 1.30$ ) were included as control variables.

See Appendix N for complete descriptive statistics.

### **Comparing Means**

Independent samples t-tests and one-way ANOVAs were conducted on all categorical variables to determine whether there was a significant difference between the groups included in the sample. Variables where no statistical significance was found were excluded from the final multiple hierarchical linear regression model.



### t-tests

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare organizational citizenship behaviors between male and female participants. There was not a significant difference in the scores for males ( $M = 5.4$ ,  $SD = 1.22$ ) and females ( $M = 5.2$ ,  $SD = 1.19$ );  $t(500) = 1.275$ ,  $p = .203$ . An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare organizational citizenship behaviors between participants who received employment benefits and those who did not receive employment benefits. There was not a significant difference in the scores for recipients ( $M = 5.2$ ,  $SD = 1.19$ ) and non-recipients ( $M = 5.3$ ,  $SD = 1.40$ );  $t(500) = .261$ ,  $p = .794$ .

### ANOVAs

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare organizational citizenship behaviors between age groups, tenure groups, and ethnicity groups. There was no statistically significant difference between age groups on the effect of organizational citizenship behaviors  $F(8, 493) = .786$ ,  $p = .615$ . There was no statistically significant difference between tenure groups on the effect of organizational citizenship behaviors  $F(8, 493) = 1.441$ ,  $p = .177$ . There was no statistically significant difference between ethnicity groups on the effect of organizational citizenship behaviors  $F(5, 496) = .844$ ,  $p = .519$ .

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare organizational citizenship behaviors between salary groups, education groups, and organization size groups. There was a statistically significant difference between salary groups on the effect of organizational citizenship behaviors  $F(9, 492) = 3.101$ ,  $p = .001$ . There was a statistically significant difference between education groups on the effect of organizational citizenship behaviors  $F(5, 496) = 3.098$ ,  $p = .009$ . There was a statistically significant difference between organization size groups on the effect of organizational citizenship behaviors  $F(12, 489) = 2.046$ ,  $p = .019$ .

Due to the significance of these results, salary, education, and organization size were included in the hierarchical regression model.

### **Regression Model**

A hierarchical regression model was designed containing 4 blocks (see Appendix O). The regression analysis was run using a bootstrap procedure with 5,000 samples and a 95% confidence interval with bias correction and acceleration.

Significant F-values were found for block 2 where  $F(4, 497) = 18.319, p < .001$ , block 3 where  $F(10, 491) = 39.609, p < .001$  and block 4 where  $F(14, 487) = 28.932, p < .001$ . Marginally significant F-values were found for block 1 where  $F(1, 500) = 3.724, p = .054$ . See Appendix Q for complete preliminary regression analysis results.

Though block 4 was found to be marginally statistically significant, further exploration of the values showed that the significant interaction was only occurring at extremely high levels of job satisfaction, where  $N = 2$ . As a result, block 4 was removed from the analysis. A regression analysis was completed a second and final time.

### **Model Summary**

An updated hierarchical regression model design with 3 blocks was used to run the final regression analysis (see Appendix P). The analysis was run using a bootstrap procedure with 5,000 samples and a 95% confidence interval with bias correction and acceleration.

A marginally significant F-value was found for block 1 where  $F(1, 500) = 3.724, p = .054$ . Significant F-values were found for block 2 where  $F(4, 497) = 18.319, p < .001$  and block 3 where  $F(10, 491) = 39.609, p < .001$ . Block 2 significantly explained a large amount of the variance in organizational citizenship behaviors ( $R^2 = .128, \Delta F(3, 497) = 23.020, p < .001$ ).

Block 3 significantly explained a large amount of the variance in organizational citizenship behaviors ( $R^2 = .447$ ,  $\Delta F(6, 491) = 47.017$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Block 3 is the best fitting model, as it accounts for the most significant variance in the outcome variable and has a significant  $\Delta F$  value. Tolerance scores were above .2 indicating that multicollinearity was not a concern in this model.

See Appendix R for complete regression analysis results.

### Coefficients

Coefficients were interpreted using the bootstrap procedure with a 95% confidence interval and bias correction and acceleration. Three significant main effects were found: salary, affective organizational commitment, and organizational identification.

Salary significantly predicted organizational citizenship behaviors ( $b = .094$ ,  $\beta = .134$ ,  $SE = .023$ , BCa 95% (.049, .136). The main effect is positive, indicating that for every 1 unit of increase in salary, measured in units of \$10,000, organizational citizenship behaviors increase by .094 units.

Affective commitment significantly predicted organizational citizenship behaviors ( $b = .441$ ,  $\beta = .451$ ,  $SE = .083$ , BCa 95% (.277, .612). The main effect is positive, indicating that for every 1 unit of increase in affective commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors increase by .441 units.

Organizational identification significantly predicted organizational citizenship behaviors ( $b = .242$ ,  $\beta = .231$ ,  $SE = .086$ , BCa 95% (.075, .414). The main effect is positive, indicating that for every 1 unit of increase in organizational identification, organizational citizenship behaviors increase by .242 units.

The remaining seven variables in block 3 did not produce a significant main effect on organizational citizenship behaviors.

See Appendix R for complete regression analysis results.

### **Summary**

Chapter 4 presented the statistical findings of the study. Specific demographic information about the sample population was presented and demonstrated a fair representation of the targeted demographic population at large. Descriptive statistics were presented for the dependent variable and all independent variables of interest. The results of independent samples t-tests and one-way ANOVAs for all categorical variables in the study were introduced and used to rationalize which variables would remain in the hierarchical regression model. Hierarchical regression model analysis showed three variables had a main effect on organizational citizenship behaviors, while no moderating effect was found as hypothesized in earlier chapters.

## Chapter 5: Discussion, Limitations, and Conclusions

### Study Summary

Chapter 1 introduced the study by presenting the background of non-profit organizations and their need for committed and engaged staff. A large amount of research has been conducted to explore the reasons staff stay in for-profit settings long term, historically identifying fiscal motivators as the primary reasons (Argarwal & Sajid, 2017; Devece et al., 2016; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). The study introduced the hypothesis that a staff member's value alignment with a non-profit organization may play some part in the staff member's desire to stay committed and engaged, despite low fiscal gain. Non-profits consistently struggle to meet the demands of the respective communities they serve (McKeever, 2015). Reliance on paid staff who share value alignment with their organization and demonstrate organizational citizenship behaviors is essential to bridging the gap between service demand and service fulfillment (McKeever, 2015).

Chapter 2 introduced a comprehensive literature review. Social identity theory and social exchange theory were discussed as frameworks through which one can examine the connection non-profit staff have with their employing organization. The concept of organizational citizenship behaviors is introduced and connected to other important workplace concepts. Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and perceived organizational support are discussed at length, specifically in relation to how they affect non-profit staff and organizations.

Chapter 3 laid out a quantitative approach to studying the relationship between commitment, identification, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Detailed rationale, hypotheses and research questions were presented. The procedure for identifying a sample population, collecting data, and analyzing that data was outlined. A moderated multiple linear

regression model was created for exploring both main effects and moderating effects of independent variables on the outcome variable, organizational citizenship behaviors.

Chapter 4 presented the findings from all statistical analysis procedures. The population demographics were explained and descriptive statistics for independent variables were presented. A regression model (N = 502) was created to test the study hypotheses. The findings failed to reject the null hypothesis for 7 of the 9 research questions. The findings support the alternative hypotheses for 2 of the 9 research questions and identified a significant main effect that was not listed as a research question.

### **Interpretation of Findings**

The focus of interpretation for this study's research questions is the final version of the regression model analysis.

#### **Research Question 1**

The first research question examined the moderating effect of perceived organizational support on the relationship between affective organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors. The regression analysis indicated there was no significant moderating effect and therefore failed to reject the null hypothesis. The data did show that affective organizational commitment did have a significant main effect on organizational citizenship behaviors. While affective organizational commitment was significant as a main effect, support was not found to show perceived organizational support moderated this effect.

#### **Research Question 2**

The second research question examined the moderating effect of perceived organizational support on the relationship between normative organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors. The regression analysis indicated there was no significant moderating

effect and therefore failed to reject the null hypothesis. This indicates that an individual's perceived organizational support neither strengthens nor weakens the relationship between their normative organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors.

### **Research Question 3**

The third research question examined the moderating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between affective organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors. The regression analysis indicated there was no significant moderating effect and therefore failed to reject the null hypothesis. The data did show that affective organizational commitment did have a significant main effect on organizational citizenship behaviors. While affective organizational commitment was significant as a main effect, support was not found to show job satisfaction moderated this effect.

### **Research Question 4**

The fourth research question examined the moderating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between normative organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors. The regression analysis indicated there was a marginally significant moderating effect ( $p = .054$ ). While technically failing to reject the null hypothesis, the interaction was explored further with additional analysis. In looking more closely at the influence of job satisfaction on the relationship between normative commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors, the influence happened only at very high levels of job satisfaction ( $n = 2$ ). This indicates that an individual's job satisfaction neither strengthens nor weakens the relationship between their normative organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors. Any conclusions concerning employees at very high levels of job satisfaction are obscured by the very small number of employees at this level of job satisfaction.

**Research Question 5**

The fifth research question examined the direct effect of continuance commitment on organizational citizenship behaviors. The regression analysis showed there was no significant effect and therefore failed to reject the null hypothesis. This indicates that an individual's organizational citizenship behaviors are not affected by their continuance commitment in non-profit settings.

**Research Question 6**

The sixth research question examined the direct effect of organizational identification on organizational citizenship behaviors. The regression analysis showed there was a significant positive effect, thereby rejecting the null hypothesis and confirming the alternative hypothesis, stating that organizational citizenship behaviors will be stronger when organizational identification is high and weaker when organizational identification is low.

**Research Question 7**

The seventh research question examined the direct effect of role clarity on organizational citizenship behaviors. The regression analysis showed there was no significant effect and therefore failed to reject the null hypothesis. This indicates that an individual's organizational citizenship behaviors are not affected by their role clarity.

**Research Question 8**

The eighth research question examined the direct effect of salary on organizational citizenship behaviors. The regression analysis showed there was a significant positive effect, thereby rejecting the null hypothesis and confirming the alternative hypothesis, stating that organizational citizenship behaviors will be stronger when salary is high and weaker when salary is low.



### **Research Question 9**

The ninth research question examined the direct effect of tenure on organizational citizenship behaviors. The regression analysis showed there was no significant effect and therefore failed to reject the null hypothesis. This indicates that an individual's organizational citizenship behaviors are not affected by their tenure.

### **Discussion of Direct Effects**

The discussion of the results below is based on the final model analysis of direct effects and did not include any interactions. The data analysis showed three of the variables tested produced significant direct effects on non-profit staff's organizational citizenship behaviors: affective organizational commitment, organizational identification, and salary.

### **Affective Organizational Commitment**

Research questions 1 and 3 were concerned with the moderated effect of affective organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behaviors. While the moderator variables of perceived organizational support and job satisfaction were found not to be significant in the relationship between affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors, affective organizational commitment alone proved to have the most significant direct effect ( $\beta = .451$ ) on organizational citizenship behaviors. This indicates a strong positive effect of affective organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behaviors in non-profit settings.

Affective organizational commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The most connected volunteers and employees are those who believe the organization shares their values and motivations (Bang et al., 2013). The existence of shared values and motivations between

workers and the organization lead to greater levels of job satisfaction, overall well-being, and a desire to remain engaged with the employing organization (Bang et al., 2013; Goulet & Frank, 2002; Vecina et al., 2013).

### **Organizational Identification**

Research question 6 explored the direct effect of organizational identification on an individual's organizational citizenship behaviors. Organizational identification proved to have the second largest significant direct effect ( $\beta = .231$ ) on organizational citizenship behaviors, indicating that non-profit staff who identify with their place of employment have higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors. This indicates a moderate positive effect of organizational identification on organizational citizenship behaviors in non-profit settings.

Organizational identification is a specific type of social identity whereby an individual defines themselves in terms of their membership in a specific organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1995). The strength of one's organizational identification will determine their cognitive attachment to the organization, helping them make sense of their experiences, organize their thoughts, and anchor themselves (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Dutton et al., 1994). Individuals with a strong sense of organizational identity are shown to exhibit high levels of pride in their organizational membership (Tajfel, 1978).

### **Salary**

Research question 8 explored the direct effect of salary on an individual's organizational citizenship behaviors. Salary showed the weakest significant direct effect ( $\beta = .134$ ) indicating that non-profit staff who are adequately and appropriately compensated have higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors. This indicates a weak positive effect of salary on organizational citizenship behaviors in on-profit settings. Salary is an important motivator in all

jobs, regardless of the type of organization; however, there is an indication that while salary is important, non-monetary motivators are more important when looking at staff in non-profit organizations.

### **Discussion**

For-profit and non-profit organizations both benefit from the positive outcomes of organizational citizenship behaviors in their employees. An individual who is connected to their organization, both cognitively and emotionally, have proven to be the most effective in promoting the advancement of the organizations in which they work (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Bang et al., 2013; Blader et al., 2017). While there are many similarities around what these behaviors look like in for-profit and non-profit settings, the present results indicate that the contribution to higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors are distinctly different in for-profit and non-profit settings.

#### **Organizational Citizenship Behaviors in For-Profit Organizations**

In contrast to non-profit organizations, relevant literature shows that the largest determinates of organizational citizenship behaviors in for-profit settings are equitable salary, job satisfaction, and normative and continuance organizational commitment (Argarwal & Sajid, 2017; Davila & Garcia, 2012; Dinc, 2017; Messersmith et al, 2011).

#### ***Social Exchange Theory***

Social exchange theory suggests that given certain conditions, individuals within an organization seek to reciprocate behaviors to those who benefit from them (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Social exchange and the norm of reciprocity are key factors to positive attitude and behaviors in employees in an organizational setting (Settoon et al., 1996). Social exchange happens at two levels: (1) between employee and supervisor and (2) between employee and the

organization (Settoon et al., 1996). Reciprocity is a core concept of social exchange theory and it is the assumption that the organization will reward the individual for individual behaviors that benefit the organization (Tavares et al., 2016).

### ***Salary as a Motivator***

Salary is a clear motivator for most employees, regardless of the type of organization. In for-profit settings the likelihood that there is room for professional growth and financial gain is high. In addition to a salary, there is often the commitment to additional benefits of being employed by the organization, such as medical insurance, retirement matching, and monetary bonuses for productivity. In these settings, the knowledge that there is room to advance is enough to contribute to higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors (Argarwal & Sajid, 2017; Davila & Garcia, 2012; Dinc, 2017; Messersmith et al, 2011).

### ***Job Satisfaction***

Job satisfaction is defined as the degree of positive emotions an employee has towards a work role (Currivan, 1990; Dinc, 2017; Srivastava, 2013). This differs from organizational commitment in that the positive emotions are about the job role rather than the employing organization. Job satisfaction is a highly researched construct in the field of industrial and organizational psychology (Mahanta, 2012; Panaccio et al., 2014; Srivastava, 2013). The construct has been shown to be highly correlated with both organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors, in some instances acting as a predictor of both constructs (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Srivastava, 2013; Williams & Anders, 1991).

### ***Normative & Continuance Organizational Commitment***

Normative commitment refers to the feelings of obligation an employee has about staying in an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). These obligations may be of a personal nature, such

as an employee knowing they would be leaving the organization short staffed should they leave, or concrete, such as written contracts guaranteeing an employee remains with the organization for a set period of time in exchange for training or education. While the majority of the benefit from these types of obligations is with the employer, the employee may experience guilt or fear of reprisal should they decide to leave the organization. When this type of commitment exists for an employee, new opportunities outside of the organization come with a great deal of indecisiveness and weighing the pros and cons of taking on those opportunities (Devece et al., 2016). Normative commitment leads to higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors and are connected to the desire of the employee to meet their obligations to their organization (Devece et al., 2016).

Continuance commitment is commitment based on the cost the employee associates with leaving the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This type of commitment shows up when employees believe that leaving the organization would hurt them more than help them. Examples of costs associated with leaving may be loss of medical insurance, loss of retirement benefits, and loss of promotion opportunities. This type of commitment can influence an employee's organizational citizenship behaviors in that any positive growth in the organization could benefit them directly, therefore, their own promotion of the organization can be seen as contributing to their own positive professional growth (Devece et al., 2016).

### ***Organizational Identification***

Organizational identification is a specific type of social identity whereby an individual defines themselves in terms of their membership in a specific organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1995). In for-profit settings, like in non-profit settings, it looks like value alignment and a self-concept that is connected to the reputation of the organization. In fact, people who strongly

identify with their organization may find it difficult to view themselves as anything different than the embodiment or the representation of the organization. It is in the best interest of the employee who identifies with their organization to have high levels of organizational citizenship behaviors, as their self-concept is affected by the organization's reputation (Evans & Davis, 2014; Ng, 2015).

### **Organizational Citizenship Behaviors in Non-Profit Organizations**

In contrast to for-profit organizations, the data from this study shows that the emotional connection an employee has with their employing organization is more important, in terms of their organizational citizenship behaviors, than is salary.

### ***Social Identity Theory***

Social identity can be defined as the self-conception an individual has about their group membership or their knowledge that they belong to a certain social group. This self-conception or knowledge combined with some emotional and value significance to them of the group membership makes up an individual's social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Social identity theory suggests that individuals categorize their world and the categories to which they belong are how they derive their sense of self (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Membership in various group categories (social identity) combined with idiosyncratic traits (personal identity) form the full self-concept of the individual (Abrams & Hogg, 1990; Hogg & Terry, 2000).

### ***Affective Organizational Commitment***

Affective organizational commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Research into what makes employees in non-profit organizations more likely to make long term commitments shows that the greatest predictor of organizational commitment is the ability to see their work as

challenging, interesting, and enjoyable, rather than stressful and demanding (Vecina et al., 2013). Non-profit organizations striving to retain long term commitments from their workers focus on creating opportunities for deeper connection and engagement, which influences the workers' overall wellbeing and sense of belonging (Bang et al., 2013; Goulet & Frank, 2002; Vecina et al., 2013). When an employee feels cared for and valued by an organization, they are more inclined to have higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors. In comparing non-profit and for-profit organizations, this is especially important in non-profit, mission driven organizations.

### ***Organizational Identification***

Organizational identification is a specific type of social identity whereby an individual defines themselves in terms of their membership in a specific organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1995). Self-definition is a core concept in social identity theory. In an organizational context, this self-definition leads to the linkage between the individual and the organization (Tavares et al., 2016). Organizational identification leaves individuals with a perception of oneness and belonging with the organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Individuals who feel connected to an organization will internalize that feeling and it will become a central part of their sense of who they are (van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). In this situation, the individual moves from seeing themselves as independent from the organization to seeing themselves as a true and integral part of the organization, leading to shared value alignment, goals, and objectives (Tavares et al., 2016). The greater the alignment between the individual and the organization the higher the level of organizational citizenship behaviors and the more likely individuals are to behave in ways that prioritize the benefits to the organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994; van Knippenberg, 2000).

### ***Salary as a Motivator***

In contrast to for-profit organizations, this study shows that salary is not the most important motivator to staff working in non-profit organizations. The data indicates that what is more important is the connection and value alignment employees feel with the organization in which they work. Reliance on paid staff who share value alignment with their organization and have high levels of organizational citizenship behaviors is essential to bridging the gap between service demand and service fulfillment (McKeever, 2015), especially in settings with high demand for services and limited resources. Equitable salary is necessary for employees to meet the normal demands of human life, such as food, shelter, and clothing, but in non-profit settings employees are trading higher salaries and extended benefits for greater value alignment, emotional fulfillment, and connection to communities that advance their personal goals.

### **Recommendations**

Non-profit organizations benefit from the long-term commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors of their employees. The results of this study suggest that the more strongly an individual identifies with and feels an emotional attachment to their organization the more likely they are to stay in the organization longer and promote it positively. While compensation is an important part of feeling valued in a workplace, non-profit employees find substantially more importance in how their values align with their organizations. With this in mind, it becomes necessary for non-profit hiring managers to spend time cultivating the culture of their organizations, clearly identifying their values and vision, and recruiting individuals who share those values and vision. This alone can increase the likelihood that employees remain in and promote the organization even when the fiscal reward might be greater somewhere else.



The data from this study show that of the three most important predictors of organizational citizenship behaviors, the two most important predictors are connected to an individual's emotional and affective connection to the organization in which they work. Professional development and growth are another set of things to consider that will ensure non-profit employees remain committed to their organizations, advance their missions, and promote them positively in the world at large.

Too often, due to financial restraints and lack of adequate resources non-profit organizations find themselves in situations where their staff are left to stagnate in their roles. These organizations tend to operate in one of two ways: all employees are responsible for all things or responsibilities are siloed. The problem with both of these approaches to staffing is that they can lead to staff feeling isolated, undervalued, exploited, and disenfranchised. By providing professional development and growth opportunities tailored to staff's skills, interests, and experience, employers are demonstrating their care and commitment to their employees.

One of the most important conversations occurring today with regards to employment in the United States is that of a living wage. The cost of living continues to rise and many employees are seeing that their wages are not following suit. Non-profit organizations face this dilemma regularly and struggle with prioritizing funding for staff, often leaning more heavily on volunteerism to accomplish their goals. While volunteerism is beneficial to the organization and communities at large, the organization ultimately suffers when volunteers are unable to make long term commitments and take on sensitive roles due to their status in the organization. This creates the need for prioritizing funds to compensate key essential staff appropriately and according to their skill sets in order to fulfill both the organization's needs and those of the employee.

Prioritizing funding for staff working in non-profit organizations removes the overwhelming anxiety that come from an inability to meet the financial demands of life. When the anxiety and worry that comes with an inability to provide for yourself or your family is lessened, individuals have a greater capacity to commit their time and energy to pursuits beyond the meeting of basic needs. This is beneficial to the non-profit organization, as employees who are paid a living and equitable wage are more likely to make a greater commitment to the organization and have higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors.

In addition, prioritizing funding for staff working in non-profit organizations reaffirms for the employee that the organization values their time, their skills, and their commitment. When an employee feels as though they are valued within their organization, they are more likely to commit to the organization, have higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors, and seek out ways to advance the mission and goals of the organization.

### **Limitations**

The measures used for this study were all created and validated in for-profit settings. This is a limitation as the nature of for-profit work is dramatically different than that of non-profit work. The measures, if validated and normed with the non-profit working population, may show different results than were found in this study.

The study participants were all employed in the human and social services sector of non-profit organizations. While the results of this study may apply to others working in this same sector, the results may not be generalizable to other sectors of non-profit work, especially those that have a greater abundance of fiscal resources.

### **Areas for Future Research**

This study focused on staff working in human and social service non-profit organizations. Future research might expand the target population to look at other types of non-profit organizations and their staff. Understanding the nuances of different types of service organizations can benefit the development of targeted recruitment, hiring, and training practices.

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## Appendix A: Conceptual Framework

### Conceptual Frameworks

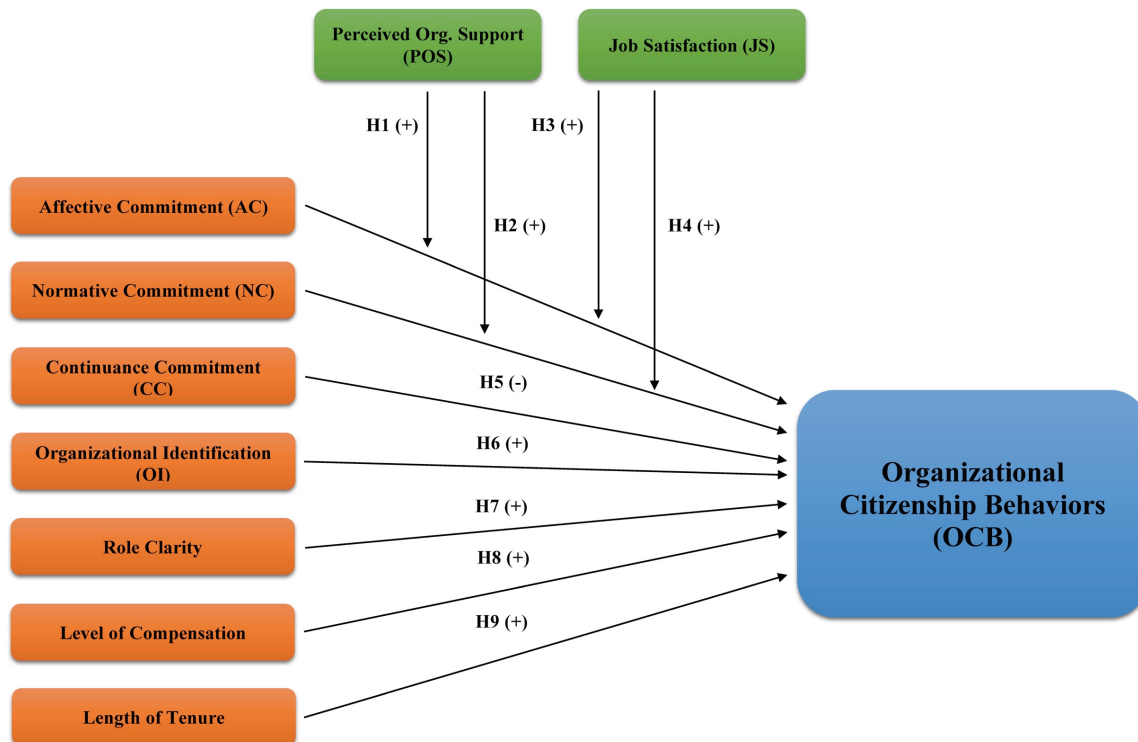


Figure 1. Concept Map

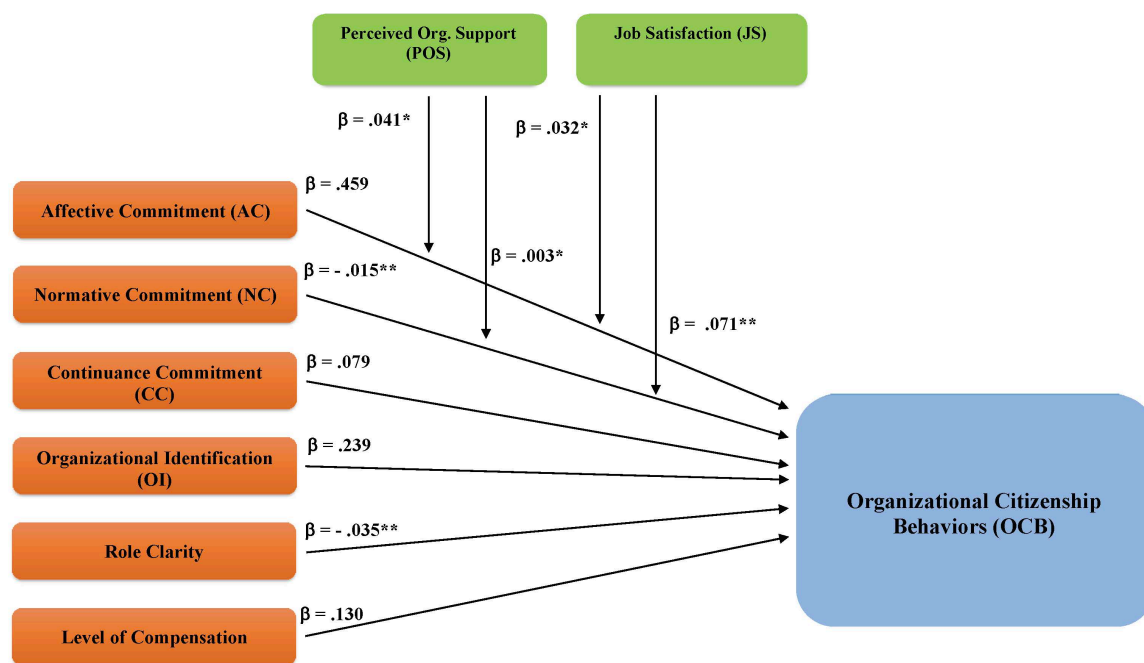


Figure 1.2 Concept Map 2 w/Regression Coefficients

Key: \*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .001$

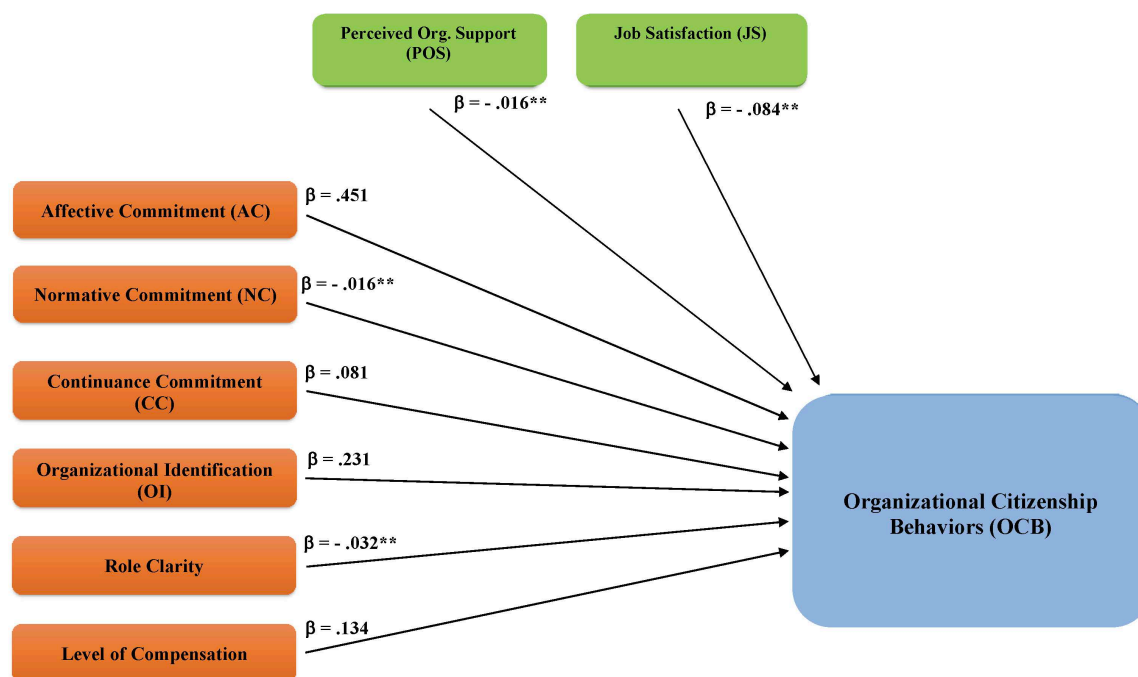


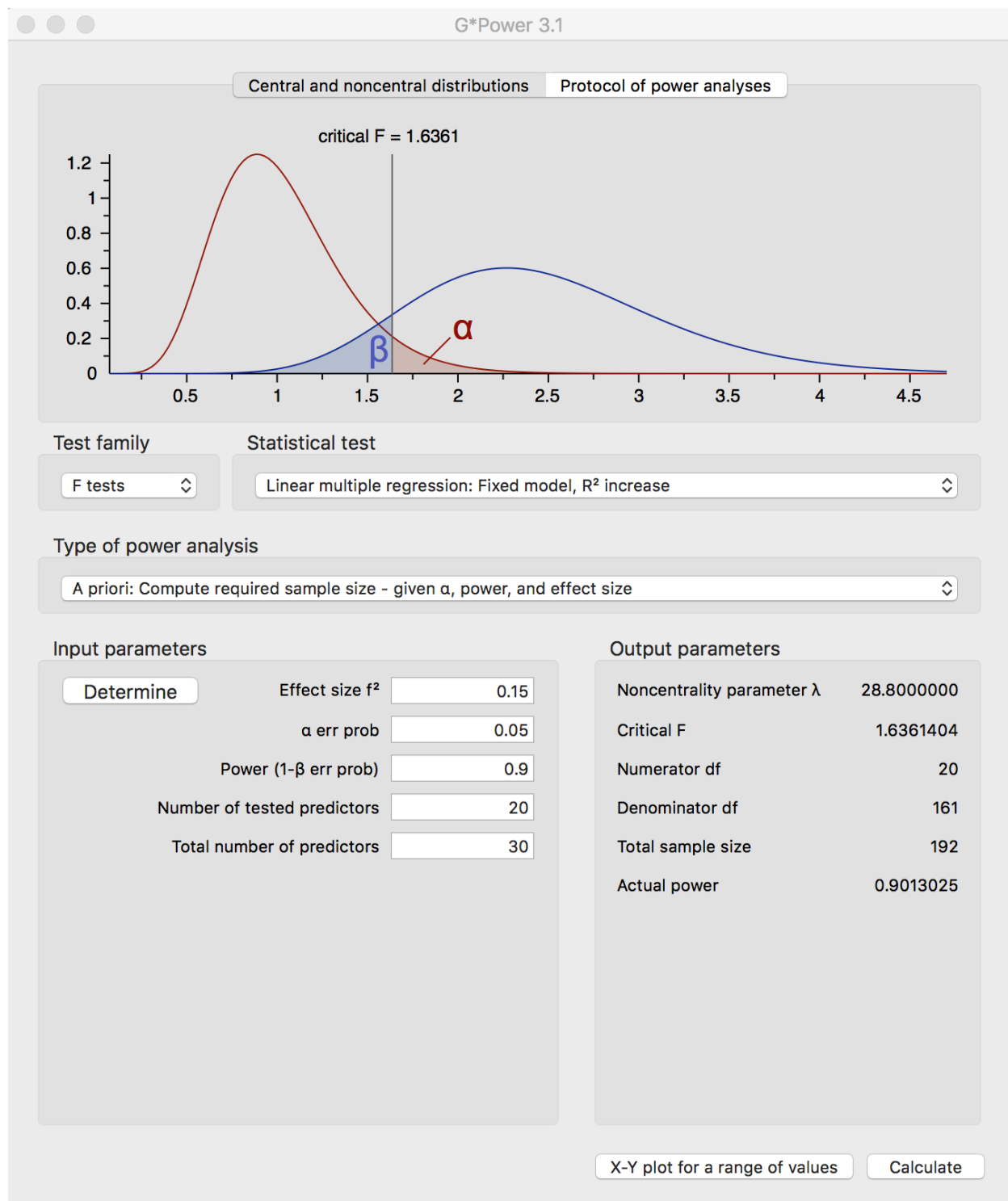
Figure 1.3 Concept Map 3 w/Regression Coefficients

Key: \*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .001$



## Appendix B: G-Power Analysis

### G-Power Analysis



## Appendix C: Online Survey Screening Sheet

Online Survey Screening Sheet  
(Morita, 2018)

In order to participate in this research study, you must meet the participant criteria established by the researcher. Please respond to each of the questions below with the answer that best describes you.

Which of the following categories best describes the industry in which you are employed?

- Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing, Hunting – For-profit
- Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing, Hunting – Public/Non-profit
- Utilities – For-profit
- Utilities – Public/Non-profit
- Computer and Electronic Manufacturing – For-profit
- Computer and Electronic Manufacturing – Non-profit
- Wholesale – For-profit
- Wholesale – Public/Non-profit
- Transportation and Warehousing – For-profit
- Transportation and Warehousing – Non-profit
- Broadcasting and Publishing – For-profit
- Broadcasting and Publishing – Non-profit
- Real Estate, Rental and Leasing – For-profit
- Real Estate, Rental and Leasing – Public/Non-profit
- Education – For-profit
- Education – Non-profit
- Health Care – For-profit
- Health Care – Public/Non-profit
- Hotel and Food Services – For-profit
- Hotel and Food Services – Public/Non-profit
- Human and Social Services/Mental Health Services – For-profit
- Human and Social Services/Mental Health Services – Public/Non-profit
- Legal Services – For-profit
- Legal Services – Public/Non-profit
- Religious and Faith Based Services – For-profit
- Religious and Faith Based Services – Public/Non-profit
- Mining – For-profit
- Mining – Public/Non-profit
- Construction and Manufacturing – For-profit
- Construction and Manufacturing – Public/Non-profit
- Retail – For-profit
- Retail – Public/Non-profit
- Telecommunications – For-profit
- Telecommunications – Public/Non-profit

- Information Services and Data Processing – For-profit
- Information Services and Data Processing – Public/Non-profit
- Finance and Insurance – For-profit
- Finance and Insurance – Public/Non-profit
- Government and Public Administration – For-profit
- Government and Public Administration – Public/Non-profit
- Scientific and Technological Services – For-profit
- Scientific and Technological Services – Public/Non-profit
- Other – For-profit
- Other – Public/Non-profit

What is your employment status?

- Full Time (30 or more hours per week)
- Part Time (Less than 30 hours per week)

## Appendix D: Informed Consent

### Informed Consent



**Investigators:** Amanda Archer Morita, MA

**Study Title:** The Common Good: How Individual Organizational Commitment and Identification Impact Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

I am a student at The Chicago School of Professional Psychology. This study is being conducted as a part of my dissertation requirement for the Ph.D. in Organizational Leadership program.

I am asking you to participate in a research study. Please take your time to read the information below and feel free to ask any questions before signing this document.

**Purpose:** This study is being conducted to gain a better understanding of what motivates employees in organizational settings.

**Procedures:** You will be asked to complete an online survey, which consists of a total of 8 smaller surveys with a total item count of 77. The surveys will ask you how much you agree with or how much you identify with specific statements about your current employment. Each survey will take no more than 5 minutes, with some surveys requiring only 1-2 minutes of your time. You will complete one single survey at a time and submit your responses in order to move to the next survey.

**Risks to Participation:** This study poses no risk to participants.

**Benefits to Participants:** You will not directly benefit from this study. However, we hope the information learned from this study may deepen our understanding of motivational influences within organizations.

**Alternatives to Participation:** Participation in this study is voluntary. You may withdraw from study participation at any time without any penalty.

**Confidentiality:** During this study, information will be collected about you for the purpose of this research. This includes age, race, gender, education level, length of employment, and income level.

All participants will remain anonymous and your responses will be confidential. No identifying information will be collected. Research materials will be kept for a minimum of five years after publication per APA guidelines.

Your research records may be reviewed by federal agencies whose responsibility is to protect human subjects participating in research, including the Office of Human Research Protections (OHRP) and by representatives from The Chicago School of Professional Psychology Institutional Review Board, a committee that oversees research.

**Questions/Concerns:** If you have questions related to the procedures described in this document please contact Amanda Archer Morita at [ala2246@ego.thechicagoschool.edu](mailto:ala2246@ego.thechicagoschool.edu) OR Dr. Robert Miller at [rmiller@thechicagoschool.edu](mailto:rmiller@thechicagoschool.edu).

If you have questions concerning your rights in this research study you may contact the Institutional Review Board (IRB), which is concerned with the protection of subjects in research projects. You may reach the IRB office Monday-Friday by calling 312.467.2343 or writing: Institutional Review Board, The Chicago School of Professional Psychology, 325 N. Wells, Chicago, Illinois, 60654.

### **Consent to Participate in Research**

Participant:

I have read the above information and have received satisfactory answers to my questions. I understand the research project and the procedures involved have been explained to me. I agree to participate in this study. My participation is voluntary, and I do not have to consent to this form if I do not want to be part of this research project.

I consent and wish to participate in this study.

I do not consent and do not wish to participate in this study.

## Appendix E: Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale  
(Lee and Allen, 2002)

*Instructions:* Staff indicate, using a 7-point scale (1 = never to 7 = always), how often they engage in each of the behaviors listed.

1 Never	2 Rarely	3 Occasionally	4 Sometimes	5 Frequently	6 Usually	7 Always
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### Organizational Citizenship Behaviors - Individual Items

1. Help others who have been absent
2. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.
3. Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
4. Go out of your way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.
5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.
6. Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.
7. Assist other with their duties.
8. Share personal property with others to help their work.

### Organizational Citizenship Behaviors - Organization Items

1. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.
2. Keep up with developments in the organization.
3. Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.
4. Show pride when representing the organization in public.
5. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.
6. Express loyalty toward the organization.
7. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.
8. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.

### Scoring

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors – Individual	Sum 1 – 8; divide by 8
Organizational Citizenship Behaviors - Organization	Sum 1 – 8; divide by 8

## Appendix F: Organizational Commitment Scale

### Organizational Commitment Scale

(Rego & Souto, 2004) – Adapted from Allen and Meyer, 1990

*Instructions:* Using the 7-point self-report scale, indicate how much each statement applies to you.

1 Completely Disagree	2 Mostly Disagree	3 Slightly Disagree	4 Unsure	5 Slightly Agree	6 Mostly Agree	7 Completely Agree
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1. I really care about the fate of this organization.
2. Even if it were to my advantage, it would not be right to leave my organization now.
3. I remain in this organization because I feel that it would not be easy to enter into another organization.
4. I feel emotionally attached to this organization.
5. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
6. I remain in this organization because leaving it would involve great personal sacrifices.
7. I am proud to tell others that I am a part of this organization.
8. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.
9. I believe that I have just a few options to consider leaving this organization.
10. I have a strong affection for this organization.
11. I feel I owe a great deal to this organization.
12. I remain in this organization because I feel that I have few opportunities in other organizations.
13. I feel like part of the family at my organization.
14. I do not leave this organization due to the losses I would incur in that case.

### Scoring

Affective Commitment	Sum 1, 4, 7, 10, and 13; divide by 5
Normative Commitment	Sum 2, 5, 8, and 11; divide by 4
Continuance Commitment	Sum 3, 6, 9, 12, and 14; divide by 5

## Appendix G: Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire - Short Form

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire - Short Form  
(Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist, 1967)

*Instructions:* On a scale of 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied) ask yourself how satisfied you are with each aspect of your job.

1 Very Dissatisfied	2 Dissatisfied	3 Neutral	4 Satisfied	5 Very Satisfied
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On my present job, this how I feel about . . .

1. Being able to keep busy all the time
2. The chance to work alone on the job
3. The chance to do different things from time to time
4. The chance to be "somebody" in the community
5. The way my boss handles his/her workers
6. The competence of my supervisor making decisions
7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience
8. The way my job provides for steady employment
9. The chance to do things for other people
10. The chance to tell people what to do
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities
12. The way company policies are put into practice
13. My pay and the amount of work I do
14. The chances for advancement on the job
15. The freedom to use my own judgment
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job
17. The working conditions
18. The way my co-workers get along with each other
19. The praise I get for doing a good job
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job

Scoring

Intrinsic Satisfaction	Sum 1 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 15, 16, 20; divide by 12
Extrinsic Satisfaction	Sum 5, 6, 12, 13, 14, 19; divide by 6
General Satisfaction	Sum 1 - 20; divide by 20



## Appendix H: Perceived Organizational Support Measure

### Perceived Organizational Support Measure

(Cheng et al., 2013) – Adapted from Eisenberger et al., 1986

*Instructions:* Using the 7-point Likert scale, indicate how much each statement describes to you.

1 Completely Disagree	2 Mostly Disagree	3 Slightly Disagree	4 Unsure	5 Slightly Agree	6 Mostly Agree	7 Completely Agree
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The organization in which I work:

1. Would help me if I needed a special favor.
2. Takes pride in my accomplishments.
3. Shows little concern for me. (reverse coded)
4. Really cares about my well-being.
5. Values my contribution to its well-being.
6. Strongly considers my goals and values.

### Scoring

Positive Statements	Sum 1, 2, 4, 5, and 6; divide by 5
Negative Statements	Sum 3 (reverse coded); divide by 1

## Appendix I: Organizational Identification Questionnaire

### Organizational Identification Questionnaire

(Gautum, van Dick, and Wagner, 2004) – Adapted from Cheney, 1983.

*Instructions:* Indicate your level of agreement with each statement below using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Completely Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Unsure	Slightly Agree	Mostly Agree	Completely Agree

1. I would probably continue working for this organization if I did not need the money.
2. I am proud to be an employee of this organization.
3. I often describe myself to others by saying “I work for this organization” or “I am from this organization.”
4. I am glad I chose to work for this organization rather than another company.
5. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected to help this organization be successful.
6. I have warm feelings towards this organization as a place to work.
7. I have a lot in common with others employed by this organization.
8. I tell others about projects that this organization is working on.

### Scoring

All Statements	Sum 1 - 8; divide by 8
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## Appendix J: Role Clarity Questionnaire

Role Clarity Questionnaire  
(Rizzo et al., 1970)

*Instructions:* Indicate your level of agreement with each statement below using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

1 Completely Disagree	2 Mostly Disagree	3 Slightly Disagree	4 Unsure	5 Slightly Agree	6 Mostly Agree	7 Completely Agree
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1. I feel certain about how much authority I have been given to do my job.
2. There are clear planned goals and objectives for my job.
3. I know exactly what is expected of me.
4. I have been given clear explanations of what is expected of me.

Scoring

All Statements	Sum 1 - 4; divide by 4
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## Appendix K: Demographic Survey

(Morita, 2018)

1. Indicate the length of time you have been employed by your organization:

Years \_\_\_\_\_ Months \_\_\_\_\_

2. Select the amount of compensation you receive from your current employer:

- Less than \$20,000
- \$20,001 - \$30,000
- \$30,001 - \$40,000
- \$40,001 - \$50,000
- \$50,001 - \$60,000
- \$60,001 - \$70,000
- \$70,001 - \$80,000
- \$80,001 - \$90,000
- \$90,001 - \$100,000
- \$100,001 or More

3. Indicate the range that describes your age:

- 18 – 23 years
- 24 – 29 years
- 30 – 35 years
- 36 – 41 years
- 42 – 47 years
- 48 – 53 years
- 54 – 59 years
- 60 – 65 years
- 66 – 71 years
- 72 – 77 years
- 78 – 83 years
- 84 – 89 years

4. Select the category that best describes you:

- Caucasian/white
- African American/black
- American Indian/Native Alaskan
- Asian/Pacific Islander
- Hispanic or Latino
- Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

5. Indicate your gender: \_\_\_\_\_

6. Indicate your highest level of education completed:

- Grammar School
- High School or Equivalent
- Vocational/Technical School
- Associate degree
- Bachelor's Degree
- Master's Degree
- Doctorate

7. Select the range that best represents the number of employees in your workplace:

- 0 – 25
- 26 – 50
- 51 – 75
- 76 – 100
- 101 – 150
- 151 – 200
- 201 – 250
- 251 – 300
- 301 – 350
- 351 – 400
- 401 – 450
- 500 +

8. Select the benefits you receive from your current employer in addition to your compensation. Select all that apply:

- Holiday Pay
- Paid Sick Time
- Matched Retirement
- Dental Insurance
- Life Insurance
- Stock Options
- Paid Vacation
- Non-Matched Retirement
- Medical Insurance
- Vision Insurance
- Accident/Disability Insurance
- Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

9. Select the option that best describes you:

Compared to others in professional roles similar to mine in the for-profit sector, my income is:

- Substantially Less
- Slightly Less
- Comparable
- Slightly More
- Substantially More

## Appendix L: Instrument Reliability

### *Instrument Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)*

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Valid Cases</b>	<b>No. of Items</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b><math>\alpha</math></b>
Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	502	16	5.2234	1.19795	.916
Affective Organizational Commitment	502	5	5.4785	1.22423	.898
Continuance Organizational Commitment	502	5	4.4094	1.37630	.797
Normative Organizational Commitment	502	4	3.7932	1.25555	.837
Organizational Identification	502	8	5.3182	1.14004	.863
Perceived Organizational Support	502	6	4.6942	1.08921	.826
Job Satisfaction	502	20	3.8729	.64461	.919
Role Clarity	502	4	5.5224	1.2779	.887

Note:  $\alpha \geq .9$  = Excellent;  $.7 \leq \alpha < .9$  = Good;  $.6 \leq \alpha < .7$  = Acceptable;  $.5 \leq \alpha < .6$  = Poor;  $\alpha < .5$  = Unacceptable

## Appendix M: Study Participant Demographics

### *Study Participant Demographics*

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
18 -23 Years	22	4.4	4.4	4.4
24 -29 Years	105	20.9	20.9	25.3
30 - 35 Years	109	21.7	21.7	47.0
36 - 41 Years	92	18.3	18.3	65.3
42 - 47 Years	57	11.4	11.4	76.7
48 - 53 Years	49	9.8	9.8	86.5
54 - 59 Years	39	7.8	7.8	94.2
60 -65 Years	21	4.2	4.2	98.4
66 - 71 Years	8	1.6	1.6	100.00
Total	502	100.0	100.0	

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
African America/Black	63	12.5	12.5	12.5
American Indian/Native American	3	.6	.6	13.1
Asian/Pacific Islander	11	2.2	2.2	15.3
Caucasian/White	388	77.3	77.3	92.6
Hispanic/Latino	30	6	6	98.6
Multiracial	7	1.4	1.4	100.00
Total	502	100.0	100.0	

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
Female	433	86.3	86.3	86.3
Male	65	12.9	12.9	99.2
Other	4	.8	.8	100.00
Total	502	100.0	100.0	

Education	Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
High School	52	10.4	10.4	10.4
Vocational or Technical School	27	5.4	5.4	15.7
Associate Degree	55	11	11	26.7
Bachelor's Degree	229	45.6	45.6	72.3
Master's Degree	137	27.3	27.3	99.6
Doctorate (PsyD, PhD, MD, EdD, etc.)	2	.4	.4	100.0
Total	502	100.0	100.0	

Salary	Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
Less than \$10,000	28	5.6	5.6	5.6
\$20,001 - \$30,000	89	17.7	17.7	23.3
\$30,001 - \$40,000	159	31.7	31.7	55.0
\$40,001 - \$50,000	109	21.7	21.7	76.7
\$50,001 - \$60,000	53	10.6	10.6	87.3
\$60,001 - \$70,000	30	6.0	6.0	93.2
\$70,001 - \$80,000	12	2.4	2.4	95.6
\$80,001 - \$90,000	13	2.6	2.6	98.2
\$90,001 - \$100,000	6	1.2	1.2	99.4
\$100,001 or more	3	.6	.6	100.0
Total	502	100.0	100.0	

Organization Size	Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
0 – 100	224	44.7	44.7	44.6
101 – 250	110	22.0	22.0	66.5
251 – 500	72	14.4	14.4	80.9
501 +	96	19.1	19.1	100.0
Total	502	100.0	100.0	



Tenure	Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
1 -5 Years	297	59.2	59.2	59.2
5 - 10 Years	97	19.3	19.3	78.5
10 - 15 Years	53	10.6	10.6	89.0
15 - 20 Years	33	6.6	6.6	95.6
20 - 25 Years	13	2.6	2.6	98.2
25 – 30 Years	2	.4	.4	98.6
30 - 35 Years	5	1.0	1.0	99.6
35 - 40 Years	1	.2	.2	99.8
40 - 45 Years	1	.2	.2	100.00
Total	502	100.0	100.0	

Benefits	Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
Yes	490	97.6	97.6	97.6
No	12	2.4	2.4	100
Total	502	100.0	100.0	

For-Profit Compare	Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
Substantially Less	131	26.1	26.1	26.1
Slightly Less	146	29.1	29.1	55.2
Comparable	165	32.9	32.9	88.0
Slightly More	50	10.0	10.0	98.0
Substantially More	10	2.0	2.0	100.0
Total	502	100.0	100.0	

## Appendix N: Descriptive Statistics Results

### *Descriptive Statistics Results*

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Organizational OCB	502	1.00	7.00	5.2234	1.19795
Perceived Org. Support	502	1.00	7.00	4.6942	1.08921
Affective Org. Commitment	502	1.00	7.00	5.4785	1.22423
Continuance Org. Commitment	502	1.00	7.00	4.4094	1.37630
Normative Org. Commitment	502	1.00	7.00	3.7932	1.25555
Job Satisfaction Overall	502	1.00	5.00	3.8729	.64461
Role Clarity	502	1.00	7.00	5.5224	1.29779
Organizational Identification	502	1.00	7.00	5.3182	1.14004
Valid N (listwise)	502				

## Appendix O: Multiple Linear Regression Model, Version 1

### *Multiple Linear Regression Analysis, Version 1*

Block 1	Block 2	Block 3	Block 4
Education	Block 1 + Role Clarity Org. Size Salary	Block 1 + Block 2 + Perceived Organizational Support Job Satisfaction Affective Commitment Normative Commitment Continuance Commitment Organizational Identification	Block 1 + Block 2 + Block 3 + Affective Commitment X Perceived Organizational Support Affective Commitment X Job Satisfaction Normative Commitment X Perceived Organizational Support Normative Commitment X Job Satisfaction

## Appendix P: Multiple Linear Regression Model, Version 2

### *Multiple Linear Regression Analysis, Version 2*

Block 1	Block 2	Block 3
Education	Block 1 + Role Clarity Org. Size Salary	Block 1 + Block 2 + Perceived Organizational Support Job Satisfaction Affective Commitment Normative Commitment Continuance Commitment Organizational Identification

## Appendix Q: Complete Multiple Linear Regression Model Analysis Preliminary Results

### ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.316	1	5.316	3.724	.054 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	713.656	500	1.427		
	Total	718.972	501			
2	Regression	92.382	4	23.096	18.319	.000 <sup>c</sup>
	Residual	626.590	497	1.261		
	Total	718.972	501			
3	Regression	321.024	10	32.102	39.609	.000 <sup>d</sup>
	Residual	397.948	491	.810		
	Total	718.972	501			
4	Regression	326.459	14	23.318	28.932	.000 <sup>e</sup>
	Residual	392.513	487	.806		
	Total	718.972	501			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational OCB

b. Predictors: (Constant), Education

c. Predictors: (Constant), Education, cent\_rc, Org Size, Salary

d. Predictors: (Constant), Education, cent\_rc, Org Size, Salary, cent\_pos, cent\_nc, cent\_cc, cent\_oi, cent\_ac, cent\_jst

e. Predictors: (Constant), Education, cent\_rc, Org Size, Salary, cent\_pos, cent\_nc, cent\_cc, cent\_oi, cent\_ac, cent\_jst, int\_cent\_ncBYcent\_jst, int\_cent\_acBYcent\_pos, int\_cent\_ncBYcent\_pos, int\_cent\_acBYcent\_jst

### Model Summary<sup>d</sup>

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2		
1	.086 <sup>a</sup>	.007	.005	1.19470	.007	3.724	1	500	.054	
2	.358 <sup>b</sup>	.128	.121	1.12283	.121	23.020	3	497	.000	
3	.668 <sup>c</sup>	.447	.435	.90027	.318	47.017	6	491	.000	
4	.674 <sup>d</sup>	.454	.438	.89776	.008	1.686	4	487	.152	1.728

a. Predictors: (Constant), Education

b. Predictors: (Constant), Education, cent\_rc, Org Size, Salary

c. Predictors: (Constant), Education, cent\_rc, Org Size, Salary, cent\_pos, cent\_nc, cent\_cc, cent\_oi, cent\_ac, cent\_jst

d. Predictors: (Constant), Education, cent\_rc, Org Size, Salary, cent\_pos, cent\_nc, cent\_cc, cent\_oi, cent\_ac, cent\_jst, int\_cent\_ncBYcent\_jst, int\_cent\_acBYcent\_pos, int\_cent\_ncBYcent\_pos, int\_cent\_acBYcent\_jst

e. Dependent Variable: Organizational OCB

Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	4.822	.215		22.458	.000	4.400	5.244
	Education	.084	.044	.086	1.930	.054	-.002	.170
2	(Constant)	4.771	.210		22.748	.000	4.359	5.183
	Education	.035	.044	.036	.790	.430	-.052	.122
	Salary	.120	.032	.171	3.746	.000	.057	.183
	cent_rc	.262	.039	.284	6.739	.000	.186	.339
	Org Size	-.025	.012	-.092	-2.159	.031	-.048	-.002
3	(Constant)	4.929	.172		28.667	.000	4.591	5.267
	Education	-6.984E-5	.036	.000	-.002	.998	-.071	.071
	Salary	.094	.026	.134	3.600	.000	.043	.146
	cent_rc	-.029	.046	-.032	-.639	.523	-.119	.060
	Org Size	-.008	.009	-.030	-.868	.386	-.027	.010
	cent_pos	-.017	.037	-.016	-.470	.639	-.090	.055
	cent_jst	-.156	.130	-.084	-1.204	.229	-.411	.099
	cent_ac	.441	.067	.451	6.586	.000	.310	.573
	cent_cc	.071	.042	.081	1.695	.091	-.011	.153
	cent_nc	-.015	.034	-.016	-.456	.649	-.082	.051
	cent_oi	.242	.073	.231	3.341	.001	.100	.385
	4	(Constant)	4.884	.173		28.161	.000	4.544
Education		.005	.036	.005	.134	.894	-.066	.076
Salary		.091	.026	.130	3.481	.001	.040	.143
cent_rc		-.033	.046	-.035	-.715	.475	-.122	.057
Org Size		-.008	.009	-.030	-.876	.382	-.027	.010
cent_pos		-.017	.037	-.016	-.457	.648	-.090	.056
cent_jst		-.147	.130	-.079	-1.134	.257	-.403	.108
cent_ac		.450	.068	.459	6.632	.000	.316	.583
cent_cc		.069	.042	.079	1.635	.103	-.014	.151
cent_nc		-.014	.034	-.015	-.409	.683	-.081	.053
cent_oi		.251	.073	.239	3.441	.001	.108	.395
int_cent_ac BY cent_pos		.038	.031	.041	1.218	.224	-.023	.099

int_cent_ac BY cent_jst	.033	.040	.032	.827	.409	-.046	.113
int_cent_nc BY cent_pos	.003	.031	.003	.093	.926	-.059	.065
int_cent_nc BY cent_jst	-.089	.043	-.071	-2.088	.037	-.174	-.005

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational OCB

## Bootstrap for Coefficients

Model	B	Bias	Std. Error	Bootstrap <sup>a</sup>		BCa 95% Confidence Interval	
				Sig. (2-tailed)	Lower	Upper	
1	(Constant)	4.822	.005 <sup>b</sup>	.234 <sup>b</sup>	.000 <sup>b</sup>	4.351 <sup>b</sup>	5.289 <sup>b</sup>
	Education	.084	-.001 <sup>b</sup>	.047 <sup>b</sup>	.077 <sup>b</sup>	-.006 <sup>b</sup>	.176 <sup>b</sup>
2	(Constant)	4.771	.008 <sup>c</sup>	.237 <sup>c</sup>	.000 <sup>c</sup>	4.308 <sup>c</sup>	5.252 <sup>c</sup>
	Education	.035	-.001 <sup>c</sup>	.048 <sup>c</sup>	.472 <sup>c</sup>	-.059 <sup>c</sup>	.126 <sup>c</sup>
	Salary	.120	.000 <sup>c</sup>	.027 <sup>c</sup>	.000 <sup>c</sup>	.067 <sup>c</sup>	.174 <sup>c</sup>
	cent_rc	.262	.000 <sup>c</sup>	.044 <sup>c</sup>	.000 <sup>c</sup>	.176 <sup>c</sup>	.351 <sup>c</sup>
	Org Size	-.025	.000 <sup>c</sup>	.012 <sup>c</sup>	.032 <sup>c</sup>	-.049 <sup>c</sup>	-.003 <sup>c</sup>
3	(Constant)	4.929	.006 <sup>c</sup>	.196 <sup>c</sup>	.000 <sup>c</sup>	4.547 <sup>c</sup>	5.335 <sup>c</sup>
	Education	-6.984E-5	-.001 <sup>c</sup>	.040 <sup>c</sup>	.999 <sup>c</sup>	-.076 <sup>c</sup>	.075 <sup>c</sup>
	Salary	.094	.000 <sup>c</sup>	.023 <sup>c</sup>	.000 <sup>c</sup>	.047 <sup>c</sup>	.137 <sup>c</sup>
	cent_rc	-.029	-1.336E-5 <sup>c</sup>	.047 <sup>c</sup>	.548 <sup>c</sup>	-.119 <sup>c</sup>	.065 <sup>c</sup>
	Org Size	-.008	.000 <sup>c</sup>	.010 <sup>c</sup>	.389 <sup>c</sup>	-.028 <sup>c</sup>	.010 <sup>c</sup>
	cent_pos	-.017	.000 <sup>c</sup>	.041 <sup>c</sup>	.668 <sup>c</sup>	-.096 <sup>c</sup>	.064 <sup>c</sup>
	cent_jst	-.156	.001 <sup>c</sup>	.136 <sup>c</sup>	.244 <sup>c</sup>	-.427 <sup>c</sup>	.109 <sup>c</sup>
	cent_ac	.441	.002 <sup>c</sup>	.083 <sup>c</sup>	.000 <sup>c</sup>	.283 <sup>c</sup>	.612 <sup>c</sup>
	cent_cc	.071	-.001 <sup>c</sup>	.041 <sup>c</sup>	.086 <sup>c</sup>	-.012 <sup>c</sup>	.151 <sup>c</sup>
	cent_nc	-.015	-.001 <sup>c</sup>	.033 <sup>c</sup>	.641 <sup>c</sup>	-.080 <sup>c</sup>	.047 <sup>c</sup>
	cent_oi	.242	-5.511E-5 <sup>c</sup>	.086 <sup>c</sup>	.003 <sup>c</sup>	.067 <sup>c</sup>	.412 <sup>c</sup>
	4	(Constant)	4.884	.011 <sup>c</sup>	.195 <sup>c</sup>	.000 <sup>c</sup>	4.485 <sup>c</sup>
Education		.005	-.002 <sup>c</sup>	.040 <sup>c</sup>	.902 <sup>c</sup>	-.074 <sup>c</sup>	.079 <sup>c</sup>
Salary		.091	-.001 <sup>c</sup>	.023 <sup>c</sup>	.000 <sup>c</sup>	.044 <sup>c</sup>	.133 <sup>c</sup>
cent_rc		-.033	.001 <sup>c</sup>	.048 <sup>c</sup>	.500 <sup>c</sup>	-.125 <sup>c</sup>	.067 <sup>c</sup>
Org Size		-.008	.000 <sup>c</sup>	.009 <sup>c</sup>	.382 <sup>c</sup>	-.027 <sup>c</sup>	.010 <sup>c</sup>
cent_pos		-.017	-7.704E-5 <sup>c</sup>	.040 <sup>c</sup>	.676 <sup>c</sup>	-.095 <sup>c</sup>	.061 <sup>c</sup>
cent_jst		-.147	.001 <sup>c</sup>	.136 <sup>c</sup>	.271 <sup>c</sup>	-.418 <sup>c</sup>	.117 <sup>c</sup>
cent_ac		.450	.002 <sup>c</sup>	.084 <sup>c</sup>	.000 <sup>c</sup>	.290 <sup>c</sup>	.619 <sup>c</sup>
cent_cc		.069	-.002 <sup>c</sup>	.042 <sup>c</sup>	.102 <sup>c</sup>	-.014 <sup>c</sup>	.145 <sup>c</sup>
cent_nc		-.014	.000 <sup>c</sup>	.035 <sup>c</sup>	.678 <sup>c</sup>	-.085 <sup>c</sup>	.055 <sup>c</sup>
cent_oi		.251	-9.570E-5 <sup>c</sup>	.086 <sup>c</sup>	.002 <sup>c</sup>	.075 <sup>c</sup>	.422 <sup>c</sup>
int_cent_acBYc ent_pos		.038	-.001 <sup>c</sup>	.038 <sup>c</sup>	.313 <sup>c</sup>	-.036 <sup>c</sup>	.112 <sup>c</sup>
int_cent_acBYc ent_jst		.033	.001 <sup>c</sup>	.047 <sup>c</sup>	.453 <sup>c</sup>	-.062 <sup>c</sup>	.130 <sup>c</sup>



int_cent_ncBYc ent_pos	.003	-.002 <sup>c</sup>	.033 <sup>c</sup>	.928 <sup>c</sup>	-.059 <sup>c</sup>	.060 <sup>c</sup>
int_cent_ncBYc ent_jst	-.089	-.003 <sup>c</sup>	.052 <sup>c</sup>	.072 <sup>c</sup>	-.190 <sup>c</sup>	.003 <sup>c</sup>

- a. Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 5000 bootstrap samples
- b. Based on 4246 samples
- c. Based on 4245 samples

## Appendix R: Complete Multiple Linear Regression Model Analysis Final Results

### ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.316	1	5.316	3.724	.054 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	713.656	500	1.427		
	Total	718.972	501			
2	Regression	92.382	4	23.096	18.319	.000 <sup>c</sup>
	Residual	626.590	497	1.261		
	Total	718.972	501			
3	Regression	321.024	10	32.102	39.609	.000 <sup>d</sup>
	Residual	397.948	491	.810		
	Total	718.972	501			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational OCB

b. Predictors: (Constant), Education

c. Predictors: (Constant), Education, cent\_rc, Org Size, Salary

d. Predictors: (Constant), Education, cent\_rc, Org Size, Salary, cent\_pos, cent\_nc, cent\_cc, cent\_oi, cent\_ac, cent\_jst

### Model Summary<sup>d</sup>

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				Durbin-Watson	
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2		Sig. F Change
1	.086 <sup>a</sup>	.007	.005	1.19470	.007	3.724	1	500	.054	
2	.358 <sup>b</sup>	.128	.121	1.12283	.121	23.020	3	497	.000	
3	.668 <sup>c</sup>	.447	.435	.90027	.318	47.017	6	491	.000	1.715

a. Predictors: (Constant), Education

b. Predictors: (Constant), Education, cent\_rc, Org Size, Salary

c. Predictors: (Constant), Education, cent\_rc, Org Size, Salary, cent\_pos, cent\_nc, cent\_cc, cent\_oi, cent\_ac, cent\_jst

d. Dependent Variable: Organizational OCB

Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardize	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	d Coefficients Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	Constant	4.822	.215		22.458	.000	4.400	5.244		
	Education	.084	.044	.086	1.930	.054	-.002	.170	1.000	1.000
2	Constant	4.771	.210		22.748	.000	4.359	5.183		
	Education	.035	.044	.036	.790	.430	-.052	.122	.861	1.161
	Salary	.120	.032	.171	3.746	.000	.057	.183	.840	1.191
	Org Size	-.025	.012	-.092	-2.159	.031	-.048	-.002	.967	1.034
	cent_rc	.262	.039	.284	6.739	.000	.186	.339	.987	1.013
3	Constant	4.929	.172		28.667	.000	4.591	5.267		
	Education	-6.984E-5	.036	.000	-.002	.998	-.071	.071	.834	1.199
	Salary	.094	.026	.134	3.600	.000	.043	.146	.813	1.230
	Org Size	-.008	.009	-.030	-.868	.386	-.027	.010	.939	1.065
	cent_rc	-.029	.046	-.032	-.639	.523	-.119	.060	.463	2.159
	cent_pos	-.017	.037	-.016	-.470	.639	-.090	.055	.993	1.008
	cent_ac	.441	.067	.451	6.586	.000	.310	.573	.241	4.157
	cent_cc	.071	.042	.081	1.695	.091	-.011	.153	.489	2.044
	cent_nc	-.015	.034	-.016	-.456	.649	-.082	.051	.897	1.115
	cent_oi	.242	.073	.231	3.341	.001	.100	.385	.236	4.233
	cent_jst	-.156	.130	-.084	-1.204	.229	-.411	.099	.231	4.330

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational OCB

## Bootstrap for Coefficients

Model		B	Bias	Std. Error	Bootstrap <sup>a</sup>		
					Sig. (2-tailed)	BCa 95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
1	(Constant)	4.822	.003	.230	.000	4.370	5.283
	Education	.084	-.001	.047	.067	-.007	.172
2	(Constant)	4.771	.006	.231	.000	4.319	5.244
	Education	.035	-.001	.048	.469	-.059	.124
	Salary	.120	8.394E-5	.027	.000	.066	.174
	Org Size	-.025	.000	.012	.033	-.048	-.003
	cent_rc	.262	.001	.047	.000	.167	.357
3	(Constant)	4.929	.004	.189	.000	4.555	5.310
	Education	-6.984E-5	5.459E-5	.039	.999	-.078	.077
	Salary	.094	-.001	.023	.000	.049	.136
	Org Size	-.008	.000	.010	.395	-.027	.010
	cent_rc	-.029	.000	.047	.531	-.121	.064
	cent_pos	-.017	.000	.041	.669	-.098	.060
	cent_ac	.441	.001	.083	.000	.277	.612
	cent_cc	.071	4.662E-5	.041	.089	-.012	.150
	cent_nc	-.015	-.001	.033	.627	-.081	.046
	cent_oi	.242	-.001	.086	.003	.075	.414
	cent_jst	-.156	.002	.135	.255	-.428	.117

a. Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 5000 bootstrap samples