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Same Behavior, Different Consequences: Reactions to Men's and Women's Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors

Makishi Nobuko
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SAME BEHAVIOR, DIFFERENT CONSEQUENCES: REACTIONS TO MEN’S AND WOMEN’S COMPULSORY CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS

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Bachelor of Arts in Psychology
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SAME BEHAVIOR, DIFFERENT CONSEQUENCES: REACTIONS TO MEN’S AND WOMEN’S COMPULSORY CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS

NOBUKO MAKISHI

ABSTRACT

The objective of this current study was to investigate how job evaluations were changed based on a performer's gender, especially when a performer engaged in compulsory pro-social behaviors under undesirable pressure from others. Gadot (2006) named this type of behavior as Compulsory Citizenship Behavior (CCBs). Gadot (2007) mentioned that employees are forced to perform Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs).

The present study used a 2 (gender) × 2 (voluntary nature of behavior: OCBs or CCBs) × 2 (type of behavior: altruistic or civic) mixed between-within-subjects methodology. Participants were randomly assigned to view different types of imaginary employees, which would vary in terms of gender and whether some of the imaginary employee's behaviors were voluntary or coerced. Students at Cleveland State University participated in a voluntary study. All participants were asked to read an employee description that included the imaginary employee's work history. Then, they were asked to evaluate the employee’s job performance and make reward recommendations that they thought the employee should receive. The results suggested that OCB evaluations were changed based on a performers’ gender. Moreover, it was found that people evaluated OCB performance more favorably than CCB performance. This study will help to train future managers in minimizing future gender discrimination in the workplace.
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Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) are one of the most greatly studied topics in the area of organizational psychology. OCBs represent the willingness of individuals to engage in extra-role work that is not associated with the employee’s formal job (e.g., helping new employees acclimate to a new environment with new coworkers) and that are not directly tied to rewards (Organ, 1997; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). OCBs are positively correlated with organizational effectiveness such as customer satisfaction (Yen & Niehoff, 2004). Therefore, OCBs are strongly encouraged in order to create a better work environment, achieve a company’s goals, and produce higher productivity (Organ, 1988; Organ & Ryan, 1995).

Clearly, previous studies focus on positive contributions and implications of OCBs that increase organizational effectiveness. Whereas OCBs affect organizations in positive ways, it is also possible that these OCBs have a negative impact on participating employees. In particular, Gadot (2006) published the first research of unrevealed negative aspects of OCBs that happen when “employees frequently face strong social or managerial pressure to engage involuntarily” (Gadot, 2006, p. 85). Gadot (2006) named this particular case of OCBs as Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors (CCBs), and found that CCBs increased job stress and decreased job satisfaction in individuals.

There is still much to learn about CCBs. However, there are currently only two
articles written by Gadot (2006; 2007). Moreover, no one has specifically studied the relationship between CCBs and gender yet. In order to prevent employee mistreatment, it is imperative to study this relationship, beginning especially with gender influences on the evaluation and reward recommendations of CCB performers. In this paper, I will examine how job evaluations and reward recommendations are changed based on a performer’s gender.

In this introduction, I will introduce the general concepts of OCBs in order to show how pro-social behaviors in work settings are identified. Understanding OCBs helps to develop the underlying concepts of CCBs since they both produce the same result of pro-social behavior at work, according to the definition of this paper. Then, I will introduce the concepts of CCBs from Gadot’s articles (2006; 2007). Finally, previous research on gender studies and OCBs will be utilized to examine their implications on CCBs.

**Organizational Citizenship Behaviors**

Over thirty years, OCBs have been a popular subject of research. Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) completed one of the first OCB studies, naming it Good Soldier Syndrome in the workplace. Generally speaking, OCBs were defined as the discretionary extra-role behaviors that contribute to organizational effectiveness that are not part of the employees’ formal jobs and not directly tied to rewards (Organ, 1988; Smith et al., 1983). Organ clarified the definition of OCBs by specifying the meaning of discretionary: “the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, and the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice” (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Moreover, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Hui (1993) argued that OCBs should not include in-role jobs. They
redefined OCBs as the behaviors that: 1) are not directly rewarded by engaging and not punished by not engaging, 2) are not in a job description, and 3) employees are not trained to perform as part of their duties. Furthermore, the subordinates are aware that OCB performance might result in some types of positive feedback (Allen, 2006). This study implies that subordinates are aware of the possibilities of losing positive feedback by not engaging in OCBs; the majority of subordinates do not want to lose the chances of rewards (e.g., promotion) at work.

OCBs are not written in the job descriptions, meaning they are not formal jobs for employees. However, OCBs are believed to be strong factors that promote organizational and group effectiveness. For example, Yen and Niehoff (2004) found that OCBs had positive correlations with customer satisfaction and profit. In particular, certain types of OCBs are found to have strong positive effects. For example, helping behaviors are found to be positively correlated with product quality, operating efficiency, customer satisfaction, and quality of performance (Podsakoff, Aheare, & MacKenzie, 1997; Walz & Niehoff, 2000). In addition, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) found that particular types of OCBs significantly enhanced sales performance. They noted that OCBs may increase the opportunities for interpersonal relationships among employees, especially among team members. As a result, OCB performance increases group productivity (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). These previous studies indicate that OCBs are very important elements for both employers and employees to work together effectively as OCBs contribute to the “organizational, social, and psychological environment,” (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p. 73). Therefore, organizations encourage their employees to be ideal citizen members engaging in OCBs that are beyond the scope of what is
expected in addition to their job-related tasks (Bolino & Turnley, 2005).

**Antecedents of OCBs.** A number of previous studies have tried to find the antecedents of OCBs. There are some theoretical explanations of why individuals perform OCBs, such as job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983), positive affect (Forest, Clark, Mills, & Lsen, 1979), procedural justice (Moorman, 1991), and disposition (e.g., Organ & Lingl, 1995). Overall, these theories explain why individuals engage in OCBs spontaneously. The key feature from these explanations is that the decision to engage in OCBs is strictly limited to an employee’s personal choice to engage or disengage from the behavior. This feature of OCBs is quite opposite from Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors (CCBs) that are compulsory-performed pro-social behaviors at work. The details of CCBs will be explained in the next chapter.

In OCBs, job satisfaction of employees has been studied with great attention. Job satisfaction refers to the extent of an employee’s overall feelings of his or her job as fulfilling or unfavorable with the individual’s values (Morris & Venkatesh, 2010). In this sense, job satisfaction is an individual’s emotional, cognitive, and behavioral responses toward one’s job, interpersonal relationships, and organizational support conditions of the workplace. Bateman and Organ (1983) found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs. Employees who had higher scores of job satisfaction engaged in OCBs more frequently than employees who had lower scores of job satisfaction. This consequence can be explained with Social Exchange Theory (Adams, 1965). Individuals with high job satisfaction are more likely to reciprocate their emotions of their jobs by performing OCBs voluntarily. OCB performance (e.g., helping co-workers and being on time) is much easier for individuals to control than being more productive or creative.
(e.g., creating new product ideas) at the workplace. Therefore, individuals use OCB performance as the method to contribute to their organization (Bateman & Organ, 1983).

Positive affect is in the form of job satisfaction, focusing on an individual’s positive mood. The concept of positive affect attempts to explain that an individual in a positive mood is more likely to perceive others (e.g., co-workers and managers) and things (e.g., work and organization) more positively. Williams and Shiaw (1999) found that employees in a positive mood had more intentions of engaging in OCBs rather than employees in a negative mood. One explanation for this consequence is that an individual’s positive mood also begets a positive influence on his or her perception of others (George, 1991). This positive perception increases the levels of caring for others and promotes an individual’s willingness to engage in pro-social behavior, which helps to maintain a positive work environment (Forest et al., 1979).

The next theoretical explanation of why individuals perform OCBs is procedural justice, which has been widely examined in OCB studies (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Moorman, 1991). Procedural justice is known as “fairness of processes during decision-making” (Cho & Kim, 2009, p. 107). Niehoff and Moorman (1993) found that employees who perceived themselves to be fairly treated in the process of decision-making at the workplace exhibited higher levels of OCBs more than individuals who scored lower in procedural justice. This study shows that employees care not only about the outcome of the decision-making, but also about their treatment in the workplace; procedural justice judgments increase individuals’ willingness to maintain healthy work environments and individual relationships at their workplace.

Recent studies also found that some personality characteristics (e.g., self-
monitoring, conscientiousness, and agreeableness) increase the frequency of OCB performance (Blakely, Andrews, & Fuller, 2003; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Small & Diefendorff, 2006). These results suggest that individuals have the potential to engage in OCBs based on personality types. For example, self-monitoring is positively correlated with the interpersonal dimensions of OCB, such as helping co-workers and communicating with them (Blakely et al., 2003). Self-monitoring was defined as characteristics that “tend to rely more on situational verbal and non-verbal cues than on their internal feelings and attitudes to determine the appropriateness of their own behavior” (Blakely et al., 2003, p. 133). An explanation for the positive correlation between self-monitoring and OCBs is that high self-monitors are very sensitive to others’ needs and are motivated to maintain their social appropriateness at work by responding to others’ needs.

**OCB classifications.** There are various types of OCB classifications in organizational settings since OCBs are not necessarily job-related and are not documented in writing by the organization (Farrell & Finkelstein, 2007). Some researchers have tried to classify OCBs in different ways: OCBs toward the organization (OCBO) and OCBs towards individuals (OCBI) (Williams & Anderson, 1991), interpersonal helping and organizational loyalty (Graham, 1989; 1991), altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue (Organ, 1988). In the current study, I will focus on altruism and civic virtue because these two types of OCBs were suggested as gendered OCBs according to previous researchers (Kidder & Parks, 2001; Kidder, 2002).
Altruism is a central dimension of OCBs. Altruism is one of the most consistent pro-social behaviors that involve helping behaviors. Altruism is the disinterested and selfless concern for the welfare and rights of others, empathy for them, and action in a way that benefits them (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). Altruism is characterized by the willingness to respond to the needs and feelings of others (Piliavin & Charng, 1990). Altruistic-OCBs represent helping, sharing, and cooperating behaviors in the workplace (e.g., voluntarily cooperating with a coworker who has numerous or difficult tasks which he or she cannot handle alone) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Altruistic-OCBs involve assisting other co-workers with organizationally related tasks. Moreover, altruistic-OCBs help altruistic-OCB performers express their concerns for others at the workplace (Clary et al., 1998).

Civic virtue is different from the other types of OCBs in a way that it deals not with other individuals but with the organization (Organ, 1988). In general, civic virtue is considered as a challenge-oriented behavior toward work and missions. Civic virtue includes the behaviors that relate to engaging in organizational matters (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Civic-OCBs are characterized by the positive contributions of responsible political participation due to an employee’s macro-level interest in his or her organization as an organizational citizenship member (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Civic-OCB performers constantly engage in the policies and rules of their organizations (e.g., going to a non-mandatory meeting). Moreover, civic-OCB performers develop skills that benefit their career, such as information processing and persuasive communication (Graham & Dyne, 2006).

Civic-OCBs have been identified with two aspects: 1) gathering information and 2)
exercising influence (Graham & Dyne, 2006). The first type of civic-OCBs, gathering information, can be commonly observed, such as participating in meetings that are not mandatory and keeping abreast of changes in the organization (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Gathering information helps individuals to be knowledgeable for their organization and jobs. The second type of civic-OCBs is exercising influence (e.g., voicing opinions of the organizational policies) and includes less common activities at the work place. To be able to engage in this type of civic-OCBs, the critical thinking and problem solving skills to identify possible problems and plans for improvements are essential for individuals (Graham & Dyne, 2006).

**The negative influence of OCBs.** Clearly, most previous OCB studies have focused on the benefits and advantages of OCBs. Organ and Ryan (1995), however, suggested that OCBs might increase the possibility of employees’ job stress and overload. In particular, Bolino and Turnley (2005) demonstrated that individual initiative increases individuals’ job stress, role overload, and work-family conflict. Individual initiative consists of “task-related behaviors at a level that is so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary flavor” (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 524). The examples of individual initiative behaviors are coming in early or staying late, checking back with the office while on vacation, and taking work home (Bolino & Turnley, 2005). It is understandable that individuals feel increased stress as they devote their extra time and effort into work-related matters instead of their personal time (e.g., family and hobbies). It is possible that some OCBs have a negative impact on participating employees.

Gadot (2006) also raised questions about the unrevealed negative side of OCBs
from a different approach. Gadot focused on OCBs that affect individuals negatively due to the pressures from others, and he named them “Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors (CCBs)” (Gadot, 2006, p. 85). Unfortunately, there are currently only two articles by Gadot regarding CCBs, and the topic of CCBs is still poorly developed in the area of organizational psychology. As this paper suggests, there will be more applications from CCB studies. The content of CCBs is explained in the next chapter.

**Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors**

Gadot (2006) questioned the boundary between good will and what employees feel obligated to perform as good will. He claimed the possibility of compulsory-performed OCBs because of abusive supervisors; this type of pro-social behavior should have negative impacts on performers (i.e., job stress and burnout). Since the fundamental aspect of OCBs is an individual’s personal and voluntary choice, the compulsory-performed OCBs have to be treated differently from OCBs. This new form of pro-social behavior was named Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors (CCBs) (Gadot, 2006). Gadot, the first researcher in the CCB field, defined CCBs as “extra-role behaviors when employees frequently face strong social or managerial pressure to engage involuntarily in informal work activities” (Gadot, 2006, p. 85). In other words, when someone is forced to perform pro-social behaviors at work, these behaviors are categorized as CCBs. Normally, CCB performers must bow to undesirable pressures from others for a sustained period of time (Gadot, 2007). In the antecedents of the CCBs section, this current paper will argue some possible reasons to explain why CCBs remain in the workplace. In the current study, I will name each CCB with a name of a categorized-OCB. For example, when people are forced to engage in altruistic OCBs, these behaviors are called altruistic-CCBs; when
people are forced to perform sportsmanship-OCBs, these pro-social behaviors are called sportsmanship-CCBs.

It may be controversial to identify some pro-social activities (e.g., helping co-workers) as negative as Gadot’s new approach implies these behaviors are due to mistreatment in the workplace. However, it is possible that an individual engages in pro-social behaviors under his or her boss’s pressure. For example, a boss may force an employee to simultaneously train a new employee and finish his or her workload on time. As a result, this employee has to simultaneously balance work priorities with an inflexible boss’s order. Gadot (2007) conducted a study of CCBs with a sample of 206 teachers from 13 schools in the northern area of Israel. He examined the reactions of CCB performers (e.g., job stress and job satisfaction). The teachers completed the questionnaire of CCBs, OCBs, job stress, organizational politics, intentions to leave, negligent behavior, innovation, job satisfaction, formal performance, and burnout. The majority of the participants reported that they had felt pressure to engage in pro-social behaviors in their workplaces. This result indicated that CCBs are common in the workplace. In addition, CCBs were positively related to job stress, organizational politics, intentions to leave, negligent behavior, and burnout. Moreover, CCBs were negatively related to innovation, job satisfaction, and formal performance (Gadot, 2007).

The negative consequence of CCBs. Gadot (2007) found that the reactions of CCB performers were negative: CCB performers perceived higher levels of stress and lower job satisfaction than individuals who did not engage in CCBs. The important feature from this previous study is that the CCB performers perceived pressures negatively and showed negative reactions in any psychological aspects (e.g., stress, job
satisfaction, and burnout). This is quite different from main idea of OCBs that contribute to the positive psychological environment (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Instead, it is close to the results of the individual initiative study conducted by Bolino and Turnley (2005). Both studies found that participants increased their stress levels after they engaged in pro-social behaviors. The explanations of the negative consequences of CCBs will be discussed in this section.

Stress is known as “an unpleasant emotional experience associated with elements of fear, dread, anxiety, irritation, annoyance, anger, sadness, grief, and depression” (Motowidlo, Packard, & Mannin, 1986, p. 618). In particular, job stress is recognized as the negative impact on human health and safety. It interferes with workers’ abilities to perform their jobs effectively. Gadot’s study (2007) noted that CCBs are positively correlated with stress levels; however, specific workplace stressors were not identified. The reasons why CCB performers feel stress have not been studied. Therefore, previous research on occupational stress and OCBs will be utilized to discuss their implications for CCBs.

Some researchers argued that fulfilling both regular job obligations and organizational member roles increased employees’ job stress (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Perlow, 1988). Organ and Ryan (1995) suggested that OCBs might increase the possibility of an employee’s role overload. Role overload occurs “when work requires more time and effort than an individual has for them so that the roles cannot be performed adequately and comfortably” (Singh & Singh, 2010, p. 9). Bolino and Turnley (2005) found that individual initiative (e.g., going to the office in the weekend) increased the level of role overload. This result indicates that employees feel overwhelmed since
they need to devote additional time and energy to fulfilling their organizational member roles. CCBs are not due to an individual’s voluntary willingness, but due to pressures from others; an individual should become easily overwhelmed while attempting to accomplish additional tasks. Accordingly, role overload should be a strong workplace stressor correlated with CCBs. CCB performers should feel overwhelmed to fulfill their extra-role jobs while accomplishing their prescribed job responsibilities.

Job satisfaction refers to the extent of an employee’s overall perception of his or her job as fulfilling or unfavorable regarding an individual’s values (Marris & Venkatesh, 2010), an individual’s emotional response toward one’s job, interpersonal relationships, and organizational support conditions of the workplace. Individuals who have unpleasant emotional experiences from CCBs have lower levels of job satisfaction (Gadot, 2007). Individuals engaging in any CCBs should feel unpleasant because of unfair pressures or unbalanced power from others. They should not be happy to devote extra effort and time to fulfill their organizational member roles.

**Antecedents of CCBs.** Gadot (2006) claimed that abusive supervisors and coercive persuasion are the reasons that employees reluctantly engage in CCBs. Abusive supervision is an engagement in a “sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact” (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). Abusive supervisors take advantage of employees who cannot refuse abusive behaviors without the risk of negative consequences (Tepper, Hoobler, Duffy, & Ensley, 2004). It is important for managers to promote OCBs at work to increase positive work environments and higher productivity. However, their excessive encouragement will create negative consequences if managers abuse their authority toward their subordinates.
Normally, targets of abuse are treated in the same undesirable ways for a sustained period of time due to two possible reasons: 1) the employees may have hopes that they may receive a promotion for following their supervisors’ instruction and 2) the targets remain stagnant due to differences in power between the abuser and the abused, thus discouraging targets from confronting unreasonable demands (Walker, 1979). In addition, employees feel compelled to obey any and all orders or else risk negative managerial feedback (Gadot, 2006).

In addition to abusive supervisors, workplace bullying may lead individuals to engage in CCBs reluctantly. Workplace bullying is “repeated and prolonged hostile mistreatment of one or more people at work” (Keashly, 2010, p. 10). Verbal, physical, and psychological abuses are used on bully targets (Neuman & Baron, 1998). ‘Unreasonable demands regarding workload and expectations’ are identified as workplace bullying behaviors with other types such as isolating, threatening professional status (e.g., humiliation of a person’s ability or competence at work) and personal standing (e.g., name-calling insults), and destabilization (e.g., others steal the credit of bullying victim’s work) (Rayner & Hoel, 1997). It is possible that victims of workplace bullying are forced to perform extra pro-social behaviors beyond their responsibilities and their circumstances are ignored when they cannot handle the requests. This specific type of bullying can be strongly associated with CCBs. For example, an individual may be forced to do office chores (e.g., printing documents for meetings) which abusive peers and supervisors do not want to do by themselves, in addition to the unreal expectation that his or her normal tasks should be finished on time.

Although workplace bullying and abusive supervisors are different organizational
concerns, they share some common attributes which may lead to CCBs. The first common attribute between abusive supervisors and workplace bullying is prolonged power imbalances between abusers and victims, rendering the victims defenseless. Normally, CCB performers understand the risks (e.g., negative managerial feedback) of not engaging in CCBs. Therefore, they feel compelled to engage in CCBs. As I discussed before, abusive treatments normally continue for a sustained period of time. On average, victims experience workplace bullying consistently from six months to a year (Keashly & Neuman, 2004). Because of this, workplace bullying is considered a persistent and repeated workplace aggression (Keashly, 2010). A second common attribute of both workplace bullying and abusive supervisors is that the aggression frequently happens by abusive supervisors. The Workplace Bullying Institute (2009) found that 75.4% of workplace bullying originated from supervisors, and 18.7% from peers with the same rank. Organizations that bestow extreme power and control to supervisors are more likely to create a bully type boss (Glendinning, 2001).

In order to clarify the difference between workplace bullying and CCBs in the current study, any involuntary pro-social behaviors, which are performed due to workplace bullying at any superiority level are defined as CCBs. Any behaviors that attempt to use managerial powers as a tool to harm others are defined as workplace bullying. If the abusive supervisors or peers are not forcing an individual to engage in any pro-social behaviors, and an individual engages in the behavior it is considered a discretionary behavior (OCB). For example, an abusive boss attempts to force his or her subordinate to help new employees when this subordinate already has too much work to handle new tasks. Moreover, this boss does not try to adjust work priority for this
subordinate. In this case, the behavior of ordering a subordinate to perform OCBs is called workplace bullying, and a subordinate’s helping behaviors are called CCBs.

In the OCBs and CCBs sections, the common and different characteristics between OCBs and CCBs were discussed in the current paper. Both OCBs and CCBs are pro-social behaviors at work that are not associated with the employee’s formal job and that contribute to organizational effectiveness. In addition, both OCB and CCB performers are aware of the risks (e.g., losing a promotion opportunity or getting negative managerial feedback) of not engaging in pro-social behaviors. In particular, CCB performers feel fear constantly because they are under pressure from others. Moreover, both OCB and CCB performers are aware of the possibilities of indirect and direct positive feedback, such as promotions and salary increases. The significant difference between OCBs and CCBs is the antecedents of pro-social performance. The decision to engage in OCBs is strictly limited to an individual’s personal choice. On the contrary, undesirable pressure from others due to power imbalance (e.g., abusive supervisors and workplace bullying) is the antecedent of CCBs. Accordingly, I would like to redefine CCBs as organizational citizenship behaviors when these conditions fit: 1) contributes to organizational effectiveness, 2) under power imbalance, such as abusive supervisors and peers or workplace bullying, 3) not discretionary, and 4) not employees’ formal job.

Job Performance Evaluation

Traditionally, job performance evaluation is known as performance appraisal. Employees are evaluated in terms of various compensable factors in the evaluation process (e.g., required skill, ability, and effort) (Henderson, 1982). Job performance evaluations are composed of two different types of processes: observation and judgment.
Observation processes include the “detection, perception, and recall or recognition of specific behavioral events” (Casio & Aguinis, 2005, p. 87). Judgment processes include the evaluation of an individual’s job performance based on the information that is obtained from observation processes. Then, an individual’s job performance is evaluated with the standardized scales that organizations create and that describe what is acceptable and unacceptable performance levels (Thornton & Zorich, 1980). Job performance evaluation is the process of gathering information about each employee based on various compensable factors. Evaluating the capability of each employee’s performance is an application of judgment (Casio & Aguinis, 2005).

Job performance evaluation is usually used by managers in order to manage and guide their subordinates into their career development. Managers discuss performance with their subordinates and provide appropriate feedback to their subordinates based on job performance evaluations. Moreover, job performance evaluation provides valuable information about each employee for human resources to make decisions about organizational rewards (e.g., promotion and salary increases). In addition, job performance evaluation helps employees to understand the level of expectations from their managers and recognize ideal work performance (Gedeon & Rubin, 1999).

**OCBs and evaluations.** Previous studies have found that OCBs account for variance in performance evaluation both directly and indirectly (Organ, 1988; Posdakoff & Mackenzie, 1994). These studies have proved that individuals who engaged in OCBs are more likely to receive positive feedback, such as promotions and salary increases. It can be said that performing OCBs can add extra positive feedback in addition to the feedback from an employee’s requisite knowledge, skills, and abilities needed to perform
the job (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998). Generally, managers evaluate favorably their subordinates who perform OCBs because OCBs help make managers’ jobs easier and promote organizational effectiveness (Allen, 2006). Furthermore, in a laboratory study, the college students also rated favorably fictional subordinates who engaged in OCBs than other fictional subordinates who did not engage in OCBs (Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999).

Accordingly, evaluators pay attention to OCBs in the evaluation process. At the same time, it is also considered fair to evaluate OCB performance from the subordinates’ points of view. Johnson, Holladay, and Quinones (2009) conducted a study of employees’ reactions to the use of OCBs in a performance evaluation process. The combination of 249 students and 78 employees participated. All participants compared the fairness of 11 different weighting combinations of OCB and core task behavior (i.e., “the formal, traditional behaviors that are prescribed and recognized as part of a particular job”) (Johnson et al., 2009, p. 409). These 11 different weighting combinations ranged from 100% OCBs and 0% core task behaviors to 0% OCBs and 100% core task behaviors with 10% increments. As a result, the majority of the participants reported that evaluating employees on OCBs was fair. On average, 30-50% of OCB weighting in the evaluation was perceived to be the most favorable and fair. Interestingly, gender influenced the perceptions of the OCB weighting in the evaluation process. The male participants reported that they felt 20-30% of OCB weighting were the most fair and female participants felt 25-50% were the most fair.

**Gender Differences**

Since job performance evaluations depend on human judgment, the evaluation
results are influenced by some biases, such as gender and age biases (Casio & Aguinis, 2005). The main purpose of current study is to investigate how job performance evaluations and reward recommendations are changed based on a performer's gender, especially when a performer engages in CCBs under undesirable pressure from others. Currently, there are previous studies about gender differences on OCBs, but there are not any studies on CCBs. Therefore, in this section, I will introduce gender-role stereotypes and their influence on the job evaluations and reward recommendations of OCB performers. Next, I will apply these principles to CCBs in order to examine whether the relationship between CCBs and job evaluation would be influenced by the gender of a CCB performer.

**Gender-role stereotypes.** Gender-role stereotypes are the shared beliefs of what attributes and characteristics women and men possess (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). They suggest that some particular attributes and characteristics are more appropriate for women than men, and vice versa. In other words, gender-role stereotypes create the expectation for how an individual should behave based on his or her gender. If an individual fails to follow gender-role stereotypes, people react negatively toward him or her (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995). Because gender-role stereotypes are the shared beliefs in a culture, they affect men’s and women’s behaviors. Individuals establish their own self-identities by categorizing themselves into a gender role in order to understand “what to do, think, and even feel” (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999, p. 417). Accordingly, gender-role stereotypes not only are descriptive about how and what men and women actually are but also prescriptive about how and what men and women should be.

Traditionally, women in our culture are believed to be less competitive (Walters,
Stuhlmaker, & Meyer, 1998) and have lower levels of self-efficacy in their performance than men (Busch, 1995). In addition, it is commonly believed that women are more sensitive (Vance, Ensher, Hendricks, & Harris, 2004), empathetic, friendly, caring (e.g., Carey, Fox, & Spraggins, 1998), and helpful (Gilligan, Ward, & Taylor, 1988; etc.). However, it is inaccurate to say that men are not as helpful as women. Social-Role Theory of gender categorizes helpful behaviors; women are more likely to provide a higher level of nurturing and caring. Women are expected to be more emotionally and personally supportive. Men, conversely, are more likely to put themselves at risk to save others in a heroic and courteous manner (Eagly & Crowley, 1986). Moreover, men in our cultures are commonly believed to be aggressive, competitive (e.g., Berger, Rosenholtz, & Zelditch, 1980) independent, and autonomous (Gupta, Turban, Wasti, & Sikdar, 2009).

**Gender influences on OCBs.** The performance frequency of specific types of OCBs significantly differ between women and men since gender influences many aspects such as thinking, attitude, and behavior (Williams & O’Reilly, 1998). An explanation for the relationship between gender and OCB performance frequency is that individuals establish their self-identities when they fit into their gender roles.

In this sense, gender is one of the most important factors that change an individual’s OCB performance. While some dimensions of OCBs have been suggested as gendered OCBs, altruism and civic virtue have been the focus in gender studies (e.g., Kidder, 2002; Sapp, Harrod, & Zhao, 1996). Heilman and Chen (2005) suggested that altruistic-OCBs (e.g., helping co-workers with work-related problems) associate with the female stereotypes of caring and helping, which result from empathetic abilities. Conversely, civic-OCB (e.g., voicing opinions of the organizational rules) is considered
as a more political behavior associated with male gender stereotypes (Farrell & Finkelstein 2007).

Kidder (2002) conducted a study to investigate the influence of gender on the performance of OCBs. There were 251 nurses (218 women and 33 men) and 195 engineers (54 women and 141 men) who participated in the study. All participants were asked to rate the frequency of their OCB performance (i.e., altruistic-OCBs and civic-OCBs) with a 5-point Likert scale. The study found that women are more likely to engage in altruistic-OCBs than men. Moreover, men reported that they engaged in civic-OCBs, such as participating in group discussions, more than women did (Kidder, 2002). This study supported that gender is related to gender-congruent OCBs.

**Gender influences on OCB evaluations.** Many judgmental errors (e.g., halo effect, central tendency, and leniency) have been found in the rating process (Benson & Smith, 1986). Gender stereotypes can also impact the process of the job performance evaluation. Allen (2006) examined the relationship between OCBs and two organizational rewards (i.e., salary and promotion) using gender as a moderator. The study found that the relationship between OCBs and promotion was stronger with male OCB performers than female OCB performers. The other studies also found that male OCB performers received more promotion opportunities than female OCB performers because OCBs were less expected and more noticeable when performed by men (Allen, 2006; Farrell & Finkelstein, 2007; Heilman & Chen, 2005). On the contrary, female OCB performers are not evaluated as favorably by their supervisors as men because women are more likely to be expected to engage in OCBs more frequently (Allen & Rush, 1998; Heilman & Chen, 2005). OCBs are not noticeable and are ignored when performed by
The evaluations for gender-congruent and gender-incongruent OCBs are also different based on a performer’s gender. Heilman and Chen (2005) conducted a study to examine the evaluation differences on altruistic-OCBs based on the performer’s gender. They found that male altruistic-OCB performers were evaluated more highly than female altruistic-OCB performers; altruistic-OCBs are associated with female stereotypical characteristics (e.g., friendly and caring). Moreover, women who did not engage in altruistic-OCBs were unfavorably evaluated; however, men who did not engage in altruistic-OCBs were not affected as much on their evaluation. The study found that altruistic-OCBs are not up to personal choice for women at work. This study proved that people evaluate altruistic-OCBs differently depending on the performer’s gender.

Other previous studies also demonstrated the issues of gender influence on the evaluation process of male gender roles and tasks (e.g., Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, & Tamkins, 2004; Swim, Borgida, Maruyama, & Myers, 1989). These studies found that gender bias exists against female employees who engage in stereotypical male roles and manners, such as a directive leadership style (Butler & Geis, 1990) and a task-oriented nonverbal style (Carli, LaFleur, & Loeber, 1995). Furthermore, in field study, 30,000 corporate managers reported that they had evaluated their female employees in upper levels lower than male employees in same levels of competence (Lyness & Judiesch, 1999). This type of women who succeed at engaging in stereotypical male roles is perceived to be less friendly (Porter & Geis, 1981) and undesirable as part of a group (Hagen & Kahn, 1975). Moreover, they are not personally welcomed because of negative perceptions that they are, for example, bitter and selfish. On the contrary, men who are...
successful in male roles are not perceived negatively (Heilman, Block, & Martell, 1995). The results of these studies support the idea that women who engage in civic-OCBs will have lower evaluations and organizational reward recommendations.

According to these previous gender studies on OCB evaluations, I expected that people would evaluate OCB performers more favorably when these performers engaged in gender-congruent OCBs (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 1: Gender-congruent OCBs will be more favorably evaluated than gender-incongruent OCBs. Specifically:

• Female altruistic-OCB performers will be evaluated more favorably than female civic-OCB performers.
• Male civic-OCB performers will be evaluated more favorably than male altruistic-OCB performers.
Figure 1. Hypothesis 1: Gender-Congruent OCBs Will Be More Favorably Evaluated Than Gender-Incongruent OCBs.
**Gender influences on CCBs.** Because OCBs and CCBs share common performance attributes and people share common beliefs of gender stereotypes, these gender-role stereotypes on altruistic and civic behaviors should apply to CCBs as well as OCBs; altruistic-CCBs are associated with female stereotypical characteristics, and civic-CCBs are associated with male stereotypical characteristics. For example, altruistic-CCBs (e.g., bringing hot drinks and sweets to a boss and clients) are stereotypically feminine tasks; female employees have pressure to accomplish female-stereotyped CCBs in addition to their normal jobs. That is, this stereotype creates a work environment in which female employees are easily targeted to be the victims of altruistic-CCBs. The same principle can apply to male employees as well. Since civic-CCBs (i.e., going to extra meetings) are considered to be a stereotypically male behavior, male employees are more likely to be targeted as victims of civic-CCBs.

**Gender influences on CCB evaluations.** Many judgmental errors (e.g., the halo effect, central tendency, and leniency), especially gender stereotypes, should also happen in the CCB performance rating process in the same way as in the OCB performance rating process. Currently, there are not any previous studies focused on how gender-congruent and gender-incongruent CCBs are evaluated differently due to the gender stereotypes of evaluators. Therefore, Attribution Theory (Green & Mitchell, 1979; Kelley, 1967; Weiner, 1995) is introduced to establish the framework to explain how the gender stereotypes may have an impact on the gender-congruent and gender-incongruent CCB evaluations. Attribution Theory (Green & Mitchell, 1979; Weiner, 1995) is a part of cognitive social psychology that explains “when events deviate from norms and expectations, individuals seek to generate explanations for these deviations” (Grant,
Parker, & Collins, 2009, p. 34). That is, attribution theory indicates that observers tend to look for the reasons behind someone’s actions, such as motivation (Allen & Rush, 1998; Eastman, 1994; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). In the work context, attribution theory explains how supervisors observe and rationalize the successful or unsuccessful performances of their subordinates (Green & Mitchell, 1979). Normally, supervisors are able to observe their subordinates through their facial expressions and verbal and nonverbal cues to rationalize their motivations of OCB behaviors (Grant et al., 2009).

There are many different types of attribution theories (e.g., Green & Mitchell, 1979; Weiner, 1995). In this section, Kelley’s Attribution Theory (1967) is introduced and applied to discuss how the evaluations of gender-incongruent and gender-congruent CCB differ. In brief, Kelley (1967) proposed three types of information that supervisors attribute when they evaluate the behavior of their subordinates: 1) consistency, 2) distinctiveness, and 3) consensus (see Figure 2).
Figure 2: Applying Kelley’s (1967) attribution model to compare evaluations of gender-congruent CCBs and gender-incongruent CCBs.
First, consistency reflects the generality of the employee’s behavior across place or time (i.e., how often has the employee behaved this way before?). In terms of OCBs, for example, employees who continuously engage in OCBs throughout the year are recognized as good citizens, and those who only engage in OCBs just before job performance evaluations are recognized differently from ideal good citizens since they do not engage in OCBs due to pro-social values but due to personal interests (Eastman, 1994).

Earlier in the current study, it is mentioned that CCB performers are in the same undesirable condition, and they have to obey the CCB orders. That is, CCB performers constantly engage in CCBs until their abusive supervisors or co-workers stop forcing them to engage in CCBs. Both gender-congruent and gender-incongruent CCB performers continuously engage in CCBs throughout the year. In another way, however, both gender-congruent and gender-incongruent CCBs can be inconsistent depending on the existence of abusive supervisors and co-workers. It is possible that employees do not have to focus on CCBs while their abusive supervisors and co-workers are not in the office. For example, if employees know that their abusive supervisor is on vacation for a while, they may choose to focus on their jobs that they usually cannot finish because of the CCB orders from their boss and to take a break from CCBs.

Secondly, distinctiveness refers to the generality of the employee’s behavior across its potential targets (i.e., what kind of people has the employee behaved this way around?). This dimension helps to clarify the difference between OCBs and CCBs when evaluators judge performance. Eastman (1994) found that employees whose OCBs were targeted toward their supervisors were labeled as ingratiators; employees whose OCBs
were for anyone at the workplace were labeled as good citizens. Although both ingratiiators and good citizens engaged in the same OCBs, their managers responded to their performances differently. Employees who were labeled as good citizens received more favorable evaluations than employees who were labeled as ingratiiators. Eastman’s study (1994) showed that employees whose pro-social behaviors are targeted toward only their supervisors do not receive favorable responses during the evaluation process.

In CCBs, on the contrary, both gender-congruent and gender-incongruent CCB performers do not have any choice to target their CCB performance. They follow the already determined targets based on the orders from their abusive superiors or co-workers. The targets of CCBs can be either abusive supervisors or co-workers, or other people. It can be possible that the abusive supervisors and co-workers are the main targets of CCBs because CCBs are helpful for them and they decide to order CCB performers to work for them. Therefore, if evaluators know performers engage in not OCBs but CCBs, evaluators should keep in mind that CCB performers are forced to target their CCBs toward limited people. Evaluators should not identify CCB performers as ingratiiators because their CCB performances are targeted to limited people.

Finally, consensus reflects the generality of the employee’s behavior across other people (i.e., have other employees behaved in this way?). When managers found why an individual engaged in CCBs (i.e., a CCB performer is under imbalanced power and pressure from others), they may feel empathy toward a CCB performer. Especially when an individual engages in gender-incongruent CCBs, CCBs should be more noticeable. For example, when a man engages in altruistic-CCBs (e.g., giving emotional support to his co-workers), this behavior is not expected to be his gender role and should be more
noticeable. The same principle can happen to women; when women engage in civic-CCBs, the CCBs should be more noticeable and get more positive feedback than when they engage in altruistic-CCBs. Therefore, I assumed that managers would evaluate gender-incongruent CCB performers more favorably than gender-congruent CCB performers; managers would feel stronger empathy to gender-incongruent CCB performers than gender-congruent CCB performers (see Figure 3).

_Hypothesis 2:_ Gender-incongruent CCBs will be more favorably evaluated than gender-congruent CCBs. Specifically:

- Female civic-CCB performers will be evaluated more favorably than female altruistic-CCB performers.
- Male altruistic-CCB performers will be evaluated more favorably than male civic-CCB performers.
Figure 3. Hypothesis 2: Gender-Incongruent CCBs Will Be More Favorably Evaluated Than Gender-Congruent CCBs
CCBs and evaluations. Although CCBs happen due to negative work environments, the results of CCBs are supposed to contribute to organizational effectiveness. When employees engage in CCBs, will they receive positive feedback (e.g., a promotion and salary raise)? Will the CCB performer’s patience and effort under unbalanced power and pressure from others be rewarded? Are their pro-social acts of being organizational citizen members praised by their supervisors? It is questionable whether CCB performers are treated like OCB performers who are perceived to be good citizen members because they work beyond expectations. In this section, attribution theory (Weiner, 1995) is introduced and applied to discuss the third hypothesis in the current study. Applying Weiner’s (1995) model to the framework in the current study helps to compare OCB and CCB performance evaluations. Weiner (1995) proposed the social responsibility theory of attribution. According to Weiner’s theory, attributions are able to be classified into three dimensions: 1) locus of control, 2) stability, and 3) controllability (see Figure 4).
Figure 4: Applying Weiner’s (1995) attribution model to compare OCB and CCB performance evaluations.
First, the dimension of locus of control refers to the observer’s perception of whether the behavior is due to a performer’s personalities, values, and internal traits (internal) or the demand of the situation (external) (Green & Mitchell, 1979; Halbesleben et al., 2010). As the current study described earlier, OCBs happen due to an employee’s personal choice to engage or disengage from the behavior; OCBs can be categorized as having an internal locus of control. CCBs, on the other hand, happen due to a power imbalance, such as abusive supervisors and peers or workplace bullying; CCBs can be categorized as the external locus of control.

Managers are more likely to look for the subordinate’s motivations of pro-social behaviors (e.g., personal interest or pro-social value) to determine the values of the behaviors, since pro-social behaviors are beyond the obligatory jobs (Grant & Ashford, 2008). Halbesleben, Bowler, Bolino, and Turnley (2010) integrated attribution theory into OCB evaluation. They conducted a study that compared the manager’s evaluation on his or her subordinates who engaged in OCBs with pro-social value (i.e., moral standards and loyalty to the organization) or with impression-management motives (i.e., desire to impress a boss in order to get organizational rewards). A group of 491 supervisors (248 men, 243 women) participated in this study. All participants were asked to consider their subordinates’ OCBs and describe the possible reasons of their OCBs. In addition, the manager’s emotional reactions toward his or her subordinates’ OCBs were also measured. As a result, managers expressed anger and evaluated their subordinates more unfavorably on OCBs with impression-management motives; however, OCBs with pro-social value and organizational concern motives were evaluated more favorably by managers. Furthermore, the negative reactions toward OCB performers with impression-
management motives were less intense than positive reactions toward those with pro-
social value and organizational concern (Halbesleben et al., 2010). Their study
demonstrated that OCBs are not always evaluated positively; employees who engage in
OCBs due to impression-management motives are more likely to get lower evaluations
from their managers.

Another study also proved that employees who showed their strong pro-social
values and other people without personal reward expectations had significantly positive
performance evaluations from their managers than those who did not express pro-social
values (Grant et al., 2009). Accordingly, managers respond to OCB performers
differently based on the reasons of the behavior during the job performance evaluation
process to determine whether each OCB performer deserves credit. It implies that CCBs
can elicit very different responses from supervisors compared to OCBs because the
antecedents of OCBs and CCBs are totally different. CCB performers contribute to
organizational effectiveness; however, individual willingness and pro-social values are
not the motivations of CCB performers. Therefore, managers should be less impressed
with CCB performers compared to OCB performers who engage in the same pro-social
behaviors (see Figure 5).

*Hypothesis 3*: OCB performers will be evaluated more favorably than CCB performers.
Figure 5. Hypothesis 3: OCB Performers Will Be Evaluated More Favorably Than CCB Performers
Second, the dimension of stability refers to the observer’s perception of whether “the supervisor expects the motive to remain stable over time or to change as the situation changes” (Halbesleben et al., 2010, p. 1460). In general, OCB performers are perceived to have continuous motivation to engage in OCBs. It is understandable that OCB performers have continuous motivation to engage in OCBs because they want to contribute to their organization or impress their supervisors. For example, Shore, Barksdale, and Shore (1995) found that managers perceived that OCB performers had continuous organizational commitment. Organizational commitment means that employees have commitments to their organizations to stay and work to achieve organizational goals. Managers use their subordinates’ OCB performances to measure their continuous motivation to work for their organization. Managers believe that people who work beyond their formal jobs and who spend extra effort and time for the organization have a commitment to keep engaging in OCBs for the organizations. Moreover, their study found that managers evaluated their subordinates favorably who engaged in OCBs (Shore et al., 1995).

On the contrary, CCB performers originally do not have motives to engage in CCBs. More likely, their abusive managers or co-workers have motives to force CCB performers to engage in CCBs. Although the targets of abuse are treated in the same undesirable ways for a sustained period of time, victims of CCBs do not know what kind of CCB order they will get until their abusive managers or co-workers force them to engage in CCBs. Therefore, it can be said that CCBs is categorized as unstable in the stability dimension in Weiner’s theory.
Third, the dimension of controllability refers to the observer’s perception of whether a performer has control over his or her behavior (Weiner, 1995). This dimension helps to clarify the difference between OCBs and CCBs when people attribute the pro-social behaviors to performers. As the current study described earlier, OCBs are not “enforceable requirement[s] of the role or the job description” since OCBs are not in a job description (Organ, 1988, p. 4). OCBs happen due to an employee’s personal choice to engage or disengage from the behavior. Normally, individuals engage in OCBs because they have positive personal characteristics (e.g., personalities and pro-social values) that lead them to contribute to their organizations (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ & Lingl, 1995). Moreover, some individuals engage in OCBs in order to manage impressions from their supervisors. Since OCBs are indirectly or directly rewarded, some individuals engage in OCBs with an impression-management motive (Halbesleben et al., 2010). These individuals make a decision to engage in OCBs especially around the performance evaluation season. Either way, both types of individuals decide to take their time and effort to engage in OCBs. That is, an OCB performer has control over making a decision to engage in OCBs.

CCBs, on the other hand, happen “when employees frequently face strong social or managerial pressure to engage involuntarily in informal work activities” (Gadot, 2006, p. 85). As the current study approached the antecedents of CCBs earlier, power imbalance, coercive persuasion, and workplace bullying are the reasons that individuals engage in CCBs. CCB performers must bow to undesirable pressures from others constantly. Normally, CCB performers cannot refuse to engage in CCBs without the risk of negative consequences (Tepper et al., 2004). It is not an option for individuals to avoid
the orders that force them to engage in CCBs. That is, a CCB performer does not have control over making a decision to engage in CCBs.

**Implications**

CCBs have not been previously studied in America. Only studies from Gadot (2006; 2007) in Israel are available at present; the current study was the first one in America. An understanding of CCBs can be widely utilized in many types of organizational settings. The current study may be relevant for a variety of types of public and private jobs. Moreover, the current study can be applicable to organizations nationwide. Normally, CCBs happen at work because pro-social behaviors are essential to the organizations and abusive supervisors and co-workers exist. Some supervisors seem to believe both OCBs and CCBs are the same. The confusions of OCBs and CCBs certainly exist in some workplaces. Moreover, the understanding of negative consequences of CCBs has been neglected. As Gadot (2006; 2007) mentioned, CCBs cause negative impacts on the performers (e.g., intentions to leave, stress, and lower job satisfaction), and it is crucial for organizations to deal with CCBs. Organizations should be aware of the negative impacts of CCBs and prepare to deal with CCB problems. The current paper will help readers to understand 1) the concepts of CCBs, 2) the negative consequences of CCBs, and 3) difference between OCBs and CCBs.

It is important to study gender influences on the job evaluation and reward recommendations of CCB performers. Because job performance evaluations have a significant impact on employees, it is crucial that managers evaluate their subordinates fairly. Unfair performance evaluations based on gender can increase negative reactions of subordinates (e.g., stress and turnover rate) and discrimination lawsuits. If the hypotheses
are proven in the current study, it means that there is subtle discrimination that is not easily recognized. In addition, the results of the current study will indicate that the different performance evaluation results among altruistic and civic behaviors are not because of different perceptions of the performers. It is not how an individual performer is evaluated based on his or her behaviors but rather “the degree to which the behavior was viewed as consistent with gender-stereotypic prescriptions that determined the ultimate evaluation or reward recommendation” (Heilmand & Chen, 2005, p. 437). It is important for evaluators to know that similar evaluation results should happen when the employees engage in the same type of CCBs. The current paper will help managers understand how gender bias influences CCB evaluations and will prevent managers from evaluating their subordinates with gender biases. Knowing the influence of gender stereotypes on CCB performance evaluations help to develop the training systems for job performance evaluators in order to eliminate gender bias in evaluations.

Another unique feature of the current study is the comparison of OCB to CCB performance evaluation results. Any previous studies did not compare the job performance evaluations on OCB performers and CCB performers. Since employees devote their time and efforts to engage in either OCBs or CCBs, these behaviors should be respected and rewarded. Both OCBs and CCBs are pro-social behaviors that contribute to organizational effectiveness; therefore, they are critical for organizations to accomplish their goals. If only CCB performers are not evaluated favorably, following with their patience under undesirable pressure from others, CCB performers may be unhappy to work and they may want to quit their jobs. It means that the evaluators fail to recognize the values of CCBs. The current study will help to protect employees who are
forced to perform extra work for organizations that insist that doing good, work-related activities is best for both the employees and the organization.
CHAPTER II
METHOD

Participants

The participants were 166 individuals who were both undergraduate and graduate students at Cleveland State University. Based on previous research (Grams & Schwab, 1985; Hornsby, Benson, & Smith, 1987), there was no significant difference between student evaluators and professional compensation specialists. According to the demographic background questionnaires, the overall sample consisted of 112 women and 54 men; their average age was 25.6 years old (SD= 11.5); 62.0% were non-Hispanic white, 22.9% were black or African American, 5.4% were Hispanic or Latino; 46.4% were part-time, 28.5% were full-time, 20.5% were unemployed; and 77.7% were done with high school and 16.3% were done with college. The majority of participants had work experience: 79.5% of participants had work experience. Moreover, 50.0% of participants had performance rating experience, and 49.4% of participants did not have any performance rating experience before. All students above 18 years of age were allowed to participate in this study, and they were registered through a web-based system used in the psychology department at Cleveland State University. Participants got course credit or extra credit. The specific times and days for the experiments were posted on the web-based system, and each participant had the ability to sign up for one experiment time-set that worked for his or her schedule. All students participated voluntarily, and
were allowed to leave the study if they felt uncomfortable. Data were collected between October 2011 and December 2011.

**Procedure**

The researcher briefly described the procedure of this study to the participants, including a guarantee of keeping personal information confidential. The researcher indicated that this study was about performance evaluation methods, instead of specifying that it was about gender influences on the evaluation of CCB performers so that the researcher would be able to get honest answers from the participants. It was possible that participants would change their opinions; they would respond differently to avoid their gender bias in this study if they knew the purpose of this study. Each participant received an informed consent form that stated briefly the procedure of the study, and the participants were asked to print and sign their names if they agreed to participate in this study. They were told that they were allowed to leave if they felt uncomfortable. The researcher’s contact information was provided at the end of the statement in case the participants had any further questions (see Appendix A).

After all participants signed their names on the informed consent form, they were allowed to open the next page. On the next page, there was an employee information form. It was a 2 (gender) × 2 (voluntary nature of behavior: OCBs or CCBs) × 2 (type of behaviors: altruistic or civic) mixed between-within-subjects methodology, where the weighting of gender and type of behavior (OCBs or CCBs) were the between-subjects variable and gender of behavior (altruistic or civic) was the within-subject variable. The independent variables in this study were gender, voluntary nature of behavior (OCB or CCB), and type of behavior (altruistic or civic). The altruistic type of CCB was chosen as
a woman’s stereotypical job. The civic type of CCB was chosen in this study as a man’s stereotypical job.

Eight types of scenarios were prepared in the current study (see Appendices C, D, E, F, G, H, I, and J). Participants read two different types of employee descriptions that included the imaginary employee’s work history, which would vary in terms of gender, and whether some of the imaginary employee's behaviors were voluntary or coerced (see Figure 6). Each participant received only two types of information form so that a participant would not realize the purpose of this study by reading and comparing other versions of the forms. Moreover, the researcher switched the order in which the participants received the altruistic versus civic forms. Some participants received an altruistic form first and a civic form second. The other participants received a civic form first and an altruistic form second. A mixed between-within subject design was used in order to increase statistical power and reduce error variance associated with individual differences of the participants. The reductions of the error variance could be controlled with a within-subject design since the participants were the same in the two different types of conditions. Every individual would evaluate job performance and make recommendations for two different employees with his or her own perspectives. Error variance would be increased if a between-subject design would have been used since the individual differences of participants may have affected the dependent variables.
Figure 6: Presentation chart for eight types of employee information forms to participants.
All participants were asked to imagine themselves in the position of a manager making decisions in the employee information forms. The employee information forms contained background about the employee’s work history with the company. All of them included: the employee’s name (female or male name), work department name (communication), job title (technical writer), starting date (June, 2006), tenure in the current position (3 years), and job performance report. At the end of the employee information form, there was an open-ended report section describing one type of CCB (e.g., altruistic-CCBs or civic-CCBs) or OCB (altruistic-OCBs or civic-OCBs) that the employee engages in. The names of both the male and female employees were chosen from the top ten lists of the most common names in the U.S from the websites. For instance, James was the most popular American male name with approximately 4 million James’s found in the U.S. (“Most common surnames,” n.d.).

All employee information forms included the same sentences about the background of the employees, such as occupational title and company location. Kidder (2002) suggested that job characteristics may influence the performance of OCBs. Kidder’s suggestion implies that job characteristics could have changed the participant’s reactions in the current study, which was important to deal with. Without describing a job on the forms, each participant would imagine a different job, which may have created errors. Accordingly, one particular job, technical writer at a cellular phone company was selected; it would hold job characteristics constant while risking external validity. All participants would have a same image of the work itself, as the job characteristics on the information forms were narrowed down to a technical writer job.
The job title of technical writer was chosen in this study so that all participants would have the same ideas about tasks. Technical writer is usually lower level compared to managers. Since all participants would be asked to evaluate their imaginary subordinates in the current study, it was important to choose a job title that fit in this model. A few items (e.g., tasks, ability, and skills) were cited from the website called Occupational Information Network (O*NET) (O*NET, 2010). O*NET consists of the websites of occupational information sponsored by the Employment and Training Administration of the United State Department of Labor. The occupational information on O*NET includes tasks, knowledge, skills, abilities, work activities, work context, interests, and work values for each occupation, and this information would help participants to understand a technical writer’s job. Based on the information from O*NET (e.g., communication and listening skills, reading and writing skills, and problem solving skills), the competency profile of an imaginary employee was created. In order to maximize the impact of the open-ended report that describes the types of behavior and gender of behavior, the levels of skills and abilities of an imaginary employee were standardized as average.

Three behavior items were chosen for each altruistic and civic behavior from the organizational citizenship behavior scale made by Podsakoff’s and his colleagues’ study (1990). This scale has been widely used in many previous OCB studies (Farrell & Finkelstein, 2007; Kidder, 2002). The individual willingness to engage in altruistic or civic behaviors was mentioned in the open-ended report of the OCB conditions in the current paper. The CCB items in this study were modified from the same OCB scale made by Podsakoff and his colleagues (1990). Power imbalance and pressure from others
were mentioned as the reasons of altruistic or civic behaviors in the open-ended report of CCB conditions. In addition, both OCB and CCB forms included the additional notes: 1) these behaviors are not the employee’s formal jobs and 2) these behaviors contribute to organizational effectiveness. In order to maximize the impact of the open-ended report, the OCB and CCB explanations were highlighted and described in more detail than the competency profile.

After reading an employee information form, all participants were asked to evaluate the employee’s job performance and make organizational reward recommendations (see Appendix H). After the participants finished the tasks with one employee’s information form, they were asked to complete the same tasks with a different employee’s form (see Appendix B).

Measures

Performance evaluations. The performance evaluation scale created by Heilman and Chen (2005) was used in the current study. They reported that this scale had a reliability of $\alpha = .82$. Overall success rate and job performance evaluation were measured with 5-point scales, ranging from 1 (very poor) to 5 (very good). The results from the overall success rate and job performance evaluation were averaged to calculate overall performance evaluations.

Reward recommendation. The reward recommendation scale created by Heilman and Chen (2005) is used in the current study. They reported that this scale had a reliability of $\alpha = .88$. There were 5-point scales, ranging from 1 (would not definitely recommend) to 5 (would differently recommend). Four types of organizational rewards (e.g., salary increase, promotion, high-profile project, and bonus pay) were selected. Each
participant was asked to circle one number for each reward that he or she thought this
imaginary subordinate should receive. The definitions of each organizational reward were
described in the cover page of materials that each participant received from the researcher.

**Data Coding**

In SPSS, the participant group that got the altruistic form first and the civic form
second was coded as 1. The participant group that got the civic form first and the
altruistic form second was coded as 2. Male employees on the employee information
forms were coded as 0 and female employee were coded as 1. CCBs were coded as 0 and
OCBs were coded as 1. Male participants were coded as 1 and female participants were
coded as 2. If the participants had rating experiences in the past, they were coded as 1 on
the eighth demographic question. If the participants did not have any rating experiences,
they were coded as 2.
CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Table 1 presents a descriptive correlation matrix of demographic variables, rating outcomes in the altruistic condition, and rating outcomes in the civic condition. The ratings in the altruistic and civic conditions were positively correlated: \( r = .52, n = 165, p < .01 \) two-tailed. This result indicated that the participants were more likely to rate the altruistic conditions favorably if they rated the civic conditions favorably.

Table 2 presents chi-square analysis between “voluntary nature of behaviors” and “gender of fictional employees.” These two variables are study manipulations in the current study, and both of them are dichotomous variables. As Table 2 shows, observed values and expected values do not differ significantly: \( \chi^2 (1, N = 165) = .16, p > .05 \). That is, “gender” and “voluntary nature of behaviors” are independent of each other. The result demonstrated the study manipulations in the current study were balanced.

Table 3 presents descriptive analyses for job evaluations, reward recommendations, and averaged scores of job evaluation and reward recommendations of the eight types of employee information forms. The evaluation scores for job performance and reward recommendations were each based on a 5-point scale: the job performance evaluation scale, ranging from 1(very poor) to 5(very good) and the reward recommendation scale, ranging from 1(would not definitely recommend) to 5 (would definitely recommend). As Table 3 shows, fictional employees displaying OCB and CCB
on the information forms received positive ratings from the study participants based on the perceived contributions to their organization.
Table 1

*Descriptive Correlation Matrix*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Participant’s Age</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Altruistic Outcomes</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Civic Outcomes</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.52**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Altruistic outcomes and civic outcomes are the dependent variables.

*p < .05, **p < .01.*
### Table 2
Chi-Square Analysis between Gender and Voluntary Nature of Behaviors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>CCBs (%)</th>
<th>OCBs (%)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Men (n = 80)</td>
<td>52.50%</td>
<td>47.50%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women (n = 85)</td>
<td>49.40%</td>
<td>50.60%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3

Descriptive Analysis (Mean ± SD) for the Eight Different Types of Employee Information Forms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Female-Altruistic</th>
<th>Female-Civic</th>
<th>Male-Altruistic</th>
<th>Male-Civic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Evaluations</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward Recommendations</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendations</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Female-Altruistic</th>
<th>Female-Civic</th>
<th>Male-Altruistic</th>
<th>Male-Civic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Evaluations</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward Recommendations</td>
<td>42</td>
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<td>.88</td>
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<td>Recommendations</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Recommendations are the aggregated score of the job evaluation rating and reward recommendation.
Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was conducted to identify a small number of factors that may be used to represent relationships among sets of interrelated variables in the performance evaluation and the reward recommendation scales (Heilman & Chen, 2005). Principal axis factoring was performed on six altruistic items (i.e., performance and success ratings, and reward recommendations for salaries, promotions, high-profile projects, and bonuses) and six civic items (i.e., performance and success ratings, and reward recommendations for salaries, promotions, high-profile projects, and bonuses) separately. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was used to measure sampling adequacy. KMO for altruistic variables was .84, and KMO for civic items was .86. Both Bartlett tests of sphericity for altruistic and civic items were significant (p < .05). These results indicated that these data did not produce an identity matrix and were acceptable for factor analysis.

Originally, two components were expected in factor analysis on both altruistic and civic outcomes, as the current study used two scales from Heilman and Chen (2005): performance evaluation and reward recommendation scales. However, only one factor was extracted by the latent root criterion for each altruistic and civic group in the current study. One component with Eigenvalue of 3.42 accounted for 57.03% of the variance in all six altruistic variables. Similarly, one component with Eigenvalue of 3.29 accounted for 54.82% of the variance in all six civic variables. This result implied that the participants in the current study did not consider performance evaluations and reward recommendations separately.

Reliability Tests
Reliability tests were conducted to examine the consistency of both performance evaluation and reward recommendation scales. At first, the reliability tests of the performance evaluation form and the reward recommendation form were conducted on altruistic and civic variables separately. Cronbach alpha for the performance evaluation form on two altruistic items (i.e., success rate and job performance) was .73. In addition, Cronbach alpha for the reward recommendation form on four altruistic items (i.e., salaries, promotions, high-profile projects, and bonuses) was .81. Next, other reliability tests were conducted with civic variables. Cronbach alpha for the performance evaluation form on two civic items was .68. In addition, Cronbach alpha for the reward recommendation form on four civic items was .79. As a result, these results indicated that the reliability of the performance evaluation and reward recommendation forms were acceptable on both altruistic and civic items.

Secondly, another type of reliability test was conducted. At this time, two items in the performance evaluation form and four items in the reward recommendation form were combined to analyze the reliability of both scales combined. This type of reliability test was conducted because the factor analysis indicated that participants in the current study did not differentiate both performance evaluation and reward recommendation forms separately; the possibility of collapsing both scales into a single dimension appeared from factor analysis. Cronbach alpha for the performance evaluation and reward recommendation forms on six altruistic items was .84. In addition, Cronbach alpha for the performance evaluation and reward recommendation forms on six civic items was .83. As a result, this second type of reliability test proved that both performance evaluation
and reward recommendation scales are still reliable when six items are collapsed into a single dimension.

According to the results from both the factor analysis and reliability tests, it was found that the participants identified the performance evaluations and reward recommendations in the same ways, and all six items within both scales measured the same things. Therefore, the six items from the two scales were collapsed into a single dimension. The new mean variables of the six items were created for each altruistic and civic dimension. Accordingly, the two new variables are recommendations in the altruistic condition and recommendations in the civic condition.

**Repeated-Measures Analysis**

**OCBs and evaluations.** The current study proposed three hypotheses. The first hypothesis predicted that gender-congruent OCBs would be more favorably evaluated than gender-incongruent OCBs. In particular, female altruistic-OCB performers would be evaluated more favorably than female civic-OCB performers, and male civic-OCB performers would be evaluated more favorably than male altruistic-OCB performers. At first, cases with OCBs were selected to run in SPSS data analysis. Secondly, repeated-measures analysis was run to test the first hypothesis. The two recommendations in the altruistic condition and recommendations in the civic condition were chosen as the within-subject variable. The “gender of a fictional employee” and “order” were chosen as the between-subject factors. There were two ways of distributing the employee information forms: one group got the altruistic form first and the civic form second, and the other group got the civic form first and the altruistic form second. There was a possibility that the presentation order of the two different types of employee information
forms would impact the ratings of performance evaluations and reward recommendations, and “order” was additionally included in order to investigate it.

Box’s test of equality of covariance matrices shows a non-significant result; the hypothesis of equal covariance matrices cannot be rejected. The three-way interaction of “order,” “gender,” and “type of behavior” (i.e., altruistic or civic) was significant: $F (1, 76) = 18.70, p < .001$ (see Table 4). Unfortunately, the two-way interaction of “gender” and “type of behavior” was not significant: $F (1, 76) = .04, p > .05$. Tests of between-subject effects did not find any significant effect. However, this three-way interaction suggests that the two-way interaction may be significant, but only for one order. Therefore, the two-way interaction between “gender” and “type of behavior” was examined for one order, and then examined again for the other order.
Table 4

*Repeated-Measures Analysis for OCB Evaluations*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Between-subject effects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Order</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Order * Gender</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within</strong></td>
<td>45.17</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within-subject effects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Behaviors</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Behaviors* Order</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Behaviors* Gender</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Behavior* Order* Gender</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>18.70</td>
<td>.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within</strong></td>
<td>18.50</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, **p < .01.
First, the cases with the group that got the altruistic-OCB form first and the civic-OCB form second were selected to run in SPSS data analysis. The recommendations in the altruistic condition and recommendations in the civic condition were chosen as within-subject variables. The “gender of a fictional employee” was chosen as the between-subject factor. Box’s test of equality of covariance matrices shows a non-significant result; the hypothesis of equal covariance matrices cannot be rejected. The two-way interaction between “gender” and “type of behavior” was significant: $F (1, 32) = 8.55$, $p < .05$. Tests of between-subjects effects showed that the gender of a fictional employee was not significant (see Table 5). This result implies that gender-congruent OCBs were not equally evaluated with gender-incongruent OCBs. Originally, higher rating scores on gender-congruent OCBs were expected compared to the rating scores on gender-incongruent OCBs. However, the descriptive analysis shows that rating scores of gender-congruent OCBs were lower than gender-incongruent OCBs (see Figure 7). In particular, male altruistic-OCB performers ($M = 3.55$, $SD = .50$) received higher rating scores than male civic-OCB performers ($M = 3.06$, $SD = .72$). In addition, female altruistic-OCB performers ($M = 3.25$, $SD = .63$) received lower rating scores than female civic-OCB performers ($M = 3.48$, $SD = .76$). Interestingly, gender-incongruent OCB performers received more favorable ratings than the other gender’s congruent OCB performers. Male altruistic-OCBs were more favorably evaluated than female altruistic-OCBs. In addition, female civic-OCBs were more favorably evaluated than male civic-OCBs.
Table 5

Repeated-Measure Analysis for OCB Evaluations with the Participant Group that Got the Altruistic-OCB First and the Civic-OCB Form Second

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between-subject effects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>19.67</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within-subject effects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Behaviors</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Behaviors* Gender</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>8.55</td>
<td>.01**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>8.15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, **p < .01.
Figure 7. Repeated-Measure Analysis for Hypothesis 1 with the Participant Group that Got the Altruistic-OCB Form First and the Civic-OCB Form Second
Secondly, the participant group that got the civic-OCB form first and the altruistic-OCB form second was selected to run in SPSS data analysis. The recommendations in the altruistic condition and recommendations in the civic condition were chosen as within-subject variables. The “gender of a fictional employee” was chosen as the between-subject factor. Box’s test of equality of covariance matrices shows a non-significant result; the hypothesis of equal covariance matrices cannot be rejected. The two-way interaction between “gender” and “type of behavior” was significant: $F (1, 44) = 10.28, p < .05$. In addition, tests of between-subject effects showed that a gender of a fictional employee was not significant (see Table 6). This result implies that gender-congruent OCBs were not equally evaluated with gender-incongruent OCBs. The descriptive analysis shows that the rating of gender-congruent OCBs was higher than gender-incongruent OCBs (see Figure 8). In particular, male civic-OCB performers ($M = 3.60, SD = .71$) received higher rating scores than male altruistic-OCB performers ($M = 3.45, SD = .76$). In addition, female altruistic-OCB performers ($M = 3.67, SD = .49$) received higher rating scores than female civic-OCB performers ($M = 3.17, SD = .61$). Interestingly, gender-congruent OCBs were more favorably evaluated than the other gender’s incongruent OCBs. Female altruistic-OCBs were more favorably evaluated than male altruistic-OCBs. In addition, male civic-OCBs were more favorably evaluated than female civic-OCBs. Therefore, the first hypothesis was supported in the group which received the civic form first and the altruistic form second; gender-congruent OCBs were more favorably evaluated than gender-incongruent OCBs.
Table 6

Repeated-Measure Analysis for Hypothesis 1 with the Participation Group that Got the Civic-OCB Form First and the Altruistic-OCB Form Second

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Between-subject effects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>25.50</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within-subject effects</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Type of Behaviors</td>
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<td>.68</td>
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<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>10.28</td>
<td>.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>10.35</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, **p < .01.
Figure 8. Repeated-Measure Analysis for Hypothesis 1 with the Participation Group that Got the Civic-OCB Form First and the Altruistic-OCB Form Second
**CCBs and evaluations.** Similarly, the second hypothesis predicted that gender-incongruent CCBs would be more favorably evaluated than gender-congruent CCBs. In particular, female civic-CCB performers would be evaluated more favorably than female altruistic-CCB performers, and male altruistic-CCB performers would be evaluated more favorably than civic-CCB performers. At this time, cases with CCBs were selected in SPSS. Repeated-measures analysis was run to test the second hypothesis. The two recommendations in the altruistic condition and recommendations in the civic condition were chosen as within-subject variables. The “gender of a fictional employee” and “order” were chosen as the between-subject factors.

Box’s test of equality of covariance matrices shows a non-significant result; the hypothesis of equal covariance matrices cannot be rejected. The results showed that the three-way interaction of “type of behavior,” “order,” and “gender” was not significant: \( F(1, 80) = 1.91, p > .05 \). The two-way interaction of “type of behaviors” and “order” was significant: \( F(1, 80) = 7.06, p < .05 \). Tests of between-subjects effects did not find any significant effects (see Table 7). In addition, another repeated-measures analysis was rerun after the non-significant three-way interaction was removed. The two-way interaction of “type of behaviors” and “order” was still significant: \( F(1, 81) = 6.96, p < .05 \). The results implied that the main effect of “type of behaviors” might be different depending on the presentation orders. Therefore, the main effect of “type of behaviors” was examined for one presentation order, and then examined again for the other order.
Table 7

Repeated-Measures Analysis for CCB Evaluations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
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<tr>
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<td>60.28</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>.75</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within-subject effects</strong></td>
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<td>.03</td>
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<td>Type of Behaviors*Order</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1.17</td>
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<td>.01**</td>
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<td>Type of Behavior*Gender</td>
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<td>.32</td>
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<td><strong>Within</strong></td>
<td>13.23</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, **p < .01.
First, the group that got the altruistic form first and the civic form second was examined. The test of main effects was also conducted with the three-way interaction removed. The main effect of “type of behavior” was not significant (see Table 8). Descriptive analysis shows that the recommendation in the civic condition ($M = 3.09$, $SD = .77$) was higher than the recommendation in the altruistic condition ($M = 2.95$, $SD = .79$). Although one of these appears to be higher, they are not all that different since Table 8 shows a non-significant result. The second hypothesis was not completely supported in the participation group that got the altruistic-CCB form first and the civic-CCB form second. Gender-incongruent CCBs were not more favorably evaluated than gender-congruent CCBs in this participation group.
Table 8

Repeated-Measure Analysis for the Hypothesis 2 with the Participant Group that Got the Altruistic-CCB Form First and the Civic-CCB Form Second

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td>Within-subject effects</td>
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<td>.39</td>
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<td>Type of Behaviors* Gender</td>
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<td>.00</td>
<td>.01</td>
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<td>Within</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, **p < .01.
Secondly, the participation group that got the civic-CCB form first and the altruistic-CCB form second was examined. The main effect of “type of behavior” was significant (see Table 9). This result implied that the recommendations in altruistic condition and civic condition were significantly different each other. Descriptive analysis shows that the recommendation in the civic condition ($M = 2.88, SD = .54$) was lower than the recommendation in the altruistic condition ($M = 3.08, SD = .62$). The second hypothesis was not supported in the participation group that got the civic-CCB form first and the altruistic-CCB form second; gender-incongruent CCBs were not more favorably evaluated than gender-congruent CCBs. Therefore, the second hypothesis was not supported for the participant group in both presentation orders.
Table 9

Repeted-Measure Analysis for the Hypothesis 2 with the Participant Group that Got the Civic-CCB Form First and the Altruistic-CCB Form Second

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
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<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Between-subject effects</strong></td>
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<td>.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.05</td>
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<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>22.51</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>.52</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within-subject effects</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Behaviors</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>.03*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Behaviors* Gender</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>.04*</td>
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<td>Within</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, **p < .01.
**OCBs, CCBs, and evaluations.** The third hypothesis predicted that OCB performers would be evaluated more favorably than CCB performers. In order to test the third hypothesis, a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ mixed between-within-subjects repeated-measures analysis was performed on two dependent variables: recommendations in the altruistic condition and recommendations in the civic condition. Independent variables were the “gender of the fictional employee” (woman or man), the “type of behaviors” (altruistic or civic), and the “voluntary nature of behaviors” (OCBs or CCBs). Repeated-measures analysis was appropriate in the current study because each participant was tested in two levels of variables: altruistic and civic behaviors of the fictional employees. The purpose of a repeated-measures analysis is to “control for individual-level differences that may affect the within-group variance” (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006, p. 386). In the current study, the “type of behaviors” (i.e., averages of altruistic vs. civic items) was selected as a within-subject variable. “Gender of a fictional employee,” “order,” and the “voluntary nature of behavior” (i.e., OCBs or CCBs) were selected as between-subject factors.

Box’s test of equality of covariance matrices shows a non-significant result; the hypothesis of equal covariance matrices cannot be rejected. As table 10 shows, with the use of Wilks’ criterion, the four way interaction of the “type of behaviors,” “order,” “gender of a fictional employee,” and the “voluntary nature of behavior” was significant $F (1, 156) = 18.24, p < .001$. This four-way interaction suggests that the three-way interaction of “gender,” “type of behavior,” and “voluntary nature of behavior” may be significant, but only for one presentation order. Therefore, the three-way interaction was examined for one order, and then examined again for the other order.
Table 10

Repeated-Measure Analysis for OCB and CCB Evaluations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>MS</th>
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<th>p</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Between-subject effects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Order</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.59</td>
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<td>Voluntary Nature of Behavior</td>
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<td>13.28</td>
<td>19.65</td>
<td>.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.55</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Order * Voluntary Nature of Behavior</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender* Voluntary Nature of Behavior</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Order * Gender * Voluntary Nature of Behavior</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>105.45</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Within-subject effects** |      |    |      |      |       |
| Type of Behaviors         | .65  | 1  | .65  | 3.17 | .08   |
| Type of Behaviors* Order  | .71  | 1  | .71  | 3.48 | .06   |
| Type of Behavior* Gender  | .25  | 1  | .25  | 1.23 | .27   |
| Type of Behavior* Voluntary Nature of Behavior | .32  | 1  | .32  | 1.58 | .21   |
| Type of Behavior* Order* Gender | 1.31 | 1  | 1.31 | 6.46 | .01*  |
| Type of Behavior* Order* Voluntary Nature of Behavior | .44  | 1  | .44  | 2.14 | .15   |
| Type of Behavior* Gender* Voluntary Nature of Behavior | .13  | 1  | .13  | .65  | .42   |
| Type of Behavior* Order* Gender* Voluntary Nature of Behavior | 3.71 | 1  | 3.71 | 18.24 | .00** |
| **Within**                |      |    |      |      |       |
|                           | 31.73 | 156 | .20  |      |       |

*p < .05, **p < .01.
The test of three-way interaction of “gender,” “type of behavior,” and “voluntary nature of behavior” was conducted separately for each presentation order. At first, the cases of the participation group that received the altruistic form first and the civic form second were selected in SPSS. The two recommendations in the altruistic condition and recommendations in the civic condition were chosen as within-subject variables. The “gender of a fictional employee” and “voluntary nature of behaviors” were chosen as the between-subject factors. Box’s test of equality of covariance matrices shows a non-significant result; the hypothesis of equal covariance matrices cannot be rejected. The three-way interaction of “gender,” “type of behavior,” and “voluntary nature of behavior” was significant for the participant group that received the altruistic form first and the civic form second: $F(1, 69) = 5.27, p < .05$ (see Table 11). The result indicated that a two-way interaction between “type of behavior” and “voluntary nature of behavior” was not significant, but the pattern of that interaction is different for men than for women. In addition, tests of between-subject effects showed that the “voluntary nature of behavior” was significant: $F(1, 69) = 4.50, p < .05$. Descriptive analysis shows that both male ($M = 3.55, SD = .50$) and female ($M = 3.25, SD = .63$) OCB performers were evaluated favorably more than both male ($M = 2.77, SD = .85$) and female ($M = 3.11, SD = .71$) CCB performers in the altruistic conditions (see Figure 9). Therefore, the third hypothesis was supported in the altruistic condition: OCB performers were evaluated more favorably than CCB performers. However, female OCB ($M = 3.48, SD = .76$) and female CCB ($M = 3.26, SD = .72$) performers were more favorably evaluated than male OCB ($M = 3.06, SD = .72$) and male CCB performers ($M = 2.90, SD = .81$) in the civic condition.
Therefore, the third hypothesis was not supported in this civic condition in this participant group.
Table 11

Repeated-Measure Analysis for Hypothesis 3 with the Participant Group that Got the Altruistic Form First and the Civic Form Second

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
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<td><strong>Between-subject effects</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
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<td>3.74</td>
<td>4.50</td>
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<td>Gender * Voluntary Nature of Behavior</td>
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<td>.77</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within</strong></td>
<td>57.43</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within-subject effects</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.22</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>.02*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Type of Behavior* Voluntary Nature of Behavior</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Behavior* Gender* Voluntary Nature of Behavior</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>.03*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05, ** p < .01.
Figure 9. Result for Hypothesis 3 with the Participant Group that Got the Altruistic Form First and the Civic form Second
Secondly, the cases of the participation group that received the civic form first and the altruistic form second were selected in SPSS. The two recommendations in the altruistic condition and recommendations in the civic condition were chosen as within-subject variables. “Gender of a fictional employee” and “voluntary nature of behaviors” were chosen as the between-subject factors. Box’s test of equality of covariance matrices shows a non-significant result; the hypothesis of equal covariance matrices cannot be rejected. The three-way interaction of “gender,” “type of behavior,” and “voluntary nature of behavior” was significant: $F(1, 87) = 14.77, p < .001$. In addition, the test of between-subject effects showed that the “voluntary nature of behavior” was significant: $F(1, 87) = 19.73, p < .001$ (see Table 12). Descriptive analysis shows that OCB performers were evaluated more favorably than CCB performers in both altruistic and civic conditions (see Figure 10). In particular, both male altruistic-OCBs ($M = 3.45, SD = .76$) and female altruistic-OCBs ($M = 3.67, SD = .49$) were evaluated more favorably than both male altruistic-CCBs ($M = 3.18, SD = .54$) and female altruistic-CCBs. ($M = 2.97, SD = .70$). In addition, both male civic-OCBs ($M = 3.60, SD = .71$) and female civic-OCBs ($M = 3.17, SD = .61$) were evaluated more favorably than both male civic-CCBs ($M = 2.81, SD = .59$) and female civic-CCBs ($M = 2.96, SD = .49$). Therefore, the third hypothesis was supported for the participant group that received the civic form first and the altruistic form second.
Table 12

*Repeated-Measure Analysis for Hypothesis 3 with the Participation Group that Got the Civic Form First and the Altruistic Form Second*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td>.21</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.54</td>
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<td>10.89</td>
<td>19.73</td>
<td>.00**</td>
</tr>
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<td>.06</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
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<td><strong>Within</strong></td>
<td>48.01</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Within-subject effects** |      |    |      |      |      |
| Type of Behavior          | 1.52 | 1  | 1.52 | 7.63 | .01* |
| Type of behavior* Gender  | .23  | 1  | .23  | 1.18 | .28  |
| Type of Behavior* Voluntary Nature of Behavior | .01  | 1  | .01  | .03  | .88  |
| Type of Behavior* Gender* Voluntary Nature of Behavior | 2.94 | 1  | 2.94 | 14.77| .00**|
| **Within**                | 17.29| 89 | .20  |      |      |

*p < .05, **p < .01.
Figure 10. Recommendation Rating of the Participant Group that Got the Civic Form First and the Altruistic Form Second
CHAPTER IV
DISCUSSION

The current study utilized Attribution Theories (Kelley, 1967; Weiner, 1995) to investigate how job evaluations and reward recommendations are changed based on a performer’s gender, especially when a performer engages in CCBs. The participants in the current study did not consider performance evaluations and reward recommendations separately. Since both performance evaluation and reward recommendation scales were still reliable when six items were collapsed into a single dimension, the six items from the two scales were collapsed into a single dimension. Interestingly, the presentation orders of the employee information forms had interaction effects on the three hypothesis models in the current study. Therefore, the hypothesis tests were conducted separately for different orders.

There were three hypotheses in the current study. The first and third hypotheses were supported in the participant group that got the civic form first and the altruistic form second. As the first hypothesis suggested, gender-congruent OCBs were more favorably evaluated than gender-incongruent OCBs. Interestingly, gender-incongruent OCB performers received less favorable ratings than the other gender’s congruent OCB performers. The result is suggestive about the effect of gender-role stereotypes in the evaluation process. People evaluated OCBs more favorably when women and men engaged in their gender-congruent OCBs. Gender-congruent OCBs were associated with evaluators’ expectations for how an OCB performer should behave based on his or her
gender. As the third hypothesis mentioned, OCB performers were evaluated more favorably than CCB performers. Both male altruistic-OCBs and female altruistic-OCBs were evaluated more favorably than both male altruistic-CCBs and female altruistic-CCBs. The more detailed explanation for this result will be explained in the implication section.

The interaction effects of the presentation order were found in the first and third hypothesis tests. In addition, the first and third hypotheses were not supported in the other participant group that got the altruistic form first and the civic form second. The ratings of gender-congruent OCBs were not more favorably evaluated than gender-incongruent OCBs. In addition, gender-congruent OCBs were more favorably evaluated than the other gender’s incongruent OCBs. The third hypothesis was supported in the altruistic condition. However, it was not supported in the civic condition. Both male and female OCB performers were evaluated favorably more than both male and female CCB performers in the altruistic conditions. However, female OCB and female CCB performers were more favorably evaluated than male OCB and male CCB performers in the civic condition.

Unfortunately, the second hypothesis was not supported for the participant group in both presentation orders. First, the recommendation in the civic condition was not significantly different from the recommendation in the altruistic condition in the participant group that got the altruistic-CCB form first and the civic-CCB form second. Secondly, the recommendations in altruistic condition and civic condition were significantly different each other in the participant group that got the civic-CCB form
first and the altruistic-CCB form second. In particular, the recommendation in the civic condition was lower than the recommendation in the altruistic condition.

**Implications**

The understanding of the negative consequences of CCBs has been neglected in the business and academic worlds. There were only two of Gadot’s (2006; 2007) studies available at present. CCB performers suffer for a sustained period of time because of abusive supervisors and co-workers, and CCB performers perceive higher levels of stress and lower job satisfaction than individuals who do not engage in CCBs (Gadot, 2007). Therefore, the understanding of CCBs is essential to create a better work environment in the future. The current study discussed the concepts of CCBs, the negative consequences of CCBs, and the difference between OCBs and CCBs. In addition, previous research on gender studies and OCBs was applied to examine how job evaluations and reward recommendations changed based on a CCB performer’s gender.

**Theoretical implications.** According to the results of the third hypothesis test, female civic-CCBs were evaluated higher than male civic-OCBs in the participant group that got the altruistic form first and the civic form second. This finding indicates that some CCB performers’ (i.e., female civic-CCB performers) patience and effort under unbalanced power and pressure from others may be rewarded in a particular circumstance. The evaluators recognized that both OCBs and CCBs contributed to organizational effectiveness. This new finding also adds an additional explanation as to why CCB performers tend to be patient and why they engage in CCBs for a long time. The current study discussed that the CCB performers’ defenselessness over unbalanced powers and
fear of negative managerial feedback were the main reasons why CCBs happen to the same people in a sustained period of time. The results in the current study showed that it is possible for CCB performers to receive positive feedback as well as OCB performers. It is possible that CCB performers have hopes that their CCBs will be rewarded directly or indirectly in the future. It is understandable that CCB performers hope that their CCBs might result in some type of positive feedback as OCB performers hope that their OCBs might result in some type of positive feedback in the future (Allen, 2006). In another aspect, it can also be said that abusive supervisors or co-workers make CCB performers dream about this positive consequence. It is possible that abusive supervisors mentioned to CCB performers that their patience of engaging in CCBs will be rewarded directly or indirectly and CCB performers should engage in CCBs. No matter whether their positive feedback is reliable or not, this type of promise may be used by abusive supervisors or co-workers.

The current study contributes to the understandings of evaluators’ attributions regarding OCBs and CCBs. The third hypothesis test found the significant main effect for “voluntary nature of behavior (i.e., OCBs or CCBs)” in the participant group that got the civic form first and the altruistic form second. The results showed that OCB performers were evaluated higher than CCB performers. An explanation for this consequence can be explained with the study of Grant and Ashford (2008). They noted that evaluators look for the motivations of pro-social behaviors to determine the values of the behaviors. It is known that evaluators rate pro-social behaviors with pro-social values (e.g., moral standards and loyalty to the organization) more favorably than pro-social behaviors with impression-management motives (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Grant et al., 2009). According
to the definitions, OCBs happen due to an employee’s personal choice to engage or disengage in OCBs; on the contrary, CCBs happen due to a power imbalance, such as abusive supervisors and co-workers, or workplace bullying. As the current study discussed, OCBs can be categorized as the internal locus of control (e.g., a performer’s personalities, values, and internal traits), and CCBs can be categorized as the external locus of control (e.g., demand of the situation) according to the proposed Attributional Model (see Figure 4). Therefore, it is estimated that evaluators in the current study rationalized the motivations of their imaginary subordinates’ pro-social behaviors during the evaluation process in order to determine whether each performer deserved credit. Because antecedents of OCBs and CCBs are totally different, the evaluators responded differently. As the hypothesis in the current paper suggested, the evaluators were less impressed with CCB performers compared to OCB performers who engaged in the same pro-social behaviors.

The significant difference between OCB evaluations and CCB evaluations highlights a question that must be addressed for future researchers and managers. The question is whether the motives of pro-social behaviors matter for individuals’ performance evaluations. In particular, do motives matter when it comes to the relationship between pro-social behaviors and organizational performance? In terms of CCBs, it is questionable how much CCB performers can put up with engaging in CCBs; CCB performers do not have strong personal commitments to CCBs. Moreover, CCB performers feel the stress of engaging in CCBs (Gadot, 2007). For example, when an individual is forced to attend extra meetings that are not mandatory, the individual may not be able to focus on the topics and may not be creative when solving the matters in the
meetings because of the stress of being in the meetings. On the contrary, OCB performers have high levels of job satisfaction and are happy at work (George, 1991; Morris & Venkatesh, 2010). Their positive moods increase the levels of caring for others and of commitment to CCBs (Forest et al., 1979). Thus, the quality of pro-social behaviors in CCBs should be lower than that of OCBs.

Moreover, CCBs are identified as unstable in the stability dimension in Weiner’s theory (1995) as the current paper discussed previously. Abusive supervisors or co-workers are the ones who decide what types of CCBs the CCB performers should engage in and when CCB performers should engage in them. The orders of CCBs toward CCB victims are not practically planned in order to achieve organizational goals. CCBs change over time or situation based on abusive supervisors or co-workers. On the contrary, OCB performers engage in OCBs because they are motivated to contribute to their organizations. OCB performers should be able to plan what types of OCBs they should engage in based on their observation of the workplace. They voluntarily engage in proper types of OCBs based on their observations. OCB performers may think more critically about when they should engage in OCBs in order to achieve organizational goals. Therefore, it can be said that CCBs are dysfunctional in the long-term compared to OCBs.

Lastly, it is possible that CCB performers will stop engaging in CCBs as soon as they escape from their abusive supervisors or co-workers. As the current paper discussed, CCB performers are not motivated to engage in CCBs personally. They do not have any reasons to continue the CCBs when they can escape from the undesirable situations without penalties. On the contrary, OCB performers have continuous organizational commitments and keep engaging in OCBs (Shore et al., 1995). In short, the motivations
of pro-social behaviors are important for long-term organizational success; the motivations of pro-social behaviors matter for individuals’ performance evaluations. As managers evaluate OCB performers higher than CCB performers, organizations can promote individuals who are likely to continue to engage in pro-social behaviors.

**Practical implications.** The current study suggests some practical implications for male civic-CCB performers. The results of the third hypothesis showed that male civic-CCB performers received the lowest performance evaluation among other three civic performers (i.e., male civic-OCBs, female civic-OCBs, and female civic-CCBs) in both presentation orders. It implies that civic-CCBs are particularly risky pro-social behaviors for male employees. It means that no matter how hard male employees work and take their effort to civic-CCBs, their pro-social behaviors will not be evaluated favorably. Male civic-CCB performers should be aware of getting lower performance evaluations. It is recommended for CCB performers, especially male civic-CCB performers, to keep full documentation of the details of their CCBs in order to ensure equitable compensation. It is critical to be prepared for an unfair job evaluation. The written documentation of their CCBs will show the value of their work, which will prevent employers from ignoring or discounting their employees’ CCBs.

The current study holds some important practical implications for organizations and supervisors, particularly for the reactions of supervisors toward employees’ CCBs and steps to prevent CCBs by organizations. First, the current study highlights the potential impact of rewards on the particular type of CCBs (i.e., female civic-CCB) in the participant group that received the altruistic form first and the civic form second. From the employees’ perspective, the current study presents the hope that female civic-CCBs
can be rewarded. By only rewarding OCBs, supervisors may be discouraging CCB performers who work hard with extra hours and effort under unavoidable managerial or social pressures. Indeed, CCBs contribute to organizational effectiveness as pro-social behaviors. Thus, the current study suggests that it will be valuable for supervisors to create organizational cultures and reward systems that give praise for both OCBs and CCBs. At the same time, employees may gain the benefit of knowledge that their supervisors appreciate their extra efforts and time for pro-social behaviors (i.e., OCBs or CCBs). This new organizational culture and reward system may also provide a better fit for organizational values on pro-social behavior by acknowledging employees’ effort.

It is important to reward CCBs; however it is more important to prevent CCBs at the workplace for employees. The proactive movement to prevent CCBs will help organizations to refocus building fair treatment toward their employees and to help their employees to increase their job satisfaction and reduce stress at work. There are various strategies that organizations can think of to prevent CCBs. For example, training for managers to avoid abusing their authority to force their subordinates to engage in CCBs is recommended. Moreover, it is important for employees to understand that they should speak up when they feel that they are being overloaded with CCBs. It is important for subordinates and managers to agree on the boundaries between OCBs and CCBs. It is also a great opportunity for managers to learn when their subordinates feel obligated to engage in pro-social behaviors. It is recommended that this topic be discussed between managers and employees especially when organizations hire people. As time passes, these organizational systems (e.g., training) will sustain the benefits of CCB solutions and will help subordinates work in a better environment. Accordingly, the current study
will be able to provide a better understanding of how job evaluations and reward recommendations of OCB performers change based on a performer’s gender. Moreover, it will help to train future managers to deal with the unfairness of CCB evaluations based on gender, and create a better work environment where people have higher job satisfaction and less overload. It is important to remember that it is possible to reduce biases in the job performance evaluation process through training. Thus, the fair job performance evaluation will minimize the potential for future discrimination claims.

**Limitations**

Several limitations to the current study should be noted. First, the current study found the interaction effect of presentation order. The recommendation ratings in the altruistic condition and civic condition were different depending on the presentation orders. Unfortunately, there were not enough data to figure out why the order effect might exist. An explanation of this interaction effect in the current study can be explained by two possible reasons: 1) artifact and 2) practice effect. First, it is possible that the interaction effect of the presentation order was an artifact in the current study. Secondly, the current study utilized the repeated-measure design to distribute the eight different types of the employee information forms to the participants, and it is possible that the order effect existed because of practice effect. However, the practice did not make rating scores either increase or decrease in the current study. Therefore, the practice effect may be less likely to happen in the current study. Ultimately, it is hard to determine the reason of the order effect in the current study due to the lack of data. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that future research investigate it further.
Second, the current study used a laboratory setting. Although the current study described detailed information from the imaginary employee’s work history that mentioned their OCBs or CCBs on the employee information form, it may not have been enough for some participants to imagine and picture the imaginary employee’s pro-social behaviors, especially antecedents of both pro-social behaviors. Participants may not have noticed these differences on the employee information forms. One participant gave feedback after she finished taking the surveys; she did not think that the pressure from the abusive supervisors was the antecedent of CCBs. She thought that the CCB items were something that her imaginary subordinates needed to do as a worker no matter what. She mentioned that she gave a lower score on the evaluation because her imaginary subordinates engaged in CCBs after their supervisors told them to engage in CCBs. She did not think that the supervisors gave much abusive pressure on subordinates to engage in CCBs.

Normally, managers observe and rationalize the successful or unsuccessful performances through their subordinates’ facial expressions and verbal and nonverbal cues to rationalize their subordinates’ motivations of pro-social behaviors (Grant et al., 2009). In addition, managers collect the information of their subordinates by listening to other employees’ opinions. Because CCBs happen under the ignorance of the performer’s individual will, it was more likely that participants would feel uncomfortable watching someone who is abused and forced to engage in pro-social behaviors. This type of experimental study would be against the research ethic codes and was avoided in the current study. Moreover, a field study of CCBs is also difficult because most companies ignore the abusive environment and prefer not to report these issues to outsiders. Abusive
managers and co-workers are not going to report their abusive activities because the honest response to surveys works against them. Revealing their abusive behaviors at work will put themselves at risk of being accused and blamed for the abusive behaviors, which they want to avoid. Because most companies believe that CCBs are still pro-social behaviors that promote organizational effectiveness, it will be also hard for some managers to point out CCBs in their work environment. The confusions of OCBs and CCBs prevent an actual study of CCBs in the work setting. These were the main reasons why the current study used the employee information forms that described the CCB situation instead.

With these predicted limitations of the studies of CCB evaluations, the current study suggests using a combination of videos and the employee information forms in a laboratory study in the future. The type of video and employee information form has to be matched. In the current study, the eight different types of videos paired with eight different types of employee information forms should be prepared by using 2 (gender) x 2 (voluntary nature of behavior: OCBs or CCBs) x 2 (type of behavior: altruistic or civic) mixed between-within-subjects methodology. Participants will be randomly assigned to view the videos of different types of imaginary employees, which will vary in terms of gender and whether some of the imaginary employee's behaviors are voluntary or coerced. The videos will have a behavioral script to represent each type of pro-social behavior. For example, one video will show a woman engaging in altruistic-CCBs (e.g., being forced to help other co-workers when the woman is too busy with her obligated tasks) under pressure from her boss or co-workers, in addition to her formal tasks. The method of using the videotaped segments of CCBs in the future laboratory settings will provide an
observation environment that each evaluator will be able to visualize. Moreover, it will help evaluators to rationalize the CCB performers’ motivations. Thus, this videotaped method creates almost the same evaluation environment as a real work setting. Allen and Rush (1998) studied the effects of OCBs on performance judgments in laboratory settings by using videotaped segments of teaching performances that demonstrated either high or low task performances and high or low OCB performances. They noted that “to help control for potential bias, the actors wore the same type of attire and were trained to display similar mannerisms and type of demeanor” (Allen & Rush, 1998, p. 253). The future CCB studies also need to control for the potential biases, and the manipulations of actors’ and actresses’ visual and verbal cues (e.g., appearances and scripts) will be required.

In addition to the visual information of the pro-social behaviors, the videotape method in the future CCB evaluation study will support further gender manipulation. Videotapes will help participants picture who their imaginary subordinate is. While participants are watching an actor or an actress engaging in OCBs or CCBs on the videotape, it is very obvious to all participants that the performer is a man or a woman. When the participants evaluate pro-social behaviors of their imaginary subordinate, they will have visual memories of him or her. If the videotape is not used, a picture of the imaginary employee on each employee information form will help further gender distinction. Controlling potential bias is important in the picture method as well. Therefore, the control of the picture models of visual cues (e.g., age, race, appearance, and facial expressions) will be required. Heilman and Chen (2005) used the pictures of employees and showed these pictures to participants during the OCB evaluation. They
noted that the models in the pictures were similar “in age, intelligence, friendliness, cheerfulness, and professionalism” (Heilman & Chen, 200, p. 433).

The results in the current study could not find gender influences on the CCB evaluations. The employee information forms in the current study listed the name of the imaginary employee. Moreover, the pronoun (e.g., he and she) also implied the gender of the imaginary employee. It was estimated that participants would figure out an imaginary employee’s gender by reading an employee information form in the current study. Understanding of an imaginary employee’s gender was obvious to all participants in the current study. However, there are obvious limitations due to the use of “paper people.” Judgments based on written descriptions do not account for the wide array of social and psychological factors that come into play in a real organization. Gender is one of the most salient variables when dealing with people face to face but its effect might not come across as strong in using paper people. It is also possible that the participants forgot about their imaginary employees’ gender in the evaluation process. The current study did not remind the participants of their imaginary employees’ genders (e.g., “what is your gender for your subordinate?”). Therefore, the insignificant results of the gender effect may have occurred because the participants forgot their imaginary employees’ gender in the evaluation process or because the gender stereotypes of the participants did not impact the process of the job performance evaluations. Therefore, it will be more effective to use videotapes or pictures of the imaginary employees in the future studies in order to manipulate an impact of gender influence.

Another limitation is that the current study did not examine the participants’ perceptions of each altruistic and civic behavior as male or female stereotypical behaviors.
The ideas of gender-congruent and gender-incongruent OCBs and CCBs were based on the previous studies that have proven the gender influence on OCBs (e.g., Heilman & Chen, 2005; Farrell & Finkelstein, 2007). These researchers indicated that altruistic-OCBs are associated with female stereotypes, and civic-OCBs are associated with male stereotypes. However, it is possible that some participants in the current study did not perceive civic behaviors as men’s roles or altruistic behaviors as women’s roles. For example, some participants may have thought the civic-OCBs were not particularly men’s roles, and they did not have any gender-role stereotypes on the behavior items. Seem and Clark (2006) noted that gender role stereotyping has changed over the past decades. Specifically, it was found that stereotypically female characteristics have changed gradually; women are still expected to keep their traditional stereotypical characteristics (e.g., nurturing and caring) and to have some stereotypically male characteristics (e.g., competency). Competency was still believed to be a stereotypically male characteristic among college students. Altruistic behaviors should still have been perceived as stereotypically female characteristics; however, civic behaviors might have been received as both female and male characteristics.

Moreover, it is possible that the civic items in the current study were not significant examples of men’s gender-stereotypical behaviors. When the civic items in the current study were categorized by the ideas of Graham and Dyne (2006), the three civic items were more likely to be the gathering information type. The three items were: 1) read and keep up with organization announcements and memos, 2) keep abreast of changes in the organization, and 3) attend meetings that are not mandatory but recommended. It is possible that the exercising influence type of civic behaviors is more
close to stereotypically male behaviors. The exercising influence type requires more persuasion skills and more courage to speak up to make suggestions for change. Persuasion and voicing opinions are stereotypically male behaviors (Berger, Rosenholtz, & Zelditch, 1980). The three gathering information types of civic items were chosen because a majority of employees deal with them more frequently than the civic behaviors of the exercising influence type. Normally, individuals have limited opportunities to engage in civic behaviors of the exercising influence type, such as in meetings (Graham & Dyne, 2006). Because the civic items on the surveys needed to be as familiar as altruistic items, civic behaviors that are categorized as gathering information were selected. The exercising influence types of civic behavioral items were not used in the current study.

To be able to prevent these two limitations of civic items in a future study, it is recommended to conduct a pilot study before the actual study. A pilot study is a “mini-study in which the proposed questionnaires and all implementation procedures are tested on the survey population in an attempt to identify problems with the questionnaire and related implementation procedures” (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009, p. 228). In the pilot study, it is important to determine whether respondents associate the pro-social behaviors as either women’s or men’s stereotypical behaviors. The pilot study will help future researchers to picture the overall study (e.g., the response rate). In addition to the pilot study, stereotype questionnaires are also recommended to investigate which pro-social items are associated with either men’s or women’s roles within participant groups. Gender role stereotypes are the shared beliefs of what attributes and characteristics women and men possess, and they have changed as society and people change (Fiske &
Therefore, in the pilot tests, future researchers should identify what pro-social behavioral items are associated with male or female gender stereotypes.

Lastly, the content of the employee information forms may have been less clear to a few participants. Although the purpose of the current study is to understand the evaluations of OCBs and CCBs, some participants may not have paid attention to OCB and CCB content enough when they evaluated their imaginary subordinates. The OCB and CCB explanations were highlighted and described in more detail than the competency profile; however, they may not have helped to catch the participants’ attention. In fact, some participants asked the researcher how they could evaluate their subordinates based on just their competency profile, which describes the average skills and abilities. The researcher explained that both employees’ performances are different and participants can choose to use or not use that information in any way they wished. The competency profile of each imaginary employee was described in the employee information form so that participants could get more information. Moreover, the levels of skills and abilities of an imaginary employee are standardized as “average” in order to maximize the impact of OCB and CCB evaluations. Heilman and Chen (2005) also used the employee information form to study the difference of altruistic-OCB evaluation based on the performer’s gender. Their employee information forms also described the background (e.g., department name and job title) and competency profile (e.g., organizing skills, accuracy, and capacity of work) of imaginary employees in addition to the story of altruistic-OCBs. They have proven the gender influence on altruistic-OCB evaluations. Therefore, it might be possible that the limitation of the employee
information in the current study happened because it was difficult for participants to focus on the OCBs and CCBs of each imaginary employee from viewing a paper.

For the future research, it is still recommended to have an employee information form to examine the CCB evaluation in laboratory settings. If future research varies the levels of job performances of imaginary employees on the employee information forms, it will reduce this type of confusion by the future participants; when they compare their imaginary subordinates, they will evaluate employees who will have different levels of job performance. In addition, it is recommended to include some short stories of the OCBs and CCBs in the employee information forms. The short stories will contain the brief reports describing the episodes of imaginary employee’s OCBs or CCBs typical pattern at work. The short story will catch participants’ attentions to the pro-social behaviors of an imaginary employee, and help them to understand the circumstances and antecedents of pro-social behaviors more clearly.

**Directions for Future Studies**

Since CCBs are delicate issues, respondents may be reluctant to answer the surveys honestly since they may feel threatened or embarrassed to report CCBs at their workplaces. In order to prevent this issue, the study needs to be conducted in a careful manner with protection to a participant’s individual rights. For example, anonymity and confidentiality of the survey will be required, and the survey should be sent to each participant’s home instead. This way, all participants will feel more private and will understand confidentiality when they take the surveys. Therefore, it is recommended to get the lists of the names and addresses of the participants from the organizations before the study. Surveys, a cover letter, and a business-reply envelope with postage-paid
stamps should be mailed directly to employees, and completed surveys should be mailed directly to the future researchers. It is also important that the confidentiality of all answers from the surveys should be promised, and the answers from each participant will not be revealed to the organization. It is important for organizations, employees, and future researchers to understand the concepts of CCBs. Normally organizations do not want to expose their CCB cases to outsiders; organizations do not want to cooperate with a field study. With proper understanding, organizations will understand the necessity of a field study of CCBs and will cooperate with the study, employees will have the motivation to answer honestly and take the surveys seriously, and future researchers will conduct the study in a careful manner. The results of the study should be reported to the organization and the discussions of necessity toward solving CCB problems are recommended.

Furthermore, to expand the current study, future researchers are recommended to conduct field studies in a variety of types of countries, organizations, and jobs. An understanding of CCBs can be widely utilized in different field studies. It is possible that some types of organizations exhibit an extremely high frequency of CCBs or low frequency of CCBs. Future researchers need to think of what other factors may influence CCBs in each field study. For example, if the future researchers decide to conduct a field study in Japan, they need to consider how Japanese society, culture, organizations, and people define and engage in CCBs. Since Japanese organizations are high power-distance (i.e., a society that would treat inequality as less undesirable and would accept the concentration of power in the top level of sociopolitical hierarchies), employees in Japan are more likely to submit to authorities (Hofstede, 1980). They do not argue for their
individual rights of declining aggressive and unfair orders from their managers at the workplace because they feel obligated to satisfy their manager’s expectations. In reality, it is easy to find Japanese personal blogs that describe blog owners’ stress and confusion because of too many and too unfair expectations from their managers at their workplaces. Some of them in the entry levels revealed that they had to complete chores (e.g., cleaning the restrooms, taking garbage out, and bringing tea) beside other people enjoying their free time and not offering help to them. Because their behaviors contribute to organizational effectiveness and are under power imbalance, are not an employee’s formal job, and are not discretionary, their behaviors are CCBs. If the future researchers estimate what factors may influence on CCBs in their field study, they should measure those factors as well.

While the current study contributes to the understanding of CCB evaluations, it also highlights several questions that must be addressed for future field studies. If the abusive supervisors are the ones who will evaluate CCB performance in the field study, the results of the performance evaluations and reward recommendations will be unreliable to the examination of CCB evaluations in general. It is very possible that the abusive supervisors will ignore their subordinates’ CCBs and will not reward their CCBs favorably. The considerable reasons behind the unreliable evaluation results are 1) abusive supervisors do not appreciate their subordinates’ CCBs, and 2) abusive supervisors do not like their subordinates personally. Because abusive supervisors engage in a “sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors” and take advantage of employees who cannot refuse abusive behaviors, abusive supervisors must not have close relationships with their subordinates (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). If abusive supervisors like
their subordinates, it less likely happens that abusive supervisors take advantage of their favorite employees and force them to engage in CCBs. Therefore, the future researchers need to be cautious when they include managerial positions in the participant group in the field setting. Identifying abusive supervisors before the survey may be necessary. This can be possible by the observation and interview methods. If the future researchers are allowed to observe the office environment for a period of time, they may be able to observe some CCBs and identify who engages in CCBs and who forces them to engage in CCBs. In addition, the interviews with some employees under promise of confidentiality and collection of some CCB information at their workplace will help future researchers to gain better ideas of CCBs in the field study.

The current study suggests several avenues for future study. In particular, it is recommended to integrate Kelley’s (1967) and Weiner’s (1986) Attribution Theory into the OCB and CCB evaluation forms by explicitly manipulating and measuring some of the dimensions of their attribution model. First, applying Kelley’s Attribution Theory (1967) to the evaluation form will be effective to analyze how evaluators rationalize and compare the gender-congruent and gender-incongruent CCBs. Moreover, Kelley’s model will empirically support the proposed attributional model of CCB evaluations in the current study. The current paper discussed that people attribute gender-congruent and gender-incongruent CCBs with three dimensions according to Kelley’s model: 1) consistency, 2) distinctiveness, and 3) consensus (see Figure 2). Both types of CCBs should be identified in the same ways in the dimensions of consistency and distinctiveness. However, gender-incongruent CCBs should be more noticeable than gender-congruent CCBs; the dimension of consensus should be the key to distinguish
both types of CCBs separately. It is ideal to use Likert scales for the three dimensions on each item of pro-social behavior. One possible way is to use a 5-point Likert scale to measure participants’ perception of consistency, distinctiveness, and consensus for the female employee’s altruistic-CCBs. Secondly, the utilization of Weiner’s Attribution Theory (1986) in the evaluation system will be effective to analyze how evaluators rationalize and compare other people’s OCBs and CCBs. Moreover, Weiner’s model will help to identify how people evaluate pro-social behaviors and make organizational reward recommendations in their own ways. It will support the proposed attributional model of OCB and CCB evaluations in the current study. The current study noted that people attribute OCBs and CCBs with three dimensions during the performance rating process: 1) locus of control, 2) controllability, and 3) stability. OCBs and CCBs should be identified differently in these three dimensions.

Another possible avenue of future study is to examine the emotional reactions of evaluators when they evaluate other people’s pro-social behaviors. This type of new, additional question will further support the proposed attributional models in the current study. It will also help to know why the results of OCB and CCB evaluations differ. Previous studies found that evaluators’ emotional reactions followed their attributions (i.e., locus, controllability, and stability) and perceived motivations (i.e., impression-management, organizational concern, and pro-social values) in the evaluation process (Halbesleben et al., 2010; Weiner, 1995). Evaluators express negative emotions (i.e., anger) for OCBs with impression-management motives, and express positive emotions (i.e., happiness) for OCBs with organizational concerns and pro-social values motives. As a result, OCB performers with organizational concerns and pro-social values motives
received their evaluations more favorably than those with impression-management motives (Halbesleben et al., 2010). The current study showed that both OCBs and CCBs received positive feedback; however, the emotional reactions of the participants were not examined. In the employee information form, it is explained that an imaginary employee engages in OCBs with his or her personal choice. Therefore, it is understandable that the participants in the current study were happy to evaluate their imaginary employees who were willing to engage in extra work by their personal choice, and the participants evaluated the OCB performers favorably. It can be said that the participants were happy to evaluate their CCB performers because their CCB performances contribute to the company. However, it is possible that CCB performers received positive feedback because they felt empathy more than happiness. The participants might have felt empathy to CCB performers when they found out their imaginary employees had to work extra because of abusive supervisors, and the participants wanted to contribute to the imaginary employees’ efforts and patience by evaluating them favorably.

It is also interesting to study the gender influence on the reactions of CCBs. The reactions of CCB performers are negative: CCB performers perceive higher levels of stress and lower job satisfaction than individuals who do not engage in CCBs (Gadot, 2007). As the current paper discussed, people have gender stereotypes: men should be aggressive and women should be caring and empathetic. These beliefs shape the ideas that men should engage in civic-CCBs and women should engage in altruistic-CCBs. Since our society forms an individual’s roles based on his or her gender, each individual should get used to engaging in his or her gender-congruent OCBs and CCBs. In other words, each individual should feel overwhelmed easily when he or she engages in
gender-incongruent CCBs, since these behaviors are unfamiliar and do not fit with his or her gender roles. Female altruistic-CCB performers should feel less overwhelmed than female civic-CCBs performers since females are used to performing altruistic behaviors in a society. Males should feel less overwhelmed while engaging in civic-CCBs than altruistic-CCBs since they get used to engaging in civic behaviors on a daily basis. As the current study suggested, the pilot tests should be conducted to identify what altruistic and civic behavioral items are associated with male or female gender stereotypes.
REFERENCES


APPENDICES
Appendix A

Consent Form

Dear Student:
Hi, I am Nobuko Makishi (315-717-9985, email: n.makishi@csuohio.edu). I am a graduate student in the Consumer Industrial Research Program in the psychology department at Cleveland State University. I am currently working on my thesis with Dr. Michael Horvath (216-687-2574, email: M.HORVATH59@csuohio.edu). We are asking you to help us with this survey about how people rate employee job performance. The purpose of this study is to gain a better understanding of what people look at when they rate employees. This study will take approximately 15 minutes.

If you agree to participate you will be asked to read a short employee information form. After you read it, you will be asked to imagine yourself in a position of a manager and evaluate the employee’s job performance. There will be questionnaires for you to indicate how you think about the employee’s job performance. After you finish your first task, you will be asked to complete the same tasks with a different employee’s form. You will not put your name on the survey and your answers will be completely anonymous. There is no way to know which student filled out an individual survey.

You may feel uncomfortable performing a rating task. Additionally, if your ratings were to become known, other people may discover how you might rate certain employees. In order to minimize these risks, we have done several things. First, participating in this study is voluntary. If at any time you wish to remove yourself or refuse to participate, you can stop participating. You will not be penalized if you decide not to participate. Second, we have made participation in this study anonymous. You will not be providing your name during this study, so it would be very difficult for anyone to associate you with your responses. Finally, we will keep all paper materials locked in a secure location, and we will store all electronic records on password-protected devices.

If you have any additional questions after the study, please contact Nobuko Makishi at (315) 717-9985, email: n.makishi@csuohio.edu. For further information regarding this research please contact Dr. Michael Horvath at (216) 687 - 2574, email: M.HORVATH59@csuohio.edu.

If you have any additional questions concerning the rights of research subjects, please contact the Cleveland State University Institutional Review Board at (216) 687-3630.

Please read next page for the agreement for participating in this study.
Please read the following and sign below if you agree to participate.

I understand that:

• I am voluntarily making the decision to participate and am at least 18 years of age
• My signature certifies that I have read all the information
• I shall receive a copy of this consent form for my records
• My name will not be known and my answers will be completely anonymous

_____________________________________
Participant’s Printed Name

_______________________________________    _____________
Participant’s Signature                                                                       Date

There are two copies of this letter. After signing them, keep one copy for your records and return the other one. Thank you in advance for your cooperation and support.
Appendix B

Participant Instructions

Step 1: Please open File 1.

Step 2: Please read the first employee information form. This employee information contains background about the employee’s work history with the company.

Step 3: Please evaluate this employee’s job performance and make organizational reward recommendations.

Step 4: Please open File 2.

Step 5: Please read the second employee information form. This employee information contains background about the employee’s work history with the company.

Step 6: Please evaluate this employee’s job performance and make organizational reward recommendations.

Step 7: Once you have finished all your tasks, please hand two completed surveys to the researcher before you leave the room.

Thank you for your cooperation and support!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definitions for Reward Recommendations</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Salary Increase</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>The amount a salary is increased.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Promotion</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank or position is raised.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>High-Profile Project</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A high profile project is a job assignment that is well known by most and that garners a lot of attention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bonus Pay</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A sum of money or an equivalent given to an employee in addition to the employee's usual compensation.</td>
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</table>
Appendix C

Employee Information Form (Male, Altruistic-CCB performers)

The following section contains background information about the employee’s work history with a cell phone company in Cleveland, OH. Please imagine yourself being in a position of a manager making decisions. You will be asked to evaluate this employee’s job performance and make recommendations for organizational rewards.

**Name:** James Johnson

**Work department:** Communication  
**Job title:** Technical Writer

**Starting date:** June, 2006  
**Tenure in the current position:** 3 years

**Competency Profile:** James has average oral communication and listening skills. His writing and reading skills are fair. He can use a computer normally. He has ordinary problem solving skills.

**Open-Ended Report:** He frequently faces strong social or managerial pressure to be a good employee. In order to satisfy management, he is expected to fit the following three behaviors into his already full schedule:

1) **Be always ready and willing to help others around him,**

2) **Help others who are overloaded with work,** and

3) **Be willing to help others who have work-related problems.**

   His boss does not care how hard his jobs are. He has to prioritize these three behaviors even when he does not feel like it or when he is too busy to engage in. These three expected behaviors are not his personal choice.
Appendix D

Employee Information Form (Male, Civic-CCB performers)

The following section contains background information about the employee’s work history with a cell phone company in Cleveland, OH. Please imagine yourself being in a position of a manager making decisions. You will be asked to evaluate this employee’s job performance and make recommendations for organizational rewards.

**Gender:** John Brown

**Work department:** Communication

**Job title:** Technical Writer

**Starting date:** June, 2006

**Tenure in the current position:** 3 years

**Competency Profile:** John’s problem solving skills are average. His writing and reading skills are fair. He knows how to use a computer. He has fair oral communication and listening skills.

**Open-Ended Report:** He frequently faces strong social or managerial pressure to be a good employee. In order to satisfy management, he is expected to fit the following three behaviors into his already full schedule:

1) **Read and keep up with organization announcements and memos,**

2) **Keep abreast of changes in the organization,**

3) **Attend meetings that are not mandatory but recommended.**

   His boss does not care how hard his jobs are. He has to prioritize these three behaviors even when he does not feel like it or when he is too busy to engage in. These three expected behaviors are not his personal choice.
Appendix E

Employee Information Form (Female, Altruistic-CCB performers)

The following section contains background information about the employee’s work history with a cell phone company in Cleveland, OH. Please imagine yourself being in a position of a manager making decisions. You will be asked to evaluate this employee’s job performance and make recommendations for organizational rewards.

**Gender:** Mary Johnson

**Work department:** Communication  
**Job title:** Technical Writer

**Starting date:** June, 2006  
**Tenure in the current position:** 3 years

**Competency Profile:** Mary has average oral communication and listening skills. Her writing and reading skills are fair. She can use a computer normally. She has ordinary problem solving skills.

**Open-Ended Report:** She frequently faces strong social or managerial pressure to be a good employee. In order to satisfy management, she is expected to fit the following three behaviors into her already full schedule:

1) Be **always ready and willing to help others around her,**

2) **Help others who are overloaded with work,** and

3) **Be willing to help others who have work-related problems.**

Her boss does not care how hard her jobs are. She has to prioritize these three behaviors even when she does not feel like it or when she is too busy to engage in. These three expected behaviors are not her personal choice.
Appendix F

Employee Information Form (female, Civic-CCB performers)

The following section contains background information about the employee’s work history with a cell phone company in Cleveland, OH. Please imagine yourself being in a position of a manager making decisions. You will be asked to evaluate this employee’s job performance and make recommendations for organizational rewards.

**Gender:** Linda Brown

**Work department:** Communication

**Job title:** Technical Writer

**Starting date:** June, 2006

**Tenure in the current position:** 3 years

**Competency Profile:** Linda’s problem solving skills are average. Her writing and reading skills are fair. She knows how to use a computer. She has fair oral communication and listening skills.

**Open-Ended Report:** She frequently faces strong social or managerial pressure to be a good employee. In order to satisfy management, she is expected to fit the following three behaviors into her already full schedule:

1) Read and keep up with organization announcements and memos,

2) Keep abreast of changes in the organization,

3) Attend meetings that are not mandatory but recommended.

Her boss does not care how hard his jobs are. She has to prioritize these three behaviors even when she does not feel like it or when she is too busy to engage in. These three expected behaviors are not her personal choice.
Appendix G

Employee Information Form (Female, Altruistic-OCB performers)

The following section contains background information about the employee’s work history with a cell phone company in Cleveland, OH. Please imagine yourself being in a position of a manager making decisions. You will be asked to evaluate this employee’s job performance and make recommendations for organizational rewards.

Name: Mary Johnson

Work department: Communication  Job title: Technical Writer

Starting date: June, 2006  Tenure in the current position: 3 years

Competency Profile: Mary has average oral communication and listening skills. Her writing and reading skills are fair. She can use a computer normally. She has ordinary problem solving skills.

Open-Ended Report: She engages in the following three behaviors in addition to her already full schedule:

1) Be always ready and willing to help others around her,

2) Help others who are overloaded with work, and

3) Be willing to help others who have work-related problems.

These three behaviors are her personal choice. In addition, these behaviors may contribute to her organization.
Appendix H

Employee Information Form (Female, Civic-OCB performers)

The following section contains background information about the employee’s work history with a cell phone company in Cleveland, OH. Please imagine yourself being in a position of a manager making decisions. You will be asked to evaluate this employee’s job performance and make recommendations for organizational rewards.

Name: Linda Brown

Work department: Communication  Job title: Technical Writer

Starting date: June, 2006  Tenure in the current position: 3 years

Competency Profile: Linda’s problem solving skills are average. Her writing and reading skills are fair. She knows how to use a computer. She has fair oral communication and listening skills.

Open-Ended Report: She engages in the following three behaviors in addition to her already full schedule:

1) Read and keep up with organization announcements and memos,

2) Keep abreast of changes in the organization,

3) Attend meetings that are not mandatory but recommended.

These three behaviors are her personal choice. In addition, these behaviors may contribute to her organization.
Appendix I

Employee Information Form (Male, Altruistic-OCB performers)

The following section contains background information about the employee’s work history with a cell phone company in Cleveland, OH. Please imagine yourself being in a position of a manager making decisions. You will be asked to evaluate this employee’s job performance and make recommendations for organizational rewards.

Name: James Johnson

Work department: Communication  Job title: Technical Writer

Starting date: June, 2006  Tenure in the current position: 3 years

Competency Profile: James has average oral communication and listening skills. His writing and reading skills are fair. He can use a computer normally. He has ordinary problem solving skills.

Open-Ended Report: He engages in the following three behaviors in addition to his already full schedule:

1) Be always ready and willing to help others around him,

2) Help others who are overloaded with work, and

3) Be willing to help others who have work-related problems.

These three behaviors are his personal choice. In addition, these behaviors may contribute to his organization.
Appendix J

Employee Information Form (Male, Civic-OCB performers)

The following section contains background information about the employee’s work history with a cell phone company in Cleveland, OH. Please imagine yourself being in a position of a manager making decisions. You will be asked to evaluate this employee’s job performance and make recommendations for organizational rewards.

Name: John Williams

Work department: Communication  Job title: Technical Writer

Starting date: June, 2006  Tenure in the current position: 3 years

Competency Profile: John’s problem solving skills are average. His writing and reading skills are fair. He knows how to use a computer. He has fair oral communication and listening skills.

Open-Ended Report: He engages in the following three behaviors in addition to his already full schedule:

1) Read and keep up with organization announcements and memos,

2) Keep abreast of changes in the organization,

3) Attend meetings that are not mandatory but recommended.

These three behaviors are his personal choice. In addition, these behaviors may contribute to his organization.
Appendix K

You are a manager who needs to evaluate this employee. Please evaluate the employee’s job performance and make reward recommendation for organizational rewards.

1) Based on the employee information form, please circle one number that shows the probability that this person will be successful on the job.

| Overall Rating of Probability of Success (Circle one) |
|-----------------|-----------------|
|   5    | High          | Very good (80-100%) |
|   4    | Moderate      | Good (60-80%) |
|   3    | Moderate      | Moderate (40-60%) |
|   2    |               | Poor (20-40%) |
|   1    | Low           | Very poor (0-20%) |

2) Based on the employee information form, please circle one number that rates this person’s job performance.

| Rating of the individual's job performance (circle on rating) |
|-----------------|-----------------|
|   5    | High          | Very good |
|   4    |               | Good |
|   3    | Moderate      | Moderate |
|   2    |               | Poor |
|   1    | Low           | Very poor |

3) Based on the employee information form, please circle one number for each reward that you think this person should receive.

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<th>Recommend</th>
<th>No opinion</th>
<th>Not recommend</th>
<th>Would not definitely recommend</th>
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<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>High-Profile Project</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>Bonus pay</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix L

Demographic Questions

1. What is your sex?
   a. Male
   b. Female

2. How do you describe yourself? (please check the one option that best describes you)
   o American Indian or Alaska Native
   o Asian or Asian American
   o Black or African American
   o Hispanic or Latino
   o Non-Hispanic White
   o Others

3. What is your age? __________

4. Please select your status.
   a. Undergraduate
   b. Graduate
   c. Other

5. What is your employment status now? (please select one that best describes you)
   a. Employed full time
   b. Employed part time
   c. A homemaker
   d. Retired
   e. Unemployed/ Looking for work
6. If you are employed, please describe your work (please select one that best describes you)
   a. Employee of a for-profit company or business or of an individual, for wages, salary, or commissions
   b. Employee of a not-for-profit, tax-exempt, or charitable organization
   c. Government employee (local, state, or federal)
   d. Self-employed
   e. Working without pay in family business or farm

7. If you are currently employed, how many years of work experience do you have? (please select one that best describes you).
   a. Less than 6 months
   b. 6 months – 1 year
   c. 1 year – 5 years
   d. 5 years - 10 years
   e. 10 years - 20 years
   f. 20 years or over

8. Have you ever had to rate the performance of a subordinate or a co-worker?
   a. Yes
   b. No

9. What is the highest grade or year of school you completed?
   a. Grade 12 or GED (High school graduate)
   b. College 4 years (College graduate)
   c. Graduate School (Advance degree)