

UNIVERSITY OF LJUBLJANA  
FACULTY OF ECONOMICS

MASTER'S THESIS

**THE EFFECT OF WORKPLACE FLEXIBILITY AND CORE SELF-  
EVALUATION ON ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR**

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## INTRODUCTION

Organizational citizenship behavior (hereinafter: OCB) represents all the activities employee performs for the organization without the notion of gaining any monetary or non-monetary incentive in return from the organization (Yadav, Rangnekar, & Bamel, 2016). It has been studied in the light of gender, age, personality types, qualification, culture, motivation and other aspects. OCB is mostly found to exist in employees with high organizational commitment (Guha & Chimote, 2012). Furthermore, job satisfaction was found to be increasing by practicing OCB, meaning that practice of OCB usually derives from individual initiative rather than organizational (Bolino & Turnley, 2003). Cameron and Nadler (2013) examined gender roles and differences in employee evaluations based on OCB participation, where they found out those OCBs were perceived more feminine than masculine. Furthermore, women were more likely to participate in OCBs compared to men. OCB is also linked to lower turnover and absenteeism, increased productivity and efficiency on an organizational level. OCB is very beneficial for organizational success, and it is supported by antecedents: personality/trait, attitudinal, and leadership/group factors (Zhang, 2011). We can see that many OCBs require personal initiative and self-confidence, both of which are enhanced by positive self-evaluations (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003).

Not only individual aspects, workplaces also influence OCB. For an employee to undertake OCB, he or she has to be satisfied with the working environment. Trends from all over the world regarding the changing nature of work and the workforce suggest that effective workplace flexibility implementation in the organization supports work-life demands, which is critical for organizational effectiveness. This means employees believe that their work-life needs are supported by the employer and that the employer itself perceives that organizational objectives are served through flexibility practices and policies. Workplace flexibility helps companies to adapt the changing nature of employees and updates their work time expectations and work processes (Kossek & Thompson, 2015). It is clear that adaption to changing marketplaces and global integration of work systems jobs is needed. This requires availability during more work hours throughout the day, from early morning to late at night (Kossek & Thompson, 2015). Workplace flexibility is rising as a formal policy and informal work practice for both work-life and business purposes. Moreover, researchers argued that offering workplace flexibility policies indicates that organizations are supportive of potential employee's life demands and organizations that offer flexibility are more attractive to potential employees, as they are signaling that they are giving their social support (Grover & Crooker, 1995; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011). By enhancing flexibility, people would have more time to determine when, where, and how they want to work, which results in job satisfaction. The positive connection between workplace flexibility and job satisfaction is proven by researchers (Allen, 2006; Forsyth & Polzer-Debruyne, 2007), and so are positive associations between workplace flexibility and work-family life, commitment, and individual performance (Yadav et al., 2016). However, there

is little research up until now that would determine the relationship between workplace flexibility and organizational citizenship behavior. Furthermore, workplace flexibility is presented as a solution to the high turnover costs. Turnover costs are negatively related to the OCB and they present almost a fifth of employee's annual salary. Therefore, engaging less in OCB increases the costs for approximately 20% of the employee's annual salary (Boushey & Glynn, 2012). This is also an important reason to research the effects on OCB and how OCB is actually perceived in our environment.

**The main purpose** of this thesis is to research the relationships between core self-evaluation (CSE) and workplace flexibility towards OCB. For an organization where ambitious employees are important, a person with high CSE would be applicable. Therefore it would additionally contribute to more OCB. Furthermore, by promoting workplace flexibility, employees would probably engage in more organizational citizenship behavior, as their level of happiness would increase (Golden, Henly, & Lambert, 2013). I have stressed the importance of employee's happiness and satisfaction in the workplace. However, the employer's view is also important in order to satisfy the needs of changing workforce. Therefore, **the goal** is to analyze the perception of individuals on OCB and to identify the effects of workplace flexibility and CSE on OCB as extra-role behavior. To achieve this goal, quantitative research has been used. Therefore, mutual cooperation is required, from both sides – an employee and an employer to increase OCB, by having the possibility of workplace flexibility, resulting in higher productivity levels of the organization, which is the problem I will study in this thesis. The final **research question** is: how workplace flexibility and CSE influence OCB?

Literature overview was made, and this was the basis for the online questionnaire, which was developed from the pre-existing measuring scales. The data obtained were analyzed with the SPSS program, where descriptive, bivariate correlations, linear regressions, independent sample T-Test, and paired samples T-Test were performed.

The master's thesis begins with the literature overview, firstly of main variable – OCB, and what are the financial implications for an organization due to OCB. The thesis continues with the research made in the field of workplace flexibility and CSE. The next is the part of the research itself, what the purpose is, and what the goal and the research question are. In the end, hypotheses are discussed. The methodology starts with the description of the sample, how data was collected and analyzed, and, last but not least, questionnaire development is explained. In the chapter of empirical results, demographic characteristics are discussed and the results of statistical testing are presented. In the end, the results are discussed. The limitations and future research are also explained and suggested.

# **1 ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR**

Organizational citizenship behavior is the main concept in this master's thesis. It is a concept, which was widely researched in the literature over years. In this part, I will review the extensive literature and present the definition of the concept, antecedents, and consequences, and roughly describe the financial aspects of the organizational citizenship behavior.

## **1.1 Definition of organizational citizenship behavior**

In most recent years the competition on the recruitment market increased significantly, resulting in challenging nature of the business environment, which forces individuals to adapt in their organizations, by working more than they are formally supposed to. These behaviors are known as pro-social behaviors, extra-role behaviors, and organizational citizenship behavior, and are primarily matter of personal choice, not considered as punishable in organizations (Chahal & Mehta, 2010; Makau, Nzulwa, & Wabala, 2017). Generally, research shows that organizational citizenship behavior contributes to organizational success (Aggarwal & Singh, 2016). Organizational citizenship behavior (hereinafter: OCB) is one of the most widely studied topics in recent years (Chahal & Mehta, 2010; Alizadeh, Darvushu, Nazari, & Emami, 2012; Berber & Rofcanin, 2012; Azim & Dora, 2016; Pradhan, Jena, & Kumari, 2016; Aggarwal & Singh, 2016; Parasar, 2017). The phenomena itself is not a newly discovered concept, as OCB was firstly mentioned by Bateman and Organ in 1983 when they conducted a study that tested the prediction if job satisfaction relates to OCB. The initial study supported the proposition, which reads as follows: individual contributions in the workplace, which go beyond the contractually agreed role of employee and formal workplace rewards, were related to job satisfaction (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Blume (2009) present a fact that the majority of OCB articles – 66% – have been published since the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

By overviewing the literature, there have been a lot of definitions of OCB, although one of the most used was Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2006, p. 8) describing OCB as “Individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization.” Discretionary means that the specific behavior in a specific context is not an absolute requirement in terms of job description. This behavior is chosen only by personal choice. The term not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system stands for the behavior of an employee, who goes an extra mile to help a customer or a co-worker. It is utterly important to understand that OCB is not in any way contractually guaranteed – a person who applies OCB cannot expect a reward for ongoing behavior. However, OCB is not rewarded by one-to-one correspondence – doing a specific action and getting specific reward promised in written or in verbal form (Organ et al., 2006).



Jahangir, Akbar and Haq (2004) indicate the second definition of OCB in their review as an extra-role behavior, which is presented as a broader construct of OCB. The Van Dyne, Cummings and McLean Parks (1995, p. 218) definition says: “Extra-role behavior (ERB) is defined as behavior which benefits the organization and/or is intended to benefit the organization, which is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations.” Although definitions are similar, the second does not provide enough clarity, in the means of role expectations, which could be more than contractually expected. Furthermore, an intention to do benefits for the organization is not a part of organizational citizenship behavior, as one has to act by personal choice (Jahangir et al., 2004).

However, newer definitions are built around Bateman and Organ’s (1983) initial empirical research definitions. To name a few, Van Dyne, Vandewalle, Kostova, Latham, and Cummings (2000, p.3) defined OCB as “cooperative behavior that has positive consequences for the organization but is not required or formally rewarded”. More recent definition by Chahal and Mehta (2010) states: “OCB is characterized by an individual participating in helping behaviors and gestures that benefit an organization or community and come from an internal desire to help, rather than an external requirement placed upon them.” Furthermore, Zhang (2011) described OCB as “a term that encompasses anything positive and constructive that employees do, of their own volition, which supports co-workers and benefits the company.” The author states that, typically, employees who frequently engage in the behavior are not always the top performers but are known as ones who “go an extra mile” or “go above and beyond” minimum efforts that are required to do a satisfactory job.

Organizations cannot forecast the exact behaviors needed to achieve the company objectives. Therefore, OCB is a vital component of successful organizational productivity (Deluga, 1994). Luthans (2011) agrees that OCB reflects employee’s dispositional traits such as cooperation, helpfulness, care, and conscientiousness. Up until this date, the construct of the topic remains at its core, promoting the effective functioning of the organization, and conceptualizing as positive behavior and willingness for the success of the organization (Zhang, 2011; Parasar, 2017). In the next few subchapters, the model of OCB, motives, antecedents, and consequences are discussed.

## **1.2 Five-factor model of organizational citizenship behavior**

As OCB is a widely researched topic, there have been a lot of propositions for OCB dimensions over time. The first most known theoretical concept of OCB dimensions was presented by Smith, Organ, and Near (1983). By conducting structured interviews with managers, they did factor analyses of sixteen measures, which indicated two factors: altruism and general compliance (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Dash & Pradhan, 2014). Factors included in altruism represented helping behavior, directed towards specific individuals. Altruistic people go an extra mile for those individuals, who have problems or need

assistance (Jahangir et al., 2004). General compliance represents impersonal conscientiousness, presenting factors that are general and contributable to the group, department or organization. Sharma and Jain (2014) describe that several different dimensions on OCB proved that altruism and general compliance are the two basic factors, which are essential for OCB.

Table 1. Literature overview of OCB dimensions by year of publishing

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Dimensions</b>
Smith, Organ and Near (1983)	Altruism General Compliance
Organ (1988)	Altruism Courtesy Civic Virtue Conscientiousness Sportsmanship
Graham (1989)	Interpersonal Helping Individual Initiative Personal Industry Loyal Boosterism
Lin (1991)	Identification with the organization Assistance to colleagues Harmony Righteous Discipline Self-improvement
Williams and Anderson (1991) Williams (1988)	Individual directed OCB (OCBI) Organizational directed OCB (OCBO)
George and Brief (1992) George and Jones (1997)	Helping co-workers Spreading Goodwill Making Constructive Suggestions Protecting the Organization Developing Oneself
Borman and Motowidlo (1993, 1997)	Helping and Cooperating With Others Endorsing, Supporting, and Defending Organizational Objectives Following Organizational Rules and Procedures

table continues

continued

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Dimensions</b>
Borman and Motowidlo (1993, 1997)	Persisting with Enthusiasm and Extra Effort Volunteering to Carry Out Task Activities
Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch (1994)	Obedience Loyalty Participation (Social and Functional)
Morrison (1994)	Altruism Conscientiousness Sportsmanship Involvement Keeping up
Moorman and Blakely (1995)	Personal industry Loyal boosterism Individual initiative
Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996)	Interpersonal Facilitation Job dedication
Farh, Earley and Lin (1997)	Identification with the company Altruism toward colleagues Conscientiousness Interpersonal Harmony Protecting Company resources
Podsakoff, MacKenize, Paine and Bachrach (2000)	Helping behaviour Sportsmanship Organizational loyalty Organizational compliance Individual initiative Civic virtue Self-development
Coleman and Boreman (2000)	Interpersonal citizenship performance dimension Organizational citizenship performance dimension Job-task citizenship performance dimension
Dekas, Bauer, Welle, Kurkoski and Sullivan (2013)	Employee sustainability Knowledge-sharing

table continues

continued

Authors	Dimensions
Agarwal (2016)	Discretionary organizational citizenship behaviour (DOCB)
	Normative organizational citizenship behaviour (NOCB)
	Rule-bounded organizational citizenship behaviour (ROCB)

Source: P. M. Podsakoff, S. B. MacKenize, J. B. Paine & D. G. Bachrach, *Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: A Critical Review of the Theoretical and Empirical Literature and Suggestions for Future Research*, 2000, p. 518, Table 1; S. Dash & R. K. Pradhan, *Determinants & Consequences of Organizational Citizenship Behavior: A Theoretical Framework for Indian Manufacturing Organizations*, 2014, p. 20, Table 1; P. Agarwal, *Redefining the organizational citizenship behaviour*, 2016, p.959, Table 1; A. Aggarwal & R. Singh, *Exploring the Nomological Network of Organizational Citizenship Behavior: A Review of Dimensions, Antecedents and Consequences*, 2016, p. 23, Table 2.

A few years later, Organ (1988) proposed an expanded version of Smith et al.'s (1983) dimensions. He developed five dimensions: altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship.

**Altruism** presents a voluntary helping behavior, with which an employee helps another employee with a work problem, such as using equipment, catching up on work, take a part of the workload from coworker... The help assistance can be provided to a newcomer, a coworker who has been absent, a coworker with work overload... To sum up, altruism is behavior typically directed towards other individuals, such as coworkers, which contributes to group efficiency by enhancing individual's performance (Podsakoff, MacKenize, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Jahangir et al., 2004; Allameh, Amiri, & Asadi, 2011; Esmaeili, Pirzad, & Alizadeh, 2014).

**Courtesy** is shown in the voluntarily behavior of an employee when he or she takes courtesy or gestures in order not to make an action that would result in problematic outcome at the workplace. It includes activities, which prevent work problems with others. So courtesy, in general, prevents conflicts/problems and facilitates the constructive use of time (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Allison, Voss, & Dryer, 2001; Esmaeili et al., 2014; Sharma & Jain, 2014).

**Civic virtue** refers to an attitude of responsible and active participation in the political process of organization, by not only expressing opinions but also by following larger issues involving the organization. It also presents activities, when one is participating in extracurricular activities when presence is not required. The dimension represents a kind of duty which employees carry out as members of the organization in their inner self, just like citizens, who accept their responsibilities as members of a specific country. Furthermore, it

means that they involve responsibly and constructively in the issues and governance of the organization, like true citizens. Civic virtue generally promotes interests of the organization in a broad way (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Allameh et al., 2011; Esmaeili et al., 2014; Sharma & Jain, 2014).

**Conscientiousness** represents all discretionary behaviors that go beyond one's role, demand, or requirement. It is a pattern of doing work well beyond minimally required levels, referring to internal organizational maintenance (for example attendance, punctuality, conserving resources...). Organ (1988) believed that those who promoted OCB at workplace show high working conscience by working in the occurrence of illness and inabilities. This means that conscious workers do not take time off or ever disrespect organizational rules. In brief – conscientiousness means the thoughtful use of time enhancing the efficiency of individual and group in the organization (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Jahangir et al., 2004; Kumar, Bakhshi, & Rani 2009; Khan & Rashid, 2012; Esmaeili, Pirzad and Alizadeh, 2014).

**Sportsmanship** refers to the willingness to overcome minor and temporary personal inconveniences in the organization without complaining to anybody in or out the organization. It shows somewhat some tolerance capacity of an employee or, in other words, citizen-like posture. An employee who practices sportsmanship improves the amount of time spent on strains in the organization (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Jahangir et al., 2004; Khan & Rashid, 2012; Esmaeili et al., 2014).

The above conceptualization is recognized as commonly utilized (Organ et al., 2006). In addition, Kidder and McLean Parks (2001) argued that OCB may be categorized as feminine (altruism, courtesy), or as masculine (sportsmanship, civic virtue, conscientiousness).

Graham (1989) introduced a bit different four-dimensional model of OCB: interpersonal helping, individual initiative, personal industry, and loyal boosterism. Interpersonal helping focuses on helping colleagues when they need an assistance; individual initiative describes the communication to others in the workplace; personal industry represents the performance of a specific task, which is not needed in regular everyday work (make extra work); loyal boosterism describes the promotion of the organizational image to shareholders (Sharma & Jain, 2014). Later on, Organ (1990) suggested two additional dimensions: cheerleading (celebration of colleague's accomplishments) and peace-making (preventing personal wars between two or more parties) (Sharma & Jain, 2014).

A year later, Lin (1991) developed six dimensions in his doctoral dissertation, including identification with the organization, assistance to colleagues, harmony, righteousness, discipline, and self-improvement (Dash & Pradhan, 2014). Lin's (1991) dimensions are not frequently mentioned in the literature. Therefore, further explanations of the dimensions are not included.

Williams and Anderson (1991) categorized OCB into 2 broad categories: individual directed organizational citizenship behavior (hereinafter: OCBI) and organizational directed organizational citizenship behavior (hereinafter: OCBO). The two-factor structure is based on William's (1988) definition: OCBI represents benefits directed at individuals within the organization; OCBO represents benefits to the organization in general (Jahangir et al., 2004). Williams and Anderson (1991, p. 602) state that "Prior research has labelled OCBI dimension as altruism and the OCBO dimension as generalized compliance." Furthermore, Organ's (1988) altruism and courtesy belong to OCBI, while civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship belong to the OCBO grouping (LePine et al., 2002).

Podsakoff et al. (2000) summarized employee in-role and extra-role work performance dimensions, from where the next two dimensions were adapted from George and Brief (1992), George and Jones (1997), and Borman and Motowidlo (1993, 1997).

As it is shown in table 1, George and Brief developed five dimensions. Podsakoff et al. (2000) describe them as helping co-workers (all voluntary forms of assistance provided to organizational members to accomplish task and attain goals), spreading goodwill (organizational members voluntarily contribute to organizational effectiveness through representing the organization in beneficial light in order to obtain needed resources from various stakeholder groups), making constructive suggestions (voluntary acts of creativity and innovation in organizations in order to find ways to improve individual, group, or organizational functioning), protecting the organization (voluntary acts organizational members engage to protect or save lives and property), and developing oneself (steps that employees take to improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities to be better able to contribute to their organization; this work is completely voluntarily).

Moreover, Borman and Motowidlo's dimensions are also described by Podsakoff et al. (2000): helping and cooperating with others; endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives; following organizational rules and procedures; persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort (in order to complete one's own work activities successfully); and volunteering to carry out task activities (that are not formally a part of one's job).

In 1994, Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch presented a three-dimensional OCB framework: obedience, loyalty, and participation, which represent social and functional participation. Obedience refers to respect for orderly structures and processes and it overlaps with Organ's (1988) civic virtue and conscientiousness. Loyalty means promoting and protecting the community and contributing additional effort for the common good. Loyalty overlaps with sportsmanship and to some extent, it overlaps with civic virtue. Participation refers to the contribution to the process of community self-governance. It consists of social and functional participation. Social participation overlaps with altruism and courtesy, which are also OCBI

measures, while functional participation does not overlap with Organ's (1988) five dimensions (LePine et al., 2002; Dash & Pradhan, 2014).

Morrison (1994) did a factor analysis based on Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) and Smith et al. (1983) scales, creating five dimensions, which are compared to Organ's (1988) most used five dimensions of OCB. Principal component analysis defined the first factor by eight items and it reflected altruism. Six items reflected the second factor: conscientiousness. The third factor was reflecting sportsmanship, defined by three items. The fourth factor represented involvement (participation in organizational functions), the fifth represented keeping up (keeping informed about organizational events and changes). Both were described by 3 items and both represent different aspects of civic virtue dimension (Morrison, 1994; LePine et al., 2002).

Moorman and Blakely (1995) studied the relationship between collectivism and individualism and the effect on OCB. They presented the three dimensions of OCB. Personal industry describes the performance of worker's specific informal tasks, leading directly to contingent reward. Loyal boosterism focuses on promoting the organization in general rather than a particular workgroup. The third is the individual initiative (Moorman & Blakely, 1995).

The two dimensions of contextual performance were presented by Van Scotter and Motowidlo in 1996. The first is interpersonal facilitation, which consists of interpersonally oriented behaviors that contribute to organizational goal accomplishment, encompassing deliberate acts that improve morale, encourage cooperation, remove barriers to performance or help co-workers perform their task-oriented job activities. The second is job dedication, which focuses on self-disciplined behaviors and is the motivational foundation for job performance, resulting in the drive of employees that intentionally promote organization's best interest. Interpersonal facilitation intersects with altruism and courtesy from Organ (1988), above mentioned Morrison's (1994) altruism, and Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994) social participation. Furthermore, job dedication is similar to sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness dimensions from Organ (1988), Van Dyne et al.'s (1994) functional participation, and further mentioned Coleman and Borman's (2000) dimension: job-task citizenship performance (Podsakoff et al., 2000; LePine et al., 2002).

Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997) labeled five factors, which they got from the 20-item Chinese citizenship behavior scale. The factors included identification with the company, altruism towards colleagues, conscientiousness, interpersonal harmony, and protecting company resources.

Podsakoff et al. (2000) developed seven common themes (dimensions) by reviewing the literature. They argued that there is a great deal of conceptual overlap between different OCB

dimensions. They grouped the constructs into helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self-development. They presented the dimensions in the table by allocating the concepts from the literature into their own grouping.

Coleman and Borman (2000) wanted to solve the problem of identification of the extent to which OCB represent broader underlying constructs. They analyzed and sorted 27 citizenship behaviors. The first dimension is interpersonal citizenship performance, which is similar to OCBI, including altruism and courtesy. It refers to behavior that benefits other organizational members. The second is organizational citizenship performance dimension, which refers to sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness, being similar to OCBO. It presents the behavior, which benefits the organization itself. Last but not least, job-task citizenship performance represents the behavior that reflects extra effort and persistence on the job, dedication to the job, and the desire to maximize one's own job performance. This last dimension is not overlapping with Organ's (1988) dimensions. Otherwise, it is compatible with Van Dyne et al.'s (1994) functional participation and Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) job dedication dimension (LePine et al., 2002).

More recent dimensions of OCB dimensions were presented by Dekas, Bauer, Welle, Kurkoski, and Sullivan (2013). They introduced two new dimensions as an addition to previously validated dimensions: employee sustainability and knowledge-sharing (Agarwal, 2016).

Last but not least, Agarwal (2016) validated three dimensions of OCB in her study. Discretionary OCB (hereinafter: DOCB) refers to worker's discretionary behavior that is beyond the formal behavior, which is defined by the organization, leading to benefits for employees and organization. The next dimension is normative OCB (hereinafter: NOCB) referring to worker's behavior beyond the behavior which is formally recognized by peer pressure, strong norms of the organization, and shared belief in the organization. The norms and culture present the driver if one will adapt OCB or not. NOCB bases on role theory, as normative behaviors and attitudes arise from the roles that are shaped by expectations in the culture or in the system. The last dimension is rule-bounded OCB (hereinafter: ROCB), which refers to the extent of OCB elements that are displayed due to the part of roles, responsibilities, performance evaluation, or any other formal requirement of the job (Agarwal, 2016).

Dash and Pradhan (2014) state that most of the conceptualizations of the OCB dimensions focus on some variations among the five dimensions suggested by Organ (1988). Furthermore, LePine et al. (2002) discuss Organ's (1988) five-dimension framework as the subject of the greatest amount of the empirical research for three reasons: they believe that is it most used because it has the longest history. Podsakoff et al. (2000) used those five



dimensions as a measure. OCB researchers typically measure all or most of the measures in the same way.

### **1.3 Antecedents and consequences of organizational citizenship behavior**

OCB is a behavior and it has antecedents and motives which affect the behavior, leading to consequences of the behavior. In the next two subchapters, antecedents, motives and consequences of OCB are explained, based on vast previous literature.

#### **1.3.1 Antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior**

The attempts to measure OCB and relate it to other variables started more than 30 years ago. Scholars tried to find variables which lead the employees into OCB. Most of them agree that OCB typically arises from positive job attitudes, which was also confirmed in empirical research (Berber & Rofcanin, 2012). The antecedents are broadly categorized into personality/trait, attitudinal, and leadership/group factors. They can be used as guidelines to improve and encourage OCB in the organization (Zhang, 2011).

Aggarwal and Singh (2016) made overlook of previous empirical research relating to OCB and its antecedents. Researchers conducted studies by measuring the relationships between OCB and variables, such as job satisfaction (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Kuehn & Al-Busaidi, 2002; Wagner & Rush, 2000; Spence, Ferris, Brown, & Heller, 2011; Barnes, Ghumman, & Scott, 2013; Islam, Ahmad, & Ahmed, 2014), organizational commitment (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Kuehn & Al-Busaidi, 2002; Paré & Tremblay, 2007; Peziz, 2010; Wagner & Rush, 2000; Alkahtani, 2015), leadership (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Asgari, Silong, Ahmad, & Samah, 2008; Ozdevecioglu, Ozgur, & Tugba, 2015), big five personality characteristics (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller, & Johnson, 2009; Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, & Gardner, 2011), job characteristics, age, job performance, organizational, and task characteristics, perceived organizational support and trust, justice and fairness on the workplace, turnover intentions, stress, role overload, motives, work-family conflict, organizational identity, nationality (Blakely, Srivastava, & Moorman, 2005; Chahal & Mehta, 2010), amount of control over ones job (Glomb & Welsh, 2005), customer knowledge (Bettencourt, Gewinner, & Meuter, 2001), learning organizational culture (Jo & Joo, 2011), to name a few. Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, the perception of fairness, and perceptions of leader supportiveness are most frequently investigated antecedents of OCB. All of them also have a significant relationship with OCB and are recognized as general effective morale factors (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Rioux and Penner (2001) introduced three motives for engaging in OCB: impression management, prosocial values, and organizational concern. When an employee wants to build a positive image for personal gain, we talk about impression management. Usually,

they direct their behavior towards individuals in the organizations, mostly to those who are on the higher level of the hierarchy. Furthermore, employees motivated by impression management, more likely engage in altruism and consequently in OCBI (Newland, 2012). It is interesting that those who get a promotion usually engage less in OCB than before the promotion (Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000). Prosocial values and OCB result in people who are genuinely concerned with the welfare of others. Prosocial values are referring to OCBI because of individual's actions towards other employees (Newland, 2012). Lastly, organizational concern means the feeling to owe the organization because it gave the employee a good job and treats them fairly. Employee associates with the organization, and he or she has a feeling that has an impact on other individuals with the positive behavior (Halbesleben, Savage, Wakefield, & Wakefield, 2010). The organizational concern is obviously OCBO oriented behavior (Rioux & Penner, 2001).

Given the dimension of the research on OCB, there were many different samples chosen during many years. In the early years, research about organizations was mostly conducted on samples from western countries, leading to conclusion and generalization based on western culture and findings. However, theories, based on western samples, are not necessarily sufficient to explain organizational concepts in other cultures (Makau et al., 2017). When reviewing the literature, I noticed that there are many studies conducted in most recent years by researchers from Asia and Africa, which is also noticed by other authors (Alkahtani, 2015). Furthermore, research on OCB has been conducted in areas such as public administration, engineering, healthcare services, marketing, sociology, IT, nursing, etc. Agarwal (2016) states that research conducted in mentioned areas are due to the significant relationship with favorable organizational outcomes. Some of the studies from the mentioned areas in different cultures are presented below.

Wagner and Rush (2000) selected participants from nursing staffs of two privately owned hospitals in the metropolitan area of south-eastern United States. They focused on the service-oriented profession in order to observe altruism. They researched how younger and older participants perceive job satisfaction, organizational commitment, altruistic OCB, and trust in management. They discovered that job satisfaction, trust in management, and organizational commitment were more relevant in the context of younger participants. Moral judgment, however, was a unique predictor of altruistic OCB among the older nurses (Wagner & Rush, 2000).

Kamdar, McAllister and Turban (2006) sampled engineers and their immediate supervisor from oil refinery of Fortune 500 companies, which is located in India. They gave new insights into the role of individual differences as predictors of OCB role definition, as employees perceiving OCB as discretionary or extra-role were less inclined to engage in OCB and they responded to perceived injustice with less OCB (Kamdar et al., 2006).

Paré and Tremblay (2007) researched the influence of high-involvement human resources practices, procedural justice, organizational commitment, and citizenship behaviors on information technology professionals' turnover intentions. The study was conducted on Canadian IT professionals, resulting in that OCB-helping behaviors did not appear to be related to HR high-involvement practices. However, OCB-helping behaviors were negatively related to turnover intentions. Affective commitment (employee wished to remain in the organization due to emotional attachment) had a positive influence on OCB-helping behaviors, while continuance commitment (employee has to stay in the organization as he or she cannot find another job, but need the benefits and salary) did not have a significant relationship with OCB-helping behaviors. The positive relationship between perception of procedural fairness and OCB-helping behaviors was also detected (Paré & Tremblay, 2007).

Asgari et al. (2008) made a research on employees and managers in public service departments in Malaysia. They researched how transformational leadership behavior (leader motivates followers), leader-member exchange, perceived organizational support, and trust in the manager are all related to OCB. Their findings suggest that perceived organizational support and trust mediate the relationship between organizational characteristics and OCB. Moreover, transformational leadership had a positive and direct effect on OCB, which means that supervisor should do their best to maintain good interaction with subordinates in order to reduce turnover intentions and promote OCB to improve organizational effectiveness. It was stressed that justice, trust, and support are important for organizational effectiveness, consequently also for OCB (Asgari et al., 2008).

Pezij (2010) sampled Dutch employees, employed in healthcare, education and insurance, and financial consulting. The research found that the relationship between OCB and stress was weaker for employees with high levels of affective commitment. On the other hand, the relationship was stronger and positive for employees with high levels of continuance commitment. Furthermore, those employees with higher levels of cooperative norms had a stronger relationship between OCB and work-family conflict (Pezij, 2010).

Barnes et al. (2013) made an interesting research – they used sleep quantity as a predictor for OCB and mediating role of job satisfaction for the mentioned variables. Two samples were selected – in the first there were employees, who voluntarily sought treatment in sleep clinic in the United States and in the second there were college students from western part of the United States. For the first sample, they identified that sleep quantity predicts OCB directed toward organizations. However, it does not predict OCB directed toward individuals. In the case of college students, they found that natural variation in daily sleep over the course of work week predicted daily variance in OCB (both individually and organizationally directed). In both cases, job satisfaction was represented as a mediator in the relationship between sleep and OCB (Barnes et al., 2013).

Islam et al. (2014) explored the relationship between perceived organizational support, organizational learning culture, job satisfaction, and OCB. Participants in the study worked in Malaysian banking sector. The results identified that perceived organizational support and organizational learning culture are positively related to OCB and job satisfaction (Islam et al., 2014).

Ozdevecioglu et al. (2015) sampled employees from manufacturing firm in Romania. They researched the effect of leader-member exchange on turnover intention and organizational citizenship behavior. The results identified the positive relationship between leader-member exchange and OCB (Ozdevecioglu et al. 2015).

Alkahtani (2015) researched OCB and rewards. The research question stated if the display of OCB has any impact on rewards given by the organization. Participants were employees from a commercial bank operating in Pakistan. Results presented that altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness and civic virtue dimensions are related to total promotions and total salary increments, received by an employee. Sportsmanship and civic virtue were related to annual performance grade, received by employees (Alkahtani, 2015).

Dirican and Erdil (2016) explored the OCB and counterproductive work behavior (voluntary behavior that violated organizational norms and threatens the well-being of organization and employees) of academic staff in relation to demographics. They sampled employees from 50 public universities throughout Turkey. The results indicated that older academic staff displayed more OCB and less counterproductive work behavior than younger academic staff (Dirican & Erdil, 2016).

Callea, Urbini, Ingusci and Chirumbolo (2016) feel that employees need to feel secure to do their job as they are expected to. If the need is not met, there could be an effect on OCB. They collected responses from white and blue collar employees from Italy through a questionnaire. Structural equation model showed that the effect of job insecurity on OCB and job performance was mediated by organizational identification. They suggest that organizations may address HRM policies to reduce job insecurity and increase organizational identification (for example involving workers in the decision-making process and promoting teamwork) (Callea et al., 2016).

Iftikhar, Shahis, Shahab, Mobeen and Qureshi (2016) aimed to clarify the relationship among OCB, affective commitment, and turnover intentions along with the variables as mediators. They have chosen a sample of employees representing middle-level management. Results indicated that all five dimensions of OCB are positively related to affective commitment and negatively with turnover intention. Affective commitment was also a mediator between OCB and turnover intentions (Iftikhar et al., 2016).

The most recent study of Makau et al. (2017) researched the influence of compensation programs on OCB among employees working in the bank in Kenya. The study showed that employees agreed with the forms of compensation in the bank and that they think that basic salary should be revised and increased. They identified that guaranteed pay has a positive relationship with OCB. However, variable pay and service had less influence on OCB (Makau et al., 2017).

To summarize, research of different groups of employees in different cultures are presented above. Throughout my research, I noticed there are many studies performed on individuals who are employed in service lines. For example, US older nurses' moral judgment is a unique predictor of altruistic OCB. Their younger colleagues paid more attention to job satisfaction, trust in management and in organizational commitment than to moral judgment. Employees and managers in public service departments from Malaysia feel that supervisor should do their best to communicate with their subordinates in order to reduce turnover rates in the company. Moreover, OCB should be promoted to improve organizational effectiveness. Justice, trust, and support are very important for an organization to develop, which applies also to OCB, the factor that enhances organizational productivity and effectiveness. Employees from the Netherlands, working in healthcare, education and consulting, indicate that there is a positive relationship between stress and OCB when they had high levels of continuance commitment, meaning when they feel that they work only because they could not find a new job at the moment. If they feel more stress, they engage more in OCB. Individuals, working in Malaysian banking sector, indicate that organizational support and learning are important, as they help employees engage more in OCB and are more satisfied with their job when practicing organizational support and learning. Again, bank officials from Pakistan identified that altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and civic virtue are affected by promotions and salary increments given by the organization. Performance grade received by employees affects sportsmanship and civic virtue. Older academic staff from Turkey engages more in OCB than their younger colleagues. However, younger academic staff displayed more counterproductive work behavior. Bankers from Kenya state that guaranteed pay has a positive influence on OCB, which means that people engage more in OCB when they have a guaranty they will be paid. However, variable payment in this African country does not have large influence on OCB in employees (Wagner & Rush, 2000; Asgari et al., 2008; Peziz, 2010; Islam et al., 2014; Alkahtani, 2015; Dirican & Erdil, 2016; Makau et al., 2017).

Engineers from India that perceive OCB as discretionary are less inclined to engage in OCB. They have also responded to perceived injustice with engaging less in OCB. IT professionals from Canada feel that OCB from helping point of view does not appear to be related to HR high-involvement practices, while it was negatively related to turnover intentions, meaning: if they engaged more in OCB-helping behavior they would have less intention to leave the company. Moreover, they feel that affective commitment, staying in the organization due to

emotional attachment, enhances OCB-helping behavior, as they are in a positive relationship. IT professionals also feel that more procedural fairness increases OCB-helping behaviors. Individuals employed in a manufacturing firm in Romania felt that higher the level of leader-member exchange, the exchange between subordinate and supervisor enhances OCB in employees (Kamdar et al., 2006; Paré & Tremblay, 2007, Ozdevecioglu et al., 2015).

Employees who had sleeping problems in the US agree that sleep quantity predicts OCB. The US college students' sleep variation during the work week (those students represented future employees) predicts the daily variance in OCB, which means that less they sleep, less they engage in OCB. Interestingly, job satisfaction mediates the relationship between sleep and OCB. Therefore, employees and students should be satisfied with their job or college in order to have a good sleep quality and engage in OCB. Italian research (white and blue collar workers) suggests that organization should address HRM policies to reduce job insecurity and increase organizational identification in order to stimulate OCB in employees. Middle-level management employees feel that with higher levels of affective commitment, there is more engagement in OCB, which was proved in case of IT professionals from Canada above. The opposite is with turnover intentions, as it is obvious that if an employee wants to leave the company, he or she will engage less in OCB (Barnes et al., 2013; Callea et al., 2016; Iftikhar et al., 2016).

Although many different aspects are described, they have a lot in common. The consequences of the behavior, which is recently viewed as a must in organizations, are presented in the next subchapter.

### **1.3.2 Consequences of organizational citizenship behavior for individuals**

There are two key issues in consequences of OCB: how OCB affects managerial evaluations and how OCB affects organizational performance and success. Furthermore, Podsakoff et al., (2009) identify individual-level consequences and organizational level consequences. First, there are performance evaluations, managers' reward allocation decisions and employee turnover, while the organizational level is presented with objective effectiveness measures, such as productivity, efficiency, costs, and profitability.

Various empirical research indicate that OCB has a positive impact on several important personnel decisions made by managers, and that worker's in-role (formal work assignments) and extra-role (additional, informal, and voluntary work assignments) performance may interact when influencing managerial judgments and decisions (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

OCB at an individual level influences performance evaluations, rewards, employee turnover intentions, absenteeism, and many more. Managers tend to provide higher performance

evaluations and rewards as they recognize OCB in their employee's behavior. OCB serves as a behavioral sign of employee's commitment to the organization's success in general, which is incorporated in manager's performance evaluations (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Even Alkahtani (2015) thinks that if an employee does not complain, this indicates satisfaction and commitment to the organization. Therefore, those who exhibit more OCB, get higher performance evaluations (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Alkahtani's (2015) findings suggest that managers consider civic virtue as an important part of overall employee contribution to the organization because those employees who want to be acknowledged not only for a contractual job, have to attend meetings that are not required, take initiatives, welcome changes, etc. Employees who engaged more in civic virtue scored higher performance evaluations than those employees who did not engage in civic virtue engagements. In the same research, Sportsmanship was proven to impact Current Salary Increment, which represents an increase in basic salary. More tolerant employees are apparently rewarded by salary increment (Alkahtani, 2015). Since performance evaluations are a kind of a basis for organizational rewards, further on the latter are discussed.

The social exchange perspective is important in the aspect of rewards because organization could feel obligated to acknowledge an employee's effort by rewarding him or her in exchange for OCB. It was proven that employees who perceive that they get higher support, care, and value from the organization itself, show and engage in the more positive behavior, which means that they built higher levels of OCB (Alkahtani, 2015; Azim & Dora, 2016). Those employees who performed the agreed job only contractually (without OCB) received fewer rewards and those who do not exhibit OCB received lower rewards than those employees who engaged in OCB (Deluga, 1998; Dulebohn, Shore, Kunze, & Dookeran, 2005). OCB does not have an impact on rewards only in the short term but also on a long term. Even if the employee does not receive any reward for engaging in OCB, he or she can expect a reward in the long-term future. Alkahtani (2015) explains that short-term rewards are not always possible due to various organizational reasons, for example, cash problems due to huge investment into operational processes. The key findings of Alkahtani (2015) are:

- OCB does not negatively affect rewards,
- Employees must show higher levels of OCB in order to receive higher reward,
- Employees should know that rewards are positively affected by OCB and be careful about the behavior,
- The employees should be rewarded according to their performance whether job related or OCB, and
- Merit pay plans should be discouraged because they restrain the display of many citizenship behaviors.

Apart from rewards, employees also appreciate compensation programs (Makau et al., 2017). The advantages employees receive make them feel fulfilled, achieved, and pleased

with the job. Such feelings make them more productive, creative, and satisfied with the job itself, whereas job satisfaction strengthens commitment and loyalty to the organization (Makau et al., 2017). Generally, Podsakoff et al. (2009) found in their research that OCB is negatively related to employee turnover intentions, actual turnover, and absenteeism, as it was proven in many studies before. This means that employees who exhibit more OCB less likely leave the organization or are absent from work than those who exhibit lower levels of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2009).

However, OCB is nowadays expected due to the fierce competitions between organizations. Therefore, OCB became a mandatory job responsibility quite unexpectedly. In the present time, some dimensions of OCB appear in job advertisements regularly – it was found that 61 % of job advertisements included at least one OCB dimension, and the number is increasing every year (Agarwal, 2016). Surprisingly, Agarwal (2016), who critically researched the dimensions of OCB, highlights the importance of employee's predisposition, norms of the organization and contractual requirements for the job. This is an interesting aspect as it shows the extent to which OCB research has come – it is almost incorporated into job requirements, even before one is employed in the organization.

On the positive note, employees are not only more loyal and satisfied with the organization, when they engage in OCB. The customers' loyalty and customers' satisfaction also increases (Chahal & Mehta, 2010; Zhang, 2011). Apart from the happiness of an employee, OCB also enhances organizational effectiveness, which shows in the healthier work environment (Podsakoff et al., 2000). The effects of OCB from organizational and financial perspective are presented in the section below.

### **1.3.3 Consequences of organizational citizenship behavior for organizations**

As much as OCB has an effect on individuals, it also has an effect on organizations, as they are built from many individuals. Encouraging the right employees in the organization to engage in right behaviors, such as OCB, is very important for organizations to manage the turbulent business environment. Specifically, more experienced employees can help those who are at the beginning in order to enhance productivity on an organizational level. Some employees might have suggestions for reducing costs, improving productivity... and OCB can increase team spirit and morale, which presents organization in the more positive light as an employer (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Makau et al., 2017).

Previous literature indicates that OCB results in positive outcomes for the organization. Agarwal (2016) confirmed this in her study where all the dimensions of OCB were in a significant relationship with task performance. If the organization provides an encouraging and motivating environment for its employees, it will have a greater positive impact on both employee and organization, especially in the long run. As mentioned before, the healthy



work environment is important for employees to show OCB. However, the structure of the organization, operational, and administrative processes are also factors, which can influence the tendency to display OCB. With this in mind, it is important to note that effectiveness of the organization depends on the contribution of an employee to the current employer (Agarwal, 2016).

Esmaeili et al. (2014) highlights that for employees at dynamic workplaces, where teamwork is a basic work environment, have to help other team members, volunteer for additional work, and avoid unnecessary conflicts in order to perform efficiently as a team. The cohesiveness in the team reduces the likelihood of employees to leave the team or the company, and OCB is an important factor in this aspect (Podsakoff et al., 2009).

Podsakoff et al. (2009) observed that not only efficiency and customer satisfaction at the organizational level are positive outcomes of OCB. The organization benefits also in terms of reduced costs. They state that productivity, efficiency, and reducing costs exhibit higher levels of relationships with OCB than profitability. However, profitability is not influenced only by OCB but also by external factors (markets, economy...). A more recent study also suggests that profitability is in a significant positive relationship with OCB (Nawaser, Ahmai, Ahmadi, & Dorostkar, 2015). However, Nazari and Farajpur (2015), who also researched among Iranian citizens, stated that it was proven with their research that OCB otherwise influences profitability but only in an indirect way – if OCB of employees leads to higher customer satisfaction and loyalty of the customers, this leads to the profitability of the organization. Chun, Shin, Choi, and Kim (2011) suggest that organizations that are ethical do not notice short-term implications. However, they achieve better financial performance in the long run, as internal ethics affects employees to engage in OCB and that they are more committed to the organization.

On the other hand, paying for performance systems is proven to lower the levels of OCB in employees. This is consistent with the agency and transactional cost economics predictions. The agency costs present the payment to an agent, who acts on behalf of a principal. Transactional cost theory talks about the costs of providing good or service through external market than through organization itself (Deckop, Mangel and Cirka, 1999).

All the research has been done on employees of the organizations that are not non-profit. Tsui-Hsu Tsai and Jing Lin (2014) addressed this fact by conducting a study on employees who work for a non-profit organization. The results indicate that when the members of the non-profit organization are highly satisfied with psychological contract their willingness to exhibit OCB also increases. When members of the non-profit organization engage in a service and put more effort in it, the resources of the organization increase and the management system of the non-profit organization is better off as well. By enhancing the warm and harmonious environment and increase a sense in belonging, the members of the

non-profit organization would exhibit more OCB, which leads to the achievement of their goals and meet their mission (Tsui-Hsu Tsai & Jing Lin, 2014).

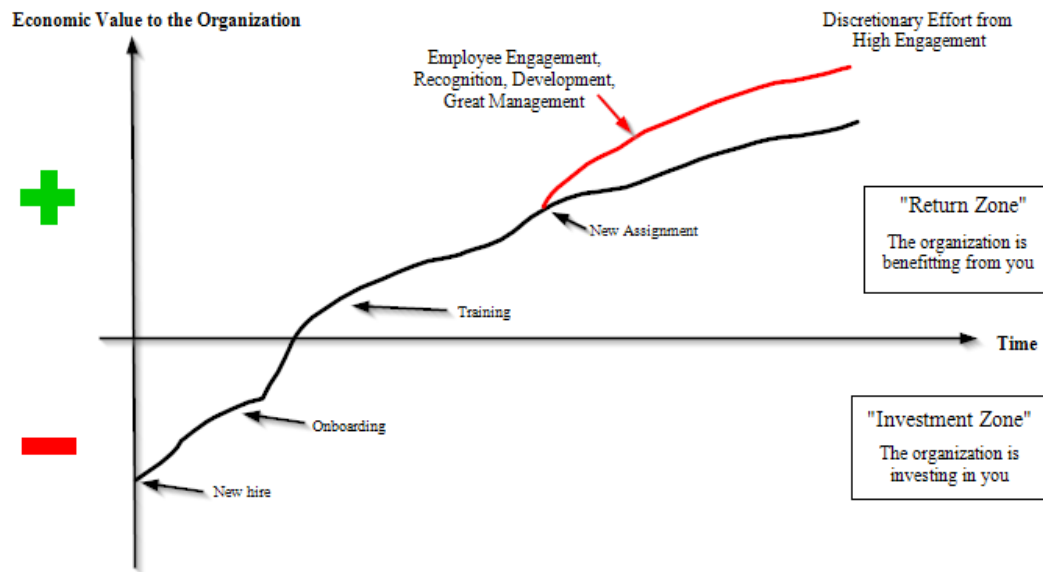
OCB may enhance co-worker and managerial productivity, optimize the resources, serve as an effective mean of coordinating activities between the team members and across the work groups, enhance organization's ability to attract and retain best people, enhance the stability of organizational performance, and enhance organization's ability to adapt to environmental changes. All the stated potential reasons might influence organizational effectiveness, resulting in the healthier work environment (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Therefore, OCB has a positive impact on employee performance and well-being, resulting in lower rates of employee turnover and absenteeism, but increased productivity, efficiency, and customer satisfaction on the organizational level (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Zhang, 2011; Chahal & Mehta, 2010). By promoting and engaging in OCB, organizations are more attractive for future employees and if not else, it affects the profitability of organization at least indirectly (Makau et al., 2017).

#### **1.3.4 Financial consequences of organizational citizenship behavior for organizations**

OCB has a significant impact on productivity and efficiency of the organization. Therefore, it should be considered also in reducing costs through lower levels of absenteeism and turnover (Zhang, 2011). Organizations should invest in workplace policies to improve turnover ratio, and to reduce the turnover costs. Boushey and Glynn (2012) suggest workplace flexibilities to retain valuable employees, which is also researched and discussed in this master's thesis. In the next chapter, both predictive variables of OCB are theoretically presented: workplace flexibility and CSE.

Many studies state that labor share decreases during the boom period and rises during the cycle of recession. Due to the cycles, setting the wages and bonus levels lower is typical at inconvenient times, as it presents largest costs in the company (Hashimoto, 2017). However, maintaining stable workforce is one of the biggest challenges for the organizations and OCB is exhibited amongst employees on the long run, as was already mentioned by Chun et al. (2011). In order to maintain stability in the company in terms of labor, reduction of turnover is applicable. To reduce turnover, flexible workplace policies and additional benefits are helpful, which results in significant cost savings. During the periods of vast organizational changes, companies tend to retain star performers in order to maintain their profitability levels also because of the cost to the value of an employee (Lalitha & Singh, 2014).

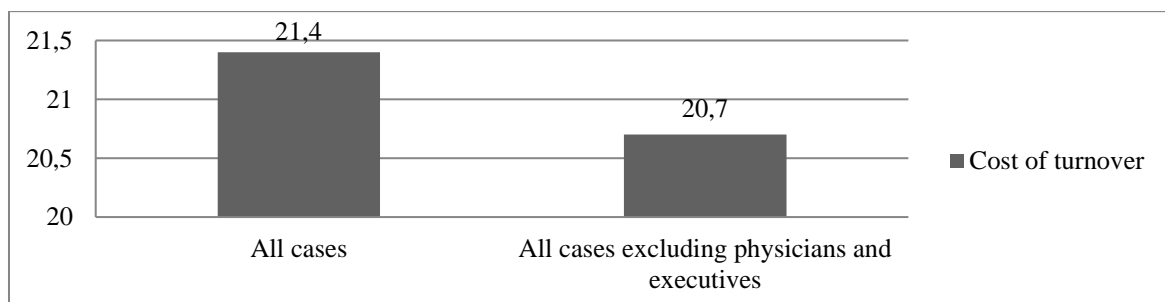
Figure 1. Cost to value of an Employee



Source: C. Lalitha & S. Singh, *Employee retention: A Strategic tool for organization profitability*, 2014, p. 70, figure 1.

The figure above presents that, at first, an employee is an investment, which in later years enters the return zone, where the organization is benefiting. In this part, OCB could also occur if we take into account the effect of OCB in the long run. Moreover, different costs occur when the organization loses an employee, which is valuable for the organization in many aspects. There are costs of hiring a new person, costs of training for the new person, loss of productivity, lost engagement, errors in customer service and negative cultural impacts, to name a few (Lalitha & Singh, 2014). Jobs that are very complicated and require higher levels of education especially reflect in higher turnover costs. The study made by Boushey and Glynn (2012) indicates that cost of turnover is consistent across jobs on the different pay levels, excluding the highest paid jobs.

Figure 2. Percentage of employee's annual salary as typical (median) cost of turnover



Source: H. Boushey & S. J. Glynn, *There Are Significant Business Costs to Replacing Employees*, 2012, p. 2, figure 1.

Typical median cost of turnover of all the cases included in the study (30 cases from 11 researches) presented approximately one-fifth of employee's annual salary to replace that worker. As mentioned above, more specific workplaces tend to have higher costs, as it is also seen from the figure above. They indicated that the costs of turnover in all studies ranged from 5.8 % to 213 %, so they indicated the approximate range of costs for a turnover on average, for earnings of \$75,000 or less, between 10 and 30% (Boushey & Glynn, 2012). This is also applicable to OCB, as it is in a negative relationship with employee turnover (Pare & Tremblay, 2007; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Iftikhar et al., 2016). If employees engage less in OCB, the turnover rates are higher (Chen, Hui, & Sego, 1998). Not only do turnover rates increase, absenteeism does as well. Dash and Pradhan (2014) indicated that a positive consequence of OCB is low absenteeism. To sum up, low OCB affects organizational costs indirectly through high turnover ratio and high absenteeism rate. These consequences eventually lead to the lower profitability levels if not managed correctly.

As mentioned above, economic cycles also affect labor markets, as in the peak of the latest recession in 2009, layoffs increased, and workers did not voluntarily leave a job during this period. At brighter times, such as recession, high quit rates are often due to workplace policies. These jobs are paying low wages and have little or no workplace benefits, or do not have policies that address a worker's conflict between work and family (Boushey & Glynn, 2012). In the previous chapter, rewards (as benefits) are presented as something positive for the organization, which influences profitability and performance of the organization. It is not surprising that jobs mentioned have higher turnover rate because the environment does not provide any initiatives for individuals to engage more in OCB.

## **2 PREDICTORS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR**

Workplace flexibility and core self-evaluations are selected as predictors of OCB in this master's thesis. Firstly, this chapter presents the review of previous literature on workplace flexibility. Secondly, core self-evaluations literature is presented accordingly.

### **2.1 Workplace flexibility**

Workplace flexibility arose from the need to adapt to changes in societal norms and generational diversity. However, today workplace flexibility is very common in the organizations with various workplace attitudes and preferences. Workplace flexibility itself became a very popular term in studies because it is recognized as a necessity in today's workplaces and has been positively correlated with organizational outcomes, for example, employee retention (Hill, Grzywacz, Allen, Blanchard, Matz-Costa, Shulkin, & Pitt-Catsoupes, 2008; Richman, Civian, Shannon, Jeffrey Hill, & Brennan, 2008). Due to global trends, it is suggested that workplace flexibility implementation is critical for organizational effectiveness in order to support work-life demands. By effective implementation, it is meant

that workers believe their work-life needs are supported by workplace flexibility practices and organizational goals are served through these practices (Kossek & Thompson, 2015). However, HR professionals face a challenge in the implementation of flexibility policies, as it is perceived as an employee benefit, rather than management tool to enhance productivity. So it is important to address both an employee's and firm's needs for flexibility (Kossek, Hammer, Thompson, & Burke, 2014). Furthermore, workplace flexibility attracts, motivates, and retains key talent, which is important for organizations if they want to be successful (Hill, Hawkins, Martinson, & Ferris, 2003). Hill et al. (2008) presented concept and definition of workplace flexibility. Firstly, conceptualization will be presented. They build up two conceptualizations: organizational perspective and worker perspective.

**Organizational perspective** emphasizes the flexibility on the organization rather than workers. Dastmalchian and Blyton (2001) describe organizational perspective as a degree to which organizational features incorporate a level of flexibility, allowing them to adapt to changes in the environment. Examples are just in time production systems, dynamical adjustment of the workforce, adopting alternative work organization practices, etc. (Beyers & Lindahl, 1999; Huang & Cullen, 2001; Gittleman, Horrigan, & Joyce, 1998). Those strategies help organizations to respond to changes in the market while controlling the costs of production. However, workplace flexibility is presented as an attribute because it has implications for workers that is beneficial individually and in the community.

The second concept Hill et al. (2008) presents is **worker perspective**, emphasizing individual in the context of organizational culture and structure. Worker perspective implicitly or explicitly conceptualizes workplace flexibility as the degree to which employees are able to make choices to satisfy their personal life needs, particularly regarding where, when, and for how long they will work. The important assumption is that people are viewed as human resources – with personal lives when not working. By promoting workplace flexibility, employees become more motivated, loyal, and engaged. It is proven that workers can better meet all their personal needs if the organization facilitates flexibility (Hill et al., 2008; Hayman, 2009).

**“Workplace Flexibility:** the ability of workers to make choices influencing when, where, and for how long they engage in work-related tasks.” (Hill et al., 2008, p.152). The ability of workers to make decisions on their own is the central feature of the definition. Moreover, workplace flexibility is like a continuum (rather than as a dichotomy) because some constraints are related to the nature of the job, needs of business and availability of technology. It is also multi-faced concept – one has to decide where work is performed, duration of work-related tasks, and options for career flexibility (entry and departure from paid work) (Hill et al., 2008).

Kossek et al. (2014, p. 2) introduce quite a similar definition of workplace flexibility: “Workplace flexibility is a mutually beneficial arrangement between employees and employers in which both parties agree on **when**, **where**, and **how** the employee will work to meet the organization’s needs. Flexibility can be formal and officially approved through HR policies, or informal and available on a discretionary basis.” They also provided some examples of workplace flexibility: policies and practices governing the time, alternative work arrangement, changes to job design and job autonomy, informal practices, mobile work and using technology to communicate and work out the organization’s premises. However, some employees and employers have mixed experience with workplace flexibility practices. There are also some research reviews that point to the mixed effects of these initiatives. Nevertheless, experts predict that it is likely to become a competitive business advantage (Kossek et al., 2014; Kossek & Thompson, 2015).

Flexibility itself has been linked to positive employee outcomes, giving the impact on rates of absenteeism and overall health care costs. Those outcomes are decreased stress and improved health and well-being. However, employees also showed increased commitment and engagement due to flexibility policies resulting in performance-outcomes that benefit and help organizations (Kossek & Michel, 2011).

Behind the workplace flexibility, there are factors that affect the size of variability in the flexibility. Types of flexibility factors are telework, flextime, part-time or various leaves. Source and nature of support factors present formal organizational policy, informal supervisor support, and how the work itself is designed (job characteristics). Outcomes and studied factors are the results of conducting workplace flexibility in the company, such as work-family conflict, burnout, or intention to turnover. Last but not least, the “for whom” factor presents the effect to whom workplace flexibility has (employee, employer, manager, or family) (Kossek & Michael, 2011; Kossek & Thompson, 2015).

Furthermore, there are four primary types of workplace flexibility, introduced by Kossek et al. (2011): flexibility in scheduling, flexibility in place/location, flexibility in the amount of work/workload and hours, and flexibility in leave periods and career continuity. Later, Kossek and Thompson (2015) created an overview of the types of flexibility, which can be seen in Table 1. They describe the three types of flexibility: in scheduling, in place/location, and an amount of work/workload and hours. They explain that they used only three types out of four, as the managers are the most involved in their implementation.

Table 2. Overview of types of workplace flexibility

Types of flexibility	Examples	Advantages		Challenges	
		Employee	Employer	Employee	Employer
<b>Scheduling</b>	Flextime	Errands during work possible; higher control perceptions	Less overtime; reduced absenteeism	Difficult to meet non-work demands	Different schedules, additional costs, client's needs
	Flex shift work/workday schedules	Errands during work possible	Expanded availability for client; increased hours of productivity	Fatigue; metabolic and cardiovascular disorders; work-family conflict	Accidents and injuries; difficult to coordinate shifts
	Self-scheduled breaks	Increased schedule control	Productivity improvements	Difficult to schedule breaks during peak times/demands	Overlapped schedule demands
	Part of the year/seasonal	Can work less during slower times of the year	Increased pool of candidate for selection	Reduced compensation	Increased paperwork due to hiring
	Weekend/evening/night work	Better management of non-work activities; ability to perform a second job	Better ability to cover 24/7 demands; increased pool of candidate for selection	Difficult to find dependent care during non-work hours	Managers unavailable (work in traditional work hours)

table continues

continued

Types of flexibility	Examples	Advantages		Challenges	
		Employee	Employer	Employee	Employer
<b>Place/ Location</b>	Telework; home based	Living farther from central work site; reduced commuting; comfortable clothing and atmosphere	Reduced overhead costs; improved retention rate for remote employees	Difficult to communicate; no flexibility in time; pressure being available during standard work hours (visibility/facet time)	Difficult to communicate; not all work can be taken off-site; technology and equipment
	Remote work	Can live far away	Increased pool for selection; greater accessibility for client demands	Challenge to communicate	Difficult to communicate; technology and equipment
	Hoteling (partial teleworkers share desks instead of using a reserved desk space)	Real-estate cost savings	Reduced costs from shared office space	Isolation from co-workers	Challenge in aligning team spirit among employees
<b>Amount of work/ workload and hours</b>	Job sharing	Reduced role overload; reduced conflict between work and non-work demands	Higher retention; turnover costs reduced	Unclear organizational roles; dependency of employees	Increased labor expenses

table continues



continued

Types of flexibility	Examples	Advantages		Challenges	
		Employee	Employer	Employee	Employer
	Reduced load or customized work/part-time work	Reduced conflict between work and non-work demands	Higher retention; turnover costs reduced	Reduced compensation; feel pressure to perform full-time workload in reduced load arrangements	More employees to manage; increased labor expenses

Source: E. E. Kossek & R. J. Thompson, *Workplace Flexibility: Integrating Employer and Employee Perspectives to Close the Research-Practice Implementation Gap*, 2015, p. 4

**Scheduling or the flexibility** in time allows employees to decide how they will allocate total weekly working hours. In the table, there are the examples, such as flextime, compressed workweeks, flexible shifts and per-year/seasonal work. The next is the **flexibility in location (Place/Location)**, an option for employees to choose where to work. They can work away from the office, and they are supported by electronic devices. Flexplace includes telework, remote work, and hoteling. Last but not least, **flexibility in the amount of work and hours** is described. This flexibility offers employees to decide how much of work they want to conduct; they can modify their workload or hours in order to meet non-work obligations. It includes policies such as part-time work or reduced-load work, and job-sharing (Kossek & Thompson, 2015).

How can workplace flexibility be beneficial? Kossek et al. (2014) state that flexible work options can be successful, only if organizations show employees that flexibility is a mutually beneficial business process. Moreover, they introduce the benefits of workplace flexibility for an organization and an employee. One of the benefits of an organization is job satisfaction, which is quite an obvious benefit. If one can decide when, where, and how he works, it would lead to higher satisfaction, as the person balances work and life by deciding how he or she will work (Kossek & Michel, 2011). Another benefit is expanding availability to clients by working non-traditional hours. Flexibility initiatives are proven to be a significant predictor of applicant attraction and talent retention. Both are also a benefit of workplace flexibility. Positive social exchange relationship happens when employees feel more engaged at work and it represents employee loyalty, engagement, and improved performance, which are the benefits of workplace flexibility. Flexibility reduces negative outcomes, saves cost, and increases service availability. It also increases the ability to meet the demand of globalization, which is also a very important beneficial aspect (Kossek et al., 2014).

For example, one of the first corporations was IBM, which oversaw the benefits of flexible work arrangements already in 1986. They conducted a survey named Work and Life Issues, where employees expressed what kind of work-life balance conflicts they were experiencing and how they could be addressed (Hill et al., 2008). Hayman (2009) assessed the relationship between usability of flexible work schedules and work-life balance. The results from New Zealand office-based workers suggest that employees who feel that they can utilize their flexible work schedule freely, and reduce interference between personal life and work. Managers also experienced less time-based and strain-based work-family conflict when using flexible work arrangements (Masuda, Poelmans, Allen, Spector, Lapierre, Cooper, & Lu, 2012). Lee, Magnini, and Kim (2011) did an interesting research on hotel workers, resulting in a negative relationship between schedule flexibility and employee turnover.

With workplace flexibility, employees can improve work/life fit, whose positive outcomes are improved well-being, better health, increased job satisfaction, lower stress, reduced turnover intentions, reduced absenteeism, and many more (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering and Semmer, 2011; Kossek & Michel, 2011). Furthermore, Hill et al. (2008) found a negative relationship between flexible work arrangements, and stress and burnout. Stress is reduced already when an employee feels that workplace flexibility itself is available. Kelliher and Anderson (2010) researched the relationship between flexible work arrangements and perceptions of job quality, and they found out that those employees who used workplace flexibility experienced higher job satisfaction. Last but not least, an employee does not lose her or his time on commuting, which can be concentrated to the work or non-work activities (Kossek et al., 2014).

Stavrou (2005) explored the categorization of flexible work arrangements into bundles and their relationship to organizational competitiveness (performance, turnover, and absenteeism) in the European Union. Furthermore, the research had four moderators: organization sector, industry sector, organization size, and organizational women-supportiveness. The results support the use of the flexible workplace arrangements bundles and the positive effect on organizational competitiveness. Four bundles were identified by Stavrou (2005):

- Non-Standard Work Patterns (for example private sector in the European Union is quite standardized and does not offer a lot of job flexibility to the employees. Therefore, some non-standard activities are recommended);
- Work Away from the Office (such arrangements should be promoted by management since they give space to employees to work when they are most productive, not taking into the account time, day and location. It represents teleworking or home-based work);
- Non-Standard Work Hours (weekend work, shift work, and over time – the aspects are not significantly related to organizational competitiveness. Quite the opposite, if the

bundle is not offered on voluntary basis, they are like strains on individuals in organizations, consequently also on employers);

- Work Outsourced (temporary employment and subcontracting; not significantly related to organizational competitiveness).

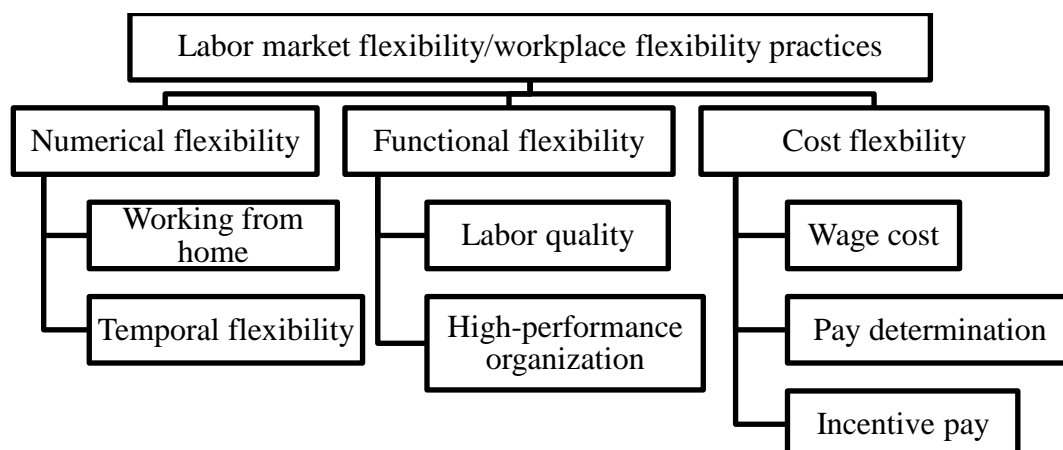
Establishing policies, which would create needed commitment, through managers who favor flexible work arrangements would make workplace flexibility more institutionalized, affecting social security and pensions. More broadly, it would help organizations and even nations to look forward and for Europe to achieve competitiveness. Anyhow, it has to be noted that not all the bundles have a positive or any effect at all on organizational and national competitiveness.

Even more important, it is to achieve the best implementation of workplace flexibility possible. For it to be successfully implemented, it is important to clearly define roles between employees, managers, leadership, and also HR professionals. For managers, it is important to undertake family-supportive supervisory behaviors, evaluate performance, communicate the strategies to the worker, and provide all the necessary means of technology support (Kossek et al., 2014). Kossek et al. (2014) explain that organizations offering workplace flexibility are presented as an employer of choice in the recruitment market. By obtaining this title, organizations can hire talented and effective full-time employees.

Lee and DeVoe (2012) researched the relationship between flextime and profitability. They used data based on employees from Canada. Implementation of flextime was negatively related to a strategy that has cost reduction as the primary goal but has a positive effect on profitability when it is aligned with employee-centered strategy. Furthermore, implementing flextime is more fruitful if it is a strategic choice from organization's perspective. Flextime with employee-centered strategy increases costs and revenues – the latter even more than costs, meaning flextime is costly to build up but has positive outcomes on revenues, through productivity, reduction in absenteeism, and turnover.

Whyman and Petrescu (2014) addressed the relationship between workforce nationality composition and workplace flexibility practices in Britain. Their purpose was to present potential benefits at microeconomic and macroeconomic levels. They used the disaggregated model of workplace flexibility, which proposes an empirical analysis of workplace flexibility and its nature (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Theoretical view of labor market flexibility/workplace flexibility practices

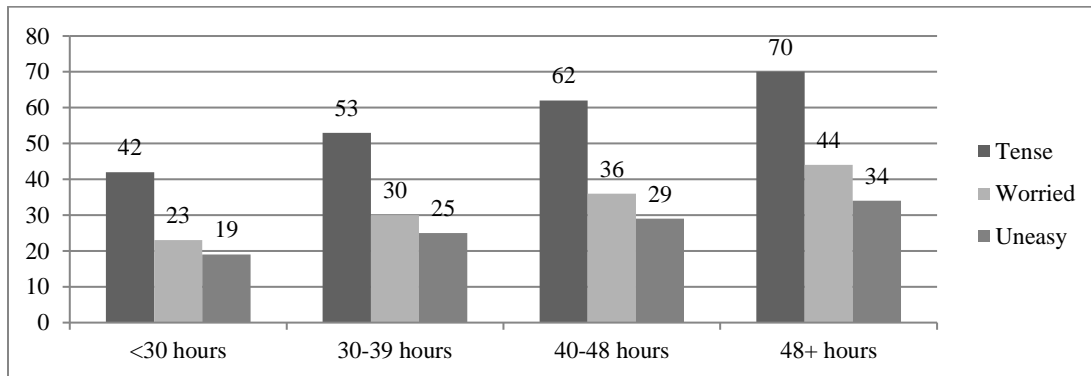


Source: P. B. Whyman & A. I. Petrescu, *Workforce nationality composition and workplace flexibility in Britain*, 2014, p. 781, Figure 1.

The concept is divided into numerical flexibility, functional flexibility, and cost flexibility, focusing on many workplace flexibility practices, as other researchers focus only on one or a few. In the research, Whyman and Petrescu (2014) used The Workplace Employment Relations Study which was conducted in 2011 in Britain by Wanrooy, Bewley, Bryson, Forth, Freeth, Stokes and Wood. The study was conducted in around 2,500 British workplaces, which have at least 5 employees. The data was collected during the economic recession in 2011, mainly on employees active in industry sectors. Whyman and Petrescu (2014) did an econometric model, holding constant the industrial disaggregation, regional disaggregation, and the economic cycle. The results suggest that there is a significant relationship between the number of workers and workplace flexibility practices – those companies that have an option of working from home are likely to have a higher level of employees.

The Workplace Employment Relations Study report has the parts – the first is about the recession, the second is about employment relationship and the third about working lives. In the last part, they present pay dispersion and satisfaction, the effect of long working hours, work-life balance, equality and diversity, trends in training, health and safety, and job satisfaction and well-being. This is the part, which is relevant to this master's thesis. It is interesting that when employees were asked about the statement “People in this workplace who want to progress usually have to put in long hours” they responded with strongly agreed or agreed in most cases. Professionals and managers more likely thought that long hours are required for progress than other employees. Full-time employees who strongly agreed about long hours and required progress worked 42 hours per week on average (those who strongly disagree worked 38 hours per week on average) (Wanrooy et al., 2011).

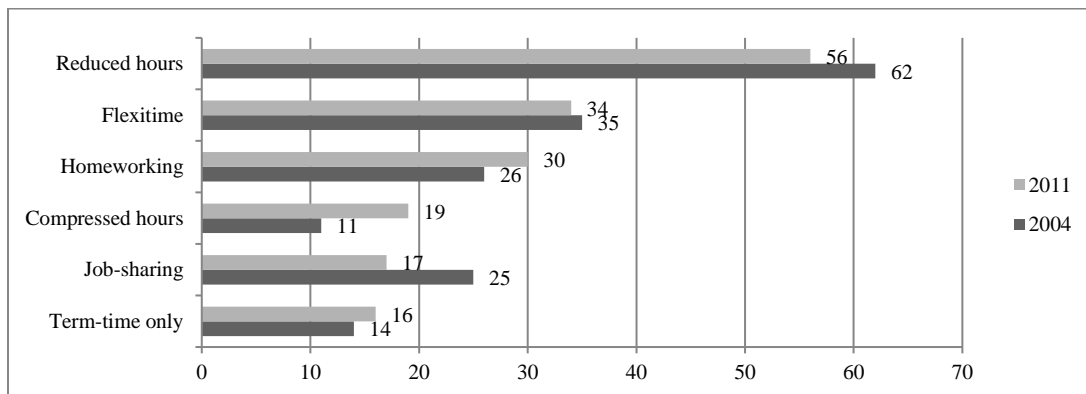
Figure 4. Employees feeling tense, worried, uneasy ‘all’, ‘most’ or ‘some’ of the time by usual weekly working hours (in %)



Source: B. van Wanrooy, H. Bewley, J. Forth, S. Freeth, L. Stokes & S. Wood, *The 2011 Workplace Employment Relations Study: First Findings*, 2011, p. 31, figure 3.

Most employees (70%) who worked more than 48 hours per week said their job made them tense. To focus on work-life balance, reduced hours, and flextime were the most used forms of flexible working. Those who carried responsibilities (their children or careers of a friend or family), used flexible working arrangements more than those without any responsibilities. However, they reported higher levels of work-life conflict nonetheless (Wanrooy et al., 2011).

Figure 5. Availability of flexible work arrangements to some employees (in %)



Source: B. van Wanrooy, H. Bewley, J. Forth, S. Freeth, L. Stokes & S. Wood, *The 2011 Workplace Employment Relations Study: First Findings*, 2011, p. 32, figure 1.

We can see that job sharing and reduced hours decreased as of 2004. The majority (84%) had the option for flexibility available to all the employees. 10% of organizations gave an option of flexibility only to those employees who had a statutory right and 6% of organizations offer flexibility only to a selected group of employees. Constraints on providing flexible working arrangements were also identified. An incompatibility with the nature of work was most commonly mentioned as a constraint. The other one is costs of

providing flexible working arrangements. However, less than half workplaces identified that there are no constraints at all. Small private owned organizations from Britain reported no constraints more likely than larger private or public organizations (Wanrooy et al., 2011).

Table 3. Use of flexible working among careers and other employees (in %)

	<b>Careers</b>	<b>Others</b>	<b>All</b>
Flextime	33.00	27.00	30.00
Working from home	20.00	15.00	17.00
Paid time off – emergency	18.00	6.00	12.00
Reduced hours	12.00	7.00	9.00
Compressed hours	9.00	8.00	9.00
School term time working	9.00	5.00	7.00
Job share	5.00	4.00	5.00

Source: B. van Wanrooy, H. Bewley, J. Forth, S. Freeth, L. Stokes & S. Wood, *The 2011 Workplace Employment Relations Study: First Findings*, p. 33, table 1.

Above, we can see that respondents used mostly flextime, instead of working from home, paid time off in case of emergency, compressed hours. School term time working and job share are on the last three places. How do British managers actually perceive work-life balance? The results suggest managers feel that an individual is responsible to balance work and family (Wanrooy et al., 2011).

## 2.2 Core self-evaluation

Core self-evaluation (hereinafter: CSE) is defined as person's subconscious, fundamental appraisal of their confidence level and the ability for coping and thriving across various situations, which impact how they interact with their environment (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). CSE is an appraisal of one's self-worth (Judge, 2009). It is considered a combinatory construct and as a latent (aggregate) variable because the four dimensions are inter-correlated, meaning: CSE exists as a single construct in individuals' fundamental views of themselves (Bossen, 2016; Fendos, 2016; Jiang, Wang, Jing, Wallace, Jang, & Kim, 2017). CSE reflects beliefs in one's capabilities (to control one's life) and one's competence (to perform, cope, persevere, and succeed) and a general sense that life will turn out well (Judge, 2009). It is composed of four evaluation-oriented traits: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, the locus of control, and emotional stability.

**Self-esteem** is the overall perception and value one has about himself or herself, resulting in the most fundamental trait of CSE (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003).

**Generalized self-efficacy** is a subcomponent of self-esteem. On higher levels, it shows as a stable influence when potential threats are present. This means that a person with high-level self-efficacy experiences low levels of frustration and greater satisfaction and success at work because he or she can perform and cope successfully within an extensive range of situations (Johnson, Rosen, & Levy, 2008; Fendos, 2016).

The third trait is the **locus of control**, which presents the belief that someone can impact the environment and produce the desired outcomes. There is the external and internal locus of control. External locus of control feels like somebody is helpless and useless. On the other hand, internal locus of control means a belief that one's environment and outcomes are controllable (Johnson et al., 2008).

Last but not least, **emotional stability** reflects a propensity to feel calm and secure. It is shown in fewer reactions to everyday problems that occur in non-work and workplaces. Emotional stability also refers to something converse or neuroticism (Johnson et al., 2008). It is important to mention that Judge et al. (1997) formulated the concept by aggregating all traits, which led them to be self-evaluative, fundamental, and wide in scope.

Individuals with positive or high CSE perceive themselves as capable, worthy, and competent, dealing with issues in non-work and work situations. On the other hand, individuals with negative or lower CSE see themselves as not worthy and capable, resulting in lower psychological well-being and life satisfaction (Jiang et al., 2017). Consequently, individual's satisfaction with their perceived value in the organization and compliance with objectives directly affect motivation, engagement, and involvement (Judge et al., 2003).

The concept of CSE is related to important work criteria. CSE was already linked positively to the job and life satisfaction (Judge et al., 1998; Judge, Bono, & Locke, 2000; Judge, 2009), job performance (Judge & Bono, 2001), and organizational commitment (Joo, Yoon, & Jeung, 2012). CSE has a strong relationship with goal setting motivation (Erez & Judge, 2001). Those with high CSE experienced less stress and strains after managing stressors effectively. They avoided problems less (Judge et al., 1997; Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge, & Scott, 2009). Judge, Locke, Durham and Kluger (1998) researched the perception of job characteristics and CSE. Self-esteem and self-efficacy contributed the most to the CSE concept. Individuals who have positive CSE cope with their life changes in a positive matter, while those with lower CSE deal with life changes in a negative frame. The direct effect of CSE on the perception of job characteristics reflects in the employees who have positive self-concepts, as they see their jobs and lives more positively, as they possess the dispositional makeup that allows them to do so. This especially affects job satisfaction. On

the other hand, CSE indirectly affects actual perceptions of work attributes (how one appraises job – autonomy, task significance). Individuals with a higher level of CSE feel happier in the workplace, as they are more in control. However, they see more variety, challenge, and intrinsic worth in their work (Judge et al., 1998). CSE also affects income – it is positively related (Judge, 2009) – and job turnover, which is negatively related to CSE (Joo et al., 2012). Moreover, CSE was also presented as an instrument to evaluate personal traits of students that decide about their early career decisions. Furthermore, it also predicts the motivation of the students and eventual success in their later career (Judge & Hurst, 2007).

However, is it possible to have too high CSE? Some researchers argue that positive self-views may be harmful if they are in their extremes. No matter what, too high CSE is not desirable in workplaces (Judge, 2009). Research shows that high levels of CSE may be related to suboptimal decision making, causing individuals to ignore negative information, take unwanted risks, or overestimate their abilities (Hiller & Hambrick, 2005). On the other hand, individuals scoring high in CSE are more effective when difficult events occur and they face unsupportive work environment in a better way than individuals who have low levels of CSE (Haines, Harvey, Durand, & Marchand, 2013). Moreover, high-level CSE individuals more likely interacted with others positively. They have great social skills and are friendlier. This contributes to greater relationship success and satisfaction, which influences the organization also (Judge, 2009).

### **3 RESEARCH**

#### **3.1 Study purpose**

The main part of this master's thesis is the research based on questionnaires. Therefore, purpose, research question, and bases for the hypotheses are discussed in this chapter.

**The purpose** of this thesis is to understand two kinds of relationships. Firstly, understanding of the relationship between workplace flexibility and OCB is the first purpose of my master's thesis. Secondly, the relationship between CSE and OCB is a part of the purpose of my master's thesis.

By overlooking the literature available on workplace flexibility, OCB, and CSE, I found it interesting, how all three variables are linked to the same variables as described in the theoretical part, such as job satisfaction, job attitude, etc. However, the relationship between them has not been largely researched up until this date.

Additionally, I also find the gender differences in the perception of OCB interesting. In general, it is proven that women are more OCB oriented than men (Farrel & Finkelstein,



2007). Keplinger, Kowal, and Mäkiö (2016) stated that OCBI is more feminine, and OCBO more masculine. However, there is no known research to me that would seek explicitly for differences in genders regarding directed behaviors of OCB.

Overall, my study will focus mainly on relationships, which brings us to the **research question of my thesis**: how do workplace flexibility and core self-evaluation influence organizational citizenship behavior?

Furthermore, in order to research in depth relationships between variables and OCB, the latter variable will be classified to OCBI and OCBO. By classifying OCB, I expect to get a deeper understanding of the concept itself and understand detailed relationships participants will have towards OCB.

In literature overview, I did not come across such a study that would directly address the relationship, although many studies have been conducted with other variables, which are influenced by OCB and workplace flexibility in the same way – they have a positive or negative relationship. I think it would be interesting to find out how this relationship is perceived in the eyes of former students of the IMB program, including how their CSE affect OCB. With this knowledge, employers could understand what to expect when recruiting and it would give them a clear insight into the way former students of the IMB think. Therefore, the **objective of the thesis** is to determine the relationships between workplace flexibility and OCB, and CSE and OCB, perceived by former students of the IMB program.

### 3.2 Hypotheses

Hypotheses were built on the research of previous literature. OCB is represented as a positive behavior in the literature. In the early days, MacKenzie et al. (1993) stated that employers should not base evaluations only on sales productivity and performance. The results of further research showed that most managers include performance appraisals, meaning that on the individual level those who exhibit more OCB receive a higher performance appraisal. Moreover, if they were engaged in more OCB, they received more reward allocations than those who were not (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Newland, 2012).

Podsakoff et al. (2009) found that OCBI is related to performance appraisal ratings and reward distribution allocations. OCBO was found to be related to employee efficiency, organizational turnover, and productivity among employees. Newland (2012) proposed that individuals who engage in OCB due to prosocial values motive would more likely to engage in OCBI than individuals motivated by organizational concern, as Rioux and Penner (2001) found this to be true. However, the hypothesis of Newland (2012) was not supported by her research. Furthermore, she stated that participants in her study were more likely to help organization rather than other employees. To clarify, OCBO is organizational directed OCB

and OCBI individual directed OCB. By research, it is proven that individuals who got more promotions engaged in OCBO more frequently. This leads us to the fact that people engage more in OCBO in order to get more performance appraisal (Allen, 2006). I shaped this reflection in the first hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 1: Employees are more OCBO oriented than OCBI.**

Women are judged to be those individuals who exhibit more OCB in work (Farrell & Finkelstein, 2007; Keplinger et al., 2016). Intuitively, many prospects of OCBs seem to mirror common female gender roles, such as helping, consideration, and loyalty (Cameron & Nadler, 2013). Researchers often mention that OCBs performed by women go unappreciated because it is expected from the gender while, on the other hand, males are more appreciated when conducting OCBs. This means that females are more likely to perform OCB. Males, however, are more likely to benefit from performing it (Allen & Rush, 2001; Heilman & Chen, 2005; Allen, 2006; Cameron & Nadler, 2013).

It was studied that males and females tend to be rewarded differently, although they received similar performance appraisals and had the same career path. This could also result in a difference of OCB due to perceived contribution. OCB is not perceived as task-related behavior, as it is not exactly prescribed by the organization. Because of the nature of OCB, the stereotype about gender-roles may occur. The stereotypes indicate that women are assumed to be friendlier, unselfish, and have a great concern for others, which could be also shown in OCB. There are also a few studies, which prove that females are perceived to engage more in altruistic behavior (Lovell, Kahn, Anton, Davidson, Dowling, Post, & Mason, 1999; Allen & Rush, 2001; Allen, 2006). As I mentioned before, OCB can be categorized as feminine or masculine, and Allen (2006) and Keplinger et al. (2016) detected OCBI as feminine OCB and OCBO as more masculine.

Moreover, Johnson, Holladay, and Quinones (2009) did an interesting research – how employees react to performance appraisals and if there are any differences between genders. They found out that performance appraisal would be fairer when using OCB, and females would perceive OCB as important and fairer in performance evaluations. Farrell and Finkelstein (2007) conducted a study. Hypothesizing females would be more OCB-helping oriented, while males would be more OCB-civic virtue-oriented. Their results suggest that participants conducted selected behaviors under specific conditions, although previous research supported that statement (Heilman & Chen, 2005). Kidder and Parks (2001) discussed typical gender roles and its connection to OCB dimensions. They stated that job roles create expectations for particular behaviors in order to achieve the objectives of one's job. If an employee is expected to perform the OCBs related to his or her gender role, females would get more credit if they enhanced image or rewards, and vice versa, males would get more credit in performing feminine OCBs. This situation arises because the behavior of male

or female went beyond stereotypical expectations. To sum up, on the basis of previous research, I developed the second hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 2: Females demonstrate more OCBI than males.**

It is expected from organizations to give compensation to employees for the work they have done. This might occur in a sense of fixed or variable compensations. By fixed compensations salary is meant, whereas variable compensation presents different bonuses, simulations, and other compensation possibilities. In the theoretical part, previous research on rewards and OCB are presented. Furthermore, previous research states that those employees who received fewer rewards from organizations engaged less in OCB. The effect of OCB is not seen in a short-term. However, an organization achieves better performance, and an employee gets noticed after some period of time engaging in OCB. This is supported by the previous literature and the aspect is quite straightforward – there is a significant relationship between rewards and OCB. In this master's thesis, I would like to research the connection between yearly income before taxes and OCB. Therefore, my third hypothesis is the following:

**Hypothesis 3: Yearly income correlates positively with OCB.**

In recent years, workplace flexibility became more and more important in organizations. It was especially promoted by various foundations in western countries (Yadav et al., 2016). It affects the individual, work, family, and organizational outcomes (Jacob, Bond, Galinsky, & Hill, 2008). Up until recently, no study has examined workplace flexibility and OCB, although flexibility has been proven to have positive relations with the same variables as OCB. Furthermore, workplace benefits are seen as appreciation for employees to go that extra mile in the workplace (Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Yadav et al., 2016). The most recent study of Yadav et al. (2016) searched for the connection between workplace flexibility and OCB through a model. They focused on the understanding role of workplace flexibility in promoting OCB, which led them to six flexibility dimensions which promote OCB at the workplace: time, salary and benefits, place of work, learning, performance appraisal, and career planning flexibility. They believe that if an organization creates and implements stated flexibilities, it would cause OCB in employees. Based on the description provided, I state my hypotheses:

**Hypothesis 4a: The use of flexible work arrangements is positively related to OCBI.**

**Hypothesis 4b: The use of flexible work arrangements is positively related to OCBO.**

As it was mentioned before, individuals with high levels of CSE perform better in their workplace, are generally more successful in their career paths, have a higher job and life satisfaction, better cope with stress, and have better capitalization on advantages and

opportunities (Judge, 2009). CSE has been related to various constructs, although there have been not many studies conducted up until recently, which explored the relationship between CSE and OCB (Joo & Jo, 2017). Bowling, Wang, & Li (2012) stated that positive CSE affects individual's general level of initiative and beliefs about his or her own competence. Higher levels of initiative and higher self-confidence result in higher job and life satisfaction, lead to more likely engagement in OCB. Research shows that high CSE scores are positively related to OCB (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000; Judge, Erez, & Bono, 2002; Bowling, Wang, Li, & Kennedy, 2010; Ferris, Rosen, Johnson, Brown, Risavy, & Heller, 2011; Bowling et al., 2012). Bowling et al. (2012) found that CSE yielded stronger unique relationships with OCBs than did job satisfaction. Most recent study of Joo and Jo (2017) identified a positive relationship between CSE and OCB, which means that employees with higher CSE (possessing a higher level of self-regard: self-esteem, self-efficacy, internal locus of control, and emotional stability) tend to demonstrate positive extra-role behaviors or OCB. Therefore, my two last but not least hypotheses are developed in this specific way:

**Hypothesis 5a: CSE is positively related to OCBI.**

**Hypothesis 5b: CSE is positively related to OCBO.**

In next section, the selected methodology will be explained in detail. Measures and data collection process will be described accordingly.

## **4 METHODOLOGY**

The methodology chapter consists of sample description, data collection, and questionnaire development. After setting the research question and the purpose of my master's thesis research, I built on my methodology. I have conducted an online questionnaire, surveying only former students of the International Fulltime Master's Programme in Management and Organization (hereinafter: IMB) at the Faculty of Economics, the University of Ljubljana.

### **4.1 Sample**

Former students of the IMB were my selection criteria for the sample. The IMB is a master's program at the Faculty of Economics, the University of Ljubljana. The IMB is a program, which accepts students with or without working experiences from various countries from all over the world. Accepting students with or without working experience is their advantage, as students can learn on high level and get appropriate theoretical and practical knowledge even if they do not have much work experiences. The program enables students to gain unique preparation for the business world, through international field experts from various industries and academic backgrounds. It bases on group dynamics in order to maximize the studying experience and gain vast social capital.

Graduates stay connected through Alumni MBA Radovljica association. Based on data of Alumni MBA Radovljica association, there were 774 students in generations from 1 to 24, while in the new, the 25<sup>th</sup> generation, there are 37 students that are studying within the program in the study year 2017/2018. Former students are known as successful in business by occupying top positions in both international and domestic companies or even establishing their own entrepreneurial companies. The IMB lasts for 2 years, and 90% of the students get a job within 3 months after finishing exams or graduating. Students have executive help as IMB-exclusive job posts are available to students due to a good reputation in Slovenia and abroad. Many students decide to work abroad. Some of them are a part of worldwide known companies as Adidas, Henkel, L'Oreal, Danfoss, big four accounting firms (EY, Deloitte, PWC, and KPMG), and many more. I have to mention that every generation studies in international environment – all courses are in the English language, the same with the exams. Furthermore, the class consists of one third of Slovenian students from the Faculty of Economics, the University of Ljubljana, one third are Slovenian students from the other faculties across Slovenia, and the last third are the students from foreign countries (students in prior generations were from almost all the continents – Europe, Asia, South and North America, and Africa) (Faculty of Economics, University of Ljubljana).

As mentioned above, they are employed after finishing their studies. Therefore, they can identify their OCB, CSE, and have a developed perception of workplace flexibility they want.

## **4.2 Data collection**

As I mentioned before, I collected my data through online survey platform 1ka. I decided to collect data online, as it is more convenient for the participants to take time and solve the survey. By publishing survey online, we avoid too high costs of materials we would have to print. Furthermore, an advantage is also in the analysis of the collected data – in an online survey platform one can export all the data: if data are entered manually into SPSS, human error might occur.

I was a part of the master's program, as I was a student of the 23<sup>rd</sup> generation of the IMB. I started collecting data by posting a link to a Facebook group of my generation with the accompanying text. Furthermore, I contacted students from the other generations to post into their groups as well. I got help from the former students by email also, as they were kind enough to share with their generations via email. I contacted the president of the Alumni MBA Radovljica, hoping to get help getting in contact with the former students, and they posted the link to my survey on their official Facebook site. I also wrote an email to our administrator, requesting to send my survey to different generations, which I did not already contact. The emails were sent through her base. Furthermore, I contacted my professors from

the IMB, which were the former IMB students. Altogether, I contacted 8 professors through an email.

#### **4.2.1 Data overview**

The total number of the received surveys was 111. I have excluded 2 answer sheets because one of them was filled in by the current IMB student (I identified that in the question about how long the participants work after concluding the IMB because a respondent stated in this part that he is still a student at the IMB), and the other had an incorrect value also in years of work after concluding the IMB (the program exist for a bit more than 20 years, so apparently 40 years of work was not an appropriate value). Therefore, I had 109 responses in my research sample, which I analyzed. From the obtained and cleared data, 94 surveys were completely filled in, which is 86% of the whole sample. Other incomplete surveys represent 14% of all the samples. However, I decided to include them, as the results were representative in general. The whole questionnaire and answers were collected in the English language. Participants from different parts of the world responded – most of them responded from Slovenia, Croatia, Germany, and other European countries, additionally also from the United States of America, South America (for example Uruguay), Russian Federation, Asia (for example India), and ex-Yugoslavia. By reviewing this information, we can see that former IMB students are presented worldwide, especially because the studies focus also on the international environment, as it was described above. The survey was activated on the 19<sup>th</sup> June 2017 and was closed on the 5<sup>th</sup> August 2017. I had a few problems with collecting the answers, as many of them were on vacation or had a high season at their workplace, thus this affected the period of the data collecting.

#### **4.2.2 Data analysis**

After data was gathered in Ika platform, I exported it firstly in the MS Excel file in order to review the printout of the data and to familiarize myself with it. In the MS Excel file, I edited the question labels, as it was easier to do it through the Excel function, rather manually (human error also decreases with functions). To identify all the questions properly, I made a prefix which question are ordinary. After that, I imported the data into the IBM SPSS Statistics version 22.0. Firstly, I edited the data in Variable View tab, where I inserted values – 1 and 2 values were for the closed questions with Yes or No answer. Furthermore, Likert scales values were inserted (from 1 to 5; the text was the same as in the questionnaire). I identified the Missing values – in my case all the missing values were -3. At the end, I decided upon the level of measurement. Different variables can be either categorical or continuous and have different levels of measurement. Some variables are known to be categorical, as they are made out of categories and names distinct entities. The simplest example is a binary variable, for example, yes or no answers. The nominal variable has more than two possibilities, and it is pointless to analyze arithmetic on them. Ordinal data show

us items occurred and in which order they occurred. Continuous variable presents answer from each respondent and it can take any value on the measurement scale. Interval variable is a type of continuous variable. It is measured by a scale, in my case, it is the 5-point Likert scale. Ratio variables additionally require meaningful ratios, apart from the interval (Field, 2009).

In order to analyze the variables, I averaged their values, and I got four new variables (OCBI, OCB, workplace flexibility and CSE). Firstly, I have conducted an analysis of demographics, to get a kind of introduction to my master's thesis analysis. I conducted the analysis of bivariate relationships among variables. Before I started testing my hypotheses, I got acquainted with individual SPSS testing methods to make sure the data is analyzed as efficiently and qualitatively as possible. The table below summarizes SPSS procedures I took for each individual hypothesis:

Table 4. Overview of SPSS procedures of hypotheses testing

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>SPSS Procedure</b>
H1: Employees are more OCBO oriented than OCBI	Paired sample t-test
H2: Females are more OCBO oriented than males	Independent-sample t-test
H3: Yearly income correlates positively with OCB	Bivariate correlation
H4a: Workplace flexibility is positively related to OCBI	Linear regression
H4b: CSE is positively related to OCBI	Linear regression
H5a: Workplace flexibility is positively related to OCBO	Linear regression
H5b: CSE is positively related to OCBO	Linear regression

### 4.3 Questionnaire development

The questions were divided into 4 parts. The first part was the questions about the workplace flexibility, the second about OCBI and OCBO, the third about CSE, and the last but not least, demographics. When I was designing the questionnaire I decided to use scales and questions that existed already.

By reviewing literature in detail, I came across many scales, which I could use in my data collection process through the questionnaire. Particularly, I have searched for those that were standardized, in means of validity and reliance, in the previous research. Standardized measures are used to fit different perspectives and experiences of people into a narrow, limited number of responses that are predominately categorized. However, to achieve that scales are appropriate, measures have to be validated, meaning: the results or observations have to have the feature of repeatability. Furthermore, scales of measures have to be validated in order to ensure accuracy and that they actually measure what they should measure (Golafshani, 2003).

After choosing the appropriate measures for my research questionnaire, I assembled my questionnaire and sent it to my mentor to be reviewed, to ensure questions and scales are appropriate. After entering the questionnaire into an online platform 1ka.si, I conducted two pilot-tests. The first was conducted directly after questions were entered. I chose my former schoolmates from the IMB to fill out the test survey and send me some feedback. There were some changes made in demographics, for example, I further specified income into yearly gross income, and recalculated the value, which I describe in the section of demographics (in results). I also included synonyms for words that had professional meaning, because one of the feedbacks was that some words are too complex to be completely understood. Overall, no other changes in questions about workplace flexibility, OCBI, OCBO, and CSE were made (e.g. change in a number of items in question itself). The final version of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix 1.

On the first page, I have written the accompanying text, where I briefly described myself. I also wrote what is the purpose of this questionnaire, and gave my contact in case if there would be any questions regarding the filling in of my survey. On the next page, I had the first two questions about the workplace flexibility, but first I wrote the text, where I explained to what statements below to refer to, how they can respond in order to indicate agreement or disagreement, and that in case of current unemployment they should recall the situations from the time of employment. The corresponding paragraph was included before each question for a new variable in order to familiarize participants with questions that followed. The next variable was OCB and I have divided OCBI question on one page, and OCBO questions on other, making it easier and more transparent for respondents to fill it out.

After the last variable question (CSE), I asked them to answer a few demographic questions about themselves. In the demographic section, I specified employment status by contractual employment options, which are full-time or part-time. Furthermore, I also specified self-employment and unemployment as I wanted to cover all the former IMB students. As former students had to have completed bachelor's degree, this was the lowest possible level of education. The highest was doctoral degree. Next, I specified how many years they were working after completing the IMB. Work hours were divided into two questions – one is about work hours without overtime and the second is with overtime. It was hard to define specific job positions. However, I managed to design them accordingly: the leading position (partner/director, executive officer, vice-president, manager), directly responsible for several groups of employees (head of particular area of work/group), directly responsible for one group of employees (head of the team/project/group), part of particular area of work/team/group, and, lastly, I listed an option to specify other job positions in case I did not include one. For yearly income before taxes question, I designed the scale by taking into consideration the gross minimum wage in Slovenia from January 2017 (last data available),



which was EUR 804.96. I multiplied it by 12 months and got EUR 9,659.52 (Carpe diem, d.o.o., 2017). To make it clearer, I downsized the starting value to EUR 9,500, and then with every higher class, I increased it by EUR 9,500. Lastly, I gave them an option to enter their email in case they are interested in the results of my study for the master's thesis. Approximately 20% of the participants asked for results which I will provide after concluding my thesis.

As I mentioned above, I have chosen predetermined scales, which were already used in the previous research. I have summarized my selection of scales in Table 5.

Table 5. Selected measures

Variable	Number of items	Author	Year
Flexible Work Arrangements	5	Dennis	1997
OCB		Lee and Allen	2002
OCBI	8		
OCBO	8		
CSE	12	Judge, Erez, Bono, and Thoresen	2003

Full measures are presented in Appendix 2. Below, there are explanations and changes made for each scale included in my research questionnaire.

For the detailed analysis, I have chosen **workplace flexibility** measure, which was predominantly chosen for regression analysis of the hypotheses. This scale measures workplace flexibility more in-depth, by specifying flexible work arrangements (hereinafter: FWA). Stavrou (2005) in her work researches flexible work bundles and organizational competitiveness in the European work context. She describes that FWA represents working patterns, which include modifications of the basic workweek, for example, night and weekend shifts, different work time in hours, etc. FWA was presented due to changing needs of the workforce nowadays. FWA appeared in Europe as early as in the 1980s. Stavrou (2005) chose FWA practices, which are considered fairly standard in the European Union. Those are: weekend work, shift work, overtime, annual hour contracts, part-time work, job sharing, flextime, temporary employment, fixed-term contracts, home-based work, and teleworking. For the purpose of my master's thesis, I have chosen 5 items out of 11 in total. I chose weekend work (extending work hours during weekends); overtime (working extra hours per day); flextime (working full-time, but choosing the start and end time); home-based work (work from home); and teleworking (working away from the office, but

maintaining an electronic presence in the office). I modified the questionnaire by creating one sentence statements about 5 chosen items.

Table 6. Flexible work arrangements

<b>Flexible work arrangements item</b>	<b>Flexible work arrangements statement</b>
Weekend work	I extend work hours during weekends.
Overtime	I work extra hours (more than contractual agreed).
Flextime	I work full time, but I choose when I start or finish within limits set by management (flextime).
Home-based work	I work from home during regular working hours.
Teleworking	I work away from the office for a part of/all of the working week, maintaining an electronic presence in the office (teleworking).

In describing the statements, I focused on the explanation given by Stavrou (2005) in her article about the specific FWA in order to make sure items do not lose their meaning. Stavrou (2005) uses binary response option: yes, if they agree and no if they disagree. Instead of yes and no answer, I wanted to get much information from the question as possible. Therefore, I used the 5-point Likert scale: 1 – never, 2 – rarely, 3 – sometimes, 4 – very often, and 5 – always. On that account, I asked participants to rate how often they experience stated situations in their workplace.

For **organizational citizenship behavior**, there are many scales developed. However, I have used one from Lee and Allen (2002) with 16 items altogether. The scale divides into two subcategories: **organizational citizenship behavior directed to individuals (OCBI)**, and **organizational behavior directed to the organization (OCBO)**. The items used were from the previous OCB scales; confirmatory factor analysis confirmed empirical distinction between OCBI and OCBO, and reliabilities were 0.83 for OCBI, and 0.88 for OCBO. There are 8 items for each variable. “I help others who have been absent” and other similar items were used for OCBI, while statements referring to OCBO items were somewhat “I attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image”. To personalize answers and for the participants to identify more when answering questions, I wrote questions in the first person, while in the original article they write in generalized form (for example “Help others who have been absent”). Lee and Allen (2002) use the 7-point Likert scale in their research. However, I used the 5-point Likert scale to maintain consistency of the data for further analysis. I used ranging from 1 – strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree.

**Core self-evaluation** was measured by the scale developed by Judge et al. (2003). They developed the scale for CSE because there were no direct measures in past research. Their

results show that the Core Self-Evaluations Scale (hereinafter: CSES) has a useful mean of assessing CSE. They proved reliability and validity. The 12-item CSES more directly predicts criteria because it more directly measures CSE categories and especially because it measures commonality among the core traits. It is believed that CSES is applicable to different industries and applied psychology. Researchers developed CSES by designing 12 items, which measure the traits of CSE. An example of the self-esteem trait is “Overall, I am satisfied with myself”; one of the items of generalized self-efficacy is “When I try, I generally succeed”. “Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work” is an example of a locus of control trait. Lastly, emotional stability is measured among others with “Sometimes I feel depressed”. Judge et al. (2003) use the 5-point Likert scale, which was also used in my questionnaire for this master’s thesis. The scale ranged from 1 – strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree.

At the end of the questionnaire, several demographical questions were included: gender, age, employment status, level of education, and yearly gross income. Furthermore, as control variables, I have included work years, work hours excluding overtime, work hours including overtime, and job position.

## **5 EMPIRICAL RESULTS**

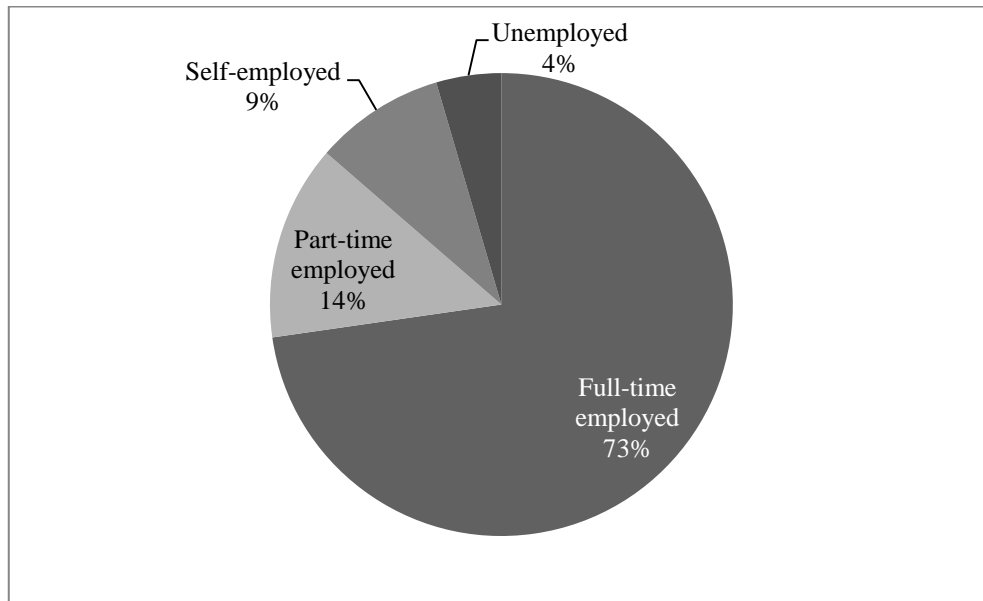
The empirical results present the results of the statistical analysis, which bases on data obtained through the questionnaire. In the first part, demographics are presented. Secondly, the correlations among the variables are discussed. Last but not least, part of this chapter discusses the statistical analysis of hypotheses stated in this master’s thesis.

### **5.1 Demographic characteristics of the respondents**

The sample included 109 respondents out of 774 former students. However, this number includes also the students of the 24<sup>th</sup> generation, which was at the time current generation (study year 2016/2017). Therefore, the actual population was 734 former students. Thus, my sample represents 14.85% of the population.

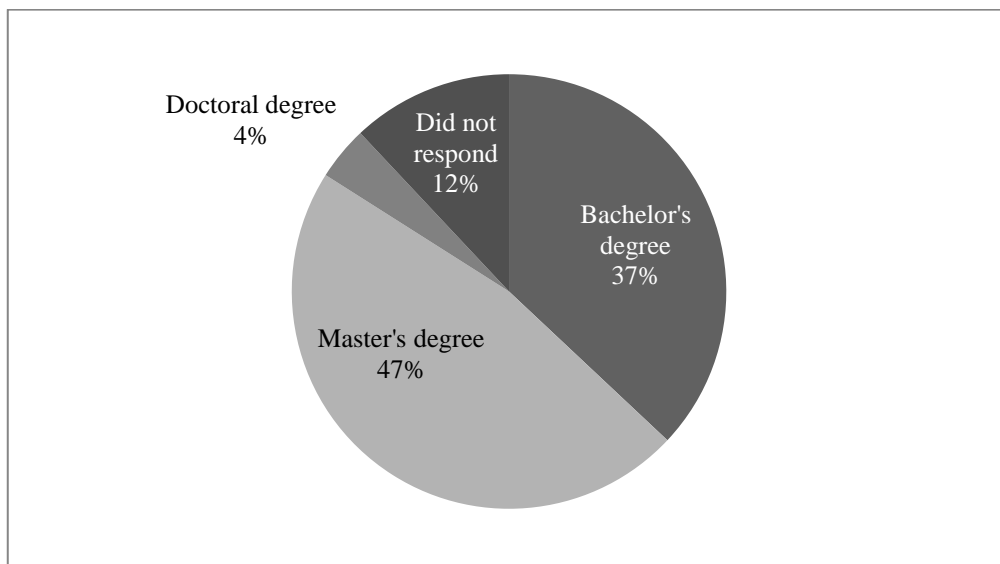
39.5% of them were male (43 respondents); 48.6% of them were female (53 respondents), and 11.9% did not answer the question about gender (13 respondents). The average age of the respondents is 29.4 years. The minimum age is 22 and the maximum age is 44. The next is the distribution of the respondents by their work status.

*Figure 6. Distribution of the respondents by work status (in %)*



88.1% of respondents (96 respondents) answered questions on their employment status out of total 109 responses. Most of them are employed fulltime (70 respondents – 64.2%), 13 of them are employed part-time (11.9%), 9 respondents are self-employed (8.3%), and 4 of them are unemployed (3.7%). There were 13 missing values, meaning: 13 responses were not recorded (11.9%).

*Figure 7. Distribution of the respondents by education (in %)*



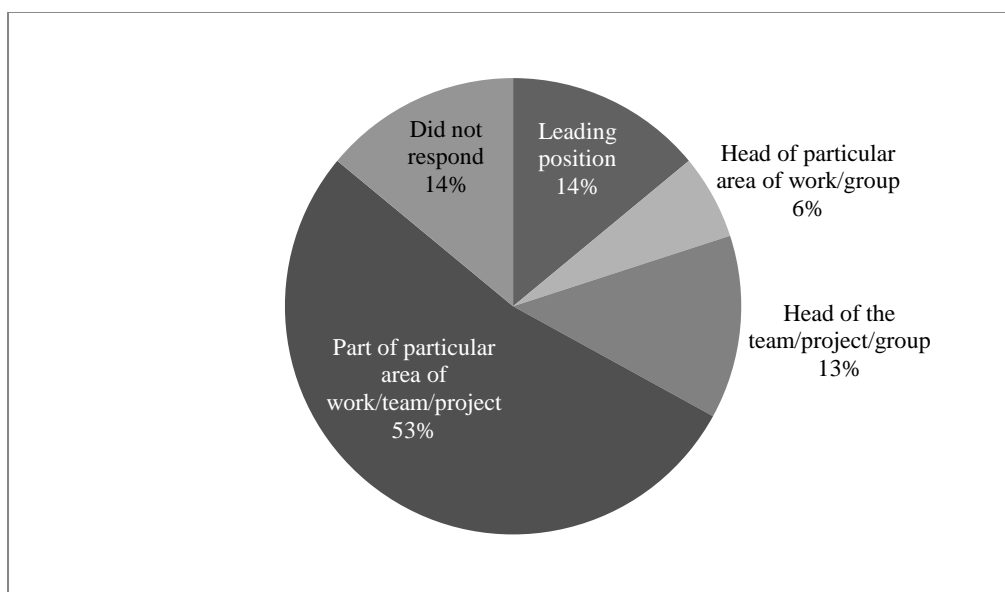
Most of the interviewed people have master's degree (46.8% or 51 respondents), 40 respondents have a bachelor's degree (36.7%), and 5 respondent's highest level of education

completed is a doctoral degree (4.6%). Again, 96 participants (88.1%; n=109) answered the question about the highest level of education completed. However, 13 entries were missing (11.9%; n=109).

96 participants answered that they have been working for 3.85 years on average after completing the IMB studies. The minimum number of years is zero, and the maximum years working after completing the IMB is 17 years. From this point forward, 94 participants responded, which is 86.24% of the whole sample (n=109).

The average basic or contractual hours each week (paid or unpaid overtime excluded) are 38.19 hours per week. The minimum basic or contractual hours each week are 8 hours, while the maximum value was 60. It is important to note that the law in Slovenia defines full-time employment hours (based on a contract) – an employee should work at least 36 hours per week and no more than 40 hours per week (Zakon o delovnih razmerjih (ZDR-1) – Ministrstvo za delo, družino in socialne zadeve). Moreover, the average of work hours, including overtime and extra hours (meal breaks and travel time excluded), is 46.50 hours per week. The minimum value was 1 hour, while the maximum value of hours worked, including overtime or extra hours, was 80 hours. For both questions about work hours, there were 94 responses, therefore 15 missing responses (n=109).

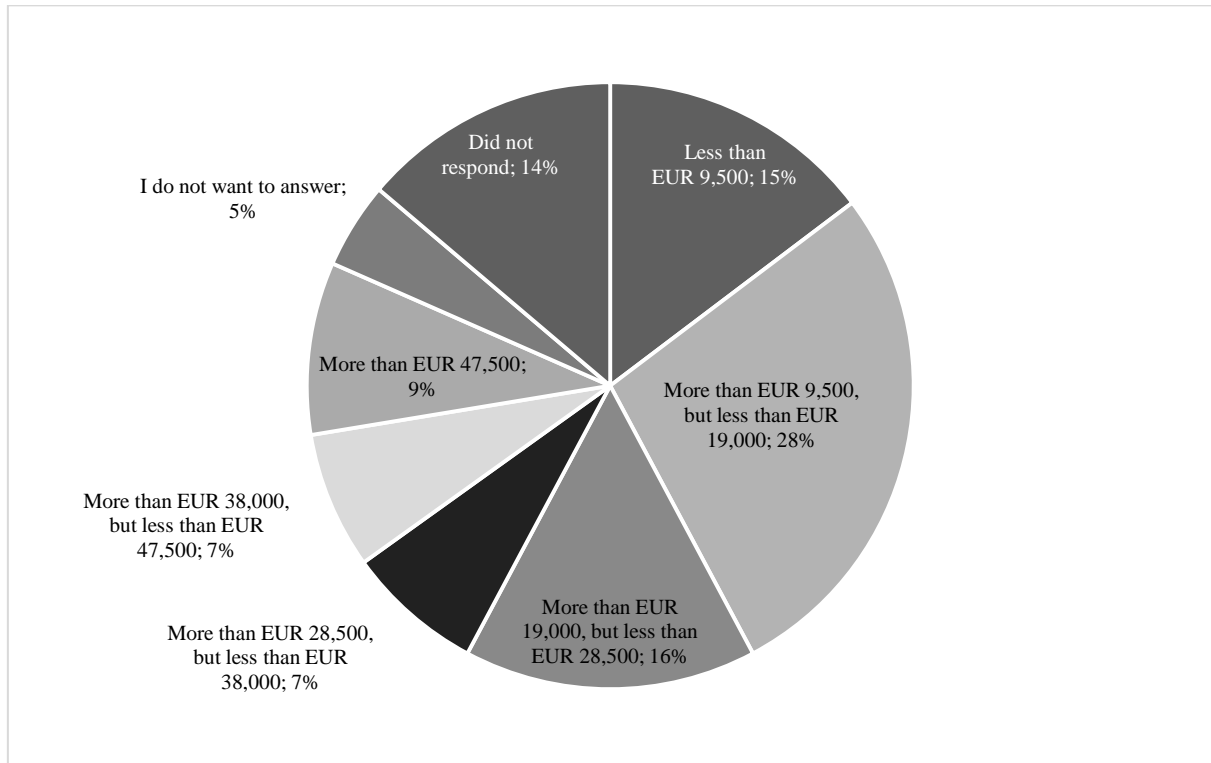
*Figure 8. Distribution of the respondents by job position (in %)*



I asked the participants about their job position. Most work as a part of the particular area of work, team, or group (58 questioned, which is 53.2%). 15 respondents work in a leading position, which I defined as partner or director, executive officer, vice-president or manager (13.8%). Respondents who are directly responsible for one group of employees, meaning: they are heads of the team, project, or group, have been presented in 12.8%, which is one

person less than in the leading position. 6.4% of respondents are directly responsible for several groups of employees, which I further defined as a head of the particular area of work or group (7 respondents). From 109 participants, 15 responses were missing (13.8%), and, in total, 94 respondents answered the question about the job position (86.2%).

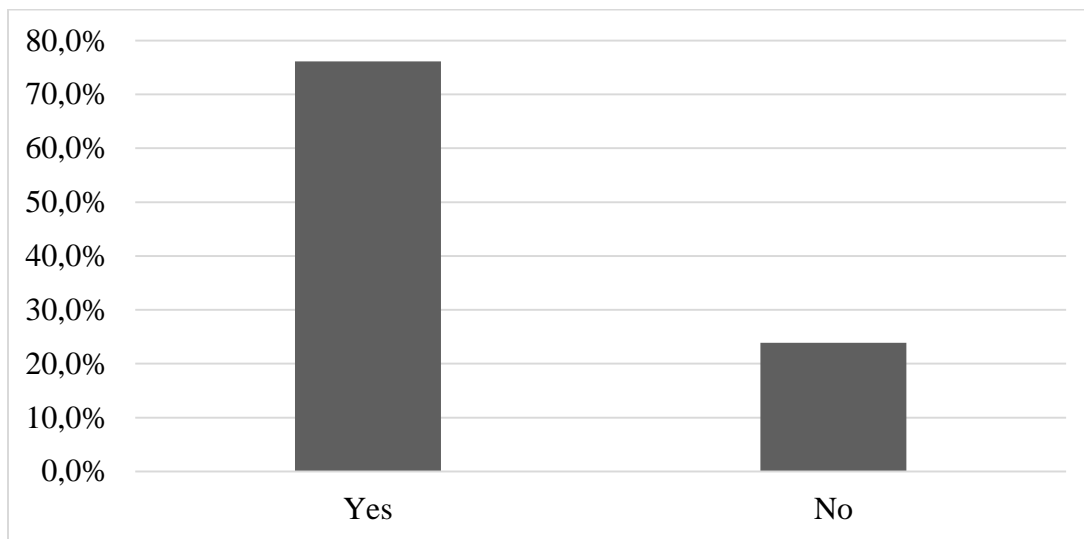
*Figure 9. Distribution of the respondents by yearly income (in %)*



The last question was about their yearly income before taxes. 27.5% of respondents earn more than EUR 9,500 but less than EUR 19,000. The second is the grouping of more than EUR 19,000 but less than EUR 28,500 (17 responses, 15.6%). Less than EUR 9,500 as gross income is earned by 16 respondents (14.7%). More than EUR 47,500 per year earns 10 respondents (9.2%), while both remaining classes have a frequency of 8 persons, which is 7.3% (more than EUR 28,500 but less than EUR 38,000; more than EUR 38,000 but less than EUR 47,500). Some of the respondents did not want to answer the question about their income (5 respondents or 4.6%). Furthermore, 15 of them did not respond at all (13.8%). Therefore, 94 responded to the question about their yearly income, which is 86.2% of total 109 respondents.

My first question in the survey was: Please rate if you agree or disagree with the statement: I have the flexibility I need at work.

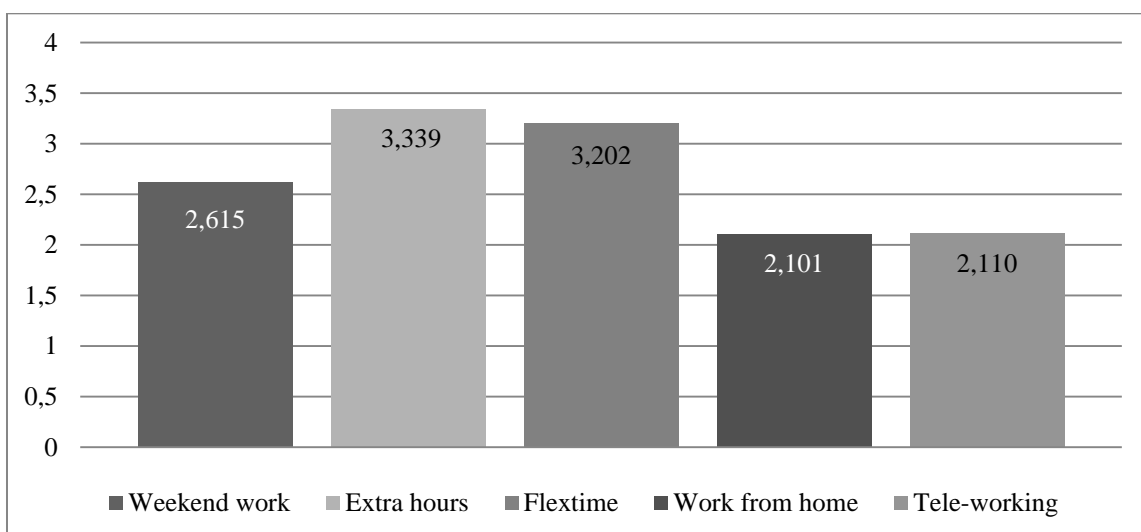
*Figure 10. Perceived flexibility at workplace (in %)*



The majority of responses were positive – 83 participants feel that they have the flexibility they need at work (which is 76.1%; n=109). However, 26 participants said that they do not have the flexibility they need at work (23.9%; n=109).

Furthermore, the questionnaire consisted of five more questions regarding workplace flexibility. They were used for identifying the relationship between workplace flexibility and OCB. However, the results were interesting in terms what kind of flexible work arrangements are used by the respondents.

*Figure 11. Types of flexible work arrangements among the participants (in 5-point Likert scale averages)*



Participants work extra hours (more than contractually agreed), most out of the flexible work arrangements options – they use it on average sometimes. The next is flextime, which means that employee decides when he or she starts the work, within the limits set by the management. They sometimes also use flextime on average. The weekend work is used rarely on average. However, it is higher value. Work from home and teleworking are rarely used on average. All the participants answered all the five questions (n=109).

## 5.2 Relationship between the variables used

As mentioned before, I have used three variables in my research: workplace flexibility, CSE, and OCB. OCB was divided into OCBI and OCBO. Therefore, in total, the relationships between all four variables were researched. Results of Pearson correlation are presented in Table 7 below.

Table 7. Correlations among variables

		<b>Workplace flexibility</b>	<b>OCBI</b>	<b>OCBO</b>	<b>CSE</b>
<b>Workplace flexibility</b>	Pearson Correlation	1	,392**	,428**	,081
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,000	,434
	N	109	103	97	96
<b>OCBI</b>	Pearson Correlation	,392**	1	,388**	,227*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,000	,026
	N	103	103	97	96
<b>OCBO</b>	Pearson Correlation	,428**	,388**	1	,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000		1,000
	N	97	97	97	96
<b>CSE</b>	Pearson Correlation	,081	,227*	,000	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,434	,026	1,000	
	N	96	96	96	96

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

I have made the analysis of the bivariate correlation between the variables. Firstly, the strength between workplace flexibility and OCBI is weak ( $r = 0.392$ ), and correlation is highly significant from zero ( $P = 0.000$ ;  $\alpha = 0.01$ ). Workplace flexibility is also significantly correlated ( $P = 0.000$ ;  $\alpha = 0.01$ ) to OCBO, and the strength between the variables is moderate



( $r = 0.428$ ). However, the correlation between workplace flexibility and CSE is not significant. Secondly, OCBI and OCBO are significantly correlated, and their strength of association is somewhat weak ( $r = 0.388$ ;  $P = 0.000$ ;  $\alpha = 0.01$ ). Furthermore, OCBI and CSE have a weak connection. However, it is significant at alpha 0.05 ( $r = 0.227$ ;  $P = 0,026$ ). Last but not least, OCBO and CSE are not significantly correlated, as the significance level is  $P = 1.0$ . To summarize, the strength of the variables is weak (at alpha 0.01) between the workplace flexibility and OCBI, OCBI and OCBO, and OCBI and CSE. The connection between workplace flexibility and OCBO is moderate at alpha 0.01. However, there is no significant relationship between variables workplace flexibility and CSE, and OCBO and CSE.

### 5.3 Testing the hypotheses

In this part, I will present you the statistical analysis of my hypotheses, all conducted in the SPSS analysis program. All the hypotheses are based on previous research, explained in section 3.1.

#### Hypothesis 1: Employees are more OCBO oriented than OCBI

For the first hypothesis testing, I have used statistical SPSS method paired sample t-test in order to confirm my alternative hypothesis that employees are more OCBO oriented than OCBI.

Table 8. Paired differences and paired sample t-test

		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair	OCBI - OCBO	-,26160	,61769	,06272	-4,171	96	,000

In the paired samples t-test, we observe if the mean difference is large enough to indicate the trueness of the hypothesis. We get the answer by looking at P-value, which is 0.000 in my case. This means the difference is significant. Therefore, the average difference is sufficiently low to conclude that there is a difference between the perception of OCBO and OCBI between employees, on average, at  $P = 0.000$  if alpha is 0.05.

#### Hypothesis 2: Females are more OCBI oriented than males

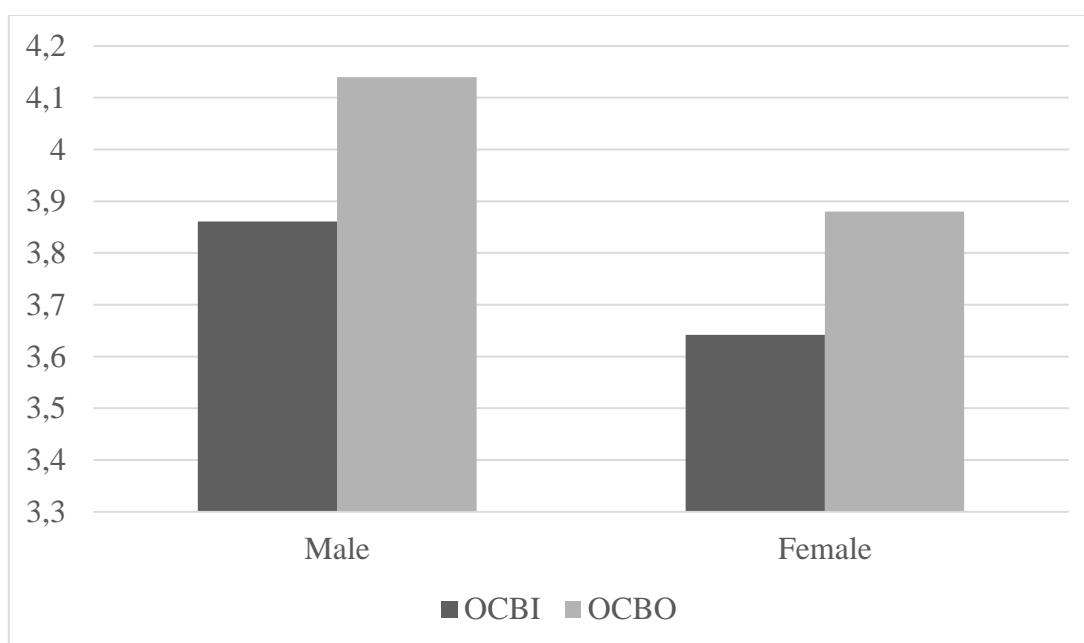
My second hypothesis is questioning the perception of gender to OCBO and OCBI. Based on the previous research, I stated that females are more OCBI oriented than males are. For the statistical analysis, I did independent-sample t-test in the SPSS program.

Table 9. Group statistics

Variables	Gender	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean
OCBI	Male	43	3,8605	,47654	,07267
	Female	53	3,6415	,58632	,08054
OCBO	Male	43	4,1395	,54432	,08301
	Female	53	3,8797	,57228	,07861

Above, we can see that on average male participants lean more to the statement that they agree with the statements for OCBI ( $\mu_{\text{male OCBI}} = 3.86 \pm 0.48$ ), while females are more neutral than males on average ( $\mu_{\text{female OCBI}} = 3.64 \pm 0.59$ ). Furthermore, males agree with the statements about OCBO on average, while females are again more neutral than males are ( $\mu_{\text{male OCBO}} = 4.14 \pm 0.54$ ;  $\mu_{\text{female OCBO}} = 3.88 \pm 0.57$ ).

Figure 12. Presentation of group means regarding OCBI and OCBO



In figure 7, we can clearly see that on average males are more OCBI and OCBO oriented as their points on 5-point Likert scale scored higher than females did.

The next step was Levene's test for the equality of variances. The test tests the null hypothesis that the difference in variances in different groups (in my case the groups are gender) is zero (Field, 2009).

Table 10. Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

Variable	Equality of Variances	F	Sig.
OCBI	Equal variances assumed	2,449	,121
	Equal variances not assumed		
OCBO	Equal variances assumed	,001	,980
	Equal variances not assumed		

Firstly, I looked if equal variances were assumed or not. In both cases, the significance (Sig.) is more than 0.05, which means that variability is not significantly different. For both, OCBI and OCBO I analyzed t-test when equal variances are assumed.

Table 11. T-test for equality of means for OCBI

Variables	Equality of Variances	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Standard Error Difference
OCBI	Equal variances assumed	1,975	94	,051	,21896	,11084
	Equal variances not assumed	2,018	93,998	,046	,21896	,10848

The P-value is 0.051 in the case of OCBI and, therefore, the difference between the two means in the case of OCBI is not statistically significant at the 5% level of significance. There is an estimated change of 0.22 (SE = 0.11). However, there is insufficient evidence (P = 0.051) to suggest that gender effects the mean of OCBI.

Table 12. T-test for equality of means for OCBO

Variables	Equality of Variances	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Standard Error Difference
OCBO	Equal variances assumed	2,261	94	,026	,25982	,11493
	Equal variances not assumed	2,273	91,605	,025	,25982	,11432

The P-value is 0.026 in the case of OCBO and, therefore, the difference between the two means in case of OCBO is statistically significant at the 5% level of significance. There is an estimated change of 0.25 (SE = 0.11). Therefore, there is sufficient evidence (P = 0.026) to suggest that gender effects the mean of OCBO.

To sum up, we found in the first part the study that there is no significant mean difference between males and females participants on average OCBI,  $t(94) = 1.975$ ,  $p = 0.051$ . Lastly, the study found that males ( $4.14 \pm 0.54$ ) are more OCBO oriented in comparison to females ( $3.88 \pm 0.57$ ),  $t(94) = 2.261$ ,  $p = 0.026$ .

### **Hypothesis 3: Yearly income correlates positively with OCB.**

Thirdly, statistical analysis regarding relations amongst income of the respondents and OCB were made.

Table 13. Correlation between yearly income before taxes, OCBI and OCBO

<b>Variables</b>		<b>Yearly income before taxes</b>
<b>Yearly income before taxes</b>	Pearson Correlation	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	94
<b>OCBI</b>	Pearson Correlation	,024
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,816
	N	94
<b>OCBO</b>	Pearson Correlation	,278
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,007
	N	94

In order to test the hypothesis number 3, the bivariate correlation was used in the SPSS program. Yearly income before taxes, OCBI, and OCBO was inserted as variables, for which correlations were sought. The results of the statistical analysis show that yearly income before taxes is not significantly correlated to OCBI ( $P = 0.816$ ;  $\alpha = 0.05$ ). On the other hand, yearly income before taxes is significantly related to OCBO. The relation is highly significant at P-value of 0.007 ( $\alpha = 0.01$ ). The strength between yearly income before taxes and OCBO is weak at  $r = 0.278$  ( $P = 0.007$ ;  $\alpha = 0.01$ ).

### **Hypothesis 4a: Workplace flexibility is positively related to OCBI**

### **Hypothesis 5a: CSE is positively related to OCBI**

My first part of the fourth hypothesis researches the relationship between workplace flexibility and OCBI, and the first part of the fifth hypothesis researches the relationship between CSE and OCBI. Firstly, control variables were included (demographics): gender,

age, work hours (including overtime), and yearly income before taxes. At the end, I included both variables – workplace flexibility and CSE.

Table 14. Model summary for the H4a and the H5a

Model	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	Standard Error of the Estimate	R <sup>2</sup> Change	df	F	Sig.
<b>Demographics</b>	,362	,131	,092	,52693	,131	F(4,89)	3,346	,013
<b>Demographics, Workplace flexibility, CSE</b>	,515	,265	,215	,48994	,135	F(6,87)	5,237	,000

The model summary above presents the model fit. In the first model, only demographics are included. In the second, workplace flexibility and CSE were added. R coefficient tells us how high the correlation between variables is. In my case  $r = 0.515$  presents the correlation between demographics, workplace flexibility, and CSE. The coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) presents the proportion of variance in the dependent variable, which is explained by independent variables.

In the second model  $r^2$  value is 0.265, which means that workplace flexibility and CSE account for 26.5% of the variation in OCBI. By inclusion of the variables workplace flexibility and CSE, additional 13.5% variation in OCBI was explained. In the first model, F-ratio is 3.346 (degrees of freedom = 89) at the significance level 0.013 ( $p < 0.05$ ). In the second it increases to 5.237 (degrees of freedom = 87) at the significance level even lower: 0.000 ( $p < 0.01$ ).

The results interpret that the model with the only demographics included the improved ability to predict OCBI. By including workplace flexibility and CSE, however, the prediction improved because the F-ratio is more significant than it is in the first model.

Table 15. Summary of regression coefficients for the H4a and the H5a

Model	B	Standard Error	Beta ( $\beta$ )	t	Sig.
<b>Model 1</b>					
(Constant)	3,395	,498		6,813	,000
Gender	-,172	,112	-,156	-1,541	,127
Age	-,001	,014	-,012	-,095	,925

table continues

continued

<b>Model</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>Beta (<math>\beta</math>)</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Work hours (including overtime)	,014	,005	,303	2,966	,004
Yearly income before taxes	,000	,038	,000	-,004	,997
<b>Model 2</b>					
(Constant)	2,038	,691		2,950	,004
Workplace flexibility	,218	,067	,343	3,233	,002
CSE	,294	,145	,188	2,021	,046

The B-value presents the relationship between dependent variable (OCBI) and each variable chosen as the predictor. The standard error indicates to what extent b-values would vary across different samples. They are used to define if b-values are significantly different from 0. In order to define significant contribution to the model, t-value and significance (Sig.) are used. Smaller the Sig. value is, the higher t-value, greater the contribution of the predictive variable. Lastly, the standardized  $\beta$  is measured in standard deviation units. Therefore, it is comparable directly. If predictive variable increases by one standard deviation, dependent variable would increase the value in the Beta ( $\beta$ ) column (Field, 2009).

**Workplace flexibility** ( $b = 0.218$ ): this value indicates that as workplace flexibility increases by one point, OCBI increase by 0.218 points (variables were measured with the 5-point Likert scale) but only when demographics and CSE are held constant. Workplace flexibility ( $t(94) = 3.233$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) is a significant predictor of OCBI. Standardized  $\beta$  of workplace flexibility is 0.343 and it indicates that as workplace flexibility increases by one standard deviation, OCBI increases by 0.343 standard deviations at holding demographics and CSE constant.

**Core self-evaluation** ( $b = 0.294$ ): this value indicates that as CSE increases by one point, OCBI increases by 0.294 points, when demographics and workplace flexibility are held constant. However, CSE ( $t(94) = 2.021$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ) is not a significant predictor of OCBI. The equation (1) of the regression follows:

$$OCBI = 2.038 - 0.166 \text{ Gender} + 0.001 \text{ Age} + 0.008 \text{ Work hours} \\ - 0.029 \text{ Yearly income} + 0.218 \text{ Workplace flexibility} + 0.294 \text{ CSE} \quad (1)$$

**Hypothesis 4b: Workplace flexibility is positively related to OCBO**

**Hypothesis 5b: CSE is positively related to OCBO**

Last but not least, I researched the relationship between workplace flexibility and OCBO, and CSE and OCBO. The same as in the previous analysis, control variables (demographics) were included in the first model. In the second, workplace flexibility and CSE were added.

Table 16. Model summary for the H4b and the H5b

Model	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	Standard Error of the Estimate	R <sup>2</sup> Change	df	F	Sig.
<b>Demographics</b>	,429	,184	,147	,51792	,184	F(4,89)	5.019	,001
<b>Demographics, Workplace flexibility, CSE</b>	,509	,259	,208	,49907	,075	F(6,87)	5.079	,000

R coefficient represents the height of correlation between variables. In my case it is  $r = 0.509$ , presenting the correlation between demographics, workplace flexibility, CSE, and OCBO. The coefficient of determination is  $r^2 = 0.259$ , which means, that 25.9% of the variability in OCBO is explained by demographics, workplace flexibility, and CSE. By implementing workplace flexibility and CSE in the second model, additional 7.5% of variation was explained. F-ratio in the first model, when only control variables were included, is 5.019 (degrees of freedom = 89) at the significance level 0.001 ( $p < 0.01$ ). The second model F-ratio is 5.079 (degrees of freedom = 87), at the significance level 0.000 ( $p < 0.01$ ). By including workplace flexibility and CSE, the prediction of model improved, as F-ratio is slightly more significant than in the first model, where only demographics were included.

Table 17. Summary of regression coefficients for the H4b and the H5b

Model	B	Standard Error	Beta	t	Sig.
<b>Model 1</b>					
(Constant)	3,687	,490		7,528	,000
Gender	-,272	,110	-,243	-2,485	,015
Age	,002	,014	,020	,170	,865
Work hours (including overtime)	,009	,005	,183	1,853	,067
Yearly income before taxes	,078	,038	,249	2,063	,042
<b>Model 2</b>					
(Constant)	3,535	,704		5,024	,000
Workplace flexibility	,204	,069	,317	2,975	,004
CSE	-,042	,148	-,027	-,286	,776

**Workplace flexibility** ( $b = 0.204$ ): this value indicates that as workplace flexibility increases by one point, OCBO increases by 0.204 points (variables were measured with the 5-point Likert scale) but only when demographics and CSE are held constant. Workplace flexibility ( $t(94) = 2.975$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) is a significant predictor of OCBO. Standardized  $\beta$  of workplace

flexibility is 0.069, and it indicates that as workplace flexibility increases by one standard deviation, OCBI increases by 0.069 standard deviations at holding demographics and CSE constant.

**Core self-evaluation** ( $b = -0.042$ ): this value indicates that as CSE increases by one point, OCBO increases by 0.042 points when demographics and workplace flexibility are held constant. However, CSE ( $t(94) = -0.286$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ) is not a significant predictor of OCBO. Equation (2) of the model 2 regression follows:

$$OCBO = 3.535 - 0.22 \text{ Gender} + 0.001 \text{ Age} + 0.004 \text{ Hours worked} \\ + 0.051 \text{ Yearly income} + 0.204 \text{ Workplace flexibility} - 0.042 \text{ CSE} \quad (2)$$

## 6 DISCUSSION

In this part of my master's thesis, I will discuss my findings, which were identified by the appropriate statistical analyses and described in chapter 5. At the end, I will apply implications and limitations to my master's thesis research. I will also suggest guidelines for further analysis.

Before setting the hypotheses, I identified my master's thesis' objective which is to research the relationships between workplace flexibility and OCB, and CSE and OCB in the perception of the former IMB students. Firstly, I stated an alternative hypothesis that employees are more OCBO oriented than OCBI, to identify the perception respondents have towards OCB. Furthermore, I was interested in researching the perception each gender has towards OCB. In the last part relationship based hypotheses were designed, which stated that workplace flexibility and CSE are positively related to OCBI, and workplace flexibility and CSE are positively related to OCBO. All the hypotheses were based on previous research and were tested with verified measures from the different authors.

Table 18. Overview of the results for the hypotheses

Hypothesis	Description	Results
1	Employees are more OCBO oriented than OCBI	ACCEPTED
2	Females are more OCBI oriented than males	REJECTED
3	A significant correlation between yearly income before taxes and OCB exists.	PARTIALLY ACCEPTED
4a	Workplace flexibility is positively related to OCBI	ACCEPTED
5a	CSE is positively related to OCBI	REJECTED
4b	Workplace flexibility is positively related to OCBO	ACCEPTED
5b	CSE is positively related to OCBO	REJECTED



The first hypothesis was accepted, which means that employees are more OCBO oriented than they are OCBI oriented because the significance level of paired sample t-test was highly significant (Sig. = 0.000; at alpha 0.01). The most recent study identified that employees engage frequently in OCBO due to the performance appraisals, such as promotions, bonuses or a raise of their salary, which supports my accepted hypothesis (Newland, 2012). This also means that employees are leaning more towards civic virtue, consciousness, and sportsmanship, which promotes behavior towards efficiency and effectiveness of the organization. Therefore, the former IMB students see themselves as organizational citizens in general. Further detailed description of their perception and the basis for the OCB from the IMB study year is presented in the paragraph where the hypotheses 4a and 4b are explained.

However, the second hypothesis was not accepted ( $p > 0.05$ ). Therefore the statement that females are more OCBI oriented than males cannot be accepted. However, the study additionally showed that males are more OCBO oriented on average compared to females ( $p < 0.05$ ). Recently, Keplinger, Kowal, and Mäkiö (2016) have defined that OCBI is more feminine and OCBO was related to masculinity. In this light, we can say that the testing proved their study. Based on stereotypes, women are judged to be in favor of OCB at the workplace. The results have shown that in every aspect males engage more in OCBI and OCBO on average. However, the OCBI result was not statistically significant.

The third hypothesis was partially accepted. As OCBI had no significant correlation with yearly income before taxes ( $p > 0.05$ ), OCBO had a highly significant correlation with yearly income before taxes ( $p < 0.01$ ). This means that although OCBO and yearly income before taxes are weakly connected, it still is a highly significant relationship, which could affect organization's performance if handled correctly. With this in mind, I agree with Alkahtani (2015), who states that employees should be rewarded according to their performance, whether job-related or OCB related.

Moreover, in my statistical analysis, 2 different models of regression were made for each category of OCB. In the regression in the first model, demographics were included, and in the second workplace flexibility and CSE were added. Firstly, both models had correlations with the dependent variables (OCBI and OCBO). Nonetheless, I will discuss my results by independent variables – workplace flexibility, and CSE. To summarize, the value was 0.265 specifically for hypotheses 4a and 5a,  $r^2$ , and the model was highly significant ( $p < 0.01$ ). For the hypotheses, 4b and 5b, the coefficient of determination was 0.259 and again highly significant ( $p < 0.01$ ). Hereinafter, separate relationships between independent variables and dependent variables are discussed.

The hypotheses 4a and 4b presented the relationship of workplace flexibility towards OCB. The first hypothesis focused on the relationship between workplace flexibility and OCBI.

The statistical analysis has shown that workplace flexibility is a significant predictor of OCBI ( $p < 0.01$ ). The relationship between workplace flexibility and OCBI is significant and positive ( $b = 0.218$ ). Furthermore, the hypothesis 4b was also accepted, as workplace flexibility is also significant predictor of OCBO ( $p < 0.01$ ). Workplace flexibility and OCBO are also in a significant and positive relationship ( $b = 0.204$ ). According to my knowledge, there has no research been done until this date, regarding the relationship between workplace flexibility and OCBI, and OCBO. Moreover, the research was conducted to understand the role of workplace flexibility in promoting OCB. However, no research was made in order to define explicit relationship between workplace flexibility and OCB (Yadav, Ragnekar and Bamel, 2016). My unique research based on separate categories of OCB. However, they were both significant and had positive relations with workplace flexibility which applies to the OCB as one concept. The former IMB students in general feel that they have flexibility at work, and they agreed that by enhancing workplace flexibility in the workplace they engage more in OCBs. The results of the analysis suggest that they engage more in OCBI ( $b$  Workplace flexibility, OCBI =  $0.218 > b$  Workplace flexibility, OCBO =  $0.204$ ). This means that they engage more in benefits that are directed at individuals within the organization. By applying theoretical aspect, it can be stated that they engage more in altruism and courtesy (LePine, Erez and Johnson, 2002; Jahangir et al., 2004). Former IMB students engage in voluntary helping behavior, which enhances efficiency in the organization. This presents us with the fact that they are prone to teamwork and the success of the organization itself. As the IMB program itself is directed towards teamwork, they can build on these characteristics in their study years at the master's program. They are aware that any behavior that is not appropriate at the workplace would result in problematic outcome, as they practice courtesy. Rich experiences in courtesy are gained through the studies, as there are many cultures and personalities in the classroom which could end in conflicts. By working in different teams in each project, the students gained a new perception and constructive confrontation with potential conflicts or problems. As they did show that they engage in OCBI, they also engage in OCBO. Williams and Anderson (1991) present OCBO as benefits towards organization in general, while LePine, Erez and Johnson categorize OCBI into civic virtue, conscientiousness and sportsmanship. The former IMB students are known to work hard, as they are present at the master's full time during work weeks and also at weekends if necessary. In this time they gain an attitude towards IMB, where they feel like citizens. This can be confirmed by the activities of the Alumni IMB Radovljica and student testimonials. One of many testimonials was made by Anja Svetina Nabergoj. She stated that this program is intense. However, spending time together with students was rewarding, as they built meaningful connections, encouraged each other, celebrated success and learnt from failures together. She also stated that you never felt you were alone (Faculty of Economics, University of Ljubljana). This also applies to conscientiousness and sportsmanship, which are also a part of OCBO. By promoting conscientiousness, they thoughtfully use time, as there is a lot of time pressure during the study year. Time efficiency affects the efficiency of

the individuals and groups. Furthermore, it is clear that they have developed sportsmanship, which presents the tolerance of the student at IMB or the employee in the organization.

With developing OCB skills during IMB studies, they can enhance it also at the workplace. However, my study confirms that a stimulus, such as a workplace flexibility, positively affects OCB behavior.

The hypothesis 5a states that CSE is positively related to OCBI. The hypothesis 5b states that CSE is positively related to OCBO. Previous research conducted by Joo and Jo (2017) shows a positive relationship between CSE and OCB, which was the basis for my hypothesis formation. However, the results of my study suggest that there is no significant relationship between CSE and OCB. Firstly, I identified that CSE is not a significant predictor of OCBI ( $p > 0.05$ ). In the second analysis of the relationship between CSE and OCBO, the significance level was again higher than alpha 0.05. Overall, by combining OCBI and OCBO to the general concept of OCB, we can state that CSE and OCB do not have any significant relationship. This means that former IMB students' perception of themselves does not reflect in the voluntary behavior that is oriented towards the organization. It was expected to influence OCB, as previous research has shown that it relates to important work criteria and that it predicts motivation of the students in their early career decisions (Judge and Hurst, 2007).

To summarize, this part presents a discussion of statistical results and relations between workplace flexibility, CSE, and OCB in the perception of the former IMB students. It is important to remember that the employees who feel that they have enough workplace flexibility engage more in OCB in general. Furthermore, employees engage more in OCBO, rather than in OCBI. However, the research has shown that females, in general, are not oriented towards OCBI more than males: it is another way around. Moreover, CSE does not influence OCB in any way, as perceived by the former IMB students.

## **5.1 Implications**

The study suggests that employees are more OCBO oriented than OCBI. As I already mentioned, they have developed a feeling of affiliation towards the IMB during study years. They worked well beyond minimally required levels, and they overcame minor and temporary personal inconveniences. The stimulating environment gives them the opportunity to shape into a reliable and efficient employee. Because there are many cultures in the classroom, they gain the feeling for taking appropriate actions when different conflicts occur. And how this could have influenced an organization? All the characteristics stated present major advantage for potential recruiters. As Makau et al. (2017) state, employing the right employees, who engage behaviors that are beneficial to the organization, is very important in today's turbulent environments. Previous literature presents that when

employees engage in OCB the performance of organization enhances in terms of task performance, even profitability. Recruiters benefit with employing IMB students, as they are more OCBO oriented, which means that they engage more in civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship, in terms of Organ's (1988) five dimensions. An employee who works beyond what is contractually agreed is precious for the organization, especially if the organization works in an industry that is extremely volatile and changes due to different global events. If tolerance in an organization is also perceived as positive and desirable, recruiters would be satisfied with the former IMB students, as they show this in sportsmanship of OCB. All this can increase organization's profits, directly or indirectly (Nazari and Farajpur, 2015; Nawaser, Ahmai, Ahmadi and Dorostkar, 2015) and better financial performance in the long run (Chun, Shin, Choi and Kim, 2011). To sum up, my suggestion for the recruiters is to create schemes for employees where they would guide them to engage even more in OCB. For example, by planning training, where the brand of the organization, strategy, vision, and mission are explained and introduced through practical cases. Thus, they can feel the organization energy and direction, and they can identify with it more, as they get to know it better. However, some employees might not identify with the organization in this way, so it is important to reward those, who engage and try to present the organization in a positive light.

Speaking of rewards, employees would feel rewarded if their income is increased due to the extra-role behavior. They would engage more in it, as previous literature proved, in order to get more money. As stated above, not all the employees should be rewarded with income increase due to OCB. They should exhibit true values and feel the connection with the organization in a positive manner. Therefore, my suggestion for organizations is to monitor employee's performance on monthly basis, for example, feedbacks. The organizational scale for evaluation of OCB in employees should be developed and filled out by supervisors. Those charged with human resource management, can then do an analysis and identify behaviors that exceed expectations of the organization, and, furthermore, by using a scale for OCB, identify the behavior. It is important that behaviors should be observed throughout the year, and worthy employees should be rewarded once a year by increasing their paycheck, due to their engagement in OCB.

Valuable information for future recruiters of the IMB students and graduates is also that they perceive workplace flexibility in relationship to OCB. This could help them to understand what future employees actually expect for engaging in OCB. It would help to understand in detail what worker's perspective on workplace flexibility is. It is beneficial for both sides to communicate the expectations about workplace flexibility – what the organization can offer and what employee would like.

When the former students of the IMB get more workplace flexibility, they engage more in OCB. This is important information for future and current recruiters of the students from the

IMB program. Students experience unique pressure during their studies with ongoing projects, which are mostly projects that include real-life implications. Besides project work, they have to study the material provided by various foreign and domestic professors. By experiencing workload at the beginning of their career, they consequently learn how to cope with it in the early stages. With clarification of expectations and possibilities about workplace flexibility at the beginning of the recruitment stage, a hired employee can engage in OCB at the beginning already, because he or she knows what is expected and offered for his or her work.

Considering the effect of the IMB studies described above, the results suggest that former IMB students perceive that they get the flexibility they need, as 76% of respondents answered yes to this question. The most used flexible work arrangements are extra hours, which are not contractually agreed and flextime (choosing when to start or finish work, within the limits set by the management). On average, both are used sometimes by the participants. Extended hours to the weekend are the next in line, used rarely, but close to sometimes on average. Working away from the office for a part or all the working week by maintaining an electronic presence in the office and work at home are used least by the former IMB students (rarely on average). Future recruiters should acknowledge what kind of flexible work arrangements are used by former students. However, future research could improve these results by in-depth analysis of their workplace flexibility habits.

A sure success in the career comes from hard work and dedication. If a person is voluntarily helping new employees, subordinates or even superiors, however, it engages in OCB (factor known as altruism), which enhances the relationships at the workplace. As research has shown, the former IMB students also engage in altruism, when feeling they have workplace flexibility they need. This is another advantage for recruiters and companies, as by helping others, one contributes to group efficiency and overall organizational productivity (Podsakoff et al., 2009). In my experience alone, the work at the IMB was divided among team members accordingly to their knowledge and skills. However, if there was a barrier in the project, the whole team engaged in overcoming it. This is applicable to work in the organizations. However, it is important to note that it should be supported with some benefit. Workplace flexibility is such a benefit. However, Whyman and Petrescu (2014) also identified cost flexibility for organizations in terms of wage cost, pay determination, and incentive pay, not only flexible work arrangements. This is another point which could be further researched among organizations, which employ the former IMB students, and how they agree upon flexible work arrangements.

Workplace flexibility presents a lot of options for the potential recruiters. My first suggestion regarding flexibility at the workplace for employers refers to an explanation of possibilities of workplace flexibility for the newcomers. Employers should clearly state the possibilities potential employers have in order to avoid miscommunication problems because if they

know what they can get, they would more often engage in OCB, as they would feel satisfied with the job and flexibilities itself. My second suggestion for the employers is to talk about workplace flexibilities with their employees, what they can expect according to the nature of their work because jobs are different and not all the organizations could implement the same flexibilities. After an employer collects the suggestions from all the employees, the analysis should be conducted and flexibilities that are perceived as most wanted should be implemented accordingly. In case if the organization already practices workplace flexibilities, it should make a review whether the implemented practices are still relevant. This could be reviewed by making similar research as in the case of organizations with no flexibilities yet. After collecting the answers from the employees, any identified changes should be taken into account. By changing the strategy of workplace flexibility, more employees might engage in OCB, which would lead to higher organizational performance and higher profitability.

In my generation, there were approximately 9 different nationalities – from South and North America to Eastern Europe. One can imagine the cultural differences we experienced during the year when we were schoolmates. Nonetheless, we practiced high civic virtue, as we all actively participated in the activities, which were not obligatory. This developed in citizenship like behavior, as we became one big family. In my opinion, if one can experience this before they start working, they will know what they can get from it and would engage in citizenship like behavior also in the workplace. Recruiters should see this as beneficial. However, the cost of this behavior is the workplace flexibility, as the relationship between workplace flexibility and OCB was proven.

Every person has a different personality and perceives him or herself differently. This study did not find any resemblance between CSE and OCB, which indicates that even if there are different CSEs between former students of the IMB, they will not affect their OCB. The fact puts an additional weight on the results of the relationship between workplace flexibility and OCB. It should influence the understanding of recruiters how to approach valuable workforce, regardless of gender.

## **5.2 Limitations**

This study has some limitations and they should be considered accordingly when analyzing the final results. This study is based on self-reported measures, which affects the results in terms of objectivity. Furthermore, due to self-reported measures, the results could be biased, possibly due to an incomplete understanding of the questions or superficial reading. The survey was accessible on the internet with the provided link, so there is a possibility that current students participated in the survey. However, one of the entries was identified with this limitation and was excluded. Regarding the participants, the limitation is that only the former students of IMB were included. They are a specific group of individuals, as there are

only 25 generations of students in this program. Altogether, there are 734 former IMB students, which is a much lower number in comparison to the other programs at the Faculty of Economics, the University of Ljubljana. They also have different kinds of studies – based on practical cases, which are implemented into real life, and the study year lasts a year, while at the other Master's programs last 2 years. Moreover, the data was collected from June to August, which is a time when potential participants were on holidays or had a high season at work. The next limitation appears due to the accessibility of various generations. I did not have all the contacts of early generations, despite the effort to include as many generations as possible. Therefore, the most recent generations were answering the questionnaire.

### **5.3 Future research**

OCB is a term that was researched widely, as it gained importance from the time it was first mentioned, due to the trends in workforce market. Nevertheless, it was researched in detail. There are still possibilities for further research. Employees engage in OCB more and more, which results in much-needed benefits for employees from the organizational site. As this is a concept that is not new, however, it is still very important. It would be beneficial to research the attributes in detail rather than the result in OCB. I would suggest that further research should examine in more detail how former students of the IMB or other study program or faculty perceive specific OCB factors (altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship).

It would be interesting to research all the five factors of OCB individually, and their effect on workplace flexibility. Workplace flexibility is an important aspect that is present in all the industries and all the workplaces. Furthermore, future research could include different generations, such as generation X, millennials, etc., and their perception of the relationship between workplace flexibility and OCB. Another research could be conducted with including three groups of employees – those at the beginning of a career, those in the middle, and those who are before the retirement. By this, we could identify the needs of employees in different stages of their career, which would be beneficial for recruiters in order to decrease turnover.

## **CONCLUSION**

Employees in today's turbulent environment strive to achieve as much as possible. Workplaces are changing rapidly so both, employees and employers, have to adapt to it. By changing the environment, OCB had developed over the years. At the beginning, OCB was perceived as a behavior which is not contractually agreed. In most recent years, however, such extra-role behaviors became expected by the employers. On the other hand, workplace flexibility is expected of the employees in order to achieve job satisfaction, as individuals are nowadays more conscious about their opportunities when balancing life and work.

Individuals evolve also in terms of their self-perception. As mentioned before, they are more aware of their abilities, rights and what they actually want in life in general.

All the aspects considered as the purpose of this master's thesis were to research the relationship between OCB and workplace flexibility, which are in one way intertwined due to the same changes in the markets. Secondly, the relationship of OCB and CSE was also a part of the purpose, due to changes in self-perception in individuals in recent years.

The results of the research indicate that former students of the IMB studies are more OCBO oriented than OCBI, which means that they engage in behaviors that are directed more towards the organization. Furthermore, there is no significant difference between the female's and the male's perception of OCB. Also, no significant relationship between OCB and CSE was indicated. This means that the individual's core perceptions do not affect extra-role behavior in the organization. OCB is significantly related to workplace flexibility, which is suggested also by previous research. The former students think that when they are introduced to higher workplace flexibility by the organization, then they engage in OCB more. This is not surprising because employees – with the possibility to use flexible work hours, in terms of coming to work when they want (of course with limits set by management) – work weekends or extra hours and work at home or in different locations, and feel more satisfied as they have some control of their time. If they feel more satisfied, they want to give back to the organization, and they give it back by engaging in OCB, behaviors which help the organization to be more productive and profitable.

This research has many aspects. However, the previous research identified a positive relationship between high CSE and OCB. In my case, no significant relationship was detected between those variables. On the other hand, this thesis gives an addition to the literature with regards to the relationship between workplace flexibility and OCB. There was no regression made up until this date about the relationship between workplace flexibility and OCB. This gives the insights to organizations and individuals as well. Organizations can find it beneficial because the results guide them how to direct their employees to achieve better performance by stimulating their one of most important business aspect – the labor force. On the other hand, individuals can understand what they could obtain from the organization and might suggest it to the superiors if there is an option to engage in workplace flexibility practices. They could introduce these results in a positive manner for the organization.



## POVZETEK

Državljsko vedenje v podjetju predstavlja aktivnosti, ki jih zaposleni opravlja za organizacijo, ne da bi za te dodatne aktivnosti v zameno prejel monetarne ali nemonetarne dodatke (Yadav, Ragnekar in Bamel, 2016). Državljsko vedenje so preučevali glede na spol, starost, osebnostne tipe, kvalifikacijo, kulturo, motivacijo in veliko drugih spremenljivk. Državljsko vedenje se pojavlja predvsem med zaposlenimi, ki imajo visoko pripadnost organizaciji (Guha in Chimote, 2012). Zadovoljstvo na delovnem mestu je tudi ena od spremenljivk, ki se zviša, ko se zaposleni vedejo državljansko (Bolino in Tumbley, 2003). Raziskave so tudi pokazale, da naj bi se ženski spol bolj angažiral v samem državljanskem vedenju glede na moški spol (Cameron in Nadler, 2013). Državljsko vedenje je povezano tudi z nižjimi odhodi iz podjetja in nižjim absentizmom, povečano produktivnostjo in splošno učinkovitostjo na ravni podjetja. Državljsko vedenje je pozitivno za uspeh podjetja, ker je posledica osebnostnih, vedenjskih in vodstvenih oziroma timskih faktorjev (Zhang, 2011). Vedenje je podprto predvsem z lastno iniciativo zaposlenega in samozavestjo, ki pa sta povezani z jedrnim samovrednotenjem (Baumeister et al., 2003).

Vpliv na državljansko vedenje ni samo individualen. Nanj vplivajo tudi delovna okolja, saj mora biti zaposleni zadovoljen v svojem delovnem okolju, da se bo vedel državljansko. Trendi kažejo, da je glede na spreminjajočo se naravo dela in delovne sile potrebno uvesti spremembe, kot na primer fleksibilnost na delovnem mestu. Na ta način podjetje podpira uravnoteženost med delom in prostim časom. Tako zaposleni verjame, da je njegova uravnoteženost odvisna od podpore delodajalca (Kossek in Thompson, 2015). Prilagajanje spreminjajočim se trgom in globalna integracija delovnih sistemov sta potrebni v delovnem okolju vsak dan bolj, kar privede do večje količine dela (Kossek in Thompson, 2015). Fleksibilnost pri delu ima večji pomen dandanes, in je v podjetju vključena kot formalno in neformalno pravilo. Podjetja, ki ponujajo fleksibilnost pri delu, se identificirajo svojim zaposlenim, kot da jim ni mar (Grover in Crooker, 1995; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner in Hammer, 2011). S spodbujanjem fleksibilnosti pri delu imajo zaposleni več možnosti, da se sami odločijo kdaj, kje in kako želijo delati, kar omogoča zadovoljstvo pri delu. Da sta fleksibilnost pri delu in zadovoljstvo pri delu pozitivno povezana, so dokazale raziskave (Allen, 2006; Forsyth and Polzer-Debruyne, 2007). Pozitiven odnos s fleksibilnostjo imajo tudi razmerje med delom in življenjem, zavezanost in individualna uspešnost (Yadav, Ragnekar in Bamel, 2016). A do današnjih dni ni veliko raziskav, ki bi naslovile razmerje med fleksibilnostjo pri delu in državljanskim vedenjem v neposrednem smislu.

Fleksibilnost pri delu lahko predstavlja tudi rešitev za visoke stroške odhajanja zaposlenih iz podjetja, saj so odhodi negativno povezani z državljanskim vedenjem (torej, bolj kot so ljudje usmerjeni k državljanskem vedenju, manj je možnosti, da zapustijo podjetje). Raziskava Boushey in Glynn (2012) je na vzorcu ameriških zaposlenih pokazala, da so

stroški odhoda zaposlenega visoki (do 20 % zaposlenčeve letne plače), kar ni zanemarljiv odstotek.

Glavni namen te magistrske naloge je raziskati razmerje med jedrnim samovrednotenjem in državljskim vedenjem ter med fleksibilnostjo pri delu in državljskim vedenjem. Za organizacijo, kjer so ambiciozni zaposleni na prvem mestu, bi bila primerna oseba, ki ima visoko stopnjo jedrnega samovrednotenja, saj bi tako dodala svoj delež k državljskemu vedenju. S spodbujanjem fleksibilnosti pri delu bi se zaposleni bolj angažirali v državljskem vedenju, saj bi se vrednost njihove sreče povečala (Golden, Henly, in Lambert, 2013). Že predhodno sem poudarila, da je sreča zaposlenega na delovnem mestu pomembna in prav tako tudi zadovoljstvo na delovnem mestu. A kljub osredotočenosti na zaposlenega je potrebno opazovati in upoštevati tudi implikacije na samo organizacijo. Tako je cilj moje magistrske naloge, da analiziram percepcijo posameznikov na državljsko vedenje. Želim identificirati vplive fleksibilnosti pri delu in jedrnega samovrednotenja na državljsko vedenje. Raziskovalno vprašanje se glasi: kako fleksibilnost pri delu in jedrno samovrednotenje vplivata na državljsko vedenje?

Da bi dosegla cilj in namen te magistrske naloge, sem najprej opravila pregled obsežne literature, ki je bila tudi temelj za snovanje samega vprašalnika (vprašalnik je bil zastavljen na skalah in vprašanjih, ki so bili že uporabljeni v predhodni literaturi). Magistrska naloga je sestavljena iz pregleda literature, najprej državljsko vedenje, kjer bi še posebej izpostavila finančne implikacije za podjetja glede na raziskave. Nadalje sledi pregled literature spremenljivk fleksibilnost pri delu in jedrno samovrednotenje. Nato je opisana sama raziskava, kaj je namen, cilj in kakšno je raziskovalno vprašanje. Na koncu so predstavljene tudi hipoteze. Poglavje metodologije se prične z opisom vzorca (omejila sem se na bivše študente IMB programa na Ekonomski fakulteti v Ljubljani), kako sem zbirala in analizirala podatke v SPSS programu. Na koncu so predstavljeni empirični rezultati magistrske naloge. Opravljena je tudi diskusija na podlagi literature in rezultatov. Dodatno so predstavljene omejitve in možnosti za prihodnje raziskave.

In kakšni so zaključki analiz in raziskav v tej magistrski nalogi? Zaposleni si želijo uspeti v današnjem nenehno spreminjajočem se okolju, tako v službi kot v zasebnem življenju. Spremembe ne vplivajo samo na zaposlene, temveč tudi na organizacije kot take. S spremembo okolja se je v začetku 80. let prejšnjega stoletja začelo razvijati državljsko vedenje. Najprej je to vedenje predstavljalo neko dodatno vedenje, ki ni bilo določeno s pogodbo o zaposlitvi. A v zadnjih letih se to spreminja, saj so že v zaposlitvenih oglasih zabeležena vedenja, ki so potrebna za državljsko vedenje. Dejansko pa imajo zaposleni več možnosti za fleksibilnost pri delu in s tem lahko dosežejo zadovoljstvo pri delu, saj je današnja generacija zaposlenih bolj ozaveščena glede uravnovešenja življenja in samega dela.

Rezultati torej kažejo, da so bivši študentje IMB programa bolj državljansko orientirani proti organizaciji kot proti posamezniku, kar pomeni, da bolj sodelujejo v vedenjih, ki so usmerjena v samo organizacijo, npr. vzdržujejo dobro ime podjetja zunaj organizacije, čutijo pripadnost organizaciji... Nadalje, statistično značilnih razlik med spoloma in percepcijo državljanskega vedenja ni. Dodatno ni bilo nobenega statistično značilnega razmerja med državljanskim vedenjem in jedrnim samovrednotenjem, kar pomeni, da jedrno samovrednotenje nima vpliva na državljansko vedenje v podjetju.

Na drugi strani je državljansko vedenje statistično značilno in pozitivno usmerjeno v fleksibilnost na delovnem mestu. Bivši študentje IMB programa zaznavajo večje možnosti za fleksibilnost pri delu kot nekaj pozitivnega, da se zaradi tega bolj vključujejo v državljansko vedenje. Seveda to ni presenetljivo, ker so tisti zaposleni, ki imajo možnost fleksibilnega delovnega časa, delovnih vikendov, dela od doma ali iz drugih lokacij, ki niso v samih pisarnah podjetja, bolj zadovoljni, saj imajo pregled in kontrolo nad svojim časom in delom. Če so bolj zadovoljni, želijo vrniti dobro organizaciji in to vračajo prek državljanskega vedenja. To vedenje pomembno vpliva na produktivnost in tudi na profitabilnost v podjetju.

Sama raziskava predstavlja dodano vrednost dosednji literaturi, kar se tiče povezave med fleksibilnostjo pri delu in državljanskim vedenjem. Slednje je koristno predvsem za organizacije, saj sami rezultati in predlogi v tej magistrski nalogi usmerjajo, kako pripraviti zaposlene, da sodelujejo v državljanskem vedenju. Tako podjetje doseže boljšo uspešnost, ker dejansko motivira enega svojih najpomembnejših resursov – zaposlene. Na drugi strani lahko z danimi rezultati posamezniki razumejo, kaj lahko pridobijo s strani organizacije kot delodajalca.

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## **APPENDIXES**



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## Appendix A: Questionnaire

My name is Ajda Blažič, and I am a student of Full Time Master Programme in Management and Organization (IMB) at Faculty of Economics, University of Ljubljana. I am conducting a research within my master thesis, which is mentored by Associate Professor Katarina Katja Mihelič, PhD, and it is about organizational citizenship behaviour. I would kindly ask you, to take 10 minutes of your time and fill out completely anonymous questionnaire. All data is confidential and its usage is strictly for the purpose of the research. In case you have any questions regarding questionnaire, you can contact me via email: [ajda.blazic@gmail.com](mailto:ajda.blazic@gmail.com). I would like to thank you in advance for taking time in completing the survey.

*Below are several statements about workplace flexibility with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item by marking the appropriate level of agreement or disagreement. In case you are unemployed at the moment, please recall situations from the time of your employment.*

**1. Workplace Flexibility: Please rate if you agree or disagree with the statement below:**

I have the flexibility I need at work. YES/NO

**2. Flexible Work Arrangements: Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of these statements!**

	<b>1 Never</b>	<b>2 Rarely</b>	<b>3 Sometimes</b>	<b>4 Very Often</b>	<b>5 Always</b>
I extend work hours during weekends.					
I work extra hours (more than contractual agreed).					
I work full-time, but I choose when I start or finish, within limits set by management (flex-time).					
I work from home in regular working hours.					
I work away from the office for some/all of working week, maintaining an electronic presence in the office (tele-working).					

*Below are several statements about organizational citizenship behaviour with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item by marking the appropriate level of agreement or*



*disagreement. In case you are unemployed at the moment, please recall situations from the time of your employment.*

**3. OCBI: Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of these statements!**

	<b>1 Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>2 Disagree</b>	<b>3 Neutral</b>	<b>4 Agree</b>	<b>5 Strongly Agree</b>
I help others who have been absent.					
I willingly give time to help others who have work-related problems.					
I adjust work schedule to accommodate other employee's requests for time off.					
I go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.					
I show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.					
I give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.					
I assist others with their duties.					
I share personal property with others to help their work.					

**4. OCBO: Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of these statements!**

	<b>1 Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>2 Disagree</b>	<b>3 Neutral</b>	<b>4 Agree</b>	<b>5 Strongly Agree</b>
I attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.					
I keep up with developments in the organization.					
I defend the organization when other employees criticize it.					
I show pride when representing the organization in public.					
I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.					
I express loyalty toward the organization.					
I take action to protect the organization from potential problems.					
I demonstrate concern about the image for the organization.					

*Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item by marking the appropriate level of agreement or disagreement.*

**5. CSE: Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of these statements!**

	<b>1 Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>2 Disagree</b>	<b>3 Neutral</b>	<b>4 Agree</b>	<b>5 Strongly Agree</b>
I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.					
Sometimes I feel depressed.					
When I try, I generally succeed.					
Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless.					
I complete tasks successfully.					
Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work.					
Overall, I am satisfied with myself.					
I am filled with doubts about my competence.					
I determine what will happen in my life.					
I do not feel in control of my success in my career.					
I am capable of coping with most of my problems.					
There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me.					

*Finally, please answer questions about yourself.*

Gender: Male/Female

How old are you (in years)? \_

Which of the following categories best describes your employment status?

- a) Employed full-time.
- b) Employed part-time.
- c) Self-employed.
- d) Unemployed.

What is the highest level of education you have completed up until this date?

- a) Bachelor's degree
- b) Master's degree
- c) Doctoral degree

How many years in total have you been working (after completing IMB)? \_\_\_\_

What are your basic or contractual hours each week in your job, excluding any paid or unpaid overtime? *In case you are unemployed at the moment, please recall situations from the time of your employment.* \_\_\_\_

How many hours do you usually work in your job each week, including overtime or extra hours (excluding meal breaks and time taken to travel to work)? *In case you are unemployed at the moment, please recall situations from the time of your employment.* \_\_\_\_

What is/was your job position?

- a) Leading position (Partner/Director; Executive Officer; Vice-President; Manager)
- b) Directly responsible for several groups of employees (Head of particular area of work/group)
- c) Directly responsible for one group of employees (Head of the team/project/group)
- d) Part of particular area of work/team/group
- e) Other:

Please mark your yearly income:

- a) Less than 9.500 EUR
- b) More than 9.500EUR, but less than 19.000 EUR
- c) More than 19.000 EUR, but less than 28.500 EUR
- d) More than 28.500 EUR, but less than 38.000 EUR
- e) More than 38.000 EUR, but less than 47.500 EUR
- f) More than 47.500 EUR
- g) I do not want to answer.

*You answered all questions. Your participation helped me in acquiring important research data for my Master thesis. Thank you very much for your answers. In case you are interested in the results of the survey, I can send them to you via email (please enter your email below).*

## Appendix B: Full measures of scales used in questionnaire

<b>Flexible work arrangements (Stavrou, 2005)</b>
Used = 1; not used = 0
Weekend work
Shift work
Overtime
Annual hour contracts
Part-time work
Job sharing
Flextime
Temporary employment
Fixed term contracts
Home-based work
Tele-working
<b>OCB (Lee and Allen, 2002)</b>
<b>OCBI</b>
7-point Likert scale (1 = never, 7 = always)
Help others who have been absent.
Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.
Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.
Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.
Give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems.
Assist others with their duties.
Share personal property with others to help their work.
<b>OCBO</b>
7-point Likert scale (1 = never, 7 = always)
Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.
Keep up with developments in the organization.
Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.
Show pride when representing the organization in public.
Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.
Express loyalty toward the organization.
Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.
Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.
<b>Core self-evaluation scale (Judge et al., 2003)</b>
5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree)

I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.
Sometimes I feel depressed.
When I try, I generally succeed.
Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless.
I complete tasks successfully.
Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work.
Overall, I am satisfied with myself.
I am filled with doubts about my competence.
I determine what will happen in my life.
I do not feel in control of my success in my career.
I am capable of coping with most of my problems.
There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me.

## **Appendix C: Abbreviations**

<b>CSE</b>	Core Self-Evaluation
<b>CSES</b>	Core Self Evaluation Scales
<b>DOCB</b>	Discretionary Organizational Citizenship Behavior
<b>FWA</b>	Flexible Work Arrangements
<b>IMB</b>	International Full-Time Master Programme in Management and Organization, Faculty of Economics, University of Ljubljana
<b>NOCB</b>	Normative Organizational Citizenship Behavior
<b>OCB</b>	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
<b>OCBI</b>	Individual directed Organizational Citizenship Behavior
<b>OCBO</b>	Organizational directed Organizational Citizenship Behavior
<b>ROCB</b>	Rule-bound Organizational Citizenship Behavior