

T.C.  
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SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ  
İŞLETME (İNGİLİZCE) ANABİLİM DALI  
ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNGİLİZCE) BİLİM DALI

**“HOW MAY I HELP YOU?”**  
**THE ROLE OF SELF-CONSTRUAL, WORK DESIGN AND ORGANIZATIONAL**  
**CLIMATE IN PREDICTING PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR IN ORGANIZATIONS**

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İDİL AYÇA BÜLBÜL

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İstanbul, 2013

**MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ**  
**SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ**

**TEZ ONAY BELGESİ**

İŞLETME (İNGİLİZCE) Anabilim Dalı ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNGİLİZCE) Bilim Dalı DOKTORA öğrencisi İDİL AYÇA BÜLBÜL'nin "HOW MAY I HELP YOU?" THE ROLE OF SELF- CONSTRUAL, WORK DESIGN AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE IN PREDICTING PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR IN ORGANIZATIONS adlı tez çalışması, Enstitümüz Yönetim Kurulunun 22.05.2013 tarih ve 2013-17/34 sayılı kararıyla oluşturulan jüri tarafından oy birliği / oy çokluğu ile Doktora Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **“HOW MAY I HELP YOU?” THE ROLE OF SELF-CONSTRUAL, WORK DESIGN AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE IN PREDICTING PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR IN ORGANIZATIONS**

Prosocial behaviors are defined as acts which are performed by an individual or a group and are beneficial to other people either at the individual or group level. An act qualifies as prosocial regardless of the motivation of the agent or the fact that the act was voluntary or a role requirement. With this broad definition, prosocial behaviors in organizations constitute a less researched topic in organizational literature. Rather, it was conventionally operationalized as organizational citizenship behaviors, helping others or willingness to cooperate. In this respect, the present study constitutes one of the scarce attempts to operationalize prosocial work behaviors with its broader scope and aims to explore the antecedents of prosocial work behaviors at three levels of generality. Self-construal, social aspects of work design and organizational climate were explored as likely antecedents of prosocial work behaviors at personal, task and organizational levels, respectively. A total of 308 employees, working in white-collar jobs from various industries participated in the study. Among the antecedents tested, collective self-construal, relational self-construal, interaction, and cooperative climate were found to contribute significantly to prosocial behaviors in organizations, while the effects of individual self-construal, interdependence, caring and competitive climate were not found to be significant. The findings were discussed in terms of their possible individual as well as organizational and societal outcomes.

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## ÖZET

### **“SİZE NASIL YARDIMCI OLABİLİRİM?” ÖRGÜTLERDE OLUMLU SOSYAL DAVRANIŞIN BELİRLEYİCİLERİ OLARAK BENLİK KURGUSU, İŞ DİZAYNI VE ÖRGÜT İKLİMİNİN ROLÜ**

Olumlu sosyal davranışlar bir kişi veya grup tarafından gerçekleştirilen ve başkalarına birey veya grup olarak faydası olan davranışlar olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Olumlu sosyal davranış, davranışı gerçekleştiren kişinin motivasyonundan bağımsız olarak ve davranışın gönüllü olarak mı yoksa kişinin rolü gereği mi gerçekleştirildiğine bakılmaksızın tanımlanır. Bu geniş tanımla örgütlerde olumlu sosyal davranış, örgütsel yazında görece az çalışılmış bir alan olmuş, daha çok örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı, başkalarına yardım veya işbirliği niyeti olarak ele alınmıştır. Bu bakımdan bu çalışma, işyerinde olumlu sosyal davranışı geniş bir perspektiften ele alan ender örneklerden biridir ve olumlu sosyal davranışın öncellerini üç farklı düzeyde incelemektedir. Kişisel düzeyde benlik kurgusu, iş düzeyinde iş dizaynının sosyal özellikleri ve örgütsel düzeyde de örgüt iklimi örgütlerde olumlu sosyal davranışın öncelleri olarak ele alınmıştır. Çalışma farklı sektörlerden toplam 308 beyaz yakalı çalışanın katılımıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Etkileri incelenen öncellerden toplulukçu benlik kurgusu, ilişkisel benlik kurgusu, etkileşim ve işbirliği ikliminin örgütlerde olumlu sosyal davranışı anlamlı olarak yordadığı ancak bireyci benlik kurgusu, karşılıklı bağımlılık, ilgi ve rekabet ikliminin etkilerinin anlamlı düzeyde olmadığı görülmüştür. Bulgular bireysel, örgütsel ve toplumsal sonuçları açısından tartışılmıştır.

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## INTRODUCTION

The history of organizational studies as a scholarly discipline, is relatively short compared to that of the individual issues they deal with. For example, although personality theories as well as their philosophical roots date back to much earlier, studies on personality with an organizational perspective are relatively recent. This is partly due the general historical and societal conjuncture which made organizations, as well as several forms of interactions that they engender, more and more salient in our daily lives. Considering that organizations are just another nest for human interaction, every issue addressed with an organizational perspective has also implications for every other domain that human interaction takes place, and vice versa. Yet, some topics are either left confined to narrow specialty areas and get unpronounced elsewhere or occupy vast grounds in terms of the multitude of interested parties but suffer from a lack of effective communication among them. Interestingly enough, prosocial behaviors occupy both these categories to some extent. Ranging from philosophical to biological, several perspectives are offered to study and explain prosocial behaviors. While philosophical studies deal mainly with the moral component of prosocial behaviors, studies with an economic point of view focus mostly on the reciprocal and (ir)rational nature of these behaviors. At the other end of spectrum, biological studies cover a wider range from animal studies to evolutionary perspectives. At the intersection of these various disciplines, the study of prosocial behaviors suffer from the lack of knowledge transfer among fields.

Prosocial behavior, as will be discussed shortly, is not only beneficial for the receiving end, it also has multiple benefits for the agent performing it. In terms of its focal point, the present study can be seen as an humble attempt to reflect on one of the fundamental issues of work life and to extract an integrative piece of knowledge upon which the agents of organizational life can construct a more nourishing and fulfilling environment both for themselves and for the society in general. To this end, among the possible antecedents of prosocial behavior in organizations, three are addressed in the present study; self-construal, work design and organizational climate.

There are a multitude of definitions for prosocial behavior. Broadly defined, it “represents acts that are defined by some significant segment of society and/ or one’s social group as beneficial to other people” (Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin & Schroeder, 2005; p. 366).

In their review Penner et al. (2005) point to several perspectives that may offer an answer to how and why prosocial acts occur. These include evolutionary theory, biological and genetic bases of action, developmental processes and personality factors. Although they provided an exhaustive review of the mechanisms by which prosocial behaviors were explained in general, within organizational contexts, additional mechanisms may be operational in explaining prosocial behaviors. In addition to individual differences, being the core aspects of one’s work life, task related factors such as how the work is designed and environmental factors such as organizational culture or climate might contribute to the occurrence of prosocial acts in organizations.

Independent of possible mechanisms that enable prosocial behaviors, they propose three levels of analysis, being micro, meso and macro levels. At the micro level, researchers focus on the intrapersonal processes underlying prosocial behavior. Motivational or evolutionary bases of prosocial behavior are examples of such an approach. Meso level of analysis includes prosocial behavior at the interpersonal level, such as one person helping another. At the macro level, the focus is on the group level and on the collective outcomes of prosocial acts. Considering different antecedents and outcomes that are studied at these different levels of analysis, the scope of the present study is limited to the meso level of analysis, that is, prosocial behavior at the interpersonal level.

Given the definition of prosocial behavior it seems obvious to tell whether an act would qualify as prosocial. Yet, prosocial acts in organizational settings can cover a wide range from lending an office supply to a colleague to whistleblowing. Within this range, there are many gray areas where benefit for one would mean harm for another, or worse, for the organization as a whole. To complicate the matter further, there may also be a time component involved. While helping out a colleague may be beneficial for both parties involved and for the organization in the short run, this may not be the case in the

long run. The reverse may also hold true. Moreover, within organizational limits, prosocial acts may benefit either a specific individual or the organization as a whole, or both. However in most of the cases, it may not be easy to identify the beneficiary of a prosocial act.

There are also cases where it is not easy to separate the possible beneficiaries one from another. Who benefits from a prosocial act performed within organizational context in a given set of conditions; the individual, the organization or the society in general? An extreme example of such cases is the work done by a group of nuclear power plant employees, later called as the Fukushima 50. Following the earthquake and the tsunami that hit Japan in March 2011, around 200 employees (working in shifts of 50, hence called as the Fukushima 50) of the Fukushima Daiichi Nuclear Power Plant volunteered to stay on the site to save the plant from a possible melt-down, despite increased amount of radiation and risk of death (Wikipedia, 2011). Although the details of this incident can be analyzed from various perspectives, it relates to the rationale behind the present study by two major points. First, it is an extreme case of prosocial behavior, in the sense that one's life is at stake, hinting that a purely altruistic motivation -a prime topic for a heated philosophical discussion, but not within the scope of the present study- may exist. Second, it is a case where prosocial behavior within the organization extends to the wider society, in the sense that the melt-down, if occurred, would have had a major devastating impact on the environment and on the society.

Although the Fukushima 50 represents a drastic example, other, rather daily, mundane examples of prosocial work behavior and their positive impacts on the non-work domains are being documented more frequently in recent years. For example, using citizenship behaviors as the general framework, two recent studies identified mood regulation effect of altruistic behaviors compared to courteous behaviors. In the first study, the researchers used an experience sampling methodology for a period of three weeks and documented mood regulating effects of altruistic behaviors compared to courteous behaviors. More specifically, the participants' moods were assessed once in the morning and twice during the next 7.5 hours, that is, during the work day. Altruistic behaviors and courteous behaviors were assessed twice during the workday.

The measures taken during the work day were taken at random intervals. They found that altruistic behaviors preceded by a negative mood were more likely to be followed by a positive mood than courteous behaviors were. Moreover, the effects of altruistic behaviors were more pronounced for extroverted individuals (Glomb, Bhawe, Miner & Wall, 2011).

Mood regulating effects of altruistic behaviors over courteous behaviors were also observed in the second study. However, the second study differs from the first one by documenting that the mood regulating effects of altruistic behaviors extended well beyond the work day. Again, altruistic behaviors preceded by a negative mood were more likely to be followed by a positive mood than courteous behaviors were. Also, coupled with competence perceptions of the employee, performing prosocial acts at work was found to predict positive affect at home, at the end of the work day (Sonnentag and Grant, 2012). Taken together, the mood regulating effects of prosocial behaviors in organizations can extend to the general well-being of the individual and of his or her immediate environment.

Therefore, on the practical side, the distant implications of the present study may lead us toward organizational practices which can nourish prosocial behavior both within and outside the organization. Having a rather exploratory nature, the present study aims to map the antecedents of prosocial work behavior. To this end, among the possible antecedents of prosocial work behavior, self-construal, work design and organizational climate are investigated. The variables chosen to be studied are thought as operating at three different levels of generality, therefore included in the present study. Self-construal, operating at the lowest level of generality is thought as the most specific aspect possible to affect prosocial work behavior. At an intermediate level of generality, social aspects of work design are included in the present study. Finally, organizational climate, operating at an even more general level is investigated in terms of its effects on prosocial work behavior. This way, it was ensured that each variable to be tested would be operating either at a personal (self-construal), task (social aspects of work design) or organizational (organizational climate) level.

## **1.1. PROSOCIAL WORK BEHAVIOR**

As mentioned previously, prosocial behavior is one of the topics which both benefits and suffers from the multitude of approaches adopted to study it. At one side, it benefits from the richness of alternative frameworks (such as evolutionary, developmental or sociological), however at the other side, it suffers from the lack of communication between the adopters of these different frameworks. Therefore, a general review of studies on prosocial behavior is provided in the next sections, followed by a review of different definitions and studies in the organizational field.

### **1.1.1. Prosocial behavior**

Batson and Powell (2003) identify several theoretical approaches offered to explain why humans behave prosocially. According to social learning theory, people behave prosocially because of their learning history. Direct rewards and punishments, relative rewards (reward of the behavior minus its cost) and observational learning (seeing the consequences of others' prosocial acts) contribute to the individual's decision to act prosocially. Norms and roles, especially the norm of reciprocity are also proposed to account for people's prosocial acts. Norms, being a society's unwritten rules, especially on social behavior, define who should act prosocially, when, under which circumstances, and towards whom. People are born into this system of rules which defines the boundaries and conditions of prosocial behavior and over time, they adopt these socially acceptable ways of prosocial behavior. Among these norms, the norm of reciprocity can be treated as a special case since it also bears the core of equity and social exchange. Indeed, researchers working on prosocial behavior and prosocial motivation make frequent use of social exchange theory either to base their research on or to interpret their findings.

According to the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), all social exchanges can be interpreted with an economic utilitarian perspective. While the exchange value of a good or service is explicitly stated and negotiated in an economic exchange, social exchanges are rather ambiguous in terms of assessing the exchange value. In terms of

prosocial actions, it becomes even more so because it involves voluntary actions without a predefined content or limit.

For example, Zhang and Epley (2009) focusing on exchange relationships and on the ambiguity associated with the exchange value of prosocial actions, examined the dynamics of prosocial reciprocity in a series of six experiments. They proposed that people at the giving and receiving ends of a prosocial act may value the same act differently depending on either the cost of the action or the benefit gained from it. People at the giving end would be more likely to value the act in terms of its cost, such as extra time and effort, whereas people at the receiving end would be more likely to assess the value of the prosocial act in terms of the benefit they received from it. Further, they suggested that in case of mismatch between the two, both parties would experience difficulty in appropriately reciprocating the prosocial act in question. Indeed, this egocentric gap in assessing the value of a prosocial act was present in all the cases they investigated including imagined exchanges, recalled exchanges and actual laboratory exchanges.

Again, with a social exchange perspective, a possible way to overcome this asymmetrical exchange values attributed to prosocial acts is to remember that the value of an action can be determined by subtracting the costs associated with it from the rewards it provides. Although people at the giving and receiving ends of prosocial acts were found to value these acts differentially, the definition of reward becomes important especially in case of such asymmetries. Reward, in this specific case, refers to prosocial motivation. In other words, by performing a prosocial act, in addition to the expectation of future reciprocation, the agent gets also rewarded by fulfilling a motivation that led to the prosocial act in the first place.

Although not focal to the present study, different types of prosocial motivation are of utmost importance in order to better grasp the factors which may affect prosocial behavior directly or indirectly, as well as their interrelationships. In his recent work, Batson (2011) identifies four main motivations to act prosocially (or benefiting another individual or group). He also classifies several theories offered to account for

prosocial behaviors under these four main motivational groups. People can behave prosocially out of egoistic, altruistic, collectivistic, or principistic motivations.

Egoistically motivated prosocial behavior refers to the behaviors that have self-benefit as their ultimate goal. Regardless of their consequences, these behaviors have the self-benefit of the agent in common. Whether they manifest themselves as a volunteer activity that the agent thinks it will look nice on his or her resume or as a charitable donation for which the agent expects public recognition, these prosocial acts come to life out of egoistic motivations. In an organizational setting, an employee who voluntarily assists a coworker expecting a future reciprocation of the favor also presents an example of prosocial behavior with an egoistic motivation.

Altruistic motivation refers to the ultimate goal of increasing the welfare of one or more individuals without aiming self-benefit. According to the empathy-altruism hypothesis people behave prosocially through empathic concern. Witnessing another person experiencing a hardship is thought to motivate prosocial behavior which is performed to reduce the other person's suffering. In that way, empathic concern is considered as a source of altruistic motivation. A fine distinction should be made here. Although similar at first sight, prosocial behavior enacted with the aim to relieve the distress caused by someone else's hardship, could still be considered as egoistically motivated rather than altruistically motivated. If the situation is perceived as a personal source of distress, such as the unpleasant feelings resulting from seeing someone suffer, and if the main motivation of the prosocial act is to relieve oneself from that distress, the prosocial behavior in question is thought to be egoistically motivated. In an organizational setting, an employee who voluntarily assists a coworker without the expectation of reciprocation either from the immediate or a distant beneficiary (i.e. the coworker in need or the organization as a whole) presents an example of prosocial behavior with an altruistic motivation. Although the underlying motivation is a less researched component compared to the actual enactment of altruistic behaviors in organizations, organizational citizenship behaviors are considered as mainly altruistic in nature.

Prosocial motivation which grows out of collectivism presents itself in behaviors that benefit a group which may range from two people to humankind as a whole. It is both closer to egoism since the group usually includes the agent and also to altruism since the beneficiaries at large might have no connection to the agent at all. In an organizational setting, a typical example would be an employee who helps a fellow worker in order to achieve a departmental goal. In this case, although the immediate beneficiary of the prosocial act is the individual, the goal is to benefit the department as a whole. Therefore, this prosocial act is considered as collectivistically motivated.

Batson (2011) defines principlism, the fourth source of prosocial motivation, as the “concern to uphold some moral principle, for example, a principle of fairness or justice, or the utilitarian principle of greatest good for the greatest number” (p.220). In an organizational setting, this type of motivation is exemplified in the behavior of an employee who helps a colleague thinking that helping one’s colleagues is a moral imperative of work life.

Another account of prosocial motivation applied to the work setting is offered by Grant and Berg (2010). According to their account, prosocial motivation can be studied at different levels of generality. In terms of generality, following the proposition offered by Vallerand (1997) regarding the levels at which motivation operates, Grant and Berg (2010) define prosocial motivation using three hierarchical levels, global, contextual and situational. Global prosocial motivation is defined as one’s general concern about benefiting others and can be conceptualized in terms of prosocial values. Contextual prosocial motivation is more specific in scope and can be defined as one’s desire to benefit a predefined category or group of people through a particular occupation, job or role. As the most specific type of prosocial motivation, situational prosocial motivation refers to the desire to benefit a given group or individual in a specific situation. For example, a nurse’s general motivation to help people in general can be considered as a global motivation while the motivation to help the patients constitutes a contextual motivation. Most specifically, the motivation to ease the pain of a given patient is a situational motivation.

Basing their line of thinking on these different levels of generality, Grant and Berg (2010) identified the contextual and dispositional antecedents as well as the individual and organizational consequences of prosocial motivation at work. As antecedents, they point to relational job design, and collectivistic norms and rewards as organizational variables. Other-oriented values, agreeableness and conscientiousness appear as individual difference variables affecting prosocial motivation. Consequences of prosocial motivation include persistence performance and productivity and organizational citizenship behaviors.

As it is apparent from the previous discussion, it is not easy to separate prosocial behavior and prosocial motivation from one another. Yet, for the purpose of the current study, the focus will be on the prosocial behavior and its possible antecedents as far as they manifest themselves with a survey methodology. The motivation of the agent can only be inferred or be speculated about based on the behavioral evidence that the study will present. Nonetheless, motivation and behavior are inseparable in the sense that only by simultaneously focusing on both may clear the path leading to a better understanding of the processes whereby individuals choose to behave prosocially or not.

A second gray area that the field presents involves the definition and study of prosocial behavior in organizational settings. One can define the literature on prosocial behavior in organizations as, at best, fragmented. Although common themes emerge, prosocial organizational behaviors are operationalized in several different ways such as organizational citizenship behaviors, role-prescribed behavior (e.g. Bettencourt & Brown, 1997), extra-role behavior (e.g. Bettencourt & Brown, 1997), organizational spontaneity or cooperation (e.g. Vos & Zee, 2006; Bettencourt & Brown, 1997), to name a few.

### **1.1.2. Prosocial behavior in organizations**

The study of prosocial behavior in organizations can be dated back to Katz and Kahn's (1966) conceptualization of spontaneous behaviors, as engaging in discretionary

behaviors thereby going above and beyond the job requirements. Katz and Kahn (1966) suggested that these spontaneous behaviors were an essential part of organizational survival and effectiveness. The rather recent concepts matching the essence of “going above and beyond” formal job requirements, include prosocial organizational behavior (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986), extra-role behavior (Van Dyne et al.,1995), contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993) and organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988). Among these, prosocial organizational behaviors are of particular importance for the present study since it encompasses a wider range of behaviors compared to each one of these concepts.

Brief and Motowidlo (1986) defined prosocial organizational behavior as “behavior which is (a) performed by a member of an organization, (b) directed towards an individual, group or organization with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organizational role, and (c) performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organization toward which it is directed” (p. 711).

With such an encompassing definition, they identify three axes along which prosocial organizational behaviors may vary. First, they differentiate between organizationally functional and dysfunctional prosocial behaviors. Second, they make the distinction between role prescribed and extra-role prosocial behaviors. Finally, they point to the receiving end of prosocial acts by distinguishing between individual (either co-workers or customers) and organizational recipients of prosocial acts.

Considering these distinctions they identify thirteen specific categories of prosocial organizational behavior. These categories include (1) assisting co-workers with job-related matters, (2) assisting co-workers with personal matters, (3) showing leniency in personnel decisions, (4) providing services or products to consumers in organizationally consistent ways, (5) providing services or products to consumers in organizationally inconsistent ways, (6) helping consumers with personal matters unrelated to organizational services or products, (7) complying with organizational values, policies and regulations, (8) suggesting procedural, administrative, or organizational improvements, (9) objecting to improper directives, procedures, or policies, (10) putting forth extra effort on the job, (11) volunteering for additional

assignments, (12) staying with the organization despite temporary hardships, and (13) representing the organization favorably to outsiders.

Although comprehensive, such an approach (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) is not common in the literature for prosocial behaviors in organizations. Partly due to the hardship in operationalizing some of the sub-categories such as showing leniency in personnel decisions or staying with the organization despite temporary hardships, for instance, their approach did not produce much empirical research. Rather, when studying prosocial behavior in organizations, the common approach is to use several related concepts interchangeably. Among these, organizational citizenship is probably the most frequently chosen as a measure of prosocial behavior in organizations.

Prosocial behavior, organizational citizenship behavior and organizational spontaneity are used almost interchangeably in the organizational literature. This is partly due to the broad definition of prosocial organizational behavior offered by Brief and Motowidlo (1986). While organizational citizenship behaviors are defined 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" (Organ, 1988; p. 4), organizational spontaneity is defined as voluntary acts that facilitate the accomplishment of organizational goals (George & Brief, 1992).

Compared to the set of behaviors offered to define prosocial organizational behaviors, both organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational spontaneity offer a more manageable set of behaviors, especially when it comes to identify and assess them in organizational settings. In effect, organizational citizenship and organizational spontaneity are mostly being used as proxies for prosocial organizational behavior to be able to better operationalize it.

As delineated by George & Brief (1992) the three concepts differ on several behavioral dimensions. While citizenship behaviors and organizational spontaneity include only organizationally functional behaviors, prosocial behaviors include both organizationally functional and dysfunctional behaviors, such as showing leniency in personnel decisions. While organizational spontaneity only includes extra-role

behaviors, citizenship behaviors and prosocial behaviors include both role-prescribed and extra-role behaviors. While citizenship behaviors are defined by being outside of the reward system, prosocial behaviors and organizational spontaneity may be rewarded by organizational means. Finally, while organizational spontaneity only includes active behaviors, citizenship behaviors and prosocial behaviors include both active and passive behaviors.

In addition, using prosocial behavior as an umbrella term, researchers studied several related concepts including but not limited to role-prescribed behavior (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997), extra-role behavior (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997), knowledge sharing or cooperation (Vos & Zee, 2006; Bettencourt & Brown, 1997).

Bierhoff (2002) interprets this multitude of approaches as originating from the need to focus on the functional aspects of prosocial behavior in order to offer procedural, administrative or organizational advice on related issues. With a similar concern, the present study aims to dissociate prosocial behaviors in terms of the intended beneficiaries.

### **1.1.3. Prosocial behavior with regard to its beneficiaries**

The definition of prosocial behaviors makes an implicit reference to a bipolar structure. While one person stands at the giving end of a prosocial act, the other one stands at the receiving end. Although the focal point happens to be the prosocial act for its own sake, several contextual and individual factors also contribute to the equation, especially depending on the people at both ends of the act.

Based on the observation that the majority of the studies on prosocial behavior in organizations do not explicitly differentiate among the beneficiaries of the prosocial acts, McNeely and Meglino (1994) reasoned that different processes might be in action for prosocial behaviors which have specific individuals as the beneficiaries and for prosocial behaviors which have the organization as the beneficiary. Following this line of thought, they hypothesized that situational variables (i.e. perceived reward equity and

recognition for desirable behavior) would be operational in predicting prosocial behavior intended to benefit the organization and dispositional variables (i.e. concern for others and empathy) would better predict prosocial behaviors intended to benefit specific individuals. Indeed, the findings confirmed their hypotheses regarding the differential contribution of dispositional and situational variables to prosocial acts with individually and organizational beneficiaries.

Another issue where a conceptual clarification might prove useful is the distinction between the recipient (e.g. toward whom the act is directed) of the prosocial act and its beneficiary (e.g. who benefits from the act). Although the two coincide most of the time, such as in the case of helping a co-worker, prosocial behavior can be defined along two axes representing who the beneficiary is and toward whom the prosocial act is directed. In an organizational context, prosocial acts can either be beneficial for the individual or the organization. Also, the target toward which the act is directed can either be internal or external (with regard to the organization). With such a perspective, prosocial acts in organizations can be classified into four main groups. These main groups are (A) acts which benefit specific individuals and have an internal target (e.g. helping or assisting a co-worker), (B) acts which benefit specific individuals and have an external target (e.g. extra-role behaviors toward a customer or a client), (C) acts which benefit the organization and have an internal target (e.g. giving extra time and effort for organizational duties or complying with organizational norms), and (D) acts which benefit the organization and have an external target (e.g. maintain a positive company image).

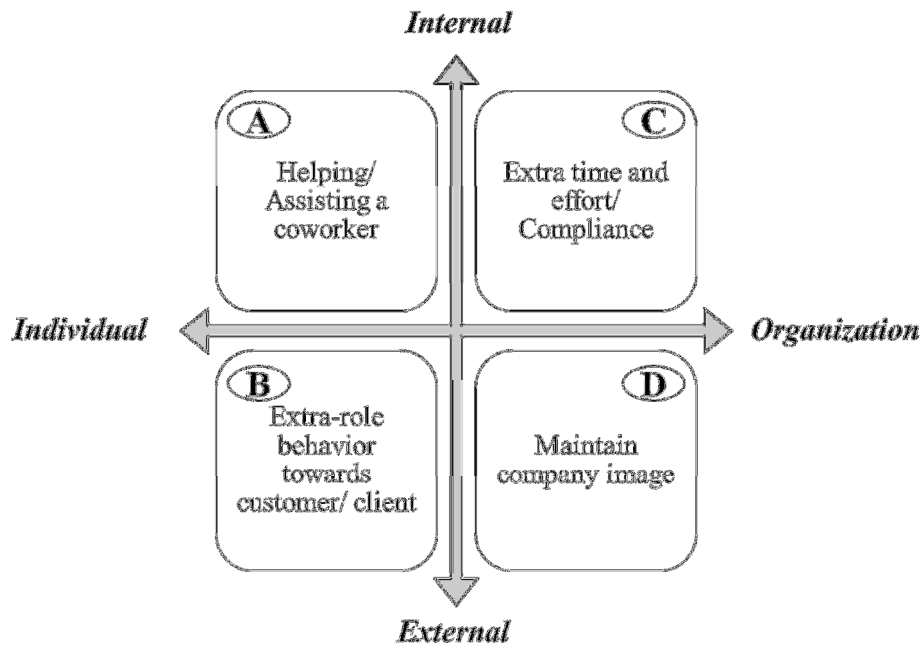


Figure 1. Two dimensional conceptualization of prosocial work behavior depending on the beneficiary and target of the act

Building on the finding that prosocial acts which benefit individuals and organizations correlate with dispositional and situational antecedents differentially (McNeely and Meglino, 1994), the present study explores whether the beneficiary of the prosocial act factors in as a determining component of prosocial behavior in organizations.

## 1.2. SELF-CONSTRUAL

At the intersection of societal culture and the self, research on self-construal has gained its momentum with the works of Triandis (1989) and Markus and Kitayama (1991). Basically, self-construal refers to “the degree to which people see themselves as separate from others or as connected with others” (Markus and Kitayama, 1991, p.226). Based on the findings at the cultural level, self-construal was first proposed to be either independent of interdependent. Independent (i.e. individual) self-construal is defined by

independence, autonomy and separateness from others while interdependent (i.e. collective) self-construal is defined by interconnectedness among individuals and harmonious relationships within the group. In terms of their cultural connotations independent self-construal is mostly associated with the Western culture while the interdependent self-construal is mostly associated with the Eastern culture. Yet another dimension was later demonstrated to be in action and also, empirically separable (Kashima, Yamaguchi, Kim, Choi, Gelfand & Yuki, 1995), thus leading the way to a tripartite definition of self-construal. This third dimension, the relational self-construal, is based on close relationships that a person has and refers to the degree to which a person defines herself in terms of those close interpersonal relations.

In a related line of research, Brewer and Gardner (1996) studied the tripartite self-construal as different levels of social identity and received greater attention in organizational research. Their contribution was to make a theoretical distinction between relational self and collective self. In contrast to the earlier conceptualizations of self as a bipolar structure composed of the individual self at one end and the collective self at the other, Brewer and Gardner (1996) postulated a third level of social self, the relational self. Operating at an intermediate level of social inclusion, the relational self is defined by reference to significant others.

Although the attempts to measure self-construal are numerous, one of the measures which has high face validity can also be used to clarify the contents of each self-construal type. The Twenty Statements Test, originally presented by Kuhn and McPartland (1954), requires the participants to answer to the question “Who am I?” by completing twenty sentence stems structured as “I am ...”. The responses are then rated by expert raters to identify the answers pertaining to each self aspect. Responses referring to personal qualities, attitudes, beliefs or behaviors are considered as reflecting individual self. Responses referring to demographic categories or groups with which the respondent identifies with are classified as pertaining to collective self. Responses qualifying for the relational self would include statements with reference to the people in one’s immediate environment such as specific family members or close friends. As a measure both allowing for open ended, qualitative responses and enabling the

quantification of coded data, the Twenty Statements Test is frequently used in self-construal research (e.g. Somech, 2000; Triandis, McCusker & Hui, 1990).

Individual self is marked by bounded and stable self, which is separate from social context (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). The unique and personal aspects of self are at the focus and characteristics such as internal abilities, thoughts, and feelings are promoted rather than the characteristics which may have reference to other people. Following the previous example, the individual self can be identified through the twenty statements test by statements referring to the unique sides of the self such as “I am twenty years old”, “I am an outgoing person” or “I am happy”.

At the other end of the spectrum, collective self-construal refers to the definition of self with reference to the ingroups it belongs to. Borrowing from the theoretical tradition of social identity theory and social categorization theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), collective self-construal is defined in terms of shared ingroups. Typical responses in the twenty statements test would include statements such as “I am a Turkish citizen” or “I am a Beşiktaş fan”.

Borrowing from both the individual and collective self-construal, relational self-construal refers to the tendency to think of oneself in terms of relationships with close others. Relational self-construal can be exemplified by the statements such as “I am a mother of two” or “I am a good friend”.

As a construct originating from studies at the cultural level, the concept of self-construal is widely studied in relation to individual outcomes. It has been found to affect or correlate with many psychological constructs including but not limited to cognitive style (e.g. Kühnen & Oyserman, 2002), social comparison (e.g. Stapel & Koomen, 2001), reactions to social support (e.g. Gabriel, Renaud & Tippin, 2007), and attitudes towards justice and equality (e.g. Briley & Wyer, 2002).

### 1.2.1. Self-construal and identity orientation

As stated previously, the study of self-construal in relation to organizational outcomes gained its momentum with the introduction of the trichotomization of the self proposed by Brewer and Gardner (1996). However, the preferred terminology in this line of research revolves around social identity and identity orientation (e.g. Brickson, 2000). Basically, both conceptualizations (self-construal and identity orientation) refer to similar underlying processes and their behavioral reflections in various settings. Due to this dual approach to study self-construal, these two terms, self-construal and identity orientation will be used interchangeably throughout the text depending on their original context. For the ease of the reader, the different terminological preferences for related constructs is provided in Figure 2.

<i>Level</i>	<i>Process</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Individual</li> <li>▪ Independent</li> <li>▪ Personal</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Self</li> <li>▪ Self-aspect</li> <li>▪ Self-concept</li> <li>▪ Self-construal</li> <li>▪ Identity orientation</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Relational</li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Collective</li> <li>▪ Interdependent</li> </ul>	

Figure 2. Summary of different conceptualizations of self

Empirical research on self-construal adopts two main methodologies which originate from two corresponding theoretical approaches. Self-construal is either

assessed directly via survey methodology or indirectly by experimental procedures which mostly rely on priming a target self (individual, collective or relational) and then exploring the effects of the primed self. These two approaches differ not only in their operationalization of self-construal, but also in their view of self-construal as a stable or a dynamic, context dependent construct. Leaving this discussion aside for a while, below is a summary of findings related to individual, collective and relational self-construal in organizational settings.

At the organizational level, each type of self-construal is associated with different outcomes (Johnson & Chang, 2006). Given that individual self is more concerned with personal goals and motives, personal outcomes such as pay and benefits are also more valued for the individual self. At the other end of the spectrum, the collective self is more concerned with the larger collective. Consequently, outcomes associated with the larger group, such as the prestigious status of the organization in comparison to other organizations or achieving organizational goals, are valued more than personal outcomes. In between, relational self is concerned with the relationships within a small group or with dyadic relationships. Therefore, for relational self, it is expected that outcomes which serve to the well-being of such relationships are more valued. In an organizational setting, relationships with one's supervisor or customer may provide ground for the expression of relational self and outcomes associated with these relationships (e.g. increased customer satisfaction, recognition by one's supervisor) will be valued more.

In addition to the existing body of research which relate to several settings where self-construal has an effect on, the study of self-construal has recently been extended to the workplace (e.g. Brickson, 2008; Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009). For example, in their study, Gahan and Abeysekera (2009) point to the combined effects of national culture and individual self-construal on work values. Where work values were assessed with respect to their intrinsic or extrinsic focus, intrinsic values were found to be predicted by both national culture and individual self-construal. In addition, individual self-construal is found to mediate the relationship between national culture

and intrinsic work values. On the other hand, neither national culture nor self-construal was found to predict extrinsic work values.

The three types of self-construal were also found to correlate differentially with several other work related constructs. For example, in another study, Johnson and Chang (2006) studied the relationship of self-construal and organizational commitment. Linking key aspects of individual and collective self construal respectively to continuance and affective commitment, they hypothesized that individual self-construal would be related to continuance commitment whereas collective self-construal to affective commitment. Indeed, their study showed that such unique associations existed between self-construal and commitment. Given that affective commitment was marked by identification with the organization and internalization of organization's goals and values, it can be expected that the value system of a collective self matches the requirements of affective commitment to the organization. On the other hand, the shared emphasis on personal outcomes such as the expectation of possible rewards or the avoidance of negative consequences might be the common ground for individual self-construal and continuance commitment.

In another example of the study of self-construal in relation to organizational outcomes, Gelfand, Major, Raver, Nishii and O'Brien (2006) focused on relational self-construal and investigated its effects on negotiation processes and outcomes. By dissecting relational self-construal into its cognitive, emotional and motivational components Gelfand et al. (2006) proposed a model of negotiation including prenegotiation, negotiation and post negotiation processes. At the prenegotiation stage, according to their model, relational self-construal affects the agents' interpretation of the negotiation frames and context. They are more concerned with relationship and cooperative frames that they are with their net gain in material terms. In terms of temporal context, they perceive the negotiation as one of the steps within a long-term relationship, therefore are more likely to focus on distal outcomes rather than immediate gains. In terms of post negotiation outcomes, relational self-construal is proposed to have a curvilinear effect on attaining the most overall capital, where overall capital refers to the combination of relational gains as well as economic gains. A moderate

level of relational self-construal is proposed to attain the optimum outcome. In addition to focusing on the individual as a relational agent in negotiation, Gelfand et al. (2006) also proposed a model based on the congruence of relational self-construal of the two parties in negotiation. In terms of congruence, they proposed that lower levels of congruence would result in more negative emotions, more difficulty in coordinating interactions and lower trust towards the other party in negotiation.

Considering the evidence on the effects of self-construal on diverse organizational outcomes such as work values (Gahan and Abeysekera, 2009), organizational commitment (Johnson and Chang, 2006) and negotiation processes (Gelfand et al., 2006), prosocial behaviors can also be theorized as being affected by self-construal. Although direct evidence for such a relationship in an organizational context is rather scarce, several other findings, summarized below, converge in suggesting the possible effect of self-construal on prosocial work behaviors. Rather than being direct, the evidence suggesting the possible relationships between different types of self-construal and prosocial work behaviors follows a path paved with the interrelationships of structural characteristics of organizations and exchange relationships occurring within these structures. Brickson (2000), for example, focused on demographic diversity in organizations and its relationship with self-construal. She proposed that several organizational antecedents such as organizational structure, task structure and reward structure could be associated with self-construal.

Organizational structure is defined by the degree and form of integration within the organization. Three different types of organizational structure is associated with a different type of identity orientation. An atomized structure is marked by an emphasis on separation of organizational members rather than their integration. This structure is more likely to engender individual identity orientation. On the other hand, with an organizational structure which emphasizes stable groups with strong divisions between them a collective identity orientation is more likely to emerge. Finally, an organization with dense and integrated relationship networks nurtures relational identity orientation among its members. In other words, organizations which emphasize interaction among

its members both in terms of quantity and depth are those which promote relational identity orientation.

Task structure is defined by the manner in which work is organized. In other words, it refers to how people in an organization need to interact to get the work done. Again, three levels of task structure are proposed to affect different identity orientation outcomes. As it is the case for organizational structure, task structure may be based on the individual, group or dyads. In organizations where the task is structured to depend on the individual, an individual identity orientation is more likely to emerge whereas in organizations where the task is structured so that a given group is responsible of the outcome a collective identity orientation is expected to be prevalent. In between, in organizations where the task at hand depends on dyadic interactions among organizational members, a relational identity orientation is more likely to emerge.

The third factor, the reward structure is about how performance is measured and rewarded. Although reward structure usually reflects the task structure, this may not always be the case. For example, although it is common to see a group being rewarded as a whole for its performance, it is also possible to see the manager being rewarded for group performance or to see the group being rewarded for the individual performances of one or more of its members. Although independent of it, reward structure shows the same pattern with task structure in terms of the identity orientations it breeds in the organization. That is, individual, group based and dyad based rewards structures nurture individual, collective and relational identity orientations in an organization, respectively (Brickson, 2000).

As a derivative of these variables, organizational, task and reward structure, different self-construals (i.e. identity orientations) may become more salient in an organizational setting. In turn, the type of self-construal which is more salient at a given time may affect several organizational outcomes, one of which being exchange relationships.

**Table 1**  
**Structural variables affecting identity orientation.**

Organizational structure	Task structure	Reward structure	Identity orientation
Atomized	Individual	Individual	Personal
Strong group divisions	Group based	Group based	Collective
Dense and integrated relationship networks	Dyad based	Dyad based	Relational

Flynn (2005) studied identity orientations in relation to the different types of exchange relations in organizations. *Negotiated exchange* is defined by the open discussion of exchange terms and by the direct and immediate reciprocation of benefits. *Reciprocal exchange* is similar to negotiated exchange in the way that the reciprocation is direct but not necessarily immediate. Instead, the reciprocation may take place later than the first act of exchange. However, the negotiation of terms is considered inappropriate in this type of exchange; rather, both parties have an implicit understanding of the terms. *Generalized exchange*, on the other hand, is different from both types since the reciprocation is indirect. That is, the exchange of benefits occurs among different members of a given group, but one-on-one reciprocation is not the rule. Similar to the reciprocal exchange, the terms of the exchange are not openly negotiated, but implicitly assumed. Flynn (2005) matches each type of identity orientation with a different form of exchange. More specifically, he matches personal identity orientation with negotiated exchange, relational identity orientation with reciprocal exchange, and collective identity orientation with generalized exchange and states that employees who adopt each type of identity orientation will prefer the matching type of exchange.

**Table 2**  
**Exchange relationships depending on identity orientations**

Identity orientation	Preferred exchange form	Reciprocation	Discussion of exchange terms
Personal	Negotiated	Direct	Explicit
Relational	Reciprocal	Direct	Implicit
Collective	Generalized	Indirect	Implicit

Also, Flynn (2005) states that, within the boundaries of a given setting (i.e. department, workplace), if the preferred form of exchange is not reciprocated, an employee can switch to the dominant form of exchange first, and later on, to the matching identity orientation. Therefore, although through a process of identity-based conflict, identity orientations may be shaped in relation to the constraints of the setting. Indeed, in the present study, exploring the effects of an organizational level variable (i.e. organizational climate) as one of the possible antecedents of prosocial work behaviors reflects the acknowledgement of these possible interrelationships.

Together with the conceptualization of prosocial behaviors as outcomes of exchange relations, it is possible to sketch the impact of self-construal on prosocial behaviors. With this aim in mind, the present study is an attempt to explore how employees' self-construal is instrumental in shaping the display of prosocial behaviors in organizations.

### **1.2.2. Self-construal and prosocial work behavior**

Pavey, Greitemeyer and Sparks (2011) recently showed the effect of relatedness on prosocial behaviors with a series of studies in a non-organizational setting. In their first study, they manipulated relatedness, autonomy and competence by a computerized priming task. Basically, they differentiated the instructions for a filler word completion task so that it would prime one of the following: relatedness, autonomy or competence. They assessed prosocial behaviors through the participants'

willingness to volunteer in various activities as well as the number of the activities they indicated that they would volunteer in. Among the four groups, including one neutral group which did not go through the priming procedure, participants in the relatedness primed group were more likely to take part in volunteer activities compared to the other three groups.

In their second study, they primed relatedness, autonomy and competence by asking the participants to write about the times they have felt so in the past. Prosocial behavior was assessed by the intention to carry out five prosocial acts within the next six weeks. These prosocial acts included giving money to charity, donating goods or clothes to a charity, going out of their way to help a friend in need, giving up their time to do something that will benefit the community, and to go out of their way to help a stranger in need. Again, among the four groups, prosocial intentions were highest for the relatedness primed group.

Taken together, their findings suggest that relatedness has a distinct place in determining prosocial behavior (Pavey et al., 2011). Although they did not make a direct reference to self-construal, the other two constructs that they compared relatedness against, autonomy and competence, are among the pillars of an individual self-construal while a feeling of relatedness is the main component of a relational self-construal. Therefore, it is possible to interpret their findings as indicative of the differential effects of individual self-construal and relational self-construal on prosocial behaviors.

With a more direct reference to self-construal, in a series of studies, Vos and Zee (2011) showed that individuals with a relational identity orientation were more likely to show prosocial work behaviors.

In their first study, they measured relational identity orientation as a trait and asked participant whether they would collaborate on a task either with and ingroup member or an outgroup member. In their scenario, groups were formed according to the nationality of a fictitious fellow student. The participants were Dutch and they were asked whether they would collaborate with either a Dutch student or a German student.

Based on the two questions they asked to students, they formed one score of willingness to cooperate. Overall, they observed that participants with lower scores on trait relational identity orientation showed ingroup favoritism and were more willing to cooperate with the members of their ingroup rather than the members of their outgroup. However, participants with higher scores on trait relational identity orientation had higher scores on willingness to cooperate regardless of the group membership (ingroup vs. outgroup) of the student that they were asked to cooperate with.

In their second study, Vos and Zee (2011) investigated differential effects of the three types of identity orientations. Furthermore, they manipulated identity orientations using a priming procedure. In contrast to the approach they adopted in the first study, they treated identity orientation as a dynamic structure and possible to be manipulated through priming. Basically, they asked the participants to write a paragraph on a particular topic. For each condition though, the instructions were slightly different. In the individual identity orientation condition the participants were asked to write a story about themselves using the words such as I, me, myself and mine. In the collective identity orientation condition, the participants were asked to write a story about the groups they belong to, using the words such as we, our, ourselves, group. Finally, in the relational identity orientation condition the participants were asked to write a story about the personal relationships that they have with others, using the words such as I, others, relationships, and together. In this second study, the ingroup outgroup differentiation was accentuated by the membership of a local student sorority and prosocial behaviors were assessed by willingness to help to another student belonging to either the same or a different sorority. As a result, they have found out that helping an ingroup member was more likely for the students who were primed with a collective identity orientation whereas helping the members of the outgroup was more likely for the students who were primed with a relational identity orientation.

In their third study, they looked at the interaction of the trait relational identity orientation and identity orientation primes while group membership was again assessed by sorority membership. Again, willingness to cooperate with the members of the perceived outgroup was highest for the relational identity orientation group. Taken

together, their findings suggest that relational identity orientation, both as a trait and a situational variable, was operational in enacting prosocial work behaviors towards outgroup members.

Given the findings summarized above, individual, relational and collective aspects of self offer a fertile ground for observed differences. However, “The collective may be small or large, from two to over two billion. It may be a marriage or a family; it may be a sports team, a university, a neighborhood, a city, or a nation; it may be all humanity.” (Batson, 2011; p. 216). This wider definition of collective points to a gray area where relational and collective selves collapse into each other, thereby making harder to identify their separate effects on prosocial behavior. Therefore,

*Hypothesis 1:* Self-construal is expected to predict prosocial work behavior. While both collective self-construal and relational self-construal are expected to positively affect prosocial work behavior, individual self-construal is expected to affect prosocial behavior negatively.

Although recent research on identity orientations suggest that relational identity orientation may be one (of many) facilitators of prosocial behavior (Vos & Zee, 2011), there is still the need for exploring boundary conditions. Research carried out in organizational settings is especially scarce. Investigating the effects of self-construal in organizational settings, the present study adopts an exploratory approach and attempts to map out the differential effects of each type of self-construal on prosocial work behaviors.

As discussed previously, self-construal refers to the organization of one’s self-concept in relation to the people in the immediate environment (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Although different levels and processes are offered by different researchers, all converge in both ends of the spectrum. At one end, the individual or independent self-construal consists of one’s own characteristics, independent of the wider group. At the other end, the collective or interdependent self-construal is mostly based on group membership and one’s self-definition is derived from memberships in groups or social categories.

Although self-construal, as a variable operating at the personal level, is a prime candidate as an antecedent of prosocial behaviors in organizations, discerning its effects would only reveal part of the picture. Referring to a core aspect of one's identity, therefore not subject to dramatic changes, self-construal has nevertheless a dynamic structure, adapting itself to the demands of the environment. Experimental studies on self-construal converge on the finding that several outcome variables are differentially affected by ensuring that either the individual or collective self-construal is made more salient compared to the other.

In relation to the effects of self-construal on prosocial work behaviors, studying the effects of work design, as a variable operating at task level, would reveal another part of the picture, possibly offering ways to enrich employees' experience of their work and thereby promoting prosocial behaviors at the workplace. Therefore, work design is investigated in the present study as the second variable affecting prosocial work behaviors.

### **1.3. WORK DESIGN**

Referring to how one's work is structured and executed, work design can broadly be defined as "how jobs, tasks, and roles are structured, enacted and modified, as well as the impact of these structures, enactments and modifications on individual, group, and organizational outcomes" (p. 319, Grant & Parker, 2009). As such, the design of work is inseparable from the work itself. As an essential part of working life, work design is also important due to its interaction with the general structure and climate of an organization as well as the individuals performing the work. On the practical side, work design, as an actionable feature of organizations, offers several avenues to implement planned change in the work environment. Therefore, the design of work can be seen as one of the most fundamental issues in organizational life. With the ultimate aim to break the work down to its most basic elements, it is possible to trace the studies on work design back to Taylor's scientific management approach. Having its roots way back in organizational studies, the design of work is extensively

studied in terms of its relationships with several work outcomes. However, a number of more recent studies, also focusing on work design, offered fresher perspectives (e.g. Morgeson and Humphrey, 2008) compared to the dominant approaches in work design literature.

Work design theories are also important from a historical point of view. Through the study of work design, it is possible to observe the shift from the manufacturing industries to service and knowledge oriented industries, and to more recent trends of globalization and increased mobility and interaction. Although research on work design culminated in the 70's and 80's following the job characteristics theory offered by Hackman and Oldham (1975), the ever-changing nature of work as well as the importance and meaning attributed to work made the study of work design an ongoing quest. This renewed interest on the study of work design also became apparent with the publication of the *Journal of Organizational Behavior's* special issue (February, 2010) entitled "Putting job design in context".

The job characteristics theory identifies several core job dimensions and focus on their personal and work related outcomes through the mediation of critical psychological states. The core job dimensions identified in the model are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. These core job dimensions lead way to several critical psychological states such as experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work and knowledge of the actual results of the work activities. In turn, these critical psychological states are associated with several personal and work outcomes including high internal work motivation, high-quality work performance, high satisfaction with the work and low absenteeism and turnover.

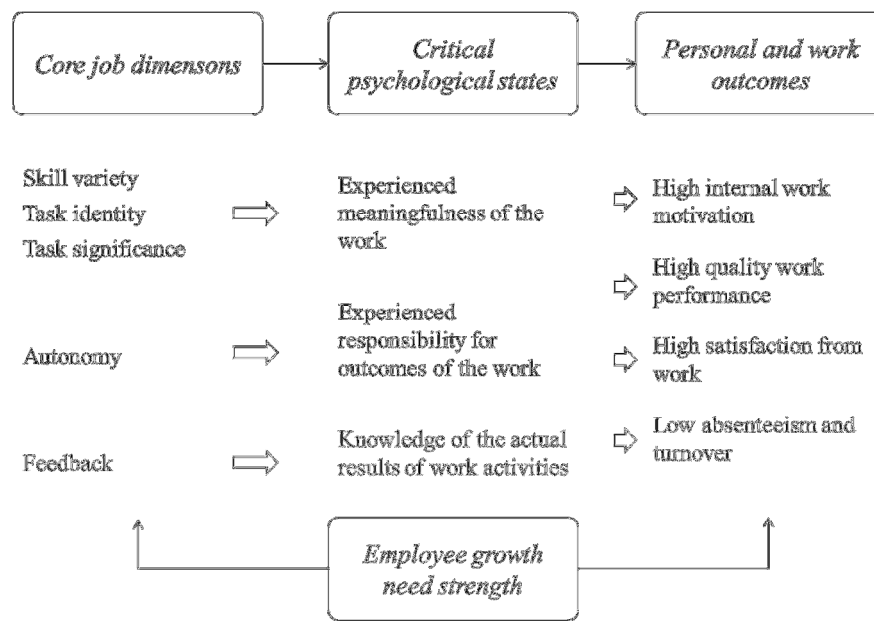


Figure 3. Job Characteristics Model (Adapted from Hackman & Oldham, 1975)

A multitude of findings points to the robustness of the model. In addition to individual empirical studies, several meta-analyses document the validity of the propositions that the model holds (e.g. Fried & Ferris, 1987). One of the practical implications of the model is the relatively less demanding solution that it provides for the organizational problems such as diminished motivation, low performance and high absenteeism. According to the model, organizations can overcome such problems by changing core job dimensions instead of turning to more time consuming and costly strategies such as structured organizational behavior modification programs.

More recently, in their integrative framework of work design, Morgeson and Humphrey (2008) identified three aspects of work design. Task characteristics, similar to the model proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1975), are defined as the attributes of the task environment or the work itself. They primarily refer to how the work itself is accomplished and the range and nature of tasks expected from the job holder. They include autonomy, task variety, significance, task identity, feedback from the job, job complexity, information processing, problem solving, skill variety, and specialization. Social characteristics of work are defined as the characteristics that emerge from the

social environment or when working with others. They include social support, feedback from others, interdependence, and interaction outside the organization. Contextual characteristics are defined as the characteristics that emerge from the physical and organizational environment. They include work aspects such as physical demands, work conditions, ergonomics, equipment use, boundary spanning, organizational support, virtuality of work, and consequence of failure.

The term work design, instead of job design, is purposefully used to emphasize the broad scope of the model (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). Indeed, work design involves integrating the elements of both job and team design, as well as placing them into an organizational context. As such, the model presents a nested structure. Task characteristics are at the core of the model, surrounded by the characteristics arising from the social environment within which the work is carried out. Then, both are situated within an organizational context which provides the physical environment.

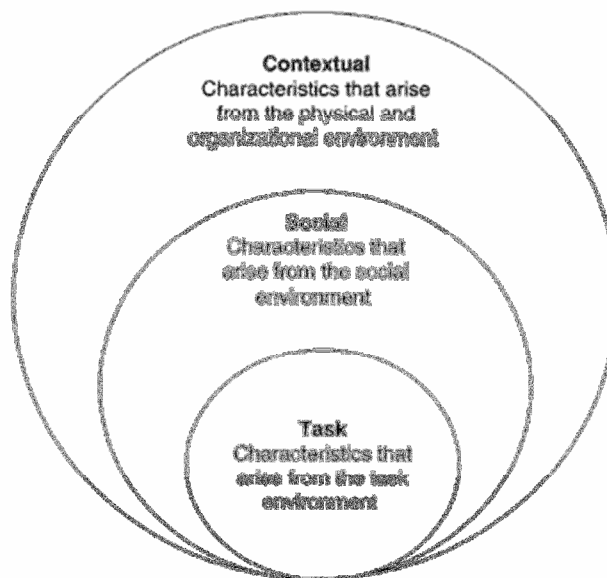


Figure 4. Task, social and contextual characteristics of work design (Taken from Morgeson & Humphrey, 2008)

The major difference between job characteristics theory and the framework offered by Morgeson and Humphrey (2008) was the inclusion of social and contextual aspects into the job design. Collapsing all the core job dimensions proposed by the job characteristics model into one general category of task characteristics, they extended the design of work to include the social and contextual aspects.

**Table 3**  
**Task, social and contextual characteristics of work design**

Task Characteristics	Social Characteristics	Contextual Characteristics
• Autonomy	• Social support	• Physical demands
• Task variety	• Feedback from others	• Work conditions
• Significance	• Interdependence	• Ergonomics
• Task identity	• Interaction outside	• Equipment use
• Feedback from the job	the organization	• Boundary spanning
• Job complexity		• Organizational support
• Information processing		• Virtuality of work
• Problem solving		• Consequence of failure
• Skill variety		
• Specialization		

As an intermediary between task characteristics and contextual characteristics, social characteristics of work design are indeed in a key position to affect several organizational outcomes. Borrowing from the job characteristics model proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1975), social and contextual characteristics of work design can also be thought as affecting organizational outcomes such as employee motivation, performance, satisfaction, absenteeism and turnover. For the present study, social characteristics are at the focus and their effects on prosocial work behavior will be investigated.

### **1.3.1. Social characteristics of work design**

Being a rather neglected topic in work design literature, social characteristics of work has recently begun to draw researchers' attention. Recently, pointing to this issue, Oldham and Hackman (2010) called for research focusing entirely on the social aspects of work and specifically articulated some of the research questions pertaining to the role of social dimensions of work design. Mostly exploratory, the research questions they articulated as calling for further studies included the identification of social dimensions of jobs which may lead to greater work motivation, the identification of a theoretical framework where the research on the social aspects of work would best fit in, and the identification of possible individual level variables which may moderate the relationship between social aspects of work and job outcomes.

Social characteristics of work, as defined by Morgeson and Humphrey (2006), include social support, feedback from others, interdependence, and interaction outside the organization. Social support at work is identified by a network of supervisors or coworkers who are available for assistance or advice. Meta-analytic results (Humphrey, Nahrgang, and Morgeson, 2007) present evidence for the positive link between social support and organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Social support was also found to be negatively related to turnover intentions and role perception outcomes such as role ambiguity and role conflict.

Feedback from others represents the feedback about one's job performance provided by other members of the organization. Although close in meaning, feedback from others differs from feedback from the job since the source of information is different in both cases. Therefore, feedback from others can be seen as an indicator of social aspects of one's work while feedback from the job represents a characteristic inherent to the task at hand. Feedback from others has been found to be positively related to well-being, job satisfaction and work motivation and negatively related to turnover intentions.

Interdependence is reflected in attributes that convey the degree of relatedness among the jobs of coworkers within an organization. Interdependence can further be

dissected into task interdependence, goal interdependence and outcome interdependence, depending on the interrelated aspects of one's job with that of others. Another refinement proposed for task interdependence is that it can either be initiated or received depending on the direction of the relationship. Meta-analytic results (Humphrey et al., 2007) present evidence for the positive relation between interdependence and outcomes such as satisfaction and organizational commitment. Also, a high degree of interdependence was associated with higher motivation and better performance resulting from the frequent sharing of tacit knowledge.

Interaction outside the organization refers to the interaction of the individual performing the job with the broader social environment, such as non-organizational members (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2008). These may include customers, providers or other agents that people contact with while working (e.g. passengers for the driver of a public transport vehicle, students for a kindergarten teacher). Among others, interaction outside organization is the least researched component among the social characteristics of work.

These four dimensions are proposed to cover all aspects of social stimulation that a job may provide to its holders. By taking into account the social structure of the work environment within the organization (i.e. social support and feedback from others), social interaction that is necessitated by the work itself (i.e. interdependence) and the social environment that the job holder faces outside the organization (i.e. interaction outside the organization) all at once, the model provides an exhaustive account of the social characteristics of work. Along with this comprehensive approach, there are also a number of studies which also tap various social aspects of work rather partially. Considering the fragmented nature of these findings, incorporating them within the larger framework of work design and treating the social component of work as one of its dimensions constitute a firm step in the quest for a theoretical stand to base the research on social characteristics of jobs (Oldham and Hackman, 2010).

In their meta-analysis, Humphrey, Nahrgang, and Morgeson (2007) provide comparative evidence for the expected relationships among social characteristics of work design and organizational outcomes. Specifically, interdependence and feedback

from others were positively related to subjective performance, social support was negatively related to absenteeism. All social characteristics, except interaction outside organization were negatively related to turnover intentions. All four social characteristics were positively related to job satisfaction. Interdependence and social support were related to organizational commitment while interdependence and feedback from others were related to job involvement. Moreover, they have observed that social characteristics of work explained the variance in turnover intentions, organizational commitment, job involvement, and satisfaction beyond the effects of other non-social work characteristics. Their additional contributions to the above outcomes were in the range of 24% to 44% (Humphrey, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007).

### **1.3.2. Social characteristics of work design and prosocial work behavior**

Standing as a convenient proxy for studying prosocial behavior in organizations, organizational citizenship behaviors have already been linked to various task characteristics. For example, task feedback, referring to the knowledge of employees about how well they are performing their jobs, was found to be positively related to the civic virtue dimension of organizational citizenship (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Other antecedents, having more social connotations, were also found to affect citizenship behaviors.

In terms of its conceptual closeness to prosocial behavior, the antecedents of the altruism component of citizenship behaviors are particularly relevant for the current study. Among organizational characteristics, group cohesiveness and perceived organizational support were found to affect altruism positively. With regard to leadership behaviors, transformational leadership, supportive leader behaviors and leader member exchange were also found to positively affect altruistic citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Following the same line of thought, social characteristics of work can be linked to organizational outcomes such as organizational citizenship behaviors or prosocial work behaviors. Indeed, despite the recent introduction of social aspects to the work

design literature, evidence pointing to their contribution to prosocial work behavior started to accumulate rather quickly (Humphrey et al., 2007).

In addition to their impact on promoting resilience, security, and positive moods on the job (Ryan & Deci, 2001), social characteristics of work were also found to affect prosocial behaviors directly. Extending beyond social characteristics, Grant (2008) argued that impact on and contact with beneficiaries are not just social but prosocial characteristics of work. In a series of three studies, he showed that job opportunities for impact on and contact with beneficiaries fueled prosocial motivation through perceived impact and affective commitment to beneficiaries. Extrapolating from these findings;

*Hypothesis 2:* Social aspects of work design are expected to predict prosocial work behavior. The more social elements one's work includes, the more prosocial behaviors are expected to be displayed. The effects of the social aspects of work design are expected to be uniform across all its subcomponents.

Additionally, the effects of the social aspects of work design will also be analyzed separately. The four subcomponents of the social aspects of work design were social support, feedback from others, interdependence and interaction outside organization. Although the literature on the social aspects of work design doesn't provide much evidence to come up with specific hypotheses regarding their individual effects on prosocial work behaviors, previous findings suggest that all may contribute positively to prosocial work behaviors. Therefore, two additional purposes of the current study are first, to establish the factor structure of the Turkish version of social aspects subscale of the Work Design Scale (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006), and second, to identify the differential contributions of the social aspects of work on prosocial behaviors.

At the organizational level, the relationship between work design and organizational climate appears to be subtle, operating at the perceptual level, rather than having a direct effect. Organizational climate may affect work design, or rather, its perception by job holders, by making certain aspects more salient (Morgeson, Dierdorff

& Hmurovic, 2010). For example, in an organization with a strong climate for justice, employees may be more receptive to cues indicating fair exchanges between parties and, as a consequence, jobs may be more likely to be designed with an emphasis on interdependence. Also, organizational climate may affect the design of work through a meaning making process by the part of employees. More specifically, employees working in a specific climate may attribute higher importance to the characteristics relevant for that specific climate. Following the same example, in an organization with a strong climate for justice, interdependence will be more valued by the employees even if the job does not require much of it.

Within the proposed framework including variables at the personal, task and organizational levels, organizational climate constitutes the third level in generality as a variable operating at the organizational level. Therefore, investigating the possible effects of organizational climate on prosocial work behaviors in relation to self-construal and social aspects of work design is also among the aims of the present study.

#### **1.4. ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE**

Being another variable hypothesized to predict prosocial behavior in organizations, the study of organizational climate can be traced back to 1930's, to the Hawthorne studies. Having pointed out the effect of work environment on employee behavior, these series of studies pioneered the study of variables related to the psychological work environment. However, the proliferation of studies on organizational climate is rather recent. Although several different definitions which emphasize its different aspects were proposed for organizational climate, the common theme they converge is that it describes the members' perception of their work environment, therefore it is more commonly, and accurately, referred to as psychological climate. In that sense, psychological climate refers to the perceptions of the individuals rather than the objective features of the organization.

At the operational level, the majority of the studies adopt either one of two approaches. They either focus on the macro level by aiming at quantifying several

different aspects of the entire work environment, called as the molar approach (Carr, Schmidt, Ford & Deshon, 2003) or select a subset of specific dimensions such as structure, reward, risk, warmth, support, standards, conflict, identity, democraticness, autocraticness, supportiveness, innovativeness, peer relations, cooperation, cohesion or pressure (Ostroff, Kinicki & Tamkins, 2003) pertaining to the work environment and proceed with a relevant operationalization.

The second approach is adopted in the present study, mainly for two reasons. The first approach, although all-encompassing, includes the risk of leading way to the blurring of lines between organizational culture and organizational climate. Although a frequently discussed topic within organizational literature, the similarities and differences between culture and climate are beyond the scope of the present study.

With a similar concern, a useful analogy is recently proposed by Thumin & Thumin (2011). They compare the measurement of culture and climate by treating them as analogous to the different methodologies adopted by anthropology and psychology. More specifically they attribute the conceptual differences between these two constructs, culture and climate, to the methodological differences between anthropology and psychology.

*“Anthropology’s approach is said to be more descriptive and more concerned with an organization’s archival materials, stereotypes, jargon, rituals, and symbols and is characterized by a dearth of empirical research. By contrast, psychology’s approach is described as more quantitative and empirical, more inclined to employ surveys and rating scales, and more concerned with organizational effectiveness.” (p.105).*

This view is also adopted by Schneider (2000) who treats culture and climate as two complementary constructs to the extent of proposing to focus on their shared perspectives in the search of a new paradigm for organizational research.

Also, the second approach, that of focusing on some specific aspect of the work environment, might provide more practical value to the organizations since it

deals with the issues in the work environment in a rather analytical way, one at a time, compared to the wholistic conceptualization of organizational climate offered by the molar approach (Carr et al., 2003).

In their account of how organizational climates might emerge, Schneider and Reichers (1983) identify three possible mechanisms. The structural characteristics of the organization, homogeneity of its members or the type and amount of social interactions within the organization may be the determinants of the organization's climate. According to the structuralist view, climate is a byproduct of organizational characteristics such as size, structure and leadership style. According to the view that attributes the emergence of organizational climate to the homogeneity of its members, attraction – selection – attrition (ASA) approach is at work in the emergence of organizational climate and individual members are seen as the main building blocks of the climate. Individuals within an organization collectively construct the climate of the organization both by a sensemaking process and through the retention of likeminded members. Finally, the interactionist approach posits that climate emerges from the interactions of organizational and individuals' characteristics as well as from the social interactions among the members of the organization.

Another issue that needs to be included in a discussion of organizational climate is dispersion. Concepts such as climate consensus and climate strength refer to the dispersion of organizational climate, meaning how uniformly it is perceived by organizational members. In addition to the more conventional climate variables such as justice, reward allocation or ethics for example, these dispersion measures are also addressed by several studies as a mediator variable between organizational climate and its outcomes.

In addition to average climate perceptions, Lindell and Brandt (2000) used a measure of climate consensus, which basically is the variance in climate perceptions, as a potential mediator in the relationships between climate and its outcomes. However, they found that average ratings were more strongly related to both the antecedents and the outcomes than climate consensus was. Climate strength is similarly defined as the within-unit variability in climate perceptions (Schneider, Salvagio and Subirats, 2002).

Among the hypotheses tested, climate strength appeared as the mediator only for the relationship between managerial practices and customer experience. Although the effects of both concepts, climate consensus and climate strength, makes intuitive sense, supporting evidence is still scarce. Therefore, in the present study a more modular approach is adopted by focusing only on the cooperation and competition facets of organizational climate and measures of climate strength, climate quality or climate consensus were not included.

Regarding its outcomes, organizational climate is also associated with several organizational variables. Operationalizing psychological climate as employees' perception of their work environment in relation to their own well-being, Brown and Leigh (1996) hypothesized that a positive perception would yield to higher job involvement, which in turn would yield in higher effort put on the job, which would result in better in-role job performance. This model produced significant paths in contrast to the direct path from psychological climate to effort, which appeared to be not significant. That is, psychological climate's effect on job involvement has been found to be direct while its effects on effort and performance were indirect.

Organizational climate can also act as an intermediary between organizational variables. For example, Rogg, Schmidt, Schull and Schmitt (2001) found that the effect of human resource practices on customer satisfaction was mediated through organizational climate factors such as customer orientation, managerial competence, employee commitment and cooperation/ coordination. This mediation effect of climate is especially important because it is operational in linking an internal variable (i.e. human resource practices) to an external outcome (i.e. customer satisfaction). As will be discussed shortly, prosocial work behaviors may either have internal (e.g. coworkers) or external (e.g. clients) targets. Extrapolating from the effects of human resources practices on customer satisfaction through organizational climate, the findings of the present study may also offer insights on the contribution of organizational climate to prosocial work behaviors.

Organizational climate is found to mediate the relationship between high-performance human resource practices and service oriented organizational citizenship

behaviors. Tang and Tang (2012) identified six human resources practices related to high-performance and investigated their effects on service oriented organizational citizenship behaviors including loyalty, participation and service delivery through the mediation of justice climate and service climate. They found that the effects of high-performance human resource practices pertaining to selection policies, training, performance appraisals, compensation, participation, and empowerment on service oriented organizational citizenship behaviors were fully mediated by justice climate and service climate.

In another study, D'Amato and Zijlstra (2008) tested a model where organizational climate and self-efficacy affected burnout and performance through the mediation of organizational citizenship behavior. Climate, composed of three latent structures (i.e. job procedures, organizational policies and managerial practices), along with self-efficacy has been found to affect organizational citizenship behavior which was negatively related to burnout and positively related to performance. In this model, the effect of organizational climate was direct for organizational citizenship behavior, and mediated for burnout and performance. As a proxy frequently adopted to study prosocial behaviors at work, organizational citizenship behaviors were found to be affected by organizational climate, for which the subcomponents were job procedures, organizational policies and managerial practices. When their individual contributions were compared, managerial practices, composed of team and supervision facets, were found to have the highest contribution to organizational climate. On the other hand, job procedures, composed of autonomy, job description and job involvement facets, were found to contribute the least (D'Amato and Zijlstra, 2008). Building on the findings summarized above, organizational climate is proposed as one of the possible antecedents of prosocial behaviors.

As specific aspects of organizational climate, cooperation and competition are especially relevant for the present study. According to Deutsch's (1973) theory of cooperation and competition, they both occur as a result of perceived goal interdependence of the parties. If they perceive their goals to be positively linked they would act cooperatively and if they perceive their goals to be negatively linked they

would act competitively. As a third option, the goals can be independent of each other, leading to neither cooperation nor competition. As a derivative of this theory, one can assume that in organizations where members perceive their goals to be positively linked a cooperative climate would be enacted whereas in organizations where members perceive their goals to be negatively linked a competitive climate would prevail. In turn, a cooperative climate created through a shared perception of common goals is expected to contribute to prosocial work behaviors positively while a competitive climate negatively.

However, it would not be realistic to talk about a purely cooperative or a purely competitive work environment. For example, in an organization, a committee may be formed in order to agree upon the terms of a competitive bonus system to be implemented in the organization. In order to come up with an effective system and set the appropriate terms and conditions, the committee must work cooperatively. However, once the system is implemented, the committee members are expected to act in line with the requirements of this new competitive system. The co-existence of cooperation and competition is also apparent in organizations where group performance is valued and rewarded in a competitive fashion. The group is expected to act cooperatively in order to reach its aspired performance level yet to be in competition with other groups.

Therefore, in the present study, the third aim is to investigate the relationship between organizational climate and prosocial work behavior. To this end, both cooperative and competitive aspects of organizational climate will be addressed. A brief review is provided in the following section.

#### **1.4.1. Climate of cooperation and climate of competition**

In one of the early attempts to provide a meta-level view of psychological climate James and James (1989, as cited in James et al., 2008) proposed four factors which play a role in the composition of work environment. (1) Role stress and lack of harmony, (2) job challenge and autonomy, (3) leadership facilitation and support, and (4) work-group cooperation, friendliness and warmth are the four climate factors which

respectively refer to the distinct domains of roles, jobs, leaders, and work groups. Work-group cooperation, friendliness and warmth factor, in turn, included three components which are work-group cooperation, work-group friendliness and warmth, and responsibility for effectiveness.

In her comprehensive taxonomy, Ostroff (1993) classifies organizational climate under twelve dimensions which are clustered into three higher order facets. The three higher order facets are affective, cognitive, and instrumental climate perceptions. The affective facet is composed of participation, cooperation, warmth, and social rewards. According to this taxonomy, the climate of cooperation is defined by the perceived helpfulness of supervisors and coworkers as well as the emphasis on mutual support.

The climate of cooperation has been found to be linked to outcomes such as involvement or organizational citizenship behaviors numerous times. For example, Kuvaas & Dysvik (2010), in their study on temporary employees' in-role and contextual performance, proposed that perceived investment in permanent employee development would have a positive effect on the temporary employees' perception of the climate of cooperation within the organization. In turn, the climate of cooperation would positively affect their work effort, work quality and organizational citizenship behavior. Indeed, they found out that the climate of cooperation was acting as a mediator between investment in permanent employee development and temporary employee involvement as measured by these three criteria.

A climate of competition can be defined as "the degree to which employees perceive organizational rewards to be contingent on comparisons of their performance against that of their peers" (Brown, Cron & Slocum, 1998, p. 89). Two focal points in this definition are reward allocation and comparison with peers. While one deals with the target of competition the other refers to the process at work. Both factors contribute to the enactment and/ or perception of a competitive climate in organizations. In addition to rewards which may either be tangible (i.e. with monetary value), such as performance bonuses, or nontangible (i.e. without direct monetary value) such as autonomy, personal discretion and responsibility, Fletcher and Nusbaum (2010) identify

three other organizational targets which may nourish a competitive environment. These include recognition, status and the individuals within the organization. Competition for recognition refers to the recognition of the employee for his performance compared to other employees. Practices such as employee of the month can be an example of competition for recognition. Competition for status entails the conditional attainment of a prestigious position within the organization. This prestigious position is usually signaled through several organizational artifacts such as office space, resources, titles, positions, or parking spaces. Finally, individuals within the organization may also be a source of competition. Regardless of the reward system, an organization may be composed of competitive members. In this case, the individual trait of competitiveness may be the source of the wider climate of competitiveness. The presence of one or a combination of these elements may nourish a competitive climate within the organization.

With a similar perspective, basing their line of thinking on the dual characteristic of competitiveness, both as an individual trait and as an aspect of the work environment, Fletcher, Major and Davis (2008) studied competition with a person-environment fit approach. They looked at the interactive effects of competitive climate and trait competitiveness on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job dedication, and self and supervisor rated task performance. In their analyses, they assessed competitive climate both at the individual level and at the aggregate level, based on group perceptions. With respect to job satisfaction, climate and trait competitiveness were found to interact only when climate was assessed at the individual level. However, for organizational commitment, the interaction effect was significant when climate was assessed at the group level. Job dedication showed the same pattern with job satisfaction. With respect to task performance, the interaction effect was significant only when climate perceptions were assessed at group level and performance was supervisor-rated.

Having reviewed the findings on both the climate of cooperation and competition, it becomes apparent that both the classification and study of these two types of climate differ in a higher level. While the climate of cooperation usually

occupies a categorical space in both the meta-analytic and theoretical studies along with other components of work environment, the climate of competition is generally studied on its own and tried to be further broken down into its components.

Following this differentiation in literature, it is possible to come up with two propositions. First, cooperation, compared to competition, can be a more encompassing concept in terms of organizational climate. Second, the study of competition in the work environment can be relatively recent compared to the study of cooperation in the workplace. Although these two propositions are not mutually exclusive, considering the general work environment in recent decades, the second proposition seems more plausible. Therefore, both aspects of organizational climate, those of cooperation and of competition are included in the present study.

As discussed previously, organizational culture and climate are considered as mostly overlapping concepts except for some nuances and reciprocal in the sense that they cause each other (Schneider, 2000). In the present study, two subscales of the Organizational Culture Inventory will be used to assess cooperative and competitive aspects of organizational climate. From this point of view, assessing organizational climate with an inventory originally devised to assess culture is not only emphasizing this complementarity but also recognizes the reciprocal nature of the relationship between organizational culture and climate.

#### **1.4.2. Organizational climate and prosocial work behavior**

As a proxy for studying prosocial work behavior, organizational citizenship is one of the variables frequently studied in relation to organizational climate. In a recent study, Huang, You and Tsai (2012) investigated the effects of ethical climate, job satisfaction and organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behaviors. Among the components of ethical climate, they found that caring, law and code, and rules types of ethical climate contribute positively to organizational citizenship behaviors of hospital nurses. In a similar manner, organizational climate is expected to exert a direct effect on prosocial work behavior. However, cooperative and competitive

climate are expected to affect prosocial behaviors differentially. As discussed previously, a cooperative climate is a climate where organizational members see their goals as positively linked whereas the reverse holds true for a competitive climate. Therefore,

*Hypothesis 3:* Organizational climate is expected to predict prosocial work behavior. While a climate of cooperation is expected to affect prosocial work behaviors positively, the effect of a climate of competition is expected to be negative.

### **1.5. PROPOSED MODEL AND HYPOTHESES**

In light of the findings summarized above, the present study aims to explore the relationships among self-construal, social aspects of work design, and organizational climate, each having several subcomponents. The model to be tested has self-construal, social aspects of work design, and organizational climate as independent variables and prosocial work behavior as the dependent variable. Different types of self-construal to be tested are individual, collective and relational self-construal. Social aspects of work design include social support, feedback from others, interdependence, and interaction outside the organization. Finally, organizational climate is operationalized as the climate of cooperation and the climate of competition. The model to be tested assumes direct effects between these three antecedents and prosocial work behavior. It is hypothesized that each predictor would have their distinct contribution to prosocial work behavior. The theoretical representation of the model is presented below (see Figure 5).

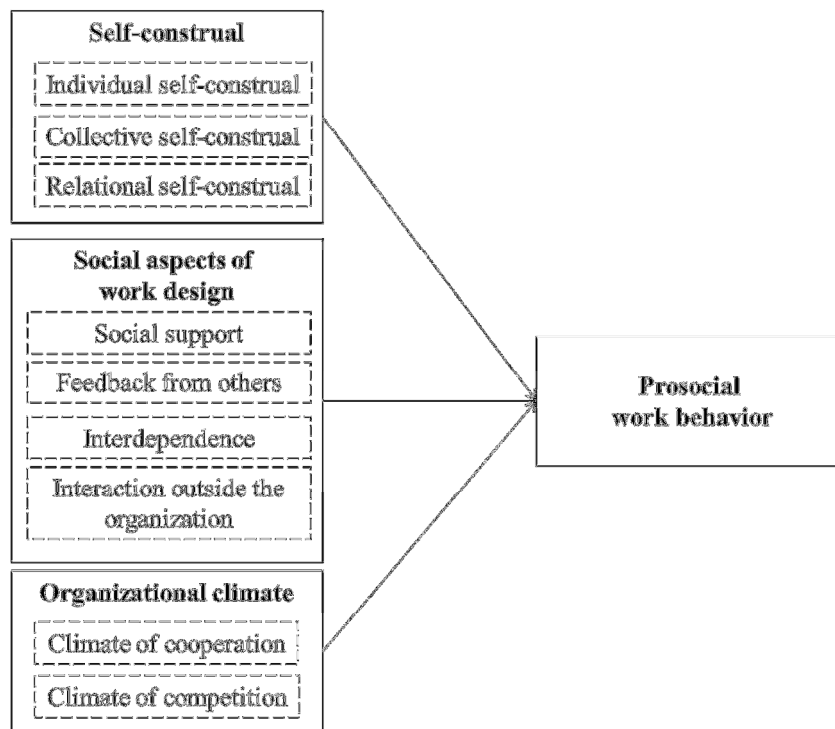


Figure 5. Antecedents of prosocial work behavior

The specific hypotheses to be tested are as follows.

*Hypothesis 1:* Self-construal is expected to predict prosocial work behavior. While both collective self-construal and relational self-construal are expected to positively affect prosocial work behavior, individual self-construal is expected to affect prosocial behavior negatively.

*Hypothesis 2:* Social aspects of work design are expected to predict prosocial work behavior. The more social elements one's work includes, the more prosocial behaviors are expected to be displayed. The effects of the social aspects of work design are expected to be uniform across all its subcomponents.

*Hypothesis 3:* Organizational climate is expected to predict prosocial work behavior. While a climate of cooperation is expected to affect prosocial work behaviors positively, the effect of a climate of competition is expected to be negative.

## METHOD

### 2.1. PARTICIPANTS

A total of 308 participants took part in the study. The questionnaire is distributed online. Participants were e-mailed a short invitation letter and a link to an online questionnaire. The invitation e-mails were addressed either personally or directed through business related or alumni e-mail groups. This way a wider distribution of participants was ensured both in terms of industry and geographical location. The participants were coming from various industries such as education (22.7%), marketing and market research (13.9%), banking and finance (10.7%), IT and communication (7.8%) and health (7.1%). In terms of their geographical distribution, the majority reported that they were working in Istanbul (53.9%) but employees working in other cities of Turkey such as İzmir (27.6%), Ankara (5.5%), Kocaeli (2.6%) and Bursa (2.3%) also took part in the study. Data collection took place between February 2012 and August 2012. A total of 798 participants started the survey but 308 of them completed the entire questionnaire, resulting in a completion rate of 39%. The final analyses are carried out using the data provided by these 308 participants.

**Table 4**  
**Age and tenure of participants**

	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age	22	62	33,70	7,50
Tenure (Overall)	0.80	39.92	10,91	7,89
Tenure (Current)	0.80	29.00	4,23	4,80

**Table 5**  
**Demographic profile of participants**

<b><i>Gender</i></b>	Male	46.1%
	Female	53.9%
<b><i>Education</i></b>	High school	3.6%
	College degree	55.5%
	Graduate degree	40.9%
<b><i>Managerial position</i></b>	Manager	43.5%
	Non-manager	56.5%
<b><i>Organization type</i></b>	State	15.9%
	Private	84.1%

According to several formulas provided to assess the required sample size to carry out the planned analyses, the final sample size (n=308) is considered adequate. For the factor analyses, building on the guide on sample sizes required for factor analysis provided by Comrey and Lee (1992) (as cited in Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) who categorize a sample size of 50 as very poor, 100 as poor, 200 as fair, 300 as good, 500 as very good, and 1000 as excellent to carry out a factor analysis, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) propose that “*as a general rule of thumb, it is comforting to have at least 300 cases for factor analysis*” (p.613). For the regression analyses, Green (1991) suggests two formulas to compute the minimum acceptable samples size, one for assessing the overall fit of the regression model, and the other for testing the individual predictors within the model. The current sample size satisfies both conditions. The minimum sample size formula used when testing the overall model is  $50+8k$ , where k is number of predictors. Treating each subscale as an individual predictor, the models tested have 8 predictors at most, which result in a minimum sample size which is well above the current sample size. The formula suggested to test individual predictors is  $104+k$ , where k is number of predictors. Again, the current sample size is well above the minimum sample size suggested.

## 2.2. INSTRUMENTS

### 2.2.1. Self-construal scale

Self-construal is assessed with the Relational, Individual, and Collective self-aspects (RIC) scale, developed by Kashima and Hardie (2000). The rationale behind this choice of instrument is twofold. First, the present study attempts to compare and contrast three types of self-construal and their contribution to prosocial behavior in organizations. Second, although not very frequently, this scale is previously used with a Turkish sample and demonstrated to have high reliability scores for each subscale (Gerçek, 2004).

**Table 6**  
**Internal consistency scores (Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ) for the original and Turkish versions of Relational, Individual and Collective self-aspects scale**

<i>Cronbach's <math>\alpha</math></i>	<i>Individual</i>	<i>Collective</i>	<i>Relational</i>
Kashima & Hardie (2000)	.72	.78	.81
Gerçek (2004)	.74	.88	.81

The scale is composed of 30 items and assesses individual (1a, 2b, 3b, 4c, 5c, 6a, 7a, 8a, 9b, 10c), collective (1c, 2c, 3a, 4b, 5a, 6c, 7c, 8c, 9a, 10a), and relational (1b, 2a, 3c, 4a, 5b, 6b, 7b, 8b, 9c, 10b) self-construal with 10 items for each. The items are grouped into ten sentence stems structured to enable the participants to rate each aspect of the self for each sentence stem. A 6 point likert scale is provided for each sentence. In the original questionnaire, each item was rated on a 10 point scale. However, in order to make the process easier for the participants, the same rating scale was used for each scale included in the battery. Therefore, the relational, individual and collective self aspects scale is used with a 6 point likert scale (See Appendix I).

### 2.2.2. Work design scale

Social characteristics of work design are assessed by the Work Design Questionnaire developed by Morgeson & Humphrey (2006). The scale consists of four subscales designed to assess task characteristics, knowledge characteristics, social characteristics, and work context. Given the purpose of the current study, only the social characteristics subscale was included in the questionnaire (See Appendix I). The social characteristics subscale is also composed of five subscales which are social support (Items 1, 8, 9, 11, 13, 15), initiated interdependence (Items 5, 7, 17), received interdependence (Items 2, 3, 16), interaction outside organization (Items 6, 10, 12, 18), and feedback from others (Items 4, 14, 19). Means, standard deviations and internal consistency scores (Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ) for each subscale from the original scale development study (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006) are provided in Table 7.

**Table 7**  
**Means, standard deviations and internal consistency scores**  
**(Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ) for the selected subscales of Work Design Questionnaire**

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i><math>\alpha</math></i>
Social support	4.12	.52	.82
Initiated interdependence	3.56	.82	.80
Received interdependence	3.69	.86	.84
Interaction outside organization	3.54	1.03	.91
Feedback from others	3.54	.72	.88

### 2.2.3. Organizational climate scale

Organizational climate was assessed by two subscales of a scale originally developed by Cooke and Rousseau (1988), to assess culture profiles of organizations (See Appendix I). The two subscales used for the present study are the ones assessing

cooperative (Items 2, 3, 5, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 16, 20) and competitive (Items 1, 4, 6, 7, 8, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19) aspects of an organization's culture profile. These two subscales were previously translated into Turkish (Özarallı, 2006).

#### **2.2.4. Prosocial work behavior scale**

Considering the fragmented approach to measuring prosocial behavior in organizations, the present study attempts to develop a measure of prosocial behavior in organizations by incorporating items from several relevant scales. The scale is intended to measure prosocial behavior on two axes, with regard to the beneficiary and the target of the act.

Therefore it is expected a four-factor structure composed of the following combinations of the two axes: (A) individual beneficiary and internal target, represented by behaviors such as helping a co-worker (Items 1, 4, 7, 9, 12, 19); (B) individual beneficiary and external target, represented by behaviors generally defined as extra-role service behavior such as helping or assisting a customer even it is not role prescribed (Items 3, 11, 13, 17, 21); (C) organization as the beneficiary and internal target, represented by behaviors including compliance, civic virtue or any other behavior performed with the benefit of the organization in mind (Items 6, 8, 10, 15, 18, 20) and (D) organization as the beneficiary and external target, represented by behaviors aimed at maintaining a positive company image (Items 2, 5, 14, 16, 22). The distribution of items in scale according to their original source is provided in Table 8 and the final scale is provided in Appendix II, along with the source information for each item.

**Table 8**  
**Distribution of items in the prosocial behavior scale according to**  
**their original source.**

<i>Source</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>Total</i>
Williams & Anderson (1991) OCBI	4				4
Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990) OCB/ Altruism	2				2
Bettencourt & Brown (1997) Extra-role customer service		5			5
Van Dyne & Le Pine (1998) Voice			3		3
Williams & Anderson (1991) OCBO			1		1
Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990) OCB/ Civic virtue			1		1
Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990) OCB/ Conscientiousness			1		1
Lee & Allen (2002) OCBO				5	5
<b><i>Total</i></b>	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>22</b>

## **RESULTS**

### **3.1. INSTRUMENTS**

Prior to testing the proposed models, the factor structure and internal consistency of the instruments were assessed. Factor structures of the instruments were assessed by conducting principal components analysis with varimax rotation and internal consistencies are assessed by calculating Cronbach's alpha. Below is a summary of factor structure and internal consistency for each instrument used in the present study.

#### **3.1.1. Self-construal scale**

Self-construal was assessed using the relational, individual and collective self-aspects scale (Kashima & Hardie, 2000). Exploratory factor analysis was performed to assess the structure of the self-construal scale, the results of both the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (.83) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $\chi^2(136)=2048.21$ ;  $p<.001$ ) indicated that it was appropriate to conduct factor analysis for the 30 items that formed the instrument. After performing the initial analysis, 8 factors emerged which accounted for 63.73% of total variance. Several other solutions were tried due to this unexpectedly high number of factors.

The original scale consisted of 30 items grouped into ten sentences structured to enable the participants to rate each aspect of the self for each sentence. Although such an approach is useful since it allows the participants to rate the self-aspects within comparable situations, a potential drawback was the salience of the sentence. That is, the sentence structure through which the self-aspects were rated might become more salient than the self-aspect to be rated. Basically, this might interfere with the factor structure of the 30 item scale. After performing the initial analysis, the observed factor structure suggested that this might indeed be the case for two sentences. Therefore these two sentence groups (5a, 5b, 5c and 8a, 8b, 8c), totaling to a group of six items were

discarded regardless of their loadings. Other items were mainly discarded for their cross loadings.

Due to the rather scattered nature of factors revealed by the first factor analysis, several other solutions were tried. The best solution, for which the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (.83) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $\chi^2(136)=2048.21$ ;  $p<.001$ ) indicated that it was appropriate to conduct factor analysis, was obtained by discarding several items (Items 1b, 2a, 3b, 5a, 5b, 5c, 7c, 8a, 8b, 8c, 9a, 9b, 9c) from the original scale. The final solution obtained accounted for 58.39% of total variance and was composed of four factors. The first factor, collective self-construal was composed of seven items, six indicating collective and one indicating relational self-construal in the original scale. The second factor, relational self-construal, was composed of four items, each indicating relational self-construal in the original scale. As opposed to the single factor structure of individual self-construal in the original scale, the present data showed a two-factor structure. Therefore, the third and fourth factors were composed of individual self-construal items with an emphasis on egoism and integrity components of individualism, respectively. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  scores were .90, .63, .66 and .58 for each subscale respectively.

However, considering the structure of the original scale and the factor loadings of the items as assessed by the unrotated solution, these two subfactors of the individual self-construal were collapsed into one factor assessing individual self-construal. Indeed, a similar approach was suggested by several researchers (e.g. Lord and Novick, 1968; Hambleton and Swaminathan, 1989; Reckase, 1979; as cited in Somer, 2004), especially when the construct being tested does not have clear-cut boundaries, which is the case for most of the psychological constructs, and self-construal being one of them. As such, the Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for the individual self-construal scale was .68.

**Table 9**  
**Factor structure and internal consistency of self-construal scale.**

<b>Factor 1 – Toplulukçu Benlik Kurgusu (Collective Self Construal)</b>	
Çocuklarıma ait oldukları gruba (mesela akrabalar, okul, klüp, mahalle, komşular vb.) sadık olmayı öğretirdim.	.820
Bence onurlu bir insan olmanın yolu ait olduğum gruplara (mesela akrabalar, okul, klüp, mahalle, komşular vb.) sadık olmaktır.	.804
Beni en çok memnun eden şey grubum (mesela akrabalar, okul, klüp, mahalle, komşular vb.) için bir şeyler yapmaktır.	.769
En önemsedığım şey grubumla (mesela akrabalar, okul, klüp, mahalle, komşular vb.) olan ilişkimdir.	.767
Kendimi grubumun (mesela akrabalar, okul, klüp, mahalle, komşular vb.) iyi bir üyesi olarak görürüm.	.766
Bence hayatta en önemli şey, ait olduğum grubun (mesela akrabalar, okul, klüp, mahalle, komşular vb.) iyiliği için çalışmaktır.	.713
Bence onurlu bir insan olmanın yolu yakın ilişkim olan insanlara bağlı olmaktır.	.615
Eigenvalue = 5.45	
Variance explained = 25.18%	
Cronbach's $\alpha$ = .90	
<b>Factor 2 – İlişkisel Benlik Kurgusu (Relational Self Construal)</b>	
En önemsedığım şey çok değer verdiğim/ bana en yakın olan insanla ilişkimdir.	.767
Beni en çok memnun eden şey önemsedığım kimseler için bir şeyler yapmaktır.	.640
Önemli bir kişisel karar vermem gerektiğinde birlikte olduğum kişi/ eşim veya en yakın arkadaşım ile konuşurum.	.545
Kendimi iyi bir eş veya arkadaş olarak görürüm.	.470
Eigenvalue = 2.35	
Variance explained = 11.67%	
Cronbach's $\alpha$ = .63	

<b>Factor 3 – Bireysel Benlik Kurgusu/ Bencilik (Individual Self Construal/ Egoism)</b>	
Beni en çok memnun eden şey kendim için bir şeyler yapmaktır.	.776
En önemsedğim şey kendimle olan ilişkimdir.	.740
Önemli bir kişisel karar vermem gerektiğinde kendime gerçekten en çok ne yapmak istediğimi sorarım.	.648
Eigenvalue	= 1.10
Variance explained	= 11.29%
Cronbach's $\alpha$	= .66
<b>Factor 4 – Bireysel Benlik Kurgusu/ Bütünlük (Individual Self Construal/ Integrity)</b>	
Bence onurlu bir insan olmanın yolu kendime karşı dürüst olmaktır.	.759
Bence hayatta en önemli şey, tutarlı ve kendime karşı dürüst olmaktır.	.745
Çocuklarıma kendilerini tanımalarını ve kendilerini geliştirmelerini öğretirdim.	.465
Eigenvalue	= 1.03
Variance explained	= 10.26%
Cronbach's $\alpha$	= .58
<b>Total variance explained</b>	<b>= 58.39%</b>

### 3.1.2. Work design scale

The results of both the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (.84) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $\chi^2(171)=3487.48$ ;  $p<.001$ ) indicated that it was appropriate to conduct factor analysis for the 19 items that formed the instrument. After performing the initial analysis, 4 factors emerged which accounted for the 67.30% of total variance. However, one item (Item 1) appeared as a single item factor and therefore discarded. The factor structure was assessed once again with the remaining 18 items for which the results of both the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (.84) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $\chi^2(153)=3358.72$ ;  $p<.001$ ) indicated that it was appropriate to conduct factor analysis. As such, 3 factors emerged explaining 63.55% of total variance. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for the final instrument was .87. The items forming the first factor had a common theme of communication and interaction

both within and outside the organization, hence this factor is labeled as “interaction”. The second factor is formed of items pertaining to “interdependence”. Finally, the items with a general theme of coworkers’ care and interest towards others are grouped under the third factor which is therefore labeled as “caring”. When these three factors are analyzed individually, internal consistencies were found to be high. Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  scores were .92, .84 and .84 for the interaction, interdependence and caring subscales respectively.

**Table 10**

**Factor structure and internal consistency of social aspects of work design scale**

<b>Factor 1 – Etkileşim (Interaction)</b>		
İşimi yaparken kurum dışından kişilerle etkileşimim çok olur.		.916
İşimde başkalarını tanıma şansına sahibim.		.873
İşimi yaparken benimle aynı kurumda çalışmayan kişilerle sıkça iletişim kururum.		.865
Çalıştığım kurumun dışından kişilerle temasa geçmek işimin bir parçasıdır.		.850
İşimde başkalarıyla tanışma fırsatım var.		.807
İşim, benimle aynı kurumda çalışmayan kişilerle çokça zaman geçirmemi gerektirir.		.674
Eigenvalue	= 5.97	
Variance explained	= 24.73%	
Cronbach’s $\alpha$	= .92	
<b>Factor 2 – Karşılıklı bağımlılık (Interdependence)</b>		
Diğerlerinin yaptığı iş doğrudan benimkine bağlıdır.		.824
Diğerleri işlerini yapmazsa benim işim yapılamaz.		.772
İşimin tamamlanması birçok farklı kişinin yaptığı işlere bağlıdır.		.765
Benim işim yapılmadan diğer işler tamamlanamaz.		.763
İşim, kurumdaki diğer çalışanların işlerinden oldukça etkilenir.		.701
Yaptığım iş, diğerlerinininkinden önce benim işimin tamamlanmasını gerektirir.		.567
Eigenvalue	= 2.88	
Variance explained	= 19.84	
Cronbach’s $\alpha$	= .84	

<b>Factor 3 – İlgi (Caring)</b>	
Kurumumdaki diğer kişilerden (örn. yöneticim ve çalışma arkadaşlarımdan) işimle ilgili geri bildirim alırım.	.813
Yöneticim çalışanlarının iyiliğiyle ilgilenir.	.811
Beraber çalıştığım kişiler arkadaş canlısıdır.	.756
Yöneticim ve çalışma arkadaşlarımdan işteki performansım hakkında çokça bilgi alırım.	.707
Beraber çalıştığım kişiler benimle kişisel olarak ilgilenir.	.695
Kurumumda çalışan diğer kişiler yaptığım işin etkinliğiyle ilgili (örn. nitelik ve nicelik bakımından) bana bilgi verirler.	.599
Eigenvalue	= 2.59
Variance explained	= 18.99%
Cronbach's $\alpha$	= .84
<b>Total variance explained</b>	<b>= 63.55%</b>
<b>Cronbach's <math>\alpha</math></b>	<b>= .87</b>

### 3.1.3. Organizational climate scale

The results of both the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (.87) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $\chi^2(190)=3246.90$ ;  $p<.001$ ) indicated that it was appropriate to conduct factor analysis for the 20 items that formed the instrument. After performing the initial analysis, 4 factors emerged which accounted for 63.20% of total variance. Considering the robustness of the constructs in question, a 2 factor solution was forced and successfully extracted, accounting for 51.92% of total variance. The items in the first factor revolved around a theme of cooperation and harmony, hence this factor was accepted as indicative of a climate of "cooperation". On the other hand, the items in the second factors had competitiveness as a general theme, hence this factor was named to indicate a climate of "competition". When the factors are analyzed individually, internal consistencies for both factors were found to be high. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  scores were .89 and .88 for cooperation and competition subscales respectively.

**Table 11****Factor structure and internal consistency of organizational climate scale**

<b>Factor 1 – İşbirliği/ Uyum (Cooperation/ Harmony)</b>	
Başkalarının ihtiyaçları ile ilgilenmek	.851
Başkalarının gelişmesine ve büyümesine yardımcı olmak	.846
Başkalarına zaman ayırmak/ ilgilenmek	.834
Başkalarını cesaretlendirmek	.816
Başkalarına destek olmak	.730
Başkalarının kendileri için düşüncelerine yardımcı olmak	.701
İyi bir dinleyici olmak	.679
Çatışmaları olumlu olarak çözmek	.614
Başkalarını ilgilendiren kararlarda onları da işin içine katmak	.532
Diğer çalışanlara ödüller vermek	.510
Eigenvalue	= 5.79
Variance explained	= 27.27%
Cronbach's $\alpha$	= .89
<b>Factor 2 – Rekabet (Competition)</b>	
Göz önünde olmak ve dikkat çekmek	.806
Başkalarının karşısında kazanmak	.788
Üstünlük imajına sahip olmak	.775
İş yarış haline getirmek	.715
Asla kaybediyor görünmemek	.675
İşbirliği yerine rekabete önem vermek	.670
Her zaman haklı çıkmaya çalışmak	.669
İlgi odağı olmak	.652
Aynı işi yapanlardan daha üstün başarı göstermek	.601
Her zaman "kazanan" olmak	.474
Eigenvalue	= 4.60
Variance explained	= 24.65%
Cronbach's $\alpha$	= .88
<b>Total variance explained</b>	<b>= 51.92%</b>

**3.1.4. Prosocial work behavior scale**

Prosocial work behavior was assessed with a scale specifically designed for the present study. It was hypothesized that the factor structure would yield to four factors depending on the target audience and the beneficiary of the prosocial act.

However, the final analysis yielded to three factors emphasizing the beneficiary of the act.

The results of both the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (.94) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $\chi^2(231)=4661.16$ ;  $p<.001$ ) indicated that it was appropriate to conduct factor analysis for the 22 items that formed the instrument. After performing the initial analysis, 4 factors emerged which accounted for the 66.67% of total variance. Following a series of consecutive analyses a total of 4 items are excluded (Items 3, 10, 15, 18) from the final scale due to the cross loadings of these items. Thus the factor structure was assessed once again with the remaining 18 items for which the results of both the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (.93) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $\chi^2(153)=3431.63$ ;  $p<.001$ ) indicated that it was appropriate to conduct factor analysis. As such, the final instrument is composed of 18 items, loaded on 3 factors which accounted for 63.52% of total variance. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for the final instrument was .94. The first factor was composed of items which pointed to the organization as the beneficiary of the prosocial act, therefore labeled as "organization as beneficiary". The items in the second and third factors pointed to the individual as beneficiary. However, they differed in whether this individual was a member of the organization or not. More specifically, the second factor was composed of items with an individual beneficiary external to the organization, such as a supplier, client, student or patient, while the third factor was composed of items with an individual beneficiary internal to the organization, such as a colleague or coworker. Therefore, the second and third factors were labeled as "external beneficiary" and "internal beneficiary", referring to the beneficiary of the prosocial act. When the factors are analyzed individually, internal consistencies for all factors were found to be high. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  scores were .90, .89, .84 and for organizational, external and internal subscales respectively.

**Table 12****Factor structure and internal consistency of prosocial work behavior scale**

<b>Factor 1 – Kurum faydasına yönelik (Organization as beneficiary)</b>	
Çalıştığım kurumdan toplum içinde gururla bahsederim.	.829
Dışarıdan gelen olumsuz eleştiriler karşısında çalıştığım kurumu savunurum.	.794
Çalıştığım kuruma bağlılığımı başkalarına gösteririm.	.780
Çalıştığım kurumun dışarıdaki imajını önemserim.	.743
Zorunlu olmasa da çalıştığım kurumun imajına katkısı olacak etkinliklere katılırım.	.627
Kurumumdaki yeni projeler veya süreç değişiklikleri ile ilgili olarak fikir belirtirim.	.598
Zorunlu olmayan ancak önemli görülen toplantılara katılırım.	.489
Eigenvalue	= 8.82
Variance explained	= 23.80%
Cronbach's $\alpha$	= .90
<b>Factor 2 – Dışa yönelik (External beneficiary)</b>	
Kurumumla ilişkili kişilere (müşteri, tedarikçi, öğrenci, hasta vb.) yardım etmek için fazladan çaba gösteririm.	.830
Kurumumla ilişkili kişileri (müşteri, tedarikçi, öğrenci, hasta vb.) memnun etmek için isteyerek fazladan çaba gösteririm.	.801
Kurumumla ilişkili kişiler (müşteri, tedarikçi, öğrenci, hasta vb.) sorun yaşadıklarında benden beklenenin veya gerekenin ötesinde yardım ederim.	.746
Kurumumlailşkili kişilere (müşteri, tedarikçi, öğrenci, hasta vb.) hizmet ederken görevimin gereklerinin üzerine çıkarım.	.737
Zorunlu olmasa da işe yeni başlayanların oryantasyonuna (işe alışmalarına) yardımcı olurum.	.570
Eigenvalue	= 1.39
Variance explained	= 20.28%
Cronbach's $\alpha$	= .89

<b>Factor 3 – İçe yönelik (Internal beneficiary)</b>	
İş arkadaşlarımın sıkıntı ve problemlerini dinlemeye zaman ayırırım.	.765
İşe ilgili problemleri olan çalışma arkadaşlarıma yardım ederim.	.739
Kurumumdaki diğer çalışanlara yardımcı olmaya her zaman hazırım.	.695
İş arkadaşlarıma bilgi aktarırım.	.638
İş yükü ağır olanlara yardım ederim.	.574
Çalıştığım kurumda düzenin sağlanması için geliştirilmiş, yazılı olmayan kurallara uyarım.	.552
Eigenvalue	= 1.23
Variance explained	= 19.44%
Cronbach's $\alpha$	= .84
<b>Total variance explained</b>	<b>= 63.52%</b>
<b>Cronbach's <math>\alpha</math></b>	<b>= .94</b>

Having established the factor structure of the scales used to assess the study variables, a correlation analysis is performed in order to see all the intercorrelations among variables. Zero order correlations are presented in Table 13 as well as mean scores and standard deviations.

**Table 13.**  
**Means, standard deviations and zero order correlations of study variables**

	Mean	SD	Individual self-construal	Collective self-construal	Relational self-construal	Social aspects of work design	Interaction	Interdependence	Caring	Climate of cooperation	Climate of competition	Prosocial work behavior	Organization as the beneficiary	External beneficiary	Internal beneficiary	
Individual self-construal	5.51	0.45	1													
Collective self-construal	4.66	0.87	.199**	1												
Relational self-construal	5.27	0.53	.416**	.510**	1											
Social aspects of work design	4.15	0.78	.196**	.209**	.189**	1										
<i>Interaction</i>	4.43	1.21	.218**	.195**	.208**	.783**	1									
<i>Interdependence</i>	4.03	1.03	.101	-.016	.049	.678**	.287**	1								
<i>Caring</i>	4.00	1.01	.091	.268**	.139*	.693**	.328**	.213**	1							
Climate of cooperation	4.22	0.89	.084	.247**	.090	.371**	.197**	.073	.552**	1						
Climate of competition	3.81	0.96	.168**	-.040	.142*	.027	.042	.125*	-.115*	-.091	1					
Prosocial work behavior	4.43	0.86	.225**	.410**	.358**	.412**	.356**	.146*	.382**	.378**	-.037	1				
<i>Organization as the beneficiary</i>	4.36	1.05	.188**	.394**	.301**	.429**	.360**	.133*	.430**	.410**	-.064	.914**	1			
<i>External beneficiary</i>	4.29	1.08	.188**	.348**	.282**	.338**	.328**	.121*	.269**	.278**	.032	.875**	.676**	1		
<i>Internal beneficiary</i>	4.62	0.78	.230**	.332**	.385**	.297**	.231**	.134*	.277**	.284**	-.058	.855**	.666**	.674**	1	

The correlations among individual, collective and relational self-construal were in line with expectations. While the correlation between individual and collective self-construal was low yet significant ( $r(306) = .20, p < .01$ ), the correlation between relational self-construal and individual self-construal ( $r(306) = .42, p < .01$ ) as well as the correlation between relational self-construal and collective construal ( $r(306) = .51, p < .01$ ) were rather high.

Regarding the correlations among organizational climate and the social aspects of work design, a distinct pattern emerged pointing to the differential relationship between caring and organizational climate. While the climate of cooperation correlated positively with interaction ( $r(306) = .20, p < .01$ ) and caring ( $r(306) = .55, p < .01$ ), the climate of competition correlated positively with interdependence ( $r(306) = .13, p < .01$ ) and negatively with caring ( $r(306) = .12, p < .01$ ).

The pattern of correlations among the three types of self-construal and the social aspects of work design also reveal the distinct position of interdependence as opposed to interaction and caring. While interaction correlates positively with individual ( $r(306) = .22, p < .01$ ), collective ( $r(306) = .20, p < .01$ ) and relational ( $r(306) = .21, p < .01$ ) self construal and caring with collective ( $r(306) = .27, p < .01$ ) and relational ( $r(306) = .14, p < .01$ ) self-construal, interdependence does not correlate significantly with any of the self-construal types.

### **3.2. HYPOTHESIS TESTING**

Following the factor analyses, the factor structure of independent variables appeared slightly different from expected. Although this finding did not require a major change in the hypotheses to be tested, the new model according to the observed factor structure appeared as below (Figure 6).

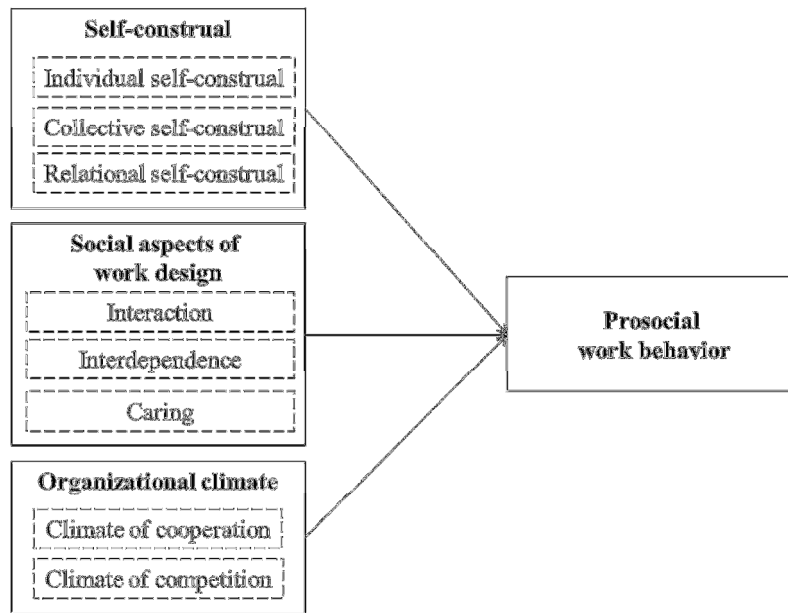


Figure 6. Antecedents of prosocial behavior according to the observed factor structure of independent variables.

A series of regression analyses were carried out in order to test hypothesized models. A multiple regression analysis was performed in order to single out the individual effects of each predictor on prosocial work behavior. All the predictors were entered as standardized scores to the regression models. The results are presented in Table 14.

Among all the predictors in the model, the effects of collective self-construal ( $\beta = .196$ ,  $t = 3.45$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), relational self-construal ( $\beta = .168$ ,  $t = 2.84$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), interaction ( $\beta = .182$ ,  $t = 3.47$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and the climate of cooperation ( $\beta = .204$ ,  $t = 3.61$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) on prosocial work behaviors were found to be significant. As such, the model achieves to explain 33% of the variance in prosocial work behaviors.

**Table 14**  
**Regression analysis for prosocial behavior as predicted by self-construal, social aspects of work design and organizational climate**

<u>Dependent variable</u>					
<i>Prosocial behavior</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	$R^2$	<i>Adjusted</i> $R^2$	<i>F</i>
<i>Total</i>					
<u>Model</u>			.347	.329	19.83**
Individual self-construal	.051	.98			
Collective self-construal	.196	3.45**			
Relational self-construal	.168	2.84**			
Interaction	.182	3.47**			
Interdependence	.050	1.00			
Caring	.113	1.90			
Climate of cooperation	.204	3.61**			
Climate of competition	-.044	-.91			

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$

Hypothesis 1 suggested that individual self-construal would affect prosocial work behavior negatively while collective and relational self construal would have a positive effect. While this prediction holds true for collective and relational self-construal, the effect of individual self-construal was not significant. Therefore, hypothesis 1 was only supported for relational and collective self-construal.

Hypothesis 2 suggesting a positive relationship between social aspects of work design and prosocial work behaviors is partly supported. Among the subcomponents of the social aspects of work design, only interaction was found to have a significant effect on prosocial work behaviors. The effects of the two other components, interdependence and caring, were not found to be significant.

Hypothesis 3 suggesting a positive relationship between the climate of cooperation and prosocial work behavior as opposed to the negative relationship between the climate of competition and prosocial work behaviors was partially supported. While the positive relationship between the climate of cooperation and

prosocial work behavior was supported, the negative relationship expected between the climate of competition and prosocial work behaviors was not supported.

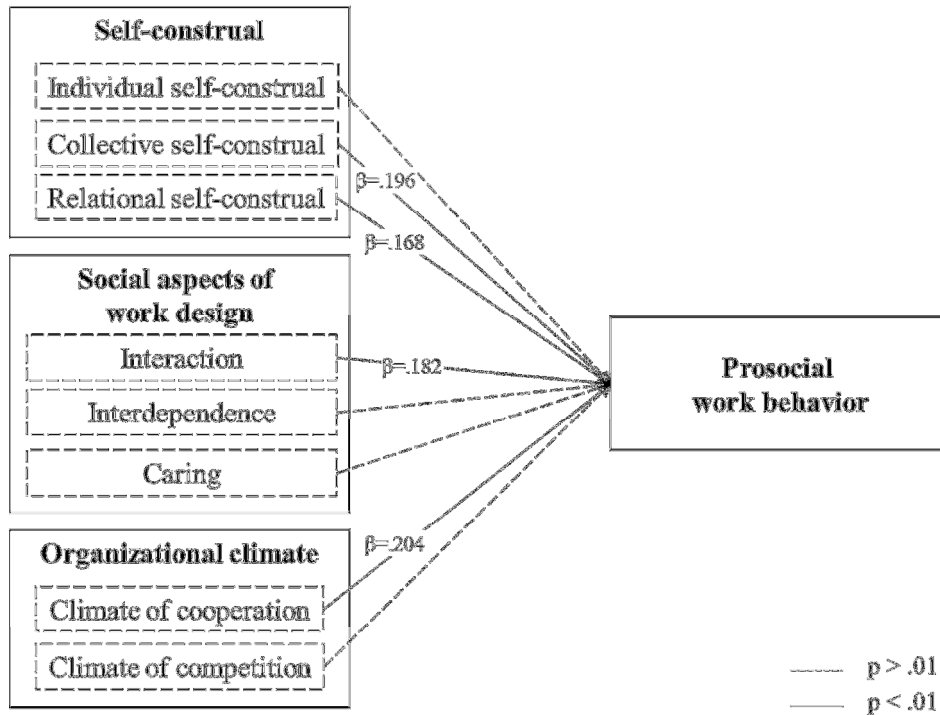


Figure 7. Significant contributions to prosocial work behavior

### 3.3. ADDITIONAL ANALYSES

Although not stated as specific hypotheses, an additional aim of the present study was to investigate the effects of self-construal, social aspects of work design and organizational climate on the different components of prosocial work behaviors with respect to the beneficiary and the audience of the act. More specifically, prosocial work behaviors were thought to be composed of four types lying on two axes, one representing the beneficiary and the other the audience towards which the act was performed.

However, as reported in the previous sections, the expected four factor structure was not observed for prosocial work behaviors. Rather, prosocial work behaviors were found to be differentiated according to their beneficiaries. Three types of prosocial work behaviors were observed with respect to their beneficiaries. These were prosocial behaviors having the organization as the beneficiary, having an external beneficiary (e.g. clients, suppliers etc.) and having an internal beneficiary (e.g. coworkers).

Separate regression analyses were carried out to investigate the differential effects of the antecedents in the model to the three subcomponents of prosocial work behaviors. A summary table stating the relevant  $\beta$  values as well as their significance is provided below (see Appendix III for regression analyses for each subcomponent).

**Table 15**  
**Significant contributions to the subcomponents of prosocial behavior as assessed by separate regression analyses**

<i><math>\beta</math></i>	<i>Prosocial behavior (Total)</i>	<i>Organization as beneficiary</i>	<i>External beneficiary</i>	<i>Internal beneficiary</i>
Individual self-construal	.051	.035	.040	.068
Collective self-construal	.196**	.194**	.205**	.106
Relational self-construal	.168**	.111	.093	.274**
Interaction	.182**	.189**	.206**	.065
Interdependence	.050	.028	.033	.083
Caring	.113	.168**	.042	.063
Climate of cooperation	.204**	.213**	.151*	.165**
Climate of competition	-.044	-.051	.026	-.095

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$

Collective self-construal and relational self-construal were found to affect prosocial behavior in terms of total score. However, their contributions were differential in terms of the beneficiary of the prosocial act. While collective self-construal was

found to significantly predict prosocial acts having the organization as the beneficiary ( $\beta = .194$ ,  $t = 3.42$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and prosocial acts having an external beneficiary ( $\beta = .205$ ,  $t = 3.32$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), relational self construal was found to affect prosocial acts having an internal beneficiary ( $\beta = .274$ ,  $t = 4.32$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

Regarding the contribution of the social aspects of work design on prosocial behaviors, a similar differentiation was observed for the interaction and caring dimensions. While interaction was found to affect prosocial work behaviors significantly, caring was not. However, the effect of interaction was significant for prosocial behaviors having the organization as the beneficiary ( $\beta = .189$ ,  $t = 3.62$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and for prosocial behaviors having an external beneficiary ( $\beta = .206$ ,  $t = 3.64$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) while it was not for prosocial behaviors having an internal beneficiary. On the other hand, among the social aspects of work design, caring had no significant effect on prosocial work behaviors. However, when analyzed separately, it was found to affect prosocial behaviors having the organization as beneficiary ( $\beta = .168$ ,  $t = 2.81$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

Regarding organizational climate, however, the effects of both the climate of cooperation and the climate of competition were found to be uniform across the three types of prosocial work behaviors. While the climate of cooperation was found predict prosocial behavior in terms of total score as well as its three subcomponents, the effect of the climate of competition was not significant.

In addition to testing the proposed model and the contributions of self-construal, social aspects of work design and organizational climate on the different components of prosocial work behaviors, exploratory analyses were performed in order to spot the differential effects of demographic variables on prosocial behaviors. The effects of gender, managerial position and organization type were investigated. While prosocial behaviors were not found to differ according to the agents' gender or organization type, they were found to differ according to the agents' managerial position. Employees in a managerial position ( $M = 4.63$ ,  $SD = .80$ ) reported performing prosocial behaviors ( $t(306) = 3.80$ ,  $p < .01$ ) more than the employees in non managerial positions ( $M = 4.27$ ,  $SD = .87$ ). This was also the case for prosocial behaviors having the organization as beneficiary ( $M = 4.70$ ,  $SD = .90$  for managers, and  $M = 4.10$ ,

SD = 1.09 for non-managers,  $t(306) = 5.13$ ,  $p < .01$ ), prosocial behaviors having an external beneficiary (M = 4.43, SD = 1.00 for managers, and M = 4.18, SD = 1.13 for non-managers,  $t(306) = 2.02$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and prosocial behaviors having an internal beneficiary (M = 4.73, SD = .78 for managers, and M = 4.53, SD = .77 for non-managers,  $t(306) = 2.32$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

## **DISCUSSION**

The present study is carried out in order to identify the antecedents of prosocial work behaviors at three levels of generality. At the personal level, the effects of self-construal, more specifically, individual, collective and relational self-construal, were investigated. At the task level, the contributions of the social aspects of work design to prosocial behaviors were at the focus. Finally, at the organizational level, the contributions of organizational climate were investigated. The specific climate factors being investigated were the climate of cooperation and the climate of competition.

### **4.1. PROSOCIAL WORK BEHAVIORS AND THEIR ANTECEDENTS**

A total of four instruments were used to assess the variables in the present study. The validity of each instrument for the current sample was assessed through a series of exploratory factor analyses. All four scales were found to be valid and reliable, although the findings pointed out some differences between the original and Turkish versions.

In order to assess self-construal, relational, individual and collective self-aspects scale devised by Kashima and Hardie (2000) was used in the present study. Although items measuring individual, collective and relational self-construal emerged as different factors, the scale differed from its original version in two major ways. First, items for two sentence stems were not differentiated for the self-construal types that they intended to assess. They both appeared as single factors indicating that these two item clusters did not work in the Turkish version. A similar result, again with a Turkish sample, was obtained by Ercan (2011), where one factor included all three items of the same sentence stem. Concluding that the item was not working as intended in that specific sample, the researcher discarded all three items belonging to this sentence stem and proceeded with the analyses. The same approach was adopted in the present study. Second, individual self-construal showed a two-factor structure as opposed to the single factor structure of collective and relational self-construal. However, these two

subfactors were collapsed into one and relevant analyses were carried out using this newly formed individual self-construal factor.

The two subfactors forming individual self-construal were emphasizing two different components, each compatible with individualism. These were integrity and egoism components. Integrity is defined as the degree to which one adheres to a set of principles that is considered acceptable (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995) while egoism refers to the exclusive concern with satisfying one's own needs and wants. Building on the relationship between individualism and principlism, integrity appears as a sound component of individual self-construal. On the other hand, egoism, with an emphasis on individual's own priorities rather than those of the close others or the group, also fits well into the picture of individual self-construal.

Compared to the original 19-item scale (Social aspects subscale of the Work design Questionnaire) devised by Morgeson and Humphrey (2006) the Turkish version showed a slightly different factor structure. The original scale was composed of five factors. The factors were social support, initiated interdependence, received interdependence, interaction outside organization and feedback from others. However in the Turkish version, one item (originally belonging to the social support factor) was discarded since it appeared as a single item factor and the total number of factors from the resulting 18 items was three.

The items in the two factors of initiated and received interdependence converged into one factor. Considering the difference with respect to the level of individualism between the current and original samples, this can be considered as an expected finding. The original study was carried out in the United States where the individualism score was 91 (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). In comparison, in a country like Turkey where the individualism score was 37, it is understandable the difference between the two types of interdependence, initiated and received, doesn't matter much. In other words, the fact that the job requires interdependence of any two parties is perceived as more salient than the individuals who are at the receiving or initiating end of it.

The items in the social support factor were dispersed into two other factors of interaction outside organization and feedback from others. In that way, the newly formed “interaction” factor was composed of items emphasizing interaction both within and outside organization. Two items originally belonging to the social support factor of the questionnaire converged with the items from the interaction outside organization factor. Interestingly enough, these two factors had reference to “others” (i.e. other employees, colleagues) in the workplace. This difference between the two versions can also be attributed to cultural differences. In a collectivistic society, people in one’s immediate environment are usually perceived as members of one’s in-group. Since these in-groups also refer to the organizations one works for (Hofstede et al., 2010), “others” in one’s in-group can easily be interpreted as a contradiction in terms. Therefore, these two items referring to the social support provided by other people at work can easily be interpreted as focusing on the interaction rather than “other” people at work.

Also, items from the feedback from others factor converged with the remaining social support items resulting in a new factor for which the focus was on “caring”. Again, the cultural differences between the two samples appear as the primary source of this structure. Collectivism is defined by its emphasis on harmony among group members at one side and the prevalence of indirect communication and indirect feedback at the other (Hofstede et al., 2010). Combining these two elements of collectivistic cultures, it becomes easier to interpret professional feedback and personal care and interest as interchangeable. Indeed, the current factor structure where items from social support and feedback from others appear as one factor can be read as a reflection of this blurring of lines between these two concepts in collectivistic cultures.

The scale used to assess organizational climate was employed with its original version, having ten items for each subscale. One subscale was found to reliably measure the climate of cooperation while the other the climate of competition.

Prosocial work behavior scale was designed for the current study. Following the approach outlined by Brief and Motowidlo (1986), prosocial work behavior is defined along two axes one representing the beneficiary of the act and the other

representing the audience (i.e. the immediate observer of the prosocial act). Operationalized as such, prosocial work behavior scale was expected to be composed of four factors. However, the resulting instrument had three factors for which the discriminatory aspect was the beneficiary of the prosocial act.

The first factor, focusing on the organization as the beneficiary, was mainly composed of items taken from the OCBO scale devised by Lee and Allen (2002). Two items originally belonged to the civic virtue subscale of another measure of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 1990). One item referred to the voice behavior, a rather neglected aspect of prosocial work behavior, identified by Brief and Motowidlo (1986), however not emphasized enough in later studies. This item, pertaining to voice behavior was taken from the scale devised to assess voice behavior in organizations (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

The second factor, with the emphasis on beneficiaries external to the organization, was mainly composed of items taken from the scale devised by Bettencourt and Brown (1997). The scale was originally used to assess prosocial service behaviors demonstrated by contact employees. Among the three components originally identified to assess prosocial service behaviors, the items pertaining to extra-role customer service were included in the present scale. The original study was carried out with bank tellers and customer service managers of the same bank. Considering the heterogeneous nature of the present sample the items were generalized by changing the word “customer” with “people involved with my organization, such as customers, suppliers, students, patients etc.”. Only one item in this factor had a different source. As a shared item of two other scales, it was previously associated with both the altruism component of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 1990) and OCBI (Williams & Anderson, 1991). The item’s specific reference to new employees can be interpreted as indicative of their status as an out-group member, close enough to provide help for their orientation but not yet accepted as a member of the work group.

As expected, the third factor points to the internal beneficiaries of prosocial behaviors at work. Internal beneficiaries refer to colleagues and other employees at the workplace. With one exception, all items in this factor were originally belonging to

either the altruism component of organizational citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 1990) or organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards individuals (Williams & Anderson, 1991). However, one item, with reference to the informal rules accepted in the organization appeared as part of this rather homogenous factor. This item was originally used to assess organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards the organization (Williams & Anderson, 1991). However, for the current sample, this item showed a common pattern with items having other employees as the beneficiary. Again, from a cultural point of view, adhering to informal norms can be seen as beneficial to other employees, to the extent that this kind of behavior prevents possible sources of conflict between individual members of the organization.

As the outcome variable, the correlations between prosocial work behavior and other study variables reveal several points worth discussing.

With regard to self-construal types, all correlations with prosocial work behaviors were significant, with the highest correlation observed between prosocial work behavior and collective self-construal, followed by relational self-construal, then by individual self-construal. When the subtypes of prosocial work behaviors were considered, highest correlations were observed between collective self-construal and prosocial behaviors having the organization as beneficiary and relational self-construal and prosocial behaviors having an internal beneficiary. This finding is consistent with previous findings associating collective self-construal with affective commitment (Johnson & Chang, 2006). In light of these findings, it can be proposed that affective commitment and prosocial acts that have the organization as the beneficiary might have been sharing some common underlying element. Although significant, the lowest correlations were observed between individual self-construal and all the subtypes of prosocial behaviors.

A moderate and significant positive correlation was also observed between prosocial work behavior and social aspects of work design. Regarding their subcomponents, all were correlated significantly but the correlation between prosocial behavior having the organization as the beneficiary and the caring subcomponent of

work design was the highest. The lowest, but still significant, correlation was observed between interdependence and prosocial behaviors having an external beneficiary.

Although significant, the correlations between all types of prosocial behavior and interdependence were rather moderate. In fact, interdependence, in contrast to other social aspects of work design, showed rather low correlations with almost all study variables. This finding, together with the task references in items which constitute the interdependence component, as well as its positive and significant correlation with the climate of competition, can be indicative of the double sided nature of interdependence. Pertaining both to the social and task related aspects of work design, interdependence might itself present a multifactorial structure, which can be investigated further.

This duality is also represented in organizational literature by two conflicting views regarding the nature of interdependence. While Thompson (1967, cited in Bachrach, Powell, Collins, & Richey, 2006) treats interdependence as a characteristic of work, Shea and Guzzo (1983, cited in Bachrach et al., 2006) view it as a behavioral attribute instrumental in the completion of work. Interdependence has also been shown to act as a moderator between citizenship behaviors and group performance as assessed by group speed and accuracy in a given group task. In high interdependence condition, citizenship behaviors and group performance were positively associated. However, in low interdependence condition, only a moderate level of citizenship behaviors were found to positively affect group performance, while lower or higher levels of citizenship behaviors were associated with lower performance (Bachrach et al., 2006). In a similar manner, the lower correlations observed for interdependence in the current study might be a result of possible nonlinear relationships between interdependence and other study variables.

Also, the correlation between interdependence and the climate of competition, coupled with the lack of significant correlations between interdependence and any of the self-construal types, suggests that, among the social aspects of work design, interdependence might be more susceptible to the effects of organizational level variables rather than the effects of variables at the personal level.

Social aspects of work design were all found to correlate positively with the climate of cooperation but not with the climate of competition. This finding can be interpreted as an indication of the effects of several other variables factoring in a climate of competition. This may be due to the composite structure of competition. Being not an exact opposite of cooperation, competition may be presenting a multifaceted structure as outlined by Fletcher and Nusbaum (2010). A competitive climate, according to Fletcher and Nusbaum (2010) is identified by five distinct components which are competition for tangible rewards, competition for nontangible rewards, competition for recognition, competition for status and competitive coworkers. Although some of these components might be associated with the social aspects of work, it is clear that some of them would have a more direct relationship with managerial practices. By contrast, the climate of cooperation seems to be more likely to vary together with the social aspects of work.

When treated individually, among the social aspects of work design, only caring was found to correlate with both the climate of cooperation and the climate of competition. The relationship between caring and competition was a negative one whereas the relationship between caring and cooperation was a positive one. As such, caring appears to act as a bipolar correlate of organizational climate. Correlating with both cooperation and competition, albeit in different directions, caring, compared to interaction and interdependence, can be thought as the strongest contributor to organizational climate.

The model assumed direct relationships between the hypothesized antecedents and prosocial work behavior. Therefore, self-construal, social aspects of work design and organizational climate were regressed on prosocial work behavior. Overall, collective self-construal, relational self-construal, interaction and the climate of cooperation were found to affect prosocial work behaviors positively.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that the contribution of collective and relational self-construal to prosocial work behaviors would be positive while the contribution of individual self-construal would be negative. This hypothesis is partly supported, only

for collective and relational self-construal. The effect of individual self-construal on prosocial work behaviors, however, was not significant.

Collective self-construal is found to affect prosocial work behavior. This finding is in line with previous findings reported in literature, pointing to a possible relationship between self-construal and various behavioral patterns. For example, Johnson and Chang (2006) reported that continuance commitment was related to individual self-concept whereas affective commitment was related to collective self-concept. Furthermore, they reported that self-concept had also a moderating role in the relationship between commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors. More specifically, the relationship between continuance commitment and organizational citizenship was stronger for individuals with an individual self-concept whereas the relationship between affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors was stronger for individuals with a collective self-concept. Although the effects of self-construal on prosocial work behaviors are evident from the model, the process through which it exerts its effect was beyond the scope of the present study. Yet, motivational processes regarding prosocial acts constitute a prime topic for further investigation.

The relationships among the main variables were also assessed with regard to their subcomponents. Several patterns emerged. When self-construal types were regressed on the three subcomponents of prosocial work behavior, the effect of individual self-construal was not significant for any of the subtypes of prosocial work behaviors. On the other hand, collective self-construal and relational self-construal were found to affect the three types of prosocial behaviors differentially. Collective self-construal was found to contribute positively to prosocial behaviors having the organization as beneficiary and to prosocial behaviors having an external beneficiary while relational self-construal was only predicting prosocial behaviors with an internal beneficiary.

In fact, this finding does not fit well into the picture previously drawn by Vos and Zee (2001). They had pointed to a different set of relationships emphasizing the contribution of collective self-construal to prosocial acts directed toward the ingroup as opposed to the contribution of relational self to prosocial acts directed toward the

outgroup. However, in the present study, relational self-construal contributes only to prosocial acts with an internal beneficiary, which can be thought of an organizational ingroup. This discrepancy suggests a possible path for further investigation.

On the other hand, it can be inferred that prosocial behaviors which benefit internal agents such as coworkers, managers or followers have the additional motivation of maintaining good and harmonious relationships with people sharing the same environment. Indeed, considering the individual contribution of each self-construal type, it appears that their contribution to prosocial work behaviors depends on different motivational processes at work for each self-construal type.

Different motivational bases for prosocial acts were offered by Batson (2011). Although speculatively, it is possible to map the different self-construal types investigated in the present study on these four motivational bases. These four motivations for acting prosocially were egoism, altruism, collectivism, and principlism. While it is possible to link egoism and principlism with individual self-construal, a more obvious link would be the one between collectivism as a motivational base and collective self-construal. Although altruistic motivation can be thought as a common underlying element, further studies are needed to test this assumption. As such, the current explanation falls short in linking relational self-construal to a specific motivational base.

Among the social aspects of work design, only interaction was found to significantly predict prosocial work behaviors. Overlapping with the relational job design perspective offered by Grant and Parker (2009), the interaction component of the social aspects of work design significantly predicted prosocial behaviors having the organization as beneficiary and prosocial behaviors having an external beneficiary.

Grant (2007) proposed that when the structure of jobs offered employees opportunities for contacting the beneficiaries, employees would be more strongly motivated to act prosocially. He also proposed that the relational job design would lead to a stronger affective commitment to the beneficiaries, thereby increasing the motivation to act prosocially. Although it falls short in explaining the mechanism

through which it operates, the current finding on the effects of interaction on the two types of prosocial behavior supports this proposition.

While interdependence and caring had no significant effect on prosocial work behaviors overall, caring, when its effects were analyzed separately for the three types of prosocial behaviors, was found to affect only prosocial behaviors having the organization as the beneficiary. Therefore, hypothesis 2 stating that all the social aspects of work design would contribute positively to prosocial work behaviors was supported only for interaction.

Although essential, social aspects of work design is a neglected topic in work design literature (Oldham & Hackman, 2010). Therefore, making their relationships with other constructs explicit constitutes a not so small step within the work design literature. At the practical side, on the other hand, recognition of their possible contributions to several organizational outcomes, such as prosocial work behaviors, can provide a useful tool for designing jobs and work environments in a way that would lead to desired outcomes. Through the momentum obtained by manipulating several social aspects of the work environment as well as the outcome variables which are directly connected to an organization's effectiveness, even high impact organizational changes can be implemented internally and with a rather small demand of resources. In light of the current findings, promoting interaction among employees, for instance, appears as one of the indirect ways of promoting prosocial work behaviors.

Climate of cooperation was found to predict prosocial work behaviors whereas the climate of competition had no significant effect on prosocial work behaviors. When their effects were analyzed separately for the three types of prosocial work behavior, namely, those having the organization as beneficiary, having an external beneficiary and having an internal beneficiary, their effects were uniform.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the effect of the climate of cooperation on prosocial work behavior would be positive and the effect of the climate of competition negative. Again, this hypothesis was only partly supported. The expected relationship

was observed for the climate of cooperation while the effect of the climate of competition, although negative, was not significant.

In light of the current findings, another likely approach is to consider the effects of antecedent variables as an interconnected set. Thereby it would be possible to construct several clusters of antecedent variables in interaction with each other. For example, Brickson (2000, 2008) previously pointed to the structural factors affecting identity orientations. She identified the types of organizational structure, task structure and reward structure leading to different identity orientations in organizations. In this respect, the current study adds one other factor, that of social structure, to these variables. In fact, rather than adding to them, the current study can be thought as synthesizing these structural variables, through the effect of organizational climate, using the common social element inherently built in them.

#### **4.2. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

In methodological terms, the present study can be criticized on two grounds. The respondents were accessed through convenience sampling and participation was voluntary. Although this is a rather customary approach in organizational research, caution should be taken while interpreting current findings. The act of voluntarily completing a survey which takes 10 to 15 minutes, just for the sake of it, can be considered a prosocial act by itself. Therefore, all the respondents were, for some reason or another, were performing a prosocial act by filling out a survey on prosocial work behaviors. Given that the final sample included enough variance, this was not considered a major issue but still, should be taken into account while interpreting the findings.

Again, with regard to methodology, the present study can be criticized on the ground of relying on a single, self-report type measure for each construct that it intended to measure. Although this isn't a shortcoming per se, a better approach would be to complement the findings either with information from different sources or with an experimental approach, or both. Such examples would include using a composite

measure for prosocial work behavior with data gathered from both the participants and their colleagues or making use of a priming paradigm to control for self-construal in addition to assessing it with a self-report measure.

Regarding work design, only social aspects of work were assessed in the current study. Given the scope of the study, this was perfectly rational. Yet one other aspect of work, related to task rather than its social aspects (i.e. task significance) has been repeatedly found to be related to prosocial motives and behavior (Grant, 2007). In that sense, task significance would have been included in the design as another aspect of work which might affect the variables in question. With an exploratory aim in mind, task characteristics and contextual characteristics of work (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2008) would also offer possible paths for further studies on prosocial work behaviors.

As an attempt to map the antecedents of prosocial behavior in organizations, the present study has one pitfall to avoid. Although intricately intertwined, the antecedents of prosocial behavior do not necessarily inform us about the motivation of the agent. Therefore, within the limits of the current study, although organizational, work related and individual antecedents of prosocial work behavior can be identified, the motivation to behave prosocially can only be speculated about.

### **4.3. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS**

Although limited, the findings of the present study also have some practical implications both at the individual and organizational level. Performing altruistic behaviors at work were found to predict positive mood both later at work (Glomb et al., 2011) and at home, after work (Sonnentag & Grant, 2012). Given that the current study clarifies the conditions that lead employees to perform such behaviors, self-construal, social aspects of work design and organizational climate can also act as a mood enhancement tool for employees.

At the organizational level, the present study showed that a climate of cooperation contributes positively to prosocial behaviors at all levels. This finding

suggests that planned change in organizational climate might result in positive impact at the individual, organizational and societal level.

The findings of the current study can also be interpreted at a more general, societal level. Harb and Smith (2008) proposed that self-construal would also operate on a humanity level. That is, in addition to defining the self in terms of their personal identities, their relationships with significant others or being a part of a larger community, people can also define themselves as part of the human race in general. Considering the role of self-construal which is made explicit in the current study, it becomes possible to achieve greater public good by designing jobs which tend to increase the salience of self-construal at the humanity level whenever it is possible.

#### **4.4. SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

Several, equally important, contributions to the literature are therefore possible from this point on. Among all, probably the most essential one would be to clarify the contents and boundaries of prosocial work behavior. Currently, literature on prosocial organizational behavior is dominated by studies focusing on organizational citizenship behaviors. Considering the complexity of the construct, it is a rational choice, especially in terms of operationalization. However, despite their shared components, the two constructs differ significantly one from another. Therefore, the need for a clearer definition of prosocial work behaviors is a pressing issue for the relevant literature. Hence, a more detailed investigation of prosocial work behaviors is definitely called for.

The present study also opens up several avenues for further research, especially with regard to neighboring areas. As Oldham and Hackman (2010) put it, social aspects of work design provide a new ground for the study of job characteristics. One of the various areas which can be studied in relation to job characteristics and work design may be emotional labor. In fact, emotional labor would be a very likely addition to the present model. Given that social aspects of work design include interactions with third parties, and these interactions might not always be pleasant, the combined effects of

emotional labor and social aspects of work design would tell more about the enactment of prosocial behaviors at work.

The possible effects of the social aspects of work design on organizational outcomes were delineated by Grant and Parker (2009) in their account of relational job design. Coupled with findings linking commitment to organizational citizenship behaviors, a likely path to be investigated further is the one between the social aspects of work design and prosocial work behaviors where different types of commitment act as mediating variables. A fuller picture, however, would also include several other aspects of work design such as task related and contextual factors (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2008).

Considering one of the methodological limitations of the present study, studying the effects of self construal with a priming study would constitute a refined addition to organizational literature. Indeed, integrating different research paradigms, conventionally used for different areas of research, is becoming more common, also in organizational literature. Similar to the increased use of fMRI in marketing studies, these conventionally called psychological methods, can offer new insights in the organizational literature.

A further refinement for the current study would be analyzing the prosocial motivation at a deeper level so that the different levels of generality (i.e. global, contextual and situational) can be identified. Another step would be to identify the different sources of motivation operating for different self-construal types as well as for different kinds of prosocial work behavior. Similar to the speculated links between different types of motivations for prosocial behaviors offered by Batson (2011) and self-construal types, a set of interrelationships between motivations and different types of prosocial work behaviors can also be investigated.

#### 4.5. CONSLUSION

Overall, the present study contributes to organizational literature both by reviving a rather neglected topic, prosocial work behaviors, and by accentuating the contribution of social aspects of work within a framework of work design. Both topics are essential in the sense that they contribute to employees' sensemaking process regarding their work. Being such essential topics, they cannot be confined within organizational limits and should be studied with a wider perspective, in relation to their antecedents and outcomes at the individual, organizational and societal levels. Therefore, the present study should be considered as a first step in an attempt to integrate these three levels by using prosocial behaviors as the connecting element.

Regarding the individual level, the study of prosocial work behaviors contributes to the current literature by analyzing the relationships among different types of prosocial work behavior and self-construal. While collective self-construal and relational self-construal were both found to contribute to prosocial work behaviors, their contribution differs according to the type of prosocial work behavior that they contribute to. While collective self-construal predicts prosocial behaviors which have the organization as beneficiary and prosocial behaviors with external beneficiary, relational self-construal contributes to prosocial behaviors having internal beneficiary. Considering that most of previous research on prosocial work behaviors were operationalizing prosocial behaviors as organizational citizenship behaviors, previous findings linking relational self-construal to prosocial behaviors can be interpreted as a reflection of this differential effect of self-construal types. In that respect, while the current study points to the multidimensional nature of prosocial work behaviors and suggests a cautionary note for the artifactual relationships observed previously, it also accentuates the need for an in depth investigation of prosocial behaviors in organizations.

At the organizational level, the three dimensional structure of prosocial work behaviors might be indicative of different antecedents for each type of prosocial work behaviors. Combined with Brickson's (2000) model clarifying organizational, task and reward structures leading to different types of self-construal, it can be proposed that an

organizational structure which promotes strong group divisions and group based task and reward structures within an organization could lead to the enactment of prosocial behaviors which have organization as the beneficiary or prosocial behaviors with external beneficiaries. By contrast, prosocial behaviors which have internal beneficiaries can be enabled by promoting an organizational structure which has dense and integrated relationship networks and dyad based task and reward structures.

Also, among the variables affecting prosocial behavior in organizations, the climate of cooperation appeared as the only one having an impact on all types of prosocial behavior. Therefore, establishing a climate of cooperation within an organization might be a simple yet effective step in the way towards organizational outcomes such as higher job satisfaction, higher organizational commitment or higher well-being of employees.

Finally, at the societal level, the study of prosocial work behaviors might contribute to an overall betterment of work life through a closer inspection of individual conditions leading to healthier workplaces and employees. Although this was not among the specific aims of the present study, recent findings points to the mood enhancing effects of prosocial behaviors (e.g. Glomb et al., 2011). In that respect, the impact of a research program focusing on the antecedents of prosocial work behaviors could well extend beyond the boundaries of the workplace.

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## **APPENDICES**

## 6.1. Appendix I – Questionnaire

Sayın katılımcı,

Bu anket çalışması Marmara Üniversitesi Örgütsel Davranış doktora programında yürütülen bir araştırma kapsamında gerçekleştirilmektedir. Anketteki tüm soruları yanıtlamak yaklaşık olarak 10 dakika sürmektedir. Yanıtlarınız toplu olarak değerlendirilecek ve yalnızca araştırmadan sorumlu kişiler tarafından görülebilecektir. Soruların doğru veya yanlış yanıtları yoktur ancak tüm sorulara içtenlikle, sizi ve çalıştığınız kurumu en iyi yansıtacak şekilde yanıt vermeniz bizim için önemlidir.

Desteğiniz için teşekkür ederiz.

Araştırma ile ilgili daha fazla bilgi için  
[idal.ayca.bulbul@gmail.com](mailto:idal.ayca.bulbul@gmail.com)

D1. Yaşınız?

.....

D2. Cinsiyetiniz?

Kadın  Erkek

D3. Eğitim durumunuz?

İlkokul  Üniversite/ Lisans  
 Ortaokul  Üniversite/ Yüksek lisans ve üstü  
 Lise

D4. Toplam iş deneyiminiz? Lütfen aşağıda belirtilen şekilde giriniz (örn. 5 sene 3 ay gibi)

..... sene ..... ay

D5. Şu anda çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumdaki iş deneyiminiz? Lütfen aşağıda belirtilen şekilde giriniz (örn. 2 sene 5 ay gibi)

..... sene ..... ay

D6. Çalıştığınız departman/ bölüm?

Bilgi Teknolojileri  Operasyon/ Lojistik  
 Finans/ Muhasebe  Pazarlama  
 Halkla İlişkiler  Satış  
 İdari İşler  Ar&Ge  
 İnsan Kaynakları  Üretim  
 Müşteri İlişkileri  Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz) .....

D7. Çalıştığınız kurumda yönetici pozisyonunda mısınız?

Evet  Hayır

D10. Kurumunuzun faaliyet alanı/ sektörü?

.....

D8. Size bağlı olarak kaç kişi çalışmaktadır?

.....

D11. Çalıştığınız kurum tipi?

Kamu kurumu  
 Özel kurum

D9. Kurumunuzda kaç kişi çalışmaktadır?

.....

D12. Çalıştığınız kurum hangi ilde bulunmaktadır?

.....

Aşağıda çalışma hayatında sıkça görülen bazı davranışlar örneklenmiştir. Şu anda çalıştığınız şirkette başarılı olmak için çalışanlardan bu davranışların ne derecede beklendiğini belirtiniz.  
Ölçekte 1 "Hiç beklenmez", 6 "Kesinlikle beklenir" anlamına gelmektedir.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hiç beklenmez	Beklenmez	Pek beklenmez	Biraz beklenir	Beklenir	Kesinlikle beklenir

1. Her zaman “kazanan” olmak
2. Başkalarına destek olmak
3. Başkalarının kendileri için düşüncelerine yardımcı olmak
4. İlgi odağı olmak
5. Çatışmaları olumlu olarak çözmek
6. İşbirliği yerine rekabete önem vermek
7. Üstünlük imajına sahip olmak
8. Aynı işi yapanlardan daha üstün başarı göstermek
9. Başkalarına zaman ayırmak/ ilgilenmek
10. Başkalarının ihtiyaçları ile ilgilenmek
11. Başkalarının gelişmesine ve büyümesine yardımcı olmak
12. İyi bir dinleyici olmak
13. Başkalarını cesaretlendirmek
14. Asla kaybediyor görünmemek
15. Göz önünde olmak ve dikkat çekmek
16. Diğer çalışanlara ödülleri vermek
17. İş yarış haline getirmek
18. Başkalarının karşısında kazanmak
19. Her zaman haklı çıkmaya çalışmak
20. Başkalarını ilgilendiren kararlarda onları da işin içine katmak

Aşağıda çalışma hayatına dair bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen şu anda çalışmakta olduğunuz işinizi düşünerek bu ifadelerin işinizi tanımlamak için ne derece doğru olduğunu verilen ölçek üzerinde belirtiniz.  
Ölçekte 1 "Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 6 "Tamamen katılıyorum" anlamına gelmektedir.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek katılmıyorum	Biraz katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum

1. İşimde yakın arkadaşlıklar geliştirme şansına sahibim.
2. İşimin tamamlanması birçok farklı kişinin yaptığı işlere bağlıdır.
3. İşim, kurumdaki diğer çalışanların işlerinden oldukça etkilenir.
4. Yöneticim ve çalışma arkadaşlarımdan işteki performansım hakkında çokça bilgi alırım.
5. Benim işim yapılmadan diğer işler tamamlanamaz.
6. İşim, benimle aynı kurumda çalışmayan kişilerle çokça zaman geçirmemi gerektirir.
7. Yaptığım iş, diğerlerininkinden önce benim işimin tamamlanmasını gerektirir.
8. İşimde başkalarıyla tanışma fırsatım var.
9. Beraber çalıştığım kişiler benimle kişisel olarak ilgilenir.
10. İşimi yaparken benimle aynı kurumda çalışmayan kişilerle sıkça iletişim kurarım.
11. İşimde başkalarını tanıma şansına sahibim.
12. İşimi yaparken kurum dışından kişilerle etkileşimim çok olur.
13. Beraber çalıştığım kişiler arkadaş canlısıdır.
14. Kurumumdaki diğer kişilerden (örn. yöneticim ve çalışma arkadaşlarımdan) işimle ilgili geri bildirim alırım.
15. Yöneticim çalışanlarının iyiliğiyle ilgilenir.
16. Diğerleri işlerini yapmazsa benim işim yapılamaz.
17. Diğerlerinin yaptığı iş doğrudan benimkine bağlıdır.
18. Çalıştığım kurumun dışından kişilerle temasa geçmek işimin bir parçasıdır.
19. Kurumumda çalışan diğer kişiler yaptığım işin etkinliğiyle ilgili (örn. nitelik ve nicelik bakımından) bana bilgi verirler.

Aşağıda çalışma hayatıyla ilgili bazı davranışlar örneklenmiştir. Genel olarak kendi davranışlarınızı düşündüğünüzde bu davranışları ne sıklıkta gösterdiğinizi verilen ölçek üzerinde belirtiniz.

Ölçekte 1 "Hiçbir zaman, 6 "Her zaman" anlamına gelmektedir.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Çoğu zaman	Her zaman

1. İşle ilgili problemleri olan çalışma arkadaşlarıma yardım ederim.
2. Zorunlu olmasa da çalıştığım kurumun imajına katkısı olacak etkinliklere katılırım.
3. Görevim gerektirmese de kurumumla ilişkili kişilere (müşteri, tedarikçi, öğrenci, hasta vb.) isteyerek destek olurum.
4. İş arkadaşlarımdan sıkıntı ve problemlerini dinlemeye zaman ayırırım.
5. Çalıştığım kurumun dışarıdaki imajını önemserim.
6. Kurumumdaki yeni projeler veya süreç değişiklikleri ile ilgili olarak fikir belirtirim.
7. İş yükü ağır olanlara yardım ederim.
8. Çalıştığım kurumda düzenin sağlanması için geliştirilmiş, yazılı olmayan kurallara uyarım.
9. İş arkadaşlarıma bilgi aktarırım.
10. Çalıştığım kurumu etkileyecek konularda öneriler geliştirir ve sunarım.
11. Kurumumla ilişkili kişileri (müşteri, tedarikçi, öğrenci, hasta vb.) memnun etmek için isteyerek fazladan çaba gösteririm.
12. Zorunlu olmasa da işe yeni başlayanların oryantasyonuna (işe alışmalarına) yardımcı olurum.
13. Kurumumla ilişkili kişilere (müşteri, tedarikçi, öğrenci, hasta vb.) yardım etmek için fazladan çaba gösteririm.
14. Dışarıdan gelen olumsuz eleştiriler karşısında çalıştığım kurumu savunurum.
15. Denetleyen kimse olmasa bile çalıştığım kurumun kural ve düzenlemelerine uyarım.
16. Çalıştığım kuruma bağlılığımı başkalarına gösteririm.
17. Kurumumla ilişkili kişiler (müşteri, tedarikçi, öğrenci, hasta vb.) sorun yaşadıklarında benden beklenenin veya gerekenin ötesinde yardım ederim.
18. Çalıştığım kurumda yaşam kalitesini etkileyebilecek konularla ilgilenirim.
19. Kurumumdaki diğer çalışanlara yardımcı olmaya her zaman hazırım.
20. Zorunlu olmayan ancak önemli görülen toplantılara katılırım.
21. Kurumumla ilişkili kişilere (müşteri, tedarikçi, öğrenci, hasta vb.) hizmet ederken görevimin gereklerinin üzerine çıkarırım.
22. Çalıştığım kurumdan toplum içinde gururla bahsederim.

Lütfen aşağıdaki maddelerin her bir seçeneğini sizi ne kadar doğru tarif ettiği ve size ne kadar uygun olduğu açısından değerlendiriniz.  
Ölçekte 1 "Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 6 "Tamamen katılıyorum" anlamına gelmektedir.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek katılmıyorum	Biraz katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum

**1. Bence hayatta en önemli şey,**

- tutarlı ve kendime karşı dürüst olmaktır.
- önem verdiğim insanlarla iyi ilişkiler içinde olmaktır.
- ait olduğum grubun (mesela akrabalar, okul, klüp, mahalle, komşular vb.) iyiliği için çalışmaktır.

**2. Çocuklarıma**

- arkadaşlarını önemsemeyi ve onlara karşı duyarlı olmayı öğretirdim.
- kendilerini tanımalarını ve kendilerini geliştirmelerini öğretirdim.
- ait oldukları gruba (mesela akrabalar, okul, klüp, mahalle, komşular vb.) sadık olmayı öğretirdim.

**3. Kendimi**

- grubumun (mesela akrabalar, okul, klüp, mahalle, komşular vb.) iyi bir üyesi olarak görürüm.
- ne istediğini bilen bir birey olarak görürüm.
- iyi bir eş veya arkadaş olarak görürüm.

**4. Bence onurlu bir insan olmanın yolu**

- yakın ilişkim olan insanlara bağlı olmaktır.
- ait olduğum gruplara (mesela akrabalar, okul, klüp, mahalle, komşular vb.) sadık olmaktır.
- kendime karşı dürüst olmaktır.

**5. Bir kişiyi bir işyerinin iyi bir çalışanı olarak tanımlamam için o kişi**

- içinde bulunduğu kurumun iyiliği için çalışmalıdır.
- çalışma arkadaşlarıyla iyi anlaşmalı ve işbirliği yapmalıdır.
- kendisine verilen işle ilgili kişisel sorumluluk duymalıdır.

**6. Beni en çok memnun eden şey**

- kendim için bir şeyler yapmaktır.
- önemsediğim kimseler için bir şeyler yapmaktır.
- grubum (mesela akrabalar, okul, klüp, mahalle, komşular vb.) için bir şeyler yapmaktır.

- 7. Önemli bir kişisel karar vermem gerektiğinde**
- a. kendime gerçekten en çok ne yapmak istediğimi sorarım.
  - b. birlikte olduğum kişi/ eşim veya en yakın arkadaşım ile konuşurum.
  - c. akrabalarım ile konuşurum.
- 8. Beni gururlandıracak şey**
- a. yaptığım bir işten dolayı benim medyada övülmemdir.
  - b. yaptığı bir işten dolayı en yakın arkadaşımın medyada övülmesidir.
  - c. yaptığı bir işten dolayı grubumun (mesela akrabalar, okul, klüp, mahalle, komşular vb.) medyada övülmesidir.
- 9. Bir kültürel etkinliğe (konser, tiyatro, sinema gibi) gittiğimde,**
- a. etkinlikten çok keyif almasam bile, grubumla beraber orada olmak zaten kendi başına keyif vericidir.
  - b. ben hoşlandıysam iyi vakit geçiririm.
  - c. bana eşlik eden insanlar (eş, arkadaş, konuk) keyif alırsa ben de keyif alırım.
- 10. En önemseydiğim şey**
- a. grubumla (mesela akrabalar, okul, klüp, mahalle, komşular vb.) olan ilişkimdir.
  - b. çok değer verdiğim/ bana en yakın olan insanla ilişkimdir.
  - c. kendimle olan ilişkimdir.

## 6.2. Appendix II – Prosocial behavior in organizations

### Prosocial Behavior in Organizations

Code	Item	Source	Source Subscale
[A1]	I willingly help others who have work related problems.	Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990)	OCB - Altruism
[D3]	I attend functions that are not required but help the organization's image.	Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990) & Lee & Allen (2002)	OCB - Civic virtue & OCBO
[B1]	I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond job requirements.	Bettencourt & Brown (1997)	Extra-role customer service
[A5]	I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.	Williams & Anderson (1991)	OCBI
[D2]	I demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.	Lee & Allen (2002)	OCBO
[C3]	I speak up with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures in the organization	Van Dyne & LePine (1998)	Voice
[A3]	I help others who have heavy work loads	Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990) & Williams & Anderson (1991)	OCB - Altruism & OCBI
[C5]	I adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order within the organization.	Williams & Anderson (1991)	OCBO
[A6]	I pass along information to co-workers.	Williams & Anderson (1991)	OCBI
[C1]	I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect the organization.	Van Dyne & LePine (1998)	Voice
[B4]	I willingly go out of my way to make a customer satisfied.	Bettencourt & Brown (1997)	Extra-role customer service
[A4]	I help orient new people even though it is not required.	Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990) & Williams & Anderson (1991)	OCB - Altruism & OCBI
[B5]	I frequently go out the way to help a customer.	Bettencourt & Brown (1997)	Extra-role customer service

### Prosocial Behavior in Organizations

Code	Item	Source	Source Subscale
[D4]	I defend my organization when others criticize it.	Lee & Allen (2002)	OCBO
[C4]	I obey the organization's rules and regulations even when no one is watching.	Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990)	OCB - Conscientiousness
[D5]	I express loyalty toward my organization to others.	Lee & Allen (2002)	OCBO
[B2]	I help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required of me by management.	Bettencourt & Brown (1997)	Extra-role customer service
[C2]	I get involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in the organization.	Van Dyne & LePine (1998)	Voice
[A2]	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.	Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990)	OCB - Altruism
[C6]	I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but considered important.	Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990)	OCB - Civic virtue
[B3]	I often go beyond the call of duty when serving customers.	Bettencourt & Brown (1997)	Extra-role customer service
[D1]	I show pride when representing the organization in public.	Lee & Allen (2002)	OCBO

A : Acts which benefit specific individuals and having an internal target (e.g. helping or assisting a coworker)

B : Acts which benefit specific individuals and having an external target (e.g. extra-role behaviors toward a client)

C : Acts which benefit the organization and having an internal target (e.g. giving extra time and effort for organizational duties)

D : Acts which benefit the organization and having an external target (e.g. maintain a positive company image)

## 6.2. Appendix III – Regression analyses for the subfactors

**Table 16**

**Regression analysis for prosocial behavior having the organization as beneficiary as predicted by self-construal, social aspects of work design and organizational climate**

<u>Dependent variable</u>					
<i>Prosocial behavior</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	$R^2$	<i>Adjusted</i> $R^2$	<i>F</i>
<i>Organization as beneficiary</i>					
<u>Model</u>			.351	.334	20.21**
Individual self-construal	.035	.66			
Collective self-construal	.194	3.42**			
Relational self-construal	.111	1.88			
Interaction	.189	3.62**			
Interdependence	.028	.57			
Caring	.168	2.81**			
Climate of cooperation	.213	3.77**			
Climate of competition	-.051	-1.05			

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$

**Table 17**

**Regression analysis for prosocial behavior having an external beneficiary as predicted by self-construal, social aspects of work design and organizational climate**

<u>Dependent variable</u>					
<i>Prosocial behavior</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	$R^2$	<i>Adjusted</i> $R^2$	<i>F</i>
<i>External beneficiary</i>					
<u>Model</u>			.231	.210	11.21**
Individual self-construal	.040	.70			
Collective self-construal	.205	3.32**			
Relational self-construal	.093	1.44			
Interaction	.206	3.64**			
Interdependence	.033	.61			
Caring	.042	.65			
Climate of cooperation	.151	2.46*			
Climate of competition	.026	.49			

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$

**Table 18**

**Regression analysis for prosocial behavior having an internal beneficiary as predicted by self-construal, social aspects of work design and organizational climate**

<u><i>Dependent variable</i></u>	<i><math>\beta</math></i>	<i>t</i>	<i>R<sup>2</sup></i>	<i>Adjusted R<sup>2</sup></i>	<i>F</i>
<i>Prosocial behavior</i>					
<i>Internal beneficiary</i>					
<u><i>Model</i></u>			.253	.233	12.63**
Individual self-construal	.068	1.22			
Collective self-construal	.106	1.74			
Relational self-construal	.274	4.32**			
Interaction	.065	1.17			
Interdependence	.083	1.55			
Caring	.063	.99			
Climate of cooperation	.165	2.72**			
Climate of competition	-.095	-1.83			

\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$