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Exploring Antecedents of Citizenship Behaviors in a Swedish Energy Company: A Mixed Methods Approach

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Abstract

This thesis was aimed to explore the occurrence and antecedents to two types of *citizenship behaviors,* Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and Office Housework (OH), within a Swedish energy company. We adopted a mixed method design, with an initial qualitative study (focus groups) exploring the participants' perceptions of citizenship behavior within the organization. A thematic analysis of the transcripts provided insights into the organizational culture, which was described as progressive, positive and gender equal. The results revealed citizenship behaviors aligning with both OCB and OH, and provided notions for gender, personality, organizational tenure, recognition from leaders, recognition and community building between coworkers, and role clarity, as important factors for engaging in citizenship behaviors. In the second step, we related the initial findings from the focus groups to previous research and formulated a quantitative study (survey) that further explored the relationships in a larger sample in the organization. The results from the second study showed individual characteristics to be the most important factors for engaging in OCB, whilst individual characteristics combined with workgroups factors were most important for engaging in OH. Overall, the personality trait of extroversion had the strongest impact across models and measurements. Taken together we found important differences in antecedents to OCB and OH. In addition, we provided a better understanding of citizenship behaviors in the specific context and added to preexisting literature.

Keywords: Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Office Housework, Gender, Personality Recognition, Organizational Tenure, Role Clarity

Context of the Project

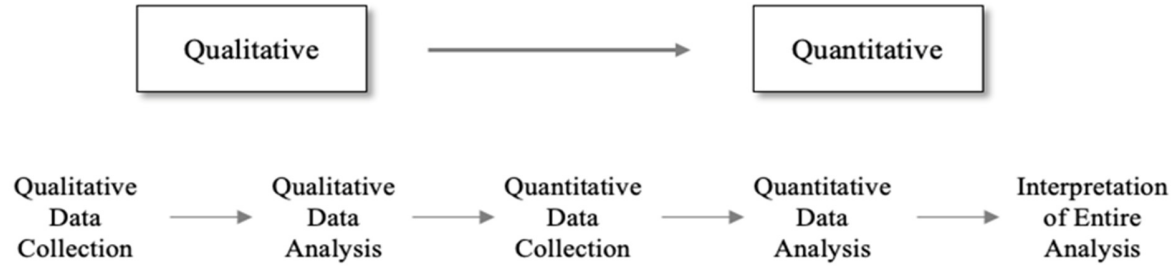
This master thesis was carried out in collaboration with an energy company in Sweden. The research question was developed based on an observation made by the management of the company, that certain employees performed more tasks outside of their job description than other employees. The management had a preconception that more women than men engaged in extra task. The management never specified the question as an urgent organizational issue, but rather as a topic driven by curiosity and a way to learn more about employees and the processes within the company. Our research has focused on deriving systematic knowledge about who and why employees engage in extra tasks, and to explore underlying preconceptions, such as the role of gender.

When initiating the project, the management at the collaborating company had no firm data to support any of their hypotheses, and it has therefore been our task to define and analyze empirical evidence. Since the company had limited knowledge about the matter, and at the same time, we had no insight into the work environment and employees of the company, we needed a bottom-up research approach to properly frame the research project. We, therefore, found a mixed method design to be suitable, specifically a sequential-exploratory design (Creswell et al., 2003; Fig 1). This approach begins with a qualitative study aiming to explore the phenomenon, followed by a quantitative study aiming to fortify the findings from the explorative study. The qualitative part of the thesis therefore explored the organizational culture, what employees considered as extra tasks, and what were potential motivating factors for engaging in these tasks. We then used these findings to design a quantitative study, with the aim of analyzing the phenomenon through a larger sample of employees to bring about more generalizable results.

Since we followed a sequential-exploratory mixed methods design, our thesis employs a somewhat unorthodox disposition. To clarify, it starts with a brief theoretical background that explains the *citizenship behaviors* phenomenon (i.e., tasks outside employee's official work roles), which then leads up to the research aim and overall study design. The theoretical presentation of citizenship behaviors is followed by the first study (focus groups), including the aim, method section, results, analysis, and discussion. Thereafter follows the second study (survey) focusing on *antecedents of citizenship behaviors.* The thesis is concluded by an overall discussion that evaluates and integrates the findings from both studies in the light of previous research.

Figure 1

Sequential exploratory design



Note. The figure is inspired by Creswell and colleagues (2003, p. 180).

Exploring Antecedents of Citizenship Behaviors in a Swedish Energy Company: A Mixed Methods Approach

The concept of "extra tasks" emerged in academia in the mid-1960s (Katz, 1964), although made popular in the late 1980s by Organ (1988) and his term Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), which sought to explore employee behaviors that are neither mandatory nor recognized by formal reward systems yet contributes to the overall functioning of the organization. Since then, there have been many well-researched conceptualizations of *citizenship behaviors,* such as contextual performance (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994), extra-role behavior (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), and prosocial behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). This research field, flooded with similar but slightly different constructs, has been a source of confusion. Indeed, Organ (1997) discussed this problem, by highlighting how researchers, nonetheless himself, struggle to conceptualize the construct due to similar but slightly different definitions.

Out of all conceptualizations of *citizenship behaviors,* this thesis will focus on two similar but distinct concepts (Jang et al., 2021), namely Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB; Organ, 1988), and Office Housework (OH; Williams, 2014). On the one hand, these two concepts overlap since they both measure employee's engagement in behaviors beyond their official job description (Mussleman, 2020; Organ, 1997). On the other hand, they differ, since OH is thought to better capture gender differences by assessing specific extra role behaviors related to women's gender role (Adams, 2018; Mussleman, 2020). In other words, we based our thesis on these two concepts since they reflect behavior beyond employees' official work roles, while at the same time highlighting gender differences, which the company suspected to have an impact on the citizenship behavior performed by their employees.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is defined as constructive and cooperative behaviors that are neither mandatory nor compensated by the formal reward systems of the organization (Organ, 1988). These behaviors are also thought to have a positive effect on the overall social and psychological environment at the workplace (Organ, 1997). As stated in Organ's definition, OCBs are not exact tasks, but rather non-mandatory behaviors which aid the organization or its employees. A few examples of OCBs are helping, mentoring, or socially

supporting co-workers, as well as volunteering for extra work tasks, or working overtime (Spector et al., 2010).

OCB is sometimes criticized for its broad scope. As Organ (1997) concluded, it can be difficult to distinguish what behaviors are considered extra-role or in-role, which affect how OCB should be conceptualized. One approach is Podsakoff and colleagues' (1990) five-facet definition including OCB altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. Another conceptualization is Williams and Anderson's (1991) two-facet definition, consisting of OCB toward individuals (OCBI), and behaviors toward the organization (OCBO). However, some argue that OCB is preferably conceptualized as a single aggregated construct, due to high correlations between measurements and facets (Hoffman et al., 2007; LePine et al., 2002). This thesis will adopt the latter approach and treat OCB as a single aggregated construct, to facilitate a comparison of OCB and OH, rather than a comparison of sub facets within OCB.

Office Housework (OH)

Around the same time as OCB was introduced, Kanter (1977) drafted the Office Housework concept (OH). In recent years OH has gained attention, with frequent media coverage in newspapers and journals such as *The Washington Post* (Williams, 2014), *The New York Times* (Grant & Sandberg, 2015), and *Harvard Business Review* (Kolb & Porter, 2015). In relation to OCB, academic research on OH is still scarce and the concept has not been unambiguously defined. Examples of OH are small and tedious administrative tasks, janitorial-type tasks, food-related tasks, and emotional support tasks. Adams (2018) defines OH as non-role-specific work that benefits the organization but does not directly benefit the worker and is generally underappreciated and unrecognized. Other researchers have proposed slightly different definitions. Williams and colleagues (2016) defined OH as a collection of literal housework, administrative work, and emotional labor, whereas Jang and colleagues (2021) defined OH as menial administrative tasks that keep an office running.

There is a reason why the idea of OH is surging in popularity, specifically that it covers a theme which OCB has been criticized for overlooking, namely gender differences (Bergeron & Rochford, 2022). Even though a substantial body of research has analyzed gender differences in OCB, only few studies have found clear conclusions on gender differences in OH (for a review see Allen & Jang, 2016). Researchers and practitioners have in recent years begun to question the notion of the few to none systematic gender differences in citizenship behaviors, since they often

observe that women engage in more extra tasks than men, particularly the tedious tasks which must be done but are seldom seen or appreciated by official reward systems (Allen & Jang, 2016; Bergeron & Rochford, 2022; Grant & Sandberg, 2015; Kolb & Porter, 2015; Williams, 2014). According to Bergeron and Rochford (2022) this could be due to a consequential flaw in OCB instruments, specifically that several of the most popular instruments of OCB are built on accumulated data from predominantly male samples, thus producing a gender bias. They therefore point to the need for measurements which will treat men and women equally when measuring citizenship behaviors, by including those workplace behaviors that are often carried out by women.

How should OH and OCB be distinguished?

Due to its relative novelty, previous researchers have yet to conclude whether OH is a stand-alone construct or a facet of OCB. Jang and colleagues (2021) conceptualize OH as part of OCB but recognize its uniqueness from existing dimensions of OCB. Adams (2018) and Mussleman (2020), argue that OH should be considered a distinct concept from OCB, maintaining that "both OH and OCB are forms of contextual performance that positively influence the functioning of a workplace" (Mussleman, 2020, p.14). A substantial difference is the task visibility and the recognition that individuals receive for performing each of the two citizenship behaviors. OCB and OH typically go unnoticed and are not rewarded by leaders or peers (Adams, 2018; Organ, 1997), but OCB might bring some benefits beyond OH, such as better performance evaluations. Adams (2018) also argues for differences in motivation to engage in OH or OCB, since OH tasks are considered less visible to others and individuals are more likely to perform them because of personal enjoyment and intrinsic values. Due to OCB and OH shared variance, this thesis adopts a similar approach as Jang and colleagues (2021), by treating OCB and OH as two similar but distinct constructs and conceptualize both as *citizenship behaviors*.

Overall Aim

There is a lot of value to be gained by understanding the distribution of extra tasks in an organization, since it influences employees' capacity to contribute to the organization, as well as the ability of the company to attract and retain high-quality employees. A fair distribution of extra tasks can have a positive impact on the organization's success and the overall well-being of employees (Babcock et al., 2022). An overwhelming number of tasks placed on single

employees, on the other hand, can increase the risk of exhaustion, which is not only detrimental for the employees, but also for the company's productivity (Leiter & Maslach, 2003). For these reasons, the question of extra tasks an important topic for both real life organizations and researchers within organizational psychology.

The aim of this thesis is therefore to increase the understanding of OCB and OH as citizenship behaviors, by combining qualitative and quantitative data of employees' attitudes, in the specific context of a Swedish energy company.

Study 1

Aim

The aim of study 1 was to analyze the company's culture, what type of tasks were considered as citizenship behavior, who engaged in them, and explore possible reasons why employees engaged in citizenship behaviors.

Methods

Design

To collect data, we used focus groups. Focus groups are essentially group interviews, which are led by one or two moderators. The moderators lead the discussions and ask questions, whilst encouraging the participants to interact freely with one another, by asking questions or debating. Focus groups are therefore more dynamic as compared to individual interviews, which makes them suitable when the goal is to explore attitudes and behaviors related to a specific topic (Krueger & Casey, 2015).

Participants

Ten people, seven women and three males, participated in the study. All the participants were employees at the company, and held various job positions across different departments, although half of them were trainees. The sample included five trainees, four employees in several positions without any managerial responsibility, and one person who was a manager.

Anonymity of Participants

To ensure the anonymity of the participants, they will be referred to only by their gender and general job position. “Trainee” will therefore refer to an employee enrolled in a trainee program, “employee” will refer to a full-time employee without an executive position, and “manager” to the employee in an executive position.

Materials

We employed a semi-structured interview scheme, inspired by Butler’s and colleagues’ (2020) semi-structured interview method. We developed a question route consisting of 12 questions (See Appendix A). These questions were formulated by us and then reviewed and adapted in consultation with the project's supervisors. The questions were designed to elicit in-depth responses from participants, providing a comprehensive understanding of the research question.

Procedure

To recruit participants for the focus group, a text was posted on an internal online communication portal at the company, inviting employees to participate. The text provided information on the topic that would be discussed, as well as the date, time, and location of the groups, and highlighted the potential benefits of participation. The invitation was open to anyone who was interested in sharing their thoughts on the topic.

Three focus groups sessions were carried out, with two groups consisting of three participants each, and one group consisting of four participants, with a 60-minute timeframe per group. Both researchers were present at all three sessions: one acted as the main moderator, directing the discussion by posing questions, while the other acted as an assistant moderator, providing support with tasks such as seeking clarification, making sure the recording did not malfunction, and keeping track of time. By the end of each session, the participants were provided with a sandwich or cinnamon bun, which served as a token of appreciation for their willingness to devote time and effort to take part in the study.

Ethics

To ensure ethical practice, the participants were asked to read and agree on an informed consent before commencing the session. Participants were informed about being audio recorded, confidentiality and ownership of the data, and their right to quit at any given time. No sensitive information was collected.

Analysis

To analyze the data, a Thematic Analysis (TA) has been applied, which is a flexible method where the transcripts are analyzed, and meaningful patterns (codes) are identified in the data. After identifying these patterns, they are finally transformed into meaningful themes which serve as results. The process was influenced by Braun and Clarke's (2012) six-step thematic analysis, which provides a clear analysis sequence and encourages the analysts to be flexible and dynamic, by revisiting earlier steps to reiterate when needed.

To ensure rigor in the analysis, we first analyzed the transcripts and coded the themes individually. Coding was done by reading the transcripts and identifying meaningful segments, which were related either to the culture at the company, to what were considered citizenship behaviors, or why employees engaged in them. These segments were then categorized into themes. To exemplify, one of the participants discussed what they thought was a common

citizenship behavior they did at the company. When a similar statement was mentioned by other participants, these segments were coded under the same theme since they referred to the same topic. The themes were therefore accumulated based on the meaningfulness of each statement and how often they were mentioned.

After the individual coding process, we compared and discussed the themes we had accumulated. Overall, our coding was highly similar. One of us found eight themes and the other seven. By dividing the number of themes each of us had identified, we ended up with an interrater reliability of 87.5% (7/8 = .875). Through discussions and comparisons of our respective themes, we slightly re-organized a few statements and themes to reach consensus in our coding. The outcome was eight distinct themes; one overarching theme representing the workplace culture, and seven underlying themes representing citizenship behaviors and why employees engaged in them (Fig 2).

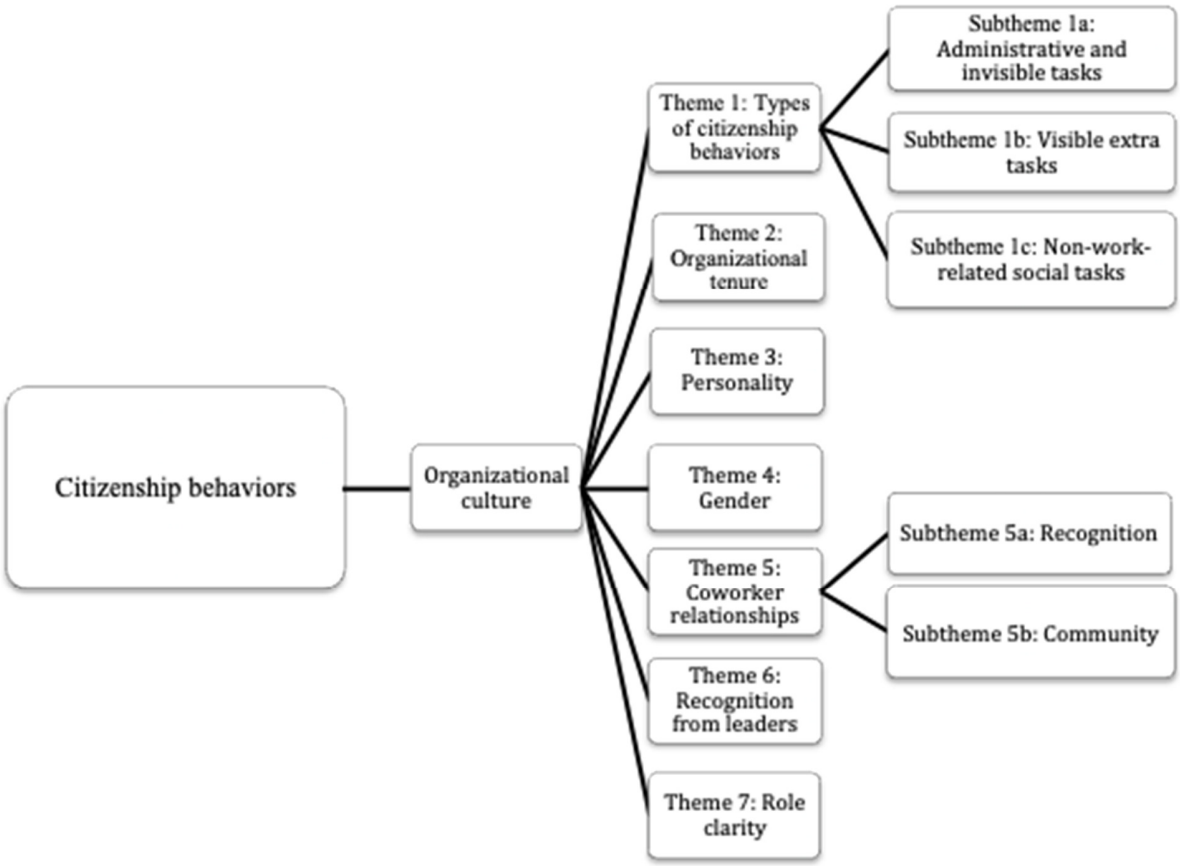
As argued by Braun and Clarke (2012), there is no exact formula when applying a thematic analysis, which is why we did not apply any specific cut-off for the number of segments in each theme, and rather relied on the meaningfulness and relevance we perceived in relation to the aim of the study. However, to aid the process we used two software's, “QDA Miner” and “Microsoft Excel”. Both software’s offer intuitive ways to sort and compare data. In addition, “QDA Miner” is a software specifically developed for qualitative analysis of text files, which means that it in addition to organizing data, it also offers statistical functions which can be used to compare data and derived themes.

Results

The thematic analysis explored participants' perceptions of the organizational culture and citizenship behaviors at the company. Consequently, this resulted in an overarching theme of organizational culture where citizenship behaviors took place. Underlying, we found seven themes (with occasional subthemes), which were related to citizenship behaviors at the company (Fig 2).

Figure 2

Identified themes in the thematic analysis



The Overarching Theme of Organizational Culture at the Company

Workplaces are complex and built on unique processes, norms, and culture. Therefore, one of the goals for the focus groups was to learn about the company's unique culture, since this determines which antecedents of citizenship behavior were feasible in the specific context.

The employees' narratives emphasized the organizational culture to be very positive, one participant even referred to it as groundbreaking: "It is a bit of a different air at this building. I have been to different companies and there's a completely different air and culture than here. This is a groundbreaking culture" (Woman, employee). From the participants' statements, it seemed that the company culture was highly encouraging, progressive, and supportive.

It also seemed like the company valued citizenship behaviors of their employees, which is reflected in one of the participants' statements: "I think that's because we encourage the

extracurricular activities [citizenship behaviors], and we value them a lot... if they see your drive, they want to encourage it" (Woman, employee).

Not only did the company encourage employees to engage in extra tasks, but employees voluntarily engaged in citizenship behaviors to foster a positive social climate at work. As one of the participants said: “We need to do the bullar [pastries] on Fridays, to bring the atmosphere into it” (Woman, manager). Another participant commented by saying: “I want to create our own environment, so that's really important to have a good environment” (Woman, employee).

Some participants talked about the importance of being a part of something greater than themselves. They believed that their extra efforts outside their official work roles was a way to add value to the company or their coworkers. One of the employees stated: “The common denominator with all the extra things is that you see value in a bigger perspective” (Woman, manager). Another added: “I want to make something that can be used either by my colleagues or by the company” (Woman, employee).

Taken together, the organizational culture seems progressive, fair, and equal. Not only did the company promote and encourage behaviors which went outside employees’ official roles, but the employees seem to be motivated to freehandedly create a pleasant and highly functioning environment, which often meant to go beyond their official work tasks.

Types of Citizenship Behaviors

This theme emerged by collecting segments about extra tasks (i.e., citizenship behaviors) that participants did at their workplace. As expected, there were many different types of extra tasks, which differed in their scope and visibility. Some were general, and some bound to specific work roles. Some tasks seemed more visible to coworkers and managers, whilst others had lower recognition; some tasks were related to work, whilst others were social tasks such as organizing events and bringing snacks. When coding the segments, three subthemes emerged.

Administrative and Invisible Tasks

The pattern of administrative and invisible tasks emerged by collecting segments about tasks with administrative nature, which had low recognition and visibility to others at the workplace. One of the participants described them as:

> The invisible tasks are tasks that you don't really think about that needs to be done. I can't really give you a good example for that, but it just has to be done. If nobody else is going

to do it, it's going to create problems. But the other people on your team don't really think about it (Woman, employee).

One of the moderators followed up by asking if the employee could specify what types of tasks she meant:

> It's something that you just take for granted. Like sending that email that says thanks or ends the whole thing. Or start doing this manual or routine on how we should work, even though it's not really my scope, I can see that it's needed (Woman, employee).

Indeed, a clear pattern emerged when other participants talked about similar experiences. The tasks they mentioned varied slightly but were all defined by their low visibility and administrative nature. The tasks ranged from booking meeting rooms, taking notes at meetings, setting up office software, sending confirmation or thank you emails, and creating documents with manuals or routines.

Visible Extra Tasks

The theme of visible extra tasks emerged from segments describing extra tasks that seemed more visible to others at the workplace and had a higher complexity than the administrative tasks. Even though they had increased complexity, it seemed like these tasks were not officially stated in the employee's job descriptions. The tasks ranged from participating in work related social networks or case events, setting up inspiration sessions, helping others, or being a supervisor. As described by one participant:

> Most of the extra tasks I have been involved with are organizing groups in different capacities. So, we've been trying to organize an alumni network for everybody who does the trainee programs […] and the other one has been a national training network, so I have been involved there too, with things like designing case events and, and that type of stuff (Man, trainee).

Non-work-related Social Tasks

A third subtheme emerged from those tasks which could not be identified as actual work tasks, but instead were related to the social environment in and around work. For instance, to organize social events outside of office hours, such as after-works, sport events, or holiday trips with colleagues. They also revolved the social environment at work, often to bring pastries for a

fika (a Swedish term for having a coffee and a small pastry with your colleagues). One of the participants summarized it well when she asked the moderators to clarify what was included in the definition of extra work tasks: "…can it be work related tasks that are not in your job description, which is not these extra add on tasks, like buying fika?" (Woman, employee). It was these tasks which employees engaged in to promote a pleasant community or to create value in the workplace, as one participant said:

> I feel at work, since you do spend a lot of time here with your colleagues. I think it is very important to do activities and stuff like that because it makes you feel better about your job. I feel like at the end of the day, I would feel very – not sad – but very down if I was just to come here every day, do the same task and leave at the end of the day (Man, employee).

In conclusion, the three sub themes of extra tasks found in the data reflect different citizenship behaviors the participants usually did at the workplace. Knowledge about these tasks is of importance since it clarifies some of the citizenship behaviors occurring in the specific context.

Organizational tenure

When participants described why they engaged in citizenship behaviors, the time they had spent at the company (organizational tenure) emerged as an important theme. Participants highlighted that new employes (who often were younger) seemed to both volunteer and be asked to partake in extra tasks more often than employees with lengthier tenure. One of the participants said: "I feel like here in my team, my experience is more that the younger people in the team, they're asked to do these add-on tasks" (Woman, employee).

There seemed to be several reasons why new employees engaged in citizenship behaviors. For instance, wanting to learn, to develop one's career or try out different roles and assignments. One person said: "In the beginning, I think I did a lot of extra things I wanted to, and I was eager to learn" (Man, employee). The decline in taking on extra tasks later in one's career, were often due to employees work role having developed, making it difficult to devote time to extra tasks: "I think it's quite clear that you've had been working a little bit longer and maybe have more on your plate [points at an experienced coworker]" (Woman, trainee). Another person said: "If I compare

with how many extra tasks I put on when I was newly graduated, then it's so much easier now to be like, I don't have time with that" (Woman, employee).

Personality

Several participants referred to their characteristics as a reason for performing citizenship behavior. One participant stated: "I would say that it is always the same persons raising their hands in various tasks" (Woman, employee). According to these participants, some people had an inner drive, which motivated them to engage in more citizenship behaviors. This is illustrated in the following two quotations:

> But as a person, I think I would feel quite useless if I didn't deliver something. So, I want to make something that can be used either by my colleagues or by the company, you know, creating some value and not just being a student for one more year (Woman, trainee).

> I think already in the first week of the trainee program I was like, okay, I will organize an after work for everyone and now I'm organizing a ski trip […] Just the other week I bought fika from my own pocket for a colleague to celebrate his birthday. I think I like to do a lot of these kinds of small or big assignments that are not part of my job description (Woman, trainee).

Overall, individuals' inherent traits seemed to influence their engagement in citizenship behaviors. Moreover, it seemed as if these traits were social in nature, since participants highlighted that they engaged in extra tasks to support and add value to the social environment of their coworkers and workplace.

Gender

The theme of gender highlighted possible gender differences in performing citizenship behaviors. Participants brought up various gender related topics, such as gender differences in types of tasks that they perform, different gender expectations that they face, and how women are sometimes reluctant to take on certain tasks due to gender stereotypes.

Participants noticed that some extra tasks seemed to be gender specific. More specifically, participants stated that women usually were the ones initiating and organizing social activities that were not connected to their work, and men were taking on more work-related tasks. One participant summed it up by saying: "From my experience, it has been that women are more

responsible for the social tasks at the workplace, while men sort of take on more organizational administrative tasks" (Man, trainee). Another participant noted: "With the fika [pastry] it is usually the one of the girls to do it" (Woman, employee).

Participants also discussed different gender expectations that they faced in the workplace and society. They especially pointed out the presence of prescriptive stereotypes (Eagly, 2009), and that they sometimes do specific tasks because it is expected of their gender role (Bakan, 1966). One of the participants maintained:

> It might be the fact that we're women. I can't speak for you guys, but it feels like you have different expectations with extra tasks when you are female with fika or taking notes, Syster Duktig [the good sister] like as a sister, like they always want to be the perfect one and always to do the extra task (Woman, employee).

However, even though some women reported having expectations on them, one of the participants pointed out that these expectations come from society, and not specifically from the company: "We're expected to be better at it, by society. I feel like it's better here [at the company] than at other places" (Woman, employee). Female participants specifically pointed out that they had a feeling of gender equality at the company.

Some participants also discussed how gender stereotypes make them reluctant to take on certain tasks. One participant stated: "There are some tasks, I do not raise my hand to, and I do it on purpose […] Expecting to bring fika [pastry], people expect you to bake, people expect me to remove things and or help lay the table" (Woman, employee). Another participant shared that she recently got some advice from a colleague: "She said that there are some kinds of tasks that you shouldn't take on as a woman" (Woman, trainee).

To summarize, the findings indicate that gender could influence employees' will and engagement in citizenship behaviors. Even though the employees point out that the company is gender equal, their statements disclose a wish to decimate gender stereotypes.

Coworker relationships

The theme of relationships reflected the importance of social connections and interactions between coworkers in relation to performing citizenship behaviors. By interpreting the participants' narratives, two subthemes emerged: recognition and community.

Recognition

The subtheme of recognition underscored the importance of receiving positive feedback and appreciation from others. Participants expressed how being recognized for their extra work by their coworkers provided them with a sense of accomplishment, and highlighted how positive feedback, such as expression of gratitude fuels their self-esteem and motivates them to continue performing citizenship behaviors. This is reflected by the following statement:

> I'm a sucker for positive feedback and compliments that fuels me and gives me a lot of energy [...] if you do all these little extra things, then you get a lot of positive feedback and that gives me energy and makes me happy (Woman, trainee).

Community

This subtheme reflected the importance of belonging and maintaining a community at the company as a reason to perform citizenship behaviors. One of the participants pointed out: “It is more like relationship building rather than for career advancement or looking good in front of your boss. It's more about creating good relationships” (Woman, trainee). Another stated: "It's a two-way relationship. So, I don't mind my colleagues asking me to help with certain things, but I also expect that if I ask for help” (Woman, manager).

Overall, the theme of relationships highlighted the importance of social interactions in terms of being recognized and building community. Participants emphasized the value of reciprocation toward each other by recognition and support, as these factors played a crucial role in their decision to perform citizenship behaviors.

Recognition from leaders

Participants discussed the importance of being acknowledged by leaders and supervisors for their citizenship behaviors, since this influences their motivation to do tasks residing outside of their job descriptions. One participant said:

> Not only do I do it because you are nice by helping someone else, which is super nice, but then it should be told to someone else that you're actually doing it, that it takes time, and you put effort into it, that is becomes a good thing (Man, employee).

Employees also emphasized how visibility of a task played a crucial role in whether they received any recognition for performing it. One of the participants said: "The more visible

something is, the easier it is to give praise for it" (Man, trainee). To the contrary, the smaller "invisible" tasks were less likely to be recognized according to participants.

Role clarity

The final theme describing underlying factors to why employees took on extra tasks, was role clarity. Several participants stated that their work role was often ill-defined or very broad, which often led to confusion about what tasks were in their job description. One participant said:

> Well, I think since my role is very broad, it is kind of hard to define what is actually my job and what is not, so I don't actually have a job description. I know in the ballpark area that this is what I am supposed to do (Woman, employee).

This pattern was particularly clear, but certainly not exclusive, for those who were involved in one of the company's trainee programs. The purpose of the programs was for the trainees to explore different departments and roles at the company, which automatically resulted in an ambiguous job description. This phenomenon is explained by a segment from one of the trainees:

> Because we're doing the trainee program, we are doing a lot of extra tasks, like all the time. So, I guess it depends on if you have a very specific role or if you have a role that is like everywhere… I guess that all things that we do could be considered extra tasks but could also be considered just being a part of being a trainee. So, I guess it's a, it's a little bit difficult to sort out what extra tasks are or are not. (Woman, trainee).

Exploring further, few employees seem to have a perfectly clear job description, regardless of being a trainee or not. It seemed like when working in a large organization where different departments cooperate and individual employees strive to develop their career, the employees constantly took on new tasks to develop themselves or help other employees in those areas where they had expertise. In other words, many of the participants testified of the complexity of working in a large organization where it is difficult to draw a clear line what is expected from your work role, or what is tasks or behavior is outside one's role. One participant said:

> I just compare it to when I worked as a consultant... then it was really easy to scope that like this is my work task and this is not, and then maybe I cannot help with this one [other

task]. I think that is a difference when you work in a broad role and in a company where you do not work as a consultant... It's hard to define what really is your tasks or not (Woman, employee).

In sum, ambiguous role demands emerged as an important theme for performing citizenship behaviors, particularly by testifying for the complexity of working in a large organization, where it is difficult to determine what is considered in our outside one's work role.

Discussion

The aim of the focus groups was to generate valuable information about citizenship behaviors in the context of the organization. Firstly, the narratives of the participants revealed aspects of the company's organization culture. Overall, the culture seemed to be progressive, fair, and supportive. The participants highlighted the feeling of gender equality and even referred to the culture as groundbreaking. It is important to keep in mind that organizational culture is extremely complex and built on unique processes and norms which might affect citizenship behaviors in unforeseen ways.

Moreover, the participants discussed behaviors that supported the social environment of the workplace and went beyond their official work roles as described in OCB (Organ, 1988, 1997). They also discussed specific tasks which were of administrative or social nature – and possibly influenced by gender – as highlighted by OH (Adams, 2018; Jang et al., 2021; Mussleman, 2020). In other words, participants' narratives fortified the notion of both OCB and OH as citizenship behaviors at the company, which highlights the importance of further analysis through a larger sample of employees at the company.

Additionally, the participants elaborated on what encouraged them to take part in citizenship behaviors. They identified a wide range of factors that influenced their participation – ranging from individual characteristics to procedures within the organization. They emphasized the impact of individual factors such as their personalities, the length of time they have been with the organization, and gender-based expectations. They also pointed out the interpersonal factors of recognition and community, specifically the acknowledgement from their immediate supervisors or colleagues which contributed to their willingness to engage in citizenship behaviors. They also discussed their job descriptions, which often seem to be broad and ill-defined and made it difficult to distinguish between what tasks were in or outside their official roles.

Study 2

Aim

The result from the focus groups study provided us with knowledge about factors related to citizenship behaviors in the specific context of the company. Based on the results, we carried out an extensive literature review, to identify how these factors related to previous research on citizenship behaviors. The initial goal of the second study has been to find theoretical support and valid ways to operationalize the results derived by the focus groups, and then explore these findings through a quantitative study.

Predictors on Three Levels

As discussed, the focus groups generated eight separate themes. Seven themes were potential antecedents of citizenship behavior, whereas the eight theme of organizational culture was an overarching theme. However, for the second study we made a further distinction by sorting the antecedents into three levels (blocks): *the individual level, the workgroup level, and the organizational level*. This is an approach commonly used by researchers measuring organizational outcomes with multiple predictors, and an effective way of investigating which block of predictors is most important (DeJoy et al., 2017). As illustrated in study 1; workplaces are complex and individual driving forces are affected by peers and leaders at a workgroup level, which are all affected by organizational factors. By statistically comparing these three blocks, we will be able to determine whether factors related to individual characteristics, or more complex models including workgroup and organizational factors, offer the best statistical explanation for employees' willingness to engage in citizenship behaviors.

Research question: Is it either individual characteristics, workgroup relations, or organizational factors that offers the best explanation for engagement in citizenship behaviors?

Individual Level

The first level of predictors contains individual characteristics. The focus groups identified three such factors: gender, personality, and organizational tenure.

Gender

A substantial body of literature has analyzed gender differences in citizenship behavior, but consistent results are yet to be found (Allen & Jang, 2016). The few gender differences which have been found in OCB are related to women scoring higher on the dimension of altruism (a

communal dimension of OCB, measuring helping behaviors) and men scoring higher on sportsmanship dimension (an agentic dimension of OCB, measuring one's ability to remain positive when something does not go to plan; Allen & Jang, 2016). However, there are no consistent results regarding gender differences in aggregate measures of OCB or any other dimensions of OCB across various instruments. As mentioned earlier, some researchers claim these findings to be odd (Allen & Jang, 2016; Bergeron & Rochford, 2022), and propose that the measurements of OCB are conceptually flawed, since they are built on accumulated data which has been gathered from predominantly male samples. For these reasons other measurements than OCB would be needed (Bergeron & Rochford, 2022), such as Office Housework scales (Allen & Jang, 2016). The same notion was supported by our focus groups, suggesting that women sometimes seem to have expectations on them and participated in certain types of tasks which men did not.

The ideas which were discussed in the focus groups, and the reason gender differences can be expected in citizenship behaviors, are due to different societal expectations placed on men and women. In the literature, this concept is referred to as gender role theory (Eagly, 2009). Gender role theory states that men’s and women's behaviors are bound to stereotypes. Such stereotypes can be descriptive, by describing what men and women typically do, or prescriptive by implying what is considered admirable or appropriate for each sex in their cultural context (Eagly, 2009).

Bakan (1966) summarized gender role beliefs into two dimensions: communion and agency. Women are typically viewed as more communal, characterized by being friendly, unselfish, emotionally expressive, and concerned with others' well-being. In contrast, men are often seen as more agentic, characterized by being masterful, competitive, assertive, and dominant (Spence & Buckner, 2000). Gender role analysis has shown that prosocial behaviors are more commonly exhibited by women when the behaviors are focused on relationships, such as caring for others, whereas men tend to exhibit more prosocial behavior when it is linked to gaining status (Eagly, 2009). It is likely that these gender role expectations impact gender differences in citizenship behaviors, as women may be more inclined to perform prosocial behaviors that align with their communal gender role, while men may be more likely to prioritize behaviors that align with their agentic gender role.

Even though only a few articles have found gender differences in aggregated measurements of OCB, research on OH has indicated significant gender differences. Williams and colleagues (2016) conducted interviews with professional women in academia, law, science, and executive positions, where women reported to engage in significantly more OH than white men. Similarly, both Adams (2018) and Jang and colleagues (2021) found that women did more OH than men, particularly administrative OH tasks. Moreover, all these studies used novel measurements of OH, and still found statistically significant gender differences. In addition, the focus group results suggested a similar pattern, where women talked about expectations to take on tasks which were either invisible, tedious and administrative, or related to the social environment in and around the workplace, which both are themes highlighted in OH behaviors (Adams, 2018; Jang et al., 2021). Therefore, we did not expect there to be any gender differences in performing OCB, but we set the following hypothesis about gender differences in OH:

H1: Women will engage in more OH than men.

Personality

Personality is a common predictor of citizenship behavior. The most well-researched personality model in relation to citizenship behavior is the Five Factor model, consisting of openness (creativity, openness to ideas); conscientiousness (diligence, hard-working attitude); extroversion (sociality, excitement seeking); agreeableness (friendliness; caring of others); and neuroticism (emotional sensitivity) (McCrae & John, 1992). Traditionally, conscientiousness (Borman et al., 2001; LePine et al., 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995) and agreeableness (Ilies et al., 2009), have been established as predictors to OCB, where agreeableness is particularly important for behaviors directed toward peers. More recent studies have found results beyond those two traits. Chiaburu and colleague's (2011) meta-analysis showcased that all the five factor traits were predictive of aggregate measures of OCB, in addition the traits of openness and extroversion had particular impact on Change-Oriented OCB (efforts of employees to make constructive changes at the workplace). A meta-analysis by Pletzer and colleagues (2021) studied OCB with data on the slightly different HEXACO personality inventory, which adds the sixth trait of Honesty-Humility to the five-factor model. In their study they found extroversion to have the highest impact on OCB, followed by conscientiousness, agreeableness, honesty-humility, openness, where only emotionality failed to report significant results. Although the HEXACO

model has a slightly different structure than the five factor model, the traits of openness, extroversion, and conscientiousness are very similar to the five-factor model, whereas agreeableness and neuroticism differ (Ashton et al., 2014). For these reasons HEXACO, and the Big Five, should relate similarly to OCB, apart from agreeableness and neuroticism (Pletzer et al., 2021). In sum, several personality traits are impactful on OCB, and might be determined by what measurements of citizenship behavior is used (Chiaburu et al., 2011).

Since literature showcases the importance of several traits in connection to OCB, we have chosen to focus on two traits in connection to citizenship behavior in this thesis, namely extroversion and agreeableness. The decision is motivated since previous literature highlights the importance of the two traits (Ilies et al., 2009; Pletzer et al., 2021), whilst our focus group results suggested the importance of social traits in connection to OCB, which is best represented by agreeableness and extroversion (McCrae & John, 1992).

Regarding OH, there is no literature to the authors' knowledge investigating personality as a predictor. However, the nature of OH as being altruistic acts toward others, led us to believe agreeableness could be a predictor of OH, possibly more so than for OCB. This is because agreeableness represents cooperation, politeness, warmth, friendliness, and altruism (McCrae & John, 1992), which is why individuals who are higher in agreeableness, are more likely to engage in altruistic behavior represented by OH. We also believe that extroversion will be important for engaging in OH, since the focus group participants reported that common citizenship behaviors were to support their colleagues and the social work environment in and around the workplace. Since OH contains a social aspect (Adams, 2018), and extroversion represent sociality (McCrae & John, 1992), we believe that extroversion will have an impact on OH as well. We hypothesized the following:

H2a: Agreeableness will have a positive relationship with OCB.
H2b: Agreeableness will be a stronger predictor of OH than OCB.
H2c: Extroversion will have a positive relationship with both OCB and OH.

Organizational Tenure

Both newer and employees with lengthier tenure in the focus groups, indicated that the less time individuals have been employed, the more likely they are to engage in tasks outside their job description. In academia the concept of *organizational tenure* (the amount of time an

employee has spent at a specific organization) has received less research than other antecedents of citizenship behavior. In addition, organizational tenure is often thought to have a more complex relationship with citizenship behavior, due to its relationship with other work-related factors. For instance, Turnipseed and Murkison (2000) theorized that the length of organizational tenure is associated with positive feelings towards one's employee, which might result in increased citizenship behaviors. Indeed, Kegans and colleagues (2012) found partial support for this notion, by indicating that the OCB sub facet of civic virtue (involvement in the social life of the company) correlated positively to work experience. Ng and Feldman (2011) found a more complex relationship when they explored how organizational tenure moderated the relationship between organizational commitment and OCB. Their findings suggested a curvilinear relationship, where organizational tenure had the strongest positive effect up to 10 years of tenure, then had a slight decline after 10 years, although it still had a positive effect. Ng and Feldman (2011) proposed a couple of different explanations for this.

Firstly, through the lens of human capital theory Becker (1964), it could be that employees accumulate the bulk of human capital knowledge in the beginning of their career, when formal training, diverse job assignments, and mentoring are highly present. When the accumulation of human capital knowledge stagnates in one's career, OCBs might slow down as well. A second explanation is through the lens of social capital theory (Burt, 1992; Granovetter, 1973), which suggests that new employees strive to diversify and consequently make weak social ties with many people at the workplace, which later shift toward less exploration and fewer but stronger relationships. Since employees' core social network becomes smaller and increasingly qualitative with time, OCBs might suffer a decline as well. A third explanation is through the lens of stage theory (Super, 1957, 1980), which entails that new employees focus on building their career and consequently partake in citizenship behaviors. On the contrary employees in their mid and late careers devote more resources to maintain a work-life balance, thus devoting less time to citizenship behavior (Ng & Feldman, 2011).

By summarizing the literature, it seems like organizational tenure and citizenship behaviors have quite a complex relationship. Few studies have investigated the direct relationship of organizational tenure on citizenship behavior, and there is more support for organizational tenure being a moderating variable between organizational commitment and citizenship behaviors. Our study is therefore inspired by Ng and Feldman's (2011) proposition that

citizenship behaviors are stronger up to a certain organizational tenure, then declining in later years. However, the scope of the current study is not to assess either moderations or curvilinear relationships, which is why we will explore linear relationships as with the other variable in this study. Furthermore, this idea aligns with the findings from our focus group, suggesting that less organizational tenure results in more citizenship behaviors. For these reasons we suggested the following hypothesis:

H3: Shorter organizational tenure will predict more engagement in OCB and OH.

Workgroup Predictors

The workgroup level includes factors related to the recognition that employees receive from their closest coworkers and leaders/supervisors.

Social Reciprocation

Blau (1964) suggested that the basis of social exchanges is built on cost and benefits. In other words, when engaging with others, we expect to get something in return. Reciprocation could therefore be materialistic assets, like money or a service, but it can also be social. Social reciprocation are often acts which aim to maintain a high-quality relationship, for instance to support and recognize one another (Blau, 1964).

Social exchanges in organizations can occur on a relationship level, specifically between two people (dyadic relationships). Similarly, to how Blau (1964) described social exchanges, employees who are involved in high quality dyadic relationships are likely to reciprocate, for instance by going beyond their formal work role to engage in behaviors which likely pleases the counterpart in the relationships (Ilies et al., 2007; Love & Forret, 2008).

Leadership Recognition. The focus groups showed that employees' engagement in citizenship behavior seem to be driven by recognition by their leader, which is a type of social reciprocation. Relating this notion to theory, high recognition is often found in high quality leader-member relationships (Liden et al., 1997). In other words, when a leader maintains a fair relationship and recognizes the follower for their work, the follower is often willing to reciprocate by engaging in behaviors that are valued by the leader (Liden et al., 1997; Settoon et al., 1996), for instance by engaging in behavior outside their official duties (Wayne et al., 2002). Indeed, there is strong evidence that a high-quality leader-member relationship categorized by

high trust, support, and recognition, is an influential predictor of OCB across different dimensions and measurements (Ilies et al., 2007; LePine et al., 2002).

The impact of recognition by one's leader as a predictor of OH has yet to receive substantial research. However, as with OCB, OH is thought to have low visibility and go unnoticed by the organization's reward systems (Adams, 2018; Kolb & Porter, 2015). Moreover, research has found that when men and women perform altruistic citizenship behavior in work settings, it enhances the favorability of men's evaluations and recommendations, whilst women risk to receive less favorable evaluations and recommendations when they do not engage in altruistic citizenship behavior. In other words, women are not rewarded when they offer help, but when they decide not to help, they could be penalized. On the contrary, men are not penalized when they are not willing to help, but when they decide to help, they are rewarded (Heilman & Chen, 2005). Indeed, research on OH has found that men are more likely to be recognized for doing office housework than women are (Jang et al., 2021). As Adams (2018) concluded, there might also be different intrinsic motivations for men and women to engage in altruistic behaviors like Office Housework, which possibly could result in less need of recognition for engaging in OH. For these reasons we theorize that leadership recognition will have a weaker relationship to OH than OCB.

H4a: Higher leadership recognition will predict more engagement in OCB.
H4b: Higher leadership recognition will predict more engagement in OH, but the relationship is weaker than for OCB.

Team Member Recognition. Similarly to social reciprocation in leader-member relationships, the focus groups highlighted the importance of relationships, particularly to build community and recognize one another. Indeed, previous research shows that high quality coworker relationships relate positively to aggregate and specific dimensions of OCB (Love & Forret, 2008), particularly to those citizenship behaviors directed toward peers (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). A similar relationship has been found between a more informal type of coworker relationships – coworker friendship (Bowler & Brass, 2006). Kamdar & Van Dyne (2007) also found that high quality team members' relationships could go beyond personality when predicting citizenship behaviors between peers. Although we will not investigate this exact notion in the current project, it is yet another testimony to why social reciprocation in the form of recognition between peers is an important predictor of citizenship behaviors.

H5: Team member recognition will predict more engagement in both OCB and OH.

Organizational Predictors

On the organizational level, the focus groups suggested the importance of one predictor, which was role clarity.

Role Clarity

The narratives in the focus group showed that employees across various roles often had ill-defined job description and often struggled to make a clear distinction between in- or extra-role tasks. Eatough et al. (2011) investigated this notion in their meta-analysis, where they established that high role ambiguity related negatively to OCB, since high role ambiguity made it difficult to determine what employees should consider as in-role or extra-role behavior, thus resulting in employees to prioritize tasks which they considered to be in their job description. Based on these findings, we assume a similar pattern to be found in our study.

H6: Higher role ambiguity will predict less engagement in both OCB and OH.

Methods

Participants

The sample for the second study consisted of 67 participants, 36 women and 31 men, all employed at the company. The youngest participant was 19, while the oldest was 66 (M = 37.4, SD = 11.08). Participants' organizational tenure ranged from half a year to 49 years (M = 5.84, SD = 8.33). Regarding participants' highest form of education, 12% had a high school degree, 31% a bachelor's degree, 46% a master's degree, and 11%, a vocational school degree. Participants held various work roles ranging from trainees, administrators, engineers, managers, etcetera.

Materials

Demographics

Participants were asked about their gender, age, and the highest level of education, as well as two work-related questions about how many full years they had been working at the company and their general job position.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

We used the 10-item OCB-Checklist (OCB-C) to measure Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Spector et al., 2010). The 10-item scale reported Cronbach's alpha of $\alpha = .78$. Examples of items were: "Volunteered for extra work assignments" and "Worked weekends or other days off to complete a project or task."

To ensure a better fit for our research question, we made a few alterations. Firstly, the original scale used a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Never" to "Every day". We instead rephrased the options from "Very seldom or never" to "Very often or always" since it was coherent with the rest of the survey. Secondly, both the OCB-C and OH scale (see below), included tasks that could be within people's job description. This would have confused the participants in how to answer, since they were instructed to rate their extra tasks – not their regular tasks. We therefore rephrased some items to make it clear that they referred to extra tasks. For instance, "Took time to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker" became: "Went outside my regular tasks to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker." We also wrote the instructions in a way that prompted participants to think about a time they did the tasks outside of their job description, even though some behaviors could be considered in-role (see Appendix B).

Office Housework

To measure Office Housework, we used the items constructed by Adams (2018), and two additional items constructed by ourselves. Adams (2018) validated a 54 items scale measuring various office housework tasks, categorized into four subscales. "Administrative tasks," "Social tasks," "Janitorial tasks," and "Emotional tasks." In our study we picked eight items from (Adams, 2018), five from the subscale of administrative tasks and three from the subscale of social tasks, as these categories were reflected in the focus groups. Examples of items were: "Coordinating other calendars" and "Printing, organizing, and/or preparing meeting materials." Similarly to some OCB-C items, we rephrased a few of the items slightly. For instance, one item used the word "food," which we changed to "fika," since it better aligns with Swedish culture. We added the two additional items, since the focus groups suggested these were common extra tasks at the company and likely related to OH. The two items were: "Sending emails on behalf of others" and "Taking notes at meetings." The participants were then instructed to rate how often

they performed each task on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from “Very seldom or never” to “Very often or always”. The 10-item scale reported Cronbach’s alpha of $\alpha = .85$.

Personality

The IPIP Neo-30 (Kajonius & Johnson, 2019) measures five distinct personality traits, commonly referred to as the Five Factor structure of personality (Goldberg, 1999). Our aim has been to only measure extroversion and agreeableness, and the two traits reported the following Cronbach’s alpha: extroversion ($\alpha = .83$), agreeableness ($\alpha = .58$). Participants were asked to rate how accurately each statement corresponded to themselves on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from “Very inaccurate” to “Very accurate”. Examples of items are: “Am concerned about others (A),” “Am not interested in other people's problems (A),” “Make friends easily (E),” “Talk to a lot of different people at parties (E).”

Leadership recognition

To measure leadership recognition, we used the 11-item “Employee Recognition Scale” (Cannon, 2015). The scale is designed to measure a single higher-order factor and reported Cronbach’s alpha of $\alpha = .92$. The scale was rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree”. Examples of items were: “I receive congratulations from my supervisor when I reach a specific goal” and “My hard-work and dedication are noticed by my supervisor.”

Team member recognition

To measure recognition between co-workers we used the 4-item “Reward” subscale from the Areas of Worklife Scale (AWS; Leiter & Maslach, 2003). Since we could not access the original scale, we translated a Swedish version of the AWS into English, and then back to Swedish with the help of a bilingual person. The scale was rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree”. Before participants began answering, we instructed them to: “Think about co-workers in your workgroup and how you receive recognition from them.” We did this since the original reward scale has a slightly different definition: “The reward area of worklife addresses the extent to which rewards – monetary, social, and intrinsic – are consistent with expectations” (Leiter & Maslach, 2003, p.97).We believe this prompt made it clear for participants to think about their recognition from their co-workers and not other aspects

of rewards when answering the questions. Examples of items were: “I receive recognition from others for my work effort” and “My work efforts are appreciated.” The 4-item scale reported Cronbach’s alpha of $\alpha = .79$.

Role clarity

To measure role clarity, we used the subscale “Role clarity” from the “Role expectations” scale, found in the QPS Nordic General Questionnaire for Psychological and Social Factors at Work (Dallner et al., 2000). This subscale consists of three items, which we slightly rephrased, so they read like statements and not questions, since it increased coherence with the other scales in the survey. For example: “Have clear, planned goals and objectives been defined for your job?” became: “I have clear, planned goals and objectives defined for my job.” The items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Very seldom or never” to “Very often or always”. The scale reported Cronbach’s alpha of $\alpha = .79$.

Procedure

The survey was distributed through internal communication channels at the company using Microsoft Forms and it was open for participation for anyone working at the company, from April 4 to May 8, 2023. Since the survey was open to anyone, participants in the focus group study were allowed to participate in the survey as well. On the introduction page of the survey, participants were informed about the purpose of the study, the confidentiality of the data, and had to manually agree that they were part of the company and had understood the provided information before starting the survey. There was no reward offered in exchange for participation and no sensitive information collected.

Analysis

To statistically analyze the data, we used the software “R” (version 2023.03.0). The purpose of demographic variables (age, education, and job position) was to get a clearer idea of the sample. The rest of the items were all measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The items of the scales were summed into summarized scores to facilitate the statistical analysis. Firstly, we conducted descriptive statistical analysis, and calculated internal consistency of the used scales to estimate Cronbach’s alpha. Secondly, we carried out bivariate correlation analysis, to explore the relationships between the variables. Finally, we tested our imposed hypotheses. Hypotheses 1a

and 1b were tested using Welch two-sample t-test. For testing the rest of the hypotheses, we conducted hierarchical multiple regression analysis with three blocks. In the first block we entered individual factors, in the second we added the workgroup factors, and in the third block we added an organizational factor. Moreover, we also tested the assumptions of linear regression analysis and found no significant outliers, no homoscedasticity, no multicollinearity, and a normal distribution of residuals. When assessing linearity, model 5 and 6 reported significant Tukey tests, indicating a violation of linearity. By further examination through visual representation of the relationships between predictors and the outcome variable, we concluded that the relationships were not problematic and decided that there was no need to use non-linear models for our analysis.

Results

In the following section we will present the results of the second study. For explanatory purposes, we will first show descriptive statistics and the results of the bivariate correlation analysis. Next, we will present the results of a t-test analysis followed by a hierarchical multiple regression analysis, used to answer our hypotheses.

Exploring the Data – Descriptives and Correlations

In *Table 1* we present means and standard deviations of all the predictors and the outcome variables included in study 2. The mean scores refer to 1-5 Likert scales which the variables were measured with.

Table 1

Mean Scores (M) and Standard Deviations for the Numerical Predictors and Both Outcomes in Study 2

Variable	*M*	*SD*
Individual level predictors		
Organizational tenure	5.91	8.33
Extroversion	3.96	.73
Agreeableness	4.20	.52
Work group level predictors		
Leadership recognition	3.97	.66
Team member recognition	3.91	.68
Organizational level predictor		
Role clarity	3.91	.73
Outcome variables		
Organizational citizenship behavior	3.07	.64
Office housework	2.28	.76

Note. $N = 67$.

Table 2 showcases the bivariate correlations between all the numerical predictors and both outcome variables in study 2. In the correlation analysis we observed various statistically significant correlations. A positive moderate correlation between OCB and OH indicates that even though the two constructs relate to each other, they are also conceptually different. Furthermore, we observed a positive moderate correlation between extroversion and OH, and slightly lower but still statistically significant correlation between team member recognition and OH. Moreover, there was also a positive moderate relationship between leadership recognition and team member recognition, which suggests that these two constructs are interconnected. This is not surprising, since they both measure recognition from others. The data also suggested two distinct trends related to an employee's tenure at the company. Firstly, a moderate negative correlation between leadership recognition and organizational tenure indicated that the longer an individual stays with the company, the less leadership recognition they tend to receive. Secondly,

a positive correlation between organizational OCB and organizational tenure implied that those with longer tenure are more likely to engage in OCB.

Table 2

Bivariate Correlations Between Variables Included in Study 2

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Organizational citizenship behavior	-							
2. Office housework	.57***	-						
3. Organizational tenure	.31*	0.19	-					
4. Extroversion	.23	.45***	-.05	-				
5. Agreeableness	.09	-.06	0.12	.25*	-			
6. Leadership recognition	-.2	-.09	-.33**	-.22	-.05	-		
7. Team member recognition	-.07	.26*	-.22	.30	-.01	.55***	-	
8. Role clarity	.10	-.19	.05	-.12	-.02	.20	-.02	-

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 1: Gender Differences in Performing Citizenship Behaviors

In the first part of the analysis, we explored gender differences in both types of citizenship behaviors. We hypothesized gender differences in engaging in OH, in a way that women would participate in more OH. Regarding OCB, we suspected no gender differences, thus no hypothesis was stated. To examine our hypothesis, we conducted a two-way t-test. The results are presented in *Table 3*.

Table 3

Mean scores (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for Outcome Variables for Full Sample, and Grouped by Gender

	Male employees			Female employees			
	n	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*p*
Organizational citizenship behavior	31	3.15	.55	36	2.97	.74	.28
Office housework	31	2.23	.60	36	2.34	.91	.60

Note. *M* = mean score, *SD* = standard deviation, *n* = group sample size, *p* = statistical significance of t-test calculation.

The analysis showed no statistical differences in the mean scores by gender neither for Organizational Citizenship Behavior, t(54.58) = 1.1, $p = .278$ nor Office Housework, t(50.5) = -.53, $p = .598$. This is further fortified in the hierarchical regression analysis (see Table 4), which indicated that gender was not a significant predictor for any of the models. These findings reject hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2a, 2b and 2c: Value of Personality Traits (Extroversion and Agreeableness) in Predicting Citizenship Behaviors

With the second set of hypotheses (hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c) we focused on how well certain personality traits predict citizenship behaviors. Hypothesis 2a implied that individuals exhibiting higher levels of agreeableness would engage in OCB more frequently. However, the results of our analysis did not support Hypothesis 2a in relation to OCB, as agreeableness was not found to be a statistically significant predictor (see Table 4). Of particular interest, though, was the relationship observed between agreeableness and OH. In the first block of the hierarchical regression analysis, agreeableness did not prove to be a statistically significant predictor of OH. Nevertheless, the addition of work group-level factors in the regression resulted in agreeableness emerging as a significant predictor of OH. This finding was further substantiated when organizational factors were added. Remarkably, the results indicated a negative association between agreeableness and OH. This suggests that within the organization, individuals who are less agreeable tend to engage in a higher amount of Office Housework. Furthermore, this partially confirmed hypothesis 2b, which suggests that agreeableness is a stronger predictor of

OH than it is of OCB. However, we theorized that both OH and OCB should be positively related to agreeableness, so even though agreeableness were a stronger predictor of OH, it was predictive in the other direction than expected.

With regards to extroversion, we predicted that individuals higher in extroversion will perform more citizenship behaviors (hypothesis 2c). As presented in Table 4, the predicted variable extroversion was significant in relation to both outcomes in all three models, which confirms our hypothesis 2c.

Hypothesis 3: Organizational Tenure and Citizenship Behaviors

Hypothesis 3 predicted that individuals with a shorter tenure within the company would engage in more citizenship behavior. Contrary to our expectation, the findings suggested the opposite. The relationship between the organizational tenure and OCB was positive, indicating that employees with extended tenure were more likely to engage in OCB. Additionally, the relationship between the organizational tenure and OH was observed to be positive. This relationship was statistically significant at the individual level (see Table 4), however, the inclusion of work group and organizational level predictors in the regression model rendered the relationship non-significant. These findings reject the set hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4a, 4b, and 5: Importance of Recognition in Predicting Citizenship Behaviors

Hypothesis 4a denoted that there would be a positive relationship between leadership recognition and engagement in OCB. Nevertheless, the data did not support this hypothesis as our analysis revealed that leadership recognition did not significantly predict OCB. Interestingly, leadership recognition emerged as a significant predictor for OH, albeit in a negative direction (see Table 4). Nonetheless, when the organizational level predictor was incorporated into the regression model, the relationship ceased to be statistically significant. This finding is in contradiction with our original hypothesis that higher leadership recognition will predict more engagement in OH (hypothesis 4b). Moreover, it also contradicts the notion that the relationship is weaker for OH than OCB, which in total rejects our hypothesis.

Furthermore, hypothesis 5 also focused on relationships on a group level and implied that individuals who perceive heightened recognition from their team members would exhibit a greater propensity to engage in citizenship behaviors. However, the empirical findings provide only partial support for this hypothesis. The analysis revealed no statistically significant

association between team member recognition and OCB. Conversely, a statistically significant positive relationship was observed between team member recognition and OH (see Table 4) upon the inclusion of work group level predictors in the second block of the hierarchical regression. This relationship maintained its significance even after the addition of organizational level predictors in the subsequent model (see Table 4).

Hypothesis 6: Role Clarity as a Predictor of Citizenship Behaviors

Hypothesis 6 predicted that if individuals have an ambiguous role description, they will engage in less citizenship behaviors. However, we did not find any support for this claim in our analysis.

Table 4

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Predicting Two Outcomes of Citizenship Behavior

Independent variables	OCB	OH
Block I: Individual level predictors		
Gender	-.34	.07
Organizational tenure	.04**	.03*
Extroversion	.37*	.69***
Agreeableness	.04	-.43
R^2	.18	.29
F	3.5*	6.25***
Block II: Workgroup level predictors		
Gender	-.28	.13
Organizational tenure	.03*	.02
Extroversion	.4*	.65***
Agreeableness	.01	-.45*
Team member recognition	.01	.49*
Leadership recognition	-.21	-.51*

Independent variables	OCB	OH
R^2	.20	.39
ΔR^2	.12	.32
ΔF	2.48*	6.28***
Block III: Organizational level predictors		
Gender	-.24	.11
Organizational tenure	.03*	.03
Extroversion	.43*	.64***
Agreeableness	-.0	-.44*
Team member recognition	.04	.48*
Leadership recognition	-.3	-.47
Role clarity	.21	-.1
R^2	.22	.39
ΔR^2	.13	.32
ΔF	2.37*	5.4***

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Block Comparisons: The Most Influential Predictor of Citizenship Behaviors

As shown in Table 4 the most influential predictors for OCB were extroversion and organizational tenure. Furthermore, Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) values for model comparison indicated that when predicting OCB, model that includes only individual factors had the lowest AIC (AIC = 128) compared to a model that added workgroup (AIC = 131), and organizational factors (AIC = 131). This suggests that the first model provided the best fit to the data among the three models, which means that who will do more OCB depends on individual characteristics rather than on group or organizational factors of the company.

In the case of predicting OH, the relationship between predictors and the outcome variable was more complex. However, even in this case the most influential predictor was extroversion (see Table 4). Following extroversion, team-member recognition emerged as an

important predictor (see Table 4). Also, leadership recognition and agreeableness (see Table 4) showed to be significant predictors of OH. The model fit AIC was used again to compare the relative quality of the models. In the case of predicting OH, the model that included both individual level and group level factors displayed the lowest AIC value (135), compared to the model that only included individual factors (141) or the model which included factors on all three levels (136). This suggests that the model including individual and group level factors provides the best explanation.

Discussion

Study 2 aimed to analyze predictors of citizenship behaviors. Contrary to our initial belief about gender differences in OH, the results indicated that this was not the case in the current sample. The results are surprising, since previous literature on OH suggests gender differences (Adams, 2018). However, other studies on OCB research are not consistent about gender differences. As shown by Allen and Jang (2016) gender differences in citizenship behaviors might only be reflected in certain sub facets, which our study might have failed to include, even within OH.

Furthermore, we found extroversion to be an important predictor of OCB, which is in line with previous research and our hypothesis (Chiaburu et al., 2011; Pletzer et al., 2021). Our study extends these findings by showing a significant relationship between extroversion and OH as well. Given that OCB is related to the social environment at the workplace (Organ, 1997) and OH having a strong social component (Adams, 2018), these results were to be expected. However, since no other empirical research to the authors' knowledge has explored the relationship between OH and extroversion, our thesis offers novel and important insights.

Agreeableness however, had an unforeseen relationship with both OCB and OH. Firstly, the results did not support agreeableness as a predictor of OCB, which was suggested in previous studies (Chiaburu et al., 2011; Ilies et al., 2009; Pletzer et al., 2021). Regarding OH, agreeableness emerged as a predictor, but only when workgroup and organizational predictors were added to the models. This could be due to statistical reasons such as interacting effects of other factors. Overall, this suggests a more complex interplay between agreeableness and OH. However, contrary to what was theorized, agreeableness showed a negative relationship with OH, indicating that more disagreeable individuals were the ones who engaged in more OH. The findings are surprising, since disagreeable individuals tend to be more egoistic, cold, and

deceitful (McCrae & John, 1992), which does not align with altruistic behaviors. Perhaps the participants viewed OH as a way to gain an advantage for themselves in the company, and not as genuine acts toward others. This is an important notion which would need further exploration.

Moreover, we found organizational tenure to have a small, but statistically significant, effect with OCB on all predictor levels, and on the individual level for OH. This is in line with previous research suggesting a positive relationship between the facets of citizenship behaviors and organizational tenure (Kegans et al., 2012), but fails to confirm our hypothesis which we largely based on the focus groups results. As illustrated by (Ng & Feldman, 2011), the relationship between organizational tenure and citizenship behavior is likely explained by a curvilinear relationship, which our linear study might have failed to explore.

Furthermore, there was no significant relationship between leadership recognition and OCB, which is surprising, since previous literature suggests otherwise (Ilies et al., 2007; LePine et al., 2002; Wayne et al., 2002). This discrepancy might be attributed to the distinct organizational context of our research setting. For instance, the company culture might influence the interplay between leadership recognition and OCB. On the contrary, the relationship between leadership recognition and OH yielded significant results. On the workgroup level, leadership recognition emerged as a negative predictor, challenging our hypothesis. This suggests that the less leadership recognition employees receive, the more OH they are likely to do. This unexpected relation might stem from a questionnaire that we used to measure OH, or potential overlooked factors in our model. It could also be due to compensatory behavior. For instance, employees who perceive a deficit in recognition from leadership might increase their engagement in OH to feel acknowledged, to find intrinsic satisfaction (Adams, 2018), or to maintain self-worth in the workplace. Overall, these results motivate further exploration of leadership recognition on the two constructs – perhaps OH and OCB differ substantially in their visibility to leaders, which could be an important aspect that sets the two concepts apart. A notion well worthy of exploring further.

Regarding team member recognition, we did not find any support for it to be a significant predictor of OCB. Previous research shows that team member recognition is most predictive of citizenship behaviors towards peers (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). It might therefore be that the measurement of OCB we used tapped better into the organizational aspect and not into the interpersonal ones. If measurement with sub facets or OCBI (behavior toward individuals) or

OCBO (behaviors toward organization) were used, a different result could maybe have emerged. On the contrary, team member recognition emerged as a positive predictor for OH. No studies to the authors' knowledge have previously investigated OH and team member recognition, thus offering novelty to our findings. Since the OH measurement we used mainly consists of sub facets of administrative and social tasks (Adams, 2018), it is not surprising that the OH scale seemed to capture peer related aspects of citizenship behaviors. However, recognition by peers is overall in line with the nature of OH tasks, not only with the items we used. For these reasons recognition by peers as a factor for engaging in OH warrants further explanation, possibly by exploring OH in relation to OCBI.

Lastly, role clarity showed no significant relationships between either OCB or OH, contrary to previous research, suggesting that the more ambiguous employees' roles are, the less OCB they conduct (Eatough et al., 2011). This could be explained by contextual factors in our sample, specifically that role clarity is not as strong of a predictor as other factors, which might have suppressed the effect of this predictor. It could also be explained by the high mean levels of role clarity ($M = 3.91$, $SD = .73$), suggesting that employees generally perceived their roles to be quite clear.

To answer our research question, we found that individual characteristics had the best fit for OCB, which suggests that the composition of gender, personality, and organizational tenure had the strongest explanatory power to why employees engage in OCB. Regarding OH we found that individual characteristics combined with team member- and leadership recognition, have the strongest explanatory power to why employees perform OH.

General Discussion and Integration

The overall aim of our project was to synthesize insights from a qualitative and quantitative study to offer the collaborating company a comprehensive view of citizenship behaviors within their organizational context. Additionally, we wanted to contribute to the existing literature on OCB and OH by studying similarities and differences between mentioned constructs and explore the reasons why individuals decide to take part in them. This last part will therefore integrate and compare the findings from the two studies conducted in this thesis.

Our findings surrounding gender differences in citizenship behaviors are mixed and reflect the literature inconsistency. Results from the qualitative study highlight that employees perceive differences in performing citizenship behaviors between genders, which reflects the

theoretical framework suggesting that gender roles (Eagly, 2009), and societal expectations have an impact on engagement of citizenship behaviors. Contrastingly, the quantitative data did not reveal any differences between genders, which aligns with the ambiguous literature findings (Allen & Jang, 2016). It appears that while individuals within the organization recognize and sometimes internalize gender role expectations, these subjective experiences do not translate into measurable differences in OCB and OH as per the quantitative analysis. This incongruence could be attributed to a range of factors including measurement limitations, as suggested by (Bergeron & Rochford, 2022), or a complex interplay between individual motivations and contextual factors. For instance, the focus group interviewees highlighted the gender-equal culture at the company, which might contribute to the fact that no significant differences between genders were found. An alternative explanation for the absence of observable differences between genders in citizenship behavior may be attributed to potential sampling bias. It is possible that the individuals who decided to participate in the survey inherently possess a predisposition towards engaging in citizenship behaviors, irrespective of gender. This act of partaking in the survey can itself be interpreted as a form of citizenship behavior, given that it constitutes an extra task. Consequently, this self-selection could have caused a homogenous group which likely mask underlying differences between genders.

Furthermore, the focus group study indicated that engaging in citizenship behaviors were reflected by an inherent drive in their personalities, specifically driven by social and altruistic traits. In other words, participants pointed out that they engage in citizenship behaviors to help, host activities or in other ways create value for their coworkers. As reflected by the literature, personality is a common antecedent to citizenship behaviors (e.g., Chiaburu et al., 2011; Pletzer et al., 2021), where agreeableness and extroversion best reflect sociality and altruism (McCrae & John, 1992), which were discussed by the participants in the focus groups.

When further exploring the notion of personality in our quantitative study, we found extroversion to be a significant predictor of both OCB and OH across all predictor blocks, suggesting that both citizenship behaviors indeed were related to extroversion across a larger sample in the organization. This established coherency between our two studies since they both suggested sociality as an important factor for engaging in citizenship behaviors. However, agreeableness showed an unexpected relationship, since it was only significant for OH in the workgroup and organizational blocks, and at the same time showing a negative relationship. This

creates a discrepancy between our two studies, since the focus groups led us to believe that agreeable individuals were to engage in more citizenship behaviors, but the survey study showed the opposite. Taken together, the effect of agreeableness (and disagreeableness) warrants further investigation since it could offer important knowledge as an antecedent of OH.

When examining organizational tenure, our findings once again present a dichotomy. The focus group findings led us to believe that employees with less tenure were to engage in citizenship behaviors. However, the quantitative study suggested the opposite, by indicating that individuals with a longer tenure in the organization engaged in more citizenship behaviors. As explained by Ng and Feldman (2011) it is likely that organizational tenure has a more intricate relationship to citizenship behavior. To elaborate, the focus participants pointed out that employees with a shorter tenure were more likely to engage in citizenship behaviors due to their desires to acquire knowledge (Becker, 1964), foster their career development (Super, 1957, 1980), and establish social networks within the organization (Burt, 1992; Granovetter, 1973). However, since our survey findings suggested the opposite, it could be that the curvilinear relationship presented by (Ng & Feldman, 2011) would more accurately capture the effects of organizational tenure and citizenship behavior.

The focus groups suggested that building community and being recognized by both colleagues and leaders were important factors when it came to performing citizenship behaviors, which is in line with Blau's (1964) social exchange theory. However, regarding recognition between leaders and team members, the survey study failed to confirm these results. While leadership recognition was not a significant predictor of OCB, the analysis showed a surprising negative relationship with OH. Once again, a dichotomy is represented between the two studies.

Regarding recognition between team members, the survey data partially supported the narratives which the participants shared in the focus groups. While we did not find team member recognition to be a statistically significant predictor of OCB, it emerged as an important factor for engaging in OH. This partial coherency between the two studies fortifies team member recognition as an important factor for engaging in certain citizenship behavior. In other words, being recognized for one's hard work by colleagues is important for individuals' motivation.

The focus group study also found that several employees experienced their job descriptions to be ambiguous, which was likely a consequence of working in large organizations with broadly defined work roles. Their narratives indicated that they often had to define their

tasks, which had them confused on what was considered extra tasks or not. When investigating the literature, a meta-analysis by Eatough and colleagues (2011) suggested a negative relationship between role clarity and citizenship behavior, which led us to state a similar hypothesis. When empirically investigated in the survey study, we found no significant support for this claim. These results could once again reflect statistical reasons, such as interacting, or suppressing effects by other factors. Another reason could be a deviation between the opinions from the two samples, since the participants in the focus group study implied that they had ambiguous roles, whilst participants in study two experienced their job description to be rather clear. It might be that the first sample had an overrepresentation of trainees which were more likely to have an ambiguous job description that other employees, whilst the larger sample of the second study might have offered a more accurate representations of the different roles within the organization.

Overall, our thesis has shown that there are different processes and factors that play a role in whether an individual will participate in citizenship behaviors or not. Furthermore, our findings support Jang and colleagues (2021) ideas that OH and OCB are related, yet distinct concepts. This can be seen through a moderate to strong correlation of .54 between OH and OCB which denotes that they are related, but not synonymous. Moreover, the differences in factors to participate in either OH or OCB illustrate the distinctive underlying dynamics of these constructs. At the same time, the often dichotomous results between the focus groups and quantitative study highlights a complex interplay and showcases that both traits and contextual factors are important for engaging in citizenship behavior. In other words, trying to pinpoint what factors impact citizenship behaviors in real life organizations is undoubtingly a complex task.

Practical Implications

When it comes to predicting OCB, our quantitative study found that individual factors had the strongest predictive power. When applying this notion in a real work setting, it might be important to consider specific traits, such as extroversion, already in the recruitment process if a company wants to optimize citizenship behaviors in their organization. For OH, recognition from peers emerged as an important factor in addition to individual differences, suggesting that organizations should enable a team-oriented environment, which likely will enable team members to reciprocate toward one another. Organizations might also benefit from fostering a culture with progressive and fair values, since it is likely to positively influence the behaviors of employees, possibly by closing the gap between what is considered male and female behaviors at

the workplace. Lastly, organizations might benefit from better acknowledging citizenship behaviors in their official reward systems. As suggested by participants in the focus group, it is important for employees to know that their work matters to others and the organization. However, it is important to consider the specific context of the studies. The environment and particular organizational culture where the two studies were conducted likely nuanced our results, which emphasizes the importance of being cautious when generalizing the findings of this project.

Limitations and Future Research

While our study's strength lies in its novelty, there are several limitations to consider. First, our focus groups consisted of only 10 participants, and most of them were trainees within the company. This composition could have given a skewed perspective on the company, which may have affected the results. A larger and more diverse sample might have provided different insights.

In addition, the quantitative study would have benefited from larger sample size as well. Its limited sample size led to a selective inclusion of certain variables, to not endanger statistical reliability. The most prominent examples are personality traits. While we had good reasons to include extroversion and agreeableness, a more complete picture might have emerged if additional personality traits were considered. Future research with larger sample sizes would benefit from more comprehensive models.

Additionally, the method we used for analyzing the qualitative data in this thesis has its limitations. We used a six-step thematic analysis, but, as pointed out by (Braun & Clarke, 2012), thematic analysis is not a method which sets out to be entirely objective. We could therefore have used more objective analysis approaches. However, as explained by Braun & Clarke (2012), a qualitative approach in research often has other goals then deriving completely objective knowledge. Still, future research might opt for a more structured method in analyzing qualitative data.

Some other methodological issues should be addressed with our quantitative study. Firstly, the analysis showed a violation of linearity for model 5 and 6. Our visualization did not reveal any issues, but the Tukey test indicated that the linearity assumption was not met for two of our models. Future research could use models that allow for non-linear relationships, which might better describe the relationships between variables.

Secondly, the agreeableness scale reported Cronbach's alpha of only .58. It is therefore a risk that some of the items in the scale were not related and possibly failed to measure the same underlying construct.

Thirdly, team-member recognition was assessed by the AWS subscale "Reward" (Leiter & Maslach, 2003) and not by a scale specifically made to measure recognition. This might have caused issues with validity, although the items fit the purpose of recognition very well.

Lastly, due to the correlational nature of the quantitative study, no causality can be inferred between factors.

As a final note, the construct of OH is still relatively new in academia and the measurement tools are not well-established. Since we failed to find a pre-existing OH scale which suited our needs, we had to construct our own by using eight items constructed by Adams (2018), and adding two items based on our focus groups. Since this combination of items was not previously tested, there might be some issues. However, our analysis showed that the scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .85, suggesting that the items measure the same underlying concept. Future research should further evaluate this scale and possibly apply it in different contexts. Overall, the concept of OH deserves more attention as it is a novel area that may be influenced by various factors.

Conclusion

This thesis has analyzed citizenship behaviors in a specific organizational context in Sweden. The aim was to explore common citizenship behaviors in the organization and why employees engaged in them. The first study (focus groups) explored the organizational culture at the company and provided support for specific citizenship behaviors and ideas for why employees engaged in them. The second study (survey) sought to expand the findings of the first study in a larger sample at the company. This was done by anchoring the focus group findings in previous literature and then formulating a survey which was distributed in the company. Both studies found support for the specific concepts of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Office Housework to be important *citizenship behaviors* at the workplace. The quantitative study showed that underlying factors for engaging in the behaviors were mainly related to individual differences such as personality, and in addition the workgroup factors of recognition from team members and leaders. All in all, the current study provides a better understanding of citizenship

behaviors in the specific context whilst providing important knowledge of the differences in Office Housework and Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

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Appendix A

Questions for the Focus Group Study

Tasks

- What are common extra tasks that you do at your job?

Processes

- How are extra tasks assigned?
    - *Are there any organizational processes for assigning extra tasks?*
    - *Are there any unwritten rules in the company for taking on extra tasks?*
- How much autonomy do you have in choosing extra tasks?
- How well are your tasks defined by your job description?

Motivation and expectations

- What motivates you to take on extra tasks?
- When do you feel expected to do extra tasks?
- Where do such expectations come from?

Support and feedback

- Have you received recognition or support for the extra tasks you have taken on? If so, what type of recognition or support?

Individual differences

- Who usually volunteers for extra tasks?
    - *What are the characteristics of people who volunteer?*
- Some research shows that women tend to take on more extra tasks than men. How is it at your company?
- Are there any differences in the types of tasks assigned to men and women in the company?

Ending question

- What can you or the company do to distribute extra tasks more fairly?

Appendix B

Battery of Questionnaires for the Survey Study

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Checklist (Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2013)

Below you will be presented with a list of common extra tasks. It might be that some of these tasks are within your job description. If they are, try to think about times you did them even though it was not mandatory for you.

1. Taking time to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker.
2. Helping co-workers learn new skills or shared job knowledge.
3. Helping new employees get oriented to the job.
4. Lending a compassionate ear when someone at work had a work problem.
5. Offering suggestions to improve how work is done.
6. Helping a co-worker who had too much to do.
7. Volunteering for extra work assignments.
8. Working weekends or other days off to complete a project or task.
9. Volunteering to attend meetings or work on committees on my own time.
10. Giving up meals and other breaks to complete work.

Office Housework

***Administrative Tasks* (Adams, 2018).**

1. Setting up office software (e.g., Microsoft teams).
2. Setting up meeting spaces.
3. Printing, organizing and/or preparing meeting materials.
4. Coordinating others calendars.
5. Creating presentations for others.

***Social Tasks* (Adams, 2018).**

6. Buying or preparing fika for office events.
7. Organizing and planning office events and parties (e.g., birthdays, after works).
8. Purchasing cards and/or gifts for employee's birthdays, retirement etc.

Added Items

9. Sending email on behalf of others.
10. Taking notes at meetings.

Personality traits (Kajonius & Johnson, 2019).

Extroversion

1. Feel comfortable around people.
2. Make friends easily.
3. Avoid contact with others. (R)
4. Talk to a lot of different people at parties.
5. Have a lot of fun.
6. Avoid crowds. (R)

Agreeableness

1. Am concerned about others.
2. Am indifferent to the feelings of others. (R)
3. Take advantage of others. (R)
4. Take time for others. (R)
5. Am not interested in other people's problems. (R)
6. Feel sympathy for those who are worse off than myself.

Employee Recognition Scale Shortened (Cannon, 2015)

This part will assess how you perceive to be recognized by your closest leader or supervisor.

1. My personal well-being is important to my supervisor.
2. My supervisor makes me feel that I matter.
3. My supervisor is sensitive to my needs.
4. I receive congratulations from my supervisor when I reach specific goals.
5. My supervisor thanks me when I successfully reach performance goals or other targets.
6. My supervisor recognizes(s) the quality of the work that I do.
7. My supervisor comments on the level of professionalism I exhibit through my work.
8. My hard-work and dedication are noticed by my supervisor.
9. My supervisor takes the time to thank me for the amount of effort I put into my work.
10. I feel my supervisor appreciates how devoted I am to my job.
11. My supervisor acknowledges my loyalty to our team / department.

Reward (AWS - Leiter & Maslach, 2003)

Think about co-workers in your workgroup and how you receive recognition from them.

1. I receive recognition from others for my work efforts.
2. My work efforts are appreciated.
3. My efforts often go unnoticed. (R)
4. I do not receive recognition for everything that I contribute with. (R)

Role expectations (QPS - Dallner et al., 2000)

This part assesses your role clarity at your workplace.

1. Have clear, planned goals and objectives been defined for your job?
2. Do you know what your responsibilities are?
3. Do you know exactly what is expected of you at work?