

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS AT WORK

SUE LING MOEY

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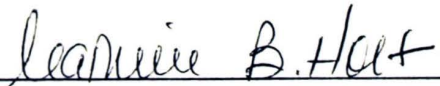


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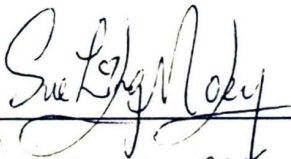
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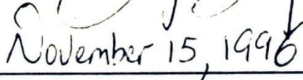
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ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS AT WORK

A Thesis

Presented for the

Master of Arts

Degree

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to God, for it has been through
His blessings that I can accomplish this effort. This thesis is
also dedicated to my family members as they have always supported
and encouraged my pursuit of higher education. My parents, Moey Kok Meng
and Wong Ngan Hai, my two younger sisters, Sue Jean and Sue Peng,
for their genuine and constant love, unconditional support
and patience during my college years.

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ABSTRACT

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors, such as helping co-workers to solve job-related problems and sharing information with co-workers, can provide intangible benefits to organizations. This study attempted to investigate whether perceptions of competition between friends of equal status impedes helping behaviors. One hundred and thirty-two subjects participated in this study. Hypothesis one stated that subjects tested under a non-competitive condition would render significantly more help to their friends than subjects tested under a competitive condition. A χ^2 Test of Independence did not support this hypothesis.

Hypothesis two stated that the “Yes . . . But” response would be chosen more often than “No” and “Yes ” responses when asked if subjects would help a hypothetical friend in a competitive situation. Statistically significant differences were found among the three response preferences. However, a Chi-square Test for Goodness of Fit showed a different response option was preferred than the one which was hypothesized. That is, the “Yes” response was chosen more often than the “Yes . . . But” response. The internal validity of this significant finding is questionable because the two scenarios (competitive and non-competitive), although producing results in the predicted directions, failed to be significantly different.

Supplemental exploratory analyses were conducted to examine subjects’ gender, work status, grade point average and academic major to study how these variables influenced subject’s intentions to offer help. Motivation and levels of help provided in the competitive condition were also explored although no hypotheses were proposed. Future

research in this area might be conducted to study the relationship between work status and help behaviors. In addition, if scenarios are used in future studies, the manipulated conditions must create the intended perceptions while at the same time avoiding demand characteristics.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Not surprisingly, many workers at one point or another find themselves performing activities or behaviors that, either directly or indirectly, enhance organizational effectiveness, yet are not formally listed in their job descriptions. Examples of these prosocial behaviors include working extra hours, bringing tasks home to complete, sharing information with co-workers, helping co-workers to solve job related problems, and the like. These kinds of activities have been described in the literature as Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB) (Organ, 1988).

Organ (1988) defined Organizational Citizenship Behavior as elective “extra-role activity.” Job incumbents/job holders are willing to perform behaviors that are beyond their formally prescribed job description (in-role behaviors), and they will engage in these non-required (extra-role) behaviors without expectation of receiving any significant recognition and/or compensation. Organ (1988) and Borman & Motowidlo (1993) explained that although extra role behaviors are not acknowledged by the organization’s reward system, these prosocial behaviors are crucial for organizational effectiveness. Moreover, we are living in a rapidly changing world where job activities change frequently due to advances in technology. It is difficult for organizations to foresee and identify every task or activity necessary for a job to meet organizational objectives.

Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) can be categorized into five different dimensions (Organ, 1988). The first dimension of OCB is Altruism, which includes “all discretionary behaviors that have the effect of helping a specific other person with an organizationally relevant task or problem” (p. 8). The second dimension of OCB is

Conscientiousness. This entails workers performing some of their job requirements beyond the minimum expectations, e.g., perfect attendance, meeting all deadlines, and adherence to rules. The third dimension of OCB is Sportsmanship. This includes avoiding “complaining, petty grievances, railing against real or imagined slights, and making federal cases out of small potatoes” (Organ, 1988, p. 11). The fourth dimension of OCB is Courtesy, which includes “touching base with those parties whose work would be affected by one’s decisions or commitments,” for instance, consulting, giving advance notice, and offering reminders (Organ, 1988, p. 12). The fifth dimension of OCB is Civic Virtue, which refers to “responsibly participating in the political life of the organization” (George & Brief, 1992, p. 312). Examples include speaking up and using personal time to discuss organizational issues.

Research suggests that these five dimensions of OCB can be collapsed into two distinct factors: Altruism and Generalized Compliance (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). As mentioned earlier, Altruism refers to rendering assistance to a specific person, whereas, Generalized Compliance pertains to an “impersonal sort of conscientiousness” (Smith et al., 1983, p. 662), e.g., workers performing activities that will benefit the organization/system instead of being beneficial to specific persons, such behaviors include punctuality and not wasting time. The present study focuses on one of the five dimensions of OCB, that is altruism or helping behavior directed toward a specific person (Organ, 1988).

Characteristics of the Recipient and Helping Behavior

Interpersonal relationships. Since organizational citizenship behaviors are desired in all organizations, it is important to determine all factors that may induce or motivate the

occurrence of such behaviors. Research on helping behavior suggests that, in general, people are more inclined to help their friends than strangers (Newcomb & Brady, 1982; Lippa, 1994, p. 526-527; Brehm & Kassin, 1996, p. 260). Using 465 nurses and nursing support staff, a recent survey studied the relationship between helping behavior and the quality of work relationships (Anderson & Williams, 1996). Data analysis revealed that the better the working relationship, the greater the helping behavior.

Takemura (1993) provided additional evidence that interpersonal sentiment could affect one's intention regarding helping behavior. That is, more help will be rendered to well-liked others followed by neutral target people than to disliked others. Furthermore, Knight & Chao (1991) found that siblings and friends, compared with acquaintances, were more likely to receive equality in resource allocation and fewer competitive preferences among each other.

These findings might be explained by the fact that people tend to help their friends and/or siblings more often because they know and like one another. Moreover, they share common interests and beliefs. However, Berndt's (1981) study demonstrated that greater competitiveness was found among friends than among acquaintances. The findings of this study indicated that males showed more prosocial behaviors toward acquaintances than to their friends. Yet, it is important to note that since this study dealt with a sample of children, the results may not generalize to an adult population.

Another study illustrated that children shared significantly less with their close friends than with former best friends (Berndt, Hawkins, & Hoyle, 1986). Consequently, it seems reasonable to ask whether friends also receive significantly less help than

acquaintances when a sample from an adult population is used. Now, let us examine the studies that dealt with adult sample in this area.

Characteristics of the Provider and Helping Behavior

Individual differences. Personality theory suggests that one's stable traits such as altruism can lead one to behave similarly across various situations (Lippa, 1994). For instance, Mother Teresa, a famous altruistic figure, showed consistent levels of helping behavior in different settings. In a recent study, Perry, Kane, Bernesser, & Spicker (1990) demonstrated that when given the opportunity to cheat, in spite of being tested under a cooperative or competitive situation, Type A-scoring respondents, who were believed to be driven by an achievement motive, were found to cheat more than Type B individuals in order to gain success.

A subsequent study showed that people of different ethnic backgrounds hold different beliefs and norms that reflect their cultural practices regarding helping. Cox, Lobel, & McLeod (1991) reported that at the individual level, Asians, Blacks and Hispanics, who emphasized the value of collectivist orientation due to cultural traditions, acted more cooperatively on a task than Anglo-Americans. Anglo-Americans, on the other hand, exercised more individualists-competitive responses to a task than other ethnic groups of individuals. Interestingly, these different types of behaviors ("collectivist-cooperative vs. individualists-competitive") can be seen in group settings as well. Research by Cox et al. (1991) further confirmed that groups composed of multiethnic individuals, e.g., Asian, Black, and Hispanic, displayed more cooperative behaviors than all Anglo groups.

Recently, Kline's (1995) study examined the stereotyped notion that men are more competitive in nature, whereas women are more cooperative in nature. Surprisingly, her survey failed to support this common belief. Kline (1995) argued that both competitiveness and cooperativeness are two different entities and they should be viewed as "gender-neutral characteristics". That is, men and women may both display cooperative and competitive behaviors.

Thus far, some research on personality variables, e.g., type A vs. type B characteristics (Perry et al., 1990), and differences in ethnic background (Cox et al., 1991), have been shown to have an impact on one's behaviors in cooperative vs. competitive situations. These studies provide evidence that the study of helping behavior is far more complicated than might be imagined.

Attitudes/feelings. Now let us leave the area of personality variables, and look at the attitudes/feelings variables that influence helping. Helping behaviors in the sense of OCB can be illustrated as one's willingness to help or solve other's problems at his/her own expense without any expectation of rewards in return (Organ, 1988). Organizational researchers, believing that job satisfaction is a predictor of positive moods in work contexts, hypothesized and found that job satisfaction was indeed strongly associated with prosocial behaviors/organizational spontaneity in work settings (Smith et al., 1983; Motowidlo, 1984).

Motowidlo (1984) believes that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and helping behaviors. That means, when one is satisfied with his/her job, happiness can lead one to become sensitive toward others' needs. Related to this, empirical research also

confirmed the above finding. Smith et al. (1983) found a correlation between job satisfaction and supervisory ratings of altruism. That means, job satisfaction, which is viewed as a good mood state, can foster the occurrence of organizational citizenship behaviors (Smith et al., 1983; Organ & Ryan, 1995).

Stemming from these assumptions, George (1991) and George & Brief (1992) suggested that one explanation for the correlation between job satisfaction and voluntary/spontaneous acts is that such acts reflect positive moods at work, thus, resulting in organizational citizenship behaviors/organizational spontaneity (e.g., helping co-workers). Their studies were consistent with this interpretation. Put simply, positive/good moods as a state do promote in role and extra role behaviors (George, 1991; George & Brief, 1992; Lippa, 1994).

Smitherman (1992) used a questionnaire to examine the reasons which contribute to one's willingness to help others. His findings indicated that people will help others when they feel that 'it is a right thing to do' and through helping, people will feel good about themselves. Otherwise, people will refuse to help when they perceive the situation as detrimental to their own well-being.

Another attitude factor influencing helping behavior is believed to be affective organizational commitment. Schaubroeck & Ganster (1991) hypothesized that affective organizational commitment would relate positively to extra role behaviors, and this hypothesis was supported. That is, intrinsic satisfaction (affective organizational commitment) is related to voluntarism (Schaubroeck & Ganster, 1991; Organ & Ryan, 1995).

Motivational variables. As we have learned organizational citizenship behaviors are important to all organizations. Much of the research in this area has focused on motivational factors to explain observed helping behaviors.

Miller (1977) suggested that helpfulness is guided by a “justice motive.” That is, people are sensitive and concerned about receiving fair outcomes. They will be reluctant to help others when they believe the help offered can reduce the outcomes they feel they have earned. In other words, people will be more inclined to help others when they can ensure that they will still receive outcomes they feel entitled to.

Another research finding suggested that “need for achievement, satisfaction with material rewards, and low perceived peer competition” were the prerequisites to prosocial/positive non-task behaviors (Puffer, 1987).

Perceptions and helping behaviors. In an early, clever, experiment, Tesser & Smith (1980) demonstrated that when subjects were led to believe that performance on a word puzzle task served as a measure on their verbal skills (high relevance condition), they gave harder clues to both friends and strangers who were attempting that same task than when they were told that the same word puzzle (which now was labeled as a game) measured irrelevant skills (low relevance condition). Furthermore, Tesser & Smith (1980) also found that subjects provided harder clues to their friends than to strangers when tested under high relevance situations. Whereas, friends received easier clues than strangers under low relevance condition. Tesser & Smith (1980) believed that the desire to maintain one’s self esteem played a major role here in influencing the helping behavior exhibited toward friends vs. strangers.

One possible explanation for the above findings was that, when outperformed by a friend on a highly ego-relevant task, one's self esteem might be threatened by a process of social comparison. As a result, harder clues were given to friends in order to maintain one's self esteem. However, easier clues were given to friends than to strangers under low relevance situations because the tasks were perceived as irrelevant to one's self definition. Therefore, one can take pride in his or her friend's good performance (Tesser & Smith, 1980).

On the other hand, Organ & Ryan (1995) conducted an extensive review in the area of organizational citizenship behaviors. Their study suggests that job satisfaction, perceived fairness, organizational commitment and leader supportiveness are the best predictors for organizational citizenship behaviors. Related to the above study, recent research showed that "perceived fairness on procedural justice and pay satisfaction" served as potential determinants for both in role and extra role behaviors (Lee, 1995).

In summary, although helping/cooperation occurs significantly more often between siblings (Knight & Chao, 1991) and friends versus strangers (Knight & Chao, 1991; Takemura, 1993), it will be withheld when help is perceived as threatening to one's ego or well-being (Tesser & Smith, 1980; Smitherman, 1992).

Demographic factors. Smith et al. (1983) reported that, besides job satisfaction, education and rural origin also played significant roles in motivating organizational citizenship behaviors. They indicated that rural origin has a direct impact on altruism (e.g., help a specific individual) and generalized compliance (e.g., "good citizen syndrome" which involves directing help toward the system/organization). In short, high population

density was negatively correlated with helping (Levine, Martinez, Brase, & Sorenson, 1994) and people from rural areas (Smith et al., 1983) showed more altruism than people from urban areas. Whereas, formal education can cultivate organizational citizenship behaviors perhaps due to the confidence one derives by providing “constructive help.”

To summarize, the reviewed literature above suggests that the following characteristics/beliefs/perception of the provider are influential in generating OCB:

- justice motive (Miller, 1977)
- avoidance of harm to one's ego or self esteem maintenance (Tesser & Smith, 1980; Smitherman, 1992)
- job satisfaction (Smith et al., 1983; Motowidlo, 1984; George, 1991; George & Brief, 1992; Organ & Ryan, 1995)
- education and rural origins (Smith et al., 1983)
- low perceived peer competition (Puffer, 1987)
- need for achievement (Puffer, 1987)
- satisfaction with material rewards (Puffer, 1987)
- affective organizational commitment (Schaubroeck & Ganster, 1991; Organ & Ryan, 1995)
- feel that ‘it is a right thing to do’ (Smitherman, 1992)
- population density (Levine et al., 1994)
- pay satisfaction (Lee, 1995)
- leader supportiveness (Organ & Ryan, 1995)

- procedural justice/perceived fairness on outcome determinants (Lee, 1995; Organ & Ryan, 1995)

Characteristics of the Situation and Helping Behavior

The characteristics of the recipient that to some extent influence helping have been discussed previously. Now, let us examine the characteristics of the situation on helping as it plays a role as well.

Cost conditions. According to Bell, Grekul, Lamba, Minas, & Harrell (1995), it is the cost condition (high vs. low) that determines helping behaviors. Subjects in their study reported that they would lend their notes to friends more than they would to strangers because of frequent contact (low-cost condition). One plausible explanation is that, frequent contacts help the debtor remember his/her debt. Consequently, people tend to lend their notes to friends more often than to strangers because the risk/cost of lending notes to a friend is perceived to be far lower than to a stranger. Interestingly, however, subjects in Bell et al.'s (1995) study showed that they were less willing to tutor others the night before an examination when there was competition involved, e.g., "grading on a curve". In short, this study showed that helping behaviors increased when costs decreased.

Social context: cooperative, competitive, individualistic situation. Many research studies have investigated and increased our understanding of possible determinants of helping behavior such as individual differences, motivational, and situational variables. Now, it is important to determine under what condition (e.g., cooperative, individualistic or competitive) an individual will continue to help others. Let us examine the research evidence on these aspects.

In general, characteristics of the situation are identified as either competitive or cooperative. Deutsch (1973) provided a clear definition to distinguish the two contexts. "In a cooperative situation the goals are so linked that everybody "sinks or swims" together, while in the competitive situation if one swims, the other must sink" (p. 20). In other words, cooperation can be described as a "win-win" social context; as one believes that his/her goals are positively linked to others', therefore, one's goal achievement helps others attain theirs as well. On the other hand, competition can be viewed as a "win-lose" social context. Here one perceives his/her goals attainment will be met only if others fail to achieve theirs.

An early study showed that subjects who were previously assigned to cooperative learning environments continued to practice such cooperative behaviors, e.g., offering and seeking help from others, developing a group strategy emphasized on mutual sharing, more frequently than subjects who were preexposed to a competitive situation, even without the presence of manipulated (cooperative vs. competitive) conditions (Ryan & Wheeler, 1977).

Tjosvold & Okun (1979) studied the unequal power status of individuals in influencing one's social interaction/preference (compete vs. cooperate with one another). Results revealed that low power subjects had a tendency to cooperate more than high power subjects, e.g., they were willing to enhance the high power subject's outcome as long as they also received cooperation from the high power one.

However, rather than emphasizing the power differences, Tjosvold (1985a) argued that social context was the major determinant affecting the interaction between superiors

and subordinates. Results from this study suggested that both high and low power superiors in cooperation context used their power constructively, rendered more help to their subordinates and had a better superior-subordinate relationship when compared with those high and low power superiors in either individualistic or competitive context.

Consistent with the above finding, Tjosvold (1985b) suggests that superiors in competitive contexts, who believed that their goals were negatively related to their subordinates, were unsupportive and dissatisfied with the superior-subordinate relationship regardless of whether they attributed their subordinate's low performance to lack of effort or ability. In other words, superiors in cooperative context followed by superiors in individualistic contexts, were more responsive, communicated supportively and provided more assistance to their subordinates than superiors in competitive context.

In addition, according to Niehoff & Mesch (1991), group effectiveness and peer evaluations were significantly higher in cooperative, individualistic and no-reward conditions than in an intergroup competitive condition.

Puffer (1987) investigated perceived peer competition in helping. Her finding showed that there was a negative relationship between prosocial behaviors and perceived peer competition. Evidence from a field study also confirmed the previous findings. That is, "competitive and independent supervisory goals" were negatively linked to giving and receiving resources, whereas cooperative goals were positively correlated with mutual exchange of resources, better work relationship, and higher productivity (Tjosvold, 1990).

Erev, Bornstein, & Galili (1993) illustrated that in a field experiment, competition showed the best effect on task performance than the other two (Team and Personal)

conditions. That means, intergroup competition could reduce social loafing and result in higher productivity.

It is important to note that the studies by Tjosvold & Okun (1979), Tjosvold (1985a), Tjosvold (1985b), Puffer (1987), Tjosvold (1990), Niehoff & Mesch (1991) and Erev et al. (1993) mainly focused on one form of helping, that is, helping in the area of in-role activities that ultimately can lead to good task performance, yet unfortunately at the expense of OCB. Therefore, it is important to note that these studies failed to investigate the other form of helping, contextual behaviors (OCB) in the competitive context.

Predisposition and situational setting. One study focused on the congruency between value orientation (“individual or competitive” priorities) and behavioral intentions (Killeen & McCarrey, 1986). Results of that study showed that value priority is consistent with one’s intentions, such as the choice of one’s major. Indeed, sixty percent of business majors showed more “individualistic-competitive” orientation than nursing majors, while 74% of the nursing students reflected the predominance of ‘social-altruistic’ values (Killeen & McCarrey, 1986).

Similarly, McClintock & Allison’s (1989) study explored the link between one’s social value orientation and helping behaviors. Research findings revealed that subjects who were distinguished as cooperative in social value orientation reported offering more hours of help than students who were classified as either individualists or competitors.

Another study indicated that people whose predispositions favor organizational citizenship behaviors performed better under cooperative situations than under competitive situations (Cosier & Dalton, 1988).

Similarly, Chatman & Barsade (1995) reported that when one's personality and organizational culture are matched, such as both geared toward cooperativeness, one will exhibit more cooperative behaviors than when there is a mismatch between personality disposition and organizational context, e.g., individualistic personality and collectivistic organizational culture. Consequently, participants in the matched individualistic conditions demonstrated less cooperative behaviors than those participants in either matched cooperative conditions or individualistic subjects in collectivistic organizational context.

In summary, numerous studies conclude that cooperation as a main factor is superior to both individualistic and competitive conditions across various criteria. The advantages can be identified as promoting or encouraging:

- reciprocal help toward/from others (Ryan & Wheeler, 1977)
- group strategy as mutual sharing (Ryan & Wheeler, 1977)
- other's outcomes (Tjosvold & Okun, 1979)
- helping (McClintock & Allison, 1989)
- better superior-subordinate relationships (Tjosvold, 1985a)
- supportively communicating (Tjosvold, 1985b)
- group effectiveness and better peer evaluation (Niehoff & Mesch, 1991).

On the other hand, most studies reported that competition has a detrimental effect on helping (Ryan & Wheeler, 1977; Puffer, 1987); giving and receiving resources (Tjosvold, 1990); and cooperativeness (Chatman & Barsade, 1995). Only one study showed that competition led to better in-role performance (Erev, Bornstein, & Galili, 1993). The effect on OCB's was unclear.

Goal Setting and Helping

Obviously, helping is determined by many factors such as those mentioned earlier, including, characteristics of the recipient, characteristics of the provider and characteristics of the situation. Research evidence has also shown that goal settings can play a role on helping as well.

Common notion. It is well established that, setting specific and challenging goals for a task will often result in better performance as suggested by goal setting theory (Locke & Latham 1984). In accordance with the above finding, recent studies have shown that subjects with a specific, difficult goal outperformed subjects having either a moderate goal, an easy goal or a “do your best goal” (Lerner & Locke, 1995; Campbell & Furrer, 1995). Yet, some studies reported that goal setting can have an adverse impact on extra role behaviors.

Goal setting and helping behavior. Wright, George, Farnsworth, & McMahan (1993) reported that although goal setting led to better task performance for in-role prescribed activities, unfortunately these goal commitments were usually achieved at the expense of extra role behavior, especially when the goals were difficult to attain. In addition, Campbell & Furrer (1995) also demonstrated that “competition combined with goal setting is dysfunctional” (p. 388). In other words, subjects who set specific goals in a non-competitive condition significantly outscored subjects given the same goal levels in the competitive situation.

In addition, Lerner & Locke (1995) failed to support the notion that competition could motivate one to set a higher personal goal or enhance one’s self-efficacy. That

means, competition showed no effect on either one's personal goals or one's self-efficacy. This study did not investigate helpings in the area of extra-role behaviors, therefore the effect on OCB is unclear.

The Present Study

As mentioned earlier, no organization can ever, in advance, specifically foresee and identify all tasks that will be necessary for a job to meet the organization's goals. Therefore, organizational citizenship behaviors, such as helping co-workers to solve job related problems and sharing information with co-workers, can provide intangible benefits to organizations.

Since OCB are desired in all organizations, then, it will be interesting to examine the occurrence of helping behavior in a situation where there is an obvious competition occurring between two people. Competition between individuals seems to occur regularly in organizations despite the growth of team-oriented workplaces. None of the literature reviewed studied helping behaviors between individuals of equal power status who are friends coupled with a highly competitive situation.

Hence, two scenarios were written to investigate OCB between friends. One scenario illustrated a competitive situation while the other illustrated a non-competitive situation. The present study attempted to find out whether competition impedes helping behaviors between friends of equal status.

A competitive context was defined as a "win-lose" situation. That means one could achieve the scarce resource (e.g., promotion) only when others failed to achieve theirs (Deutsch, 1973). Conversely, a situation, in which one's goal attainment did not affect

others' goal attainment, was called a non-competitive context. Everybody in the non-competitive context has an equal chance of attaining the desired outcome. For the purposes of this study, helping behavior was defined as the extent to which a person expresses an intention to help a hypothetical coworker.

Given the evidence suggesting that friends will more likely receive help than strangers (e.g., Bell et al., 1995) and the evidence suggesting that competition generally discourages helping (e.g., Puffer, 1987), and giving and receiving resources (e.g., Tjosvold, 1990), in perceived high cost conditions (e.g., Bell et al., 1995), the present study, proposed to investigate two hypotheses:

First, to replicate previous findings emphasized in the area of situational factors, the first hypothesis was:

Hypothesis 1: Subjects tested under the noncompetitive condition would render significantly more help to their friends than subjects tested under a competitive condition.

Second, as mentioned earlier, competition is unfortunately unavoidable in all organizations. So, one cannot ignore the possible detrimental effects that can result from competitive events (Ryan & Wheeler, 1977; Puffer, 1987; Tjosvold, 1990). As a result, the unique contribution of this study was to find out how much help one would be willing to render to his/her friend (e.g., coworker) when tested under a highly competitive situation.

Given the kinds of situations people face, three types of responses were postulated to the request for help presented in the scenarios: "Yes", or "No", or "Yes . . . But". The

first possible response was “yes.” A “yes” response indicated one’s intention to help the coworker to the best of his/her ability. Another response was to answer “no” in response to the request for help. With this response, one intentionally reported that no assistance would be given to the request for help under any circumstances.

A third response involved offering a modest level of help: “yes . . . but”. The extent of help in the “yes . . . but” condition was different from the “yes” response in terms of quality, quantity and timeliness. Subjects who chose the “yes . . . but” response may very well be engaged in impression management (Baron & Byrne, 1994). That is, these subjects reported that they would provide some degree of help--enough to create the impression of being truly helpful-- but not so much help as to risk their chances of receiving the desired outcome.

The amount of help that can be offered may vary on the dimensions of quantity, quality, and timeliness. For example, in the case of one student asking for the notes of another student to prepare for an exam, the provider of help can offer only a summary of the study notes (partial help in terms of quantity), a rough draft of the complete notes (partial help in terms of quality), or lend the notes the day before an examination (partial help in terms of timeliness).

Since none of the previous studies has focused on the degree of choices made by respondents, the present study proposed the second hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: “Yes. . . But” response would be chosen more often than “No” and “Yes” responses when asked if subjects would help a hypothetical friend in a competitive situation.

The motives behind the choice of response made by subjects would be examined in a purely exploratory fashion. No hypotheses were proposed.

CHAPTER 2

METHODS

Subjects

One hundred and thirty-two subjects were recruited for voluntary participation in this study. All were undergraduate students enrolled in introductory psychology classes at a medium-sized state university located in the Southeastern United States. When possible, these students were awarded additional course credit for participation.

Materials

Two scenarios were written (competitive vs. non-competitive condition) in which a hypothetical friend seeks help from the subject under a highly competitive or non-competitive situation (See Appendix C and D). Subjects were asked to respond to the help sought by selecting one of the following options “yes, no, or yes . . . but” (See Appendix E). Manipulation checks were conducted to determine if the scenarios had their intended effects (See Appendix F).

The first manipulation check question sought subjects’ perceptions about the extent of competition depicted in the assigned scenario. The second manipulation check question was used to determine the extent to which subjects perceived the help seeker depicted in the scenario as a friend. The third manipulation check question was used to determine the extent to which the subjects perceived the resume format described in the assigned scenario as an important piece of information.

Also, a short instrument was designed to explore the subject’s motives and intentions for choosing a particular response option (See Appendix G). For example, subjects might be motivated to offer help because they believe in the norm of reciprocity

or they have the desire to demonstrate their superiority. Regarding intentions to provide help, subjects can control the quality, quantity and timeliness of help.

Procedure

A pilot test was conducted prior to the experiment to make sure that the scenarios could produce their intended effects. Group differences in the response to first manipulation check question were assessed using an independent groups t-test. The experimental manipulation was deemed successful if the t-test for group differences was significant. The responses to second and third manipulation check questions were expected to cluster near the end point of the scales with no group differences and little variation within groups. Subjects were requested to complete the pilot test informed consent form (See Appendix A) before reading a scenario and before answering to three manipulation check questions (Appendix F).

Subjects were randomly and equally divided into two groups (competitive vs. non-competitive conditions). When conducting the experiment, instructions and information were given to each subject using an informed consent form. All subjects completed the informed consent forms (See Appendix B). Participants were randomly assigned to two groups. All subjects read the scenario given to them. Each scenario represented an experimental manipulation: competitive or non-competitive condition (Appendix C and D). Subjects were presented with Appendix E and told to choose one of the three response preferences: “yes”, or “no” or “yes . . . but” to the help sought by imagining that they were actually facing the situation as illustrated in the scenario. The “Yes” response indicated one’s intention to help his/her coworker totally. “No” response showed one

intentionally reported that no help would be given under any circumstances. “Yes . . . But” response indicated one intended to provide help just enough to avoid hurting the friendship, yet not so much to risk his/her chances of attaining the desired outcome. A manipulation check was conducted to make sure that the subjects correctly perceived the situation as either competitive or non-competitive (Appendix F).

Finally, additional data which was not relevant to the hypotheses of this study was also collected for analysis using the instrument in Appendix G and Appendix H. The specific items to which subjects were asked to respond depended on the response option they selected in the experimental manipulation--yes, no, or yes . . . but. Subjects were asked to indicate the degree to which each item described their motivation in this study using a rating scale from 1 (very strongly disagree) to 7 (very strongly agree) (See Appendix G). The average amount of time for each participant to complete the study was expected to range from 15 to 20 minutes.

The external validity of laboratory research, particularly those studies using student samples and a “paper-people” experimental manipulation as was the case in this research, has been criticized (Gordon, Slade, & Schmitt, 1986). A strong rebuttal of these criticisms has been offered by Dobbins, Lane, & Steiner (1988). According to Dobbins et al. (1988), laboratory experimental studies not only increase our understanding of human behaviors in organizations but also provides a method of rigorously testing theoretical predictions that cannot be easily tested in the field. Consequently, we can make predictions in various circumstances/conditions which sets the stage for making determinations about external validity.

Data Analysis Strategy

The Chi Square Test for independence was used to determine if manipulated condition was related to responses (Gravetter & Wallnau, 1991). The frequency of responses of the three categories obtained from the two groups (competitive vs. non-competitive) were tested to examine how one group was different from another. That is, the type of response preferred depended on the manipulated condition (competitive or non-competitive). Then, the Chi Square Test for goodness of fit was used also to determine how well the frequency distribution for the sample fits the population distribution specified by the null hypothesis (Gravetter & Wallnau, 1991). In other words, the frequency of the three choices: “Yes”, “No”, “Yes . . .But” responses was examined to indicate which response was significantly different from the others.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

The instruments used to create the experimental manipulation were pilot tested prior to conducting the actual study. The result of the pilot tests are contained in Appendix I.

Manipulation Checks

Statistical analyses of the responses to the questions in Appendix F were conducted to determine if the manipulations had their intended effects. Specifically, a t-test was used to examine if there was a significant difference in the levels of competition depicted in the two scenarios as assessed in question one. The manipulation produced results in the expected direction. The $\bar{M} = 4.59$, $SD = 1.81$ for the competitive scenario, while the $\bar{M} = 4.12$, $SD = 1.89$ for the non-competitive scenario. Yet, the t-test results showed that the two scenarios were not perceived as significantly different from one another, $t(129) = 1.45$, $p > .05$. The failure to find significant differences between the two scenarios casts doubt on the internal validity of any statistically significant findings.

As expected, t-test results revealed that the two additional manipulations were effective in leading subjects to perceive the help seeker as a friend as assessed in question two (e.g., $\bar{M} = 1.82$, $SD = 1.08$ for competitive scenario; $\bar{M} = 1.65$, $SD = 0.99$ for the non-competitive scenario, $t(129) = 0.95$, $p > .05$) and the resume format as an important piece of information as measured in question three (e.g., $\bar{M} = 5.80$, $SD = 1.29$ for the competitive scenario; $\bar{M} = 5.92$, $SD = 1.32$ for the non-competitive scenario, $t(129) = -0.53$, $p > .05$). As hypothesized, these differences were not statistically significant.

Hypothesis 1

A χ^2 test for independence was used to test if the type of response selected (e.g., Yes, No, Yes . . . But) depended on the scenario received (competitive or non-competitive). It was hypothesized that subjects who received the non-competitive scenario would render significantly more help to their friends than subjects who received the competitive scenario. A review of the frequencies in table 1 below shows that this was not the case. The frequency of responses in the categories “Yes”, “No”, and “Yes . . . But” was not significantly different among the competitive vs. non-competitive scenarios, $\chi^2 (2, N = 132) = 0.67, p > .05$. Therefore, hypothesis 1 was not supported (See Table 1).

Table 1

Test of Hypothesis One

Type of situation	Degree of Help			
	Yes	No	Yes . . . But	
Competitive condition	36	4	27	Row Totals n = 67
Non-competitive condition	35	2	28	n = 65
Column Totals	71	6	55	N = 132

The low frequencies found in the “No” column did not influence the interpretation of these results.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis two stated that the “Yes . . . But” response would be chosen more often than the “No” and “Yes” response when asked if subjects would help a hypothetical friend in a competitive situation. A χ^2 test for goodness of fit was used to determine whether there were significant differences in frequency of response to each option (See Table 2).

Table 2

Test of Hypothesis Two

	Response Preference			Total
	Yes	No	Yes . . . But	
Competitive condition	36	4	27	N = 67

This test showed that there were significant differences in the frequency of responses of “Yes”, “No”, and “Yes . . . But” among those who received the competitive scenario $\chi^2 (2, N = 67) = 24.39, p < .001$. However, the “Yes” response was chosen more often than the “No”, or “Yes . . . But” responses contrary to the hypothesis. This finding of differences in response options is highly suspect given the low frequency of response to the “No” option.

Supplemental Exploratory Analysis.

Demographic data was gathered from subjects regarding gender, age, work status, grade point average, and academic major (Appendix H). Because this research depicted a work-related situation in the written scenarios, further analysis of the data based on the work status variable was conducted to determine if a subject's work status might influence their perceptions of the written scenarios and their decision to offer help to a co-worker.

Subjects were divided into those who worked full-time, part-time, or not at all. Separate one-way ANOVA's were conducted to compare the subjects' perceptions of the scenarios within the competitive and non-competitive conditions across the three work status groups (full-time, part-time, and not at all). The ANOVA for differences among work status groups who received the competitive scenario indicated that no significant differences were found among the three groups, $F(2, 53) = 0.88, p > .05$. Similarly, the ANOVA for differences among work status groups who received the non-competitive scenario indicated that no significant differences were found among the three groups, $F(2, 58) = 0.99, p > .05$.

Further analyses were not conducted because there appeared to be no significant differences in the way individuals perceived the written scenarios as a function of work status.

Motivation and Intentions Regarding Helping Behavior

The motives behind the choice of response made by subjects were analyzed in a purely exploratory manner. Subjects responded to seven-point Likert-type items with the

scale point “1” representing “very strongly disagree” and the scale point “7” representing “very strongly agree.”

Three closed-ended questions explored the motivation of those answering Yes . . . But. Interestingly, in the competitive situation, the twenty-seven subjects who chose “Yes . . . But” seemed more motivated by a norm of reciprocity ($\underline{M} = 4.33$, $\underline{SD} = 1.11$) than by a desire to demonstrate their overall superiority ($\underline{M} = 3.19$, $\underline{SD} = 1.57$) or expertise ($\underline{M} = 3.59$, $\underline{SD} = 1.39$) relative to their friend (See Table 3).

If one was going to withhold some help as implied by the Yes...But response, this could be done by curtailing the quantity of help, the quality of help, or the timeliness of help. Three closed-ended questions assessed subjects’ intentions in this regard. Responses suggested that subjects were more inclined to limit the quantity of help ($\underline{M} = 4.96$, $\underline{SD} = 1.13$) and the quality of help ($\underline{M} = 5.04$, $\underline{SD} = 1.02$) than the timeliness of help ($\underline{M} = 2.56$, $\underline{SD} = 1.12$) (See Table 3).

Thirty-six subjects selected the “Yes” response when assigned the competitive scenario. Four closed-ended items were asked to explore their motivation. Subjects who responded “Yes” to the request for help appeared to do so because they felt obligated to help their friends ($\underline{M} = 5.44$, $\underline{SD} = 1.42$), they felt good after helping others ($\underline{M} = 6.11$, $\underline{SD} = 0.85$), they believed that helping their friends was the professional thing to do ($\underline{M} = 5.61$, $\underline{SD} = 1.36$) and they were committed to their organizations ($\underline{M} = 4.97$, $\underline{SD} = 1.56$) (See Table 4).

The motivation behind those subjects who responded “No” was not examined because of the low cell frequencies.

Table 3

Motivation/Intentions Regarding Helping Behavior in Competitive Situation for Subjects Who Chose "Yes . . . But" response

Question	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
1. I believe in reciprocity. In case my friend got into training and I didn't, my friend would owe me a big favor because of the help I offered.	4.333	1.109
2. I helped my friend because helping can be seen as a symbol of superiority over the person who seeks help.	3.185	1.570
3. Helping my friend will show others that I possess better knowledge/qualification for the promotion.	3.593	1.394
4. I would offer my friend information about the general content of the resume but not reveal specifics.	4.963	1.126
5. I would probably tell my friend some of the specific headings from the resume format but not share the entire format.	5.037	1.018
6. I would probably loan my friend the resume format too late for it to be of any real value.	2.556	1.121

Table 4

Motivation/Intentions Regarding Helping Behavior in Competitive Situation for Subjects Who Chose "Yes" response

Question	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
1. I felt obligated to help.	5.444	1.423
2. I feel good after helping others.	6.111	0.854
3. Helping my friend was the professional thing to do.	5.611	1.358
4. I am committed to my organization, so I decided to share the information with my co-worker.	4.972	1.558

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors such as helping co-workers to solve job related problems and sharing information with co-workers can provide intangible benefits to organizations. This study investigated helping behaviors between individuals of equal power status who are friends in a competitive situation.

Hypothesis one stated that subjects tested under the non-competitive condition would render significantly more help to their friends than subjects tested under a competitive condition. In contrast to the anticipated outcome, the result was contrary to the hypothesis.

Previous evidence suggested that competition generally impedes helping (Ryan & Wheeler, 1977; Puffer, 1987) and giving and receiving resources (Tjosvold, 1990) which implied that the respondents would be willing to help when faced with a non-competitive situation. However, hypothesis one failed to support the previous findings. This may be due to the failure of the experimental manipulation to have its intended effects. In the present study, subjects reported that they would be equally helpful to their friends regardless of the situation they were in (competitive or non-competitive).

A variety of situational factors probably affect the findings. One plausible reason may be the “evaluation apprehension” phenomenon (Goodwin, 1995). Individuals like to be evaluated positively so they often act in ways they believe are consistent with how an ideal person should behave, especially when altruism (e.g., helping a friend) is the behavior in question.

It is possible that subjects who received the competitive scenario would hide their

true feelings (e.g., to outperform their friends) by giving “socially desirable responses” (Goodwin, 1995). As a result, subjects who received the competitive scenario may have been trying to impress the researcher by engaging in altruistic behavior.

Admittedly, the scenarios should be carefully reconstructed to produce their intended effects in light of the manipulation check data. When creating the two scenarios, the researcher attempted to avoid “demand characteristics” (e.g., underlining or bold-facing key phrases) (Goodwin, 1995) while at the same time trying to create the manipulated conditions. In real life settings, people have to make decisions about their choices based on their perceptions. Usually, there is no clear indication of whether the situation is competitive or non-competitive. In this study, although the researcher tried to increase external validity by decreasing “demand characteristics”, unfortunately the attempt was not successful.

Another plausible explanation for failing to support the hypothesis is that the present study used a convenience sample (e.g., general psychology students). The sample was over represented with females (64.39%) and those who do not work (46.21%). Therefore findings might not truly portray true attitudes toward helping in the real world.

Hypothesis two attempted to find out the levels of help. It was hypothesized that “Yes . . . But” response would be chosen more often than “No” and “Yes” responses when asked if subjects would help a hypothetical friend in a competitive situation.

Results revealed that three options (“Yes”, “No”, “Yes . . . But”) were perceived as statistically significant difference. However, “Yes” response instead of “Yes . . . But”

response was chosen more when asked if subjects would help their friend in a competitive situation.

Explanations for the failure to find “impression management” (Baron & Byrne, 1994) in hypothesis two could be the same reasons like those explanations given to hypothesis one (e.g., socially desirable responses and evaluation apprehension). Another plausible explanation was that subjects misunderstand the differences between “Yes” and “Yes . . . But” responses. The open-ended comments regarding the motivations and behavioral intentions of those who selected the “Yes” response suggests some confusion between the “Yes” and Yes...But” responses. To illustrate this point, in the written responses some subjects wrote that “helping my friend will pay off in the long run”, “morally I would feel that I should help my friend as I would hope that my friend would do the same for me”, “I don’t give too much information, so that it would hurt my chances”, “I would want my friend to help if the tables were turned.” These comments suggest that help might be provided on a conditional basis--a response more consistent with the “Yes . . . But” response option. Clearly, these descriptions have implied the norm of reciprocity (e.g., there are expectations in return). As a result, they were not truly “Yes” responses as conceptualized in this research. A “Yes” response has to be one that describes one’s intention to help in an altruistic manner.

Another explanation for failing to support the hypothesis two was that, friends are special people and therefore friends tend to receive more help than strangers. (Newcomb & Brady, 1982; Knight & Chao, 1991; Takemura, 1993; Bell et al., 1995). Consequently, people tend to help their friends regardless of whether they are in a competitive or non-

competitive condition. Support for this assumption can be found in the questions about a subject's motivation. Subjects in general assigned higher ratings to the items, such as "I felt obligated to help my friend", "I feel good after helping others" when their motives behind their choices were explored. In addition, the open-ended responses are also supportive of this belief. Examples include "I want my friend to have the same advantage as I do", "this person was my friend so I wanted to help. If I barely know them, it would have been different."

The levels of help were also explored in this study. Findings suggested that in a competitive situation subjects who chose the "Yes . . . But" response assigned higher ratings/agreed more with the items emphasizing the quality and quantity of help. In other words, subjects would control the quality and quantity of their help levels when they were asked if they would help their friends.

Limitations

The major limitation of this study centers around the use of a "paper-people" manipulation to create the perception of (1) competitive and non-competitive situations, (2) the characteristics of the person asking for help (e.g., a friend), and (3) the importance of the requested piece of information (e.g., the resume format). The failure of this manipulation to create the perception of competitive and non-competitive situations was crippling to the study.

A self-report methodology was used in this study to examine subjects' intentions on helping behaviors. The problems of using self-report method have been discussed

earlier (e.g., socially desirable response and evaluation apprehension). Therefore, subjects in this study might not reveal their “true” feelings.

Behaviors are determined by multiple causes/variables. As discussed in the literature review, setting specific and challenging goals for a task will tend to decrease the organizational citizenship behaviors (Wright, et al., 1993). In this study, subjects might not perceive the goal (to get into training) as a desired and challenging goal. Therefore, helping was reported equally often in both competitive and non-competitive conditions.

It is important to note that this study did not manipulate goal setting nor other variables that might influence the results of this study, such as job satisfaction (Smith et al., 1983), social value orientation (McClintock & Allison, 1989), personality (Chatman & Barsade, 1995), perceived fairness on outcome determinants (Lee, 1995; Organ & Ryan, 1995) and need for achievement (Puffer, 1987).

Future Research

First, to increase the internal validity of the study, one might want to replace the paper-people manipulation and self-report measures of behavioral intentions, with a realistic situation in which people would actually have a chance to demonstrate helping behavior. Observation would replace self-report as the means of determining levels of helping behavior.

Second, to increase the external validity of the study, future research might want to design a study in a way that actually provides rewards (e.g., monetary rewards). Hence, through this incentive/desired outcome subjects might be able to distinguish the situation

as competitive or non-competitive. Also, future research in this area might want to use subjects who work at least part-time to study their helping behaviors.

Third, peer ratings can also be used to examine the level of helping behaviors between friends. Fourth, rather than simply examine the relationship between friendship and helping behaviors, non-friends (e.g., strangers, acquaintances) might also need to be included for analyses to obtain a better understanding of helping behaviors.

In summary, given the presumed increase of uncertainty and change that occur in organizations, it is important to examine whether workers will render help to their co-workers and what motivates them to perform extra-role behaviors. This is especially so when uncertainty and change continue to increase in organizations, hence to prescribe all duties and responsibilities in advance becomes harder. Consequently, if the underlying causes of OCB are determined, management can promote and ensure the occurrence of OCB to meet organizational challenges.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH (PILOT TEST)

Austin Peay State University

You are being asked to participate in a research study. This form is designed to provide you with information about this study and to answer any of your questions.

1. TITLE OF RESEARCH STUDY

“Organizational Citizenship Behaviors at Work.”

2. STUDENT INVESTIGATOR

Sue Ling Moey, student enrolled in PSY 5990 (Thesis).

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4. DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH

This study seeks your opinions about a scenario. First, a scenario will be given to you to read. Then, you will be asked to respond to three questions. Please respond honestly to each of the three questions. You should be able to complete this survey in 10-15 minutes.

5. OBTAINING FEEDBACK

Subjects will be debriefed upon completion of the study. Data will be stored by a computer from each participant anonymously. A summary report (across all participants) will be made available to you upon request. If you would like a general report of findings of this study, please feel free to contact either the student investigator Sue Ling Moey or Dr. Denton at the addresses listed above.

6. **CONFIDENTIALITY**

Your responses in this study will be highly confidential. No one except the investigators have access to your data. Your data will be used strictly for purposes of analysis. As indicated above, a computer will be used to store each participant's responses anonymously, therefore no one will know which options you choose to answer in this survey. Finally, all data (the written survey forms and the data encoded in a computer) will be stored in secured locations to which only the faculty supervisor and/or the student investigator has access.

7. **POTENTIAL RISKS**

There are no known risks from participating in this study. RELAX!

8. **POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO YOU**

This can be a learning experience for you by participating in this psychological research. You can experience what it is like and how the questions in this survey were compiled to conduct laboratory research. For those who are interested in learning more about the research process, your participating in this study can also serve as one of a many "hands-on" learning experience for you. Besides, in most cases instructors are willing to compensate your participation with extra-credit points.

9. **INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT**

I agree to participate in this study being supervised by Dr. David W. Denton, Department of Psychology, Austin Peay State University. I have been informed, orally and in writing of the procedures to be followed and about any discomfort which may be involved. I understand that I can contact Dr. Denton (648-7238) if I have any questions regarding my participation in this study. I understand that I am free to terminate my participation at any time during the testing without penalty or prejudice and to have all data obtained from me withdrawn from the study and destroyed. I have also been told of any benefits that may result from my participation.

NAME (Please print)

SIGNATURE

DATE

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Austin Peay State University

You are being asked to participate in a research study. This form is designed to provide you with information about this study and to answer any of your questions.

1. **TITLE OF RESEARCH STUDY**

“Organizational Citizenship Behaviors at Work.”

2. **STUDENT INVESTIGATOR**

Sue Ling Moey, student enrolled in PSY 5990 (Thesis).

P.O. Box 7666

Austin Peay State University

Clarksville, TN 37044

Phone: (615) 648-6173

E-mail: SLM7084@APSU01.APSU.EDU

3. **FACULTY SUPERVISOR**

Dr. David W. Denton

Department of Psychology

P.O. Box 4537

Austin Peay State University

Clarksville, TN 37044

Phone: (615) 648-7238

E-mail: DentonD@APSU01.APSU.EDU

4. **DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH**

This study investigates the way you respond to requests for help. A scenario will be given to you to read. Then, you will be asked to choose one of the three responses: ‘Yes’, or ‘No’, or “Yes . . . But” to the help sought. Next, you will be required to answer three questions to seek your opinions about the scenario. In additions, you will also be asked to indicate how best each item described your decision(s) in this study by selecting a number on a rating scale from 1 to 7. You should be able to complete the survey in 15-20 minutes. Please respond honestly to the help sought by imagining that you are actually facing the situation as illustrated in the scenario.

5. **OBTAINING FEEDBACK**

Subjects will be debriefed upon completion of the study. Data will be stored by a computer from each participant anonymously. A summary report (across all participants) will be made available to you upon request. If you would like a general report of findings of this study, please feel free to contact either the student investigator Sue Ling Moey or Dr. Denton at the addresses listed above.

6. **CONFIDENTIALITY**

Your responses in this study will be highly confidential. No one except the investigators have access to your data. Your data will be used strictly for purposes of analysis. As indicated above, a computer will be used to store each participant's responses anonymously, therefore no one will know which options you choose to answer in this survey. Finally, all data (the written survey forms and the data encoded in a computer) will be stored in secured locations to which only the faculty supervisor and/or the student investigator has access.

7. **POTENTIAL RISKS**

There are no known risks from participating in this study. RELAX!

8. **POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO YOU**

This can be a learning experience for you by participating in this psychological research. You can experience what it is like and how the questions in this survey were compiled to conduct laboratory research. For those who are interested in learning more about the research process, your participating in this study can also serve as one of a many "hands-on" learning experience for you. Besides, in most cases instructors are willing to compensate your participation with extra-credit points.

9. **INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT**

I agree to participate in this study being supervised by Dr. David W. Denton, Department of Psychology, Austin Peay State University. I have been informed, orally and in writing of the procedures to be followed and about any discomfort which may be involved. I understand that I can contact Dr. Denton (648-7238) if I have any questions regarding my participation in this study. I understand that I am free to terminate my participation at any time during the testing without penalty or prejudice and to have all data obtained from me withdrawn from the study and destroyed. I have also been told of any benefits that may result from my participation.

NAME (Please print)

SIGNATURE

DATE

APPENDIX C

SCENARIO A

You have been working for a company as a department manager for three years. Recently, your company announced that they are starting a class for supervisory training. As stated in the announcement, in-house applicants (those have been working in the organization) who are more qualified will have priority and will be given more consideration than applicants from outside the organization. You very much want to improve your skills so naturally you're interested in being admitted to training. You meet all the requirements for entry into training, i.e., you have the knowledge, skills, and abilities necessary to succeed. Needless to say, you decide to apply for the supervisory training program.

However, a friend of yours _____, another department manager who has also been working for the company for the same amount of years as you have, plans to apply for entry into supervisory training as well. You both have more than the minimum qualifications necessary to be considered. However, there are a very limited number of openings for entry into this training program--some who are qualified will not get into training.

It is important to create a favorable impression in the minds of the senior managers who will be making the decision about who gets to attend training. Management will determine who gets into training by only reviewing each applicant's resume. You have access to a resume software package that will help you develop an excellent resume--one that will make you stand out from others who are equally qualified. This resume software

is no longer available in stores. Your friend is also interested in creating a favorable impression in the minds of the senior managers and asks for your help in creating a resume. Will you respond to your friend's request for help?

APPENDIX D

SCENARIO B

You have been working for a company as a department manager for three years. Recently, your company announced that they are starting a class for supervisory training. As stated in the announcement, in-house applicants (those have been working in the organization) who are qualified will have priority and will be given more consideration than applicants from outside the organization. You very much want to improve your skills so naturally you're interested in attending training. You meet all the requirements for entry into training, i.e., you have the knowledge, skills, and abilities necessary to succeed. Needless to say, you plan is to attend the supervisory training program.

However, a friend of yours _____, another department manager who has also been working for the company for the same amount of years as you have, is interested in attending the supervisory training as well. You both have more than the minimum qualifications necessary to attend. All qualified employees will be able to attend training.

It is important to create a favorable impression in the minds of the senior managers who will be making the decision about who is qualified to attend training. Management will determine who is qualified by only reviewing each applicant's resume. You have access to a resume software package that will help you develop an excellent resume--one that will make you stand out from the others who are equally qualified. This resume software is no longer available in stores. Your friend is also interested in creating a favorable impression in the minds of the senior managers and asks for your help in creating a resume. Will you respond to your friend's request for help?

APPENDIX E

RESPONSE PREFERENCE

Please select and circle **ONE** of the 3 options.

- A. Yes. I will render as much help as I can. Specifically, I will
share the resume format with my friend right away.
- B. No. I will not respond to the request for help. Specifically, I
won't share the resume format with my friend.
- C. Yes. . . But. I will render just enough help to my friend to "appear"
helpful, but not so much help as to hurt my chances of
getting into supervisory training.

APPENDIX F

MANIPULATION CHECK

1. Select the point on the scale below that best describes your opinion of the kind of situation you and your friend were facing for entering the supervisory training program.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Non-Competitive			Neutral			Competitive
Situation--Helping my friend would probably not keeping me from attending training.					Situation--If I offer help, my friend might get to attend training instead of me.	

2. In the exercise you just completed, you were asked to respond to a request for help. Select the point on the scale below that best describes the person who was requesting your help.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Friend			Acquaintance			Stranger

3. Select the point on the scale below that best describes your understanding of how important the resume format was for gaining entry into the supervisory training program.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not very Important			Moderately Important			Very Important

APPENDIX G

MOTIVATION AND INTENTIONS REGARDING HELPING BEHAVIORS

In order to identify the reason(s) for your decision in this study, please indicate the extent to which you agree with the items that appear next to the response you provided to the request for help. In other words, if you chose "yes" as your response to the help sought in the scenario given to you earlier, please reply only to those items next to the "yes" response. Ignore/pay no attention to the items next to the "no" and "yes . . .but" responses.

Similarly, respond to the "no" items only if you chose "no" to the help sought. And respond to the "yes . . . but" items only if you chose "yes . . . but" as your response earlier. Select the response option from the scale below that best describes your level of agreement with the relevant statements.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

VSD= very strongly disagree, SD= strongly disagree, D= disagree, N= neutral/no opinion, A= agree, SA= strongly agree, VSA= very strongly agree.

Answer to these items only when you selected “yes” response earlier to the help sought.

1. I felt obligated to help my friend..

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

2. I feel good after helping others.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

3. Helping my friend was the professional thing to do.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

4. I am committed to my organization, so I decided to share the information with my co-worker.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

5. Write your own response

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

Answer to these items only when you selected “no” response earlier to the help sought.

1. I didn't want to risk my chance of getting into supervisory training.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

2. My friend should be able to get into supervisory training without my help.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

3. I wanted to increase my chances of getting in the supervisory training.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

4. Write your own response

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

Answer to these items only when you selected “yes . . . but” response earlier to the help sought.

1. I believe in reciprocity. In case my friend got into supervisory training and I didn't, my friend would owe me a big favor because of the help I offered.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

2. I helped my friend because helping can be seen as a symbol of superiority over the person who seeks help.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

3. Helping my friend will show others that I possess better knowledge/qualification for the promotion.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

4. I would offer my friend information about the general content of the resume but not reveal specifics.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

5. I would probably tell my friend some of the specific headings from the resume format but not share the entire format.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

6. I would probably loan my friend the resume format too late for it to be of any real value.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

7. Write your own response

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VSD	SD	D	N	A	SA	VSA

APPENDIX H

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

The demographic information are collected for research purpose only. These information will not be used to identify subjects in anyway. However, your responses to these information are completely voluntary. If you choose not to respond to these questions for any reasons, simply leave this page blank.

Gender: Male Female

Age: _____

GPA: _____ (Estimate if necessary)

Major: _____ (If you do not have a major write "Undecided")

Work Status: Part-time Full-time N/A

APPENDIX I

VALIDATION OF SCENARIOS

Subjects were required to answer three questions after reading one of two scenarios--a scenario intended to depict a competitive situation or a scenario intended to depict a non-competitive situation (See Appendix F). The first manipulation check question sought subjects' perceptions about the extent of competition depicted in the assigned scenario. Subjects responded to a seven-point Likert-type scale with the scale point "1" reflecting a non-competitive perception of the scenario and the scale point "7" reflecting a competitive perception of the scenario.

Those subjects who were assigned the scenario intended to depict a competitive situation were expected to respond to this manipulation check question with a value above the mid-point of the scale. Conversely, those assigned a non-competitive scenario were expected to respond with a value below the mid-point of the scale. Furthermore, it was expected that these responses would be significantly different from each other.

The second manipulation check question was used to determine the extent to which subjects perceived the help seeker depicted in the assigned scenario as a friend. It was expected that subjects would clearly perceive the help seeker as a friend in both the competitive and non-competitive conditions. Subjects responded to a seven-point Likert-type scale with the scale point "1" labeled "friend" and the scale point "7" labeled "stranger". Subjects assigned to both scenarios were expected to respond with a value below the mid-point of the scale. It was expected that these responses would not be significantly different from one another.

The third manipulation check question was used to determine the extent to which the subjects perceived the resume format described in the assigned scenario as an important piece of information. Subjects responded to a seven-point Likert-type scale with the scale point “1” labeled “not very important” and the scale point “7” labeled “very important”. Subjects in both conditions (competitive vs. non-competitive) were expected to respond with a value above the mid-point of the scale. It was also expected that these responses would not be significantly different from one another.

The internal validity of the study was dependent on the experimental manipulations having their intended effects.

First Pilot Test

A general psychology class was randomly divided into two groups. Of the twenty-five participants, thirteen received scenario A (competitive scenario), while twelve received scenario B (a non-competitive scenario). Subjects in both conditions clearly perceived the help seeker as a friend and the resume format as an important piece of information.

The extent to which the help seeker was perceived as a friend in the competitive scenario ($M = 1.77$, $SD = 1.01$) differed from the perception in the non-competitive scenario ($M = 2.58$, $SD = 1.68$). While the differences between the two groups were significant, contrary to expectations the results were strongly in the predictive prediction, $t(11) = -3.32$, $p < .01$. The third manipulation check question was used to determine the extent to which the subjects perceived the resume format described in the assigned scenario as an important piece of information. Perceptions did differ slightly in competitive

scenario, $\underline{M} = 5.15$, $\underline{SD} = 1.41$; non-competitive scenario, ($\underline{M} = 5.33$, $\underline{SD} = 1.30$). As expected, a t-test of these differences was not significant, $t(11) = -1.30$, $p > .05$.

However, surprisingly, subjects who received the competitive condition perceived the scenario as equally competitive to subjects who received the non-competitive scenario (competitive scenario, $\underline{M} = 4.08$, $\underline{SD} = 2.33$; non-competitive scenario, $\underline{M} = 5.00$, $\underline{SD} = 1.60$). A t-test of these differences was not significant, $t(23) = -1.15$, $p > .05$.

Subjects who participated in the first pilot test were debriefed and a question and answer session ensued in an attempt to reconstruct the scenarios to correct the problems identified.

Second Pilot Test

After the scenarios had been reconstructed, they were presented to a second groups of twenty-eight students. Upon retesting, results showed that the mean for both scenarios was in the hypothesized direction, but still not significantly different (competitive scenario, $\underline{M} = 4.50$, $\underline{SD} = 2.07$; for non-competitive scenario, $\underline{M} = 3.14$, $\underline{SD} = 2.18$).

While the means were in the predicted direction, the t-test for difference between them was not statistically significant, $t(26) = 1.69$, $p > .05$.

Results indicated that the other two manipulations had their intended effects.

Subjects in both conditions clearly perceived the help seeker as a friend ($\underline{M} = 1.71$, $\underline{SD} = 0.91$ in competitive condition; $\underline{M} = 1.64$, $\underline{SD} = 1.08$ in non-competitive condition, $t(13) = -0.43$, $p > .05$) and the resume format as an important piece of information ($\underline{M} = 6.50$, $\underline{SD} = 0.65$ in competitive condition; $\underline{M} = 5.79$, $\underline{SD} = 1.85$ in non-competitive condition, $t(13) = 2.11$, $p > .05$).

Based on this admittedly weak evidence that the two scenarios might have the desired effects, the actual study was conducted. Claims regarding the internal validity of the findings from this study would be open to serious question in the event that the manipulation proved unsuccessful in the actual study.