

Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Comparing Perspectives of Supervisors and Subordinates Across Four International Samples

Simon S. K. Lam
University of Hong Kong

Chun Hui and Kenneth S. Law
Hong Kong University of Science and Technology

A total of 431 independent supervisor and subordinate dyads from the United States, Australia, Japan, and Hong Kong evaluated the perceived job role boundary of the subordinates. Participants rated the degree to which they agreed that the behavior described in the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) scale developed by P. M. Podsakoff, S. B. MacKenzie, R. H. Moorman, and R. Fetter (1990) was an expected part of the subordinate's job. Each supervisor was paired with only one subordinate, and all participants held the same jobs in the same company but with branches in these 4 nations. The scale used was found to have conceptual equivalence across all subsamples. Results indicated that supervisors had broader definitions of job roles than subordinates. Participants from Hong Kong and Japan were also more likely to regard some categories of OCB as an expected part of the job than were participants from the United States and Australia.

Organ (1988) defined organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (p. 4). An important issue of OCB is the boundary between in-role and extra-role behavior (Morrison, 1994). The present study is an attempt to examine the definitions of job roles across the ranks of supervisors and subordinates as well as across nations. Examination of this issue will have implications for building a more universal (i.e., etc) theory of OCB (Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997) and for managing OCB at a microlevel across ranks and nations.

When comparing how different people differ in their definitions of job role boundary, it is important to use a scale that has the same components and the same relations among its components across these different people (Hui & Triandis, 1983). The present study also contributes by examining related psychometric properties of the OCB scale developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) across ranks and nations. The specific way we ex-

amined Podsakoff et al.'s scale is explained in the *Analysis of Scale Properties* section.

Perspectives of Supervisors Versus Perspectives of Subordinates

Morrison (1994) suggested two rationales for why different employees may perceive different boundaries of OCB. First, she argued that roles are made and modified (Graen, 1976), and thus that role definitions are not constant. Second, she argued that jobs are socially constructed (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), meaning that job definitions are to a great extent experience specific. Morrison found a weak correspondence between supervisors' and subordinates' job role definitions. Morrison, however, did not suggest directional differences between ranks. The present study followed up on and extended Morrison's work by suggesting that supervisors define work roles more broadly than subordinates do.

We propose that supervisors define relatively large job scopes because they are concerned with being effective. From a supervisor's perspective, subordinates' OCB should be related to their own effectiveness and efficiency (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Hui, 1993). For example, a subordinate who is willing to help a novice employee to "learn the ropes" of his or her new job may reduce the time and effort the supervisor needs to train this new employee. Thus, it is to the supervisor's advantage to define job scope broadly to include OCB. From the subordinate's perspective, however, the concern is on the exchange between the subordinate and the organization (Organ, 1988, 1990). The higher the quality of the exchange relationship is, the more likely it is that

Simon S. K. Lam, School of Business, University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong; Chun Hui and Kenneth S. Law, Department of Management of Organizations, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, Clear Water Bay, Kowloon, Hong Kong.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Chun Hui, who is now at the Department of International Business, Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong. Electronic mail may be sent to huichun@baf.mssmail.cuhk.edu

the employee will perform OCB. An example is the positive relationship between some forms of fairness and OCB (e.g., Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Moorman, 1991). If OCB is defined as part of one's formal job roles, then the subordinate would not be able to use OCB as a medium of exchange with the organization. Therefore, from the subordinate's perspective, having a broad definition of formal job roles that includes OCB would be disadvantageous. Thus, we developed the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Supervisors have broader definitions of job roles than do subordinates.

National Differences

As suggested by Farh et al. (1997), "we know little about citizenship behavior in a global context" (p. 421). Importantly, people in different nations may differ in attitudes, thoughts, and behaviors (Hofstede, 1980; Schwartz, 1990, 1992, 1994). It is also possible that people across nations may differ systematically in their job role definitions. Hofstede (1980) suggested that nations may differ in the orientation toward power structure and inequality in a society, an orientation known as power distance. High power-distance nations are those that would treat inequality as less undesirable and would accept the concentration of power in the top level of sociopolitical hierarchies. Individuals in high power-distance nations are also more likely to submit to authorities. This suggests that supervisors in high power-distance nations have more authority than supervisors in low power-distance nations. Furthermore, these supervisors can expect more contributions from subordinates. Thus, in high power-distance nations, the definition of work roles should be broader than that in low power-distance nations. Hofstede measured the level of power distance across a number of nations and found that the United States and Australia were at the lower end of power distance, whereas Japan and Hong Kong were at the higher end. Thus, we expect Hong Kong and Japanese employees to have broader job role definitions than Australian and U.S. employees.

Hypothesis 2: Japanese and Hong Kong employees are more likely to define OCB as part of the job role than Australian and U.S. employees are.

Supervisors and Subordinates and National Differences

If job role definitions differ across ranks and nations, a logical question is whether supervisors and subordinates differ in their definition of job roles across nations. Again, power difference appears to suggest that supervisors and subordinates in the four nations in the present study have different job role definitions. Supervisors and subordinates are situated in different levels of the organizational hierarchy. The extent to which supervisors and subordinates ac-

cept differential power may affect how they define their job roles. Supervisors in high power-distance nations are more likely to define job roles broadly, relative to those in low power-distance nations. Subordinates in high power-distance nations, on the other hand, are also more likely to accept a broader job role than subordinates in low power-distance nations. Thus, we developed the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: The difference in the role definition between supervisors and subordinates is bigger for Hong Kong and Japan than for Australia and the United States.

Method

Sample and Procedure

An important methodological issue in conducting cross-national research is the comparability of different samples. In the present study, our samples were matched in terms of organization, job, and some demographics. Participants were 431 tellers in four national branches of a large multinational bank with branches in the United States, Australia, Japan, and Hong Kong. These four national samples did not differ significantly in age, sex, education, and tenure. Participants ranged in age from 20 to 31, with a mean age of 24.4 years; 87% were female; 97% had at least a high school education; 6% had an undergraduate degree. Participants had been employed in a full-time job from 1 to 6 years and had been in their present position from 1 to 5 years, with a mean tenure of 2.2 years.

Questionnaires in sealed packets were sent to potential participants in each nation through the company's internal mail system. Each envelope included an introductory letter from the researchers and an endorsement from the senior management. Respondents were guaranteed anonymity and provided with a stamped envelope preaddressed to the researcher. One week after the packets were distributed, a reminder letter was sent to all participants. Participants were asked to provide their employee numbers in order to allow for matching with the supervisor survey, but they were assured that these numbers would be used strictly for research purposes and would not be associated with employee names. Moreover, to maintain confidentiality of the responses, the data were processed off-site, and only group means and frequency counts for organizational feedback were used. After the junior employees were surveyed, the employees' direct supervisors were asked to complete a similar survey.

To be usable for data analysis, the supervisor and subordinate ratings had to be matched. To maintain the independence of the supervisor ratings, each supervisor rated only one subordinate. The response rate for the matched ratings was 63% for the U.S. sample, 59% for the Australian sample, 68% for the Japanese sample, and 71% for the Hong Kong sample. To determine the representativeness of the sample, we compared data from respondents with available company data for the total employee population of junior workers in the organization and for the employees who received the mailing in each country. There were no significant differences between the respondents and those who did not respond about their age, sex, education, and tenure. The respondents in each country also did not differ significantly from the total population of junior workers in the organization on any demographic variable.

Measures

OCB. The OCB measure we used in the present study was developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990). Besides the issue of sample characteristics, another important methodological issue in conducting cross-national research is the comparability of measures used. To ensure comparability in language, the scale was back-translated (Brislin, 1980) into Chinese and Japanese by professionals who were hired by the bank and who were in charge of the translation of all of the official and commercial materials of the bank. These professionals also reviewed all items to ensure that they were meaningful for participants. None of these personnel provided OCB data.

Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) scale, though slightly more dated than some other OCB scales (e.g., Morrison, 1994; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994), was based on Organ's (1988) five dimensions of OCB: (a) altruism, discretionary behavior that has the effect of helping a specific other person with an organizationally relevant task or problem; (b) conscientiousness, discretionary behavior that goes well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization; (c) civic virtue, discretionary behavior that indicates that the employee responsibly participates in, is involved in, or is concerned about the life of the organization; (d) courtesy, discretionary behavior that is aimed at preventing work-related problems with others from occurring; and (e) sportsmanship, discretionary behavior that indicates the willingness of an employee to tolerate less-than-ideal circumstances without complaining.

The tellers were asked to rate on a five-point scale the degree to which they agreed that a specific OCB item in Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) scale was an expected part of their jobs. Their direct supervisors were asked to rate on a five-point scale the degree to which they agreed that the same OCB items were an expected part of their subordinates' jobs. The final scale used included four items each on altruism, conscientiousness, and civic virtue and three items each on courtesy and sportsmanship.

Nations. The four nations studied—the United States, Australia, Japan, and Hong Kong—differ in their power distance. Hofstede (1980) found that the United States and Australia were both at the lower end of power distance, and Japan and Hong Kong were both at the higher end. All participants in each nation were born in the particular nation. In the analysis, we treated each nation as a category of the variable *nation*.

Analysis of Scale Properties

We also seek to establish the comparability of the scale psychometrically. Our sample was broken down into different sub-

samples: (a) across the four nations, (b) across the two ranks of supervisor and subordinate, and (c) across the four nations and the two ranks. We treated a reasonable scale as one with conceptual equivalence (Hui & Triandis, 1983), which means that a construct should have the same components (dimensions or internal structures) and have similar relations among its components across culture or samples. This requires the scale to have high internal consistency, acceptable fit for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and five distinguishable dimensions of OCB. These are reasonable requirements because we are examining the way different people define OCB. Thus, the scale used needs to identify distinct categories of work behavior that may be regarded as OCB. This suggests that the scale should have indicators that behave similarly towards the same dimension (internal consistency), indicators that load onto the a priori dimensions (CFA), and distinguishable categories of work behavior.

To examine internal consistency of each OCB dimension across all the subsamples, we use Cronbach's alpha. To examine the factor structure of the OCB scales, we conducted the subsample CFA using LISREL 8.12a (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). We first examined the factor structure of the OCB scale for the whole sample. In this analysis, we confined the factor structure to be the same but did not constrain the factor loadings to be invariant across samples. We then conducted a CFA for each subsample (across nations, across ranks, and across nations and ranks). To judge the goodness-of-fit of these various CFA models, we relied on the comparative fit index (CFI) and the incremental fit index (IFI). Gerbing and Anderson (1993) recommended these fit indexes because they take into account the comparison of a test model to a baseline model. We also reported the root-mean-square residual (RMSR; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1986) and the chi-square values as references for model fit. Last, we examined whether the five-factor model is the best-fitting model for OCB. To accomplish this, we compared the relative fit of the five- and the four-factor models of OCB for each subsample. Specifically, we identified the two OCB dimensions that had the highest correlation for each subsample and collapsed them into one dimension. A better-fitted five-factor model would indicate that participants could distinguish the five types of behaviors measured.

Results

Scale Properties

We first examined the internal consistency of the scale for all the subsamples. Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4 report the

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics for the Entire Sample

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5
1. Altruism	4.20	0.68	(.95)				
2. Conscientiousness	4.27	0.62	.64	(.94)			
3. Civic virtue	4.20	0.60	.51	.54	(.94)		
4. Courtesy	4.35	0.65	.45	.54	.59	(.94)	
5. Sportsmanship	4.36	0.64	.42	.45	.40	.58	(.95)

Note. All correlations are significant at $p = .001$. Reliabilities are in parentheses.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for Supervisors and Subordinates

Variable	Supervisors					Subordinates								
	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Altruism	4.41	0.61	(.96)					3.98	0.67	(.94)				
2. Conscientiousness	4.43	0.58	.68	(.95)				4.11	0.61	.55	(.92)			
3. Civic virtue	4.35	0.59	.39	.53	(.94)			4.05	0.57	.54	.48	(.92)		
4. Courtesy	4.47	0.60	.29	.45	.61	(.95)		4.24	0.68	.53	.58	.54	(.93)	
5. Sportsmanship	4.47	0.58	.26	.40	.50	.68	(.94)	4.25	0.69	.50	.46	.26	.49	(.95)

Note. All correlations are significant at $p = .001$. Reliabilities are in parentheses.

descriptive statistics and the internal consistency for the subsamples. The internal consistency was acceptable for all the scales across all the subsamples.

We then examined the results of the CFA for all the subsamples. The fit of the confirmatory factor model for the overall sample was acceptable. Both the CFI and the IFI were .96, and the RMSR was .01. The fit of the confirmatory factor model for the subsample analysis across the four nations was acceptable with both CFI and IFI at .91, and the RMSR was .07. This subsample analysis indicated that the factor structure for OCB held across the four national cultures sampled in the present study. The fit of the confirmatory factor model for the subsample analysis across supervisors and subordinates was acceptable with both CFI and IFI at .94, and the RMSR was .04. This subsample analysis indicated that the factor structure for OCB held across supervisors and subordinates.

The last subsample analysis examined the soundness of the confirmatory factor model in the eight subsamples (4 nations \times 2 ranks). The CFI and IFI were both at .83, and the RMSR was .09. The CFI and IFI were not acceptable. We examined the modification index for this analysis to gain insight into why the fit was lower than the other CFAs. We found that, contrary to classical measurement theory,

some of the errors for items belonging to the same OCB dimension were correlated. This suggested that other than OCB dimensions as the general latent factors, there were also specific factors underlying different items of the same OCB dimension. We conducted another subsample CFA on these eight subsamples. This time we allowed the error terms to be correlated within each dimension of OCB. The CFI and IFI for this model were both at .90, indicating marginally acceptable fit. The RMSR was .09. This follow-up subsample CFA confirmed our conjecture that the error terms for the items belonging to the same OCB dimension were correlated. This did not, however, hamper the utility of the scale used in the present study because the problem with the fit indexes was not due to cross-loading of items onto other dimensions of OCB. This means that the items still represented the a priori OCB dimensions better than they represented other OCB dimensions.

The final step to establishing the usefulness of the OCB measure was to examine whether participants could distinguish the five a priori dimensions of OCB. In each analysis, the five-factor model fitted better than the four-factor model. This suggests that participants distinguished the five dimensions of OCB. This also implies that the five-factor model is better than the three-, two-, or one-factor model

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics for Nations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
Hong Kong														
1. Altruism	4.18	0.59	(.91)					4.28	0.58	(.92)				
2. Conscientiousness	4.26	0.53	.78	(.90)				4.31	0.54	.62	(.91)			
3. Civic virtue	4.18	0.49	.66	.62	(.88)			4.27	0.53	.53	.47	(.92)		
4. Courtesy	4.41	0.58	.73	.61	.64	(.90)		4.43	0.58	.59	.52	.57	(.92)	
5. Sportsmanship	4.44	0.56	.66	.52	.48	.56	(.94)	4.46	0.55	.50	.46	.32	.48	(.93)
Australia														
1. Altruism	4.13	0.75	(.96)					4.19	0.76	(.98)				
2. Conscientiousness	4.23	0.67	.62	(.95)				4.28	0.70	.58	(.97)			
3. Civic virtue	4.15	0.67	.43	.52	(.94)			4.19	0.69	.47	.55	(.97)		
4. Courtesy	4.26	0.71	.32	.50	.59	(.94)		4.31	0.71	.31	.54	.57	(.96)	
5. Sportsmanship	4.25	0.71	.34	.43	.38	.62	(.93)	4.28	0.72	.31	.42	.40	.60	(.96)
United States														

Note. All correlations are significant at $p = .001$. Reliabilities are in parentheses.

Table 4
Mean Occupational Citizenship Behavior Ratings Across Ranks and Nations

Nation	Altruism			Conscientiousness			Civic Virtue			Courtesy			Sportsmanship		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α
Supervisors															
Hong Kong	4.45	0.50	.93	4.43	0.49	.91	4.33	0.48	.91	4.60	0.49	.94	4.58	0.48	.93
Japan	4.47	0.50	.93	4.48	0.49	.93	4.43	0.50	.93	4.65	0.48	.94	4.61	0.47	.93
Australia	4.33	0.71	.96	4.38	0.66	.96	4.28	0.68	.94	4.29	0.67	.93	4.33	0.64	.92
United States	4.39	0.70	.98	4.44	0.66	.96	4.35	0.68	.97	4.32	0.65	.95	4.35	0.63	.95
Subordinates															
Hong Kong	3.91	0.55	.84	4.10	0.54	.89	4.04	0.46	.84	4.21	0.60	.87	4.29	0.59	.94
Japan	4.09	0.59	.91	4.15	0.53	.87	4.11	0.51	.89	4.21	0.60	.89	4.30	0.57	.93
Australia	3.93	0.74	.96	4.08	0.66	.94	4.01	0.63	.93	4.23	0.76	.95	4.18	0.77	.94
United States	4.00	0.77	.98	4.12	0.71	.96	4.04	0.66	.96	4.30	0.76	.97	4.22	0.79	.97

Note. α denotes reliability coefficient.

because combining more subscales would only further undermine the fit of the model.

The above analyses indicated that the OCB scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) had acceptable internal consistency and yielded reasonable CFA. Furthermore, participants across perspectives and nations could distinguish the five dimensions of OCB. The next step was to examine how supervisors and subordinates across the four nations differed in their definitions of role boundary.

Definition of Role Boundary

To examine the three hypotheses, we conducted a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Specifically, we examined the mean differences in the five OCB dimensions across the two ranks and the four nations. We used the MANOVA instead of the univariate analysis of variance because the five dimensions of OCB were correlated. For example, as indicated in Table 1, the correlation between the five dimensions of OCB across the entire sample ranged from .40 (between civic virtue and sportsmanship) to .64 (between altruism and conscientiousness).

Hypothesis 1 stated that supervisors have broader role definitions than subordinates. We tested this by comparing the ratings of the supervisors to those of the subordinates collapsed across the four nations. Results of the MANOVA indicated that supervisors and subordinates differed very significantly in how they defined their role boundaries. All of the multivariate test statistics were significant [e.g., Hotelling's $T = .12$; $F(5, 850) = 21.68$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .11$]. The univariate tests indicated that supervisors and subordinates differed significantly in their assessment of all five categories of OCB (all with $p < .001$), and the effect size of these differences ranged from .03 to .10. An examination of the means for supervisors and for subordinates in Table 2 confirmed that supervisors treated OCB as an expected part

of the job more frequently than subordinates did. Hypothesis 1 was supported.

We next examined Hypothesis 2, that is, whether participants in different nations would differ in their definition of job roles. MANOVA analysis indicated that all multivariate statistics for the main effect were significant [e.g., Hotelling's $T = .03$; $F(15, 2556) = 1.70$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .01$]. Univariate test statistics indicated that only two OCB dimensions were rated differently across nations: courtesy, $F(3, 854) = 3.24$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .01$, and sportsmanship, $F(3, 854) = 5.81$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .02$. Table 3 reported the means for the four nations. For the variable *courtesy*, a priori tests confirmed that Japanese ($p = .009$) and Hong Kong participants ($p = .023$) gave higher ratings than Australian participants. Hong Kong and Japanese participants did not differ from U.S. participants in their ratings of courtesy. For sportsmanship, a priori tests confirmed that Hong Kong participants gave higher ratings than both Australian ($p = .004$) and U.S. participants ($p = .013$). Japanese participants also gave higher ratings than both Australian ($p = .001$) and U.S. participants ($p = .004$). Hypothesis 2 was partially supported.

Last, we examined Hypothesis 3, which stated that the difference in the role definition between supervisors and subordinates is bigger for Hong Kong and Japan than for Australia and the United States. This hypothesis suggested an interaction between rank and nation and was tested by the interaction term between rank and nation in the MANOVA. The interaction term was significant [Hotelling's $T = .04$; $F(15, 2546) = 2.26$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .01$]. An examination of the univariate test statistics indicated, however, that the only variable that resulted in an interaction effect was courtesy, $F(3, 854) = 6.30$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .02$. The interaction effect was modest (see Figure 1). A priori analysis confirmed that supervisors in Hong Kong ($p =$

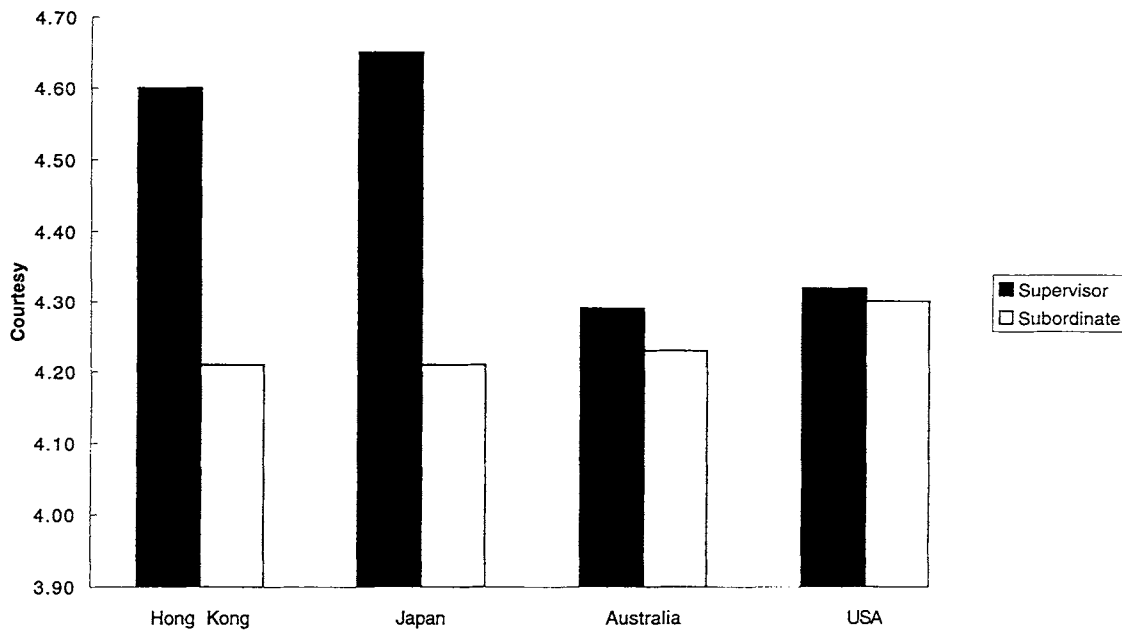


Figure 1. Interaction effects of rank and nation.

.000) and Japan ($p = .000$) provided higher ratings than subordinates. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was only weakly supported.

Discussion

The present study extended Morrison's work by suggesting directional differences in how supervisors and subordinates differ in job definition. We found that the rank difference in defining job roles was stronger than the nation difference in terms of both mean differences and effect size. Such differences may have both theoretical and practical implications, as they may signal a breach of the psychological contract between the subordinate and the supervisor (Rousseau, 1989, 1995). The breach occurs when the subordinate perceives that the supervisor imposes an extra-role behavior as an expected part of the subordinate's job. Literature on psychological reactance suggests that the subordinate may react against having to perform such a behavior (Brehm & Brehm, 1981). Future research may benefit from examining the psychological and motivational dynamics of the congruence of job definitions between supervisors and subordinates.

Another theoretical issue that merits some discussion is the distinction between the quantity and quality of OCB. If supervisors define job roles more broadly than subordinates, do supervisors think that the more OCB, the better? A high quantity of OCB may not be beneficial if subordinates perform OCB at the expense of their core work behavior. For example, this can happen with inexperienced subordinates who still need time to master their core work behavior.

Future research may examine how the quantity and quality of OCB relate to supervisor effectiveness. For example, it may be to the supervisor's advantage to define job roles in the broadest possible terms, but then to expect particular role behaviors as a function of situational demand.

The different manners in which supervisors and subordinates define OCB also have methodological implications. One seeming requirement for empirical studies in management nowadays is to separate the source of data for the predictors from their outcomes in order to avoid the common method variance problem (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Spector, 1992; Spector & Brannick, 1995). To avoid common method variance, a usual practice in the OCB literature is to obtain the predictor information from the research participants and the corresponding OCB data from their supervisors. If the boundary of OCB differs across supervisors and subordinates, asking supervisors to evaluate subordinates' OCB may lead to errors in estimating the relationship between the predictors and OCB. Future research should consider, for the research question being examined, whether supervisor or subordinate evaluations of OCB should be used. For example, if we are interested in subordinates' work behaviors, we should use subordinate definitions and ratings; if we are interested in how supervisors appraise subordinates, we should use supervisor definitions and ratings.

Examination of OCB outside of the context of the United States is rare. The present study provided some evidence that employees holding the same job across different cultures treated certain categories of OCB similarly and other

categories of OCB differently. This finding, in retrospect, corroborated the findings of Farh et al. (1997). Farh et al. suggested that there were both emic (culturally specific) and etic (universal) dimensions of OCB. The etic dimensions of OCB were altruism, conscientiousness, and civic virtue, and the emic dimensions were courtesy and sportsmanship. In the present study, we found that participants in different nations differed in the way they looked at emic dimensions of OCB, but not in the way they looked at etic dimensions. This indicates that there may be performance norms (etic OCBs) that transcend cultural values such as power distance, as well as performance norms (emic OCBs) that are affected by particular cultural values. Future research may examine more closely how cultural values and the emic and etic dimensions of OCB relate to each other across cultures.

The hypothesized interaction effects between perspectives and nations on job definition were at best weakly supported. On the one hand, there may indeed be no interaction effects. Supervisors and subordinates across different national cultures may not define role boundaries in systematically different manners. On the other hand, this lack of an interaction effect may be sample specific. It may be the case that with a sample that magnifies the differences between ranks across these nations, the interaction effect may be more salient.

Another contribution of our study is the identification of a measure of OCB that can be used across different nations. We found that the OCB measure developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) yielded acceptable psychometric properties in terms of internal consistency and factor structure across the United States, Australia, Japan, and Hong Kong. Keep in mind that we seek to establish only conceptual equivalence of the scale across our subsamples. It is also possible to try to establish metric equivalence of the scale, which would include invariant factor loadings of the same scale across samples. A follow-up analysis indicated that the CFA with factor loadings unconstrained for all the subsamples yielded significantly better fit than the CFA with factor loadings constrained to be equal. However, with the difficulties in conducting cross-cultural research, the differences across participants in cross-cultural research, and the enormous differences among groups even within a single culture, researchers did not require the factor loadings to be invariant across cultures (Irvine & Carroll, 1980). Researchers interested in using other conceptualizations and measures of extra-role performance across different national subsamples may follow the statistical procedure adopted in the present study.

One limitation of the present study is that we did not measure power distance directly when comparing the definitions of OCB across nations. Measuring power distance directly would offer more direct evidence on how these cultural values relate to role definitions. Our approach still seems reasonable in the light that it has been widely ac-

cepted that Asian cultures such as in Japan and Hong Kong are higher in power distance than the western cultures of the United States and Australia. On the basis of the results of the present study, researchers may begin more fine-grained theorizing and empirical testing of how role definitions may differ across national cultures.

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