Study of work related attitudes on organizational citizenship behaviour

Poonam Kumari

Abstract
This investigation is intended to gauge the two components of organisational citizenship behaviour and to inspect how these hierarchical citizenship practices are identified with the two features of employment fulfilment (inborn and outward). To accomplish the examination destinations, the review strategy is utilized. Discoveries of this investigation uncover that both extraneous and natural occupation fulfilment are significant in anticipating citizenship conduct. Suggestions and restrictions of the examination are talked about alongside recommendations for future exploration.

Keywords: work related attitudes, organizational citizenship behaviour

Introduction
Work related attitudes and Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) over time have emerged as a topic of debate among scholars and practitioners. What constitutes or encourages such behaviours among employees, is an utmost concern. The organizations in which people work have an effect on their thoughts, feelings (attitude), and particular organizational actions (organizational citizenship behavior-OCB). According to Hamidi and Salimi (2015) Organizational citizenship behaviours are counted as working behavior of staff of an organization such as helping each other, being conventional a lot and working on holidays, acting in job affairs higher than introduced standards by the organization and tolerating deficiencies in an organization at work or job and being actively involved in nonoccupational and non-duty activities in the organization and are counted as effective factors on success of the organization These thoughts, feelings, and actions as well as OCB, in turn, affect the organization itself and persons working therein. Attitudes and actions of individuals and groups toward one another and toward the organization as a whole, and its effect on the organization's functioning and performance attracted the scientific study of organizational behavior of persons from the last decade of 19th century. During the 1890’s; with the arrival of scientific management movement and Taylorism (The first known use of Taylorism was in 1928 named after its founder Frederick W. Taylor, the US based industrial engineer), studies of organizational behavior was started for taking its shape as an academic discipline. Accordingly a factory management system developed in the late 19th century to increase efficiency by evaluating every step in a manufacturing process and breaking down production into specialized repetitive tasks. Taylor incorporated his principle in his book on The Principles of scientific management (1911). In this book, he proposed that by optimizing and simplifying jobs, productivity would increase. He also advanced the idea that workers and managers needed to cooperate with one another. Taylor said that rather than scolding employees for every minor mistake, employers should reward workers for increased productivity. As such, he found that by calculating the time needed for the various elements of a task, he could develop the “best” way to complete that task known as “Time and Motion Study”. Taylor developed four principles of scientific management (simply called as Taylorism) as follows-

1. Replace working by "rule of thumb," or simple habit and common sense, and instead use the scientific method to study work and determine the most efficient way to perform specific tasks.
2. Rather than simply assign workers to just any job, match workers to their jobs based on capability and motivation, and train them to work at maximum efficiency.
3. Monitor worker performance, and provide instructions and supervision to ensure that they're using the most efficient ways of working.

4. Allocate the work between managers and workers so that the managers spend their time planning and training, allowing the workers to perform their tasks efficiently.

But soon the principle of scientific management failed because it focused too much on the mechanics, and fails to value the people side of work (worker's ideas, experience, autonomy, and knowledge etc.), whereby social motivation, workplace attitude, climate, and satisfaction are some of the key elements in an efficient and productive organization. The extreme specialization that Taylorism promotes is contrary to modern ideals of how to provide a motivating and satisfying work culture. Consequently, thought developed to adhere to some alternative and system of organization. Modern organizational methodologies preferred to examine work systems more holistically (man+machine+work place climate) in order to evaluate efficiency and maximize productivity.

Failure of scientific management gave birth to the human relations movement which is characterized by a heavy emphasis on employee cooperation and morale. It was realized that the organizations in which people work have an effect on their thoughts, feelings, and actions that in turn, affect the organization itself. Human Relations Movement from the 1930’s to 1950’s contributed to shaping the Organizational Behavior studies that directly concerned with the understanding, prediction, and control of human behavior in organizations.

Works of scholars like Elton Mayo, Chester Barnard, Henri Fayol, Mary Parker Follett, Frederick Herzberg, Abraham Maslow, and Victor Vroom contributed to the growth of Organisational Behaviour as a discipline. Elton Mayo's (1933) contribution to management theory helped pave the way for modern human relations management methods. His matrix demonstrates the role that varying combinations of group norms and group cohesiveness play in team effectiveness, Mayo's work helped to lay the foundation for the human relations movement.

Management theorist Chester Barnard (1938) believed organizations need to be both effective and efficient. Effective means meeting organizational goals in a timely way. Efficient, in his opinion, means the degree to which the organization can satisfy the motives of its employees. In other words, the organizational goals will be accomplished and authority will be accepted when workers feel satisfied that their individual needs are being met. In his book said book (1938) on The Functions of the Executive discusses, as the title suggests, the functions of the executive, but not from a merely intuitive point of view, but instead deriving from his conception of cooperative systems. Bernard’s (1938) belief is supposed to be the foundation of Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (OCB). Initially, Kaiz (1964) introduced the term of OCB on extra role behaviours. Bateman and Organ (1983) further developed into the understanding of this concept of OCB and they concluded in it by calling it “the good soldier syndrome”.

Fayol's Administrative Management Theory (1917) asserted that management must make certain personnel work together in a cooperative fashion. His 14 principles of management can be used to manage organizations and are useful tools for forecasting, planning, process management, organization management, decision-making, coordination and control. Follett (She) was the predecessor of modern theorists on management. Almost everything written today about leadership and organizations comes from Mary Parker Follett's writings. Follet (1924) saw "democratic governance” as a means for an individual to constructively and responsibly contribute to an organized society. Every worker, then, becomes a valuable asset because they have knowledge and experience which are crucial to accomplishing specific tasks. Leadership connects the control of the situation to the citizen. “When leadership rises to genius it has the power of transforming, of transforming experience into power”.

She says that for whatever problems we solve in business management may help toward the solution of world problems, since the principles of organization and administration which are discovered as best for business can be applied to government or international relations. Her writings from 1920s were collected, edited and published in a book form entitled “Mary Parker Follet Prophet of Management: A Celebration of Writings From 1920s” by Polina Graham (1995).

Frederick I. Herzberg, an American psychologist who became one of the most influential management teachers and consultants and one of the most influential names in business management of the post-World War II era (Feder, 2000) [4]. He started his research on organizations in the 1950s. He is most famous for introducing job enrichment and the Motivator-Hygiene theory. Until 1950s analysis of job attitudes focused primarily on human relations problems within organizations. But in their book on “The motivation to work” (1959) Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman surprisingly mentioned that while a poor work environment generated discontent, improved conditions seldom brought about improved attitudes. Instead, satisfaction came most often from factors intrinsic to work: achievements, job recognition, and work that was challenging, interesting, and responsible. The authors challenged the received wisdom by showing that worker fulfilment came from achievement and growth within the job itself. In the book on The Motivation to work, Herzberg proposed the 'hygiene-motivation' or 'two factor' theory resulted from research with two hundred Pittsburgh engineers and accountants. These people were asked what pleased and displeased them about their jobs. From their responses, Herzberg concluded that man has two sets of needs:

- Lower level needs as an animal to avoid pain and deprivation (hygiene factors)
- Higher level needs as a human being to grow psychologically (motivators).

Some factors in the workplace meet the first set of needs but not the second and vice versa. The first group of factors he called 'hygiene factors' and the second, 'motivators'. Herzberg’s two-factor theory of motivation deals with satisfaction and dissatisfaction in jobs which are not affected by the same set of needs, but instead occur independently of each other. Herzberg's theory challenged the assumption that "dissatisfaction was a result of an absence of factors giving rise to satisfaction (Bassett-Jones and Lloyd, 2005) [3].” The idea is that hygiene factors will not motivate, but if they are not there, they can lower motivation. These factors could be anything from clean toilets and comfortable chairs, to a
reasonable level of pay and job security. The theory deals with satisfaction and dissatisfaction in jobs which are not affected by the same set of needs, but instead occur independently of each other. Herzberg's theory challenged the assumption that "dissatisfaction was a result of an absence of factors giving rise to satisfaction" (Bassett-Jones and Lloyd, 2005) [3]. He suggested that money and recognition do not appear to be primary sources of motivation in stimulating employees to contribute ideas. In line with Herzberg's predictions, factors associated with intrinsic satisfaction play a more important part. Accordingly, motivational factors will not necessarily lower motivation, but can be responsible for increasing motivation. These factors could involve job recognition, potential for promotion or even the work itself.

Herzberg (1987) [5] describes the growth factors (or motivators) as "achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and growth or advancement," which are intrinsic (Herzberg, 1987) [3]. Intrinsic factors include "orientations toward money, recognition, competition, and the dictates of other people, and the latter includes challenge, enjoyment, personal enrichment, interest, and self-determination." The hygiene factors (or dissatisfaction-avoidance), which are extrinsic to the job, are "company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status, and security (Herzberg, 1987) [5]. This extrinsic factor "refers to doing something because it leads to a distinct outcome, something external you expect to receive, and the latter refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, an internal reward."

The Abraham Maslow's (1943) [2] business theory provided the basis for an entirely new management model which has since become known as "enlightened management." Maslow's organizational theories as he saw too many business cultures in which one's success could only occur at the expense of others. He used the term synergy and defined synergy as a culture in which what is beneficial for the individual is beneficial for everyone. He developed Need Hierarchy Theory of Motivation and assumed that the people in organizations are not fixated at the safety-need level. That is they must be relatively anxiety-free, they must not be fear-ridden, they must have enough courage to overcome their fears, they must be able to go ahead in the face of uncertainty, etc. On the whole, where fear reigns, enlightened management is not possible.

Maslow's management theory is illustrated by a pyramid, divided horizontally into 5 sections of needs, each one representing one of the basic human needs that motivate our actions. The needs are, from most basic (base of the pyramid) to most fully realized (top of the pyramid) physiological, safety, social, ego and self-actualization needs. As lower level needs are met, the employee grows freer to focus on the higher motivational levels, such as pursuing status, recognition and excellence, as well as self-fulfillment. Some advantages your company will enjoy when your employees move beyond the lower-level needs and begin progressing toward self-actualization. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory remains a very popular framework in management training (Kremer and Hammond, 2013) [7] and it has got relevance in twenty-first century (Abulof, 2017) [1]. Abulof argues that while Maslow stresses that "motivation theory must be anthropocentric rather than animalcentric," his theory erects a largely animalistic pyramid, crowned with a human edge: "Man's higher nature rests upon man's lower nature, needing it as a foundation and collapsing without this foundation."

A 1981 study looked at how Maslow's hierarchy might vary across age groups (Goebel and Brown, 1981) [6]. A survey asked participants of varying ages to rate a set number of statements from most important to least important. The researchers found that children had higher physical need scores than the other groups, the love need emerged from childhood to young adulthood, the esteem need was highest among the adolescent group, young adults had the highest self-actualization level, and old age had the highest level of security, it was needed across all levels comparably. The authors argued that this suggested Maslow's hierarchy may be limited as a theory for developmental sequence since the sequence of the love need and the self-esteem need should be reversed according to age.

Victor Vroom's (1964) expectancy motivation theory also helped formulate theory of organizational behavior. Whereas Maslow and Herzberg look at the relationship between internal needs and the resulting effort expended to fulfill them, Vroom's expectancy theory separates effort (which arises from motivation), performance, and outcomes. The expectancy theory assumes that behavior results from conscious choices among alternatives whose purpose it is to maximize pleasure and to minimize pain. Vroom realized that an employee's performance is based on individual factors such as personality, skills, knowledge, experience and abilities. He stated that effort, performance and motivation are linked in a person's motivation. He uses the variables Expectancy, Instrumentality and Valence to account for this. Thus, Vroom's expectancy theory assumes that behavior results from conscious choices among alternatives whose purpose it is to maximize pleasure and to minimize pain. Vroom realized that an employee's performance is based on individual factors such as personality, skills, knowledge, experience and abilities. Hence in order to enhance the performance-outcome tie, managers should use systems that tie rewards very closely to performance. Managers also need to ensure that the rewards provided are deserved and wanted by the recipients. In order to improve the effort-performance tie, managers should engage in training to improve their capabilities and improve their belief that added effort will in fact lead to better performance.

Other theories of motivation don't allow for the same degree of individuality between people. This model takes into account individual perceptions and thus personal histories, allowing a richness of response not obvious in Maslow or McClelland, who assume that people are essentially all the same. David McClelland built on this work in his 1961 book, "The Achieving Society." He identified three motivators that he believed we all have: a need for achievement, a need for affiliation, and a need for power. People will have different characteristics depending on their dominant motivator. Human Motivation Theory states that every person has one of three main driving motivators: the needs for achievement, affiliation, or power. These motivators are not inherent but we develop them through our culture and life experiences.

According to McClelland, these motivators are learned (which is why this theory is sometimes called the Learned Needs Theory). McClelland says that, regardless of our gender, culture, or age, we all have three motivating drivers, and one of these will be our dominant motivating driver. This dominant motivator is largely dependent on our culture and life experiences.
Vroom's expectancy theory could also be overlaid over another theory (e.g. Maslow, 1943) [12]. Maslow could be used to describe which outcomes people are motivated by and Vroom to describe whether they will act based upon their experience and expectations. Under the above mentioned background the study of Organizational Behavior took birth to study and application of knowledge about how people, individuals, and groups act in organizations. It does this by taking a system approach. That is, it interprets people-organization relationships in terms of the whole person, the whole group, the whole organization, and the whole social system.

Methodology
Sample and Research Tools: The sample consisted of 100 employees of both sexes, out of which 50 were working in flood prone areas and 50 were working in non-flood prone areas for the last 10 years.

Results
Employees having high amount of Work Centrality attitude would exhibit high amount of organizational citizenship behavior and the vice-versa. In order to test this hypothesis the Mean and SD scores of employee’s organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) were compared to their Work Cetrality attitude scores through t-ratio statistics. Obtained results are presented as shown in table-1.

Table 1: Comparison of Mean and SD Scores of Organizational Citizenship Behavior of Employees having High and Low Work related Attitude Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Engagement</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean OBC</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t-ratio</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High JE</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>71.69</td>
<td>8.22</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>12.08</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low JE</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>60.09</td>
<td>6.26</td>
<td>63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Comparison of Mean and SD Scores of organizational citizenship behavior of Employees having High or Low Job Satisfaction Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean OBC</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t-ratio</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High JS</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>69.35</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>11.89</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low JS</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>57.34</td>
<td>6.70</td>
<td>67</td>
<td></td>
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It is evident from the contents of Table–2, that employees having high job satisfaction had exhibited more OCB (M= 69.35±7.54) compared to those having Low Job Satisfaction (M=57.34 ± 6.70). Obtained t_ratio t=11.89; df=198; p<.01 was found to be significant beyond 99% level of confidence. Hence the hypothesis formulated in this context was supported by the inferential statistical findings.

Conclusion
To conclude, it can be said that this study entitled Effect of Work Related Attitudes on Organizational Citizenship Behavior was conducted on 200 employees of public sector, private sector, and autonomous sector to assess the effect of employee’s work related attitudes on their organizational citizenship behavior. Seven types of work related attitudes, namely- job satisfaction, psychological empowerment, organizational commitment, job involvement, job engagement, perceived organizational support, and work centrality were taken into account to see their individual effect on organizational citizenship behavior. Results showed significant positive relationship between all the work - related attitudes and the organizational citizenship behavior. Thus the entire hypothesis formulated for the study were empirically verified. The study has got significant and important Organizational Implications.

References