

THE ROLE OF EMPLOYEE'S GENDER, AND GENDERED JOB-TYPE IN
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR ATTRIBUTIONS

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

MERVE GEDİK

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF
BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

JUNE 2013

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

Prof. Dr. Meliha Altunışık
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

Prof. Dr. Cengiz Yılmaz
Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Pınar Acar
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. Özlem YILMAZ (METU, BA) _____

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Pınar ACAR (METU, BA) _____

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Türker ÖZKAN (METU, PSY) _____

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last name: Merve GEDİK

Signature

ABSTRACT

THE ROLE OF EMPLOYEE GENDER, AND GENDERED JOB-TYPE IN ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR ATTRIBUTIONS

Gedik, Merve

Master of Business Administration

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Pınar Acar

June 2013, 81 pages

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and its dimensions-altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship-have been a very significant and rapid growth research area for recent decades. With the realization of OCB importance in work places, several studies are conducted to identify the elements which can affect the perception or expectation of organizational citizenship behavior from employees. This study intends to identify the relationship of OCB with employee gender and gendered job-type. In order to test the hypotheses, data were collected from the Business Administration students from the universities in Ankara through paper-pen based questionnaires. The sample used in this study is composed of 141 students who were third or fourth year bachelor students.

The results of this study indicated that the relationship between dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior and employee gender is insignificant. However, relationship between gendered job-type and altruism dimension of OCB was significant. The other dimensions of OCB were not significantly associated with gendered job-type. This research is concluded with the discussion of the results.

Keywords: Organizational citizenship behavior, gender role, gendered job-type.

ÖZ

CİNSİYET VE CİNSİYETÇİ İŞ TÜRLERİNİN ÖRGÜTSEL VATANDAŞLIK DAVRANIŞLARI ATFINDA ROLÜ

Gedik, Merve

Yüksek Lisans, İşletme Bölümü
Tez Yöneticisi: Doç. Dr. Pınar Acar

Haziran 2013, 81 sayfa

Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları ve boyutları (özgecilik, nezaket, vicdanlılık, centilmenlik, örgütsel erdem) son yüzyılın önemli ve hızlı büyüme gösteren bir araştırma alanıdır. İş yerlerindeki örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışlarının önemi farkına varıldıkça, örgütsel davranışlarla ilgili algı ve beklentileri etkileyen faktörlerle ilgili bir çok çalışma yapıldı. Bu çalışma, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları ile cinsiyet rolleri ve cinsiyetçi iş türleri arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektedir. Bahsedilen değişkenler arasındaki hipotezleri test etmek için, 141 adet veri kitapçık haline getirilen anket aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Bu veriler, Ankara'daki bazı üniversitelerin 3. ve 4. sınıf İşletme Bölümü lisans öğrencileri arasından toplanmıştır.

Bulgular, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları ve boyutları ile cinsiyet rolleri arasında bir bağ bulunmadığını göstermektedir. Bununla birlikte, cinsiyetçi iş türleri ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışlarının bir boyutu olan özgecilik ile bir bağ bulunduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. Diğer boyutlar ile cinsiyetçi iş türleri arasında bir bağ bulunamamıştır. Bu çalışma, bulguların kuramsal ve uygulamaya yönelik yorumlanması ile son bulmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı, cinsiyet rolleri, cinsiyetçi iş türleri

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First of all, I would like to thank and express my appreciation to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Pınar Acar for sharing her data, her valuable comments, morale supports, guidance, and encouragements throughout this study.

I would like to express my special thanks to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Türker Özkan and Prof. Dr. Özlem Yılmaz for their precious comments and suggestions.

I owe a sincere thanks to my fiancé Ali Cihan Örs for his technical support for interpreting my results, worthwhile comments and suggestions. I want to show my greatest appreciation to my family for their trust and concern throughout this study.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to all the people around me without whom this thesis would not have been completed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM.....	III
ABSTRACT.....	IV
ÖZ.....	V
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	VI
TABLE OF CONTENTS	VII
LIST OF TABLES	IX
LIST OF FIGURES	X
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES	8
2.1 Organizational Citizenship Behavior	8
2.1.1 Criticism to OCB Concept.....	10
2.1.2 Concepts Similar to OCB	12
2.1.2.1 Prosocial Organizational Behavior.....	12
2.1.2.2 Organizational Spontaneity.....	13
2.1.2.3 Contextual Performance.....	14
2.1.3 Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Construct.....	15
2.2 Gender Related Concepts.....	22
2.2.1 Gender and Sex.....	22
2.2.2 Overview of Gender role	22
2.2.2.1 Eagly's Social Role Theory.....	23
2.2.3 Masculinity and Femininity.....	26
2.2.4 Gender Stereotypes.....	27
2.2.4.1 Types of Gender Stereotypes.....	28
2.2.4.1.1 Descriptive Component of Gender Stereotypes.....	29

2.2.4.1.2 Prescriptive Component of Gender Stereotypes.....	29
2.2.5 Heilman’s Lack of Fit Theory	30
2.3 Culture	34
2.4 OCB and Gendered Job-Type.....	34
2.5 OCB and Gender.....	39
3. METHOD.....	47
3.1 Participants.....	47
3.2 Design	48
3.3 Procedure	49
3.4 Independent Variable Manipulations.....	50
3.5 Dependent Measures.....	51
3.5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Organizational Citizenship Questions.....	51
3.5.2 Correlation Analysis.....	53
4. RESULTS	54
5. DISCUSSION	58
6. CONCLUSION	64
REFERENCES.....	66
APPENDICES.....	77
A.OCB QUESTIONS IN QUESTIONNAIRE	77
B. TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU	80

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 1 Means, Standard Deviation.....	48
Table 2 Exploratory Factor Analysis	52
Table 3 Correlations among Dependent Variable Measures.....	53
Table 4 Means, Standard Deviations, and F statistics.....	56

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

Figure 1 Interaction of Gender and Job Type with Courtesy.....	57
----------------------------------------------------------------	----

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is very important aspect in organizational work life. This concept has been studied since 1970s and interest in OCB has increased significantly in time, because significant features and contributions of OCB to organizations have been identified (Podsakoff, 2000). For example, a linkage is realized between OCB and overall organizational effectiveness. In relation to that, these behaviors have very substantial consequences in the workplace (Organ et. al., 2006).

Mentioning the OCB definition briefly, this concept begins with the observation of behavior in organizations of Barnard (1938) as “willingness to cooperate”. Katz (1964) has made contribution on this concept by drawing attention to “innovative and spontaneous behaviors” in organizations. This definition is improved by several researchers and most comprehensive OCB definition is offered by Organ (1988). In his definition, there are three points to focus on. First, it is not directly recognized by formal reward system. Second, OCB should be performed voluntarily. Last point is that OCB composed of activities that are going beyond the job requirements that should increase the effectiveness of organization. Further, OCB is composed of five dimensions that specify the each behavioral acts. These are altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship. Altruism includes behavior as helping a colleague related to task behavior. Courtesy is defined as behaviors that aim to prevent work-related problems with other employees as being polite, considerate to others. Making extra copies of meeting agenda to team mates is a nice example to courtesy behavior. Conscientiousness consist of behaviors that are going well beyond the minimum task role requirements as accepting and obeying the rules, procedures and regulations of organization even if no one watching. Civic virtue is characterized by behaviors that mentioning the active interest and deep concern of employees to organizational life. Following up what is going on the organizational general is an example to civic virtue behaviors. Finally, sportsmanship is defined by the behaviors that include tolerance of employee to the less than ideal organizational

circumstances without complaining. Decreasing the number of complaints from employees that top management have to deal with is an example to sportsmanship behavior and as a result of this behavior, organizations conserve time and energy (Organ et al., 2006). Each organizational citizenship behavior has positive effects on employee and organizational performance. These behaviors are specific gains and advantageous for organizations over time.

OCB is performed voluntarily. In order to name the behavior as OCB, the activity or behavior performed should not be included in task requirements, it should be going beyond the job requirements. Considering dimensions and these characteristics of OCB, this concept should have certain beneficial effects on employee and organization. OCB is increasing the employee performance and wellbeing. There are three mentioned beneficial effects of OCB on employee performance. First effect is that employees who perform OCB receive higher performance ratings by their supervisors (Podsakoff et al., 2009). This high performance ratings may occur because of certain reasons. One reason is that employees who perform OCB are liked more and expected more favorably. Being liked may increase performance evaluations. The other reason is that if supervisor is aware of OCB contribution to organizational effectiveness, supervisor may give higher performance ratings to employee. Trying to increase the organizational effectiveness will be evaluated positively on performance ratings. The last reason is that OCB can be perceived as a form of employee commitment because of its voluntary nature. This commitment leads to higher performance ratings. Second effect is that employees who have better performance ratings, will be rewarded as payment of increments, bonuses, promotions or work-related benefits. Third effect; when company is downsizing, these high rated employees are more likely to stay in their positions (Organ et al., 2006). These are positive effects of OCB on wellbeing of employee.

These positive contributions of OCB on employee performance affect organizational level outcomes. OCB leads to low rates of absenteeism and employee turnover. These low rates of absenteeism and employee turnover, rule following, preventing complaints, solving the conflicts between the employees and helping to an employee on work-related tasks are keeping the organization running efficiently. A compliant employee does not perform behaviors such as taking excessive breaks or using work time for personal matters. If these types of behaviors are minimized, workforce becomes more productive. As a result, OCB leads to increased productivity, customer satisfaction, reduced costs (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Moreover, helping

behavior of OCB which refers to assisting new employees or peers, makes contribution to socialization of employees. This increases the productivity of organization and such a work environment can attract and retain good employees. In other words, OCB, especially civic virtue, sportsmanship and altruism behaviors lead to supporting and friendly environment with a belonging sense. As a result, OCB leads to a good environment to work. This may increase the motivation of employees for work and increase the productivity.

According to Organ (1988), OCB is a universal concept. But, it is important to mention that perceptions may affect OCB performances and OCB evaluations. Further, OCB itself is a perceptual construct. Perception and expectations of people differ based on several variables such as cultural values, role expectations, gendered job-type, gender stereotypes, and gender roles. Regarding perceptual differences between people, it is hard to say that OCB is universal. It is most likely that OCB concept may be perceived differently based on certain factors such as gender. Beside positive effects of OCB on employee and organizational performance, different or biased perceptions of OCB may result in negative consequences in organizations as resulting in unfair workplace. Heilman and Chen (2005) concluded that men are more likely to be rewarded on performance evaluations than women even if they perform OCB at similar frequencies. This result may be the effect of gender role expectations while performing the job. Gender roles may have significant effects on OCB.

Gender refers to social and psychological characteristics that internalize being female and male and it is shaped by culture. Gender may mention about behavioral evaluation of society as gender role. Gender roles are the expected behaviors from females and males by society. To be detailed, gender roles are a set of social and behavioral norms that are generally considered appropriate for a man or a woman in a social relationship or in society. Different role distributions of men and women is the main origin of sex-differentiated social behavior. Their impact on behavior is mediated by psychological and social processes (Eagly, 1997). Further, gender stereotypes play important role while constructing gender roles. Gender stereotypes are simple generalizations about gender attributes, differences and roles of individuals or groups. The physical distinction between female and male has constructed the behaviors and traits that are appropriate for each gender because of the societal expectations. This situation creates and maintains gender stereotypes. To sum up, gender roles are shared expectations of certain

behaviors regarding one's gender. Gender stereotypes are shared views of personality traits based on one's gender.

These gender role expectations of each gender may result in specific OCB expectations. For instance, altruism and courtesy behaviors may be considered as female gender role. Therefore, these behaviors may be considered to be in-role behavior for women in organizations. Regardless of OCB's extra-role nature, people perceive such behaviors that should be performed by women in organizations. As a result, certain OCBs may be perceived as in-role behavior rather than extra-role behavior because people expect from women to perform behaviors that is related to their gender role. This situation is also valid for males. Civic virtue and sportsmanship behaviors may be considered as male gender role. Therefore, people expect that these behaviors should be performed by men in workplace despite the fact that these behaviors are extra-role. This in-role perception of specific OCBs may cause negative performance evaluations when these OCBs are not performed.

As mentioned above, OCB has very substantial effects in business life. Although, it is considered as extra-role behavior and not be rewarded, several researches demonstrate that OCB may affect reward recommendations (Heilman and Chen, 2005). Heilman and Chen (2005) showed that different reactions occur to men and women separately whether they performed altruistic citizenship behavior or not. Altruistic citizenship behavior is a component of OCB. Because of the female gender role expectations, altruism is perceived as in-role behavior in organizations for women. This perception affects the reward recommendations. Males who performed altruistic citizenship behavior are more likely to be evaluated more favorably in reward recommendation compared to women. This is due to the fact that altruistic citizenship behavior is seen as in-role behavior for women and extra-role behavior for men in workplace. In addition, Allen and Rush (2001) suggested that OCB act of women was less noticeable compared to men's. Therefore, OCB exhibited by women had less effect on reward allocation. According to the results of the study, it can be said that some specific OCB's expected to be in-role behavior for women in work settings because of gender stereotypes related to women. These studies provide the evidence that gender typed OCBs are based on the gender stereotypes. Further, Lovell and associates (1999) investigate the relationship among OCB, gender and performance evaluation. Higher OCB levels lead to higher performance evaluation. It is also concluded that certain OCB dimensions are perceived as in-role behavior

than extra-role behaviors for women in organizations. To sum up, these findings pointed that OCB is a perceptual aspect and may affect the reward allocation in work places. Especially, gender and gender roles affect these OCB perceptions in performance evaluations. Taking into consideration of all these, OCB perception and biased OCB performance evaluation may result in unfair workplaces because of gender stereotypes and gender roles expectations.

Specific jobs are predominantly performed by specific genders. For instance, nurses are usually female or manager and engineers are generally male. Both genders are perceived as differentially qualified for different types of jobs regarding their gender roles. In other words, people categorize themselves in occupations related with their gender roles. This categorization is covered by Eagly's (1987) social role theory. According to this theory, behavioral and personality differences of men and women originated social role distributions of men and women (Eagly, 1987). With the division of labor, several variables are observed related to men and women in society. People classified as male and female because of the physical sex differences. Women tasks which cover nursing and caring are determined by nature. On the other hand, men have greater size and strength than women, this leads expectations of successful task performances from men. These physical differences determine the roles of each gender as women in domestic role and men in resource provider role (Eagly, 1987). Physical characteristics and roles given to males and females by nature lead determination of job roles, this lays the foundations of job gender types. Further, distribution of sexes within occupations are another important factor on job gender types. For instance, when occupations are male-dominated, occupational success is expected from male attributes such as agentic behaviors. Similar to that, if occupations are female-dominated, occupational success is expected from female attributes such as communal behaviors (Cejka and Eagly, 1999). In relation to that, nursing that requires communal behaviors are seen as feminine job type, engineering that requires agentic behaviors are seen as masculine job type.

Types of gender stereotypes are another leading factors on development of job gender types. There are two types of gender stereotypes as descriptive and prescriptive. Descriptive gender stereotypes cover expectations about what people actually do. Prescriptive gender stereotypes cover expectations about what people should do. These expectations may create discrimination against women in workplace. When the expected female gender role or attributes are not observed from a female employee, this may cause problems. For example, manager position

usually requires masculine characteristics as being leader. If a female holds this masculine job, there will be expectations from her to perform male gender role or attributes. Even if she can perform masculine attributes that are necessary to hold masculine job, she may be disregarded. In that situation, lack of fit between prescriptive stereotypes of women and successful employee occurs. Women should perform feminine gender roles and attributes. They may be disliked while holding masculine job because they are not performing the attributes related to women. There is also another kind of lack of fit that occurs between descriptive stereotypes of women and male gender type jobs. Masculine job type requires masculine characteristics, feminine job type requires feminine characteristics. If women hold feminine job type, women are considered to perform well in that job. This is due to the fact that there is congruence between occupational roles related to gender role and gender type of the job (Heilman, 1983).

In sum, jobs become gender-typed because of the attributes necessary for successful performance. Job types classified as masculine and feminine based on the general beliefs about gender roles. Regarding this, certain behaviors or certain dimensions of OCB is expected from specific job-types. Feminine job types require feminine attributes and behavior. OCB has certain behaviors that are related to female attributes and female gender role as altruistic citizenship behavior and courtesy behaviors. These behaviors are also expected from holders of feminine job types. Working at feminine type job leads to an expectation of female gender role. In similar, masculine job types are perceived to require masculine characteristics. OCB also includes masculine behaviors and attributes such as sportsmanship and performing civic virtue behaviors. These behaviors are also expected from holders of masculine job types, because performing in a masculine job creates an expectation of displaying certain behaviors of masculine gender role. Kidder (2002) conducted a study that seeks to identify the relationship between OCB and gender-dominated occupations. Kidder uses nursing for a clearly stereotypical feminine occupation, because nursing consists of helping and caring activities that are associated with female gender role. This helping and caring behavior also included in OCB altruism. On the other hand, engineering is chosen for masculine occupation, because engineering includes taking active role in organizational life and voicing opinions. These acts are associated with male gender roles. Further, these behaviors are related to OCB civic virtue. When results of the study are considered, job gender type is an important predictor of OCB performance. Nurses are more likely to perform altruistic behavior that is considered as

feminine OCB. Nurses also less likely to perform civic virtue behaviors that are considered to be masculine OCB.

Considering the perceptual nature of OCB, certain behaviors that are included in OCB may be expected from specific gender and job-types. Therefore, two main research questions are offered.

- 1) Is job-type of job holder significantly associated with perception of OCB?
- 2) Is gender of job holder significantly associated with perception of OCB?

This research mainly focuses on the relationship between gender and OCB, and relationship between gendered job-type and OCB in the Turkish context.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

This section is composed of a literature review on organizational citizenship behavior, its dimensions, related concepts and criticisms about OCB. Firstly, the concept of OCB and criticisms of OCB are mentioned. In the next part, similar concepts to OCB in the literature are introduced. Then, OCB and its dimensions are defined. This section is followed by comprehensive review of gender and gender-related concepts. At the end, hypotheses are offered.

2.1 Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Job related behaviors are categorized into two groups: In-role and extra role (Katz and Kahn, 1978). In-role behavior (IRB) has been defined as behavior that is required or expected as part of performing duties and responsibilities of an assigned work role, whereas extra-role behavior is discretionary behavior that benefits the organization and that goes beyond existing role expectations (Van Dyne et al., 1995). These categories have also been labeled as “core” and “discretionary” behaviors.

Core task behaviors or IRB were defined by Katz and Kahn (1997) initially. These behaviors are described as being part of one’s job and recognized by organization’s formal reward systems. Williams and Anderson (1991) identified these behaviors as completing all required assignments or working full 8-h day. Extra role behavior can be labeled as organizational citizenship behavior that is not recognized by formal reward system. Van Dyne, Cummings and McLean-Parks (1995) defined extra role behavior (ERB) which covered OCB within a larger framework. ERB is very similar concept to OCB and defined as “*behavior that attempts to*

benefit the organization and that goes beyond existing role expectations” (Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006, p.33)

Considering the improvement of OCB, this concept is developed by Barnard (1938) as “willingness to cooperate”. Barnard (1938) has adduced that employees should be desirable in order to make a contribution to organization while succeeding in organizational goals.

Katz (1964) has mentioned three types of behaviors that are beneficial to organizational endurance and effectiveness. Firstly, employees must be assured in order to take part in the system of organization. Secondly, they should fulfill the requirements of role assignments which are defined by the organization. Thirdly, employees should engage in behaviors that go beyond their assigned roles to accomplish organizational aims. Therefore, Katz has made a distinction of individual performance as in-role and extra-role. It is defined that in-role behaviors are assigned roles which are declared by the organization. In other words, these assigned roles are written in the job description of the employee. In contrast to that, extra-role behaviors are not written or mentioned in organizational standards or authority which is also used for job description and these behaviors are not assigned role of employee. While working in different jobs, people may perform same extra-role behaviors and the aim of these behaviors is to help in order to succeed in the organizational objectives. Also, these extra role behaviors are “innovative and spontaneous” behaviors that are required for organizational well-functioning.

Katz and Kahn (1966) has pointed out that extra-role behaviors increase well-functioning of organization. As a result, in the course of time, organizational citizenship behavior has become mandatory and necessary for the organizations while discovering the importance of OCB for organizations’ continuity and high performance.

The comprehensive definition of OCB is written by Organ (1988). Organ (1988) defined organizational citizenship behaviors as

Individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. By discretionary, we mean that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person’s employment contract

with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable (p.4).

There are three points which should be highlighted in the OCB definition of Organ. These points are very critical in order to understand the concept and importance of organizational citizenship behavior. First of all, this behavior is discretionary. It depends on the willingness of the employee; therefore, it goes far beyond the requirement and definition of the job (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983). OCB could not be forced by any supervisor because the employee is not responsible to engage in extra-role behaviors. In brief, the behavior must be exhibited voluntarily, that is; neither role-prescribed nor part of formal job duties (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Secondly, OCB is not recognized by the formal reward system. Despite the fact that OCB is not rewarded and it is not mentioned in work contract, Organ (1997) has stated that these types of behaviors may enable some accretion in salary or promotion, however; these rewards would be indirect and uncertain. Lastly, OCB increases the organizational effectiveness, by contributing to well-functioning of the organization. These behaviors are seen as beneficial for organization (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Without noticing, employees make a contribution to organizational survival and effectiveness by performing OCB such as helping a new coworker or facilitating the work load of a colleague and voluntarily attending to the meetings, not exaggerating the trivial problems.

2.1.1 Criticism to OCB Concept

The criticism of OCB has touched many points in definition of OCB. Consequential points in the definition has discussed at previous paragraphs. These are discretionary behavior, not formally rewarded, and show an increase in organizational effectiveness.

First criticism is that boundaries of in-role and extra role behavior are not clear-cut (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesh, 1994). A considerable differentiation should be made between OCB and in-role behavior. In-role behavior is defined as “*behaviors which are required or expected as part of performing the duties and responsibilities of the assigned role*” (Van Dyne et al., 1995, p. 222). A type of behavior which goes beyond the job requirements or work contract is known as extra role behavior (Organ, 1988). According to Organ, OCB should be limited to extra role

behavior. Van Dyne and associates (1995) have mentioned that distinction between in role and extra role behavior is difficult because OCB has dynamic and relative nature. Three factors which prevent to make a differentiation between in role and extra role behavior are suggested (Van Dyne et. al., 1995). First, expectation of observer might affect the distinction of these behaviors. According to Katz and Kahn (1978), role conflict might occur because of the different standards and expectations of observer who does the labeling. Second factor is the observer consideration about the characteristic of employees, in other words; observer might have different standard and expectations for different employees. Depending on this, a particular behavior might be in-role in one employee and extra role in another considering observer point of view. Third factor concerns the variation in perception, to put it another way; a specific behavior expected as in role might turn into extra role in the course of time. In sum, all mentioned factors affect the boundaries of in role and extra role behaviors.

Morrison (1994) also criticized the boundaries of in-role and extra-role behavior. Organ (1988) has stated that OCB is an extra-role behavior; there should be willingness of employee to engage in OCB. Morrison (1994) has criticized the Organ's statement by implying that OCB is a function of the job definition of employees as determining the boundaries of in role or extra role behavior. In other words, Performing OCB is related to employee's definition of his job. For instance, helping a co-worker might be seen as in role by an employee, while this behavior might be accepted as extra role by another. In the research of Morrison (1994), it is found that 18 out of 20 OCB items is sensed as in-role behaviors. Some items of OCB are perceived as in role by employees and supervisors. After Morrison's claims, Organ redefined this concept. Organ (1997) has mentioned that jobs are changing due to changing in the structure of organizations as becoming horizontally or vertically structured; thus, the role requirements or job definitions are defined while restructuring the organization.

Second criticism that is related to OCB construct is the rewards issue. MacKenzie and associates (1991) has mentioned that OCBs that are considered to be in-role behaviors may be rewarded monetarily. Organ (1997) considered these criticisms and redefined OCB. "*As contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance.*" Organ has not referred to the extra-role, beyond the job and unrewarded by the system characteristics of OCB (p.91).

This definition of OCB is recognized by several researchers, forasmuch as it is the most general and most cited definition of OCB. Therefore, the present study use this redefinition of OCB.

To conclude, main points of the OCB criticisms that are boundaries of in-role and extra role and not rewarded formally are discussed. The definition of OCB which is offered by Organ (1997) is widely accepted and this study follows this definition.

2.1.2 Concepts Similar to OCB

In this section, the similar constructs of OCB is discussed. These are prosocial organizational behavior, organizational spontaneity, and contextual performance.

2.1.2.1 Prosocial Organizational Behavior

Based on the study of Katz (1964), Brief and Motowidlo (1986) improved ‘innovative and spontaneous behaviors’ concept and defined prosocial organizational behavior (POB). These are the voluntary behaviors that aims to benefit other employees and POB is composed of activities that are beneficial to other people such as cooperating, sharing, helping and assisting. This behavior aims to increase the prosperity or welfare of other people and organization. It is performed by employees towards to other employees and organization (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986). They have defined prosocial organizational behaviors based on three categories: Functionality for organizational effectiveness, prescription of individual’s organizational role, direction toward organizational goal.

Considering the differences with OCB, while prosocial organizational behaviors are functional and increase the organizational effectiveness, they could be unrelated to organizational goals. Thus, assisting an employee with his personal issue which is not related to organizational goals can be an example of prosocial organizational behavior. But, this is a functionless prosocial organizational behavior. As a result, not all prosocial organizational behaviors are functional for organizational effectiveness. On the other hand, speaking in praise of organization is functional, as it facilitates to achieve organizational objectives. Furthermore; based on the

prescription category of prosocial behaviors, these behaviors may be in-role because of the role prescription or extra role. As if it is a task or prescribed role, these behaviors are functional and make contribution to organizational effectiveness. On the other hand, extra-role prosocial behaviors which are not prescribed are not perpetually functional. POB definition does not include the behaviors that are directly associated to organization. At that point, Organ, Podsakoff, MacKenzie (2006) criticize POB.

2.1.2.2 Organizational Spontaneity

Building from the work of Katz (1964), organizational spontaneity (OS) has defined by George and Brief (1992). Organizational spontaneity is extra- role behaviors which are engaged in “voluntarily” and increase the effectiveness of organization. There are five forms of organizational spontaneity. These are assisting and helping the other employees, defending and guarding the organization, suggestions for improvement, self-improvement, and spreading goodwill. Mentioning these OS forms in detail, assisting organizational members voluntarily, facilitating co-workers’ tasks in order to attain organizational goals, making a point of potential error, sharing resources are examples of helping behavior. These behaviors are spontaneous acts that could not be assigned in advance. Locking doors for safety, protecting lives of employee and organization’s assets and resources, reporting fire or hazardous situations and doubtful activities constitute behaviors for protecting the organization. Suggestions for improvement is composed of volunteering activities or willingness for novelty, alteration and creativeness in organizations. Self-improvement behaviors aims developing skills and abilities of employees and making contribution to their knowledge in order to contribute to the organizational effectiveness. Improving individual, group and organizational functioning are examples of this behavior. Spreading goodwill include voluntarily efforts of workers that assist in effectiveness of organization. Mentioning the organizations goods and services by focusing on their high quality is an example of spreading goodwill.

Organizational spontaneity is very similar to OCB and other OCB related concepts as prosocial organizational behavior and contextual performance. Despite the similarities of these four constructs, there are considerable differences among them. The main difference of

organizational spontaneity and OCB is that OS is included in organizational reward system, however OCB is not rewarded (Moorman & Blakely, 1995).

2.1.2.3 Contextual Performance

Contextual performance behavior is constructed because of the realization of job specific behaviors are not enough for the organization any more. Job specific behaviors directly support organization output only. But, while job market is becoming more and more aggressive in time, going beyond the job description becomes a necessity for employees in order to be competitive. Contextual performance is described as non-task related work behaviors that make contribution to social and psychological prospects of organizational entity (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993).

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) has classified behaviors as: Task performance and contextual performance. Task performance that is formally defined by organization composed of the use of technical skills and job specific knowledge. Further, it is role prescribed and measured by performance appraisal forms. On the other hand, Contextual performance includes the interactions with coworkers, supervisors and customers as well as behaviors that demonstrate self-discipline, and willingness to effort. Contextual performance shows similarities across the jobs, on the contrary, task performance differs across different jobs. Besides, Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) has mentioned that both task and contextual performance promote entire performance of organization. Borman and Motowidlo (1997) has defined five dimensions of contextual performance. These are helping and assisting to employees, performing task activities which are not included in prescribed job description, obeying organizational regulations and processes, aiming and promoting the organizational goals, completing task activities prospering and passionately.

Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) has categorized the contextual performance as interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. Interpersonal facilitation is defined as helping to other employees and cooperating with them while achieving an organizational objective. On the other hand, job dedication is described as being motivated, industrious, well-disciplined while accomplishing a task, obeying the organizational procedures and figuring out troubles and complications in order to achieve organizational aims.

Although OCB and contextual performance is similar to each other, there are differences between them. One main characteristic of OCB is that OCB is not formally rewarded. That is not possible to say that for contextual performance. Organ (1997) has mentioned that OCB may make a contribution or encourage reward to some extent, but these rewards are indirect and uncertain.

Above, similar definitions of OCB concept are introduced. There are some differences among these concepts but, as a matter of fact; concepts have several characteristics in common. Regarding them, most commonly used definition is Organ's (1988) in the literature. Organizational citizenship behavior and its dimension are focused and searched in following section.

2.1.3 Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Construct

Bateman and Organ (1983) and Smith, Organ and Near (1983) have defined the term "Organizational Citizenship Behavior" firstly, based on Barnard's "willingness to cooperate" concept (1938) and Katz's "innovative and spontaneous behavior" concept (1964). Taking into consideration that OCB construct is offered recently, there is a rapid growth of research on this topic. Therefore, it is inevitable that formation of the different forms or similar concepts of OCB and categorization of similar dimensions of OCB. This situation leads to confusion of about the nature of construct and seeking the conceptual similarities and differences among prosocial organizational behavior, contextual performance, and organizational spontaneity. Some dimensions of these related constructs have similar definition but named differently. This results in confusion within the dimensions. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, Paine and Bachrach (2000) have discussed various forms of "citizenship" behavior constructs.

This section is mainly based on Podsakoff and associates' (2000) review. In this paper; categorizations of Smith, Organ and Near (1983), Organ (1988), Williams and Anderson (1991), Graham (1989), Moorman and Blakely (1995), Graham (1991), George and Brief (1992), Morrison (1994), George and Jones (1997), Borman and Motowidlo (1997), Von Scooter and Motowidlo (1996) are discussed.

Smith, Organ and Near's (1983) OCB categorization consists of two dimensions that are altruism and general compliance. Altruism is the most fundamental and requisite dimension because of the fact that it is mentioned by several researchers who are interested in OCB construct (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997; Graham, 1989; Organ, 1988; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; Williams & Anderson, 1991). It is defined as "*behaviors that directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in face to face situations*" (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983, p. 657). Generalized compliance is also defined as "*pertains to a more impersonal form of conscientiousness that does not provide immediate aid to any one specific person, but rather is indirectly helpful to others involved in the system*". The behavior (e.g., punctuality, not wasting time) seems to represent something akin to compliance with internalized norms defining what a "good employee ought to do" (Smith et al., 1983, p. 657). In 1988, Organ designates general compliance as conscientiousness.

Work of Smith, Organ and Near (1983) and Bateman and Organ (1983) was improved by Organ (1988). Organ has identified five dimensions of OCB.

Altruism is delineated as "*voluntary actions that help another person with a work related problem such as instructing a new hire on how to use equipment, helping a coworker catch up with a backlog of work, fetching materials that a colleague needs and cannot procure on his own*" (Organ, 1990, p. 96). Helping and assisting to new employee, or helping a co-worker who has heavy workload are nice examples to altruism.

Conscientiousness is "*a pattern of going well beyond minimally required levels of attendance, punctuality, housekeeping, conserving resources, and related matters of internal maintenance*" (Organ, 1990, p. 96).

Courtesy "*subsumes all of those foresightful gestures that help someone else prevent a problem—touching base with people before committing to actions that will affect them, providing advance notice to someone who needs to know to schedule work*" (Organ, 1990, p. 96). Courtesy mentions that helping to other employees or taking actions in order to prevent problems or troubles that are potential to occur. For example, leaving the files and papers in a

tidy or systematic condition is an example for courtesy, because this action is a precaution for spending less time for finding the exact paper or file when necessary. This is a beneficial behavior for the other employees and for organizational effectiveness overall.

Civic virtue includes commitment to organization generally. Attending to meetings actively and voluntarily, expressing opinions which are beneficial to organization, engaging to policy debates, gathering data from environment for threats and opportunities, locking doors and reporting hazards for safety issues are some examples of civic virtue behaviors. This dimension comes from Graham's discussion about responsibilities of "citizens" in organization. Civic virtue is defined by Organ (1988) as "*is responsible, constructive involvement in the political process of the organization, including not just expressing opinions but reading one's mail, attending meetings, and keeping abreast of larger issues involving the organization*" (p. 96).

Sportsmanship is "*a citizen-like posture of tolerating the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without whining and grievances*" (Organ, 1990, p. 96).

Williams and Anderson (1991) have categorized organizational citizenship behavior into organizational citizenship behavior-organizational (OCB-O) and organizational citizenship behavior-individual (OCB-I) drawing on Organ's categorization. OCB-O is the "*behaviors that benefit the organization in general*" (p. 601). Informing the co-workers when it is not possible to go to work, being tied to informal rules in order to preserve order or discipline, working extra hours are some example to OCB-O. The main aim is supporting the well-functioning of the organization. On the contrary, OCB-I is described as "*behaviors that immediately benefit specific individuals and indirectly through this means contribute to the organization*" (p.602). Being interpersonal, relationship-oriented, helping and assisting other employees regarding the absenteeism of one employee and being interested in other employees personally are kind of OCB-I behaviors. Therefore, OCB-I affects the overall effectiveness of organization indirectly.

Based on the Organ's categorization, OCB-O consists of sportsmanship, civic virtue and conscientiousness and OCB-I consists of altruism and courtesy (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007).

Graham (1989, 1991) has categorized OCB in three groups: Organizational loyalty, organizational compliance and organizational participation. Organizational loyalty concept includes loyal boosterism and organizational loyalty. Organizational loyalty offers recommending and promoting the organizations to people, observing threats from external and guarding the organization against them, being committed to organization. In other words, organizational loyalty refers to behaviors “*defending the organization against threats, contributing to its good reputation and cooperating with others to serve the interests of the whole*” (Graham, 1991, p. 255). Organizational compliance include the behaviors that are internalization of the rules, procedures and regulations of organization. This means that employees should be tied to rules and procedures even if no one watches them. With the words of Graham (1991), it is “*an orientation toward organizational structure, job descriptions and personnel policies that recognizes and accepts the necessity and desirability of a rational structure of rules and regulations*”. Obedience may be demonstrated by a “*respect for rules and instructions, punctuality in attendance and task completion, and stewardship of organizational resources*” (Graham, 1991, p. 255). This dimension is called generalized compliance by Smith and associates (1983). Graham qualified OCB construct as global and generalized all positive behaviors to organization as OCB. The third dimension is organizational participation which matches with civic virtue of Organ (1988). “*Attending non-required meeting, sharing informed options and willingness to deliver bad news and supporting an unpopular view to combat group thinking*” (Graham, 1991, p. 255) has covered by organizational participation. In addition to these categories, Graham (1989) and Moorman & Blakely (1995) has mentioned personal industry and individual initiative concepts. This concept includes going beyond voluntarily performing task-related behaviors. Showing extra enthusiasm to job, being volunteer to take extra tasks or responsibilities, being creative and innovative in order to increase the performance of organization. This dimension overlaps with the Organ’s conscientiousness.

Moorman and Blakely (1995) has characterized OCB by dividing into 4 subcategories: Interpersonal helping, loyalty boosterism, personal industry and individual initiative. Interpersonal helping refers to focusing on helping coworkers in their job when it is needed. Loyalty boosterism is “*the promotion of the organizational image to outsiders*” (p. 130). This corresponds to spreading goodwill dimension of George and Brief (1992). Personal industry corresponds accomplishing tasks that are above and beyond the call of duty overlapping Organ’s (1988) conscientiousness dimension. Lastly, in order to enhance group and individual

performance of organizational members, setting communication with coworkers is called individual initiative.

George and Brief (1992) and George and Jones (1997) identified OCB with four subcategories namely, helping coworkers, spreading goodwill, making constructive suggestions and protecting the organization. Helping coworkers corresponds with altruism (Organ, 1988). This includes “*all voluntary forms of assistance to organizational members such as facilitating accomplishment of tasks and attainment of goals, helping coworkers with heavy workload and sharing resources, calling attentions to errors*” (George and Jones, 1997, p. 154). Spreading goodwill includes voluntarily actions of members to contribute to organizational effectiveness. Mentioning organization’s high-quality goods and services, quick response to customer needs are examples of spreading goodwill behavior (George and Jones, 1997). Making constructive suggestions are composed of voluntary acts for innovation and creativity in organizations. Improving individual, group and organizational functioning are examples of this behavior (George and Jones, 1997). Lastly, protecting the organization is composed of voluntary acts of members in order to protect or save life and property. This concept that is similar to OCB is named as organizational spontaneity (George and Brief, 1992).

Morrison (1994) categorized OCB dimensions as altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, sportsmanship, involvement and keeping oneself up. Organ’s (1988) altruism and courtesy dimensions together corresponds to altruism dimension of Morrison (1994). Moreover, Morrison’s involvement dimension match with Organ’s sportsmanship and civic virtue and Morrison redefined the concept of sportsmanship of Organ (1988).

Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) conceptualize OCB into two subcategories as interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. These dimensions are similar to other categorizations such as altruism and courtesy (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Organ, 1988) corresponds interpersonal facilitation. This behavior makes contribution to organizational goal accomplishment. In addition to altruism of Smith and associates (1983), and helping coworkers of George and Brief (1992), interpersonal facilitation provides increased morale, encouraging cooperation in organization. Thus, by procuring interpersonal and social context, interpersonal facilitation promotes effective task performance. Job dedication covers well-disciplined behaviors such as working intensively or deeply, solving a work-related problem by taking the initiative. It is “*the*

motivational foundation for job performance that derives people to act with the deliberate intention of promoting the organization's best interest" (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996, p. 526).

Borman and Motowidlo (1993, 1997) classify the OCB in three categories. First category is helping and cooperating with others. This includes the behaviors that are assisting and helping the employees, not complaining about and preventing problems by being thoughtful. This concept overlaps with the Organ's both altruism and courtesy dimension. Second category is endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives that covers organizational loyalty such as promoting organization to outsiders, being tied to company at difficult times. Third is following organizational rules and procedures that includes being respectful to authority, obeying and internalizing the organizational values and policies, being volunteer to carry out the extra task activities. This dimension overlaps with conscientiousness dimension of Organ (1988).

Podsakoff and his associates (2000) improve a model that composed of seven dimensions of OCB. These are helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self-development. Helping behavior includes altruism of Smith and associates (1983) and altruism, courtesy, peacemaking, and cheerleading behaviors of Organ (1988), interpersonal helping of Graham (1989) and Moorman & Blakely (1995), OCB-I of Williams and Anderson (1991) interpersonal facilitation of Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996), helping coworkers of George and Brief (1992). Except Organ's courtesy behaviors, the other concepts are very similar to each other. Being thoughtful and taking initiative to prevent troubles are examples of courtesy.

Sportsmanship dimension of Podsakoff and associates (2000) consists of sportsmanship behavior of Organ (1988), but they make contributions to definition of sportsmanship. According to Podsakoff and associates (2000), "good sports" people does not complain when there is an inconvenient behavior from other employees. They preserve their positive manner when there is a problem in process or in organization. When the other co-workers do not agree on his suggestions, they do not taken offense, because they are not take it personally. Good sports have priority for the well-being of the work group rather than their personal interests.

Organizational loyalty covers performing protecting behaviors against threats, promotion and contribution of organization's good reputation and collaborating with other employees to increase the concern and attention to the organization. This dimension consists of loyalty boosterism and organizational loyalty of Graham (1991) and Moorman & Blakely (1995) spreading goodwill dimension of George and Brief (1992), endorsing, supporting and defending organizational objectives dimension of Borman and Motowidlo (1993).

Organizational compliance that covers obeying and following organizational policies, rules and regulations and performing the behaviors of being a good employee composed of generalized compliance of Smith and associates (1983), OCB-O dimension of Williams and Anderson (1991), following organizational rules and procedures dimension of Borman and Motowidlo (1993), organizational obedience of Graham (1991), job dedication of Van Socotter and Motowidlo (1996).

Individual initiative that covers the behaviors of going beyond the task requirements and taking responsibilities of extra tasks consist of conscientiousness of Organ (1988), personal industry and individual initiative dimensions of Graham (1989), and Moorman & Blakely (1995).

Civic virtue include the behaviors of attending important but not obligatory meetings, reading the announcements and being informed about the organization's activities, protecting the organization from hazardous situations. Civic virtue is composed of civic virtue dimension of Organ (1988), organizational participation dimension of Graham (1991), protecting organization dimension of George and Brief (1992).

Self-development is developed on researches of Katz (1964) and George & Brief (1992). This behavior includes being concerned to organization and task activities and improving oneself related to task requirements and field of work.

In brief, OCB is a multi-dimensional concept. In literature, there are different typologies of OCB. Several researchers have offered different dimensions as mentioned above. The most commonly used and cited typology is the five factor model of OCB which is offered by Organ (1990). Podsakoff and his associates (2000) have operationalized this model. In this study,

Organ's five factor model will be used. Beside this typology, Williams and Anderson (1991) OCB categorization is used while constructing the hypotheses.

2.2 Gender Related Concepts

The relationship within gender role or gender and OCB is a very popular research topic in recent years. Aim of this research is to seek a relationship between gender and OCB components; also between gendered job-type and components of OCB. In this section, firstly gender is defined; gender role, gender identity, gender stereotypes and its types, Eagly's social role theory and Heilman's lack of fit theory are reviewed in the literature. Then, the hypotheses are offered.

2.2.1 Gender and Sex

Before mentioning about gender roles, definition of gender is reviewed. The terms that are gender and sex are generally used interchangeably without noticed. These two terms actually differ in important manners. In the literature, sex refers to biological and physical differences between males and females, on the other hand, gender refers to social and psychological characteristics that integrate with being male and female. Gender is psychological term and shaped up by culture. It also refers to individuals' feelings based on their 'gender identity', in other words; feelings of 'maleness and femaleness'. Gender may mention about behavioral evaluation of society as masculine and feminine or gender role. The extent to which an individual defines the societal definitions of masculinity and femininity is named as gender role identity (Basow, 1992).

2.2.2 Overview of Gender role

In order to understand the how gender roles are constructed, Eagly's social role theory is an important and valuable concept to discuss.

2.2.2.1 Eagly's Social Role Theory

Social role theory originated in order to understand the reasons of sex differences and similarities in social behavior. When Eagly (1987) offered this theory, many researchers started to use meta-analytic method to search the differences between male and female behaviors in 1980s. According to social role theory, behavioral and personality differences of men and women originate social role distributions of men and women (Eagly, 1987).

When division of labor have been actualized in US and other nations, a number of facts has observed related to women and men roles in society. Firstly, main difference between male and female is the physical sex differences especially women's pregnancy and lactation while reproducing (Wood and Eagly, 1999). Therefore, women's tasks cover nursing, caring and this has been the effect of reproduction in role occupancy. As a result, women are more likely to take place in domestic work than men. On the other hand, successful task performance is mostly expected from men due to physical characteristics of men such as greater size and strength. Besides the physical differences, there are social differences of both gender. For instance, women who are in workforce are paid lower wages than men's and women are found rarely in highest level of organizations or managerial jobs. Further, both genders are interested in different occupations because of the social differences (Jacobs, 1989; Valian, 1998). Further, women have less power and resources in most societies (Rhoadie, 1989). When all these facts are considered, this situation in social structure named as gender hierarchy or patriarchy. Division of labor based on sex and gender hierarchy are considered to be the roots of sex differentiated behavior (Eagly, Wood and Diekman, 2000).

These sex differences in social behavior originated from the common typical characteristics of women and men roles. One main reason of these differences is different proportion of activities occurred by both gender. Several sex-differentiated skills and resources are rooted in typical family and economic roles that are held by women and men. Social roles of men and women in most industrial countries is divided into two as resource provider and homemaker. An example to role-acquiring skills is that women or girls learn domestic skills as cooking, cleaning and men learn skills that are related to earn money. Eagly (1987) has classified social behavior types as communal and agentic characteristic based on division of labor. Women who perform

domestic roles promote friendly and facilitative behaviors that is defined as communal. Women's communal behaviors are promoted by their responsibility of child care and nurturing role. This nurturing role develop their interpersonal skills and ability. In contrast, male perform in employment role and this result in improvement of their assertive and independent behaviors that are considered to be agentic (Eagly and Steffen, 1984).

Distribution of sexes among occupations are another prominent effect on gender roles. Agentic behavior is consistent with male gender roles and communal behavior is consistent with female gender roles. Accordingly, when occupations are male dominated, occupational success originated from agentic attributes. When occupations are female dominated, occupational success originated from communal attributes (Cejka and Eagly, 1999).

Gender roles also considered as socially shared expectations of gender-congruent behaviors from each sexes. Gender roles arise from the activities of each individual in their sex-typical occupational and family roles. These features that are demanded by these activities become stereotypic of women or men. For example, communal and domestic behaviors become stereotypic of women and combined with female gender role. Agentic behaviors, resource acquisition and dominant behaviors are stereotypic of men and combined with male gender role.

According to Eagly's social role theory, male gender role promotes helping behaviors that are heroic and chivalrous, whereas female gender role promotes helping behavior that are nurturing and caring. But the defined female gender role of helping is not observed with strangers and in short term. These helping behaviors are performed in long term and close relationships. In contrast, the described male gender role of helping is observed with strangers and as well as close relationships. According to results, men help more than women in general and women receive more help than men. (Eagly and Crowley, 1986)

There is one more important point related to helping behavior; helping behavior of males is different from female gender role of helping. Males are expected to be perform heroic and high-risk helping (Eagly & Crowley, 1986; Erdle, Sansom, Cole & Heapy, 1992). But looking from other side, asking for help could violate male gender role norms (Good, Dell & Mintz, 1989). If taking help creates an uncomfortable feeling on male, they may also be less willing to help others as it may violate reciprocity norms (McLean Parks, 1997).

In literature, there are studies that investigate certain assumptions of social role theory such as the research of Diekmann and Eagly (2000). Social role theory assumes that role behavior of the group members shapes their stereotypes and thereby groups should have dynamic stereotypes because typical social roles are perceived to change over time. While comparing the roles of each gender today and past, two hypotheses are generated for the research. First, the sex differences are eroded because men and women roles become similar in the process of time. Second, female stereotype is particularly dynamic because there is greater change in the roles of women than men. It is concluded that gender role stereotypes are dynamic and malleable. These two hypotheses are supported. When distribution in occupations and stereotypical activities of men and women change, gender role stereotypes have reflected that change. According to the study, the number of women entering the labor force has been increasing since 1950s due to economic and social influences. Following that, women have begun to keep up with masculine career paths and this has led to more flexible attitudes and perceptions concerning to female gender role (Diekmann and Goodfriend 2006). Now, the perceptions of women gender role consist of both masculine and feminine activities. In contrast with that, men gender role still includes only masculine activities due to the fact that men have not replaced to feminine occupations. Regarding the research results of Diekmann and Eagly (2000), current trends are taken into consideration more than past trends when concerning men's and women's participation in both masculine and feminine activities, behaviors, or occupations. To be detailed, masculine and feminine gender roles seem to be converging for women, not for men. Increased flexibility of female gender role is another evidence for the claim that current trends in social life affect the gender role stereotypes (Diekmann and Eagly, 2000).

To sum up, the society imposes certain responsibilities or roles to female and male individuals separately. The expectations of society members form the appropriate behaviors that you should perform. Further, people's treatment to others is defined by society. Practically, being female or male result in the consequences in prospect of whole life and, all societies are coordinated based on the gender differences.

The biological differences between male and female generate social role of men and women in general. Even so, personality and behavioral differences between male and female are by courtesy of social factors. Consequently, people create gender roles and it is shaped culturally

and socially. Gender role is defined as “*socially and culturally defined prescriptions and beliefs about the behavior and emotions of men and women*” (Anselmi and Law, 1998; p. 195). Gender roles generate the basis for improvement of gender identity.

2.2.3 Masculinity and Femininity

Human being is classified as females and males biologically. Generally, society uses these biological or physical differences between genders for interpreting social distinctions. Developmentally, gender is internalized as being one of the strongest forms of group identity.

Femininity and masculinity or one's gender identity (Spence, 1985) refers to the extent that people see themselves as masculine or feminine given what it means to be a man or woman in society. The roots of masculinity and femininity are coming from social (gender) rather than biological (sex). Societal members decide what being male and female means. Males usually define themselves masculine and females usually define themselves feminine based on the social definitions.

It is important to differentiate gender identity from other gender related concepts such as gender roles and gender stereotypes. Gender roles are shared expectations of certain behaviors regarding one's gender. For instance; according to Eagly (1987), women are seen to be in domestic role, and men are seen to be in worker role. Further, gender identity should be distinguished from gender stereotypes. Gender stereotypes are shared views of personality traits regarding one's gender. Expectations of instrumentality from men and expressiveness from women are results of gender stereotypes (Spence and Helmreich, 1978). Despite the fact that gender roles and gender stereotypes have effect on gender identity, they are not same as gender identity (Katz, 1986; Spence and Sawin, 1985).

With the birth, social aspects establish self-meanings of gender. These social aspects are formed by interactions with parents, peers, and educators (Katz, 1986). The meaning of the being male or female in the society is transmitted through institutions such as religion and educational system. Following that, people begin to see themselves in either masculine or feminine model. Feminine behaviors consist of being expressive, warm, and submissive (Ashmore, Del Boca,

and Wohlers 1986). Being instrumental, rational, and dominant are considered as masculine behaviors. The main point here is that people put themselves along feminine and masculine dimension or mixture of both. This masculine–feminine dimension is their gender identity and guides their behavior.

The next part includes gender stereotypes because, the gender role and gender identity couldn't be analyzed alone without considering gender stereotypes on the topic.

2.2.4 Gender Stereotypes

Gender stereotypes are simplistic generalizations about the gender attributes, differences, and roles of individuals and/or groups. People mostly have a set of beliefs about the groups of people. People are categorized based on their gender; as being a boy or a girl from the moment of birth. These physiological distinction has constructed the behaviors which are appropriate for boys and girls because of the societal expectations. This situation has created and maintained the gender stereotypes. Researches show that people believe that typical traits and behaviors of women and men differ. There are several researches conducted about gender stereotypes.

The most cited studies of gender stereotypes have been written by Broverman, Rosenkrants and their colleges (1968, 1972). Broverman and associates (1968) has examined the relationship between self-concept and sex-role stereotypes. A survey that consists of 122 bipolar items was applied to female and male college students. These students has indicated what typical male and female adults, they and themselves are like. According to results, strong agreement on differences between men and women is found within each sex. In other words, participants has concluded that there are differences between men and women. Further, similar differences between self-concepts of each sex has been found. Moreover, self-concepts and concept of stereotypic masculinity and femininity are equally affected by social desirability. There is high valuation of stereotypically masculine and feminine characteristic in male and female respectively.

In that study, male and female valued traits have been determined. The traits that are male-valued are specified as aggressive, independent, unemotional, objective, easily influenced,

dominant, active, competitive, logical, skilled in business, direct, acts as a leader, ambitious, adventurous, not dependent, never cries, self-confident, feelings not easily hurt, able to separate feelings from ideas. The traits that are female-valued are tactful, gentle, talkative, quiet, strong need for security, express tender feelings, aware of feelings of others, and does not use harsh language, neat in habits (Broverman et. al., 1968).

The research which has conducted by Broverman and colleagues (1972) is a kind of a second part of the study which was conducted in 1968. The researchers have found two cluster of traits that are related to women and men. Warmth and expressiveness are believed to be characteristics of women than men. Competence and rationality are believed to be characteristics of men than women. Moreover, expectations from men and women who belong to different groups have been investigated. These different groups are formed based on sex, age, religion, marital status and educational level of people. It is found that expectations related to characteristic of men and women are different across groups. Further, sex role differences that are considered desirable by participants of survey. It can be interpreted that sex role differences are considered to be socially desirable. As a result of these two researches, general personality traits of men and women generate core of gender stereotypes. This is also supported by Spence, Helmreich and Stapp (1975).

2.2.4.1 Types of Gender Stereotypes

Gender stereotypes are significant concept because they play very important role in construction of gendered job types. They are basic generalizations about the gender roles, behaviors, differences, attributes and differences. They are classified as prescriptive norms and descriptive norms. Prescriptive norms are the expectations about what people should do and descriptive norms are expectations about what people actually do. Burgess and Borgida (1999) has conducted a research about descriptive and prescriptive gender stereotypes. Shortly, descriptive component of gender stereotypes include the beliefs about the characteristics or features that women do possess or have, on the other hand, prescriptive component of gender stereotypes include beliefs or expectations about women should possess or have. In other words, descriptive component of female stereotype may include the beliefs that women are nurturing, prescriptive component of female stereotype may include beliefs that women should be nurturing. For

example, descriptive component of female stereotype is expected to bring about workplace discrimination. Women are considered to be inadequate based on job performance, when these role perceptions are incongruent with attributes required by certain occupations or with attributes that are believed to be necessary for certain tasks (Fiske et al., 1991).

2.2.4.1.1 Descriptive Component of Gender Stereotypes

Many studies have been done about descriptive gender stereotypes as mentioned also in this research. Generally, women are seen as warm, nurturing, caring, interpersonally skilled, and nice; whereas men are seen as ambitious, competent, strong, assertive, and achievement-oriented. The group of attributes that is related to women is named as communal or expressive and the other group of attitudes that is related to men is named as agentic or instrumental (Bakan, 1966; Deaux and Kite, 1993; Eagly, 1987) In addition to that, gender stereotypes contain attributes related to physical appearance, gender roles, occupational roles, biological features (Ashmore and Del Boca, 1981; Deaux and Lewis, 1983; 1984). Especially, physical appearance is very strong in activating in gender stereotypes.

The descriptive component of gender stereotypes may lead to discrimination and evaluation bias against women. For example, qualitative reviews of Nieva and Gutek (1980) and Heilman (1983) have demonstrated that women in higher positions are evaluated more negatively than men in higher positions. Also, Eagly, Karau, and Makhijani (1995) have concluded that female leaders are evaluated negatively than men leaders. Further, meta-analysis of Olian and associates (1988) have showed that women's resumes that include same specifications with men's are evaluated more negatively than men's resumes. These evaluation biases are results of specific role expectations based on occupation. These expectations could not be satisfied because of the incongruence between job role and gender role.

2.2.4.1.2 Prescriptive Component of Gender Stereotypes

Men and women should behave in certainly differentiated ways, and should perform distinct roles in society. When considering that women is seen as wife and mother, shortly homemaker;

and men are seen as paid worker in society. Being a women in work life may cause different expectations from them. For instance, Eagly and associates (1995) have found that female leaders are devalued when they behave in autocratic and directive manner, and work in male-dominated areas. In contrast to that, women who perform participatory and democratic styles of leadership, they are evaluated as positively as the male leaders. It can be concluded that women are believed to perform leadership styles that does not violate their gender role prescriptions. Speaking generally, women is expected to perform appropriate behaviors based on their gender roles in work life too. Moreover, women are aware of these stereotypic prescriptions and behave congruently with those prescriptions.

The Hopkins case is a nice example that has occurred in Price Waterhouse regarding prescriptive types of gender stereotypes. To be detailed, Ann Hopkins who is an accountant has qualifications of being competent and ambitious. Although these traits are mostly perceived as masculine traits, she receives very well feedbacks as evaluation from her clients. But, according to her candidates, she is considered to be “macho” and to have interpersonal skill problems. When she is seen as lack of social skills, her partnership in company is denied. Hopkins is not denied because she has performed too feminine behaviors, in contrast; she has performed behaviors that are considered to be inappropriate for women. Her candidates suggest her to talk and dress more femininely, wear make-up. In this case, prescriptive stereotypes take place. She has met the expectations but she is expected to meet both (Fiske et al., 1991). In other words, she meets the occupational roles but she is expected to meet female gender role as performing more feminine attributes and behaviors.

Until now, gender related concepts are reviewed comprehensively. In following part, certain consequences related to gender related concepts is discussed deeply.

2.2.5 Heilman’s Lack of Fit Theory

Heilman offers a lack of fit theory in two categories as lack of fit between descriptive stereotypes of women and male gender typed job; and lack of fit between prescriptive stereotypes of women and successful employee.

In lack of fit between descriptive stereotypes of women and male typed job, there is perceptions of work on one side of the model. People put occupations in a category based on the congruence between gender role and job roles. Jobs become gender typed because of attributes necessary for successful performance. Lips (2003) has concluded that there are more women than men who are nurses and more men than women that are engineers, because successful performance is perceived to be generated from gender characteristics, traits and attributes. For instance, a successful manager is defined as having masculine and agentic characteristics and a nurse is defined as having communal and nurturing characteristics. These perceptions create gendered job-types. Male dominated jobs are expected to have masculine traits, while female dominated jobs are expected to have feminine traits (Cejka and Eagly, 1999). Research of Cejka and Eagly (1999) have investigated the role of gender stereotypes in the social system via division of labor between sexes. According to results, when the occupations are female dominated mostly, feminine personality or physical attributes are thought to be necessary for success. When the occupations are male dominated, masculine personality or physical attributes are thought to be necessary for success. Further, higher prestige jobs are thought to require masculine attributes.

On the other side of the lack of fit model, there is descriptive stereotypes of women. The behaviors or traits that are expected from female and male shape the way we perceive employees' attributes and behaviors. As mentioned before, men are seen as agentic, achievement oriented, have leadership ability, women are seen as caring for others, nurturing, interpersonally skilled and communal. These are gender stereotypes that are created by society. So, when these expectations from male and female meet with occupational roles or gender of employee meets with gendered job type, the job holders are thought to perform well in that job. This congruence generates expectation that employee will succeed. However, if lack of fit between gender and gendered job type of employee is observed, the employee is thought to have lack of skills and be less effective. This situation may result in negative results. Descriptive component of gender stereotypes may cause evaluative and hiring bias against women. Lack of fit model of Heilman (1983) has claimed that typical characteristic and traits of women may prevent them being selected for male-typed occupations. Female candidates are believed to be inappropriate for certain type of occupations, because the traits that are necessary for that job are not possessed by women. In Glick's study (1991), it is demonstrated that women are less likely to be hired for male-typed occupations from group of equally qualified women and men candidate. Even if the gender incongruent information shows that female candidate demonstrate

more masculine traits than a typical traits of women, the hiring bias occur. Besides that, in these studies (Gutek and Nieva, 1980; Heilman et al., 1989, 1995; Eagly et al., 1992) it is concluded that evaluation biases occur based on gender stereotypes. Further, gender stereotypes affect perceptions of performance, when women success in male typed job.

For instance, Schein conducts several studies about the attributed behaviors of each gender in work environment. In study of Schein (1973), male managers are asked to define general characteristics of women, men and managers. According to results, successful middle managers are perceived to possess ascribed roles for men than for women based on the attitudes, features and dispositions. This means that there is a relationship between sex role stereotypes and perceptions of requisite management characteristic. Schein (1975) has conducted same study on female managers. Results demonstrate that there is significant similarity between men and managers and between women and managers. However, similarities between women and managers are slightly less than men's. This result shows that managers are perceived to have characteristics more commonly ascribed to men than to women.

As a result of both studies, male and female managers have perceived that characteristics and attributes associated with managerial success are more likely to be held by men than by women.

Schein (2001) has made a research about the women in labor force and management worldwide. According to International Labor Organization report ("Women in Management," 1998), women took place in labor force more than %40, but the management position they held was very low proportion. In order to learn that managers are perceived as possessing characteristics more commonly ascribed to men than to women worldwide, Schein and Muller (1992) have conducted a research in Germany and United Kingdom, Schein and associates (1996) in China and Japan. Among the males in all four countries, there is significant relationship between characteristics of both men and managers. Among females in all four countries, there is significant similarity among females' ratings that are related to characteristics of both men and managers. Women - manager coefficient are significantly smaller than men-manager coefficients in all four countries. Further, Schein (1994) has examined the cross-cultural similarities in perception of requisite management characteristics. For the male participants, characteristics of managers are perceived as having leadership and analytical ability, like taking responsibility, skilled in business, being competitive, ambitious and competent. Women are

rated lower than men and managers in those items. It could be concluded that there is managerial stereotype that includes characteristics of men in most countries.

Eagly and Karau (2002) have discussed that the prejudices about female gender roles in leadership positions. It has been concluded that perception of incongruity between leadership and female gender roles cause bias toward female leaders. This is due to leadership roles construction in agentic terms by social perceivers. Nevertheless, women are expected to display communal norms, therefore women are perceived as less qualified for leadership. This seems to be main reason of incongruity perception, but there are many factors that can affect this prejudice.

Another article that supports the idea of Eagly and Karau (2002) in most of the aspects has been written by Heilman (2001). This research has argued scarcity of women at upper levels of organizations. It has proposed that gender stereotypes that are descriptive and prescriptive may cause devaluation of the performance of women employees. As mentioned in Eagly and Karau's (2002) study, the expectations of upper level managerial jobs do not match with the expectations of female roles. This results in perception of failing to perform such jobs effectively. Besides, women who are competent and are successful at "male" work violate the normative prescription. As a result of that, women are penalized and disliked.

When mentioning about the lack of fit between prescriptive stereotypes of women and successful employee, as in Ann Hopkins case, women who work in gender incongruent job or male typed job, may receive negative reactions as in form of social disapproval mostly. Heilman and colleagues (2004) have conducted three experimental studies in order to investigate reactions to women's success in male gender-typed job. This study has demonstrated that women who succeed in male typed job are evaluated negatively on their personal characteristics. When job required agentic traits, women job holder defined as interpersonally hostile, unlikeable, and abrasive. These negative reactions occur only when there is success in male gender-typed job. In contrast to that, men and women job holder who do not violate the prescriptive stereotypes are evaluated more interpersonally pleasant (Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, Tankins, 2004). Following this research, Heilman and Okimoto (2007) have conducted a research and have found that women managers are evaluated or rated likeable and positively when they perform communal traits. This shows that women may be perceived as competent

and communal, when they do not violate their prescriptive stereotypes. When they violate the prescriptive stereotypes, they are expected to be interpersonally deficient.

In this part of the study, gender related concepts are reviewed deeply. In the following part, culture is discussed briefly.

2.3 Culture

Culture is accepted as significant construct to explain differences based on the different findings of researches that are related to organizational behavior (Cohen, 2007). According to Hofstede (2001), culture is defined as *“interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influence human group’s response to its environment. Culture determines the uniqueness of a human group in the same way personality determines the uniqueness of an individual.”* (p.10).

Based on the Hofstede’s dimensions of cultural values, the individualism index is defined as the degree of interdependence among its members in society. This index describes how people see themselves in terms of “I” or “We”. People in individualist culture as in North America, Europe just look after themselves and their families only. However, collectivist people see themselves belong to a group of people such as organizations, families and clans and take care of them and be loyal to the group (Hofstede, 1980). Based on the individualism index, there is a distinctive gap between developed, Western countries and less developed, Eastern countries. Turkish culture is found to have very strong collectivist values (Hofstede, 1980). In collectivist societies, harmony of group should be maintained and the relationship within the group has ethical roots and always has priority over task fulfillment.

2.4 OCB and Gendered Job-Type

Until now, it is mentioned that how gender stereotypes affect the occupational roles and expected behaviors from both genders. In this study; gender type of occupations and its relation with perception of OCB in terms of in-role and extra-role requirements are investigated.

Both genders are seen as differentially qualified for different types of jobs according to their gender roles. Certain behavioral traits which are proper for an occupation may overlap expected behaviors of gender roles. This is usually result in high proportion of specific gender in specific occupations. For example, aggressiveness and competitiveness are successful behaviors of male dominated occupation. These behavioral traits are related to masculine gender roles. On the other hand, caring and being devoted to others and being gentle are stereotypically feminine traits that are considered to be important for female-dominated occupations as nursing (Yount, 1986).

Based on the research of Gutek (1985), distribution of different sexes in a job is a determinant on gender type of this job. So that, female dominated job is considered to be a female typed job. According to the common beliefs of gender roles, people classify themselves in occupations associated with their gender roles (Bielby and Baron, 1986). For example, engineering and managing are well-known masculine jobs, while secretary and nursing are known as feminine jobs. According to the research of Williams (1993) on male nurses has concluded that impersonal caring tasks are seen in male nurses when compared to female nurses. Nurses consider as helping is a part of their occupational identity, so they increase their tendency to perform helping behaviors.

Engineering is known as a masculine job. Being analytical, task-focused and being confident in their abilities and opinions, having strong quantitative skills are expected from engineers. Besides, these are included in masculine stereotypes. One of the reason of those stereotypes is the fact that less than 10% of all engineers are women (Powell, 1993). Therefore, being active in organizational life and voicing their opinions, performing civic virtue behaviors are seen as part of their occupational identity. Thus, they increase their performance of civic virtue behaviors.

Above it is mentioned that why and how engineering and nursing are accepted as male type and female type of job respectively. Now, the researches on women and men in leadership roles, managerial positions, and relationship between gender roles and gender typed occupations are discussed shortly.

The expectations of communal and agentic behaviors of women and men respectively form gender typing of the managerial positions. Firstly, it is investigated by Virginia Schein in the 1970s. Schein (1973, 1975) has mentioned that certain characteristics and ascribed role of men and women are likely to be different. Certain characteristics and sex role stereotypes of men overlaps certain characteristics of successful managers mostly. These studies indicated that there is a gendered job type concept, because of the stereotypical attributes of men and women in general. Men and women are expected to work at gender-congruent jobs, on the other hand these incongruence between gender and job type may result in unfair workplace. For example, leadership positions are mostly considered to be held by men because of the congruence between male gender role and leadership roles. If women hold leadership position, discrimination may take place. Eagly and Karau (2002) has argued the prejudices about female gender roles in leadership positions. There are two kinds of prejudices; one is that women are seen less favorable than men in leadership roles. Second is that if a leader role behavior is evaluated, it is rated less favorably when it is performed by a women. These prejudices result in less positive attitudes towards to female leaders rather than men. This cause more difficulty in becoming leaders when you were women. In society, gender roles are the expectations that should be applied by person who holds a certain social position. Women and men gender roles are consensual beliefs about the attributes of them. Regarding these, society or people may create expectancies about the leadership roles. Some certain behaviors, characteristics are attributed to leadership roles, and male gender roles and leadership role overlaps in many aspects. As a result, it can be concluded that leadership position have become male job type position. Besides these, Heilman's lack of fit model is explained in detail above in order to see the effect of stereotypes on jobs.

To summarize all these paragraphs, gender roles are defined based on the gender stereotypes. Jobs are categorized based on the expectation from the females and males or gender stereotypes. When job requires gender roles of specific gender, this result in gender typed occupation. In other words, some jobs are more suitable for a specific gender because of the role requirements of job. As it is discussed, some behaviors in organizations are expected from different genders. OCB and its components are also a research topic on relationship between gendered type occupations and organizational citizenship behaviors. Kidder (2002), Kidder and Parks (2001), Allen and Rush (2001), Yount (1986) have investigated relationship between gendered job-type and OCB, its components.

One of the leading research for this current study is Kidder's (2002) research. Kidder (2002) has examined the effects of employee gender (male/female), gender orientation (masculine/feminine), and gender-dominated occupational choice (nurse/engineer) on OCBs are examined. Gender roles include gender congruent OCBs such as female typed altruism and male typed civic virtue. In the research, it has investigated how gender influences performance of OCB. Gender may influence OCB performance in three ways. First, gender role influences expectations of different behaviors within males and females. Second, gender orientation leads to self-identifying with socially prescribed gender roles within each gender. Third, occupational segregation and gender stereotyping cause gender typed behavioral expectations for gender typed occupations. Data was gathered from nurses and engineers. Nursing is being a female typed job and engineering is being a male typed job. Occupation and gender of job holder are selected to be independent variables of the research. Kidder has selected the participants based on their job in order to determine the relationship between OCB and gendered job-type. Gender congruent OCBs which are OCB altruism and OCB civic virtue are selected to be dependent variable. According to the results, the relationship between gender congruent OCB and gendered occupational identity is supported. In other words, nurses are expected to display OCB altruism while engineers are expected to engage in OCB civic virtue, because nursing is seen as female typed job and engineering is seen as male typed job. This present study investigates the relationship between gender, gendered job-type and OCB. However, this current study includes all dimensions of OCB. Besides altruism and civic virtue, courtesy and sportsmanship are considered as gender congruent OCBs. Courtesy is regarded as feminine OCB and sportsmanship is regarded as masculine OCB (Kidder and McLean Parks, 2001). Moreover, the participants of Kidder's (2002) study was selected based on their gendered job-type. However, this current study is also different regarding the participants. Participants of this current study are selected to be university students. Two different gendered job-type scenarios were offered to these students and they were expected to answer OCB questions based on these scenarios. The questionnaires are discussed in method chapter.

Kidder and McLean Parks (2001) have made wide research about relationship between OCB and socially constructed gender roles and gender-typed job roles. This research has gathered studies that have investigated the relationship between gendered job-type, gender and OCB. The research has concluded implications in general. Briefly, research focuses on the observers

expectations related to behaviors which are formed by gender roles of job holder or job role. Gender roles are considered to play important role for OCB and its dimensions. Gender roles mention the behaviors that are essential to meet the role, and creates expectations that they will be performed. In workplace, organizational roles form expectations of behaviors that are essential to perform in a given job. Gender role is the social and cultural expectations of both gender's appropriate behavior. Many researches have showed that expected roles of gender affect the performed behaviors of job holder in workplace regardless of actual job role (Eagly et. al., 1995). This effect results in high percentage of one sex in specific jobs. The general expectations and beliefs about gender norm lead people to work in occupations that are related to their gender roles (Bielby and Baron, 1986). When an occupation is dominated by one specific sex, sex polarizes the gender stereotypes. As a result, the role behaviors of masculine and feminine jobs are perceived as different.

Kidder and McLean Parks' (2001) study is important for this current study because general implications based on studies related gender, gendered job type and OCB has discussed and gathered together. The main implications of the Kidder and McLean Parks (2001) study is mentioned below. Feminine OCB's are altruism and courtesy. Masculine OCB's are sportsmanship and civic virtue. Feminine behaviors are seen as in-role for feminine job. Similar to that, masculine behaviors are seen as in-role for masculine job. In contrast to these, feminine behaviors are seen as extra role for masculine jobs, and masculine behaviors are seen as extra role for feminine jobs. Moreover, when a male job incumbent is working at feminine job, feminine and masculine OCBs are both expected from him. Male gender role is expected because he is male. In addition to that, female gender role is expected because he is holding feminine job. Roles expectations are doubled in this situation. Similar to that, female job incumbent who has masculine job is expected to have greater job breadth because of both masculine and feminine OCBs expectation. In other words, the participants expect that women and men should perform OCB helping with similar frequency if job type is feminine. The participants expect that both women and men should perform similar levels of OCB civic virtue, if job type is masculine (Kidder and McLean Parks, 2001). Besides that, Kidder and McLean Parks (1993) have claimed that OCB altruism is expected mostly from females in stereotypically feminine occupations. On the other hand, OCB civic virtue is expected from mostly males in stereotypically masculine occupations. Besides that, Allen and Rush (2001)

have found similar results with Kidder and Parks (2001). Men and women who hold feminine job type are expected to perform OCB with similar frequency.

The main objective of this present research is to seek a relationship between gendered job-type and all dimensions of OCB. The leading studies of Kidder (2002) and McLean Parks (2001) have investigated the role of OCB in gendered job-type in Western societies. Kidder (2002) has discussed the relationship between gendered job-type and gender congruent OCBs which are civic virtue and altruism only. The main reason of this current research is to seek a relationship between gendered job-type and all dimensions of OCB which are altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue and conscientiousness in Turkish context.

Yount (1986) shows us that gender type of the job is a determinant on the perception of in-role and extra role behaviors that are expected from employees. In brief, this research present how perception of OCB differs regarding the gender type of the job. So, my hypotheses are:

Hypothesis 1.a. Observers are more likely to perceive OCB-O in-role for the holder of male-type job compared to the holder of female-type job.

Hypothesis 1.b. Observers are more likely to perceive OCB-I in-role for the holder of female-type job compared to the holder of male-type job.

2.5 OCB and Gender

Until now, the relationship of gender stereotypes, gender roles and their extent to labor or occupational trends are mentioned. In this part of the research, relationship between OCB and gender is investigated. According to Organ and Ryan (1995); gender can be a determinant of OCB. Kark and Manor (2005) have claimed that OCB is not gender neutral, hence there are expectations of organizational behavior of women and men separately. Gender stereotypes which are expected from women create expectations that women employees should perform more OCB, especially altruism and courtesy factors.

Lovell, Kahn, Anton, Davidson, Dowling, Post and Mason (1999) have made a research on OCB and gender relationship. This research mainly has investigated link among gender, OCB and performance evaluation. Employees in a university have been evaluated based on their performance of OCB. The evaluations have been expected to differ based on employee's gender. It is expected that women would be rated as performing more OCB than men. The other two hypothesis are related to performance evaluations. Level of performing OCB and performance ratings are expected to be positively related for both women and men. Despite the fact that women would be rated as displaying more OCB than men, they would not receive higher performance ratings than men.

The study has been conducted to the employees in campus of East Coast University. The results show that female employees perform higher levels of OCB than male employees. Women are expected to be more helpful, courteous and conscientious than men. Women as a group are not rewarded for their higher levels of OCB, but both men and women are rewarded individually regarding their OCB performance. It may be interpreted that certain OCB characteristics are seen as in-role behavior of women rather than extra-role.

In the research, it is also discussed that those higher OCB ratings of women may be due to gender stereotyping. Independent judges are asked about the extent to which male or female employees are more likely to perform the behaviors while measuring OCB. Therefore, gender typing of each OCB behavior could be determined. The rated behaviors which are expected to be performed by females are used to form a feminine OCB scale. The rated behaviors which are expected to be performed by males are used to form a masculine OCB scale. Those rated that are expected to be performed by both female and males equally are used to form neutral OCB scale. According to results, women receive higher OCB rates on feminine OCB scale, however women also receive higher OCB ratings for masculine and neutral items in OCB rating. Therefore, it is hard to say that gender difference in OCB rating is due to gender stereotyping (Lovell et. al., 1999).

Summarizing the study of Lovell and associates (1999), female employees are rated as performing more altruistic OCB than male employees by their peers. Although OCB is related to performance evaluations generally, females are not rated higher on performance evaluations than males. This shows that OCB is performed mostly by women but they are not evaluated as

high as their male peers by their supervisors. These results are mostly supported by study of Allen and Rush (2001).

Allen and Rush (2001) has conducted two experiments that undergraduate participants have been assigned one of three job conditions that are masculine, feminine and gender neutral. They assigne to one gender condition as male or female job holder. 10 OCBs that are likely to be performed by female or male workers and 10 task behaviors of participants' assigned job are rated by participants. According to results, women are considered to perform OCB more than men in gender-neutral and male-typed occupation. However, this result does not supported by female-typed occupation. In first experiment, raters have indicated that women are more likely perform OCB than men. In other words, the result supports the general belief about that women are more likely to be expected to perform OCB than men. Further, it is suggested that if women are expected to perform more OCB, acts of OCB might have been less noticeable when displayed by women. This may result in that OCB performed by men are more likely to be realized and remembered whereas OCB performed by women were less likely to be remembered and realized. These situations may occur because OCB is seen as in-role for women. In second experiment, it is found that ratings of OCB differ across ratee gender. While raters are observing, they are paying attention to men who performed OCB and to women who does not perform OCB. This result supports the suggestion that OCB performed by women is less noticeable. Further, it is concluded that OCB performed by women might have less effect on reward allocation. According to those results, it could be said that certain OCBs are expected to be in-role behavior of women in work settings because of the gender stereotypes related to women. These studies provide the evidence that gender typed OCBs are based on the gender stereotypes.

The studies of Kidder and McLean Parks (2002), Heilman and Chen (2005) and Kidder (2001) are very significant and leading researches for this study. The study of Kidder and McLean Parks (2002) was mentioned at the OCB and gendered job-type section in detail. This study includes important points related to gender and OCB. The observers expect certain roles from job incumbent regarding their gender while performing their job. These expected behaviors affect the reward decisions when evaluating the employee's performance. If these roles are seen as in-role, they are expected from the employee for sure. If it is seen as extra role, they are not always expected from employee. These expected behaviors differ regarding the gender of job

holder. Females are less rewarded for performing feminine OCBs and males are also less rewarded for performing masculine OCBs because these behaviors are seen as in-role according to their gender. When these certain OCBs are perceived as in-role behavior of job holder, they are not taken into consideration in evaluation process. This supports the role of gender in OCB perception as certain OCBs are considered as in-role behavior regarding the gender of job holder.

In brief, feminine OCB's are considered as altruism and courtesy. Masculine OCB's are considered as sportsmanship and civic virtue. Feminine OCBs are expected from female job incumbent and masculine OCBs are expected from male job incumbent. Further, feminine behaviors are seen as in role for females. Similar to that, masculine behaviors are seen as in-role for males. In contrast to these, feminine behaviors are seen as extra role for males, and masculine behaviors are seen as extra role for females. When a male job incumbent is working at feminine job, feminine and masculine OCB's are both expected from him. Because he is a male job incumbent, masculine roles are expected from him. Because he is working in feminine job, he is expected to perform feminine gender role. As a result, the expected roles are doubled. Similar to that situation, female job holder who has masculine job has greater job breadth because of expectation of performing masculine and feminine OCBs (Kidder and McLean Parks, 2001).

Allen (2006) has investigated the relationship between OCB and two organizational rewards that are salary and promotion. Employee gender is tested as a moderator in the study. The result which is partially consistent with findings of Kidder and McLean Parks (2001) has demonstrated that relationship between OCB-I and promotions is weaker for females than males. This is due to the fact that OCB-I includes behaviors that are congruent with female gender role. This supports that OCB is seen as in-role behavior for women in work setting. On the other hand, it is found that relationship between OCB-O and promotion is stronger for males than for females. OCB-O should be considered as in-role for men, therefore promotion decision related to men employees should not be affected by performing OCB-O. But, this result is somewhat inconsistent with the study of Kidder and McLean Parks (2001). It can be concluded that all dimensions of OCB are seen as extra role for males than females.

There are several studies about OCB, gender, rewards, performance evaluations. The study of Heilman and Chen (2005) have aimed to see the effect of gender while performing altruistic behavior on reward recommendations. There exist different reactions to women and men separately whether women and men performed altruistic citizenship behavior or not in work setting. Data is collected from male and female master of business administration (MBA) students in a university in United States. Concerning the results, when there is no helping behavior observed from each gender, female targets receive more negative recommendations compared to male targets. In contrast to that, when targets in both gender engage in helping behavior, men receive more favorable recommendations compared to women targets (Heilman and Chen, 2005). It can be said that there exist different altruistic citizenships expectations for men and women separately. When both genders perform altruistic citizenship behavior, men are evaluated more favorable in reward recommendation compared to women targets. This also supports that OCB altruism is seen as in-role behavior for women.

In brief, Heilman and Chen's (2005) study has explored the types of citizenship behaviors that are considered to be in-role for women but extra-role for men and to be in-role for men but extra-role for women. They have analyzed citizenship behaviors that composed of agentic behavior as well as composed of communal behavior. This current study is a replication of Heilman and Chen's (2005) study. Additionally, this current study investigates all kinds of citizenship behaviors that has been included in Organ's five factor model of OCB.

Kidder (2002) has conducted a research about the relationship between gender and organizational citizenship behavior as mentioned in OCB and gendered job-type section. Considering gender role theory, the effects of employee gender (male and female), gender orientation (masculine and feminine), gender-dominated occupational choice (nurse and engineer) on gendered OCB are discussed. In the research, it has investigated how gender influences performance of OCB. Gender may influence OCB performance in 3 ways. First, gender role influences expectations of different behaviors within males and females. Second, gender orientation leads to self-identifying with socially prescribed gender roles within each gender. Third, occupational segregation and gender stereotyping cause gender typed behavioral expectations for gender typed occupations. In this article, a survey was conducted to nurses and engineers in United States. According to results, OCB civic virtue is mostly observed on males and it is considered as in-role behavior for men more than women. Therefore, civic virtue

may be considered more consistent with stereotypes of men than women. OCB civic virtue is related to masculine identity. OCB altruism is related to feminine identity and females are less likely to display OCB civic virtue than males (Kidder, 2002).

By using the partially same methodology of Allen and Rush (2001), Finkelstein and Farrell (2007) have conducted a research on relationship between gender, gendered job type and OCB. The participants are assigned to one of job conditions as masculine, feminine and gender-neutral and one of gender conditions as male and female. 10 task behaviors of target job position and 12 OCBs are rated. This research mainly focuses on civic virtue and helping dimensions of OCB because these two dimensions mostly differ based on gender. According to results, civic virtue behaviors are expected mostly by male-typed job rather than female-typed job. This result is supported by Kidder and Parks' research (2001). In general, OCBs are expected mostly by women than men. Helping OCB is expected mostly by women than men. OCB civic virtue is expected mostly by men than women.

Lin's (2008) study has investigated the relationship between OCB and knowledge sharing by using gender as a moderator. Data was collected from employees in various companies who attended evening college classes in Taiwan. The relationship between five components of OCB and gender is examined. When results are analyzed, it is seen that gender stereotypes have main effects on both altruism and sportsmanship. Women are more likely to perform OCB altruism than men. On the other hand, men are more likely to perform OCB sportsmanship than women. This result partially supports the one interpretation of Kidder and McLean Parks' study (2001). In that study, sportsmanship behaviors are seen more masculine behavior than feminine. It may be concluded that men are more likely to perform sportsmanship behavior than women because this behavior is expected behavior for men.

To sum up, Sun (2001) has claimed that gender is a significant determinant on OCB performance. Kidder and McLean Parks (2001) have discussed several reasons related to that topic. They have claimed that empathetic concern and perspective taking which are traits related to women affect helping behavior and courtesy. This ensues that women are considered to have better perception of OCB and can internalize OCB as in role behavior more than men.

Mentioning about OCB in detailed, OCB is generally divided into two categories: OCB altruism (helping behavior) and OCB civic virtue. Results of the researches show that women perform OCB helping behavior more likely than men (Morrison 1994; Lovell and Kahn, 1999; Kidder, 2002; Finkelstein and Farrell, 2007), due to the fact that OCB altruism is less optional for women than men. In other words, altruism is perceived as in-role behavior for women. This behavior is congruent with female gender role. Altruism includes the behaviors such as helping, expressing susceptibility, understanding the needs of others (Organ, 1988, p. 103) so it is defined as female gender role. Men are rewarded because of performing OCB helping behavior in work settings because it is considered to be extra-role behavior for men. In contrast to that, women are evaluated negatively by not performing OCB altruism (Heilman and Chen, 2005). OCB helping is more remembered when it is performed by men rather than women (Kark and Manor, 2005). These findings support the idea of in-role perception of altruism for women.

In terms of OCB civic virtue, it could be said that civic virtue is mostly expected by males. It is mostly likely to be perceived as in-role behavior for men than women (Kidder, 2002). OCB civic virtue can be considered as less optional for men.

The main aim of this present study is to explore the relationship between gender and all dimensions of OCB based on Turkish context. The leading researches for this present study are Kidder (2002), Kidder and McLean Parks (2001) and Heilman and Chen (2005). Kidder and McLean Parks have gathered the studies and their results that are related to OCB and gender. Kidder (2002) has investigated the relationship between gender and gender congruent OCB's that are civic virtue and altruism. Heilman and Chen (2005) have searched the relationship between altruism and gender. All these studies took place in Western societies. The main reason to make this research is whether all dimensions of OCB is related to gender in a different society as Turkish society because the other studies only seek the relationship between gender-congruent OCBs and gender in Western society.

There is lots of research about the relation between different OCB components and gender as mentioned above. Based on the gender roles and stereotypes, some specific behaviors are expected more from women such as OCB. Behavioral expectations differ regarding the gender. According to literature review above, OCB-O consists of sportsmanship, civic virtue and conscientiousness and OCB-I consists of altruism and courtesy based on the Organ's

categorization (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007). Organizational OCB which includes offering ideas to improve the functioning of organization should be engaged more frequently by men because of role expectations of men such as civic virtue. On the other hand, OCB-I should be expected from women more frequently than men due to the fact that expected behaviors from women include assisting others with work-related problems and caring for others. These behavioral expectations of gender may form a perception that certain OCB dimensions are regarded as in-role. Deducing all findings from previous literatures, this research focuses on the relationship between the perception of OCB components and gender. Doing so, the research that only covers Turkish participants may expose a useful result comprehending behavior of Turkish people.

Hypothesis 2.a. Observers are more likely to perceive OCB-O in-role for the male job holder compared to the female job holder.

Hypothesis 2.b. Observers are more likely to perceive OCB-I in role for female job holder compared to the male job holder.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1 Participants

The data that was used in that research was subdata of a wide research. The participants were third and fourth year undergraduate Business Administration students from Hacettepe University, Middle East Technical University, TOBB University of Economics and Technology. The data was collected by paper-pen based questionnaires. The participants were voluntary to fill in questionnaire. The number of valid responses was 141. The participants had no work experience. The students were ranged from 19 to 25 years old ($M = 22.26$, $SD = 1.18$). There are 63 male and 78 female participants. 29 male and 49 female participants have masculine job type scenario. 34 male and 29 female participants have feminine job type scenario. 36 male and 38 female participants have male target scenario. 27 male and 40 female participants have female target scenario. 23 male participants have male job holder with feminine job type scenario. 11 male participants have female job holder with feminine job type scenario. 13 male participants have male job holder with masculine job type scenario. 16 male participants have female job holder with masculine job type scenario. 18 female participants have male job holder with feminine job type scenario. 11 female participants have female job holder with feminine job type scenario. 20 female participants have male job holder with masculine job type scenario. 29 female participants have female job holder with feminine job type scenario.

Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations

	M	SD
Target Gender	1.48	0.50
Target Job Type	1.45	0.49
Sex of participants	1.55	0.49
Age of participants	22.26	1.18
Altruism	4.65	2.01
Sportsmanship	3.45	1.54
Civic Virtue	3.42	1.51
Courtesy	3.20	1.41
Conscientious	3.76	1.38

Note: Masculine job type: 1, feminine job type: 2; male target: 1, female target: 2, male sex of participants: 1, female sex of participants: 2

In the Table 1, dependent variables can be observed. Briefly, participants tend to perceive behaviors at work mostly mandatory for given job incumbents with mean values between 3 and 4 (1 = definitely required, 9 = completely optional). However, altruism which have mean of 4.65 was perceived as less required behavior than other behaviors by participants in general.

3.2 Design

The study was a four-group between-subjects design. Sex of the target and job type of the target were being rated as independent variable. Participants were randomly assigned to four different scenarios. 67 participants were female target condition and 74 participants were in male target

condition. 63 participants were feminine job type condition and 78 participants were masculine job type condition.

3.3 Procedure

The research is about expectations of people related to work behaviors. There are five kinds of organizational citizenship behaviors that are performed at work are not written in formal job description. Some behaviors at work are expected and formally stated in job description of particular position. On the other hand, there are informal behaviors which are not indicated on formal job description. Performing these behaviors are mostly optional but this may change depending on the situation.

The aim of this study is to examine the people's expectations about these organizational citizenship behaviors, and how these expectations vary depending on job type and position (e.g., masculine vs. feminine), background of job holder (e.g., female vs. male).

Accordingly, the participants were told to read the job description and job holder background. Then, they indicated to what extent some organizational citizenship behaviors for that job will be required or optional. In first section of questionnaire, the participants reviewed the job description and job holder background. There were information about the employee's educational background, job history and current job description. The job description was formed as two different job types which were supposed to be masculine or feminine. Position in employee assistance division represents feminine job type, and position in financial planning division represents the masculine job type. Position in employee assistance division provide assistance to employees with personal and family problems, try to solve problems that may affect their work performance. The employee in that position should have a good interpersonal skills, sensitivity to concern of others and ability to build reliable relationship with other employees. The position in financial planning division informs employees about company benefit options, constructing financial strategies for the employee's families and themselves. The employee in this position should be good with numbers and have knowledge about insurance, accounting and bond and equity investments.

Job holder background described the job holder's sex as male and female. Job holder background was defined as graduated from college 8 years ago and was currently working in middle management position. In brief, this first section was formed as combination of these two aspects and each respondent was asked to answer one of four different scenarios such as male in masculine job, male in feminine job, female in masculine job, female in feminine job. Out of 78 masculine job types, 33 of them were formed as male job holders and 45 of them were formed as female job holders. Out of 63 feminine job types, 41 of them were formed as male job holders and 22 of them were female job holders.

At the end of the first section, there was a scale that the participants rated to what extent the position had feminine and masculine attributes according to job description of the job. The scale was 9-point (feminine = 1, masculine = 9).

In second section, there was a list of organizational citizenship behaviors and instructions that directed respondents to indicate the extent of each behavior is considered to be required or optional for job the position and person described in first section. This section is composed of five dimensions of OCB. These are conscientiousness, altruism, courtesy, civic virtue and sportsmanship. Every dimension consisted of 3 or 4 behaviors or instructions in order to measure the extent of behavior that is considered to be definitely required and completely optional. 9-point scale was used (1 = definitely required, 9 = completely optional). In appendix A, there are OCB questions that were asked to participants.

In last section, there were questions about the demographic variables of participants. Country, sex, age, work experience of participants were asked.

3.4 Independent Variable Manipulations

Respondents rated the extent of the job position has masculine and feminine attributes. One-way ANOVA verified whether job position of the target was perceived correctly or not. Dependent variable was determined as job orientation among masculinity and femininity, and independent variable was gendered job-type. Results indicated that job type description was perceived correctly by respondents ($F(1,139) = 5.249, p < .05$). Participants tend to rate

masculine job type as more masculine ($M = 4.98$, $SD = .16$) and tend to rate feminine job type as more feminine ($M = 4.42$, $SD = .18$).

3.5 Dependent Measures

The dependent measure of the study was the respondents expectations based on OCB. These behaviors were considered to be required or optional depending on the four different scenarios. The questions related to OCB are exhibited in Appendix A.

3.5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Organizational Citizenship Questions

Before analyzing the data, missing values were examined and it was found that they were less than 5% so missing values were replaced with mean values.

The exploratory factor analysis was applied on questions related to behaviors at work. According to first factor analysis, first question of consciousness set was removed due to wrong attribution by respondents. It was a poor question. The eigenvalues of each component and the factor analysis result after the removal of this question can be observed in Table 2.

According to results, five components of OCB from questionnaire were extracted. The scree plot and table total variance explained with total values all greater than 1 have supported this finding.

As a next step, reliability analysis was applied on groups of OCB components and following Cronbach's Alpha values are acquired in Table 2. It is observed that all values except conscientiousness value is considerably high and greater than 0.6 which means groupings is reliable.

Table 2
Exploratory Factor Analysis

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Questions	OCB Components*				
	CO	A	S	CV	C
18. Trying to avoid the creation of problems for his coworkers	.860				
19. Considering the impact of his actions on coworkers	.791				
17. Being mindful of how his behavior affects other people's jobs	.723				
16. Taking steps to try to prevent problems with other workers	.542				
7. Willingly helping others having work related problems		.890			
8. Always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him		.886			
6. Helping others having heavy work loads		.861			
5. Covering absentee's duties		.531			
9. Consuming a lot of time complaining about trivial matters			.800		
11. Making "mountains out of molehills"			.787		
12. Being the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing			.778		
10. Always focusing on what's wrong, rather than the positive side			.689		
14. Attending functions that are not required, but help the company image				.862	
13. Attending meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important				.773	
15. Reading and keeping up with organization announcements, memos, and so on				.578	
1. Attendance at work above the norm is required**					.446
2. Not taking extra breaks					.817
3. Obeying company rules and regulations even when no one watches					.668
4. Being one of the most conscientious employees					.447
Explained Variance	25.23	16.5	10.67	8.11	6.16
Eigenvalue	4.54	2.97	1.92	1.46	1.11
Cronbach's Alpha	.802	.826	.778	.740	.507

*Components; CO=Courtesy, A= Altruism, S=Sportsmanship, CV=Civic Virtue, C=Conscientiousness

** The removed question from the survey

3.5.2 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was applied on the data behavior at work, job type and gender. According to the Table 3, both of job type and gender are not correlated to OCB components in general but there is a small negative correlation between job type and altruism ($r = -.187, p < .05$). Regarding correlations among the OCB components, sportsmanship is positively correlated with civic virtue, and courtesy ($r = .242, p < .01$; $r = .318, p < .01$ respectively). Civic virtue is positively correlated with courtesy, and conscientiousness ($r = .497, p < .01$; $r = .374, p < .01$ respectively). Courtesy is positively correlated with conscientiousness ($r = .285, p < .01$). Altruism is positively correlated with civic virtue ($r = .186, p < .05$) and conscientiousness ($r = .174, p < .05$). Analyzing the correlations, it can be interpreted that the relationship between altruism and job type is significant.

Table 3
Correlations among Dependent Variable Measures

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Job Type	1	-.227**	-.187*	-.092	-.091	-.153	-.005
2. Gender		1	.024	.066	.113	-.022	-.027
3. Altruism			1	-.040	.186*	.099	.174*
4. Sportsmanship				1	.242**	.318**	.158
5. Civic Virtue					1	.497**	.374**
6. Courtesy						1	.285**
7. Conscientiousness							1

** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

In order to analyze relationship of gendered job type and gender with OCB components, two-way ANOVA is applied on data. So, each OCB component is analyzed one by one with both of gendered job type and gender. While there are five components of OCB, five ANOVA results are acquired for each component. Table 4 visualizes the ANOVA results.

First of all, relationship of job type and gender with conscientiousness is analyzed. However, no significant relationship is found in conscientiousness with job type and gender.

Secondly, relationship of job type and gender with altruism is analyzed. As a result a significant relationship is found between job type and altruism ($F(1,137) = 4.519, p < .05$). On the other hand, no significant relationship is found with gender.

Thirdly, relationship of job type and gender with sportsmanship is analyzed. However, no significant relationship is found in sportsmanship with job type and gender. When means are compared only, it is seen that sportsmanship is considered as an in role behavior for both female and male job holders ($M = 3.56, SD = 1.42; M = 3.36, SD = 1.62$ respectively). However, mean of female is bigger than mean of males. It may be interpreted that sportsmanship is much more near to optional behaviors of female job holders than male job holders. But, F value of gender is insignificant.

Fourthly, relationship of job type and gender with civic virtue is analyzed. No significant relationship is found in civic virtue with job type and gender. By comparison of the means only, civic virtue is considered as an in role behavior for both female and male job holders ($M = 3.60, SD = 1.62; M = 3.27, SD = 1.40$ respectively). The mean of female behaviors is much more near to optional behavior values than mean of male behaviors. But, this does not change the insignificant relationship between gender and courtesy.

Fifthly, relationship of job type and gender with courtesy is analyzed. There is no significant relationship between courtesy and job type and gender. Comparing the means, courtesy is considered as an in role behavior for both masculine and feminine job types ($M = 3.39, SD = 1.49$; $M = 2.96, SD = 1.28$ respectively). As for the gender, it is also perceived as in role behavior for both female and male job holders ($M = 3.16, SD = 1.40$; $M = 3.23, SD = 1.43$ respectively). Moreover, there is a significant relationship between job type and gender interaction and courtesy ($F(1,140) = 8.97, p < .01$). Therefore, one-way ANOVA is conducted again by subset of gender and job type data. Initially, gender data which only has masculine job type is selected as independent variable. As a result, there is a significant relationship between gender and courtesy for masculine job type ($F(1, 76) = 5.58, p < .05$) and courtesy is perceived as more in-role behavior for female job holder than male job holder in masculine job type ($M = 3.06, SD = .215$; $M = 3.841, SD = .252$ respectively). No significant relationship is found between gender and courtesy for feminine job type. Moreover, there is a significant relationship between job type and courtesy for male job holder ($F(1, 72) = 12.80, p < .01$) and courtesy is perceived as more in-role behavior for feminine job type than masculine job type for male job holder ($M = 2.73, SD = .207$; $M = 3.84, SD = .231$). No significant relationship is observed between job type and courtesy for female job holder. Figure 1 visualizes the relationships for each subset of data. For male job holders, courtesy which is a feminine role behavior is perceived as more in role behavior for job holders with feminine job type compared to job holders with masculine job type. On the other hand, for job holders with masculine job type, courtesy is perceived as more in role behavior for female job holders compared to the male job holders.

Table 4
Means, Standard Deviations, and F statistics

Dependent variable	Female		Male		F	Feminine job type		Masculine job type		Gender x job type interaction	
	M	SD	M	SD		M	SD	M	SD	F	F
Conscientiousness	3.72	1.36	3.80	1.42	0.01	3.75	1.36	3.76	1.45	0.00	2.83
Altruism	4.70	1.92	4.60	2.10	0.01	4.27	0.26	5.01	0.22	4.52*	0.61
Sportsmanship	3.56	1.42	3.36	1.62	0.55	3.30	1.54	3.58	1.55	0.62	2.01
Civic virtue	3.60	1.62	3.27	1.40	1.48	3.28	1.36	3.55	1.64	0.49	0.62
Courtesy	3.16	1.40	3.23	1.43	0.08	2.96	1.28	3.36	1.49	2.75	8.97*

*p < .05

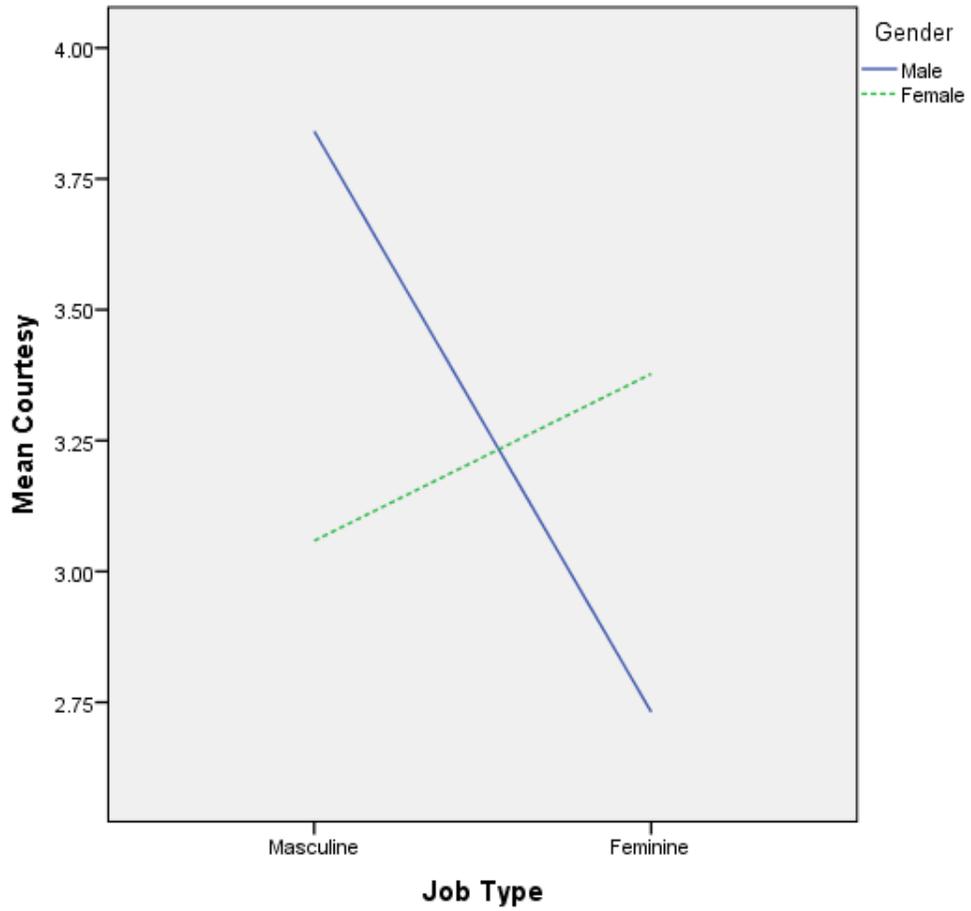


Figure 1: *Interaction of Gender and Job Type with Courtesy*

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Organizational citizenship behavior is an important construct for business life. So ever, this behavior is defined as extra role behavior and it affects the perception of performance evaluations. Therefore, it may cause work place discriminations. Despite the fact that Organ claims that OCB is a common or universal concept, several researches show that the perception of OCB may change by exogenous factors such as gender or gendered job-type. In this research, the relationship between gender and five components of OCB which are defined by Organ (1987) is analyzed. Besides, correlation between gendered job-type and OCB components are investigated. In order to find the relationship of OCB with gender and gendered job-type of Turkish people, two hypotheses are offered. First part of first hypothesis is that observers are more likely to perceive OCB-O in-role for the holder of male-type job compared to the holder of female-type job. Second part of the first hypothesis is that observers are more likely to perceive OCB-I in-role for the holder of female-type job compared to the holder of male-type job. First part of second hypothesis is that observers are more likely to perceive OCB-O in-role for the male job holder compared to the female job holder. Second part of the second hypothesis is that observers are more likely to perceive OCB-I in role for female job holder compared to the male job holder. These hypotheses are tested with data that is collected throughout university students in Ankara. According to results, altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and courtesy are perceived as in-role behavior for both male and female job holder. Except altruism, the other components of OCB are perceived as in role for both masculine and feminine job type holder. Altruism is seen as feminine behavior or feminine OCB, it is perceived as extra role behavior for masculine job type holder and perceived as in role behavior for feminine job type holder. However, altruism is seen as in role behavior for both female and male job holders. Further, the interaction between gendered job type and gender with courtesy component is analyzed because of the significance. When the sub data of masculine job type holders is analyzed, it is concluded that courtesy is perceived as more in

role behavior for female job holders than male job holders. When the sub data of male job holders are analyzed, courtesy is seen as in role behavior for feminine job type compared to masculine job type. To sum up, it is found that courtesy is perceived in role behavior for both job type and both gender. There is only significant difference to the extent of the behavior.

OCB is separated into two parts in hypotheses, these are OCB-I and OCB-O. OCB-O includes sportsmanship, civic virtue and conscientiousness components. OCB-I composed of altruism and courtesy components. According to Kidder (2001), OCB-I is considered to be feminine OCBs. Sportsmanship and civic virtue which are parts of OCB-O are considered to be masculine OCBs. Masculine OCBs that are congruent with male gender roles and feminine OCBs are congruent with female gender role. In this research, courtesy that is a part of OCB-I is perceived as more in role behavior for female job holder specifically in masculine job type, so that hypothesis 1b is partially supported. Further, courtesy is perceived as more in role behavior for feminine job type holders compared to masculine job type holder specifically for male job holders. Considering these results, female job holders with masculine job type and male job holders with feminine job type have greater job breadth because of expected of job roles and gender based expectation. Because masculine job and being male requires masculine gender roles and masculine OCBs, being female and feminine job requires female gender role and feminine OCBs. Therefore, both masculine and feminine OCBs are seen as in-role for the people with incongruent gender and gendered job type. But for this current research, this result is only valid for the courtesy component of OCB. This result is also supported by Kidder (2001), Allen & Rush (2001). In addition, altruism which is a component of OCB-I is perceived as more in role behavior for job holders with feminine job type so hypothesis 1b is partially supported. Regarding the insignificance between OCB components and gender, hypotheses 2a and 2b are not supported.

This current study is a replication of Heilman and Chen's study (2005). The studies related to gender related concepts and OCB are mostly investigated on Western cultures. The aim of the current study is to show that whether these results can be generalize to other cultures as Turkish culture or not. The aim of Heilman and Chen's study was to determine the extent to which altruistic citizenship behavior were considered to be mandatory or optional for female and male employees who were holding the same job. The altruistic behaviors such as helping new

employee, solving problems between coworkers were considered to be more in-role behavior for women than for men. 41 MBA students were participants of that study. Their age was in the range of 22-29. The participants had an average of over 5 years of work experience and most of them had managerial experience. The participants of this current study are bachelor students of business administration department from various universities in Ankara. They had no work or managerial experience. Their age was in the range of 19-25. Moreover, this present study is enlarged version of Heilman and Chen's study (2005). Besides altruism, the other dimensions that are courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, sportsmanship are investigated. Additionally, gendered job-type is another independent variable. The relationship between dimensions of OCB and gendered job-type is searched. Comparing the results of both study, a significant relationship is found between gendered job-type and altruism in this present study. However, altruism was considered to be required of women than of men based on the results of Heilman and Chen's study. In this current study, no relationship is found between OCB dimensions and gender. These different results may be due to the fact that the participants of this current study had no work or managerial experience.

In the literature, there are many researches about the relationship between the gender and components of OCB. The research findings generally demonstrate that there is significant relationship between gender and OCB. But in this current research, the gender does not significantly affect the OCB components. Besides, the relationship between gendered job type and four of OCB components are not significant. In order to explain this result, culture can be an important factor or determinant on organizational behaviors. Culture is very substantial for organizational behaviors, as it processes very deeply that people could not realize its effects and influences on behaviors. Therefore, certain patterns related to organizational behavior may be disregarded because of insensibility of culture (Triandis, 1983). Organizational Citizenship Behavior and its components are constructed by Western culture. However, data of this research was gathered from Turkish students that are considered to have Eastern culture. When the insignificant results of research are considered, OCB components may be perceived as obligatory to engage in because of the collectivist values of Turkish people. For example, willing to help other employees that have work related problems is an altruistic behavior, or attending to meetings that are not mandatory but important is a civic virtue behavior. These behaviors are seen as obligatory to perform just because collectivism requires that helping to

others, and doing something that is beneficial to organization are must. Collectivist people take care about “We” than “I”. Turkish culture is collectivist and this may result in that OCB components which are accepted as extra role behavior may be considered as in-role behavior among Turkish people regardless the employee’s gender and gendered job type.

When significance between courtesy dimension and interaction of gender and job type is considered, there are two main points to conclude. When there is an incongruence between the gender of job holder and gendered job type of job holder, the role expectations are doubled. In other words, both masculine and feminine roles are expected to be performed. This situation may lead to discrimination in workplace. When supervisor expects from the employee’s to exhibit both masculine and feminine roles and employee performs only masculine or only feminine role, supervisor may rate him/her performance less. Moreover, woman who holds a masculine job type and perform masculine attributes only or perform both masculine and feminine attributes, prescriptive stereotypes may take place in that situation. In other words, women may be disregarded when they perform masculine attributes. This may lead to discrimination in workplace.

According to results, gender is not playing an important role on OCB expectations. In other words, all kinds of OCBs are expected from both gender. Considering the OCB related stereotypic attributes only, this situation prevents the lack of fit between descriptive stereotypes and male typed job. In other words, male typed job requires male gender roles but woman who is working at male typed job may be an example of lack of fit between descriptive stereotypes of women and male typed job, because women may not perform civic virtue behaviors based on descriptive stereotypes. For example, according to other researches, civic virtue is considered to be in-role behavior for male job holders. However, current research results’ support that this behavior is considered to be in-role for both male and female job holders. On the other hand, altruism is considered to be in-role behavior for female job holders according to other researches. However, the results of this study concluded that altruism is expected to be performed by both genders. In brief, gender is not a determinant of OCB. Therefore, gender congruent OCBs are expected from both gender. Descriptive stereotypes of women may include the female congruent OCBs. Taking into consideration of OCBs, this situation may prevent the lack of fit between descriptive stereotypes of women based on gender congruent

OCBs and male-typed jobs, because both masculine and feminine OCBs are expected from both genders.

These insignificant results may be due the limitations of this study. As mentioned, the participants of the survey are students in Ankara. They mostly did not have any experience about the business life. They may not be aware of the importance of organizational citizenship behaviors in work places. Or they have not any image or idea in their mind related to the masculine or feminine job types and feminine or masculine extra role behaviors and expected behaviors from different genders in work places. Moreover, the questionnaire is in English that is not the native language of the students, but these students have adequate English proficiency to conduct this survey. Even so, this may result in that questionnaire may not be understood very well in certain aspects. Besides, sample size of the study is 141, and this number may be considered as relatively small. These inexperienced participants and small sample size may affect the results. Another limitation of the study is the weak questions of conscientiousness. Cronbach's alpha values of the group of conscientiousness questions is .507. This number is acceptable but not adequate. This may affect the results of the research. In addition, survey study itself has limitations. This current study does not include control variables. At this point, it may not be possible to identify a causal relationship between two variables, because correlation does not imply causality. However, correlation evidence is significant as it is helping to determine potential causes of behavior. Further, survey study may lead to common method bias, the data of this study is collected by paper-pen based questionnaires only. Every kind of question was asked by only one survey. Additionally, this study has generalizability problem. Data is collected from Turkish university students and these students are inexperienced regarding their work life. It is somehow impossible to generalize the interpretations to real managers in work places.

Regarding the results, there is significant relationship between altruism and job type. Altruism is perceived as optional behavior for masculine job but obligatory behavior for feminine job. The other components of OCB that are courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship are seen as in role for both job types. Besides, all components of OCB are perceived as in role behavior regardless the gender of the job holder. Based on the research of Diekmann and Eagly (2000), the main conclusion of their study is that the masculine and

feminine gender roles are converging for women, not for men. Women who hold a masculine job type should perform the masculine gender roles or masculine activities of occupation. When the results of the present study are analyzed, only altruism is perceived as extra role for masculine job type and in role for female job type. This result is partially support the results of Diekmann and Eagly (2000). Addition to their results, the masculine and feminine gender roles are converging for men in Turkey. Feminine OCB behaviors such as courtesy are expected from masculine job holders.

Regarding the future researches about OCB in Turkish society, the questionnaires should be translated in Turkish in order to avoid the less understandability. Moreover, data should be collected from other resources as method of systematic, passive and active observation, interview method. Considering the insignificant results, culture effect on OCB among Turkish society may be investigated.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

Organizational citizenship behavior is very important concept for business life. It is also substantial to realize the perception of OCB components whether change by exogenous factors as gender or gendered job-type. The aim of this study to seek the relationship between OCB and gender and gendered job-type among Turkish university students in Ankara, Turkey. The sample is composed of bachelor students who are inexperienced about business life. According to results, it is seen that there is no important effect of gender on OCB and its components. On the other hand, altruism is perceived as extra role behavior for masculine job-type and in-role behavior for feminine job-type. Gender and job-type interaction has substantial effect on courtesy component of OCB. In masculine job type, female job holder is expected to perform courtesy more in-role behavior than male job holder. In male job holder, feminine job type holders are expected to engage in courtesy as in-role behaviors more than masculine job type holders. Gendered job type has no significant effect on OCB-O. From these results, it can be interpreted that being in an incongruent position of gender and gendered job type display a disadvantageous situation. More responsibilities and roles are expected from job holder because of this incongruence. Males who have feminine job type should perform courtesy as in-role behavior, because gendered job type is feminine and courtesy is seen as feminine behavior that belongs to female gender role. Moreover, women who have masculine job type is expected to perform courtesy as in-role behavior, because courtesy is a feminine gender role and it is expected from a female while working in a masculine job.

This study have limitations as participants who are students and inexperienced in business life, having small sample size, having no control variables, using survey method only, applying survey in English to Turkish students and limitations of survey method.

Considering managerial implications, these results indicate that gender is not important for evaluating OCB for Turkish university students. However, gendered job type is significant for altruism component of OCB. For courtesy component, interaction of gender and gendered job type is found significant. Based on these interpretations, managers should be aware of that gendered job type is an important exogenous factor for OCB-I components. This situation should be considered during the performance evaluations in order not to result in an unfair workplace.

REFERENCES

- Allen, T. D. (2006). Rewarding good citizens: The relationship between citizenship behavior, gender, and organizational rewards. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 36, (1), 120–143.
- Allen, T. D., & Rush, M. C. (2001). The influence of ratee gender on ratings of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 31, 2561-2587.
- Anselmi, D. L. & Law, A. L. (1998). *Questions of gender, perspectives and paradoxes*. Estados Unidos de America: Editorial McGraw-Hill
- Ashmore, R. D., & Del Boca, F. K. (1981). Conceptual approaches to stereotypes and stereotyping. In D. L. Hamilton (Ed.), *Cognitive processes in stereotyping an intergroup behavior*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum. 1-35
- Ashmore, R.D., Del Boca, F.K., & Wohlers, A.J. (1986). Gender stereotypes. In: R.D. Ashmore, F.K. Del Boca (eds) *The social psychology of male-female relations*. Orlando, FL: Academic Press. 43-558
- Bakan, D. (1966). *The duality of human existence: An essay on psychology and religion*. Chicago: Rand McNally
- Barnard C. I. (1938). *The functions of the executive*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Basow, S. A. (1992). *Gender: Stereotypes and roles*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Bateman, T. S. & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship." *Academy of Management Journal*, 26, 587-595.

Bielby, W.T. & Baron, J.N. (1986). Men and women at work: Sex segregation and statistical discrimination. *American Journal of Sociology*, 91, 739-799.

Borman, W.C. & Motowidlo, S. J. (1997). Task performance and contextual performance: The meaning for personnel selection research. *Human Performance*, 10(2), 99-109.

Borman, W.C., & Motowidlo, S.J. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. *Personnel selection in organizations*, 71-98.

Brief, A. P. & Motowidlo, S. J. (1986). Prosocial organizational behaviors. *Academy of Management Review*, 11, 710-725.

Broverman, I. K., Vogel, S. R., Broverman, D. M., Clarkson, F. E., & Rosenkrantz, P. S. (1972). Sex-role stereotypes: A current appraisal. *Journal of Social Issues*, 28(2), 59-78.

Burgess, D. & Borgida, E. (1999). Who women are, who women should be: Descriptive and prescriptive gender stereotyping in sex discrimination. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law*, 5, 665-692.

Cejka, M.A. & Eagly, A. H. 1999. Gender-stereotypic images of occupations correspond to the sex-segregation of employment. *Sex Roles*, 25, 413-423.

Cohen, A. (2007). One Nation, Many Cultures: A cross-cultural study of the relationship between personal cultural values and commitment in the workplace to in-role performance and organizational citizenship behavior. *Cross-Cultural Research*, 41, 273 - 300.

Deaux, K. (1984). From individual differences to social categories: Analysis of a decade's research on gender. *American Psychologist*, 39, 105-116

Deaux, K., & Kite, M. (1993). Gender stereotypes. In F. L. Denmark & M. A. Paludi (Eds.), *Psychology of women: A handbook of issues and theories*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press. 107-139

Deaux, K., & Lewis, L. L. (1983). Components of gender stereotypes. *Psychological Documents*, 13, 25.

Deborah L. K & McLean Parks J. (2001). The Good Soldier: Who Is S(he)? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22 (8), 939-959.

Diekmann, A. B., & Eagly, A. H. (2000). Stereotypes as dynamic constructs: Woman and men of the past, present, and future. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26, 1171–1188.

Diekmann, A. B., & Goodfriend, W. (2006). Rolling with the changes: A role congruity perspective on gender norms. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 30, 369–383.

Eagly A., Crowley M. (1986). Gender and helping behavior: a meta-analytic review of the social psychological literature. *Psychological Bulletin*, 100, 283-308.

Eagly A., Karau S.J., Makhinani M. G. (1995). Gender and the effectiveness of leaders: a meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 117, 125-145.

Eagly A., Karau S. J. (1991). Gender and the emergence of leaders: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60, 685-710.

Eagly A., Wood W. (1991). Explaining sex differences in social behavior: a meta-analytic perspective. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 17, 306-315.

Eagly A.H., Makhijani M.G., Klonsky B.G. (1992). Gender and the evaluation of leaders: a meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 111, 3-22.

Eagly, A. H. & Crowley, M. (1986). Gender and helping behavior: A meta-analytic review of the social psychological literature. *Psychological Bulletin*, 100, 283-308

Eagly, A. H. & Steffen, V. J. (1986b). Gender stereotypes, occupational roles, and beliefs about part-time employees. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 10, 252-262

Eagly, A. H. (1983). Gender and social influence: A social psychological analysis. *American Psychologist*, 38, 971-981.

Eagly, A. H. (1986). Some meta-analytic approaches to examining the validity of gender-difference research. In J. S. Hyde & M. C. Linn (Eds.), *The psychology of gender: Advances through meta-analysis*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press. 159-177

Eagly, A. H. (1987). *Sex differences in social behavior: A social-role interpretation*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Eagly, A. H., & Steffen, V. J. (1984). Gender stereotypes stem from the distribution of women and men into social roles. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 46, 735-754.

Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (1991). Explaining sex differences in social behavior: A meta-analytic perspective. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 17, 306-315.

Eagly, A. H., Wood, W., & Diekmann, A. B. (2000). Social role theory of gender differences and similarities: A current appraisal. In T. Eckes & H. M. Trautner (Eds.), *The developmental social psychology of gender*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum. 123-174

Eagly, A.H. & Karau, S J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review*, 109, 573-598.

Erdle, S., Sansom, M., Cole, M. R., Heapy, N. (1992). Sex differences in personality correlates of helping behavior. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 13 (8), 931-936

Finkelstein, L. M. & Farrell, S.K. (2007). An expanded view of age bias in the workplace. In K. Shultz and G. Adams (Eds.) *Aging and Work in the 21st Century*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.73-108

Fiske, S. T., Bersoff, D. N., Borgida, E., Deaux, K., & Heilman, M. E. (1991). Social science research on trial: The use of sex stereotyping research in *Price Waterhouse v. Hopkins*. *American Psychologist*, 46, 1049-1060.

George, J. M. & Brief, A. P. (1992). Feeling good-doing good: A conceptual analysis of the mood at work-organizational spontaneity relationship. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112, 310-329.

George, J.M. & Jones, G. R. (1997). Organizational Spontaneity in Context. *Human Performance*, 10, 153-170.

Glick, P. (1991). Trait-based and sex-based discrimination in occupational prestige, occupational salary, and hiring. *Sex Roles*. 25, 351-378

Good, G. E., Dell, D. M., & Mintz, L. B. (1989). Male role and gender role conflict: Relations to help seeking in men. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 36(3), 295–300.

Graham, J. W. 1989. Organizational citizenship behavior: Construct redefinition, operationalization, and validation. Unpublished working paper, Loyola University of Chicago, Chicago, IL

Graham, J.W. (1991). An essay on organizational citizenship behavior. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 4, 249-270.

Guterk B. A. (1985). *Sex and the Workplace*. Jossey Bass: San Francisco.

Heilman, M. E. (1983). Sex bias in work settings: The lack of fit model. In B. M. Staw & L. I. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press. 5, 269-298

Heilman, M. E. (1995). Sex stereotypes and their effects in the workplace: What we know and what we don't know. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 10, 3-26

Heilman, M. E. (2001). Description and prescription: How gender stereotypes prevent women's ascent up the organizational ladder. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57, 657–674.

Heilman, M. E., & Chen, J. J. (2005). Same Behavior, Different Consequences: Reactions to Men's and Women's Altruistic Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90 (3), 431- 441

Heilman, M.E. & Okimoto. T.G. (2007). Why are women penalized for success at male tasks? The implied communality deficit. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 81-92.

Heilman, M.E. (1983). Sex bias in work settings: The Lack of fit model. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 5, 269.

Heilman, M.E. (2001). Description and prescription: How gender stereotypes prevent women's ascent up the organizational ladder. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57, 657-674.

Heilman, M.E., Block, C., Martell, R. & Simon, M. (1989). Has anything changed? Current characterizations of males, females and managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74, 935-942.

Heilman, M.E., Wallen, A.S., Fuchs, D. & Tamkins, M.M. (2004) Penalties for success: Reactions to women who succeed at male gender-typed tasks. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 416-427.

Hoffman, B.J., Blair, C.A., Meriac, J.P., & Woehr, D.J. (2007). Expanding the criterion domain? A quantitative Review of OCB Literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(2), 555-566.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Cultures consequences: International differences in work related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Jacobs, J. A. (1989). *Revolving doors: Sex segregation and women's careers*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Kark, R. & Manor, R. (2005), Organizational citizenship behavior: What's gender got to do with it? *Organization*, 12 (6), 889-917

Katz, D. (1964). The motivational basis of organizational behavior. *Behavioral Science*, 9, 131-146.

Katz, D., Kahn, R. L. (1966, 1978). *The social psychology of organizations*. New York: Wiley

Katz, P. A. (1986). Gender Identity: Development and Consequences. In Richard, D. Ashmore and Frances K. Del Boca (Eds.), *The Social Psychology of Female-Male Relations: A Critical Analysis of Central Concepts*. New York: Academic Press. 21-67

Kidder, D. L. (2002). The influence of gender on the performance of organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 28(5), 629-648

Kidder, D. L., & McLean Parks, J. (1993). The good soldier: Who is (s)he? In D. P. Moore (Ed.), *Academy of Management Best Papers Proceedings*, 363–367.

Kidder, D. L., & Parks, J. M. (2001). The good soldier: Who is s(he)? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22(8), 939–959.

LePine, J.A., Erez, A., & Johnson, D.E. (2002). The nature and dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior: A critical review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 52-65.

Lin, C. P., (2008). Clarifying the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviors, gender, and knowledge sharing in workplace organizations in Taiwan. *J Bus Psychol*, 22, 241-250

Lips, H.M. (2003). The Gender pay gap: Concrete indicator of women's progress toward equality. *Analyses of Social Issues and Public Policy*, 3, 87-109.

Lovell, S. E., Kahn, A. S., Anton, J., Davidson, A., Dowling, E., & Post, D., et al. (1999). Does gender affect the link between organizational citizenship behavior and performance evaluation? *Sex Roles*, 41, 469-478.

MacKenzie, S.B., Podsakoff, P.M., & Fetter, R. (1991). Organizational citizenship behavior and objective productivity as determinants of managerial evaluations of salespersons' performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 123- 150.

McLean Parks, J. (1997). The fourth arm of justice: The art and science of revenge. In Lewicki, R. J., Bies, R. J., & Sheppard, B. H. (Eds.), *Research on negotiation in organizations*, Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, Inc., 134–144.

Meredith A. V., Campbell J. P. (2004). In-Role or Extra-role organizational citizenship behavior: Which are we measuring? *Human Performance*, 17(1), 119-135

Moorman, R.H. & Blakely, G. L. (1995). Individualism - collectivism as an individual difference predictor of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 6 (2), 127-142.

Morrison, E.W. (1994). Role definitions and organizational citizenship behavior: The importance of the employee's perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 1543-1567.

Motowidlo, S. J. (2000). Some basic issues related to contextual performance and organizational citizenship behavior in human resource management. *Human Resource Management Review*, 10, 115-126.

Motowidlo, S.J. & Van Scotter J.R. (1994). Evidence that task performance as should be distinguished from contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 475-480.

Near, J. P., Miceli, M. P. (1987). Whistleblowers in organizations: Dissidents or reformers? B. M. Staw, L. L. Cummings, eds. *Research in Organizational Behavior*. JAI Press, Greenwich, CT. 7, 321-368.

Nieva, V. F., Gutek, B. A. (1980). Sex effect on evaluation. *Academy of Management Review*, 5, 267-276.

Olian, J. D., Schwab, D. P., & Haberfeld, Y. (1988). The impact of applicant gender compared to qualifications on hiring recommendations: A meta-analysis of experimental studies. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 41, 180-195.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Organ, D.W. & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 8, 775-802.

Organ, D.W. (1988a). *Organizational citizenship behavior. The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Organ, D.W. (1988b). A restatement of the satisfaction-performance hypothesis. *Journal of Management*, 14, 547-557.

Organ, D.W. (1990). The motivational basis of organizational citizenship behavior. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 12, 43-72.

Organ, D.W. (1994). Personality and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Management*, 20, 465-478.

Organ, D.W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time. *Human Performance*, 10(2), 85-97.

Organ, D.W., Podsakoff, P.M., & MacKenzie, S.B. (2006). *Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature, antecedents, and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Parks, J. M., & Kidder D. L. (1994). "Till death do us part...": Changing work relationships in the 1990s. In C. L. Cooper & D. M. Rousseau (Eds.). *Trends in organizational behavior*. Chichester, UK: Wiley, 1, 111-136

Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. (2009). Individual- and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(1), 122-141.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: A Critical Review of the Theoretical and Empirical Literature and Suggestions for Future Research. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 513-563.

Powell G. (1993). *Women & Men in Management*, 2nd edn. Sage Press: Beverly Hills, CA.

Rhodie, E. M. (1989). *Discrimination against women: A global survey of the economic, educational, social and political status of women*. Jefferson, NC: McFarland

Rosenkrantz, P., Vogel, S., Bee, H., Broverman, I., & Broverman, D. M. (1968). Sex-role stereotypes and self-concepts in college students. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 32, 287-295.

Schein, V. E. (1973). The Relationship between sex-role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 57, 95-100.

Schein, V. E. (1975). The relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among female managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60, 340-344.

Schein, V. E. (1994). Managerial sex typing: A persistent and pervasive barrier to women's opportunities. In M. Davidson & R. Burke (Eds.), *Women in management*. London: Paul Chapman. 41-52

Schein, V. E., & Mueller, R. (1992). Sex role stereotyping and requisite management characteristics: A cross cultural look. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13, 439–447.

Schein, V. E., Mueller, R., Lituchy, T., & Liu, J. (1996). Think manager—think male: A global phenomenon? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 17, 33–41.

Schein, V. E. (2001). A Global look at psychological barriers to women's progress in management. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57, 675-688.

Smith, C. A., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68, 655–663.

Spence, J. T., Helmreich, R., & Stapp, J. (1975). Ratings of self and peers on sex-role attributes and their relationship to self-esteem and conceptions of masculinity and femininity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 32, 29-39.

Spence, J. T. & Helmreich, R. L. (1978). *Masculinity and Femininity: Their psychological dimensions correlates and antecedents*. Austin University of Texas Press

Spence, J. T. & Sawin, L. L. (1985). "Images of Masculinity and Femininity: A Reconceptualization." Pp. 35-66 in Virginia E. O'Leary, Rhoda Kesler Unger, and Barbara Strudler Wallston (Eds.), *Women, Gender, and Social Psychology*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Spence, J. T. (1985). "Gender Identity and Implications for Concepts of Masculinity and Femininity." In T. B. Sonderegger (Ed.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation: Psychology and Gender*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press. 59-96

Triandis, Harry C. (1982/1983) Dimensions of Cultural Variation as Parameters of Organizational Theories. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 12 (4), 139-170.

Valian, V. (1998). *Why so slow? The advancement of women*. Cambridge, MA: M.I.T. Press.

Van Dyne, L., Cummings, L. L., & Parks, J. M. 1995. Extra-role behaviors: In pursuit of construct and definitional clarity (A bridge over muddied waters). In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press. 17, 215-285

Van Dyne, L., Graham, J. G., & Dienesch, R. M. (1994). Organizational citizenship behavior: Construct redefinition, operationalization, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, (37), 765-802.

Van Scotter, J. R., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1996). Interpersonal facilitation and job dedication as separate facets of contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, (81), 525-531.

Women in management: It's still lonely at the top. (1998, February). *World of Work*, 23, 6-9.

Williams, C. (Ed). (1993). *Doing Women's Work: Men in Non-Traditional Occupations*. London: Sage

Williams. L.J. & Anderson. S.E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 17(3), 601-617.

Yount, K. (1986). A theory of productive activity: The relationships among self-concept, gender, sex role stereotypes, and work-emergent traits. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 10, 63-88

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

OCB QUESTIONS IN QUESTIONNAIRE

	<i>Definitely required</i>					<i>Completely optional</i>			
1.Attendance at work above the norm is required (C)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. Not taking extra breaks (C)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3.Obeying company rules and regulations even when no one watches (C)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. Being one of the most conscientious employees (C)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. Covering absentee’s duties (A)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. Helping others having heavy work loads (A)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. Willingly helping others having work related problems (A)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. Always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him (A)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9.Consuming a lot of time complaining about trivial matters (S)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10. Always focusing on what’s wrong, rather than the positive side (S)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11.Making “mountains out of molehills” (S)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12. Being the classic “squeaky wheel” that always needs greasing (S)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

13. Attending meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important (CV)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
14. Attending functions that are not required, but help the company image (CV)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15. Reading and keeping up with organization announcements, memos, and so on (CV)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
16. Taking steps to try to prevent problems with other workers (CO)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
17. Being mindful of how his behavior affects other people's jobs (CO)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
18. Trying to avoid the creation of problems for his coworkers (CO)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
19. Considering the impact of his actions on coworkers (CO)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

C = Conscientiousness, A = Altruism, S = Sportsmanship, CV = Civic Virtue, CO = Courtesy

APPENDIX B

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enformatik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Gedik
Adı : Merve
Bölümü : İşletme Bölümü

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : The Role of Employee's Gender, and Gendered Job Type in Organizational Citizenship Behavior Attributions.

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamı dünya çapında erişime açılsın ve kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla tezimin bir kısmı veya tamamının fotokopisi alınsın.
2. Tezimin tamamı yalnızca Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi kullanıcılarının erişimine açılsın. (Bu seçenekle tezinizin fotokopisi ya da elektronik kopyası Kütüphane aracılığı ile ODTÜ dışına dağıtılmayacaktır.)
3. Tezim bir (1) yıl süreyle erişime kapalı olsun. (Bu seçenekle tezinizin fotokopisi ya da elektronik kopyası Kütüphane aracılığı ile ODTÜ dışına dağıtılmayacaktır.)

Yazarın imzası

Tarih.....