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Will a Good Citizen Actively Support Organizational Change? Investigation of Psychological Processes Underlying Active Change Support

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Abstract

The present study investigated motivational factors of employee's active change support (ACS). It also investigated good citizens' response to the change by highlighting convergence and divergence of motivational factors between ACS and traditional extra-role behavior. The findings based on 166 staff responses and 346 supervisor assessments in a hospital that recently implemented a shared-governance structure suggest that active change support is a result of an active thinking process that involves perception of potential benefit from change but not necessarily the consequence of conventional predictors of extra-role behaviors (i.e., positive attitudes). The findings also suggest that good citizens are not necessarily the supporters of organizational change and that in actuality they confront motivational dilemma especially when they hold high quality relationship with their employer because they are reluctant to challenge the status quo.

Keywords: organizational change, organizational citizenship behavior, change support

INTRODUCTION

Active employee support is critical for successful organizational change. It is impossible for change agents or management to

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envision all the details of change implementation in advance. Because an employee must actively experiment with a new organizational intervention to make it successful, successful change requires employee behaviors that were not previously required by job description and therefore the organization relies on employees' willing actions to support the change.

Despite its importance as a form of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in the context of organizational change, there has been little research on employee support for the change in OCB or other relevant literature. Although there exist some studies investigating change-related OCB (Morrison and Phelps 1999; Choi 2007), they focused on small-scale personal changes such as 'correcting a faulty procedure' that employees initiate themselves. Instead, the current study investigates employee support for organization-wide change that management initiates and implements. Therefore, the current paper will be the first to provide an understanding of employee support for organizational change in relation to conventional form of OCB.

However, the current study is distinct from previous studies in extra-role behavior literature. First, while most forms of citizenship behaviors have been described mainly as a function of positive attitude at work (Podsakoff et al. 2000; Bolino 1999; Organ and Ryan 1995), I investigate active psychological processes underlying employee support for change. Second, while research on extra-role behavior has almost exclusively concerned its antecedents, I investigate the potential effects of extra-role behavior. Third, while previous research remains silent on the relationship between extra-role behavior and change support, I investigate their inter-relations. Finally, in contrast to the widely-held assumption about positivity of extra-role behavior, I highlight the dilemma that good citizens may face at the time of organizational change.

I first define an employee's active change support (ACS) and distinguish it from relevant constructs. Then, I investigate its antecedents examining how employees view the change. Further, I investigate the inter-relation between ACS and OCB by examining how good citizens respond to the change and the extent to which their response to change is viewed as OCB by their managers. Discussions of the results and future implications will follow.

ACTIVE CHANGE SUPPORT

I define ACS as proactive and participative activities that facilitate organizational change when they are not necessarily mandated or rewarded by an organization. While some of employee support for organizational change is mandated by the organization and regarded as part of job that employees perform at work, I focus on employee's voluntary participation, engagement of which is not formally sanctioned or rewarded by the organization. Forms of ACS can vary depending on the context of organizational change. For instance, active involvement in decision-making process in an organizational change toward employee empowerment may constitute ACS.

ACS is distinctive from such employee responses to change as "coping with change" and "openness to change." First, 'coping with change' refers to "the person's efforts to manage the internal and external demands (caused by organizational change)" (Folkman et al. 1986). In other words, 'coping with change' addresses a passive tolerance of a formidable stressor associated with negative outcomes such as job loss, reduced status and uncertainties that may be caused by organizational change (Ashford 1988; Judge et al. 1999). By contrast, ACS involves proactively taking charge of what is not required for normal function at work. In consequence, while people coping with change can be described as 'passive and cooperative recipients of organizational change,' people engaging in ACS may be viewed as 'active participants in facilitating organizational change.'

Second, openness to change has been conceptualized as involving (1) willingness to support the change and (2) positive affect about the potential consequences of the change (Miller, Johnson, and Grau 1994). Therefore, openness to change is mere intention for change-supportive actions while ACS is a set of hands-on activities by definition. Although intention is an important predictor of human behavior, they are not the same (Azjen 1980, 1991).

Although ACS has been described as a unique form of extra-role behaviors such as OCB (Morrison and Phelps 1999), they are distinct from each other in terms of their definitional breadth and underlying motives. First, OCB refers to "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" (Organ 1988, p. 4). More specifically, OCB addresses individual's broad and on-going contributions that "(help) maintenance and/or enhancement of the context of work" and thus OCB is defined "at a rather higher level of abstraction" (Organ 1997, p. 90). In contrast, ACS addresses specific and non-routine behaviors that are change-oriented and aimed at improvement.

Second, as abundant empirical evidence suggests, OCB is associated with high satisfaction with the status quo (Bateman and Organ 1983; Moorman 1991; Moorman, Niehoff and Organ 1993; see Podsakoff et al. 2000 for review). Organ (1988) also describes OCB as modest behaviors that sustain the status quo. Contrastingly, ACS requires willingness to "challenge the present state of operations to bring about constructive change" (Morrison and Phelps 1999, p. 403). Therefore, OCB and ACS stand in significant contrast in terms of propensity to maintain the status quo.

Since ACS is non-routine acts specifically motivated to change the present state, individual employees' assessment of change and its likely outcomes come into play when they decide whether to engage in ACS. When individuals experience a non-routine or previously unknown situation such as organizational change, they "switch from habits of mind to active thinking" and engage in more careful cognitive processing than when they engage in on-going contributions (Louis and Sutton 1991). Therefore, ACS involves an effortful, calculated and deliberate decision process in relation to change outcomes (Morrison and Phelps 1999).

I predict that an individual's active thinking process to make a decision to engage in ACS involves his/her interpretation of managerial motivation for change as well as perceived change benefit. First, employees' perception of managerial motivation for organizational change will influence a decision to engage in ACS. Although managers may provide an account for change, employees are not passive recipients of change messages but active information producers who ask themselves why the organization is attempting to change (Rousseau and Tijoriwala 1999). For example, some may believe that organizational change is being implemented for a functional reason such as "to improve

quality of work" while some may believe that reason for change is not to benefit employees or organization in general but to serve management fad or to fulfill the self-interest of management. When employees believe that the interpreted reasons for change are appropriate, acceptable, and legitimate, they perceive the reasons for change as functional and they are more likely to engage in ACS.

Another active thinking process involves perceived benefit of change (Vroom 1964) and we presume its mediational role in the relationship between ACS and interpretation of reasons for change. Individual employees' perceived reasons for change influence their belief that benefits can be accessed through organizational change (Rousseau and Tijoriwala 1999). When employees believe that the change is motivated by self-interest of management, they expect that the change outcomes will benefit select group of the organization. Therefore, such employees will perceive change benefit as low and will be less motivated to engage in ACS. On the other hand, when employees believe that the change is motivated to benefit broader organization, they will perceive change benefit as high. Therefore, such employees will be motivated to engage in ACS. In sum, the way employees interpret the reasons for change affects their responses to it through mediation of perceived change benefit.

H1a: Perceived functionality of reasons for change will positively affect employees' active change support

H1b: Perceived change benefit will mediate the relationship between employees' active change support and perceived functionality of reasons for change

CHANGE SUPPORT AND CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

Although ACS is distinguished from OCB in some aspects that we previously discussed, ACS still has many features in common with OCB. More specifically, ACS is consistent with Organ's (1988) description of OCB because ACS is discretionary, is not formally rewarded, and helps to promote organizational effectiveness. First, ACS is not coerced by the employment contract and its engagement is voluntary. Therefore, ACS is a

matter of personal choice or volition. As such, it is beyond a formal requirement of the job or role, is not mandated by a job description, and its absence is generally not viewed as punishable. Second, ACS is not directly or formally rewarded by the organization. In other words, there is no "point-for-point, one-to-one correspondence"between ACS and rewards provided by the organization (Organ 1988, p. 5). Third, ACS is "efforts to ensure the continued viability of an organization" and enhances organizational effectiveness by "effecting organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the contexts of jobs, work units or organizations" (Morrison and Phelps 1999, p. 403). Consequently, when employees engage in ACS these activities will be seen as OCB and they will be viewed as good citizens by their supervisor, a traditional rater of OCB.

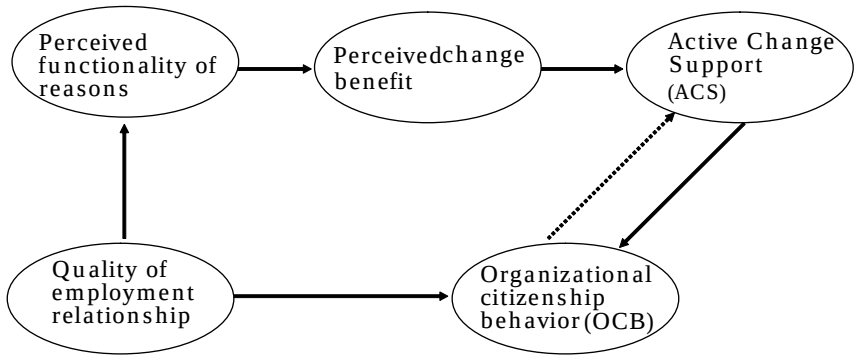
H2a: Active support for organizational change will be positively related to citizenship behaviors

However, all good citizens are not necessarily supporters of change. The pervasive empirical evidence that OCB is a function of high-quality employment relationship suggests that "good citizens" are the employees who have maintained favorable employment relationship with their employer and are recognized by their employer at least to the extent that they are assessed as "good citizens" (Smith, Organ, and Near 1983; Eisenberger et al. 1990; Wayne, Shore and Liden 1997; Shore and Barksdale 1998). Therefore, as we discussed earlier, OCB is associated with high satisfaction with the status quo whereas ACS involves motivation to challenge the status quo.

The present study operationalizes high quality relations and positive mood using multiple indicators of employment quality: job satisfaction, perceived organizational support (POS), leader member exchange (LMX) and social exchange relationships are common indicators of positive employee-employer relationships and predictors of citizenship behaviors (e.g., Bateman and Organ 1983; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch 1997; Shore and Barksdale 1998; Smith, Organ, and Near 1983; Wayne, Shore, and Liden 1997). Job satisfaction is state of positive affect. Although individual predispositions influence job satisfaction (Staw and Ross 1985), these are also tied to the

quality of experience workers enjoy in relation to the organization and its agents (Bateman and Organ 1983). Perceived organizational support (POS) also addresses employees' beliefs regarding the value the organization places on them and its concern for their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa 1986). POS is postulated to create a sense of reciprocity on the part of workers resulting in their felt obligation to promote the organization's welfare and its objectives (Eisenberger et al. 2001). Social exchange refers to relationships between employee and employer that are characterized by trust and mutual obligations. In social exchange relationships, one party makes a contribution or provides a service to the other party and develops an expectation of future return. Also, the other party, having received something valuable, develops a sense of obligation to reciprocate (Blau 1964; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor 2000). Social exchange has been found to be a strong predictor of citizenship behavior (See Podsakoff et al. 2000 for review). Unlike economic exchange which involves tangible, often short-term, contractual relationships with an explicit quid pro quo, mutual obligations in social exchange are often broad and open-ended (Blau 1964; Masterson et al. 2000). LMX refers to the quality of the interpersonal relationship between a manager and an individual worker (Graen and Scandura 1987). Workers' relationships with their employers are often represented by interactions with their immediate managers and are operationalized as LMX. It has been found to be positively related with subordinate-supervisor mutual support, loyalty, liking, respect and supportive behaviors (Settoon, Benett, and Liden 1996).

Such distinctive underlying motives of ACS and OCB suggest that good citizens may be reluctant to support change since they have a strong propensity to maintain the satisfactory status quo especially when OCB is a function of high quality of employment relationship. Extensive evidence exists in various literature that people in currently advantageous condition have greater propensity to maintain the status quo. For example, Spreitzer and Quinn (1996) found that executives resist change efforts initiated by middle managers. Likewise, since good citizens with quality employment relationship have vested rights and interests that employees with poor employment relationship do not have,



1. Dashed line indicates negative association

Figure 1. Model of Inter-Relationship between Active Change Support and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

they may be reluctant to change and therefore less likely to engage in ACS.

In sum, good citizens are less likely to be motivated to engage in ACS because they have quality employment relationship that they are reluctant to risk by engaging in ACS.

> **H2b:** Citizenship behavior will be negatively related to active change support where citizenship behavior is manifestation of quality employment relationship

Consequently, figure 1 presents the inter-relational model of ACS and OCB based on accumulated empirical evidence in extra-role behavior literature and hypotheses generated throughout the paper.

METHODS

Organizational Setting and Participant

The staff across all the departments at a large northeastern U.S. hospital participated in the study. The staff, approximately 350 people, includes clerical workers, nurses, lab technicians, physical service employees, physical therapists, and radiologists.

The hospital recently initiated an organizational change entitled "shared leadership"that refers to organizational transition from a bureaucratic structure to a shared-governance structure that enables staff members to make decisions about clinical and employee work-life issues.

Shared governance replaces a traditional hierarchy with a streamlined, decentralized decision-making system by adopting a flatter and more employee-empowering structure where an array of decisions, formerly made by the leadership, are now made by the rank and file (Porter-O'Grady 1984, 1992). It has been formally disclosed by the management that "the purpose of Shared Leadership is to establish and communicate an organizational leadership philosophy that supports employee partnership resulting in superior patient outcomes and increased employee morale."

As early-stage implementation tools, the 'Clinical Council' and 'Work-life Council' have been created. Both councils consist of staff members excluding any managerial personnel. The former is intended to promote and guide high quality patient-centered clinical practice and the latter to engage in decision making with regard to employee work-life issues. Each department/unit in the hospital assigns 1 representative for each of Clinical and Work-life Councils. In principle, a staff member who volunteered to represent his/her department is selected to be on the council. If more than one person volunteered, then the staff in the department chose who will participate in a ballot. Any staff member both inside and outside the Council can bring an issue to the attention of the Councils or present the issue to the Council in person at the regular council meeting held each month. Staff members can use several methods to reach the councils: let any council member know of their requests; put the request in the suggestion box sponsored by councils; contact the chair or co-chair of the council. For example, recently one nurse contacted council member to discuss the fairness issue with regard to monthly employee recognition program that has long been in operation. She stated that recognizing one as superior to the others in terms of service quality endangers the other individuals' feelings although the management believed it provided incentive to provide quality service. The contacted council member raised the issue during the Work-life Council

meeting claiming that overall employees view the "Employee of the Month Program" in a negative manner. Major council members agreed on that claim and maintained "if we are trying to build a team environment, publicly recognizing one employee as being 'better' than the others defeats this purpose." Following this decision, each department chose not to nominate 'Employee of the Month' and Work-life council members have been discussing possible alternatives to the program with their co-workers.

Work-life Council and Clinical Council are not the whole picture of the organizational change but merely the start of complex organizational change toward shared-governance structure. The organization is planning on implementation of various staff-administered councils in order to allow staff members to make an array of decisions formerly made by management. As we've seen in the example described above, however, organizational change toward shared-governance critically requires staff member participation. Thus, the success of organizational change toward shared governance structure highly depends on employee's proactive involvement.

Measures

I sent questionnaires to Council members with self-addressed and pre-stamped envelope and asked them to distribute questionnaires to each staff member in their department/unit. To promote responses, I announced the survey in the hospital newsletter. Respondents filled out the questionnaire voluntarily. 350 questionnaires were distributed and 166 were collected reflecting a response rate of 47%. The average age of the respondents was 42 years, and their average length of employment at the hospital was 7 years. 88% were female and 75.9% worked full time. Also, twenty supervisors provided OCB ratings of their individual subordinates. OCB ratings of the entire sample of 346 subordinates were obtained and matched to 123 out of 166 participants who provided self-report of the remaining measures. Self-reports of 43 participants could not be matched because they did not provide their appropriate identification. I conducted ANOVA on OCB ratings to examine any difference between survey participants and non-participants. The result

indicates there was no significant difference in OCB ratings between two groups ($F_{1, 344}$ = 1.28n.s.) and implies that the sample for this study is representative of the whole organization. All the measurements were measured using a 1 (not at all) to 5 (to a very great extent) scale unless explained otherwise in the following descriptions of measurement.

Variables of Interest

Job satisfaction: Job satisfaction is measured with a four-item scale designed by Quinn and Staines (1979). An example item is "All in all, I am satisfied with my job." The alpha reliability was .91.

Perceived organizational support: An eight-item scale developed by Eisenberger and colleagues (1986) is used to measure perceived organizational support. Several research has used the same items (e.g., Kraimer et al., 2001). An example item is "My relationship with ___ is based on mutual trust." The alpha reliability in our study was .90.

Leader member exchange (LMX): LMX is assessed using a ten-item scale developed by Liden & Maslyn (1998) and used by Kraimer and colleagues (2001). An example item is "supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend." The alpha reliability was .96.

Social exchange: Social exchange relationship is assessed with an eight-item scale developed by Shore and Barksdale (1998). An example item is "Help is available from my employer when I have a problem." The alpha reliability was .89.

Reasons: Following Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1999), I asked respondents to rate the extent to which they agree with each of 6 reasons that were obtained from pilot interviews with Council members and managers prior to the development of the survey. Six items yielded two factors. Three quality reasons were "to improve quality of work," "to increase staff professionalism," and "to improve quality of care."The other three manipulation reasons were "to get staff to do what management wants," "to make staff feel they have a voice when they really do not," and "to serve the interests of management but not necessarily of workers. Alpha reliabilities were .82 for quality reasons and .72 for manipulation reasons.

Perceived change benefit: Extending Coyle-Shapiro's (1999) perceived benefit of TQM measures, I developed a six-item scale. They are composed of questions dealing with both specific benefit such as "I will have more control over my work environment through Shared Leadership"and benefit in overall such as "There is no benefit for me in Shared Leadership (Reversed)."Alpha reliability was .88.

Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB): The immediate supervisors assessed their staff on 13 items from Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1993) designed to tap dimensions of extra-role behaviors identified by Borman and Motowidlo (1993). I took out 3 items from the original 16 because they were specific for the military settings that Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1993) used in their study. The reliability obtained using the matched sample was .95.

Active Change Support (ACS): The Council is the central establishment in the early stage of change implementation and it provides various ways that staff members in the hospital participate in the change process ranging from reading a Council leaflet called "Voice"to meeting with Council members to discuss the employment issues. These voluntary and non-rewarding employee interactions with the Council in various forms of behaviors indicate an individual employee's enthusiasm and commitment to change and are viewed as proactive involvement in change. Pilot group interviews with management and council members identified four items specifically designed for this study to measure ACS: "I have made suggestions to be addressed in the Council," "I have raised issues with a Council representative," "I have discussed Council issues with coworkers," and "I have read communication briefings regarding Council matters."Alpha reliability for ACS was .88.

Distinction between OCB and ACS

I previously highlighted convergence and divergence of OCB and ACS in previous sections. Because establishment of discriminant validity between these two constructs is fundamental for further analysis testing our hypotheses, I investigate their distinctiveness using factor analysis. First, a principal component analysis, with a varimax rotation, was

performed on the items of OCB and ACS together. A two-factor solution clearly emerged with all the ACS items highly loaded (loadings > .70) on the first factor and all the OCB items highly loaded (loadings > .70) on the second factor (See table 1). I also conducted confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS software (Arbuckle, 1997) to make sure that a hypothesized two-factor solution demonstrates good fit with the data. Each item had a highly significant factor loading on its posited latent construct ($p < .01$) and a two-factor model is superior to a one-factor model in every goodness-of-fit index. I assessed the fit of the model by considering various indices: chi-square statistic, the comparative fit index (CFI), nonnormed fit index (NNFI, also known as the Tucker-Lewis index), the incremental fit index (IFI) and the root-mean-squared error of approximation (RMSEA). The overall model fit of a two-factor solution was supported by those various goodness-of-fit indexes: $x^2(118, N = 123) = 277.1$, $p < .01$, IFI = .98, NNFI = .97, CFI = .98 and the root-mean-squared error of approximation (RMSEA) = .09. In sum, both principal component

Table 1. Results of Factor Analysis of ACS and OCB Items

Items	ACS	OCB
I have made suggestions to be addressed in the Council.	.86	
I have raised issues with a Council representative.	.84	
I have discussed Council issues with coworkers.	.90	
I have read communication briefings regarding Council matters.	.70	
Comply with instructions even when supervisors are not present	.80	
Cooperate with others in the team		.87
Persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task		.84
Volunteer for additional duty		.70
Look for a challenging assignment		.82
Offer to help others accomplish their work		.80
Pay close attention to important details		.76
Defend the supervisor's decisions		.81
Support and encourage a coworker with a problem		.76
Take the initiative to solve a work problem		.85
Exercise personal discipline and self-control		.77
Tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically		.86
Voluntarily do more than the job requires to help others or contribute to unit effectiveness		.86

All factor loadings are significant at $p < .01$

analysis and confirmatory factor analysis provide strong evidence that ACS is distinct from conventional form of extra-role behaviors.

Analysis

I conducted analyses with structural equation modeling (SEM) using AMOS software (Arbuckle 1997) and maximum-likelihood estimation. I used SEM so that I could predict multiple dependent measures and their underlying causal factors simultaneously. Since I had 59 items, it would have been extremely difficult to fit a structural equation model using all these raw items (Bentler and Chou 1987; Jöreskog and Sörbom 1989). Thus, I conducted preliminary analyses to reduce the number of items analyzed in a structural equation model wherever possible. First, such measures as perceived benefit of change, OCB and ACS were included in the analyses using observed variables. In order to incorporate the measurement error of each observed variable, I included scale reliability in SEM analyses.

Second, although all of the employment relationship variables were conceptually distinct, high intercorrelations among the variables indicated that they were not empirically distinct (Judge et al., 1999). For example, I observed high correlations between perceived organizational support and social exchange ($r = .80$, $p < .001$) and job satisfaction and social exchange ($r = .61$, $p < .001$). This suggests that they all may be combined into a composite index (Judge et al., 1999). Therefore, I examined a confirmatory factor analytic model that comprised a second-order factor that underlies all of employment relationship variables — job satisfaction, social exchange, leader member exchange and perceived organizational support. The goodness-of-fit indices for the hypothesized second-order factor model indicated a good fit ($x^2(320, N = 123) = 709.2$, $p < .01$, IFI = .97, NNFI = .97, CFI = .97, and RMSEA = .08). Similar examination of perceived functional reasons and manipulation reasons supported the presence of second-order factor and its distinctiveness from perceived change benefit ($x^2(41, N = 123) = 64.8$, $p < .10$, IFI = .99, NNFI = .99, CFI = .99, and RMSEA = .06).

RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, and correlations of the observed variables in the model specified in figure 2 are presented in table 2.

In overall, the goodness-of-fit indices indicate that our proposed model provided a good fit to the data, IFI=.99, NNFI = .99, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .04 and x^2 (24, N = 123) = 31.3, p > .10. Furthermore, all the paths in the model are significant (p < .05) with predicted directions as shown in figure 2. First, according to the estimated model, perceived functionality of reasons for change has positive association with ACS through perceived change benefit. Although the result of the overall model provided some evidence of mediator role by perceived change benefit, it was important to estimate the model again by adding direct effect from perceived reason to ACS to determine whether the model fit significantly improve with the direct path. Model fit shows no improvement, Δx^2 (1, N = 123) = .006, p >.10 and the direct effect from perceived reason to ACS was not statistically significant. This result in combination with relationships between three variables presented in table 2 meets the requirement of test for mediation proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) and provides convincing evidence of mediation (support of Hypotheses 1a & 1b).

Second, the estimation of the overall model presenting negative effect of OCB on ACS shows support for Hypothesis 2b. It also

Table 2. Descrive Statistics and Correlations

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Perceived organizational support	3.15	0.90								
2. Social exchange	2.91	0.91	.80**							
3. Leader member exchange	3.55	1.04	.54**	.43**						
4. Job satisfaction	3.27	1.03	.60**	.61**	.36**					
5. Perceived quality reasons	3.92	0.84	.25**	.25**	.10	.22**				
6. Perceived manipulation reasons	2.93	1.06	-.25**	-.17*	-.05	-.16*	-.26**			
7. Perceived change benefit	3.29	0.92	.53**	.51**	.24*	.31**	.52**	-.53**		
8. Active change support	3.02	1.15	-.02	-.06	.02	-.12	.16*	-.25**	.32**	
9. Citizenship behavior	3.63	0.83	.52**	.40**	.45**	.36**	.24**	-.13**	.40**	.30**

Note. N = 123

*p < .05, **p < .01

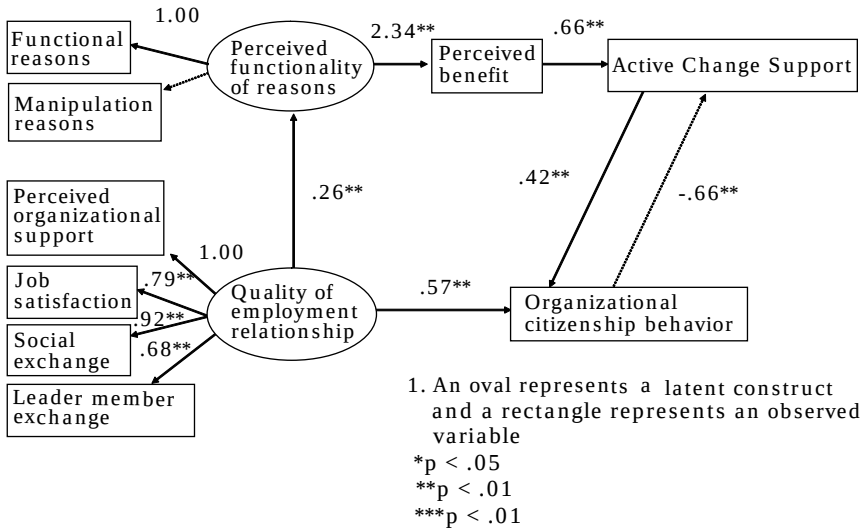


Figure 2. Model Estimations-Motives of ACS and its Relationship with OCB

suggests that quality employment relationship has a negative impact on ACS such that good citizens representing quality relations provide less support for change. However, we need careful attention interpreting this result. I included quality employment relationship variable in the model in order to specify that OCB is a function of quality employment relationship, the evidence of which is prevailing in the existing literature (See Organ and Ryan 1995 and Podsakoff et al., 2000 for review). I never expected that OCB should mediate the link between quality employment relationship and ACS and no existing theory supports this relationship, either. The complex relationship can be better interpreted by estimating the model again with added direct effect from quality employment relationship to ACS. Model fit was significantly superior without direct effect, Δx^2 (1, N = 123) = 4.34, $p < .05$ but the direct effect was statistically significant (β = -.51, $p < .01$). This result fundamentally violates the conditions of mediational relationship (Baron & Kenny, 1986) and suggests that negative path coefficient from OCB to ACS in the default model is primarily a function of negative association between quality employment relationship and ACS. More specifically, when I regressed quality employment relationship

Table 3. Results of Regression Analysis for ACS

Variables	β^a	t
Control variables		
Age	-.02	-.19
Tenure	.08	.75
Education	.11	1.25
Gender	-.01	-.12
Employment status (Part vs. Full time)	-.23**	-2.66**
OCB	.47***	4.75***
Employment relationship factor	-.29**	-2.75**
R-square .	26	
Adjusted R-square	.21	
F		5.24***

[a]Standardized β coefficient
*p < .05
**p < .01
***p < .001

Table 4. Results of Regression Analysis for OCB

Variables	β^a	t
Control variables		
Age	-.08	-.85
Tenure	.14	1.55
Education	.08	.98
Gender	.00	.04
Employment status (Part vs. Full time)	.16*	2.10*
ACS	.37***	4.75***
Employment relationship factor	.56***	7.00***
R-square	.42	
Adjusted R-square	.47	
F	8.28***	

[a]Standardized β coefficient
*p < .05
**p < .01
***p < .001

(factor score of employment relationship) on ACS while controlling for OCB, quality employment relationship has a strong negative relationship with ACS (β = -.29, p < .01, see table 3).

Finally, the result of the specified model provides evidence that engagement of ACS is positively associated with evaluation of citizenship behavior (support of Hypothesis 2a). Additional regression analysis with relevant control variables confirmed that ACS is significantly associated with OCB even when controlling for employment relationship factor (See table 4).

DISCUSSION

The main purpose of the current study has remained two-fold: investigation of the factors that motivate individuals to engage in ACS and its relationship with conventional extra-role behaviors. First, while most of empirical studies in extra-role behaviors literature seek attitudinal or dispositional antecedents, the current study highlighted the importance of active thinking process that motivates people to engage in ACS. While "human habits of mind" or automatic cognitive activity works well to guide individuals' interpretation and behavior in responding to familiar social situations, active thinking process involving consideration of associated costs and benefits and belief in justification come into play when one faces something that "stands out of the ordinary" such as organizational change (Louis and Sutton 1991).

The current study showed that individuals were motivated to support organizational change when they expected socioeconomic benefits from change and when they believed in the organizational justification for change. Contrastingly, the effect of traditional extra-role behavior predictors (i.e., high quality employment relationship) on ACS is not straightforward. Although conventional extra-role behavior has almost always been depicted in connection with positive job attitudes (i.e., the indicators of quality employment relationship), their association with ACS is ambiguous and needs more careful attention.

The estimated model indicates two distinctive paths from quality employment relationship to ACS. In figure 2, the path that goes through perceived reasons and perceived change benefit represents the positive effect of quality employment relationship on ACS. Because an employee's relationship with the organization shapes the employee's interpretation of

organizational actions, an employee holding a good employment relationship will generate more positive construal of organizational change and consequently be more likely to engage in ACS (Rousseau and Tijoriwala 1999). On the other hand, the path that goes through OCB in figure 2 represents negative effect of employment relationship on ACS. Since employees currently enjoying quality employment relationship desire to maintain the status quo, they are reluctant to support change-enhancing activities. In sum, employees in quality employment relationship develop ambivalent responses where positive-valent and negative-valent attitudes exist at the same time (Cacioppo and Bernston 1994; Piderit 2000). This ambivalent effect of quality employment relationship on ACS is further evidenced by non-significant raw correlation between every indicator of employment relationship and ACS as shown in table 2.

Second, although ACS has been regarded as a unique form of extra-role behavior, their inter-relationship is not as simple as it appears in raw correlation score because of their distinctive underlying motives. The use of structural equation model enabled the current study to examine their inter-relationship in a structural manner by simultaneously investigating relevant causal factors of each construct. Since both ACS and OCB have similar features such as voluntarism, non-reward and promotion of organizational effectiveness, an individual who engages in ACS (i.e., a subset of OCB in a specific organizational context) is viewed as a good citizen by his/her manager. Contrastingly, however, an individual being assessed as a good citizen does not necessarily engage in ACS. On the contrary, that individual is less likely to engage in ACS. This is especially so when a good citizen holds quality employment relationship and therefore he/she is reluctant to change the satisfactory status quo.

This result contradicts prevailing description of good citizens as "always desired" (Organ 1988; Schnake 1991; Van Dyne and LePine 1998). There is no doubt that good citizens promote normal function of organizations by helping coworkers, staying late at work, attending organizational meetings, and so forth. However, when it comes to change of the status quo and especially when this change affects good citizens' current well-being, they confront motivational dilemma. This motivational dilemma is the result of the tension between propensity to

maintain the status quo and intention to help the organization move forward. Good citizens who have engaged in conventional extra-role behaviors as an outgrowth of quality employment relationship have such a strong attachment to the status quo that they are not easily motivated to participate in the change process.

LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The current study also comes with some limitations and it is necessary to discuss some of those limitations for better research efforts in the future. First, the small sample size should be noted regarding the issue of adequate level of analysis power. According to the guideline for power analysis in structural equation modeling (SEM) provided by MacCallum, Browne and Sugawara (1996), the power of the SEM analysis in the current paper given the N = 123 and df = 24 is less than .50. However, power is not the single source to evaluate the adequacy or appropriateness of the tested model and other criteria should be carefully considered. For example, strong indication of the model fit based on different fit indices in the current paper (IFI = .99, NNFI = .99, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .04 and x^2(24, N=123) = 31.3, p>.10.) should compensate for relative low power level of the analyses offered in the current paper (MacCallum et al., 1996). Also, other complementary analyses used in the current paper on the same sample with higher power (over .80 for the factor analysis with N = 123 and df = 320) and auxiliary regression analyses confirming the SEM results add to the robustness of the current findings.

Second, the fact that all the measures (except for OCB) are obtained from a self-report creates the potential for common method variance. Following recommendations by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff (2003), Harman's single-factor test was performed in order to test possible presence of common method variance. I forced all the items to be loaded on one factor and examined the fit of this single-factor model. If the common method variance exists, this one-factor model should indicate a good fit with the data (Podsakoff et al. 2003; Podsakoff and Organ 1986). A one-factor model did not fit the data well (CFI =

.47, NNFI = .43, IFI = .41, RMSEA = .21). In sum, the above analysis evidences that common method bias is not a likely explanation of reported findings.

Despite its noted limitations, the findings in the present paper provide several important implications for future research. First, the current findings call for more attention to ambivalence in workers' beliefs, attitudes, intentions and behaviors. Ample evidence of ambivalence as a psychological condition exists in psychology literature. For example, people have ambivalent interpersonal attachment orientation of both desires for closeness and distance simultaneously (Mickelson, Kessler and Shaver 1997) and individuals attempting to quit smoking have strong positive and strong negative beliefs and feelings about smoking (Petty and Cacioppo 1996). However, there has been relatively little attention to ambivalence in organizational behavior research and we have focused on black-and-white distinction of the relationship between antecedents and their consequences. As the context of employment relationship becomes more complex and coupled with rapid change, the likelihood of ambivalence in beliefs, attitudes and activities increases (Lewicki, McCallister, and Bies 1998) and thus more attention to multi-consequential effects of focal antecedents and more realistic interpretations of causal relationships are desired in future studies.

Second, the results of this study challenge the viability of existing assumptions about good citizens. The idea that good citizens are inherently positive (both motivationally and consequentially) remains the overwhelming focus in the current extra-role behavior literature. However, the current findings breed an important implication in the literature by showing that good citizens can be obstacles to organizational change because they may resist organizational change that they believe will affect their current well-being in the organization. The empirical finding that citizenship behaviors were unrelated to work group performance supports this possibility (Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie 1997). Therefore, it is desired that future research on extra-role behavior addresses its negative as well as positive consequences in order to provide a more realistic and systematic view.

Third, we found that employees use calculative approach to

participate in the organizational change. The findings are consistent with previous results dealing with change-oriented OCB (Morrison and Phelps 1999). It is a quite convincing argument especially when employees perceive new change attempts as new and uncertain phenomena. However, we know little about employee responses to call for change efforts when change stage reaches institutionalization where the change-associated outcomes are certain and predictable and participation in the change efforts have become the norm of employment contract (Dawson 2003). Potential longitudinal studies investigating employee responses in different stages of organizational change are expected to answer such questions.

Finally, the current findings suggest more thrust for investigation of previously neglected forms of extra-role behaviors. In contrast to the strong evidence in the existing research that broad form of extra-role behaviors is a consequence of social exchange that involves intangible, often long-term, and social relationships, our study has shown that specific form of extra-role behavior in the context of change was a consequence of active cognitive thinking process rather than an outgrowth of positive attitudes. Likewise, other forms of extra-role behaviors may involve their specific and context-sensitive predictors other than attitudinal or dispositional antecedents. The investigation of such context-specific extra-role behaviors and their relevant predictors will provide broader understanding of employee behaviors in more complex context of organizations.

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