

**INFLUENCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR ON
PERFORMANCE OF CASUAL EMPLOYEES IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES
IN KENYA**

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**Influence of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour on Performance
of Casual Employees in Public Universities in Kenya**

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**A Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment for the Award of the degree
of Doctor of Philosophy in Human Resource Management in the
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DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

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DEDICATION

To the Lord Almighty for guiding and sustaining me up to this date.

To my parents for their support, warmth and patience for raising me up, their pride and contribution for a wonderful work done. To my brother and sisters for the respect they have accorded me. To my wife, Rachel and children Daisy, Derrick and Debby, thanks for their patience and support while I was undertaking my studies.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS /ABBREVIATION

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development
CUK	Co-operative University of Kenya
EPZ	Export Processing Zone
FKE	Federation of Kenya Employers
GoK	Government of Kenya
HRM	Human Resource Management
IT	Information Technology
JKUAT	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology
KPMG	Klynveld Peat Marwick and Goerdeler
KU	Kenyatta University
MMU	Multimedia University
NHS	National Health Services
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OSH	Occupational Health and Safety
OST	Organizational Support Theory
POS	Perceived Organization Support
PSS	Perceived Supervisor Support
SER	Standard Employment Relations
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TWA	Theory of Work Adjustment
U.K	United Kingdom
UoN	University of Nairobi

DEFINITION OF TERMS

- Altruism:** It is helping the colleagues to perform their tasks. Altruism and conscientiousness have been considered in one group entitled helping behaviors by some researchers (Castro *et al.*, 2004).
- Casualisation:** The spread of bad conditions of work such as employment insecurity, irregular hours, intermittent employment, low wages and an absence of standard employment benefits (Basso, 2003).
- Civil Virtue:** Behavior that shows attention to participation in collective life. For example, performing the tasks that the employee is not obliged to perform but it is in the interest of the organization (Castro *et al.*, 2004).
- Conscientiousness:** Behavior that is beyond the determined exigencies at the workplace by the organization, for instance, overtime work in the interests of the organization (Castro *et al.*, 2004).
- Job Satisfaction:** Job satisfaction is a multidimensional psychological responses to an individual's job, and that these personal responses have cognitive (evaluative), affective (or emotional), and behavioral components (Hulin & Judge, 2003).
- Job security:** The confidence of being able to keep, find or create gainful employment, now and in future, based on the development of your own human capital on well-functioning labor market (Auer, 2007).
- Nonstandard worker:** Persons working nonstandard hours when they work other than fixed schedules in the previous week (Presser, 2003).
- Organizational Citizenship Behavior:** An employee's behavior that is not directly rewarded or formally required but can be beneficial to the organization in a number of ways (Smith *et al.*, 1983).

Organizational Commitment: Human resource management policies designed to maximize organizational integration, employee commitment, flexibility and quality of work and an individual's psychological attachment to organization (Guest, 1987).

Precarious employment: Nonstandard employment that is poorly paid, insecure, unprotected, and cannot support a household (Fudge *et al.*, 2006).

Public University: This is an institution of Higher Learning which is partly funded by the exchequer and which provides an educational program for which the institution awards a bachelor's degree or post graduate (GoK, 2006).

Sportsmanship: Employees' goodwill at the workplace whenever the conditions are not highly desirable, not complaining to the manager about the status and observing positive aspects of work among the problems (Castro *et al.*, 2004).

Training: The planned and systematic modification of behavior through learning events, programmes and instructions which enable individuals to achieve the levels of knowledge, skill and competence needed to carry out their work effectively (CIPD, 2001).

ABSTRACT

The objective of this study was to establish the role of organizational citizenship behavior on the performance of casual employees in the Kenyan public universities. Specifically, the study was to establish the influences of sportsmanship, altruism, civic virtue, courtesy, conscientiousness on casual employees' performance and work environment as a moderating variable. The population of the study comprised casual employees in five selected public universities in Kenya. The selected Universities included University of Nairobi, Kenyatta University, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, The Co-operative University and Multimedia University. The target population comprised 3130 casual employees in the five public universities with a sample size of 310 casual employees. Qualitative research design was used whereby questionnaires were given to the respondents to fill and descriptive statistics embraced to analyze data using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16.0. The findings of the study showed that all the five constructs of OCB under consideration namely; sportsmanship, altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness and courtesy influenced casual employees' performance in Kenyan public universities significantly positive. Sportsmanship significantly showed a positive correlation with casual employees' performance similar with altruism which correlated significantly with casual employees' performance. Likewise, civic virtue showed similar positive correlation with employees' performance similar with courtesy and conscientiousness which significantly affected casual employees' performance positively. Using moderated multiple regression analysis the moderating effect of the variable work environment was analysed by interpreting the R^2 change and was found to be positive. This therefore indicates that work environment moderates sportsmanship, altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness and courtesy significantly positively with casual employees' performance in Kenyan public universities. It is therefore concluded that the five constructs of OCB considered in this study i.e. sportsmanship, altruism, courtesy, civic virtue and conscientiousness influence the performance of casual employees in Kenyan public universities. Work environment on the other hand moderates sportsmanship, altruism, courtesy, civic virtue and conscientiousness significantly

positively with casual employees' performance. The study recommends that its appropriate for the management of public universities in Kenya to consider encouraging and promoting sportsmanship, altruism, civic virtue, courtesy, conscientiousness and conducive work environments in the cadre of casual employees as approaches to enhance positive performance.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) is conceptualized as positive behavior and willingness to exert energy for success of the organization. Organizations have long been interested in the role of management on how employees think and feel about their jobs, as well as what employees are willing to dedicate to the organization (Dorothea, 2013). Miller (2002) agreed that a person who engaged in OCB might receive appreciation and recognition that includes positive emotion and a greater likelihood of repeating the OCB.

1.1.1 Global Perspective

According to Organ *et al.*, (2006), OCB is known to influence organizational effectiveness, because they enhance coworker and managerial productivity, adapts to environmental changes, improves organizations' ability to attract and retain the best people and obtain stability of organizational performance and organizational effectiveness by creating social capital. Todd (2003) maintained that, OCB should have a particular impact on the overall effectiveness of organizations by adding to the social framework of the work environment. Ertürk, *et al.*, (2004) opined that organizational citizenship behavior has important effects on the effectiveness, efficiency and profitability of the organizations. In the same, Vein Cohen and Vigoda, (2000) agreed that OCB can improve co-worker and managerial productivity, provide superior efficiency in resource use and allocation, reduce managerial expenses, provide better coordination of organizational activities across individuals, groups and functional departments, improve organizational attractiveness for high quality new recruits, increase stability in the organization's performance, enhance organizational capability to adapt effectively to environmental changes.

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) plays very important role for the better functioning of any organization, defined as behavior that (a) is something extra beyond the basic job description, (b) is without any compensation, and (c) is for the betterment to the organization (Lambert (2006). Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) has been identified by the researchers having considerable financial, nonfinancial, short-term, and long-term outcomes that lead to organizational efficiency and effectiveness Andaleeb, Shahjehan, Zeb and Saifullah (2011).

Since the early work of Organ and colleagues, the domain of citizenship behaviour has grown at an impressive rate Podsakoff *et al.*, (2000), with two primary effects. First, researchers have identified a large number of related constructs. Second, there is an impressive amount of substantive research on the antecedents and consequences of OCB and related constructs. The term organizational citizenship behavior to refer to employee behavior that contributes to the broader organizational, social, and psychological environment in the work context. These behaviors tend not to be perceived as in-role or as part of an employee's job and tend not to lead to formal organizational rewards Karam, (2011).

Another writer explains Organizational Citizenship Behavior as follows:- organizational citizenship behavior is behavior that, although not a part of job of employee, but play a very important role for the functioning of organization (Lee and Allen (2002). Global competition highlights the importance of innovation, flexibility, responsiveness, and Cooperativeness for long-term organizational success. Innovative and spontaneous behaviors Vitality is revealed in protecting organization in an ever-changing environment. As a necessity, Organizations will become more dependent on employees who are willing to contribute effective Organizational functioning, regardless of their formal role requirements. Employee behaviors. Like citizenship behaviors become more important and even crucial for organization's survival. Organizational Citizenship Behavior (organizational citizenship behavior) is something which is very different from the usual job performance .if some individual is not involved in this behavior he is not held responsible or liable by the organization but ultimately it is for the betterment of the organization. Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (organizational citizenship behavior s) are the personal choice

of the employees he is not paid for this behavior. Organizational citizenship behaviors are having a very positive and clear impact on the functioning of organization. Organizational citizenship behaviors are often considered a subset of employees conditions and their evaluation on their job One of the most important thing is to consider is organization loyalty if an employee is loyal with his or her organization he will work beyond his responsibilities and without any reward so it is the responsibility of the employer to create this spirit among the employees. Ultimately it is for the betterment of the organization. Organizational citizenship behavior is discretionary behavior that is not part of an employee formal Organizational Citizenship Behavior has a major impact on the effective functioning of organization. Therefore organizational citizenship behavior can be construed as the social lubricant of the organizational machinery. Organizational citizenship behavior to be an extra-role behavior i.e. it is any behavior not officially required by the organization, rather its practice depends solely on the consent of employee as a consequence of the organizational environment. organizational citizenship behavior makes the impact on organization effectiveness; organizational citizenship behavior should have a particular impact on the overall effectiveness of organizations by adding to the social framework of the work environment

In competitive business environment organization need workers who can freely give up their time and energy in order to complete a given task. Though there are seen and unforeseen situations that might occur in the course of achieving such task, most employees still put their best, however, such employees are rarely found. Thus, the behavior portrayed by such employee is known as organizational citizenship behavior. According to Podsakkoff, Mackenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000), OCB leverages an organization into successful and efficient application of limited capital, attraction and retention of employees, increased of service and product quality, expansion / diversification of resource, goodwill from stakeholders and public, also attracts more investors To employee, CIPMN, Report, (2015), argued that OCB provides avenue that encourage workers to move, creates a provoking learning ability where employee can look through and grab new ideas, have the ability to change the knowledge into constructive actions and enhance a „dynamic sensor“

where workers have the innate feeling for timing, ability to read situations and seek for opportunity, increase in his or her level of trust and integrity for the organization, reduced rate of turnover and absenteeism, increase in commitment and morale, improve cordial relationship and personal development through creative and innovative skills

Many managers do not understand the approach to lead their employees' effectively in practice, and this situation is harmful to an organization. So, managers have to realize the mind and behaviors of employees, then effectively manage them. This study is based on this perspective, and researchers wish the research results can assist managers to lead employees and improve organizational effectiveness. The researchers of the present study consider OCB as an important issue in practice and academic fields. Bowler, Halbesleben, and Paul (2010) cite the opinion of Katz, which indicates that the successful organization does not only depend on the performance behaviors in job descriptions. Although the organizational citizenship behavior is a type of extra-role behavior, it is an important issue for organizational effectiveness Bove, Pervan, Beatty and Shiu, (2009). Judging from the above, organizational citizenship behavior is a critical issue for an organization or a company. Many scholars and researchers have examined OCB, but the present authors' find that the previous studies discussed loyalty, participation, and obedience dimensions of OCB that were not sufficient. Therefore, the present researchers desire to compensate for this shortcoming in the existing literature. Despite the high number of studies that discuss OCB, the present authors find that prior research does not adequately explore the relationships sportsmanship, altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy and work environment among others. Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), has been a subject of focus by researchers due to increasing evidence of OCB's impact on organizational and individual performance (Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009). OCB has the potential to increase organization efficiency by enhancing employee task performance and productivity (e.g., Organ, 1997; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000). According to Organ *et al.* (2006), when experienced employees voluntarily help new employees learn the ropes it enables the employees to become productive employees faster, thus improving the efficiency of

the work team. Besides improving work efficiency, OCB may also help to increase the stability of organizational performance. For example, conscientious employees tend to maintain a consistently high output level, hence reducing variability in a work team's performance. Furthermore, organizational effectiveness may be enhanced when OCB exists through the creation of social capital (e.g., social capital is enhanced through the strengthening of network ties when employees exhibit helping behavior, resulting in improvement of information transfer and organizational learning and effective execution of organizational activities) (Organ et al., 2006). Other outcomes of OCB at the organizational level include reduced costs and customer satisfaction Podsakoff *et al.*, (2009). Besides organizational outcomes, OCB is related to individual level outcomes, including managerial assessment of employee performance, decisions on reward allocation and various withdrawal-related factors such as absenteeism, employee turnover intention and actual turnover (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009).

1.1.2 Local Perspective

In Africa, many research studies have been conducted regarding the impact of working conditions on employee productivity. Levert *et al.*, (2000) conducted a research study on South African nurses and found high burnout on three levels: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and low personal accomplishment. They attributed the nursing burnout to a high workload and other organizational factors within the hospital. In addition, a study conducted in South Africa found that working condition has negative impact to the productivity of casual employees. Noble (2003) states that more attention should be paid in identifying and Educational Research International dealing with working conditions because when employees have negative perception to their environment they sometimes suffer from chronic stress.

Kenyan Universities, both public and private have embarked on a rapid expansion of the programmes and decentralization of campuses leading to rising enrolment rates of self-sponsored students despite diminishing financial resources from the government. This is due to lack of policy on the casual workers. Public Universities are also referred to as State Universities since they are funded by the Central Government while Private Universities are those started and fully run by private and /or religious organizations. The first University in Kenya, University of Nairobi, was founded in 1970 as the Royal Technical College of Africa in April 1952 (Ogechi, 2009). At present, there exist over thirty public and private Universities in Kenya. There are now 22 fully fledged public universities, 14 chartered private and 13 with letters of interim authority in Kenya. Over the years, the government has placed great emphasis on education whose role in promoting socio-economic and political development cannot be gained whatsoever (Sifuna, 1998). Indeed, that is why the government has been keen to rapidly expand University education which in the recent past posed serious challenges in the leaders and managers of the Universities (Nyaigoti-Chacha, 2004).

However, as Cheboi (2004) observed, the government has been facing constraints in funding the Universities and foreign partnerships and financing have played a crucial role in alleviating the Universities' financial shortcomings (Kiptoo, 2004). Nevertheless, financial limitations still remain the Universities' main challenge yet they are expected to provide quality education to their clients (students) whose population has been growing rapidly. Thus, due to limited finances and large student numbers have brought challenges not only of maintaining but also improving the quality of their services. It is because of this situation that some Universities in their attempts to be economical in expenditure, have considered casualisation as an option in their efforts to cut costs, improve efficiency and meet the demands for greater accountability.

Long term trends and dynamics of employment in Kenya reveal a declining number of jobs being created in the formal sector as compared to those in the informal sector. Employment creation has remained a policy priority of Kenya government since independence in 1963. The aspiration is contained in all relevant government policy documents and national development agenda, the latest being Kenya Vision 2030 and the country's new Constitution.

In order to achieve the country's ambitious transformation, massive investment in the human capital to accelerate service delivery is inevitable and considered strategic. The sentiment of this study is further echoed through studies by Kosgei, *et al.*, (2013) and CIDA (2010) which illustrated that performance contracting in civil service in Kenya is widely perceived as not having brought any meaningful change in the quality of service delivery to the populace. Thus, may jeopardize the realization of the Vision 2030 targets that may depend on the human resource capacity development and management. It seems that the performance management and service delivery effort (which is part of the larger HRM practices) does not have significant impacts on employee discretionary behavior. This contradicts the studies by Nemeth and Staw (2009), Turniseed and Rassuli (2005), and Gupta and Singh (2010) that suggest there is a strong relationship between HRM practices and OCB. Nevertheless, while the research on OCB in the public service environment are limited to the developed economies only, the role played by HRM in the development of OCB behaviors in the same environment in developing countries like Kenya is totally a new area. Nickson *et al.*, (2008) argued that there are many problems associated with recruitment but they can be improved by attracting the employees with affective commitment.

Commitment oriented recruitment is strongly related to the expressive communications and appeals to values and beliefs and in the similar manner commitment-oriented selection have a focus on assessment of values and beliefs, and also on the degree of their congruency with organizational values (Weiner, 1985). Further, the study by Farh, and Organ (2004) indicated that while investigating the OCB, researchers should examine the contextual dimensions of OCB under certain societal culture and economic institutional framework; the Kenyan perspective will

definitely offer the felt need for these empirical antecedents. The study attempted to unravel the influence of organizational citizenship behavior on performance of casual employees in selected Public Universities from a practical dimension and implied theoretical frameworks.

1.1.3 Organizational Citizenship Behaviour on Employees

Organizational Citizenship Behavior was first illustrated in the work of Bateman and organ (1983) 24 years ago and is recently gaining momentum. Organ (1988) revealed that OCB could affect the performance of the individual and in the organization. Various studies have demonstrated that OCB has a positive influence on improving the performance in the Organization (Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1994; Krllowicz & Lowery, 1996; Podsakoff, Ahearne & Mackenzie, 1997). Organizations need employees who are willing to do the work that exceeds a predetermined job description. OCB is considered important because it can increase the effectiveness of the organization (Cohen & Vigoda, 2000).

Organ (1988) explains OCB as a distinct behavior, which is not directly recognized by the formal reward system but in the average promotes the organizational performance. Understanding how OCB works is crucial in organizations because of the downsizing and rightsizing in response to the economic pressures (May–Chiun Lo *et al.*, 2009). Some studies have revealed the drastic growth of OCB researches in management related areas like strategic management, leadership, human resource management (May–Chiun Lo *et al.*, 2009). Literature reveals that OCB has contributed positively to organizational outcomes such as service quality (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Bell & Mengue, 2002), Organizational Commitment (Podsakoff, Mckenzie & Bommer, 1996), Job Involvement (Dimitriades, 2007), leader–member exchange (Bhal, 2006; Lo, Ramayah & Jerome, 2006).

Organ (1988) views OCB as the extra-role behavior since it is the act of job performance beyond the stated job requirement. Employees go beyond the contract signed by them at the time of entering the organization and they perform non-obligatory tasks without expecting any rewards or recognition (Organ, 1988). It is demonstrated that the support given by the leaders is the strongest predictor of significant OCB by the employees (Lepine *et al.*, 2002). OCB has also been shown to enhance the social attractiveness in a work unit (Aquino and Bommer, 2003). Researches reveal that there are five basic personality factors affecting most of the variance in personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992) and these dimensions are called as the Big Five dimensions, which include conscientiousness, altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship and civic virtue. These dimensions are explained below.

Conscientiousness indicates if a particular individual is organized, accountable and hardworking will enhance performance (Lo *et al.*, 2009). Organ (1988) defined conscientiousness as the dedication to the job, which exceed formal requirements such as working long hours, and volunteer to perform jobs besides duties. Literature also reveals that conscientiousness can be related to organizational politics among employees (McCrae & Costa, 1987). Conscientiousness is used to indicate that a particular individual is organized, self-disciplined, accountable and hardworking. Organ (1988) defined it as dedication to the job which exceed formal requirements such as working long hours, and volunteer to perform jobs besides duties. It is interesting to note that Kidder and Parks (1993) posited the fact that males are more likely to engage in conscientious behaviour than females in view of the fact that males have preference for equity over equality.

Smith, Organ & Near (1983) defined altruism as voluntary behaviors where an employee provides assistance to an individual with a particular problem to complete his/her task under unusual circumstances. It refers to the employee helping his / her colleagues in their work, May-Chiun Lo *et al.* (2009). Podsakoff *et al.* (2000) has proved a significant relationship between altruism and positive affectivity. Podsakoff *et al.* (2000) has demonstrated that altruism was significantly related to performance evaluations and correspondingly, positive affectivity.

Courtesy refers to a behavior that prevents problems and takes the essential steps to lessen the results of the problem in future May–Chiun *Lo et al.* (2009). Courtesy also means members encouraging other members in their work. Literature reveals that a courteous employee would help reduce the intergroup conflict and thus reduce the time spent on conflict management activities Podsakoff *et al.* (2000). A courteous employee prevents managers from falling into the pattern of crisis management by making a sincere effort to avoid creating problems for co-workers Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997). Organ (1988) defined sportsmanship as the behavior of warmly tolerating the irritations that are an unavoidable part of nearly every organizational setting. It has been demonstrated that good sportsmanship enhances the morale of the work group and thus reduces the attrition rate (Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1997). Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) publicized that good sportsmanship would enhance the morale of the employees at the workplace and consequently reduce employee turnover.

Deluga (1998) defines civic virtue as the subordinate participation in organization political life and supporting the administrative function of the organization. It refers to the employees' participation in the political life of the organization like attending meetings, which are not really required by the firm and thus keeping up with the changes in the organization (Organ, 1988). Graham's findings reveal that the subordinates should have a responsibility to be a good citizen of the organization (Graham, 1991). Moreover, it has been shown that civic virtue improves the quality of performance and aids in reducing the customer complaints (Walz & Niehoff, 1996).

Civic virtue is behaviour on the part of an individual that indicates that employee dutifully participates in, is actively involved in, and is concerned about the life of the company (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990). Civic virtue represents a macro level interest in, or commitment to, to the organization. It shows willingness to participate actively in organization's events, monitor organization's environment for threats and opportunities, to work out the best alternative for the organization. These behaviours occur when employees reckon themselves with the organization and consider themselves to be part of the organization. The three dimensions mentioned above

namely the civic virtue, conscientiousness and altruism are together termed as help oriented behaviour (Irene Hau–Siu Chow, 2009).

In the case of higher institutions of learning, achieving its strategic goals would strongly depend on her capacity to attract, retain and maintain competent and satisfied staff into its employment. Universities being institutions of higher learning that provide manpower, need to advance national development for both the public and private sector and must themselves be capable of ensuring adequate manpower planning and development. Therefore, they cannot afford to neglect essential needs of the workforce job satisfaction through exhibition of high organizational citizenship behaviour. In order to achieve the country's ambitious transformation, massive investment in the human capital to accelerate service delivery is inevitable and considered strategic. According to Lawal and Oluwatoyin (2011), the institutions of higher learning are such agents of development in any nation and the transformation of any society or system depends on the effectiveness and efficiency of their services. An efficient and performing public service is a major factor in enhancing economic growth and prosperity (GoK, 2006).

They are responsible for successful development of an open and democratic civil society, universities give their students deep insight of specific subject knowledge; provision of the social norms of communication and interaction. A quality education providing institute is always a prove to be a model for modern civil society (Batool & Qureshi, 2007). Although the majority of studies focus on the antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior, the consequences of these acts have also been examined (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998 & Dunlop & Lee, 2004 & Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004 & Koys, 2001 & Walz & Niehoff, 2000). In particular, researchers have investigated whether of organizational citizenship behavior culminate in positive consequences for the individuals themselves, such as performance evaluations and rewards, as well as for the organizations, as gauged by productivity and profitability, for instance. In most instances, citizenship behavior is positively related to the wellbeing of individuals and the functioning of organizations. Nevertheless, some exceptions have been unearthed in specific settings. For example, organizational

citizenship behavior can be associated with role overload and conflicts between work and family (Bolino & Turnley, 2005).

Loyalty to organization has been derived from the concept of organizational obligation which is based on three concepts; accepting the organizational goals and values, extra struggle on behalf of the organization, and desire to remain with the organization (Mowdey *et al.*, 1982). Casual employees have not secured a permanent position in the organization, this non secure position effects their loyalty. A well-managed organization usually sees an average worker as the route source of quality and productivity gains. Such organizations do not look to capital investment, but to employees, as the fundamental source of improvement. An organization is effective to the degree to which it achieves its goals. An effective organization would make sure that there is a spirit of co-operation and sense of commitment and satisfaction within the sphere of its influence. In order to make employees satisfied and committed to their jobs in their workplaces, there is need for strong and effective motivation at the various levels, departments and sections. Motivation is the management process of influencing behavior based on the knowledge of what people think (Tella *et al.*, 2007; Olusegun, 2012).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The world is looking forward to high performance organizations, which would provide high job satisfaction to their employees and would also cherish excellence and effectiveness. The use of casual employment is becoming popular in many organizations in our country. More and more workers in permanent employment are losing their jobs through retirement, natural departure and are being re-employed as or replaced by casual or contract workers. Casual work which is supposed to be a form of temporary employment has acquired the status of permanent employment in many organizations in Kenya without the statutory benefits associated with permanent employment status. Casual workers are subject to lower pay, barred from their right to join a union, and denied medical and other benefits

OCB research was originally conducted in the area of business organizations, particularly manufacturing companies. However, there are limited numbers of studies that discuss the factors that influence OCB on the performance of university employees especially those employed on casual employees. Noble (2003) stated that more attention should be paid in identifying and dealing with working conditions because when employees have negative perception to their work environment they sometimes suffer from chronic stress. In assessments of working and employment conditions, including issues of occupational safety and health, maternity protection, work-family issues, homework, working time, wages and income, work organization, sexual harassment, violence at work, workload, worker's welfare facilities, housing, nutrition and environment, the millions of women and men in micro and small enterprises and the informal economy face perhaps the greatest problems among the working population (Rinehart, 2004). Conducive work environment ensures the wellbeing of employees always enables them exert themselves to their roles with all forces that may translate to higher productivity (Akinyele, 2007).

The rise in the engagement of casual workers in the Universities is not in tandem with the other staffs since the focus is on the core business of teaching and research. This poses a danger not only to the casual workers themselves but also the organization in which they work, as they are entrusted with sensitive information. According to Ngome (2010) universities are not only competing for customers (students) but also for staff.

Researchers have specifically focused on positive organizational behavior (POB; e.g., Luthans, 2002; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Wright & Quick, 2009) and have endeavored to learn more about traits, capabilities, and behaviors that lead employees to help others, build connections, and thrive at work. The positive psychology movement has sought to better understand desirable human traits and behaviors and to investigate factors that enable people to function more effectively (Gable & Haidt, 2005; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). In the international literature, casual jobs, either in the narrow sense or in the broader sense of jobs are without rights and benefits, and are widely seen as symptoms of an earlier, raw phase of capitalist

development, which has been superseded by the evolution of co-operative employment relations and industrial citizenship.

Casualisation is seen as bad not only because it draws more workers into the net of casual work but also because it exerts downward pressure on the wages and conditions even of those employees that continue to be viewed as ‘permanent’. Both cases are often identified at workplace level with processes such as outsourcing and labour hire, which threatens the direct or indirect replacement of permanent workers by casual workers (Hall, 2000, 2004). In both cases, the bad consequences for individual employees readily extend out to bad effects on families and communities (Pocock, 2003). This thesis focuses clearly on defining the relationship between the influence of organizational citizenship behavior and casual employees’ performance. It discusses the implications of the OCB and tries to find out how to improve performance.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

The general objective of this study is to establish the influence of organizational citizenship behavior and the moderating role of work environment on the performance of casual employees in public universities in Kenya.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

This study will be guided by the following specific objectives

1. To determine the influence of sportsmanship on casual employees’ performance in the Public Universities in Kenya.
2. To examine the effect of altruism on casual employees’ performance in the Public Universities in Kenya.
3. To establish the impact of civic virtue on casual employees’ performance in the Public Universities in Kenya.

4. To identify the influence of courtesy on casual employees' performance in the Public Universities in Kenya.
5. To find the influence of conscientiousness of the casual employees' performance in the Public in Kenya.
6. To ascertain the moderating effect of work environment on the relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and casual employees' performance in Public Universities in Kenya.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses guided the study:

Hypotheses: 1

Ho: Sportsmanship does not affect casual employees' performance in the Public Universities in Kenya.

Hypotheses: 2

Ho: Altruism does not influence casual employees' performance in Public Universities in Kenya?

Hypotheses: 3

Ho: Civic virtue does not influence casual employees' performance in the Public Universities in Kenya.

Hypotheses: 4

Ho: Courtesy does not influence casual employees' performance in the Public Universities in Kenya

Hypotheses: 5

Ho: Conscientiousness does not influence casual employees' performance in the Public Universities in Kenya?

Hypotheses: 6

Ho: There is no moderating effect of work environment on the relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and casual of employees' performance in the Public Universities in Kenya.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study forms a basis for understanding on how to handle casual employees who form great percentage of the workforce in many public universities in Kenya. It provides an understanding of their perception in relation to their work and performance.

Organizational citizenship behavior comes about as a result of job satisfaction. The study is important for managers who need to understand human behavior for them to be effective since they are able to allocate resources in the right manner. Human behavior is not random and cannot be predicted. Today's managers understand that the success of any effort at improving quality and productivity must include process reengineering, quality management programs, customer service improvements and employees.

The study aimed at contributing to the body of knowledge since it describes and identifies actions in which employees are willing to go above and beyond their prescribed role requirements. Therefore, reiterating the belief that these behaviors are correlated with indicators of organizational performance, hence, helping managers to an understanding on how to handle and manage the behaviors of these employees for the benefits of the organization and employees themselves.

Organizational citizenship is a consequence of organizational environment and is a mutual and reciprocal process between the organization and employee characterized by a two-way concern for each other contributing significantly towards citizenship. Further, citizenship is considered to be stronger when there is perception of organizational fairness and organizational justice (Folger & Cropanzola, 1998). In their study, (Uludag & Menevis, 2005) maintained that organizational justice is related to citizenship behavior. This behavior is also positively related to team cohesion which leads to positive performance and commitment of employees (George & Bettenhausen, 1990)

The ills caused by casualisation can be viewed from triple perspectives who are the beneficiaries. Casualisation presents lots of negative effects which is multi-faceted and hence, should not be perceived as having negative effects on the employees alone, but in a broader and indirect sense, it also has grave effects on the employer on the one hand the national economy. Today, casualisation is drawing more graduates and even skilled workers into the net of casual work with its attendant harshness and speakable conditions. This is partly because pay systems and employment conditions are always operated in a process that engenders comparison among the entire workforce. And on the employers, it is seen especially within the universities which champion the continuous use of casual workers, thus introducing lots of casual workers in their workplaces, sometimes structuring almost the entire workforce to be casual workers. These institutions unrepentantly, believe that casualisation brings with it numerous benefits such as increased flexibility and lower overhead cost (Benson, 2000). In the light of this, Cheadle (2006) suggests that there are three kinds of such flexibility, (i) Employment flexibility (the freedom to determine employment levels quickly and cheaply). (ii) Wage flexibility (the freedom to alter wage level without restraint) and (iii) Functional flexibility (the freedom to alter work processes, terms and conditions of employment cheaply). Meaning that employers according to him want the freedom to pay low wages; change the number of workers and how and when work is conducted.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The scope of the study was on casual employees of selected five Kenyan Public Universities. This is because casual employees though not much recognized, play a great role in organizations. Out of the 23 fully fledged universities in Kenya, the study was conducted in five sampled public universities since the study was not a census. It addressed the influence of OCB on performance of casual employees in these institutions. The universities sampled were Nairobi, Kenyatta, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, Muilt-Media University and The Co-operative University of Kenya. The study targeted nonacademic workers employed on casual basis.

1.7 Limitations of the study

The study depended on having access to casual employees in public universities. However, accessing to some of the institutions proved difficult. They felt insecure about the information being sought from the respondents. The researcher had to seek permission from the higher authorities from these institutions for ease access.

The level of education of the respondents proved to be low, hence they had some difficulties in understanding some of the questions. The supervisors of the various departments were requested to assist the casual employees to fill the questionnaires

Since the questionnaire was designed to measure the casual employees' attitude towards their performance, the strategies were assumed to give useful information about the impacts of their performance; however, it seems not adequate to provide enough evidence of their actual behavior on their performance.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The specific areas covered by this chapter include, empirical review theoretical review and conceptual framework, critique of existing literature and research gaps.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

This section highlights the theories upon which this study is hinged. They include; the theoretical framework that form the basis of the current study as elaborated in sub-sections 2.2.1 to 2.2.4

2.2.1 Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA)

The relationship between the employee and the organization is also reviewed by the Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA) (Dawis, 2004), which places emphasis on the interaction and how the workers change to fit into the workplace. This theory highlights the congruence between the requirements of the organization and the requirements of the employee. First, it is important to consider the employees' needs and expectations, which are supposed to be fulfilled through the organization (Dawis, 2004). Second, the employee has skills that are useful to succeed in this fulfillment. Third, most interactions between the employee and the organization are oriented towards these requirements. When there is a certain level of discrepancy between the needs of the employee and the reinforcement given by the organization, there is a change in the employee's behavior in order to reduce the conflict. Just as it is highlighted by Thorsteinson (2003), the level of conflict leads to employee dissatisfaction.

TWA requires a detailed understanding of the environmental requirements in terms of the knowledge, skill, and abilities (perceptual, cognitive, social, and physical), education, and experiences that are necessary for optimal functioning. The measurement of these requirements derives from the job analysis literature. Commensurate measurement provides information not only on what the individual has to offer but also on how well his or her supplies match the work requirements. This emphasis on stable individual differences is unique among career development theories, and although it implies certain limitations, it does not deny the influence of the situation or the potential for change.

Similarly, the environment is assessed in terms of the opportunities it has to offer individuals as motivational incentives, that is, its capacity to fulfil an individual's identified needs, values, and interests. Work adjustment is the outcome of a match, or correspondence, between requirements and supplies from both the individual and the work environment on the two dimensions described above. Three major criteria are viewed as indicators of work adjustment: satisfaction, satisfactoriness (i.e., satisfactory performance), and tenure.

2.2.2 Equity Theory

The psychological contract refers to beliefs about the terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organizations, and revolves around expectations suggested by that agreement, either explicitly or implicitly. While some individual casual workers prefer the transitory environment offered by casual work, many enter the casual labour market specifically with the intent on securing a permanent position.

Adams (1963) Equity Theory proposed, in general terms, that when individuals perceive a difference between their own input/outcome ratio and that of a referent other, a negative state of distress results that motivates those individuals to take action to restore equity to the situation. Because firms primarily control outcomes, adjustments nearly always occur on the input side of the ratio. In addition, employees who cannot achieve an acceptable "adjustment of the input: outcome ratio, either in

reality or by altering their perception of ratio, naturally resolves the situation by withdrawing from the organization (Cascio, 1991). Equity Theory would predict that casual workers who perform comparable tasks equally as well as their referent co-workers (in this case, permanent employees), but receive lower pay than the co-workers, may respond by seeking to increase outputs or by reducing input efforts in order to restore equity. The potential for such a scenario is high, because casual workers are typically paid less than permanent employees, even for equivalent work (Chew, 2004).

2.2.3 Social Exchange Theory

Organizational citizenship behaviour has been studied from different perspectives by various researchers. Some studies have used the social exchange theory to explain organizational commitment while others have used the attitudinal or behavioral approach. These different approaches to the study of organizational citizenship behavior are discussed below.

The exchange perspective views the employment relationship as consisting of social or economic exchanges (Guerrero, 2009). Economic exchange relationships involve the exchange of economic benefits in return for employees' effort and are often dependent on formal contracts which are legally enforceable. On the other hand, social exchanges are 'voluntary actions' which may be initiated by an organization's treatment of its employees, with the expectation that the employees were obligated to reciprocate the good deeds of the organization (Kibui, *et al.*, 2014). The exchange approach view of organizational commitment posits that individuals attach themselves to their organizations in return for certain rewards from the organizations (Mowday *et al.*, 1982). According to this view, employees enter organizations with specific skills, desires and goals, and expect to find an environment where they can use their skills, satisfy their desires and achieve their goals.

Perceptions of favorable exchange/rewards from the employees' viewpoint are expected to result in increased commitment to the organization. Similarly, the more abundant the perceived rewards in relation to costs, the greater the organizational

commitment. On the other hand, failure by the organization to provide sufficient rewards in exchange for the employees' efforts is likely to result in decreased organizational commitment. This perspective is consistent with Becker's (1960) idea of calculative commitment where individuals' commitment to the organization is in part, a function of accumulated investments. From the perspective of the employee-employer relationship, social exchange theory suggests that employees respond to perceived favorable working conditions by behaving in ways that benefit the organization and/or other employees. Equally, employees retaliate against dissatisfying conditions by engaging in negative work attitudes, such as absenteeism, lateness, tardiness or preparing to quit the organization (Haar, 2006; Crede *et al.*, 2007). It is therefore, expected that employees who perceive their working conditions to be negative and distressing, would reciprocate with negative work attitudes such as job dissatisfaction, low morale and reduced organizational commitment, while those who perceive the workplace conditions as positive and challenging would reciprocate with positive work attitudes, such as high commitment, job satisfaction and low turnover (Cropanzano *et al.*, 2003; Crede *et al.*, 2007).

Another perspective of the social exchange theory is the norm of reciprocity which is based on two assumptions: (a) people should help those who have helped them, and (b) people should not injure those who have helped them (Kirkebut, 2010). Therefore, employees who perceive that the organization values and treats them fairly will feel obligated to pay back or reciprocate these good deeds with positive work attitudes and behaviors (Parzefall, 2008). Studies have suggested that the norm of reciprocity is taught as a moral obligation and then internalized by both parties (that is, employees and employers) in an exchange relationship such that whoever receives a benefit feels obligated to repay it (Liden, *et al.*, 2008). This suggests that employees, who perform enriched jobs devoid of stress, receive attractive pay, job security and fair treatment from the organization, are bound to express their gratitude for the support received by increasing their commitment to their organization. In summary, therefore, the exchange theory posits that commitment develops as a result of an employee's satisfaction with the rewards and inducements the organization offers, rewards that must be sacrificed if the employee leaves the organization.

The social exchange theory is often used to examine various aspects of employee reciprocity including OCB (Hopkins, 2002). This theory proposes that gestures of goodwill are exchanged between employees and the organisation as well as between subordinates and their supervisors when particular action warrants reciprocity (Hopkins, 2002). The social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity explain the analogy of maintaining the balance of social exchange between employees and the organisation. Some researchers have suggested that OCB fits into two categories. The first category consists of those behaviours that directly impact the balance of the social exchange between employees and the organisation, that is, OCB directed toward the organisation (OCBO). The second category is made up of those behaviours that have an indirect impact and are directed toward individuals (OCBI) (Lee & Allen, 2002). Lee and Allen (2002) rationalised this position by arguing that because OCB is a deliberate attempt to maintain the balance in a social exchange between employees and the organisation, it is reasonable to suggest that this behaviour is more directly intended to benefit the organisation. Hence, OCBO is more likely to be a direct function of what employees think about their work characteristics. In contrast, OCBI primarily addresses and focuses on the individual at the work site. Although it seems to have only indirect implications, OCBI helps to maintain a balance in the organisation, fostering employee transactions.

2.2.4 Organizational Support Theory

Research on perceived organizational support began with the observation that if managers are concerned with their employees' commitment to the organization, employees are focused on the organization's commitment to them. For employees, the organization serves as an important source of socio-emotional resources, such as respect and caring, and tangible benefits, such as wages and medical benefits. Being regarded highly by the organization it helps to meet employees' needs for approval, esteem, and affiliation. Positive valuation by the organization also provides an indication that increased effort was noted and rewarded. Employees, therefore, take an active interest in the regard with which they are held by their employer.

Organizational support theory (Eisenberger *et al.*, 2002;) holds that in order to meet socio-emotional needs and to assess the benefits of increased work effort, employees form a general perception concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being. Such perceived organizational support (POS) would increase employees' felt obligation to help the organization reach its objectives, their affective commitment to the organization, and their expectation that improved performance would be rewarded. Behavioral outcomes of POS would include increases in role and extra-role performance and decreases in stress and withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism and turnover. Although there were relatively few studies of POS until the mid-1990, research on the topic has burgeoned in the last few years. Rhoades and Eisenberger's (2002) meta-analysis covered some 70 POS studies carried out through 1999, and over 250 studies have been performed since. The meta-analysis found clear and consistent relationships of POS with its predicted antecedents and consequences.

For an organization to prosper in all its ventures then their employees must behave as good citizens by engaging in positive behaviors (Organ *et al.*, 2006). Generally speaking, these citizenship behaviors are aimed at supporting both the social and psychological environment of any organization and they determine the success of any organization (Bolino, 2004). Organizational citizenship behavior can maximize on the efficiency and productivity of both the employees and the organization which will ultimately contribute to the effective functioning of an organization. Employees who exhibit citizenship behavior can be described as good soldiers or good citizens of that organization. When employees are treated with kindness and given favorable treatment they will reciprocate by exhibiting citizenship behavior (Smith *et al.*, 2008).

Organizational citizenship has a positive impact on organization and its members and it helps the managers to be able to create a cooperative environment that can increase effectiveness of employees (Podsakoff, 2006). There are many factors that contribute to the determination of organizational citizenship behavior (OCBs), which include altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, sportsmanship and courtesy (Organ *et al.*, 2006). Organizational citizenship behavior was predicted by the work environment. Organizational citizenship behaviors are voluntary and supervisors cannot demand or

force their subordinate to perform them. Similarly, the employees do not expect any formal reward (Blau, 2006). The perception of organizational citizenship behavior makes an individual look like a good citizen as well as facilitating him to achieving personal goals (Hui *et al.*, 2009). Keskes (2014) citing Meyer and Allen's (1991), refers to employee's emotional attachment as to the identification with, and involvement in the organization. These definitions view organizational commitment as involving some form of psychological bond between the employees and the organization. The resulting outcomes are increased work performance, reduced absenteeism and reduced turnover (Keskes, 2014).

2.3 Conceptual Framework

According to Reichel and Ramsey (1987), a conceptual framework is a set of broad ideas and principles taken from relevant fields of enquiry and used to structure a subsequent presentation. It is a research tool intended to assist a Researcher in developing an understanding of the situation under investigation. The conceptual framework illustrated below in order to meet the objectives of the research. Organizational citizenship behavior arising from the use of casual workers by an organization are conceptualized as being dependent on factors like sportsmanship, altruism, courtesy and conscientiousness, work environment. These factors among others are likely to impact on the performance of the casual employees.

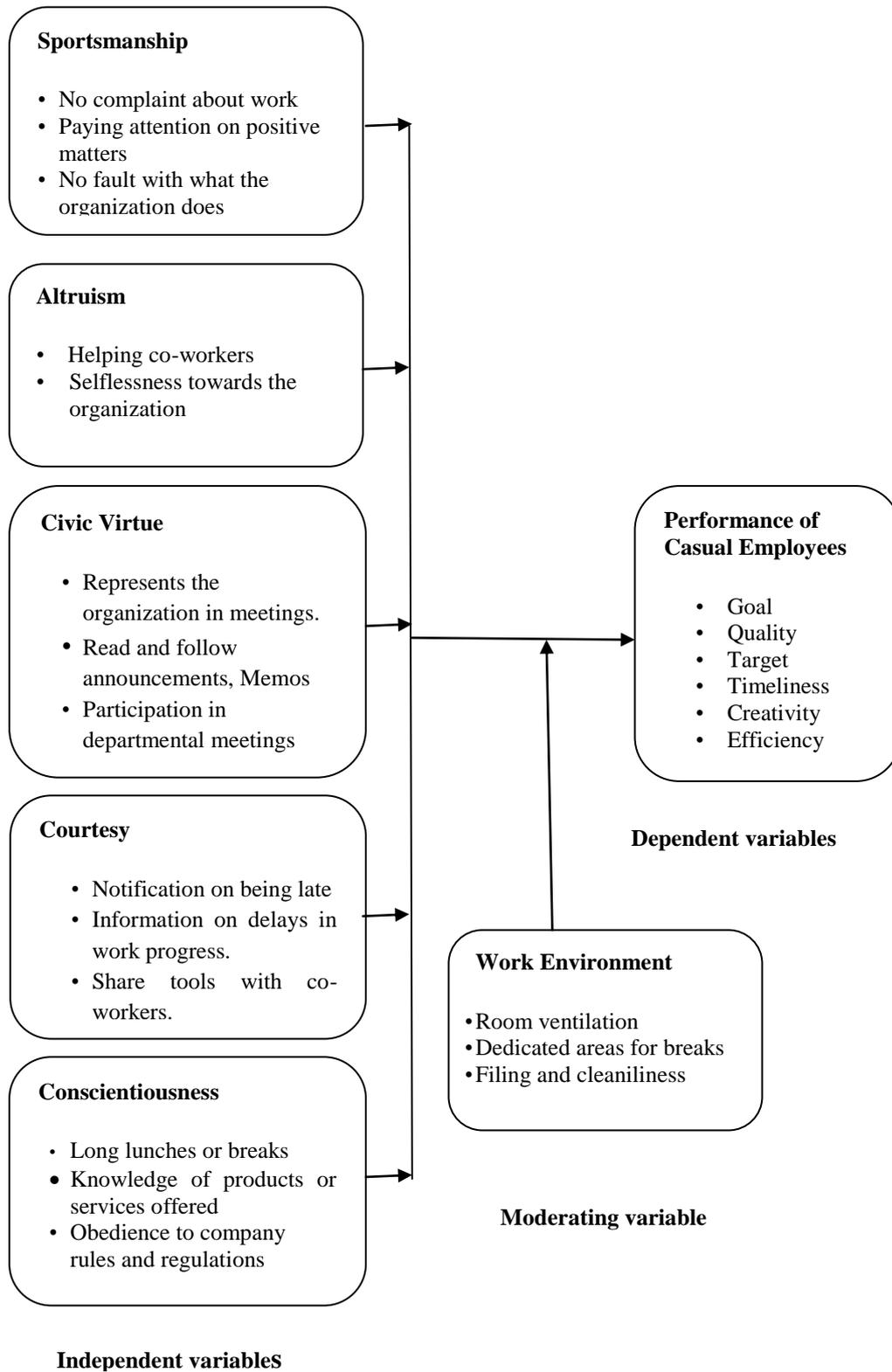


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

2.4 Empirical Review of Variables

So many variables influence the performance of casual employees such as supervisor support, rules and regulations of the organization, work ethics, work experience, motivation, perceived justice and quite a number of factors. However, for this particular studies, only six variables have been taken into consideration.

2.4.1 Sportsmanship

Sportsmanship is defined as a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining. (Organ, 1990b). It refers to person's desire not to complain when experiencing the inevitable inconveniences and abuse generated in exercising a professional activity. Sportsmanship refers to avoid complaining unnecessarily about the difficulties faced in the workplace, being positive and tolerant towards problems experienced in the workplace. Sportsmanship is exhibition of willingness to tolerate minor and temporary personnel inconveniences and impositions of work without grievances, complaints, appeals, accusations, or protest. This helps to conserve organizational energies for accomplishment of task and to a large extent relieves managers of unnecessary load/stress (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Organ, 1990). Organ (1988) defined sportsmanship as the behaviour of warmly tolerating the irritations that are an unavoidable part of nearly every organizational setting. Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) publicized that good sportsmanship would enhance the morale of the employees at the workplace and consequently reduce employee turnover.

Sportsmanship is defined as exhibiting no negative behavior when something does not go as planned or when something is being perceived as annoying, difficult, frustrating or otherwise negative. Willingness to forbear minor inconveniences without appeal or protest and allows managers to focus on important job functions. Good sportsmanship is related to potential complaints about work or workloads in addition to negativity surrounding work-related challenges. Barroso Castrol *at al.*, (2004), describes, Sportsmanship as, 'Employees' goodwill at the workplace whether the conditions are not highly desirable, not complaining to the manager about status and

observing positive aspects of work among the problems.’ Sportsmanship and forgiveness means showing tolerance and forgiveness in non-ideal conditions without complaint or protest.

Outside of a business context, sportsmanship is most commonly associated with sports and games--poor sportsmanship, for example, might occur when a player on a soccer team swears stomps and argues when their team loses a soccer game. In the context of business, good sportsmanship is usually related to potential complaints about work or workloads in addition to negativity surrounding work-related surprises. For example: Imagine an employee who submits their proposal to their superior may be expecting it to be well-received and accepted—it is rejected, instead, and the employee displays good sportsmanship by not complaining about the situation to other coworkers or individuals who may report their behavior to others working for the business basis.

It adopts an appeal to the organization-man’s sense of sense of commitment and is described as the willingness to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining and refraining from activities such as complaining and petty grievances Coyle Shapiro *et al.*, (2004). Sportsmanship refers to willingness to tolerate less than the ideal circumstances without any complaint being made (Siti, 2009). According to Evans and Davis (2005), in their empirical study on the relationship between high performance work system and organizational performance, they found that employees whose are good citizen are likely to devote their time and energy to ensure knowledge is exchanged, understood and integrated. This can be seen from greater willingness to engage in helping behaviors and more sportsmanship behavior as not complaining about inconveniences created by the coworkers (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000).

There is some tension visible in existing literature on the effects of OCB on the employees who perform these citizenship behaviors. Allowing employees some scope to work outside their formal roles is thought to enhance the employee experience and lower turnover intentions and actual turnover (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009). However, these benefits of OCB appear to come at a cost. Emotional

exhaustion and conflict between home life and work are both higher for conscientious employees, and these effects are stronger amongst employees exhibiting high in-role performance (Deery, Rayton, Walsh & Kinnie, 2016). In this dimension, staffs decrease complains, reproach, cavil, nag and criticism in organization and serve most of their time to organizational activities. (Hoveyda, & Naderi, 2009).

We also find in the Nigerian Hospitality Industry a situation where a climate conducive for worker creativity do not only trigger off altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, courtesy among workers but also a willingness by the worker to tolerate annoyances at work without complaining. This confirms the empirical study of Bergen and Badnow (2010). The authors argue that promoting tolerance is a key weapon in battling prejudice and bias within the workplace and this would consequently prompt the organization-man to utilise their competences outside their stated job requirements. Sportsmanship refers to willingness to tolerate less than the ideal circumstances without any complaint being made (Siti, 2009). Sportsmanship has been defined as a willingness on the part of the employee that signifies the employee's tolerance of less-than-ideal organizational circumstances without complaining and blowing problems out of proportion. Organ *et al.* (2006) further define sportsmanship as an employee's ability to roll with the punches even if they do not like or agree with the changes that are occurring within the organization. By reducing the amount of complaints from employees that administrators have to deal with, sportsmanship conserves time and energy.

The study of efficient and effective organizational teams has much to offer sport psychology, and in fact sport psychology researchers and practitioners have been encouraged to better utilize the organizational excellence literature (Jones, 2002). Similarly, sportsmanship is also expected to be positively related to work group performance. The more willing employees are to be good sports and go along with necessary changes in their work environment, the less time and energy a manager wastes in getting their cooperation. Thus, sportsmanship allows managers to devote a greater proportion of their time to productive activities like planning, scheduling, problem solving, and organizational analysis. In addition, a lack of sportsmanship is

likely to have detrimental effects on group cohesiveness and make the atmosphere in the workplace less attractive to co-workers. This might be expected to reduce the organization's or work group's ability to attract or retain the most productive workers.

Sportsmanship relates to employees' willingness to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without any complaint (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000 cited in Lv, Shen, Cao, Su & Chen, 2012). It is a willingness to accommodate the inconveniences of work without complaining (Organ, 1990) or protesting (Tambe & Shanker, 2014) when partaking in a professional activity or any less than ideal situation (Organ, 1988). Employees high in sportsmanship have positive attitudes (Yahaya *et al.*, 2011) and find ways to confront challenges and strive to resolve it (Yahaya *et al.*, 2011). By doing this, employees are moving towards learning organizations. Hence, there is a conservation of organizational energies for task accomplishment and it relieves managers of stress (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) emphasized that good sportsmanship would enhance employee morale and reduce employee turnover. Different studies have shown that OCB variables can have different antecedents (Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000; Wang, Prieto & Henrichs, 2010). Additionally, it was also found that conscientiousness predicted compliance, altruism, and civic virtue but not courtesy and sportsmanship (Konovsky & Organ, 1996). Furthermore, role ambiguity and role conflict hold negative relationships with altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship but not with conscientiousness and civic virtue (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000). Sportsmanship is also expected to be positively related to work group performance.

Sportsmanship allows employees to maintain a positive overall attitude with respect to their organization, especially in situations requiring self-denial and deferral of personal interests in favour of organizational needs. These include not complaining about insignificant things at workplace, putting extra effort on job, taking feedback from co-workers and superiors, opposing favoritism in the organization and encouraging family member to patronize our organization. Sportsmanship is linked to demonstrations of a positive attitude and loyalty to the company, often emphasizing quality and the best aspects of the company or avoiding to pay attention to less positive aspects. It means tolerating any kind of unfavourable things that may

create tension among individuals in organization (zdeveciolu, 2003). In other words, it includes behaviours such as tolerating towards inevitable disturbance and compulsion caused by the work, not complaining because of being disturbed by others, maintaining positive attitudes when things do not go well, not being annoyed when others have different opinions, sacrificing for a good group work, respecting others' thoughts. Almost every organization setting has inevitable challenges. A sportsman person puts up with these gladly and does not overstate unimportant issues (Köse *et al.*, 2003). According to Organ (1998), behaviours in this dimension include respecting co-workers, not overstating problems unnecessarily, seeing positive sides of things as opposed to negative sides, having a constructive attitude towards problems about organizations, defending image and activities of the organization in different settings (Gürbüz, 2006). Sportsman spirit is a trademark asset of a well-balanced individual. Not just in the workplace, but a sportive attitude is essential even in real life. In a professional scenario, this requires an employee to be well-adjusted and calm. It requires him to compromise on certain comforts and not make a mountain out of a molehill. It is essential to accept failure; it is perfectly alright to make a few mistakes (not major ones, of course) and bear the brunt. It is important to be a sport about the same and not to repeat the mistake in future. If colleagues are doing better, sportsmanship demands that an employee should feel happy about the same and make an effort to incorporate the same in his life. At such times, it is the benefit of the organization that should be the priority. Yes, a competitive spirit is certainly essential for individual betterment, but it should be a healthy one at that. On no account should this kind of behavior lead to envy or jealousy or discord in the organization.

2.4.2 Altruism

Altruism is defined as the desire to help or otherwise assist another individual, while not expecting a reward in compensation for that assistance. According to (Todd, 2003) altruism is interpreted to reflect the willingness of an employee to help a coworker, also is referred to and explained as the selflessness of an employee towards organization.

A common example outside of a business setting would be someone who drives a neighbour to work when their car has broken down, while not expecting cash money or favours in compensation. In a business setting, altruistic behaviour is generally related to the work or project that the business group is working on. Someone exhibiting altruistic behaviour in a group setting might volunteer to work on certain special projects, voluntarily helping or assisting other employees with their work or with other tasks, and volunteering to do additional work in order to help other employees reduce their own work load. Altruism in the workplace leads to productivity and effectiveness because it encourages good inter-employee relations; it can also reduce the stress load on other employees, such as those who are overwhelmed without a little bit of help, which will in turn increase productivity.

Altruism in simple words means helping or helpfulness (Organ, 1997). It means helping other members of the organization in their tasks. For example, voluntarily helping new employees, helping co-workers who are overloaded, assisting workers who were absent, guiding employees to accomplish difficult tasks.. Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) defined altruism as voluntary behaviours where an employee provides assistance to an individual with a particular problem to complete his or her task under unusual circumstances. Altruism refers to a member helping other members of the organization in their work. Podsakoff *et al.* (2000) has demonstrated that altruism was significantly related to performance evaluations and correspondingly, positive affectivity.

The second part of why OCB improves the performance and success of the organization is customer satisfaction. Researchers argue that employees who exhibit altruism (aka Helping Behavior) encourage teamwork among coworkers, and this enhanced cooperation allows the group to deliver their goods or services more effectively (N. Podsakoff, *et al.*, 2009). As a result, customer satisfaction is increased. Additionally, they note that more conscientious and courteous employees will increase customer satisfaction because employees stay more informed and up-to-date on the products and services the company offers. Finally, employees who exhibit Civic Virtue by providing ideas on how to improve customer service increase customer satisfaction (N. Podsakoff, *et al.*, 2009). Sun *et al* (2007) explains that

behaviors such as helping a colleague who has been absent from work, helping others who have heavy workloads, being mindful of how one's own behaviour affects others' jobs, and providing help and support to new employees represent clear indications of an employee's interest for its work environment.

Researchers have demonstrated that organizational citizenship behaviours make important contribution to individuals, groups and organizational effectiveness. For instance, altruism or helping coworkers makes the work system more efficient because one worker can utilize his or her slack time to assist another on a more urgent task (18). Also, altruism involves helping specific individuals in relation to organizational tasks and this behaviour must be beneficial to the organization. Podsakoff *et al.* (2000) labelled this dimension as helping behaviour and defined it as voluntarily helping others with work-related problems.

Helping behaviour encompasses several citizenship behaviours which includes altruism and courtesy, aimed at helping work colleagues (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). Research has indicated that those 'germane' to the sales domain include civic virtue and helping behaviour (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993). This helpfulness related to, for example, assisting other organizational members with work overload, helping those who were absent and guiding others with difficult tasks (Tambe & Shanker, 2014). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000) have shown that altruism was significantly related to performance evaluations and positive affectivity. Employees that exhibit helping behaviour and civic virtue are likely to obtain higher rewards (Marshall, Moncrief, Lask & Shepherd, 2012). An apt description of citizenship behaviours is that it enhances organizational performance as they 'lubricate' the organization's social machinery, reduce friction and increase efficiency (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). OCBs may increase performance because they reduce the need to devote scarce resources to only maintenance functions (Organ, 1988), free these resources for productivity (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), serve to coordinate team activities effectively (Karambayya, 1989) and to enhance the organization's ability to attract people by creating an attractive workplace (George & Bettenausen, 1990), amongst others.

Also the study of Turnipseed and Rassuli (2005) depicted that, the ‘best’ performing workers produced the strongest link between performance and functional participation, which is a helping-type (Altruism) OCB. Gautam *et al*, (2005) also maintained that citizenship behavior within an organization may vary, with change in geographic context i.e. OCB is enacted differently in different cultural contexts – which what it means to be a ‘good citizen’ may vary. Indeed, as citizenship appears to consist of discretionary behaviors, how the employee perceives the organization (as evidenced by his/her attitude toward it) would likely predispose this employee to either perform or withhold such performance (Dick *et al*, 2006). Altruism includes creating healthy and cheerful atmosphere at workplace, listening to co-workers problems and providing solutions, trying to improve working conditions, volunteering to take additional tasks, spreading goodwill in the organization, giving constructive suggestions for improvement, being enthusiastic about my job and about co-workers welfare, helping subordinates to develop required skills, providing suggestions to co-workers related to their work, consulting colleagues whenever possible, following organization's rules even when not watched, taking initiative for new assignments, helping new employees adjust in new working environment, protecting organizational resources.

Altruism in the workplace consists essentially of helping behaviors. These behaviors can both be directed within or outside of the organization. There is no direct link, or one-to-one relationship, between every instance of helping behavior and a specific gain for the organization. The idea is that over time, the compilation of employees helping behavior will eventually be advantageous for the organization (Organ *et al*, 2006). General compliance behavior serves to benefit the organization in several ways. Low rates of absenteeism and rule following help to keep the organization running efficiently. A compliant employee does not engage in behaviors such as taking excessive breaks or using work time for personal matters. When these types of behaviors are minimized the workforce is naturally more productive. Altruism is ideally one the first points to be addressed when discussing OCB. This dimension mainly indicates the virtue of selflessness (which of course, is practically absent today). It is important not to exhibit a selfish attitude at the workplace for the welfare

and betterment of others. It may sound dramatic and foolhardy, but a slight effort on your part to display a social conscience will lead to increased camaraderie within the workplace; consequently, it leads to increased productivity as well.

The altruism dimension of organizational citizenship behaviour relates to helping a worker who has difficulty in doing a task or fails in succeeding doing it (Sezgin, 2005). Organ (1988) assesses the behaviour of helping others with self-sacrifice, reconciliation and cheerleading dimensions. It is stated as helping co-workers in order to prevent problems in advance (Podsakoff, 2000). The opinion that a helping individual is a good citizen is prevalent. With this respect, cooperation will increase the ratio of knowledge sharing and knowledge acquisition. Besides, organizational citizenship behaviour requires caring about organization, standing by organization and doing several extra sacrifices for the organization when necessary. It gets easier for the organization to reach its aims as responsibility feeling develops among employees. Employees' use of authority in a certain responsibility framework eases managers' supervision and increases individual self-control (zdeveciolu, 2003).

Studies show employees giving altruistic reasons for becoming involved in helping behaviours, such as wanting to help others (Farmer & Fedor, *et al.*, 2001). It can be argued that exhausted workers are too tired to invest time and effort in their work. For this reason, it is appealing to assume that emotional exhaustion will precede withdrawal of OCB: exhausted employees will also be too tired to invest in activities other than those that their work already requires them to do. None the less, we could locate only one study that examined this relationship. Cropanzano, Rupp, and Byrne (2003) Cropanzano, R, Rupp, DE and Byrne, ZS. (2003). The relationship of emotional exhaustion to work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88: 160–169.) reported mixed results; they found that emotional exhaustion predicted OCB towards the organization but emotional exhaustion was not related to OCB towards the supervisor. Probably, OCB towards the organization refers to behaviours beneficial to a larger, and perhaps more impersonal, organization. In contrast, OCB towards the supervisor refers to behaviours beneficial to one's supervisor. Given this, it may be easier for emotionally exhausted individuals to withhold citizenship behaviours

beneficial to the organization as a whole rather than to a single person with whom they are likely to frequently interact (Cropanzano *et al.*, 2003 Cropanzano, R, Rupp, DE and Byrne, ZS. (2003). The relationship of emotional exhaustion to work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Depersonalization or cynicism is an attempt to put distance between oneself and others. Depersonalized people may develop indifference or a cynical attitude when they are exhausted and discouraged. In the helping professions (e.g. nursing), depersonalization often signifies treating people like objects (Zapf, 2002; Zapf, 2002). Emotion work and psychological well-being: A review of the literature and some conceptual considerations. In occupations other than the helping professions in which there are no recipients of professional help, the people one interacts with might be treated in a depersonalized way. Treating the people one works with in a depersonalized manner could be expected to go together with withdrawal of OCB towards them. For instance, the study of Huarng (Huarng, 2001; AS, 2001). Burnout syndrome among information system professionals. (*Information Systems Management*, 18: 15–21) showed that 36% of the (non-human service workers) software developers indicated that they depersonalized others regularly to cope with the demands of the people they encounter on the job. Reduced personal accomplishment or feelings of inefficacy are prompted by a work situation with chronic, overwhelming demands that erodes one's sense of effectiveness. Feelings of personal accomplishment may elicit a sense of obligation to help others, resulting in OCB. Conversely, employees who have little faith in themselves (i.e. low on personal accomplishment) will also feel unable to help others ('I cannot even help myself'). Additionally, personal accomplishment raises self-efficacy, thus providing more personal resources enabling engagement in OCB.

A large amount of empirical evidence has shown that burnout is negatively associated with professional helping behaviours of human service workers (Maslach *et al.*, 2001; Maslach, Schaufeli, WB and Leiter, MP, 2001). Therefore, in the present study, we expect that each of the three dimensions of burnout will be negatively associated with OCB. Participants (employees) who were allowed to work individually (i.e., did not perceive any group boundaries) were much more likely to

engage in altruism and courtesy behaviors as found by Yorges (1999). The measure of altruism may be akin to citizenship behavior directed toward one's colleagues (resulting in the benefit of the organization) as established by Brennan and Skarlicki (2004). Altruism encourages teamwork and cooperation, allowing employees to increase the pool of available knowledge (Neihoff & Yen, 2004).

Todd (2003) Altruism, for instance, usually is interpreted to reflect the willingness of an employee to help a coworker, also is referred to and explained as the selflessness of an employee towards organization. Also, as per, (Redman & Snape, 2005) 'Altruism' is concerned with going beyond job requirements to help others with whom the individual comes into contact. Altruism is accounted as a one of the significant antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), reason being, as Pare' and Tremblay (2000) explains - behaviors such as helping a colleague who has been absent from work, helping others who have heavy workloads, being mindful of how one's own behavior affects others' jobs, and providing help and support to new employees represent clear indications of an employee's interest for its work environment. Socially driven values emphasizing the group over individual concerns are likely to encourage altruistic behaviors benefiting the group. Altruism and compassion may arise as a natural consequence of experiences of interconnection and oneness (Vieten *et al.*, 2006). Altruism or helping coworkers makes the work system more efficient because one worker can utilize his or her slack time to assist another on a more urgent task (Neihoff & Yen, 2004). Redman and Snape (2005), 'altruism' involves helping specific individuals in relation to organizational tasks. The altruistic person can obtain utility from other persons' utility (by convincing them with their selflessness aspect of personality) (Wu, 2001). Rush and Allen (2001) states that, an abundant body of social psychological research indicates that there are gender differences with regard to helping behavior and altruism. Rush and Allen (2001) states that, an abundant body of social psychological research indicates that there are gender differences with regard to helping behavior and altruism.

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heavy workloads, being mindful of how one's own behavior affects others' jobs, and providing help and support to new employees represent clear indications of an employee's interest for its work environment. Socially driven values emphasizing the group over individual concerns are likely to encourage altruistic behaviors benefiting the group. Altruism and compassion may arise as a natural consequence of experiences of interconnection and oneness (Amorok *et al.*, 2006).

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2.4.3 Civic Virtue

Civic virtue is defined as the behavior which exhibits how well a person represents an organization with which they are associated, and how well that person supports their organization outside of an official capacity. According to Borman *et al.*, (2001) civic virtue is to involve oneself responsibly in and of being concerned about the life of the company. Civic virtue is behaviour which exhibits how well a person represents an organization with which they are associated, and how well that person supports their organization outside of an official capacity. For example, how well someone represents their business and how they may support that business are all examples of someone's civic virtue.

Also, civic virtue in a business setting include speaking positively about the business to friends, family and acquaintances; signing up for business events, such as charity walking events or fundraiser parties; and generally supporting the business by always representing the business to the best of their ability even when they are not working. Civic virtue encourages a sense of community within a business setting, which has been shown to be linked to job performance and job satisfaction in employees. Employees who feel a stronger connection with their place of employment are more likely to be productive and effective workers, when compared to those who do not share a sense of community.

Civic virtue is characterized by behaviors that indicate an employee's deep concerns and active interest in the life of the organization (Law, Wong, & Chen, 2005). In general, this OCB dimension represents a macro-level interest in the organization as evidenced by positive involvement in the concerns of the organization. Civic virtue represents an employee's feeling of being part of the organizational whole in the same way a citizen feels a part of his or her country. An employee displaying civic virtue behaviors embraces the responsibilities of being a 'citizen' of the organization (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000).

Employees exhibiting civic virtue behaviors are responsible members of the organization who actively engage in constructive involvement in the policies and governance of the organization (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). It is a constructive involvement in the political process of the organization and contribution to this process by freely and frankly expressing opinions, attending meetings, discussing with colleagues the issues concerning the organization, and reading organizational communications such as mails for the well-being of the organization.

Civic virtue is behaviour on the part of an individual that indicates that employee dutifully participates in, is actively involved in, and is concerned about the life of the company (Podsakoff *et al.*). Civic virtue represents a macro level interest in, or commitment to the organization. It shows willingness to participate actively in organization's events, monitor organization's environment for threats and opportunities, to work out the best alternative for the organization. These behaviours

occur when employees reckon themselves with the organization and consider themselves to be part of the organization. (Podsakoff *et al*, 2000: 513-563). Civic virtue is defined as subordinate participation in organization political life and supporting the administrative function of the organization (Deluga, 1998).

Civic virtue refers to the responsibility of the employees to actively and willingly participate in the life of the firm such as attending meetings which are not required by the firm and keeping apprised with the changes in the organization (Organ, 1988). This dimension of OCB is actually derived from Graham's findings which stated that employees should have the responsibility to be a good citizen of the organization (Graham, 1991). These behaviours reflect an employees' recognition of being part of organization and accept the responsibilities which entail as a result of being citizen of the organization (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000). Other researchers have found that civic virtue enhances the quantity of performance and help to reduce customer complaints (Walz & Niehoff, 1996).

Civic Virtue includes behaviors showing a strong sense of responsibility toward the organization, for example, offering advice and suggestions or trying to solve problems thus improving efficiency. Altruism: behaviors expressing willingness to help colleagues performing their work, for example, offering assistance to new employees or helping those who have too great a workload. Civic virtue refers to the responsible participation in the organization. Podsakoff *et al.* (2000) found that such behavior reflects employee recognition of being part of the organization. Civic virtue' refers to behaviors that demonstrate a responsible concern for the image and wellbeing of the organization (Redman & Snape, 2005). Borman *et al.* (2001) defines civic virtue as responsibly involving oneself in and being concerned about the life of the company. Civic virtue is behavior indicating that an employee responsibly participates in, and is concerned about the life of the company (represented by voluntary attendance at meetings) (Todd, 2003). Baker (2005) explains Civic virtue is responsible, constructive involvement in the political processes of the organization.

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environmental threats and opportunities that may affect the organization, reporting fire hazards and suspicious activities, having an external perspective for realizing the best aspects (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000).

Graham, in an essay on OCBs, outlines a politically centered approach to understanding OCBs (Graham, 2006). She proposes that by specifying the responsibilities of citizens in a geopolitical setting, researchers and practitioners can better understand OCBs in an organizational setting. Specifically, Graham outlines three categories of citizenship responsibilities (citizenship behaviors) that citizens (employees) have with one another and their community (organization): obedience, loyalty, and participation. It is within the participation component that researchers and practitioners find concepts similar to civic virtue. Graham provides a definition of organizational participation: interest in organizational affairs guided by ideal standards of virtue, validated by keeping informed, and expressed through full and responsible involvement in organizational governance (Graham, 1991). Examples of this citizenship responsibility dimension include attending non-required meetings, sharing opinions and new ideas with others in the organization, and a willingness to deliver bad news or support and unpopular view to combat groupthink (Graham, 1991). This citizenship responsibility dimension closely resembles the civic virtue dimension of OCB.

George and Jones (1997) provide another conceptually similar behavioral dimension: protecting the organization. In their research, George and Jones present a construct similar to OCB: organizational spontaneity. Within this construct, they propose that there are five forms of organizational spontaneity: helping coworkers, protecting the organization, making constructive suggestions, developing oneself, and spreading goodwill. It is within the protecting the organization factor that researchers and practitioners find similarities to civic virtue. Protecting the organization is defined by George and Jones as voluntary acts organizational members engage in to protect or save life and property ranging from reporting hazards, securely locking doors, and reporting suspicious or dangerous activities, to taking the initiative to halt a production process when there is the potential for human injury (George & Jones, 1997). They also include safeguarding organizational resources in this organizational

spontaneity dimension (George & Jones, 1997). Again, this alternative dimension shares many similarities with the civic virtue dimension of OCB.

The construct of civic virtue has been operationalized in varying forms. On one side of the spectrum are mundane behaviors such as attending optional meetings, reading and answering work related emails, and participating in the traditions and rituals of the organization. The other side of the spectrum includes more extraordinary and rare forms of the construct such as voicing critiques of or objections to policies to higher-level members of the organization. This type of civic virtue can also be demonstrated on a larger scale by defending the organization's policies and practices when they are challenged by an outside source. Interestingly, this more challenging type of civic virtue has received the most empirical support. However, it has also been noted that this type of civic virtue might be less appreciated by managers, compared to other forms of OCB, as it causes disruption of the status quo (Organ *et al.*, 2006). Organ (1988) remarked that although some in high positions may not value this form of OCB, it should not be disqualified.

Civic virtue has been even more granularly defined by dividing the behaviors into two distinct categories. The first, civic virtue-information, includes participating in meetings, reading documents containing information regarding the organization, and remaining on the lookout for incoming news. The second, civic virtue-influence, involves being proactive and making suggestions for change. Results from a paper by Graham and Van Dyne demonstrate empirical differences between civic-virtue informational and civic-virtue influence, which indicates the value of examining these categories separately (Graham & Van Dyne, 2006).

A different way of organizing the OCB construct was proposed by Williams and Anderson (1991). They divided up the construct into two different types of organizational citizenship behaviors based on whom the behaviors were directed towards. Organizational citizenship behavior-individuals (OCBI) are behaviors that are aimed at other individuals in the work place, while organizational citizenship behavior-organizational (OCBO) are behaviors directed at the organization as a

whole. The concept of civic virtue falls squarely within the OCBO definition (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Civic virtue has also been categorized along gender lines. Research has shown the OCB dimensions of altruism and courtesy to be considered more in role behavior for females, while civic virtue and sportsmanship are regarded as more in role for men. The dimension of conscientiousness, which includes attention to detail and adherence to organizational rules, is excluded, as this dimension does not seem to adhere to any particular gender norms (Kidder & Parks, 2001).

Empirical research regarding the consequences of OCBs has focused on two main areas: managerial evaluations of performance and organizational performance and success. Podsakoff and colleagues (2000) found, in a summary of empirical evidence regarding managerial performance evaluations and OCBs, that civic virtue was significantly related to performance evaluations in six out of the eight studies it was included in. These researchers also reported, in a summary of empirical evidence regarding both organizational performance and success in relationship to OCBs, that civic virtue was significantly related to quality of performance regarding sales samples and the reduction of customer complaints in a restaurant sample (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000).

Proactive behaviors such as civic virtue, which require initiative and active participation, are critical to organizational effectiveness because informed involvement contributes to sustainable competitive advantage (Crant, 2000; Frese & Fay, 2001). Engaging in civic virtue at work, moreover, develops skills and habits that can benefit individuals and the larger society. Individuals who demonstrate civic skills such as information processing and persuasive communication may advance their career prospects. In addition, utilizing such skills in one arena may lead to people using them in other arenas as well. More responsible political participation at work could help to reverse the societal trend in some western democracies of decreased political involvement in local and national governance.

Graham (2000) outlined three historical perspectives on the purpose and functioning of governance systems, each with a distinctive definition of what constitutes civic virtue for the average citizen. Governance by the elite, which Graham (2000) traces back to Plato's Republic, entails a hierarchical division of labor that concentrates the proactive behaviors of civic virtue-information and civic virtue-influence in the hands of a meritocratic elite. Good citizenship for ordinary citizen-subjects in such a system is limited to obedience and loyalty, with no place for responsible political participation. Governance based on broad citizen participation, which Graham (2000) traces back to Aristotle's Politics, assumes an educated middle class that can provide moderation and stability within a constitutional governance system. Aristotle recommended wide participation in legislative and judicial functions, giving rise eventually, for example, to citizen assemblies and trial-by-jury. The result is a constitutional form of government where average citizens proactively gather information (civic virtue-information) and, when chosen to serve, express their opinions (civic virtue-influence). In contemporary America, those who adopt republican values (note the small r in republican, indicating a philosophical perspective rather than affiliation with a particular political party) emphasize generalized participation by all citizens.

Crant (2000) reviewed several of the existing proactive employee behavior constructs (proactive personality, personal initiative, role-breadth, self-efficacy, and taking charge) and recommended that future research should compare different types of proactive behavior within the same re-search design. Consistent with this, LePine and colleagues' meta-analysis (2002) noted that most prior research on OCB has focused on affiliative behaviors (e.g., altruism, courtesy, and sports-manship). In addition, their results provided initial evidence that the nomological networks for these affiliative constructs are more similar than different. Accordingly, they recommended that future research examine other forms of OCB (such as constructive, change-oriented behaviors) that have received less attention. Applying this to our interest in civic virtue suggests the benefits of comparing the similarities and differences in the antecedents of two specific promotive and proactive behaviors: civic virtue-information and civic virtue-influence.

Civic virtue is also expected to be positively related to work group and/or organizational performance in several ways. Civic virtue involves making constructive suggestions about how the work group can improve its effectiveness, and this may either free up resources or make co-workers more effective, depending on the nature of the suggestion. Also, because meetings are a way that organizations attempt to coordinate activities between team members and across groups, civic virtue in the form of attending and actively participating in those meetings may contribute to work group performance. The proactive nature of these changes makes things happen as employees participate in and are concerned about the well-being of the company. This behaviour represents a macro level interest or commitment to the organization (Tambe & Shankar, 2014). The goal is also to work out the best alternative for the company (Tambe & Shankar, 2014). Civic virtue refers to the degree of an employee's concern and interest in more general areas of the organization and is characterized by acts that, for example, promote the image of the firm, consolidate its reputation and favour its public profile. It would include the active participation and involvement of employees in company affairs and includes activities such as attending meetings, responding to messages and keeping up with organizational issues. Therefore, an employee who takes the initiative to spearhead a company-sponsored community service event has greater potential to help promote the organization in the community (and possibly the manager within the organization) more so than an employee who offers to assist a co-worker in learning a new system (Podsakoff, Podsakoff, Blume, 2009).

2.4.4 Courtesy

Courtesy is defined as discretionary behaviors that aim at preventing work-related conflicts with others (Law *et al.*, 2005). This dimension is a form of helping behavior, but one that works to prevent problems from arising. It is a behavior which is polite and considerate towards other people. Courtesy outside of a workplace setting includes behavior such as asking how someone's morning has been or asking after the welfare of a neighbor's child. In a business context, courtesy is usually exhibited through behaviors such as inquiring about personal subjects that a coworker has previously brought up, asking if a coworker is having any trouble with

a certain work related project, and informing coworkers about prior commitments or any other problems that might cause them to reduce their workload or be absent from work.

Courtesy not only encourages positive social interactions between employees, which improve the work environment, but they can reduce any potential stress that might occur from employees who do not have the courtesy to inform their coworkers about issues such as upcoming absences from work—and so on. It refers to the gestures that help others to prevent interpersonal problems from occurring, such as giving prior notice of the work schedule to someone who is in need, consulting others before taking any actions that would affect them (Organ, 1990). Courtesy or gestures are demonstrated in the interest of preventing creations of problems for co-workers (Organ, 1997). For example, leaving the copier or printer in good condition for other workers' use is an example of courtesy at work (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006)

A courteous employee prevents managers from falling into the pattern of crisis management by making a sincere effort to avoid creating problems for co-workers (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Courtesy includes behaviours, which focus on the deterrence of problems and taking the necessary and timely steps in order to lessen the effects of the problem in the future. In simple words, courtesy means the encouragement given by a member to other member/s of the organization when they are demoralized and feel discouraged about their professional development. Again to reiterate, research has shown that employees who exhibit courtesy would reduce intergroup conflict and thereby abating the time spent on conflict management activities (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000). The main idea of courtesy is avoiding actions that unnecessarily make colleagues' work harder. It also includes giving them enough notice to get prepared when there is an addition to their existing work load.

Courtesy is to treat others with respect and when employees treat one another with respect their working relationship becomes comfortable, thereby making it easier to work in teams (Yahaya, Boon, Ramli, Baharudin, Yahaya, Ismail & Shariff, 2011). Courtesy or gestures are viewed as discretionary behaviour with the aim of

preventing work-related problems with others (Organ 1988; Organ, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Yahaya *et al.*, 2011). A courteous employee prevents managerial staff from any crisis management by making effort to avoid the creation of problems for co-workers (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2000). Courtesy includes giving employees enough notice to prepare themselves for their work load (Tambe & Shanker, 2014), and it reduces intergroup conflict, hence abating the time which is spent on conflict management issues (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000). Courtesy includes behaviours that focus on the deterrence of problems and to take the right measures to lessen the problem effects in the future (Tambe & Shankar, 2014). Furthermore, it is the encouragement of one person to another when they are demoralized and discouraged about their professional development (Tambe Shankar, 2014), and it avoids making co-workers work harder and notifying them to be ready when work load increases (Tambe & Shankar, 2014).

It includes actions demonstrating special attention to establishing relationships characterized by kindness and co-operation, for example trying to avoid arguments and being willing to keep other people's best interests at heart. Because people bring their religious beliefs with them when they go to work (Kutcher, *et al.*, 2010), their generosity is likely to extend to the workplace as well. That is, people who are more giving with their money are likely to be more giving with their time and effort at work, too. This is particularly likely to be the case with regard to specific types of workplace behavior known as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). These behaviors extend above and beyond the minimum job requirements, and employees who engage in them are often referred to as good soldiers. Many of the OCBs that occur in organizations are directed at helping or providing support to coworkers. Employees who come to aid a coworker who is having difficulty with his or her job, for example, are providing support.

Furthermore, employees who help alleviate disagreements and conflicts between coworkers are helping the organization by dealing with the conflict in a more effective manner. This behavior then builds stronger relationships among the group members and subsequently reduces the likelihood of workers leaving the organization (N. Podsakoff, *et al.*, 2009). Hence, Hackett *et al.* (2003) describes

courtesy as the discretionary behaviour by an employee aimed at preventing work-related problems with others from occurring. This finding Cardona *et al.* (2004), argues that courtesy establishes the mindfulness of the effects of one behaviour on others by avoiding abusing others' rights and preventing problems with others. This act of extra discretionary worker courtesy has been empirically validated by scholars (Dalal, 2005; Coyle-Shapiro *et al.*, 2004).

Helping behavior has become very important in modern organizations. (Qureshi, 2011) These behaviors include voluntarily aids and prevention of work-related problems. The first part (voluntarily aids) includes 3 dimensions: altruism, intercession, and encouragement, which were suggested by Organ (1988). Interpersonal aids, interpersonal facilitation, and help to others express these behaviors. The second part demonstrates helping to others by preventing work problems. (Sobhaninejad, Youzbashi & Shateri, 2010).

In administration, courtesy refers to positive communication among individuals that are connected mutually to each other due to division of labour in the organization (zdeveciolu, 2003). A good employee must be courteous with people around him/her. Courtesy requires you to exhibit humanitarian values. To begin with, you need to be polite in your mannerisms. Irrespective of whether you are a junior or a leader, you have to be polite on your part. A simple, 'Thank you', 'Please', or 'You are welcome' is not going to crush your pride. Humility runs along the same lines. On no account should your ego come in the way of your work. It is admirable if you have attained a level of achievement in your work. But do remember to have your feet firmly grounded; be modest and encourage others to reach that level of perfection. If you roam around with a balloon-like inflated ego, you will get nowhere. Remember that if you are a leader now, you have been a simple trainee earlier. You need to respect your seniors and subordinates.

Finally, the courtesy factor is the level of respect that the employee reflects for colleagues, whether it be the boss, peers or subordinates. Podsakoff *et al.* (2000) typologically add organizational loyalty, individual initiative, organizational compliance and self-development to the list of OCB behaviours. Courtesy has been

defined as discretionary behaviors that aim at preventing work-related conflicts with others (Law *et al.*, 2005). This dimension is a form of helping behavior, but one that works to prevent problems from arising. It also includes the word's literal definition of being polite and considerate of others (Organ *et al.*, 2006). Examples of courteous behaviors are asking fellow employees if they would like a cup of coffee while you are getting one for yourself, making extra copies of the meeting agenda for your teammates, and giving a colleague ample notice when you alter something that will affect them. In other words, courtesy means a member encourages other workers when they are demoralized and feel discouraged about their professional development. Early research efforts have found that employees who exhibit courtesy would reduce intergroup conflict and thereby diminishes the time spent on conflict management activities (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000).

Courtesy refers to behavior that prevents problems and takes the essential steps to lessen the results of the problem in future (May–Chiun Lo *et al.*, 2009). Courtesy also means members encouraging other members in their work. Literature reveals that a courteous employee would help reduce the intergroup conflict and thus reduce the time spent on conflict management activities (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000).

2.4.5 Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness is defined as behaviour that suggests a reasonable level of self-control and discipline, which extends beyond the minimum requirements expected in that situation. In the context of a business setting, conscientiousness is observed when an employee not only meets their employer's requirements—such as coming into work on time and completing assignments on time—but exceeds them. Exceeding these requirements, and thereby showing conscientiousness, could be observed—for example—by an employee planning ahead to ensure that they, and their co-workers, do not become overwhelmed in their work.

It is a discretionary behavior that goes beyond the basic requirements of the job in terms of obeying work rules, attendance and job performance (Redman & Snape, 2005). OCB impacts work group efficiency during times of crisis management. For

example, having conscientiousness and helping others result in decreased inter-group conflict and allow managers to focus on more pressing matters (MacKenzie *et al.*, 2009).

Conscientiousness is one personality factor that has been at the center of personality-performance studies. A conscientious individual is competent, well-organized, duty-bound, disciplined, and deliberative. Conscientious people tend to be highly achievement focused and show great perseverance, which explains the high significance of this factor in career success (Judge *et al.*, 1999; Ng, Eby, Sorenson, & Feldman, 2005). The traits relating to openness and those relating to conscientiousness are seen to be quite opposite to each other. Conscientiousness talks about impulse-control need for structure, organization, and conformity while openness describes risk-taking, low dogmatism, unstructured thinking, and comfort with ambiguity. We also see that in several contexts, openness and conscientiousness produce opposite impacts (Le Pine, Colquitt, & Erez, 2000; George & Zhou, 2001). It is possible that in the presence of conscientiousness, the influence of openness on work outcomes is reduced. This type of compensatory interaction has been seen between other factors affecting performance (Coté & Miners, 2006; Burke & Witt, 2002; Witt, 2002).

Conscientiousness indicates that a particular individual is organized, accountable and hardworking (Lo *et al.*, 2009). Organ (1988) defined conscientiousness as the dedication to the job, which exceed formal requirements such as working long hours, and volunteer to perform jobs besides duties. Literature also reveals that conscientiousness can be related to organizational politics among employees (McCrae & Costa, 1987). According to Neihoff and Yen (2004), more conscientious employees will stay informed with up-to-date knowledge about products or services offered.

It is a discretionary behaviour that goes well beyond the minimum role requirement level of the organization, such as obeying rules and regulations, not taking extra breaks, working extra-long days (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1993). It is a prototype of going well beyond minimally required levels of attendance, punctuality, and housekeeping, penchant towards conserving resources, and overall giving an impression of being a responsible citizen of the organization. If the employee is highly conscientious it

implies that he is highly responsible and needs less supervision (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Altruism and conscientiousness are the two major or overarching dimensions of OCB (Borman *et al.*, 2001).

Conscientiousness is one of the five major dimensions in the Big Five model (also called Five Factor Model) of personality, which also consists of extraversion, neuroticism, openness to experience, and agreeableness. It refers to behaviors indicating that an individual pays special attention, when carrying out his/her work, for example sticking scrupulously to protocol or keeping precisely to working hours. As a result, customer satisfaction is increased. Additionally, they note that more conscientious and courteous employees will increase customer satisfaction because employees stay more informed and up-to-date on the products and services the company offers. The elements leading to conscientious behaviour include obeying rules, following timely breaks, punctuality and job performance (Redman and Snape, 2005, Yen and Niehforr (2004), assert that conscientiousness refers to carrying out one's duties beyond the minimum requirement. It characterises the organisation-man's behaviour that exceeds minimal role requirements.

Conscientiousness here refers to discretionary behaviours that go beyond the basic requirements of the job in terms of obeying work rules, attendance and job performance, similarly, conscientiousness means the thorough adherence to organizational rules and procedures, even when no one is watching. It is believed to be, the mindfulness that a person never forgets to be a part of a system and sportsmanship on the other hand describes workers' willingness to endure minor shortcomings of an organization such as delay in compensations.

Conscientiousness, a discretionary behaviour, goes beyond the role requirement level such as in obeying rules and regulations and working extra-long days (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1993), and is also a prototype of going well beyond punctuality, and housekeeping to being a responsible citizen of the organization (Tambe & Shanker, 2014). Such an individual is organized, self-disciplined and hardworking (Tambe & Shanker, 2014). With a highly conscientious employee the implication is that the individual is highly responsible and requires less supervision (Podsakoff &

MacKenzie, 1997). According to Borman, Buck, Hanson, Motowidlo, Stark and Dragow (2001), both conscientiousness and altruism are two overarching dimensions of OCB. An interesting point made by Kidder and Parks (1993) is that males are more likely to engage in conscientious behaviour than females taking cognizance of the fact that males have preference for 'equity over equality'. Higher values are associated with greater conscientiousness when combined (Yorges, 1999). Those individuals who are high in conscientiousness seem to be, amongst others, more organized and disciplined (McCrae & Costa, 1987; cited in Lv *et al.*, 2012).

McCrae and Costa (1987) observe that conscientiousness includes facets such as reliability, self-discipline and perseverance. This to an extent could be understood as conformity to the organization's rules and regulations. Though this is an expected work place behavior, it is still included in OCB. This is because it tends to measure the self-drive of an employee towards obedience to the norms of the organization. For example, generalized compliance involves activities such as doing more than is required to meet minimum task requirements or offering specific ideas to solve organizational problems without being asked. Sportsmanship is defined as a person's tendency and choice not to complain when experiencing the inevitable inconveniences and problems experienced in exercising a professional activity. Finkelstein and Penner (2004) observe that OCB is strongly related to concern for the organization and felt-responsibility an employee confirms for herself regarding the complete organization, which is certainly over and above the concern and responsibilities that her job confers upon her. Conscientiousness, with its emphasis on responsibility and dedication, is likely to underlie the first motive for interpersonal helping—taking the initiative to engage in behaviors for the good of the organization - conscientiousness can be expressed in numerous ways in organizations and, most obviously, in terms of job performance (King, 2005). Conscientiousness affects important work outcomes (Goldberg *et al.*, 2005).

Theoretically, conscientiousness may be an important predictor of workplace behaviors because it provides the organization and direction that are necessary to produce targeted behaviors (King *et al.*, 2005). Higher values are associated with greater conscientiousness when combined (Yorges, 1999). Conscientiousness

accounted for unique variance in citizenship targeted toward the organization, as researched by Ladd and Henry (2000). Lowery and Krilowicz (1996), Supervisory evaluations of performance were found to be determined by Altruism. Conscientiousness consists of behaviors that go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization (Law, Wong, & Chen, 2005). These behaviors indicate that employees accept and adhere to the rules, regulations, and procedures of the organization.

Conscientiousness is one of the five major dimensions in the Big Five model (also called Five Factor Model) of personality, which also consists of extraversion, neuroticism, openness to experience, and agreeableness. Undoubtedly, this is a major factor that contributes to overall effectiveness. In this case, perfection can also be attributed to conscientiousness, which requires that one go beyond the required limit to think of what would benefit the organization. It also involves complying with the set rules and regulations, following procedures as required, and striving for perfection in every project. One has to enforce values, like discipline, sincerity, cautiousness, clarity, etc., in the regular work schedule.

Conscientiousness is related to impulse control, but it should not be confused with the problems of impulse control associated with other personality traits, such as (high) extraversion, (low) agreeableness, (high) openness and (high) neuroticism. Individuals low on conscientiousness are unable to motivate themselves to perform a task that they would like to accomplish.^[5] Recently, conscientiousness has been broken down, further, into two aspects: orderliness and industrious, the former which is associated with the desire to keep things organized and tidy and the latter which is associated more closely with productivity and work ethic. Conscientiousness, along with (lower) openness, is also one of the trait markers of political conservatism.

Conscientiousness is an employee's voluntary behaviors beyond his/her minimum role requirements in obeying rules and regulations, taking break and so on (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990). The word conscientiousness is defined as a force which prompts an individual to make judgment about his/her behaviors and enables the individual to make direct and instinctive judgments about his/her own moral values

(Turkish Language Institute, 2014). These behaviors may include arriving work early, leaving late; abstaining from long and unnecessary breaks; being punctual in meetings and appointments; completing duties in time; preserving company resources, making constructive suggestions (Özyer *et al.*, 2012). Furthermore, being punctual, using tea, coffee and meal breaks carefully, attending regularly to meetings in organizations and obeying all formal and informal rules that are developed to maintain order in the organization are also examples of conscientiousness behaviour (2000:).

In other words, conscientiousness means the thorough adherence to organizational rules and procedures, even when no one is watching. It is believed to be, the mindfulness that a person never forgets to be a part of a system (organization). Conscientiousness, and Openness are all better predictors of decision-making performance when adaptability is required than decision making performance prior to unforeseen change (Lepine *et al.*, 2000). Also, Conscientiousness was significantly related to Generalized Compliance and to Civic Virtue, (two of the antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior). More conscientious employees will stay informed with up-to date knowledge about products or services offered (Neihoff & Yen, 2004). High conscientious individuals, in contrast, persisted longer than individuals lower in conscientiousness whether or not there was an additional benefit and whether or not they varied the procedure while performing (Sansone *et al.*, 1999). Conscientiousness, with its emphasis on responsibility and dedication, is likely to underlie the first motive for interpersonal helping—taking the initiative to engage in behaviors for the good of the organization - conscientiousness can be expressed in numerous ways in organizations and, most obviously, in terms of job performance (King *et al.*, 2005).

Conscientiousness affects important work outcomes (Roberts *et al.* 2005). Theoretically, conscientiousness may be an important predictor of workplace behaviors because it provides the organization and direction that are necessary to produce targeted behaviors (King *et al.*, 2005). Higher values are associated with greater conscientiousness when combined (Yorges, 1999). Conscientiousness accounted for unique variance in citizenship targeted toward the organization, as

researched by Ladd and Henry (2000). In other words, conscientiousness means the thorough adherence to organizational rules and procedures, even when no one is watching. It is believed to be, the mindfulness that a person never forgets to be a part of a system (organization). Conscientiousness, and Openness are all better predictors of decision-making performance when adaptability is required than decision-making performance prior to unforeseen change (Colquitt *et al.*, 2000). Konovsky and Organ Bukhari, Ali, Shahzad and Bashir 137 (1996) found in their study that, conscientiousness was significantly related to all five types of OCB. Also, Conscientiousness was significantly related to Generalized Compliance and to Civic Virtue, (two of the antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior). More conscientious employees will stay informed with up-to date knowledge about products or services offered (Neihoff & Yen, 2004). High conscientious individuals, in contrast, persisted longer than individuals lower in conscientiousness whether or not there was an additional benefit and whether or not they varied the procedure while performing (Morgan *et al.*, 1999).

Conscientiousness, with its emphasis on responsibility and dedication, is likely to underlie the first motive for interpersonal helping—taking the initiative to engage in behaviors for the good of the organization - conscientiousness can be expressed in numerous ways in organizations and, most obviously, in terms of job performance (King, 2005). Conscientiousness affects important work outcomes (Goldberg *et al.*, 2005). Theoretically, conscientiousness may be an important predictor of workplace behaviors because it provides the organization and direction that are necessary to produce targeted behaviors (King *et al.*, 2005). Higher values are associated with greater conscientiousness when combined (Yorges, 1999). Conscientiousness accounted for unique variance in citizenship targeted toward the organization, as researched by Ladd and Henry (2000). Lowery and Krilowicz (1996), Supervisory evaluations of performance were found to be determined by Altruism and Conscientiousness as well as by objective job performance.

2.4.6 Work Environment

Many scholars have attempted to conceptualize the working environment. Work environment may be defined in its simplest form as the settings, situations, conditions and circumstances under which people work. It is further elaborated by Briner, (2000) as a very broad category that encompasses the physical setting (example, heat, equipment etc.), characteristics of the job itself (example, workload, task complexity), broader organizational features (example, culture, history) and even aspects of the extra organizational setting (example, local labour market conditions, industry sector, work-home relationships). It means that work environment is the sum of the interrelationship that exists among the employees and the employers and the environment in which the employees work which includes the technical, the human and the organizational environment.

Opperman (2002) was quoted in Yusuf and Metiboba (2012), to define workplace environment as composition of three major sub-environments which include the technical environment, the human environment and the organizational environment. According to them technical environment refers to tools, equipment, technological infrastructure and other physical or technical elements of the workplace. The human environment includes the peers, others with whom employees relate, team and work groups, interactional issues, the leadership and management. The human environment can be interpreted as the network of formal and informal interaction among colleagues; teams as well as boss-subordinate relationship that exist within the framework of organizations. Such interaction (especially the informal interaction), presumably, provides avenue for dissemination of information and knowledge as well as cross-fertilization of ideas among employees. Of course, it has been established in previous studies that workers' interpersonal relations at workplace tend to influence their morale (Clement, 2000; Stanley, 2003). Hypothetically, whatever affects morale on the job is likely to affect job commitment. According to Yusuf and Metiboba, (2012) the third type of work environment, organizational environment includes systems, procedures, practices, values and philosophies which operate under the control of management. In the words of Akintayo (2012) organizational environment refers to the immediate task

and national environment where an organization draws its inputs, processes it and returns the outputs in form of products or services for public consumption.

The task and national environment includes factors such as supplier's influence, the customer's role, the stakeholders, socio cultural factors, the national economy, technology, legislations, managerial policies and philosophies. Few studies which have attempted studying African workplace environmental factors on staff related variables were done in workplaces other than campuses and those studies conducted in universities fail to show the empirical link between workplace environmental factors and either teaching and non-teaching staff of higher institutions of learning Ajayi *et al.* (2011). The dependent variable in the study of Ajayi *et al.* (2011) was job satisfaction while workers' morale and perceived productivity in industrial organizations was the dependent variable in Akintayo's study in 2012. Another study by Akinyele (2010) linked workplace environment to workers' productivity in the oil and gas industry. Yusuf and Metiboba (2012) also linked work environment with workers' attitudes in all organization in general. According to them technical environment refers to tools, equipment, technological infrastructure and other physical or technical elements of the workplace.

The environment is man's immediate surrounding which he manipulates for his existence. Wrongful manipulation introduces hazards that make the environments unsafe and impede the productivity rate of the worker. Therefore, the work place entails an environment in which the worker performs his work (Chapins, 1995) while an effective workplace is an environment where results can be achieved as expected by management (Mike, 2010). According to Molokwu (1993), office is safe for employees when overcrowding is avoided. This allows free movement of both workers and materials as well as enhances effective operational process. Shikdar (2002), physical environment affects how employees in an organization interact, perform tasks, and are led.

Physical environment has directly affected the human sense and subtly changed interpersonal interactions and thus productivity. This is so because the characteristics of a room or a place of meeting for a group have consequences regarding

productivity and satisfaction level. The workplace environment is the most critical factor in keeping an employee satisfied in today's business world. Today's workplace is different, diverse and constantly changing. The typical employer/employee relationship of old has been turned upside down. Workers are living in a growing economy and have almost limitless job opportunities. This combination of factors has created an environment where the business needs its employees more than the employees need the business (Smith, 2011).

Physical environment describes and explores the evidence for the association between the physical work environment and wellbeing of the employees. Common features such as noise, lighting, ventilation air quality and thermal comfort. By reviewing some of these aspects the researcher aimed to demonstrate that characteristics of the physical work environment do indeed have a marked and measureable impact upon workers' well-being and behavior. These characteristics influences the constructs of OCB.

The work space influences the relations between individual characteristics of employees and their treatments in shape of opportunities and constraints (Graham, 1991; Dijke *et al.*, 2012). Globally, work environment features could be strengthen or diluted the staff's tendency to engage them in certain behaviors due to their personal or organizational motivations.

The psychological environment can be thought of, more specifically, as those features of the work environment which are relevant to worker behavior. By behavior, the three related types of psychological phenomena are considered: affect (e.g. emotions, mood, psychological symptoms, affective disorders); cognitions (e.g. attitudes, perception, decision-making); and behaviors (example, effectiveness, absence, motivation). The psychological environment is therefore the set of those characteristics of work environment that affect how the worker feels, thinks and behaves towards work.

Historically, nonstandard forms of work have been undertaken by less skilled and less committed workers (Galais & Moser, 2009). Richardson and Allen (2001)

support the view that the term ‘casual’ carries with it many assumptions, but argue that workers in casual employment have the same education and experiences as their fulltime colleagues. Several authors argue that commitment to an employer is influenced by the type of employment chosen and that many casual workers are female who have chosen family commitments over commitments to a career and hence employer (Whittock *et al.*, 2002). In study findings involving nurses, positive correlations between job satisfaction and organizational commitment highlight the need to support employment choice where possible (Ingersoll *et al.*, 2002). For many nurses who choose to work flexible schedules and/or hours, job satisfaction and organizational commitment may be influenced by how well they are able to integrate both work and family commitments.

European studies tend to dominate research in the area of casual employment with significantly fewer studies having been conducted in other regions. It would however be erroneous to assume that the findings of European research can automatically be generalized to casual employment in the other regions of the world because of the difference between the two contexts. Specifically, European employment regulations for casual workers tend to be more protective with minimum rights accorded to permanent workers, also extended to casual workers (Vosko, 2006). This is in contrast to the situation in other continents, where casual workers are not entitled to paid public holidays, notice of dismissal or redundancy (Hall & Harly, 2000).

2.4.7 Casual Employees’ Performance

Performance measurement is an ongoing activity for all managers and their subordinates. The measurement of employee performance is not an easy task for managers with multiple objectives of profitability, employee satisfaction, productivity, growth, and ability to adapt to the changing environment among other objectives. According to David Hakala (2008), performance measurement uses the following indicators of performance, as well as assessments of those indicators.

The number of units produced, processed or sold is a good objective indicator of performance. It is important to be careful of placing too much emphasis on quantity,

lest quality suffer. The quality of work performed can be measured by several means. The percentage of work output that must be redone or is rejected is one such indicator. In a sales environment, the percentage of inquiries converted to sales is an indicator of salesmanship quality.

The authors argue that promoting tolerance is a key weapon in battling prejudice and bias within the workplace and this would consequently prompt the organization-man to utilise their competences outside their stated job requirements. In other words, workers in the Nigerian Hospitality Industry, apart from achieving stated job requirements, appear to go beyond the call of duty, because they feel that the organisation has ample opportunity for them to be creative. This is in line with Turnipseed and Rassuli (2005) who argued that having workers highly engaged in OCB may improve managers' efficiency by allowing them to devote a greater amount of time to long-range planning matters. They are more likely to conform to organizational rules and to be obedient to their bosses and thus more prone to exhibiting citizenship behavior at the workplace (Luthans & Youseff, 2007).

Workers, who go above and beyond the minimum requirements of their job description, by suggesting improvements, affect performance and result with enhanced workgroup efficiency. OCB impacts workgroup efficiency during times of crisis management. For example, having conscientiousness and helping others result in decreased inter-group conflict and allow managers to focus on more pressing matters (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1999). Having workers highly engaged in OCB may improve managers' efficiency by allowing them to devote a greater amount of time to long-range planning matters. Subsequently, managers benefit from positive OCB as well as employees (Turnipseed & Rassuli, 2005). According to Evans and Davis (2005), in their empirical study on the relationship between high performance work system and organizational performance, they found that employees whose are good citizen are likely to devote their time and energy to ensure knowledge is exchanged, understood and integrated. This can be seen from greater willingness to engage in helping behaviors and more sportsmanship behavior. An effective leadership can drive the employees to perform beyond their official job requirements (Taleghani &

Mehr, 2013). It is because leaders are known to have a powerful source of influence on employees' work behaviours (Yukl, 2002).

Ueda in his study (2011), finds that the factor of job performance has a direct impact on both civic behavior (virtue) and helping behavior, while the factor of job commitment has a great impact on both assisting behavior and acceptance spirit. The study found that, the collectivity factor influenced by both aspects of civic behavior (virtue) and assisting behavior. The weaker the group is the greater the impact of job commitment on civic behavior (virtue) will be more than that in the case of a stronger group. Another studies found that there was a significant and positive relationship between OCB and quality and quantity of achieved task. The explanation of this result indicated that there were some reasons such as: OCB helps to direct the resources in a greater size towards accomplishment of productive goals. OCB enhances the productivity of managers and employees. • OCB contributes to coordinating the activities among work groups better. OCB enhances the capability of organization to better recruit of employees and attaining them through making the organization an attractive work place (Podaskoff *et al.*, 2000). Duffy and Lilly (2013), focused on recognizing the impact of inner (core) motivation on the OCB by using the theory of needs by Mclealand with the three aspects of (belongingness, accomplishment, and power needs) as mediating roles between OCB and both organizational trust and perceived organizational support). The results showed that both accomplishment and power needs play vital role in motivating OCB and play a mediating role between OCB and both organizational trust and support unexpectedly. Yaghoubi, *et al.* (2013), tried to investigate the efficiency of organization through the productivity of its employees and the relationship between achieving productivity and OCB practiced by employees. The results indicated a close relationship between OCB dimensions and the productivity of Human Resources. Rioux (2012) seeks to recognize the variables that assist in forecasting the OCB by hospitals employees. The results indicated that the most affected dimensions of OCB forecasting are the politeness, where sacrifice and civic behavior (virtue) were not shown clearly by the employees of hospital in middle region of France. Mohant and Rath (2012) conducted a study on industrial and IT companies and banks. The findings of this

study indicate that there is an important relationship between the culture of organization and OCB in the industrial, IT and banking sectors and a relationship between organizational culture and OCB in individual companies. Moreover, the organizational culture is considered a force casting factor for OCB in the three sectors as well as the individual companies. Kasemsap (2012), study aims to build a framework for OCB concept besides developing a model for the factors affecting OCB in the automobile manufacturing companies in Thailand. The results indicated that the dimensions of organizational justice, job satisfaction and organizational commitment play a positive role in motivating and insighting the OCB, while job satisfaction and organizational commitment play a mediating role between the organizational justice and OCB in these companies. In addition, the job satisfaction is related positively to job commitment. Podsakoff *et al.* (2009) study indicated an impact of OCB on performance evaluation, rewards, rate of job turnover, absenteeism; an impact for OCB on organization productivity, productive efficiency, customer satisfaction, and cost reduction. Chegini (2009), indicates that there are a statistical significant and positive relationship between organizational justice (distributive, political, individual and media justice) and OCB. How fast work is performed is another performance indicator that should be used with caution. In field service, the average customer's downtime is a good indicator of timeliness. In manufacturing, it might be the number of units produced per hour.

2.5 Critique of Existing Literature

The Social Exchange Theory presumes that people always make rational decisions, and point out that this theoretical model fails to capture the power that emotions play in our daily lives and in our interactions with others. This theory also undercuts the power of social structures and forces, which unconsciously shape our perception of the world and our experiences within it, and play a strong role in shaping our interactions with others. The social exchange theory attributes a selfish motive to all actions, by assuming that all decisions are taken rationally. It does not entertain the concept of altruism. This theory is based on the assumption that people only act individually, and ignore group decisions.

The opportunities afforded by an equitable workplace motivate employees to achieve. Believing that rewards will be commensurate with effort, employees with ability and drive strive to shine. This behavior is explained by equity theory, which links fairness to employee effort. When people receive bonuses, pay and promotions at a job that equitably rewards merit, the company ends up with the right people in the right places doing the right things. Equity, then, sets the stage for a dynamic culture of achievement. Equity also encourages employee retention. An employee who believes he can have a bright future with a company wants to stay and claim it. When employees stay, companies are relieved of brain drain, the expense of training replacement employees and watching former employees enrich competitors with training provided by the original employer.

Attracting talent is easier for companies that pursue workplace equity and foster a meritocracy than it is for those that do only enough to avoid breaking employment laws. People who have a lot to offer want to be compensated fairly without worrying about hidden agendas that lead to preferential treatment for a chosen few. Talented people ready to excel are excited that cause and effect rules in an equitable workplace. It means investment of brains, energy and dedication pays off. It also gives these achievers the chance to work with other achievers.

Diversity is often the result of workplaces that are functioning equitably, assuming that the potential workers have equitable access to educational opportunities. Diversity in a workplace means more experience, more perspectives and more source material to draw from in brainstorming, solving problems and creating innovative products or services. A company's intellectual capital gains depth and breadth is through diversity. Equity Theory seems to have been built-on the belief that employees become de-motivated, both in relation to their job and their employer, if they feel as though their inputs are greater than the outputs. Employees can be expected to respond to this different ways, including de-motivation (generally to the extent the employee perceives the disparity between the inputs and the outputs exist), reduced effort, becoming disgruntled, or, in more extreme cases, perhaps even disruptive.

Equity is a subjective evaluation, not an objective one. Based on the comparison that individuals use, each individual is likely to develop different perceptions of equity. (Scholl, 2000). When individuals look at the equity model on the job scale, they compare their contributions and rewards to that of those around them (associates, coworkers, management, etc.). If the equation is balanced, the equity--as society puts it--is accomplished. If it is unbalanced, the inequity may cause individual dissatisfaction. The theory also puts that, A major input into job performance and satisfaction is the degree of equity (or inequity) that people perceive in their work situation. It is like making an input-output analysis. The employee compares his input-output ratio with those of other employees. If he finds the ratio as inequitable then he is dissatisfied. On the contrary equitable ratio makes him satisfied and he is motivated. It depends on the employee's perception of the ratio.

The new laws Act 2007, specifically Section 37 of the Employment Act No. 11 of 2007, curtail casual employment with new provisions that require employees to be made regular, where jobs are not of casual nature. This Act requires that any person who has been employed on casual basis for more than three months be confirmed on permanent basis. However, this is not the case in our public universities. The Act introduces significant changes concerning casual employment. Under the new Act, a casual employee means a person the terms of whose engagement provide for payment at the end of each day, and who is not engaged for a longer period than twenty-four hours at a time. Employers who offer work that should last for at least one month, should, if they cannot employ a worker on permanent basis, engage him on a contract term. Pursuant to this Act, a casual employee who is engaged for more than a month in a job which otherwise would not reasonably be completed in a period less than three months, shall now be treated as an employee. However, this law seems not be binding.

There is only one category of worker defined in the Labour Act and that is a worker. The Act defines a worker to mean: Any person who has entered into or works under a contract with an employer, whether the contract is for manual labour or clerical work or is expressed or implied or oral or written, and whether it is a contract of service or a contract personally to execute any work or labour. The definition does

not recognize workers in nonstandard work arrangements. Uvieghara (2001) argues that the definition is narrow because it is apparent that it is not every employee at common law that is a worker under the Act. Thus, for Part 1 of the Act to apply to an employee under the common law he or she has to fall within the definition of the term worker. The term employee is not defined by the Labour Act; therefore, we rely on the common law definition which states that an employee is a worker who has a contract of service.

It has been argued that the Human Resource Management policies are designed to maximize quality and commitment (Guest, 1987). However, it may not be possible to achieve all these goals simultaneously (Legge, 1995). The extensive use of casual forms of labour may undermine quality standards and thus the pursuit of competitive strategies. Even if they do receive training, it is unlikely that occasional workers are able to perform their tasks with the same degree of expertise as the permanent workforce. This is because they lack continuity of employment and thus, have fewer opportunities to acquire a detailed knowledge of work procedures. By definition, casual workers have a much lower level of attachment to the organization and hence commitment to broader organizational goals. As is increasingly being recognized by employers (Dawson & Palmer, 1995) the cost of failing to provide acceptable levels of quality can be very high indeed.

There is a lack of consensus as to what constitutes a valid set of organizational performance and organizational effectiveness criteria (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Although many investigators rely on a single indicator, such as turnover or overall firm rating (Cameron, 1986), there seems to be a general agreement that multiple internal (preferred by internal participants) and external (those of clients or outside groups) criteria are needed for a more comprehensive evaluation of organizations (Cameron *et al.*, 1986). However, the determinants of performance are often confused with variables that indicate effectiveness (Cameron, 1986). These are rarely clear rationales and hypotheses suggesting whether a variable is of one type or the other or whether a predictor in one context may be another context (Lewin & Minton, 1986). Majority of the existing studies on the consequences of casual employment for individual tend to mainly focus on traditional job-related attitudes

such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (De Cuyper *et.al.*, 2008). Relatively, little theoretical work or empirical research has addressed the effects the commitment of individuals to their professional identity (Ashford *et al.*, 2007).

Despite the growing increase in research, interest on the casual forms of employment relatively little theoretical work or empirical research has addressed the question of how these forms of non-standard employment affect the careers of individuals. Instead, the literature largely exists of assumptions about the negative consequences of casual employment on career success (Peel & Inkson, 2004).

Employee retention has the attention of top-level managers in today's organizations because the personal and organizational costs of leaving a job are very high (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001). It is a business management term which refers to the efforts made by employers to retain employees in their workforce. Little number of studies (Meyer, Ristow, & Lie, 2007; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1997) revealed that OCB dimensions like altruism and sportsmanship improve organizational capacity to attract and retain best employees. Retention has a direct and casual relationship with employee's needs and motivation. Employees with altruism behavior help each other in the organization which leads to healthy interpersonal relationship among employees. This results in a healthy work environment and positive work climate. Employees with this type of working environment rarely wish to leave the organization. Sportsmanship and courtesy also creates a positive working environment where employees rarely complain about the inconveniencies faced by them and reduce work related conflicts of other employees. All these extra role behaviors of employees make the workplace the best place to work for and help in employee retention.

Job satisfaction measures how happy employees are with their job and working environment. In this direction a couple of findings (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006; Khalid & Ali, 2005) found that dimensions of OCB like altruism and conscientiousness may improve satisfaction of employees working in the organization. When experienced employees exhibit altruism in their behavior to help the less experienced employees about efficient ways of performing the job, it will enhance the performance of less

experienced employees whereas employees with conscientious behavior require less supervision and allow the manager to delegate more responsibility to them (Meyer *et al.*, 1997; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1997). Due to altruism and courtesy positive interpersonal relationship will be developed among employees and they will remain satisfied in the organization. So on the basis of these above discussion positive relationship between OCB and employee's satisfaction can be predicted.

Absenteeism refers to the habitual non-presence in the job. Podsakoff *et al.* (2000) stated that although we are not aware of any similar research on the relationship between OCB and other forms of withdrawal behavior, like lateness, absenteeism and tardiness we would expect a similar pattern of effects. Various studies carried out by Chughtai and Zafar (2006), Khalid and Ali (2005), Meyer and colleagues (1997), and Podsakoff & Mackenzie (1997) supported that increased level of OCB leads to reduced absenteeism. Van Scooter *et al.* (1994, 1996) stated OCB shows an employee's eagerness to be actively involved in the organization and to interact with other members. But absenteeism which refers withdrawing from work tasks of the organization and withdrawing from the social environment (Viswesvaran, 2002). Both the characteristics of behavior indicate to have negative relation between the two constructs. Employees having high propensity in OCB dimensions like conscientiousness and civic virtue are quite interested for the development and existence of the organization and avoid unnecessary absence which might be harmful for the organization. Therefore, a negative relationship between OCB and absenteeism is expected.

Work –family conflict can be defined as a form of inter role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect (Bolino & Turnley, 2010). It is a kind of role conflict in which work-role demands interferes with family-role demands (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). It occurs when the time, energy and behavioral demands of a role in one domain (family or work) create hindrances to meet the demands of the other domain (family or work). (Bragger, Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino, & Rosner 2005; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Perrewe, Hochwarter, & Kiewitz, 1999). Work family conflict often leads to certain negative consequences like attitudinal, behavioral and health related problems. When

an individual helps others in the organization or stays for long hours he generally gives less time to his family which leads to work family conflict. Bolino and Turnley (2005) found out that OCB sometimes leads to negative consequences like work family conflict. Peziz (2010) also found positive relation between OCB and work-family conflict and the relationship was moderated by cooperative norms. Hence OCB is likely to be positively correlated with work family conflict.

2.6 Research Gaps

The incidence of marital status, educational qualification and gender on organizational citizenship behaviour should be de-emphasized while the emphasis should be on the antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviour and how to foster it in the workplace environment. Managers must be aware of these OCB facilitators which can impact general team behaviour and eventually, organizational performance and productivity.

Much of research on casual workers focuses on drawing out differences between them and their permanent counterparts. A small body of research delves into the impact of casual workers on permanent employees. Most of these studies focus on either the impact on task performance or aspects such as trust and morale of permanent employees. Study of workforce blending or use of both casual workers and permanent workers and its impact on permanent workers is of practical importance to organizations that are either using or planning to employ contract workers. It is imperative to understand how they might influence the existing permanent workers. It is evident that employment of casual workers is considered as a threat by employees and affects their sense of fairness about the firm. As a result, employing casual workers will be accompanied by decrease in OCB.

Through the framework presented in the thesis, certain moderating factors are proposed that have a bearing on the relation between employing casual workers and behavior of permanent workers. Some of the practical implications that follow include: (i) employing casual workers results in the employee perception that the firm is unfair. If the rationale of employing casual workers is explained to the

permanent employees in an honest manner, they will not regard the firm as that unfair as they would when they are not provided with any adequate explanation. (ii). More and more firms are now employing highly skilled casual workers. Apart from providing flexibility, they also facilitate innovation. To take full advantage of such workers, it is important that the firm context (which includes culture, structure, policies, etc.) is such that permanent workers are motivated to take advantage of their association and they look at casual workers as an opportunity rather than threat. (iii) Employees often process information based on clues and feeders that they get from the outside environment. (iv) The nature of association of casual workers will play a role in how permanent employees react to their use. As such, a firm should be prepared for a stronger reaction from them in case it is employing casual workers for a longer duration for jobs that are somewhat similar to those held by permanent employees.

Since OCB promotes efficient and effective functioning of the organizations most of the studies paid attention on positive consequences of OCB, neglecting the negative effects of it on individual employees. So there is a need to look for the darker side of this construct. The study will examine the negative impact of OCB on employees like work-family conflict and role overload. In this study employee engagement, HR practices, and job embeddedness have been taken as determinants of OCB and employee retention, job satisfaction, low absenteeism, work-family conflict, and role-overload as consequences of OCB. No study as such has incorporated such variables in a single framework to analyze the determinants and consequences of OCB. Majority of the researches in this domain has focused on identifying the determinants of OCB whereas very little is known about the consequences of this construct (Jain, Giga, & Cooper, 2011). So there is a need to focus on the consequences of OCB along with its determinants. The impact of newly developed construct i.e. job embeddedness on OCB seems to be unaddressed. There is paucity of research in this area. Therefore the research in job embeddedness in the context of OCB will enrich and expand the understanding of employee behavior in organization. In previous literatures job satisfaction was taken as antecedent leading to OCB. However it is observed that job satisfaction has never been taken as an

outcome of OCB which is needed to be tested. The result will confirm the role of Job satisfaction as a determinant to OCB.

It seems that the performance management and service delivery effort (which is part of the larger HRM practices) does not have significant impacts on employee flexible behavior. This contradicts the studies by (Nemeth & Staw, 2009), Turnipseed and Rassuli (2005), and Gupta and Singh (2010) that suggests that there is a strong relationship between Human Resource Management (HRM) practices and Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

Casualisation is encouraged due to the numerous loopholes that exist in labour laws, allowing employers to hire casual employees continuously to fill permanent positions. For instance, while labour laws may cover almost all workers, there are serious challenges of enforcement. The central problem appears to be that there is a huge difference between employment position of people on permanent terms and those on casual contracts. The permanent employees are assured of their jobs while the employment of casual workers is uncertain over renewal and occupational progression. To lump them together to accomplish the objectives of the organization may lead to the decline in productivity and profits. Hence, a study of the relations of the two is essential.

Despite growing research interest in the consequences of casual employment relatively little theoretical work or empirical research has addressed the question of how these forms of non-standard employment affect the careers of individuals. In examining the consequences of casual employment on individuals' career success perceptions this paper provided unique insights and made an additional, third, key contribution to the literature on casual employment. Scholars such as Connolly and Gallagher (2004) and Olsen (2006) highlight the importance of increased research on the consequences of such nonstandard work practices for organizations. Further, scholars suggest the need of research in this area in different countries important for better understanding of the phenomenon (Olsen, 2006).

Researchers seeking to isolate the antecedents of OCB have focused largely on job satisfaction and OCB (Moorman *et al.*, 1993). The former includes attitudes toward specific aspects of the work role. The latter reflects attitudes toward the overall organization (Van Knippenberg & Sleebos 2006) and assumes an understanding between an individual and organization regarding their obligations to one another. The terms of this agreement can be stated explicitly (e.g., as in a formal contract or public statement) or the terms can be implicit, a kind of psychological contract open to subjective interpretation by the parties (Brown, 1996; Rousseau, 1995).

2.7 Summary

Theories of the study have highlighted a lot of research in this field and it can be seen that a number of research has been done. Not all theories were researched on, however those that were conducted gave some light on the study. The theories that were used in the study are; social exchange theory, equity theory, work adjustment theory and organizational support theory. From the literature review it is clear that a lot of research has been conducted in many countries outside the African continent save for Nigeria whereby some research has been done extensively on casual employees. However, a lot of research in this area has been conducted in Australia, Britain and America. Also, organizational citizenship behavior is an important study for organizations that would like to improve their production by understanding the perceptions of their employees. This study, therefore, aimed to research on the role of organizational citizenship behaviour that affects the performance of casual employees in Kenyan public universities.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter present the methodology that the researcher used to find answers to the research questions. It presented the research design, area of study, target population, sampling and sample size, instrumentation, data collection methods, instruments of data collection, pilot study and data analysis.

3.2 Research philosophy

This study applied the interpretivist paradigm to the collection, analysis and interpretation of data. As indicated by Babbie (2005), the study involved observations on aspects of the social world and sought to discover patterns that could be used to explain wider principles of OCB. The study took into consideration that there is no one reality, rather reality is based on an individual's perceptions and experiences (Robson, 2002). As supported by Easterby-Smith et al., (2002), various interpretations that respondents related to OCB were analyzed and presented.

3.3 Research Design

A research design is a plan showing how the problem of investigation was solved. It is the set of methods and procedures used in collecting and analyzing measures of the variables specified in the research problem or research study. The function of the research design was to ensure that the evidence obtained enabled the study to answer the research questions as unambiguously as possible. The study adopted descriptive research design. Such a design entails the use of a quantitative and qualitative study approaches. Namusonge (2010) observed that this method is best suited for gathering descriptive information where the researcher wants to know about people or attitudes concerning one or more variables through direct query. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) this approach focuses on designs, techniques and measures that produce discreet numerical data or quantifiable data. The researcher used this

approach because the data collected from the respondents provided quantitative data that was analyzed using statistics.

A survey was appropriate because the researcher was addressing more than two variables at the same time and also because surveys are used in social research when measuring characteristics of large population. The researcher prepared a research design after formulating the research problem in clear terms. This involves stating conceptual structure within which research was conducted. The preparation of such design was to ensure that the research is efficient in yielding maximum information. According to Ngechu (2004), the purpose of the survey research design is for researchers to describe the attitudes, opinion, behaviors, or characteristics of the population based on the data collected from the sample or population. Thuo and Katsuse (2013) citing Kerlinger (1969) pointed out that descriptive studies are not only restricted to fact findings but may often result in the formulation of important principles of knowledge and solutions to significant problems. Descriptive research seeks to establish factors associated with certain occurrences, outcomes, conditions or types of behavior (Thuo & Katsuse, 2013). This method was preferred because it allowed for an in-depth study of the case.

3.4 Target Population

The population of the study comprised casual employees in selected public universities in Kenya. The selected Universities included University of Nairobi, Kenyatta University, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, The Co-operative University and Multimedia University. For this study, target population comprised 3130 casual employees in the five public universities sampled. Although the country has many public universities, only five institutions were chosen, they have similar characteristics and at the same time the variables of the study were deemed representative of the other public universities in Kenya.

Kerlinger (2006) indicates that a sample size where 10% of the target population is large enough allows for reliable data analysis by cross tabulation, provides desired level of accuracy in estimates of large population and allows testing for significance of differences between estimates. The public Universities were understudy instead of private Universities simply because; Private Universities outsources most of their services and at the same time the characteristics of private universities are totally different as some are sponsored by churches and individuals. According to Ngechu (2004), a population is a well-defined or set of people, services, elements, events, group of things or households that are being investigated. A target population is a sample of individuals, objects or items from which information is gathered in order to assist in data analysis.

3.5 Sampling Frame

A sampling frame has the property that the research can identify every single element and include any in the sample (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). The most straight forward type of frame is a list of elements of the population (preferably the entire population) with appropriate contact information. The institutions employing 1-100 casual workers were selected for the study. This is because the sampling frame possessed all the required information. Prior to the usage of the data base, an attempt to secure a list of the target population from five selected public Universities that may possess the information was undertaken. From this sampling frame the researcher identified the target population from those institutions which are employing casual workers. This was considered as a good method to account for any possible sampling frame error. In this way the researcher was almost free from being misled about the actual population being investigated. Other sampling frames can include employment records, school class lists, patient files in a hospital, organizations listed in a thematic database, and so on.

3.6 Sample and Sampling Technique

The sample size determination formulas and procedures for categorical data (Cochran, 1977; Bartlett *et al.*, 2001) was adopted and calculated using the following formula;

$$\frac{n_o = z^2 \times p(1 - p)}{e^2}$$

Where n_o = required sample size

z = confidence level at 95% (standard value of 1.96)

p = estimated adoption rates of performance issues by the employees

e = margin of error at 5% (standard value of 0.05)

Multi-stage sampling techniques was adopted where in the first stage random sampling was adopted. This method was adopted because it was considered to be unbiased and simplifies analysis of data.

Sampling is that part of statistical practice concerned with the selection of a subset of individuals from within a population to yield some knowledge about the whole population, especially for the purposes of making predictions based on statistical inference (Yin, 1994). According to Kothari (2004), sampling methods can be classified into two major groups: probability and non-sampling methods.

Simple random sampling is the basic sampling technique where selection of a group of subjects (a sample) for study from a larger group (a population) is done. Each individual is chosen entirely by chance and each member of the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample. A core characteristic of non-probability sampling techniques is that samples are selected based on the subjective judgement of the researcher, rather than random selection (that is probabilistic methods), which is the cornerstone of probability sampling techniques.

A probability sampling method is any method of sampling that utilizes some form of random selection. In order to have a random selection method, a researcher must set up some process or procedure that assures that the different units in the population have equal probabilities of being chosen. A probability sampling scheme is one in which every unit in the population has a chance (greater than zero) of being selected in the sample, and this probability can be accurately determined. On the other hand, non-probability sampling is any sampling method where the probability of selection can't be accurately determined. It involves the selection of elements based on assumptions regarding the population of interest, which forms the criteria for selection (Kothari, 2004). Ngechu (2004) indicated that a sample size is that number that is representative of the whole population and that for a National Survey, it requires 1000 whereas a district one requires 50 and beyond. Further, according to Cooper and Schindler (2003), random sampling frequently minimizes the sampling error in the population. This in turn increases the precision of any estimation methods used. The sampling of respondents is indicated in table below.

Table 3.1: Universities Selected for Random Sample

University	Population	Sampling percentage	Sample size
University of Nairobi	850	10	85
Kenyatta University	1,200	10	120
Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology	550	10	55
Multi-Media University	300	10	30
Co-operative University College	230	10	23
Total	3,130	10	313

3.7 Data Collection Instruments

According to Ngechu (2004) there are many methods of data collection. The choice of a tool and instrument depends mainly on the attributes of the subjects, research

topic, problem question, objectives, design, expected data and results. This is because each tool and instrument collects specific data. Primary data is information that is collected specifically for the purpose of research project. An advantage of primary data is that it is specifically tailored to the research needs. A disadvantage is that it is expensive to obtain. Primary data is the information gathered directly from respondents and for this study the Researcher used a questionnaire.

Secondary data involves the collection and analysis of published material and information from other sources such as annual reports and published data. Cooper and Schindler (2003) further explain that secondary data is a useful qualitative technique for evaluating historical or contemporary confidential or public records, reports, government documents and opinions. Secondary data refers to data that was collected by someone other than the user. Common sources of secondary data for social science include censuses, information collected by government departments, organizational records and data that was originally collected for other research purposes. Advantages and disadvantages of secondary data. Secondary data is available from other sources and may already have been used in previous research, making it easier to carry out further research. It is time-saving and cost-efficient: the data was collected by someone other than the researcher.

This study employed the use of questionnaires to collect the data. The questionnaire was divided into various sections to adequately cover the objectives of the study. It further, consisted open ended, structured and unstructured questions. The structured questions provided a set of answers from which the respondents chose the appropriate answers. Unstructured ones provided freedom while responding to the subject matter. According to Bryman and Bell (2003), a self-administered questionnaire is the only way to elicit self-report on people's opinion, attitudes, beliefs and values. In order to fully meet the objectives of the study, the primary data gathered was supplemented by secondary data from journals, Corporations' website and newspapers.

3.8 Data Collection Procedure

Data collection is the process of gathering and measuring information on variables of interest, in an established systematic fashion that enables one to answer stated research questions, test hypotheses, and evaluate outcomes. Several methods of acquiring data were embraced, that is, collecting of new data, using previously collected data, reusing someone others data, purchasing data and acquired from Internet (texts, social media, and photos). Data processing was done using a series of actions or steps performed on data to verify, organize, transform, integrate, and extract data in an appropriate output form for subsequent use. Methods of processing were rigorously documented to ensure the utility and integrity of the data. Data Analysis involved actions and methods performed on data that helped describe facts, detect patterns, develop explanations and test hypotheses. This included data quality assurance, statistical data analysis, modelling, and interpretation of results.

The questionnaires were administered individually to all the targeted population. The Researcher exercised care and control to ensure all questionnaires issued to the respondents achieved the desired response by maintaining a register of questionnaires, which were sent, and received. The questionnaires were administered by research assistants using both drop and pick later method and picked at the time of submission where possible.

3.9 Pilot Testing

This pre-test was aimed at establishing the validity, reliability and internal consistency of the designed questionnaires so as to improve the total outlook and content of the final questionnaire. A total of 31 questionnaires which represent 10% of the intended population were administered in five Universities (University of Nairobi, Kenyatta University, Multimedia, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology and Co-operative University College of Kenya).

3.9.1 Data Validity

To ascertain the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, a pilot testing was conducted. The purpose of the pilot testing was to establish the accuracy and appropriateness of research design and instrumentation and to provide proxy data for selection of probability sample (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). The Researcher implemented a pilot-test to assess the clarity, complexity and the face validity of the measure. In effect, revision was made to improve the total look and content of the final questionnaire in terms of readability, wording and arrangement. The suitability of the questionnaire for this study was tested by first administering it on 31 casual employees across the sampled universities which was approximately 10% of 310, the total number of respondents were used in the pre-test and were drawn from the same population frame that was similar to those included in the actual survey in terms of background characteristics and familiarity with the topic. The feedback obtained was instrumental in refining the questionnaire before it was finalized for study. Background information obtained through the piloting process provided insights into the simplification and strengthening of processes in this regard and allowed for a greater understanding of the specific context and respondents to the extent that process could be tailored to this specific context.

3.9.2 Data Reliability

Data reliability which was a measure of internal consistence and average correlation was measured using Cronbach's alpha coefficient which ranges from between 0 and 1 (Kipkebut, 2010). Higher alpha coefficient values mean there is consistency among the items in measuring the concept of interest. As a rule of the thumb acceptable alpha should be at least 0.70 or above. Cronbach's alpha is a general form of the Kunder-Richardson (K-R) 20 formulas derived from Mugenda and Mugenda (2003). The formula was as follows:

$$KR_{20} = \frac{(K) (S^2 - \Sigma s^2)}{(S^2) (K - 1)}$$

Where:

KR_{20} = Reliability coefficient of internal consistency

K = Number of items used to measure the concept

S^2 = Variance of all scores

s^2 = Variance of individual items

Validity is the extent to which a scale or set of measures accurately represents the concept of interest. According to Gay (1982) validity is established by expert judgment. In this regard the questionnaire was constructed in close consultation with the university supervisors and other experts.

3.10 Data Processing and Analysis

The study used qualitative techniques such as descriptive statistics that is response rate, frequency distribution, means and standard deviation for variables included in the study. The Researcher perused completed questionnaires to document analysis recording sheets. Quantitative data collected by using a questionnaire was analyzed by the use of descriptive statistics using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and presented through percentages, means, rankings and frequencies. Inferential statistics was also used to supplement the analysis in line with the study objectives. The data collected from the open ended questions which is qualitative in nature was analyzed by using conceptual content analysis which is the best suited method of analysis. Content analysis is defined by Creswell (2003) as a technique for making inferences by systematically and objectively identifying specific characteristic of messages and using the same approach to relate trends. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) the main purpose of content analysis is to study the existing information in order to determine factors that explained a specific phenomenon. According to Kothari (2004), content analysis uses a set of categorization for making valid and replicable inferences from data to their context. The results are to be interpreted in order to draw conclusions and recommendations.

All collected questionnaires received were referenced and items in the questionnaire coded to facilitate data entry. Data was then analyzed using descriptive statistics including frequency, percentages and means and presented in summary form using graphs, pie charts and frequency distribution tables. Inferential data analysis was done by the use of confirmatory factor analysis, coefficient was used to determine the strength and the direction of the relationship between dependent and independent variables. Multiple regressions were done to establish the relations between extrinsic and intrinsic factors and employees' performance. Extrinsic motivation deals with motivations that are outside of your passions, and personal self-esteem. Extrinsic motivation examples would be money, bonuses, nice cars, expensive houses, high grades in school and gold stars for athletics. Extrinsic motivation is anything outside of oneself that that needs to be obtained or acquired to increase motivation. Intrinsic motivation is the opposite. One gets paid for doing what he/she truly enjoy doing, nice cars and houses don't motivate you as much as your joy in work, learning, and the things that truly motivate one internally. Hypothesis testing was done using p value. If the p value was less or equal to 0.05 the null hypothesis was rejected.

3.11 Statistical Measurement Model

The study used multiple linear regression model to analyze the collected data to measure the organizational citizenship behavior of casual employees' performance.

The multiple linear regression model is as stated on equation 3.1;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \varepsilon \quad \text{eqt. 3.1}$$

Where: -

Y = represents the dependent variable,

β_0 = constant

X_1 = sportsmanship behavior and hence employee performance.

X_2 = altruism behavior and hence employee performance.

X_3 = civic virtue behavior and hence employee performance.

X_4 =courtesy behavior and hence employee performance.

X_5 =conscientiousness behavior and its influence on performance

ε = represents error term

$\beta_1 \dots \beta_4$ = represents the regression coefficients

The moderating model will be given by:

$$Y = i + aX + bM + cXM + E \quad \text{eqt. 3.2}$$

Where

variable X is presumed to cause the variable Y . A moderator variable M

X – Independent variable

Y – Dependent variable

M – Modertaor variable

a – the effect of X when M is zero (the simple effect of X when M is zero), b – the effect of M when X is zero, and c – how much the effect of X changes as M goes from 0 to 1.

3.12 Measurement of Variables

Sportsmanship: This scale consisted of five items which aimed at knowing how workers perceived the unusual work environment. In a five point Likert scale (5=Strongly Agree, to 1=Strongly Disagree), this variable was measured by assessing if the casual employees complain about work , pay attention to matters that are

negative, find mistakes with what the organization does and if they complain about things that are not important.

Altruism: This was measured by the perception of employees on their help from co-workers by focusing on whether the casual employees willingly give of their time to help others co-workers, help each other without demanding anything, help new workers to start working and if they talk to other workers when they disagree. The researcher used a five point Likert scale (with 5=Strongly Agree, to 1=Strongly Disagree).

Civic virtue: This was measured using four items that captured the participation and involvement of workers in the activities of the organization. This was on if the casual employees attend meetings that are not required, actively participate in departmental meetings, read and follow all announcements and memos and if interested in the day to day activities of the organization. This was determined in a five point Likert scale (with 5=Strongly Agree, to 1=Strongly Disagree).

Conscientiousness: This was measured using five items that captured discipline at work. The researcher used a five point Likert scale (with 5=Strongly Agree, to 1=Strongly Disagree) and measured if the employees have up to-date knowledge of the products and services offered, attendance at work, level of loyalty to organization's rules and regulation and if they take extra time for breaks.

Work Environment: Work Environment Measurement (WEM), is the process of determining the level of environmental hazards and its hazardous effects on workers' health conducted through various sampling methodologies. The researcher used a five Likert scale (with 5=Strongly Agree, to 1=Strongly Disagree) and measured the perception of the casual employees on availability of rooms with enough openings on the outside, presence of dedicated areas for breaks and the status of the filling systems.

Employees' Performance: This dependent variable was measured by determine casual employees' perception on reporting time, quality of services offeres, production targets, financial efficiency, level of awareness on organizational goals and objectives and level of creativity and innovativeness.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presented the findings of the study which are presented based on the stipulated objectives and research questions of the study.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

On the characteristics of the respondents, gender, education and marital status, tenure and plans were taken into consideration. Table 4.5 shows that detailed statistics related to gender, period worked, education and the plans held by the 225 participants is in this study. Among the 225 casual workers, 97 (43.5%) of them were male and 125 (56.5 %) were female. This means that most of the casual workers in these universities are ladies. When the period worked is analyzed, it was seen that 12 of the casual workers had worked below two years; 86 of them had worked between 3-5 years; 89 of them had worked for 6-8years and 35 of them had worked for 9 years and above. This shows that the majority of the worker had worked on casual basis for 3-5 years and 6-8 years. 22(9.9%) workers who participated in the study were university graduates; 19(8.5%) of them had higher diploma; 45(20.2%) had a diploma; 91 (40.8%) had certificates and 46 (20.6%) had form four certificates and below. Finally, on their plans in these institutions, 211(98.6%) indicated that they would like to stay and were hoping to be employed on permanent basis; 2(.9%) indicated that they would like to leave and 1(.5%) had no plans. In addition, some studies have argued that sportsmanship reflects the willingness to '(stay) with the organization despite hardships or difficult conditions' (Coleman and Borman, 2000).

Table 4. 1: Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Characteristics	Category	Frequency	%
Gender	Male	97	43.5
	Female	125	56.5
Period worked- Tenure	Below two years	12	5.4
	3-5years	86	38.7
	6-8 years	89	40.1
	Above 9 years	35	15.8
Education	Degree	22	9.9
	Higher Diploma	19	8.5
	Diploma	45	20.2
	Certificate	91	40.8
Plans	Below form four	46	20.6
	Stay and be employed	211	98.6
	Leave	2	.9
	No plan	1	.5

4.3 Response Rate

The study was conducted in five Public Universities in Kenya, which was a representation of public Universities in the country. The sampled universities were; University of Nairobi, Kenyatta University, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, Multi-Media University and The Co-operative University of Kenya (table 4.1). A total of 310 questionnaires were administered but only 225 questionnaires were responded to and completed 80% and above representing 73% response rate.

Table 4.2: Sampled Universities

University	Frequency	Percentage
Nairobi	48	21.5
Kenyatta	93	41.7
Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture & Technology	54	24.2
Multi-Media	14	6.3
Co-operative University College	14	6.3
Total	225	100

4.4 Normality Test

Normality of the data was checked by skewness and kurtosis. According to Coakes, the distribution of the data is exactly normal if the values for Skewness and Kurtosis are zero (Coakes *et al.*, 2010). However, according to Hair *et al.*, (2010) if the values for Skewness range between -1 to 1 and for kurtosis range between -1 to 1, then the normality is assumed. Also according to George & Mallery (2010), values for asymmetry and kurtosis between -2 and +2 are considered acceptable in order to prove normal univariate distribution. Based on the results shown in table 4.2 the data is normally distributed. Looking at the descriptive means and standard deviation, altruism and civic virtue are the most commonly engaged constructs of OCB among the casual employees (mean=3.6756, SD=0.94329 and Mean = 3.4711, SD =1.29225 respectively). Besides this, all the OCB constructs were displayed and practices among the casual employees in Kenyan Public Universities.

Table 4.3: Summary Descriptive and Normality Test

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Performance	225	3.4578	1.14924	-.270	.162	-1.097	.323
Sportsmanship	225	2.2400	1.09593	.784	.162	-.166	.323
Altruism	225	3.6756	.94329	-.211	.162	-.842	.323
Civic Virtue	225	3.4711	1.29225	-.568	.162	-.818	.323
Courtesy	225	2.8889	1.26460	.091	.162	-1.225	.323
Work Environment	225	2.8711	1.38109	.347	.162	-1.164	.323

4.5 Evaluation of Research Instruments

This pilot study was aimed at establishing the validity, reliability and internal consistency of the designed questionnaires to enable improve the total outlook and content of the final questionnaire. A total of 31 questionnaires which represent 10% of the intended population were administered in five Universities (University of Nairobi, Kenyatta University, Multimedia, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology and The Co-operative University of Kenya) as shown in table 4.3. Data was analyzed by using SPSS version 16.0 and data reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

Table 4. 4: Questionnaire Distribution among Universities during the Pilot test

Institution	Frequency	Percentage
JKUAT	10	32.3
KU	6	19.4
UoN	5	16.1
MMU	5	16.1
CUCK	5	16.1
Total	31	100.0

The study used the likert scale ranked from (1) to five (5) following strongly disagree to strongly agree respectively for the aim to determine whether Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (sportsmanship, altruism, courtesy, civic virtue and conscientiousness) have an impact on casual employees' performance. According to Cronbach (1961) a likert scale model should be assessed via Cronbach's Alpha to determine the reliability of the survey. Cronbach's alpha is the most used method to check the reliability and validity test, whereby the acceptable value is required to be more than 0.6 for the scale to be reliable. Table 4.4 shows the achieved Cronbach's Alpha during the pre-testing. The results show that the scales were highly reliable.

Table 4. 5: Summary of Reliability Analysis during Pre-testing

s/n	Objective addressed	Cronbach's before	Alpha Achieved	Cronbach's Alpha
1	Performance	0.711	0.765	
2	Sportsmanship	0.814	0.833	
3	Altruism	0.810	0.810	
4	Civic Virtue	0.713	0.740	
5	Courtesy	0.781	0.781	
6	Conscientiousness	0.755	0.841	
7	Work environment	0.365	0.764	

4.6 Descriptive Statistics

This study aimed at determining the influence of organizational citizenship behavior on performance of casual employees in public universities in Kenya. Descriptive statistics for both dependent and independent variables was performed and their results are as detailed in sub-section 4.6.1 to 4.6.7.

4.6.1 Casual Employees' Performance

Casual employees' performance was measured using three statements on a Likert scale. Results in table 4.6 indicates that the respondents agreed (mean close to 4 = agree) on the aspects measuring performance with a mean range of 3.45 to 3.68. This therefore implies that as per the respondents, being creative and innovative, knowing the organization's goals and objectives alongside reaching the aimed targets are all measure of casual employees' performance. However, with a mean of 3.68, they considered knowing the organization's goals and objectives as being the most important aspect.

Table 4. 6: Response on Performance

Performance	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Employees are aware of the organization's goals and objectives	225	2.00	5.00	3.6844	.92243
Employees are encouraged to be creative and innovative	225	1.00	5.00	3.4578	1.14924
Employees are always aiming at reaching the target in their production	225	1.00	5.00	3.5644	1.17890
Valid N (list wise)	225				

4.6.2 Sportsmanship

Using the results reported in table 4.7, it is evident that the respondents seemed to disagree (mean scale close to 2) with most of the statements explaining sportsmanship. With a standard deviation of above 1, it implies that the respondents had wide spread views on sportsmanship.

Table 4. 7: Response on Sportsmanship

Sportsmanship	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
It is not common to see employees complaining	225	1.00	5.00	2.3156	1.43084
Employees never pay attention to matters that are negative rather matters that are positive	225	1.00	5.00	2.2400	1.09593
Never find mistakes in what the organization does	225	1.00	5.00	2.6089	1.17940
No complaint to non-important things	0				

4.6.3 Altruism

Altruism was measured using four statements on a Likert scale. Results in table 4.8 indicates that the respondents agreed with three statements (mean close to 4 = agree) on the aspects measuring altruism. However, with a mean of 3.676, they considered helping without demanding from others as being the most important aspect

Table 4. 8: Response on Altruism

Altruism	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
If one helps workers with personal matters	221	1.00	2.00	1.2760	.44804
Helping without demanding from others	225	2.00	5.00	3.6756	.94329
Voluntary help new workers to adopt	225	1.00	5.00	3.4489	1.14888
I always act as peace maker when for others	225	1.00	5.00	3.5689	1.17865

4.6.4 Civic Virtue

As shown in table 4.9, the respondent had varied opinions on statements measuring civic virtue with means ranging from 2.37 (disagree) to 3.47 (agree).

Table 4.9: Descriptive Statistics on Civic virtue

Civic Virtue	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Attending functions that are not required but helps the company's image	225	1.00	5.00	2.3689	1.12675
I attend and actively participate in departmental meetings	225	1.00	5.00	2.8578	1.31856
I always read and follow all announcements and give out to others	225	1.00	5.00	3.3067	1.32934
I always keep up to date with changes in the organization	225	1.00	5.00	3.4711	1.29225

4.6.5 Courtesy

Results in table 4.10, shows that the respondents were undecided on the aspects measuring courtesy. They were neutral on all these aspects with a mean close to 3.

Table 4. 10: Response on Courtesy

Courtesy	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Willingly give of my time to help other prevent problems from arising	225	1.00	5.00	3.1600	1.23607
I do inform my fellow employees of delays in work progress	225	1.00	5.00	2.8889	1.26460
I always attend information sessions that employees are encouraged to attend but not required to attend	225	1.00	5.00	2.5822	.95602
We have up to date knowledge of products and services offered	225	1.00	5.00	2.9911	1.37578

4.6.6 Conscientiousness

Based on the results reported in table 4.11, it is evident that the respondents seemed to be undecided (mean scale close to 3) with most of the statements explaining 4.5.6 conscientiousness. With a standard deviation of above 1, it implies that the respondents had wide spread views on conscientiousness.

Table 4.11: Response on Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
We have up to date knowledge of product and services offered	225	1.00	5.00	2.9911	1.37578
Attendance at work is above the norm	225	1.00	5.00	3.2000	1.38873
Obeys company rules and regulations even when one is watching	225	1.00	5.00	3.6578	1.09514
I do not take extra time for breaks	225	1.00	5.00	3.3289	1.39780

4.6.7 Work Environment

On work environment, the respondents showed divided opinions with some disagreeing (mean close to 2) while others remained undecided (mean close to 3) as elaborated in table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Response on Work Environment

Work Environment					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
If the rooms have openings on the outside	225	1.00	5.00	3.2533	1.15062
If there are dedicated areas for breaks	225	1.00	5.00	2.3111	1.18061
If filing systems and cleanliness maintained	225	1.00	5.00	2.8711	1.38109

4.7 Reliability Analysis and Factor Extraction on Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in this study was the performance of the casual employees. The five factors measuring organizational performance during the study were assessed for their loadings and reliability. The result indicated that out of the five factors considered under this dependent variable (performance), only three were considered for further analysis. The factors used had higher loadings between 0.816 and 0.859 with a satisfactory Cronbach's mean of 0.809, giving an indication that the variables used for the dependent variable also represent a complete structure measuring these constructs (Table 4.13). According to Cronbach (1951) and Nunnally (1978) the values of 0.70 or above for the reliability coefficient are considered acceptable.

Table 4. 13: Reliability and Factor extraction for Dependent variable

Performance	Communality	Loading	Cronbach α
Employees' Performance			0.809
Being aware of the organizational objectives	0.665	0.816	
Innovativeness	0.738	0.859	
Targets	0.666	0.816	

Extraction Method Principal Component Analysis

Based on total variance explained in table 4.14, only one factor was extracted accounting for 68.96% of the variance in the casual employees' performance. This therefore implies that being innovative while executing ones' duties in an organization is a major factor that explains casual employees' performance in Kenyan Universities and was used in the subsequent analysis to represent performance.

Table 4. 14: Total variance explained for Employees' Performance

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	% of Cumulative	Total	% of Variance	% of Cumulative
1	2.069	68.960	68.960	2.069	68.960	68.960
2	.523	17.449	86.410			
3	.408	13.590	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Employee performance ensures the survival and development of the organization in an extremely competitive environment (Emami *et al.*, 2013). Employee performance is basically the results gained and completion by employees at workplace that keeps up organizational plans though aiming for the expected outcomes (Anitha, 2014). In broad sense, performance is viewed as valued outputs of a production system in the form of goods or services (Swanson & Holton, 2009). According to Busso (2003), for organizations to perform well and to achieve success, they need employees who are beneficial to their management. They need people who will be pillars of strength to their organization. Individuals can contribute to the organization's success in ways that goes beyond their specified job tasks, shaping the organizational, psychological and social environment where they and the others will be able to flourish.

Figure 4.1 shows Normality Q-Q Plot for Performance which indicates that the data on casual employees' performance was normally distributed hence allowing for OLS regression analysis.

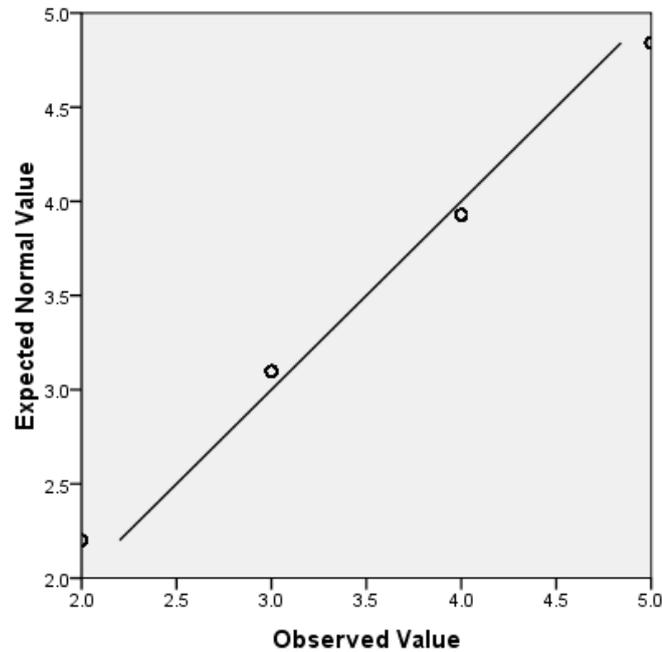


Figure 4. 1: Normality Q-Q Plot for Performance

4.8 Impact of Sportsmanship on Casual Employees' Performance

This section outlines the impacts of sportsmanship on the performance of casual employees. First the reliability analysis and factor extraction for the independent variable – sportsmanship is done followed by the correlation and regression analysis to establish the relationships of the two variables.

4.8.1 Reliability Analysis and Factor Extraction on Sportsmanship

Sportsmanship refers to patience against the desirable situation and appropriateness of opposition, dissatisfactions and complains (Bolter & Weiss, 2013). In the current study, sportsmanship was explained by five factors in the data collection tool but of the five only three were retained so as to improve on the internal consistency (table 4.15).

Table 4.15: Reliability and Factor Extraction Dependent Variable - Sportsmanship

Sportsmanship	Communality	Loading	Cronbach α
Sportsmanship			0.759
It is not common to see employees complaining	0.667	0.816	
Employees never pay attention to matters that are negative rather matters that are positive	0.685	0.828	
Never find fault in what the organization does	0.551	0.742	

Only one factor was extracted and it explains for 63.423% of the variations in sportsmanship and therefore used as the main factor representing sportsmanship (Table 4.16). Table 4.16: Sportsmanship - Total variance Explained ‘

Table 4.17: Sportsmanship - Total variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	of Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	of Cumulative %
1	1.903	63.423	63.423	1.903	63.423	63.423
2	.634	21.117	84.540			
3	.464	15.460	100.00			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

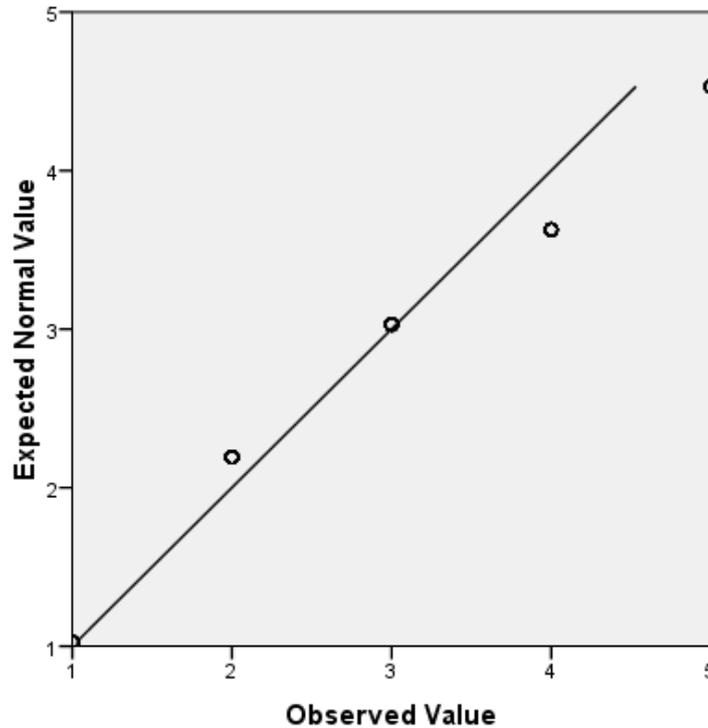


Figure 4. 2:Normality Q-Q plot for sportsmanship

Figure 4.2 shows Normality Q-Q Plot for sportsmanship which indicates that the data on sportsmanship was normally distributed hence allowing for OLS regression analysis.

4.8.2 Correlation Analysis -Sportsmanship and Casual Employees' Performance

The correlation analysis output in table 4.17 shows that there is a positive significant correlation between sportsmanship and casual employees' performance ($r = 0.253$, $p < 0.01$) which indicates 25.2% positive relationship of sportsmanship with casual employees' performance. Sportsmanship occurs when an employee is willing to avoid voicing complaints about trivial matters and to set about being an example for others (Organ *et al.*, 2006). In addition, some studies have argued that sportsmanship reflects the willingness to '(stay) with the organization despite hardships or difficult conditions' (Coleman & Borman, 2000).

Table 4.18: Correlation Analysis - Sportsmanship Vs Performance

		Performance	Sportsmanship
Performance	Pearson Correlation	1	
Sportsmanship	Pearson Correlation	.253**	1

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)*

4.8.3 Regression Results

As shown on Table 4.18 the regression model was statistically significant and explained approximately 6.4% of the variance in the casual employees' performance ($r^2 = 0.064$, $p < 0.05$). This indicates that the model accounts for 6.4% of the total variability observed in casual employees performance.

Table 4.19: Regression Model - Sportsmanship

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			Sig.	F	
				R Square Change	F Change	df1			df2
1	.253a	.064	.060	1.11445	.064	15.205	1	223	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Sportsmanship:

Hypothesis 1(Ho) stated that sportsmanship has no effect on casual employees' performance in Public Universities in Kenya. Test results in table 4.19 shows that sportsmanship had significant beta coefficients ($\beta = 0.253$, $p < 0.05$). This therefore led to rejection of the null hypothesis and concluded that sportsmanship had a significant effect on casual employees' performance in Kenyan Public Universities. The standardized Beta value of 0.253 implies that there is up to 0.253-unit increase in casual employees' performance for each unit increase in sportsmanship (table 4.12).

Table 4.20: Coefficients of Regression Analysis on Sportsmanship

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized		
		Coefficients		Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.864	.169		16.912	.000
	Sportsmanship	.265	.068	.253	3.899	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Performance Source 2017

Author

The equation connection casual employees' performance (Y) and its construct sportsmanship (X_1) is therefore given by: $Y = \alpha + \beta X_1 + \epsilon$ which becomes $Y = 2.864 + 0.265X_1 + 0.068$.

4.9 Impact of Altruism on Casual Employees' Performance

This section shows the impacts of altruism on the performance of casual employees. It first presents the reliability analysis and factor extraction for the independent variable – altruism followed by the correlation and regression analysis to establish the relationships of the two variables.

4.9.1 Reliability Analysis and Factor Extraction for Altruism

According to Batson (2014), altruism is the healthful and effective functions like creation of friendship, empathy and sympathy among the colleagues which helps them directly or indirectly in order to solve their working problems. In this study, altruism was explained by five factors but of the five only three were retained so as to improve on the internal consistency (table 4.20).

Table 4.21: Reliability and Factor Extraction for Independent Variable Altruism

Altruism	Communality	Loading	Cronbach α
Altruism			0.819
Helping without demanding from others	0.662	0.814	
Voluntarily help new workers to adopt	0.749	0.866	
I always act as peace maker when other disagree	0.660	0.812	

Only one factor was extracted that greatly explains on altruism and it explains for 69.0% of the variations in altruism and therefore used as the main factor representing altruism (Table 4.21).

Table 4.22: Altruism -Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.071	69.036	69.036	2.071	69.036	69.036
2	.536	17.871	86.907			
3	.393	13.093	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Figure 4.3 shows Normality Q-Q Plot for altruism which indicates that the data on altruism was normally distributed hence allowing for OLS regression analysis.

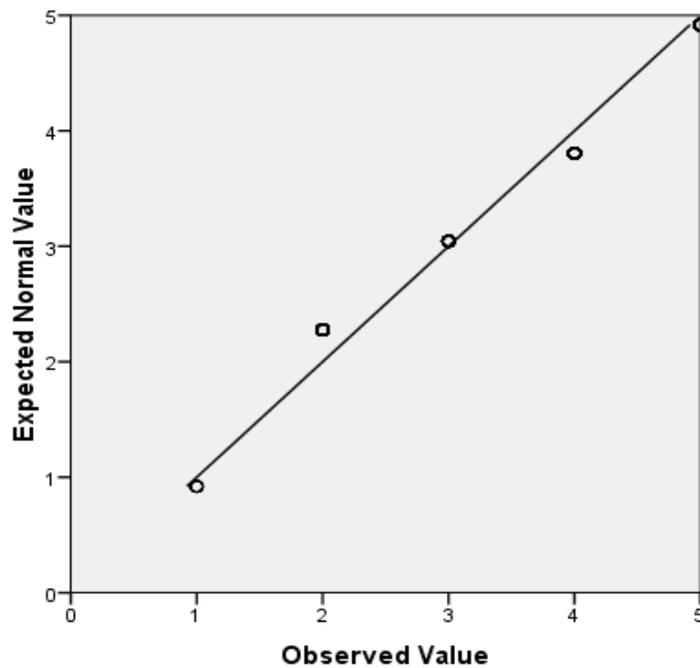


Figure 4. 3: Normality Q-Q plot for altruism

4.9.2 Correlation Analysis Altruism vs Casual Employees' Performance

According to Mossholder *et.al.*, (2011), helping behavior (altruism) refers to taking a voluntary action to help coworkers with work related problems and issues. Table 4.22 shows the correlation output of altruism and casual employees' performance. The results show that there is a strong positive significant correlation between altruism and casual employees' performance ($r= 0.566$, $p< 0.01$). In other related studies, Loi, Ngo, Zhang and Lau, (2011) also found a positive and significant relationship between altruism and job performance. In Weinstein and Ryan's (2010) study, it was shown that helping offered by helpers who have an internal perceived locus of causality results in high levels of well-being experienced by both the helpers and the recipients. Raver *et al.* (2012) showed that individual helping behavior predicts team helping behavior, which, in turn, determines helping norms in the team. Also in their study, Rosopa *et al.* (2013), demonstrated that employees exhibiting more helping behavior are perceived as having more favorable personality characteristics, and receive higher advancement ratings and more reward recommendations.

Table 4.23: Correlation Analysis - Altruism Vs Performance

		Performance	Altruism
Performance	Pearson Correlation	1	.566**
Altruism	Pearson Correlation	.566**	1

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

4.9.3 Regression Results - Altruism vs Casual Employees' Performance

Regression was used to assess the impact of the independent variable (altruism) on the dependent variable (employee's performance). As displayed in table 4.23 the regression model explained approximately 32.0% variation in casual employees' performance ($r^2 = 0.320$, $p < 0.05$). Based on the exchange theory, Deckop *et al.* (2003) showed that an employee's helping behavior is motivated by how much help the employee has received from coworkers. Similarly, other studies of helping behavior using exchange theory also revealed that employees engage in helping behavior because they believe that they will receive help from coworkers in an unspecified future date (Liu *et al.*, 2011, Stamper and Dyne, 2001).

Table 4.24: Regression Analysis Summary - Altruism vs Performance

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					
				R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.566a	.320	.317	.94964	.320	105.057	1	223	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Altruism

Hypothesis 2 (Ho) stated that altruism has no effect on casual employees' performance in Public Universities in Kenya. From the results presented in table 4.24, it indicates that altruism has a significant effect on casual employees' performance ($\beta = 0.566$, $p < 0.05$). The null hypothesis was thus rejected and concluded that altruism has a strong effect on casual employees' performance. In a

similar study, Lelei *et. al.* (2015) stated that there was up to 0.482-unit increase in employees' performance for each unit increase in altruism. Their study further elaborated that altruism was positively and significantly associated with employee performance ($r = 0.831, < 0.01$). According to Mossholder *et.al.* (2011), helping behavior describes an employee's voluntary actions aimed at helping another coworker with task-related issues the occurrence of helping behavior must involve the presence of the helper and the recipient.

Table 4. 25: Regression Coefficients - Altruism

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	0.924	.255		3.619	.000
	Altruism	.689	.067	.566	10.256	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Employees performance

Table 4.24 shows altruism regression coefficients. The standardized Beta value of 0.566 implies that there is up to 0.566-unit increase in casual employees' performance for each unit increase in altruism

The equation connecting casual employees' performance (Y) and its construct altruism (X_2) is therefore given by: $Y = \alpha + \beta X_2 + \varepsilon$ which is the expressed as $Y = 0.924 + 0.689X_2 + 0.067$.

4.10 Impact of Civic Virtue on Casual Employees' Performance

This section describes the effect of civic virtue on the performance of casual employees. It presents the reliability analysis and factor extraction for civic virtue followed by the correlation and regression analysis to establish the relationships of the two variables.

4.10.1 Reliability Analysis and Factor Extraction on Civic Virtue

Civic virtue was explained by four factors and all the four were retained for further analysis (table 4.25).

Table 4. 26: Reliability and Factor Extraction for Civic Virtue

Civic Virtue	Communality	Loading	Cronbach α
Civic Virtue			0.799
Attending functions that are not required but helps the company's image	0.402	0.634	
I attend and actively participate in departmental meetings	0.645	0.803	
I always read and follow all announcements and other give out to others	0.724	0.851	
I always keep up to date with changes in the organization	0.716	0.846	

Only one factor was extracted and it explains for 62.16% of the variations in civic virtue and therefore used as the main factor representing civic virtue (Table 4.26).

Table 4.27: Civic Virtue - Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% Variance	% of Cumulative	Total	% Variance	% of Cumulative
1	2.487	62.163	62.163	2.487	62.163	62.163
2	.862	21.544	83.706			
3	.456	11.406	95.113			
4	.195	4.887	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Figure 4.4 shows Normality Q-Q Plot for civic virtue which indicates that the data on civic virtue was normally distributed hence allowing for OLS regression analysis.

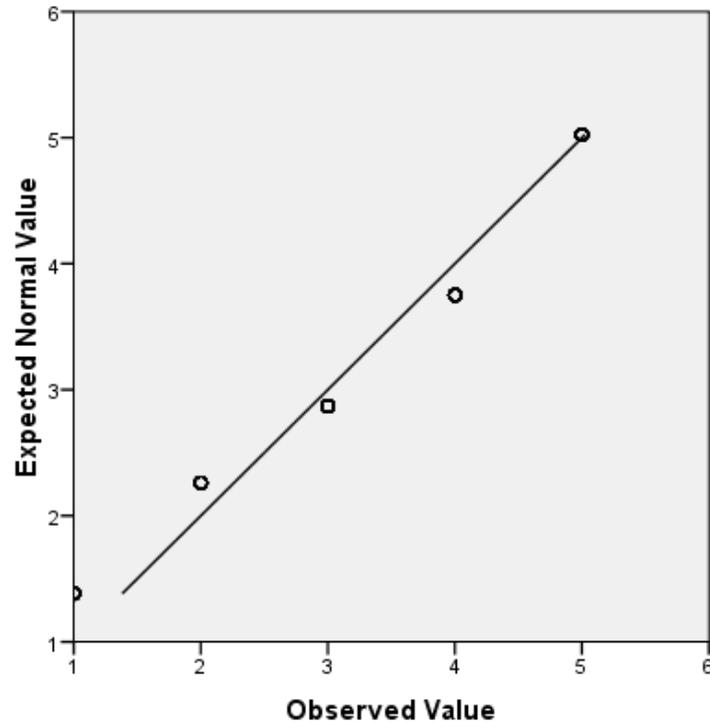


Figure 4. 4: Normality Q-Q plot for Civic virtue

4.10.2 Correlation Analysis-Civic virtue vs Performance

Hypothesis 3(Ho) stated that Civic virtue has no effect on casual employees' performance in Public Universities in Kenya. The correlation analysis output in table 4.27 shows that there is a medium positive significant correlation between civic virtue and casual employees' performance ($r= 0.446$, $p< 0.01$) in Kenyan universities. Hypothesis 3 (Ho) is therefore rejected. Similarly, Garvin (2000), in his study showed that civic virtue dimension has significant contribution to learning organization. Also, in line with the current study, Westwood *et al.*, (2004) reported that public sector employees with civic virtue involve in a conception of strong emotional commitments to welfare of public and employees are driven by moral obligations and close social relationships. Also, Rehan and Islam (2013) in a research effectuated in Johor (Malaysia) about the impact on employees' job related attitudes on organizational commitment found that altruism and civic virtue are significant factors to organizational commitment. This is proven in the table above

Contrary to this study, Coyne and Ong (2007) found no significant relationship between civic virtue and turnover intentions. Also, Paille' and Grima (2011) found a negative relationship suggesting that civic virtue affects intention to leave the organization. According to Organ *et al.* (2006), civic virtue refers to a sustained interest in the organization, expressed in a variety of ways, including assiduous voluntary involvement in representation activities (e.g. conferences, trade fairs and workshops) and in the defence of the interests, property or image of the organization. As such, civic virtue depends on active and voluntary participation and requires individuals who want to be involved, for example, in decision making by formulating new ideas, suggesting improvements in seminars or meetings, or protecting the organization.

Table 4. 28: Correlation Analysis - Civic Virtue vs Performance

		Employees’ performance	Civic virtue
Employees Performance	Pearson Correlation	1	.446**
Civic virtue	Pearson Correlation	.446**	1

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).Source*

4.10.3 Regression Results on Civic virtue

As displayed by table 4.28 the regression model was statistically significant and explained approximately 19.9% of the variance of the casual employees’ performance ($r^2= 0.199$, $p< 0.05$) as influenced by civic virtue.

Table 4. 29: Model Summary on Civic Virtue

Model	R	Adjusted Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			Sig.	F
				R Square	Change	Change df1		
1	.446 ^a	.199	1.03073	.199	55.473	1	223	.000

a. *Predictors: (Constant), Civic Virtue*

The standardized Beta value of 0.446 implies that there is up to 0.445-unit increase in casual employees’ performance for each unit increase in civic virtue (table 4.29).

Table 4. 30: Regression Coefficients on Civic Virtue

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.080	.197		10.540	.000
	Civic virtue	.397	.053	.446	7.448	.000

a. *Dependent Variable: Performance Source,:*

The equation connection casual employees' performance (Y) and its construct civic virtue is therefore given by: $Y = \alpha + \beta X_3 + \varepsilon$

$$Y = 2.08 + 0.397X_3 + 0.053$$

4.11 Impact of Courtesy on Casual Employees' Performance

This section gives the effect of courtesy on the performance of casual employees. It first presents the reliability analysis and factor extraction for courtesy followed by the correlation and regression analysis to establish the relationships of the two variables.

4.11.1 Reliability Analysis and Factor Extraction -Independent Variable- Courtesy

Courtesy was explained by five factors but of the five only four were retained so as to improve on the internal consistency (table 4.30). The factors had higher loading ranging from 0.602 to 0.787 with a good internal consistency of 0.781.

Table 4. 31: Reliability and factor extraction for independent Variable Courtesy

Courtesy	Communality	Loading	Cronbach α
Courtesy			0.781
Willingly give of my time to help other prevent problems from arising	0.623	0.713	
I notify employer of one is going to be late or absent from work	0.724	0.604	
I do inform my fellow employees of delays in work progress	0.687	0.787	
I always attend information sessions that employees are encouraged to attend but not required to attend	0.818	0.707	

Two factors were extracted and it explains for 71.3% of the variations in courtesy and therefore used as the main factor representing courtesy (Table 4.31).

Table 4.32: Courtesy - Total variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.812	45.303	45.303	1.812	45.303	45.303
2	1.041	26.024	71.327	1.041	26.024	71.327
3	.622	15.561	86.889			
4	.524	13.111	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Figure 4.5 shows Normality Q-Q Plot for Courtesy which indicates that the data on courtesy was normally distributed hence allowing for OLS regression analysis.

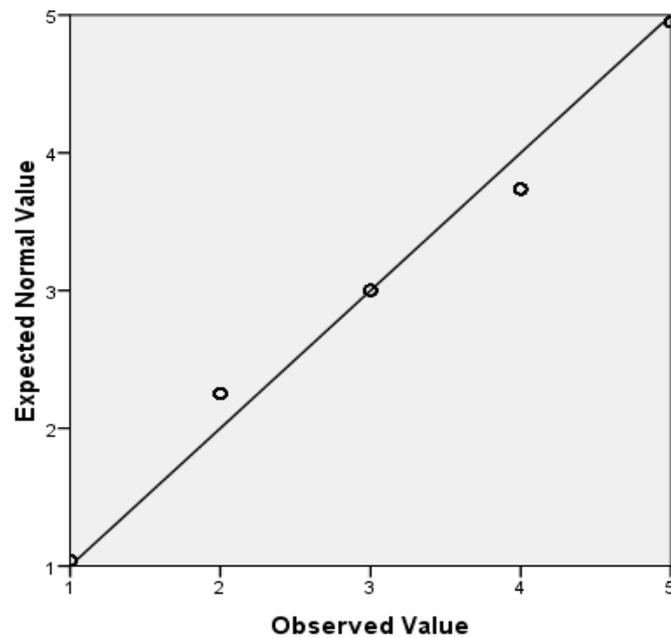


Figure 4. 5: Normality Q-Q plot for Courtesy

4.11.2 Correlation Analysis on Courtesy

The correlation analysis output in table 4.32 shows that there is a positive significant correlation between courtesy and casual employees' performance ($r = 0.450, p < 0.01$) in Kenyan universities. Lelei *et al.*, (2015) while studying the effect of organizational citizenship behaviour on employee performance in Kenya's banking sector reported that courtesy was positively and significantly correlated with employee performance ($r = .800, p < 0.01$). Noe, Raymond, A (2008) succeeded in proving courtesy in a person who will bring a positive impact especially good learning organization. Courtesy is a behavior that helps organizational members prevent problems from occurring and treating others with respect. Thus, employees with citizenship responsibilities and attitudes might exhibit unselfish behaviors and good interpersonal relationships among co-workers within public administration (Goodsell, 2011).

Table 4.33: Correlation Analysis - Courtesy vs Performance

	Performance	Courtesy
Performance	1	.450**
Courtesy	.450**	1

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2tailed).*

4.11.3 Regression Results on Courtesy

Hypothesis 4(Ho) stated that Courtesy has no effect on casual employees' performance in Public Universities in Kenya. As displayed in table 4.33 the regression model was statistically significant and explained approximately 20.2% of the variance of the casual employees' performance ($r^2 = 0.202, p < 0.05$). This therefore led to rejection of the null hypothesis 4 (Ho) and instead stated that courtesy significantly affects casual employees' performance in Kenya public universities.

Table 4. 34: Model Summary on Courtesy

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate			Change Statistics			Sig.
			R Square	Estimate	Change	F	df1	df2	
1	.450a	.202	.199	1.02869	.202	56.576	1	223	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Courtesy

The standardized Beta value of 0.450 implies that there is up to 0.450-unit increase in casual employees' performance for each unit increase in courtesy (Table 4.34).

Table 4.35: Summary Regression Coefficients on Courtesy

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
1	(Constant)	2.277	.171		13.288	.000
	Courtesy	.409	.054	.450	7.522	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Performance

The equation connecting casual employee's performance (Y) and courtesy (X₄) is therefore given as $Y = \alpha + \beta X_4 + \varepsilon$ given as $Y = 2.277 + 0.409X_4 + 0.054$.

4.12 Impact of Conscientiousness on Casual Employees' Performance

This section describes the impact of conscientiousness on the performance of casual employees. It presents the reliability analysis and factor extraction for conscientiousness followed by the correlation and regression analysis to establish the relationships of the two variables.

4.12.1 Reliability Analysis and Factor Extraction on Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness is a trait that is associated with diligence, self-discipline, punctuality, and general competence (McCrae & Costa, 2003). In this study, conscientiousness was explained by five factors but of the five only four were retained so as to improve on the internal consistency (table 4.35).

Table 4.36: Reliability and Factor Extraction for Independent Variable Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness	Communality	Loading	Cronbach α
Conscientiousness			0.803
We have up to date knowledge of product and services offered	0.624	0.790	
Attendance at work	0.539	0.734	
Obeys company rules and regulations	0.599	0.774	
I do not take extra time for breaks	0.540	0.735	

Only one factor was extracted and it explains for about 57.5% of the variations in conscientiousness and therefore used as the main factor representing conscientiousness (Table 4.36).

Table 4.37: Conscientiousness - Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Loadings Total	Sums of Squared Variance %	of Cumulative %
	Total	Variance	% of Cumulative			
1	2.302	57.540	57.540	2.302	57.540	57.540
2	.754	18.852	76.393			
3	.576	14.394	90.786			
4	.369	9.214	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

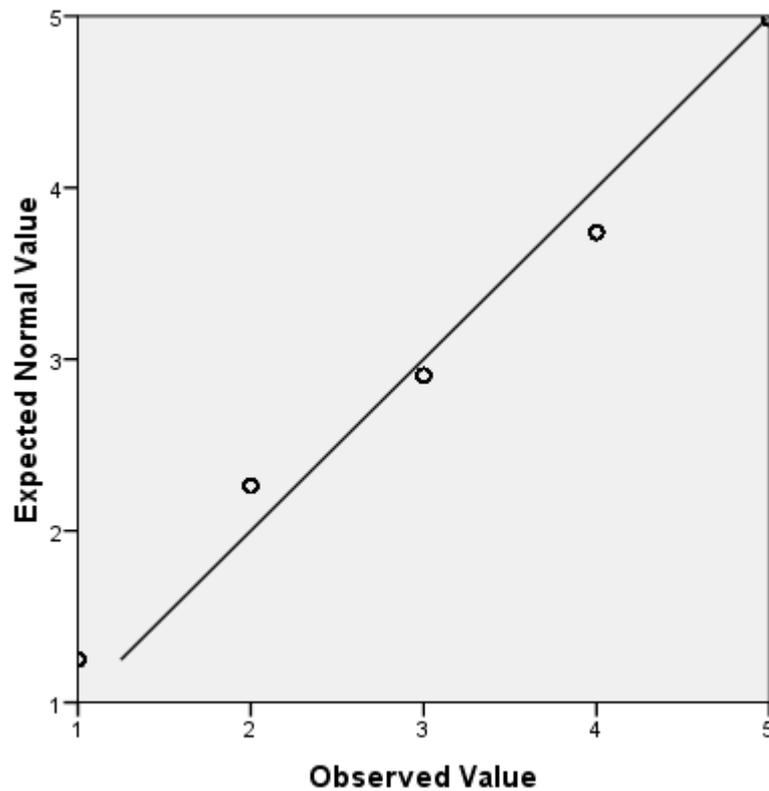


Figure 4. 6: Normality Q-Q plot on Conscientiousness

Figure 4.6 shows Normality Q-Q Plot for Conscientiousness which indicates that the data on Conscientiousness was normally distributed hence allowing for OLS regression analysis.

4.12.2 Correlation Results on Conscientiousness

The correlation analysis output in table 4.37 shows that there is a positive significant correlation between conscientiousness and casual employees' performance ($r= 0.469$, $p< 0.01$) in Kenyan Public Universities. This therefore led to the rejection of hypothesis 5(H_0) that stated that conscientiousness has no effect on casual employees' performance in public Universities in Kenya. In line with this study, Ahmadi *et al.* (2012); Baghkhashti and Enayati (2015) in similar studies showed that conscientiousness is significantly related to employees' job performance According to Mount & Judge (2001), of the big five personality traits, conscientiousness is the best predictor of a spectrum of work-related out-comes, including job performance.

Individuals with high in conscientiousness tend to be achievement, detail and planning-oriented (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Barrick, & Mount (2002) explains that conscientiousness traits predispose individuals to direct their abilities, energy and other resources towards achieving work-related goals, notice inconsistencies in their environment and act to resolve them, and proactively create plans to efficiently complete tasks, Judge & Ilies (2002) also states that conscientiousness is operationalized as a motivation-based trait. It affects performance through other motivational constructs, including expectancy, goal setting and self-efficacy.

Table 4.38: Correlation Analysis - Conscientiousness vs Performance

		Employees	
		performance	Conscientiousness
Employees Performance	Pearson Correlation	1	.469**
Conscientiousness	Pearson Correlation	.469**	1

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

4.12.3 Regression Results on Conscientiousness

Linear regression was used to assess the impact of the independent variable (conscientiousness) on the dependent variable (employee's performance). As displayed by table 4.38 the regression model was statistically significant and explained approximately 22% of the variance of the casual employees' performance ($r^2 = 0.220$, $p < 0.05$). Conscientious individuals can perform better at work than those who are low in minimum of oversight (Morgeson *et al.*, 2005). Conscientious individuals are dependable, efficient, and hardworking. They are predisposed to take initiative in solving problems and are more methodical and are thorough in their work (Witt *et al.*, 2002).

Table 4.39: Regression Summary on Conscientiousness

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			Sig.	F	
				R Square Change	F Change	df1			
1	.469 ^a	.220	.217	1.01722	.220	62.917	1	223	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Conscientiousness

Low-conscientiousness subordinates may not efficiently address most workplace stressors, including those placed on them by a low-performing supervisor (Halbesleben *et al.*, 2009). The standardized Beta value of 0.469 implies that there is up to 0.469-unit increase in casual employees' performance for each unit increase in conscientiousness (table 4.39).

Table 4. 40: Regression Coefficients on Conscientiousness

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
1	(Constant)	1.657	.237		6.995	.000
	Conscientiousness	.492	.062	.469	7.932	.000

a. *Dependent Variable: Performance*

The equation connecting casual employees' performance (Y) and its construct conscientiousness is therefore given by: $Y = \alpha + \beta X_5 + \varepsilon$ which becomes $Y = 1.657 + 0.492X_5 + 0.062$

4.13 Auto - Correlational Results

Table 4.40 shows the auto-correlation of the independent variables of the study. The results indicate that all the independent variables (sportsmanship, courtesy, Altruism, civic virtue and conscientiousness) are positively and significantly correlated. According to Garson (2008) inter-correlation among the variables of $>.80$ signals a

possible problem of multicollinearity. Based on the findings in table 4.40, none of the variables had a correlation of more than >0.8 , which suggested that there was no multicollinearity. The mean values for these variables are in the range of 2.2400 for sportsmanship to 3.6756 for altruism.

Table 4. 41: Auto -Correlation Analysis of Independent Variables

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Sportsmanship	Altruism	Civic Virtue	Courtesy	Conscientiousness
Sportsmanship	2.2400	1.095930	1				
Altruism	3.6756	.943296	.162*	1			
Civic Virtue	3.4711	1.292251	.238**	.357**	1		
Courtesy	2.8889	1.264609	.129	.108	.161*	1	
Conscientiousness	3.6578	1.095148	.363**	.510**	.534**	.166*	1

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed).*

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

4.13.1 Moderating Impact of Work Environment on Casual Employees' Performance

This section examines work environment as a moderating variable of the OCB constructs on the performance of casual employees. It outlines the relationship of the OCB constructs (sportsmanship, altruism, courtesy, civic virtue and conscientiousness) on the performance of casual employees taking work environment as the moderating variable.

4.13.2 Reliability Analysis and Factor Extraction –Moderating Variable- Work Environment

Work environment was explained by five factors but of the five only three were retained so as to improve on the internal consistency (table 4.41).

Table 4.42: Reliability and Factor Extraction for moderating variable - Work Environment

Work Environment	Communality	Loading	Cronbach α
Work Environment			0.764
If the rooms have openings on the outside	0.661	0.813	
If there are dedicated areas for breaks	0.448	0.669	
If filing systems and cleanliness maintained	0.664	0.814	

Only one factor was extracted and it explains for about 59% of the variations in work environment and therefore used as the main factor representing work environment (table 4.42).

Table 4.43: Work Environment - Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.770	59.012	59.012	1.770	59.012	59.012
2	.739	24.637	83.649			
3	.491	16.351	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

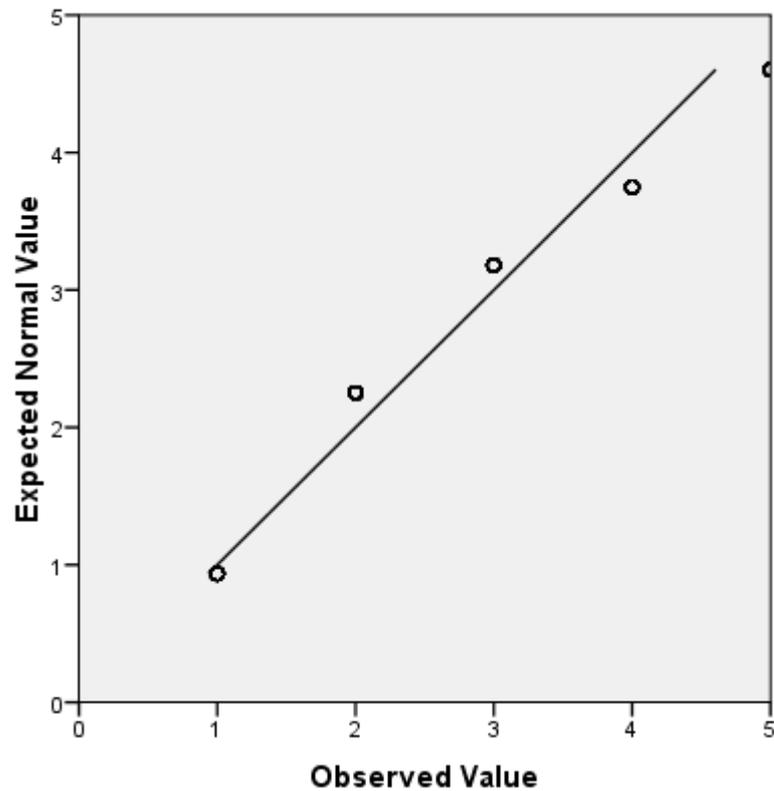


Figure 4. 7: Normality Q-Q plot for work environment

Figure 4.7 shows Normality Q-Q Plot for work environment which indicates that the data on work environment was normally distributed hence allowing for OLS regression analysis.

4.14 Relationship between Casual Employees' Performance and Work Environment

Hypothesis 6(Ho) stated that work environment has no moderating effect on casual employees' performance in Public Universities in Kenya. Both correlation and regression analysis were used to ascertain if there is any association between casual employees' performance and work environment.

4.15 Correlation Results

The correlation analysis output in table 4.43 shows that there is a positive significant correlation between work environment and casual employees' performance ($r=0.454$, $p<0.01$). These results are consistent with similar studies showing an association between work environment and job performance (Mohapatra & Srivastava, 2003; Naharuddin & Sagi, 2013). This therefore indicates that management in Kenyan Universities should consider improving work environment of casual employees so as to promote their performance.

Table 4. 44: Correlation Analysis - Work environment vs Performance

		Performance	Work Environment
Employees performance	Pearson Correlation	1	
Work environment	Pearson Correlation	.454**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.16 Regression Analysis

Subsequent to establishing that the variables were related to each other using a correlation test, a linear regression was used to assess the impact of the independent variable (work environment) on the dependent variable (employee's performance). As displayed by table 4.44 the regression model was statistically significant and explained approximately 20.6% of the variance of the casual employees' performance ($r=0.206$, $p<0.05$). Roelofsen (2002) also reported that improving working environment results in a reduction in a number of complaints and absenteeism and an increase in productivity. The indoor environment has the biggest effect on productivity in relation to job stress and job dissatisfaction.

Table 4.45: Model Summary on Work Environment

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			Sig.	F	
				R Square Change	R Square Change	F Change			
1	.454 ^a	.206	.202	1.02650	.206	57.774	1	223	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Work Environment.

The standardized Beta value of 0.454 implies that there is up to 0.454-unit increase in casual employees' performance for each unit increase in work environment (table 4.45).

Table 4.46: Coefficient Summary for Work Environment

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.374	.158		15.011	.000
	Work environment	.377	.050	.454	7.601	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Innovativeness.

4.17 Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

The moderating impact of work environment on casual employees' performance was determined by regressing all the constructs of organizational citizenship behavior (sportsmanship, courtesy, altruism, civic virtue and conscientiousness) with employees' performance. Table 4.46 shows the moderating effects of work environment on casual employees' performance in Kenyan universities. Model 1 indicates the outputs before moderation and model 2 output after moderation. Using

moderated multiple regression analysis the moderating effect of the variable work environment was analysed by interpreting the R^2 change in the models obtained from the model summaries and the regression coefficient for the product term obtained from model summaries.

The results show that after adding the moderating factor (work environment), sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy and conscientiousness shows an increase in R^2 . Working environment is argued to impact immensely on employees' performance either towards negative or the positive outcomes (Chandrasekar, 2011). McCoy and Evans (2005) stated that the elements of working environment need to be proper so that the employees would not be stressed while getting their job done. Based on the findings of this study, it indicates that work environment moderates the constructs of OCB significantly positively and led to the rejection of the null hypothesis which says that work environment does not moderate OCB and instead concluded that work environment positively and significantly moderates the relationship between OCB and casual employee's performance.

Westerman and Yamamura, (2007) reports that people who are placed in work environments that fit are more likely to intrinsically enjoy their work. Better physical environment of office will boost the employees and ultimately improve their productivity. According to Boles *et al.* (2004a), proper workplace environment helps in reducing the number of absenteeism and thus can increase the employees' performance which leads to increased productivity at the workplace. This finding is in agreement with Brenner (2004) who argues that the ability to share knowledge throughout organizations depends on how the work environment is designed to enable organizations to utilize work environment as if it were an asset. This helps organizations to improve effectiveness and allow employees to benefit from collective knowledge. In addition, he argued that working environment designed to suit employee's satisfaction and free flow of exchange of ideas is a better medium of motivating employees towards higher productivity.

Table 4.46: Moderating Effects of Work Environment on Casual Employees' Performance- results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Model	Variable	Constants	Standardized Coefficients						
			B	Std.Error	Beta	t	Sig.	R ²	Sig
1	Sportsmanship	2.864	0.265	0.068	0.253	3.899	0.000	0.064	0.000
	Altruism	0.924	0.689	0.067	0.566	10.256	0.000	0.320	0.000
	Civic virtue	2.080	0.397	0.053	0.446	7.448	0.000	0.199	0.000
	Courtesy	2.277	0.409	0.054	0.450	7.522	0.000	0.202	0.000
	Conscientiousness	1.657	0.492	0.062	0.469	7.932	0.000	0.220	0.000
2	Sportsmanship	2.191	0.122	0.066	0.117	1.858	0.065	0.218	0.000
	Altruism	0.899	0.551	0.076	0.452	7.232	0.000	0.357	0.000
	Civic virtue	1.797	0.264	0.058	0.297	4.559	0.000	0.274	0.000
	Courtesy	1.430	0.366	0.049	0.402	7.472	0.000	0.365	0.000
	Conscientiousness	1.640	0.322	0.076	0.307	4.249	0.000	0.265	0.000

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the, conclusions and recommendations of the study. Also the chapter suggests areas for further research.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

Summary of the research findings based on the objectives of the study are as follows;

5.3 Influence of Sportsmanship on Casual Employees' Performance

Results on sportsmanship showed that sportsmanship significantly affects casual employees' performance in Kenyan Public Universities. Their performance was also found to be positively correlated with sportsmanship. This implies that team among casual employees in public universities is key to promoting their performance.

5.4 Effect of Altruism on Casual Employees' Performance

Being a desire to help other individuals while not expecting a reward in compensation for the assistance, altruism was found to be significantly affecting casual employees' performance in Kenyan Public Universities. The results also showed that there is a strong positive significant correlation between altruism and casual employees' performance.

5.5 Impact of Civic Virtue on Casual Employees' Performance

Civic Virtue was found to be significantly influencing casual employees' performance in Kenyan Public Universities. Being a behavior which exhibits how

well a person represents an organization with which they are associated, civic virtue also correlated positively with casual employees' performance.

5.6 Influence of Courtesy on Casual Employees' Performance

The findings revealed that courtesy significantly affects casual employees' performance in Kenyan Public Universities. It contributes about 20.2% towards promoting the performance of casual employees. Courtesy showed a medium positive correlation with performance.

5.7 Influence of Conscientiousness of the Casual Employees' Performance

Having a behavior that suggests a reasonable level of self-control and discipline which extends beyond the minimum requirements expected (being conscientious), was found to be significantly affecting casual employees' performance. It correlated positively with casual employees' performance.

5.8 Moderating role of Work Environment on Casual Employees' Performance

The study noted that there is a strong relationship between work environment and the other OCB constructs (sportsmanship, altruism, courtesy, civic virtue and conscientiousness) on the performance of casual employees' performance. The study revealed that work environment significantly moderates casual employees' performance positively. It not only moderates the constructs of OCB positively but also correlates positively with casual employees' performance. This therefore indicates that there is need for the universities' management to seek ways of improving work environment of casual employees in the public universities for better results.

5.9 Conclusions

Based on these findings it is therefore concluded that the five constructs of OCB considered in this study i.e. sportsmanship, altruism, courtesy, civic virtue and conscientiousness influence the performance of casual employees in Kenyan public universities. Work environment on the other hand moderate sportsmanship, altruism, courtesy, civic virtue and conscientiousness significantly positively with performance.

Hypothesis 1(Ho) stated that sportsmanship has no effect on casual employees' performance in Public Universities in Kenya. Test results in table 4.19 shows that sportsmanship had significant beta coefficients ($\beta = 0.253$, $p < 0.05$). This therefore led to rejection of the null hypothesis and concluded that sportsmanship had a significant effect on casual employees' performance in Kenyan Public Universities.

Hypothesis 2 (Ho) stated that altruism has no effect on casual employees' performance in Public Universities in Kenya. From the results presented in table 4.24, it indicates that altruism has a significant effect on casual employees' performance ($\beta = 0.566$, $p < 0.05$). The null hypothesis was thus rejected and concluded that altruism has a strong effect on casual employees' performance.

Hypothesis 3(Ho) stated that Civic virtue has no effect on casual employees' performance in Public Universities in Kenya. The correlation analysis output in table 4.27 shows that there is a medium positive significant correlation between civic virtue and casual employees' performance ($r = 0.446$, $p < 0.01$) in Kenyan universities. Hypothesis 3 (Ho) is therefore rejected.

Hypothesis 4(Ho) stated that Courtesy has no effect on casual employees' performance in Public Universities in Kenya. As displayed in table 4.33 the regression model was statistically significant and explained approximately 20.2% of

the variance of the casual employees' performance ($r^2 = 0.202$, $p < 0.05$). This therefore led to rejection of the null hypothesis 4 (H_0) and instead stated that courtesy significantly affects casual employees' performance in Kenya public universities.

The correlation analysis output in table 4.37 shows that there is a positive significant correlation between conscientiousness and casual employees' performance ($r = 0.469$, $p < 0.01$) in Kenyan Public Universities. This therefore led to the rejection of hypothesis 5(H_0) that stated that conscientiousness has no effect on casual employees' performance in public Universities in Kenya. The null hypothesis 6 (H_0) stated that work environment does not moderate casual employees' performance in public universities in Kenya is null and void. However, the study shows that there is a strong influence of the environment on the constructs of OCB in relation to the performance of casual employees. Therefore, rejection of null hypothesis that states that work environment does not moderate casual employees' performance in public universities in Kenya.

5.10 Recommendations

To improve on their productivity, Kenyan public universities should consider encouraging and promoting all the five constructs of organizational citizenship behavior.

With sportsmanship, universities need to encourage casual employees to embrace goodwill at the workplace whether the conditions are not highly desirable, by not complaining about the status.

Managers or management of the public institutions have a responsibility of ensuring that the casual employees have the desire of helping others while not expecting any compensation through the spirit of altruism.

Institutions are publicized through their own employees and customers. Thus the way the casual employees behave or support the institutions in the public eye matters. Hence, civic virtue needs to be embraced so as the casual employees can represent the institutions in the positive way. Many organizations have fallen due to poor representations. The casual employees have to be compensated well in order to represent these institutions well.

The public universities have a responsibility of ensuring that employees instil that behavior of ensuring that conflicts are minimized. Thus, through courtesy work related conflicts will be reduced among the employees.

In the working place, rules and regulations are very important. Therefore, universities have a responsibility to ensure that self-control and discipline at the work place are observed through obedience to the laid down rules and regulations of the institution. Attendance and job performance are very important. This can be managed through conscientiousness in the cadre of casual employees.

Kenyan public university management should promote conducive work environments for their casual employees as this will enhance positive performance. Work environment as a sum of the interrelationship of various factors that exists among the employees and the employers need to be enhanced to moderate the constructs of OCB for positive performance.

5.11 Areas for further research

Due to limited scope of this study on only casual employees, further research is suggested focusing on all employees in both public and private universities. Also, due to limited research on OCB in Kenya, recommendations for further research on this field focusing on various sectors is encouraged.

The propositions regarding the relationship between the employment of casual employees and OCB of permanent employees need further research. Further study on the casual employees especially those with specialized skills needs to be studied to determine their future careers.

The study takes into cognizance that casual employees have variety of association with the firm. In other words, they can either be employed for a short term need or can have a longer and ongoing association with the company. This difference in association has a bearing on the impact that they will have on permanent workers. Not many studies have accounted for these differences and future studies on blending, i.e. use of both casual employees and permanent employees, will benefit from looking at the differential impact of the nature of association of casual employees with the employing firm.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Questionnaire

1. QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is intended to collect information on the role of organizational citizenship behavior affecting performance of casual workers working in Public Universities in Kenya.

(Please tick to indicate your answer on the space provided)

PART ONE: General Information

1. Name of the University.....
2. Please state your gender
 - a) Male ()
 - b) Female ()
3. How long have you worked in the university as a casual? Please tick where applicable
 - a) Below two years ()
 - b) 3-5 years ()
 - c) 6-8 years ()
 - d) Above 9 years ()
4. Please indicate your academic qualifications/professional qualification
 - a) Degree ()
 - b) Higher diploma ()

c) Diploma ()

d) Certificate ()

e) Below form four ()

5. Are you happy working as a casual worker? Yes No

PART TWO: CASUAL EMPLOYEES PERFORMANCE

Using the scale of 1-5 given below indicate how accurately the following statements describe performance.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
a) As employees we come into work on time and complete assignments on time					
b) Employees are very much concerned about offering quality services					
c) Employees are always aiming at reaching the target in their production					
d) Financial efficiency is the goal of each employee					
e) Employees aware of the organizational goals and objectives					
f) Employees are encouraged to be creative and innovative					

PART THREE: SPORTSMANSHIP (WORK WITHOUT COMPLAINTY)

6. Are your suggestions and opinions taken into consideration by your supervisor?

Yes No

i) Are you interested to continue working here?

Yes No

ii) Using the scale of 1-5 given below indicate how accurately the following statements describe sportsmanship (work without complain even when things do not go as expected)?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
a) It is not common to see employees complain about work					
b) Employees never pay attention to matters that are negative					
c) I never find mistakes with what the organization is doing					
d) Employees never complain about things that are not important					

PART FOUR: ALTRUISM

7. Do you help co-workers with personal matters?

Yes No

i) Do you lend your personal items/working tools to your fellow workers?

Yes No

ii) Using the scale of 1-5 given below indicate how accurately the following statements describe helping (altruism)?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
a) Willingly give of my time to help others co-workers					
b) Help each other without demanding anything					
c) Help new workers to start working					
d) Talk to other workers when they disagree					

PART FIVE: CIVIC VIRTUE

8. Are you given overtime allowances?

Yes No

i) If no, do you think working extra time influences performance.....

ii) Do you volunteer to attend meetings or work on committees of the department on your own?

Yes No

iii) Using the scale of 1-5 given below indicate how accurately the following statements describe civic virtue?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
a) Attend meetings that are not required					
b) Actively participate in departmental meetings					
c) I read and follow all announcements, memos					
d) Interested in the day to day activities of the organization.					

PART SIX: COURTESY

What do the supervisors do when you report late to work?.....

i) What do you do when you report late to work?

ii) Are you paid for that period you report late?
 Yes No

iii) Do you think reporting early or late or staying late without pay to complete a work or task influences your performance?
 Yes No

iv) Using the scale of 1-5 given below indicate how accurately the following statements describe courtesy

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
a) Willingly give of my time to help others					
b) Inform my fellow employees of delays in work progress					
c) Attend information sessions that employees are encouraged to attend.					
d) Share tools with co-workers					

PART SEVEN: CONSCIENTIOUSNESS. Using the scale of 1-5 given below

indicate how accurately the following statements describe conscientiousness?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
a) We have up to-date knowledge of the products and services offered					
b) Attendance at work is above the norm					
c) Obeys company rules and regulations even when no one is watching					
d) I do not take extra time for breaks					

PART EIGHT: WORK ENVIRONMENT

1. The workload distributed to me is fair?

Yes No

ii) If yes, at what percentage?

.....

iii) We have enough work space in our work station

Yes No

iv) If yes, how big in terms of percentage?.....

v) If no, do you think provision of enough work space influences the quality and quantity of work done?

Yes No

vi) Protective equipment is provided to all employees doing the same job that we do.

Yes No

vii) If no, who gets the equipment?.....

.....

Which are the protective equipment provided to you?.....

viii) In your opinion do you think provision of protective equipment influences the quality and quantity of work done?

Yes No

ix) Are you aware of any environmental hazards in your work health and safety issues have been identified in their workplace?

Yes No

x) Have you discussed these hazards with supervisors (e.g tools being noisy)?

Yes No

xi) Are you aware of any changes to the work environment systems or practices that have been introduced to control these hazards? (Please list)

Yes No

i) **PART EIGHT: WORK ENVIRONMENT.** Using the scale of 1-5 given below indicate how accurately the following statements describe work environment?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
a) The rooms have enough openings on the outside					
b) There are dedicated areas for breaks					
c) Filing system and cleanliness are well maintained					