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SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI
ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNG.) BİLİM DALI**

**AN EMIC STUDY ON PROSOCIAL BEHAVIORS IN ORGANIZATIONS: THE ROLES
OF COWORKER RELATIONSHIPS, INTERSECTIONALITY AND SELF-
CONSTRUALS**

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Tez Danışmanı: PROF. DR. SEÇİL BÜLBÜL

2023

ABSTRACT

There have been many controversies and unanswered questions regarding prosocial organizational behaviors in the literature. The current research adopts an emic perspective to explore prosocial behaviors in organizations better. After reviewing the prosociality literature in Chapter 1, a new theoretical framework and a related measurement tool for prosocial organizational behavior are presented in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. In Chapter 2, qualitative research was conducted with a grounded theory method. Prosocial organizational behaviors that emerged from the grounded theory were used to create a valid and reliable prosocial organizational behavior scale in Chapter 3, and a 19 items prosocial organizational behaviors scale was presented. The construct validity of the scale was demonstrated with organizational citizenship behavior ($r = .56, p < .01$) and coworker relationships ($r = .45, p < .01$). Following the grounded theory and relevant literature, Chapter 4 examined the effect of the intersectionality of individual and sociocultural factors and coworker relationships on prosocial behavior in organizations with the newly developed scale. Results showed the impact of coworker relationships on prosocial organizational behavior ($\beta = .40, p < .01$). Findings highlight the importance of interpersonal relationships in organizations as a determinant of prosocial behaviors. The results also unveiled the role of independent self-construals and gender intersectionality on the link between coworker relationships and prosocial organizational behavior. The current thesis is expected to contribute to the existing literature on prosocial behaviors and to provide insights into how to facilitate the formation of prosocial organizational behaviors by considering the social context and individual characteristics. These findings can inform organizational practices and research regarding promoting prosocial behavior and advancing the understanding of prosocial behaviors in organizational settings.

Keywords: Prosocial organizational behavior, intersectionality, age, gender, self-construals, coworker relationships

ÖZET

Alanyazında, örgütlerde başkaları yararına olan davranışların oluşumu ve bu davranışların öncelleri ile ilgili birçok tartışma ve soru varlığını sürdürmektedir. Bu araştırmada, örgütlerde başkaları yararına olan davranışları daha derin bir şekilde keşfetmek için emik bir bakış açısı benimsenmiştir. Araştırmada, olumlu sosyal ve örgütsel davranışlar ile ilgili üç ana çalışma yer almaktadır. 1. Bölüm’de ilgili alanyazın incelemesinin ardından, 2. ve 3. Bölümlerde olumlu sosyal ve örgütsel davranışa ilişkin yeni bir kuramsal çerçeve ve bununla ilişkili bir ölçüm aracı sunulmaktadır. 2.Bölüm’de, gömülü teori yöntemiyle nitel bir araştırma yapılmıştır. 3.Bölüm’de ise gömülü teori ile ortaya çıkan olumlu sosyal ve örgütsel davranışlardan hareketle, 19 soruluk olumlu sosyal ve örgütsel davranış ölçeği geliştirilmiştir. Ölçeğin yapı geçerliliği örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ($r = .56, p < .01$) ve mevkidaş ilişkileri ($r = .45, p < .01$) ile sunulmuştur. 4. Bölüm’de, yeni geliştirilen olumlu sosyal ve örgütsel davranış ölçeği ile örgütlerde başkaları yararına olan davranışların, bireysel, sosyokültürel ve kişilerarası belirleyicileri kesişimsellik bakış açısıyla incelenmiştir. Sonuçlar, mevkidaş ilişkilerinin olumlu sosyal ve örgütsel davranış üzerindeki etkisini göstermiştir ($\beta = .40, p < .01$). Bu bulgular ile olumlu sosyal ve örgütsel davranışların belirleyicilerinden biri olan, örgütlerdeki bireyler arası ilişkilerin önemini vurgulanmaktadır. Ayrıca, mevkidaş ilişkileri ile olumlu sosyal ve örgütsel davranış arasındaki bağlantıda cinsiyet ile bağımsız benlik kurgularının kesişimselliğinin rolü olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Bulguların, örgütlerde olumlu sosyal ve örgütsel davranışlar ile ilgili mevcut alanyazına katkıda bulunması ve olumlu sosyal ve örgütsel davranışların oluşumunun nasıl sağlanacağına dair bilgi sağlaması beklenmektedir. Bu araştırma, olumlu sosyal ve örgütsel davranışı arttırmaya ve örgüt ortamlarında bu davranışlarla ilişkili bağlamın anlaşılmasını geliştirmeye yönelik örgütsel uygulamalara ve araştırmalara bilgi sunmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Olumlu sosyal ve örgütsel davranış, kesişimsellik, yaş, cinsiyet, benlik kurguları, mevkidaş ilişkileri

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

One of the most inspiring but challenging parts of my life has about to be completed. I firstly thank myself for accomplishing this journey.

I am thankful for having a thesis advisor like Prof. Dr. Seil Blbl. She has always encouraged and supported me. She has her precious contributions to the thesis and our other research, which were all to the point concluding remarks.

I thank my thesis committee members, Prof. Dr. Alev Torun and Prof. Dr. Emel Esen, for their precious contributions to the research. They have encouraged me with their constructive feedbacks and let my thesis develop uniquely. I thank Prof. Dr. Serra Yurtkoru and Prof. Dr. Serdar Bozkurt for their valuable attention and contributions during my defense. I also want to thank Prof. Dr. Tlay Turgut, Prof. Dr. Aslı Gnc Kse, Dr. Yaprak Kalafatoėlu, and Merve ahin for sharing their expert views during the scale development process.

There is a root coming from my early psychology undergraduate years in FMV Iık University. It was my luck that our department head was Prof. Dr. Glden Gven. Thanks to her vision, personality, and standing in the field, I have become this person today. Her system in the department has affected me in every part of my life, from deciding to go through my psychotherapy process to ethical decisions in my professional life.

I can not forget to show my gratitude to Do. Dr. Berna Akınar. I was her student. Later, we worked together. I have learned so many things from her. Rather than being an employee, I have always felt like she has always supported me as a person and as her student.

There was a turning point in this particular area of my life. They are Prof. Dr. Dorothea Alewell and Hamburg University. I feel lucky to be able to know her and the entire team during my PhD period. I will always remember those times.

I want to thank Dr. Kyriaki Fouisiani for all her contributions to my perspective and research knowledge. While working together, she has always given her support to me, and she taught me many things.

I want to say something to my beloved friends. I thank them for their presence and understanding while I was always too busy. They did their best to help me, even during data collection. I am so happy to know all my friends and thank them for their nurturing and all the fun together, which took me far away from all the stress of academia and hierarchical strains within.

My grandmother Nilüfer wanted to raise me as the independent woman I am today with all her vision; we shared dreams for my life. Two people were also with me while I was growing up. My uncles from my mother's side: Ziya Özer and Mustafa Yener Özer. They have always done their best to take care of me, in addition to my primary caregivers. I thank them too much.

My final remarks are for my parents. My parents have done their best to support me in my wishes and dreams with all their resources. Overall, I thank all my background coming from my parents. Thanks to them, I have my perspective on life and become an independent and resilient woman.

Istanbul, 2023



DEDICATION

To my beloved grandparents Nilüfer and Tahsin Özer

Table of Contents

<i>List of Tables</i>	<i>x</i>
<i>List of Figures</i>	<i>xi</i>
INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER 1: PROSOCIAL BEHAVIORS: A LITERATURE REVIEW	3
1.1. Prosocial Behaviors: Different Conceptualizations.....	3
1.2. Prosocial Behaviors in Organizational Context.....	5
1.3. Etiology of Prosocial Behaviors.....	11
1.4. The Major Goals of the Current Study	16
CHAPTER 2: EMIC APPROACH TO PROSOCIALITY IN ORGANIZATIONS	18
2.1. Introduction	18
2.2. Prosocial Behaviors in Organizations	19
2.3. Method	21
2.3.1. Data and Research Strategy	22
2.3.2. Participants	23
2.3.3. Trustworthiness.....	25
2.3.4. Data Analysis Procedures.....	26
2.4.5. Reflexivity.....	27
2.4. Results	28
2.4.1. Interview Study	28
2.4.2. Diary Study	41
2.5. Findings and Discussion.....	45
CHAPTER 3: PROSOCIAL ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR: A NEW MEASUREMENT TOOL	52
3.1. Introduction.....	52
3.2. Aims.....	53
3.3. Method.....	54
3.3.1. Procedure	54
3.3.2. Participants	60
3.3.3. Measures.....	61
3. 4. Results	62
3. 5. Findings and Discussion.....	64
CHAPTER 4: A NEW EXPLANATION BASED ON WORKPLACE RELATIONSHIPS, SOCIAL IDENTITY AND SELF-CONSTRUALS	66
4.1. Introduction	66
4.2. Coworker Workplace Relationships.....	67
4.3. The Role of Age and Gender Intersectionality	68
4.4. Interdependent and Independent Self-Construals	70

4.5. Method.....	72
4.5.1. Instruments	72
4.5.2. Participants	73
4.6. Results	74
4.6.1. Factor and Reliability Analyses of Prosocial Organizational Behavior Scale	74
4.6.2. Factor and Reliability Analyses of Workplace Relationships Scale	75
4.6.3. Factor and Reliability Analyses of Self- Construal Scale	76
4.6.4. Correlation Analysis	78
4.7. Hypothesis Testings	80
4.7.1. Simple Regression.....	80
4.7.2. Moderation Analyses	80
4.8. Additional Analyses.....	82
4.9. Findings and Discussion.....	82
CHAPTER 5: PROSOCIAL ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIORS: A NEW PERSPECTIVE FOR MEASUREMENT AND EXPLANATIONS	84
5.1. Implications of the Findings for Organizational Behavior and Psychology	84
5.2. Limitations and Future Recommendations	88
References	91
APPENDIX A- INTERVIEW- INFORMED CONSENT	109
APPENDIX B- INTERVIEW QUESTIONS.....	110
APPENDIX C- DIARY- INFORMED CONSENT.....	111
APPENDIX D- DIARY QUESTIONS	112
APPENDIX E- INITIAL OUTLOOK OF THE CODES.....	113
APPENDIX F - INFORMED CONSENTS FOR QUESTIONNAIRES AND THE QUESTIONNAIRE OF CHAPTER 4.....	119
APPENDIX G- FACTORIAL STRUCTURE OF THE POB SCALE.....	124
APPENDIX H- PROSOCIAL ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR SCALE-OLUMLU SOSYAL VE ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ ÖLÇEĞİ.....	125

List of Tables

Table 1. Overview of the Empirical Chapters	17
Table 2. Participants' Demographics in Interviews.....	24
Table 3. Participants' Demographics in Diaries.....	25
Table 4. Frequency Table of Prosocial Organizational Behaviors, Interviews	36
Table 5. Frequency Table of the Antecedents of Prosocial Organizational Behaviors, Interviews.....	39
Table 6. Frequency Table of the Consequences of Prosocial Organizational Behaviors, Interviews.....	41
Table 7. Frequency Table of Prosocial Organizational Behaviors, Diaries.....	43
Table 8. Frequency Table of the Antecedents of Prosocial Organizational Behaviors, Diaries.....	44
Table 9. Frequency Table of the Consequences of Prosocial Organizational Behaviors, Diaries.....	45
Table 10. Content Validity Results of Prosocial Organizational Behavior Scale Items.....	56
Table 11. Clarity Ranking of Prosocial Organizational Behavior Scale Items.....	57
Table 12. Preliminary Item Generation.....	59
Table 13. Participants' Demographics in Chapter 3.....	61
Table 14. Factorial Structure of Prosocial Organizational Behavior Scale.....	63
Table 15. Construct Validity Results.....	64
Table 16. Participants' Demographics in Chapter 4.....	73
Table 17. CFA Results of Prosocial Organizational Behavior Scale.....	74
Table 18. Prosocial Organizational Behavior Scale-Means and Standard Deviations of the Items.....	74
Table 19. EFA Results of Workplace Relationships Scale.....	75
Table 20. CFA Results of Workplace Relationships Scale.....	76
Table 21. EFA Results Self-Construals Scale.....	77
Table 22. CFA Results of Self-Construals Scale.....	77
Table 23. Self-Construals Scale-Means and Standard Deviations of the Items.....	78
Table 24. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Main Study Variables.....	79
Table 25. Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations Among Sub-Dimensions.....	79
Table 26. The Effect of Coworker Relationships on Prosocial Organizational Behaviors.....	80

List of Figures

Figure 1. Cohen's Cappa Statistics of the Interview Codes	27
Figure 2. Types of Prosocial Organizational Behaviors.....	50
Figure 3. Antecedents and Consequences of Prosocial Organizational Behavior.....	51
Figure 4. Research Model of Chapter 4.....	72
Figure 5. Moderation of Men's Independent Self-Construals on Prosocial Organizational Behaviors.....	81
Figure 6. Moderation of Women's Independent Self-Construals on Prosocial Organizational Behaviors.....	82



INTRODUCTION

Over the thousand years, prosociality-related discourses are prevalent in philosophy, religion (e.g., "love thy neighbor"; Matthew 22:37–39 as cited by Canning, 1984), and different disciplines (e.g., political science, economics, psychology, and sociology; Bowler & Brass, 2006; Dovidio, Piliavin, Schroeder, & Penner, 2017; Pfattheicher, Nielsen, & Thielmann, 2022). In recent decades, research has increasingly focused on prosocial behaviors because of many social factors, such as the sociopolitical atmosphere (e.g., the widespread civil rights movements and the effect of real-life incidents; Caspersz & Olaru, 2015; Marullo & Edwards, 2000a; Özdemir & Özkan, 2021). Relevant research examines the frequency of and reasons for helping strangers, relatives, families, and friends (Flook, Zahn-Waxler, & Davidson, 2019; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010; Vos & van der Zee, 2011), and argues that employees' behaviors exceed their formal work by helping other organizational members, working long hours, and doing extra work as a reflection of prosociality (Bateman & Organ, 1983).

Despite the comprehensive research on prosociality in the literature and its societal and individual importance (Davila & Finkelstein, 2013; Ranjhan & Mallick, 2018), the operationalization and assessment of prosocial behavior are still debated (Eisenberg, Eggum-Wilkens, & Spinrad, 2015). More specifically, organizational researchers use different terms (e.g., altruism) interchangeably to refer to prosociality (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Zettler, 2022), which leads to conceptual unclarity, interference with other concepts (e.g., extra-role behaviors), and confusion in explaining the phenomena. Thus, this study addresses definitional issues around prosociality and suggests a novel framework for prosocial organizational behavior (POB) based on grounded theory and emic perspective (Chapter 2).

Different prosociality-related conceptualizations also affect the measurements (Goertz, 2020). Since many terms are used instead of prosociality, their measurements differ. Therefore, an appropriate assessment based on the conceptualization of POB needs to be introduced in the field. Based on the grounded theory of the current thesis, a POB measurement tool is proposed, and its reliability and validity are assessed in Chapter 3. By adopting an emic approach that refers to the perspective of the social context where the behavior is situated and from the individual experience in that environment (Helfrich, 1999; Pike, 1954), this thesis proposes a new conceptualization and measurement tool for the context of Turkey. While there is an ongoing discussion regarding the necessity of emic research to define individuals and their

behaviors properly, the etic approach has been criticized for overgeneralizing psychological concepts and ignoring the cultural effect by Westernizing phenomena (Köster, Schuhmacher, & Kärtner, 2015), and not giving importance to the culture reflections (Aycan, 2000). While both arguments may have their points, literature still needs indigenous research on prosociality in organizations to reveal some unexplored culture-specific (i.e., emic) experiences of employees. Chapters 2 and 3 aim to fill this gap in the literature by depending on the emic approach to conceptualize POB and develop a relevant measurement. Due to the organizational level differences between public and private sectors, choosing one of them would be more beneficial to reveal context specific behaviors. Although discussions are still prevalent, previous arguments defined the possible differences between private and public sector organizations (e.g., state-based managerial and bureaucratic processes for public organizations; Boyne, 2002). Since there can be variances in employee behaviors, private sector organizations were specifically chosen to develop a more context-specific POB theory and a relevant measurement for the employees of those organizations since the literature still needs to describe sector-relevant prosocial behaviors.

An extensive study has examined antecedents of prosociality in many contexts and groups (Sharma & Tomer, 2018; Staub, 1978). Among the several antecedents, the interpersonal determinants of prosocial behavior in organizations remain undiscovered, even though recent findings show the effect of social dynamics on employee behaviors (Harrison, Budworth, & Stone, 2022; Kim & Qu, 2020). The role of coworker relationships in POB should be focused on more and unveiled because of the importance of interpersonal factors in organizations (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Dirks & Skarlicki, 2009). In addition to relationships, evidence points out the effect of gender and age as individual-level characteristics on variances of prosocial behaviors (Abdullahi & Kumar, 2016; Foulkes, Leung, Fuhrmann, Knoll, & Blakemore, 2018). However, research has primarily examined how single demographic group categories (e.g., elderly vs. young and women vs. men) behave. People always have multiple (rather than one single) social categories that may interact with each other in predicting work outcomes (see Strinić, Carlsson, & Agerström, 2020) and relational attitudes (İşiaçık & Turnalar-Çetinkaya, 2022). Few studies showed age-gender interactions as predictors of the relevant psychological mechanisms (Chopik, Newton, Lindsay Ryan, Kashdan & Aaron, 2019; Murn & Steele, 2020). Thus far, it can be assumed that age and gender play a role in the relationship between coworker relationships and POB. Relatedly, since previous findings have highlighted the effect of self-construal (i.e., interdependent self-construal) on interpersonal relationship quality (Morry & Kito, 2009), examining the roles of the interdependent self and independent self on the relationship between coworker relationship quality and POB might be vital to understand the social and individual aspect of prosocial behaviors. However, to the best of the knowledge, no previous research has

shown the intersection effect of age, gender, and self-construal on POB. This study also investigates the role of the interplay between individual characteristics (i.e., gender and age) and self-construals in predicting the association between coworker workplace relationships and POB. Building on the intersectionality theory (Cole, 2009; Crenshaw, 1989), it is assumed that the interaction and combination of multiple characteristics, rather than one factor alone, determines coworker relationship quality in the workplace and, eventually, prosocial behaviors in organizations in Turkey (Chapter 4).

CHAPTER 1: PROSOCIAL BEHAVIORS: A LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Prosocial Behaviors: Different Conceptualizations

Psychology and other related fields (e.g., sociology and management) examine prosociality in different social contexts (e.g., organizations; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Kanten & Yeşiltaş, 2013). Prosocial behavior is usually defined as voluntary behavior performed for the benefit of others (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Organ, 1997; Staub, 1978). It covers various actions such as helping and social support (Pearce & Amato, 1980). One person can assist others by holding an elevator or volunteering to increase cancer awareness (Batson & Powell, 2003).

Prosocial behaviors may have two purposes: self-centered and other-centered (Carlo & Randall, 2002). Altruism is a motivation that considers the welfare and benefits of others. An individual with an altruistic aim acts prosocially without expecting external rewards (i.e., getting something from the help recipient; Snyder & Dwyer, 2013). Charity is another example of altruism-based prosocial behavior. People try to raise money to benefit those who live under bad conditions (Batson, Thompson, Seuferling, Whitney, & Strongman, 1999). Conversely, self-centered prosocial behaviors can be impression management in front of others and egoistic motivation as the desire to benefit oneself by helping others. A person may also engage in prosocial behaviors to reduce their own negative and unpleasant emotions (Cialdini, Baumann, & Kenrick, 1981). In general, examples of prosocial behavior are summarized as sharing, helping, comforting, cooperating, donating blood, donating money, volunteering, and complementing, regardless of the intention (Batson & Powell, 2003; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). Recent research also suggests that defending behaviors—a behavioral response against threatening situations for the safety of oneself and others—can be a form of prosocial behavior (Geraci & Franchin, 2021).

Despite the variances in prosocial behavior, researchers have proposed novel taxonomies to provide a more organized explanation. For instance, Dunfield (2014) collected these behaviors under three domains: helping, sharing, and comforting. Helping occurs when the benefactor cannot act to complete a goal; sharing

happens when another person does not have access to resources; and comforting is directly related to alleviating the negative emotional state of another individual. Researchers from different fields of psychology put forward broader definitions by including the other motives behind prosocial behaviors. Carlo and Randall (2002) suggested six dimensions of prosocial behavior by examining the theory and research in related fields (e.g., adolescents):

(a) Altruistic prosocial behavior captures voluntary aid with the motive of caring for the needs and well-being of others.

(b) Obedient prosocial behavior is a helping behavior displayed after a verbal or nonverbal request.

(c) Emotional prosocial behavior is helping behavior in the presence of emotional and environmental stimuli, such as seeing someone hurt their leg.

(d) Dire prosocial behaviors, including helping in emergencies and crises. These scenes can cause sympathy, perspective-taking, and moral reasoning that leads to helping.

(f) Public prosocial behavior is a helping behavior exhibited with motives such as gaining respect and approval from other people.

(e) Anonymous prosocial behaviors were performed without knowing who helped them.

Likewise, Boxer, Tisak, and Goldstein (2004) developed an approach to compare prosocial behaviors with aggressive behavior subtypes and prosociality. This new definition considers the instrumental aspect of prosocial behavior and the intention behind these behaviors, as in Carlo and Randall's (2002) type of public prosocial behavior. Boxer and colleagues (2004) divided altruistic behavior into two groups: reactive and goal-directed (proactive). While reactive positive actions are described as responding to another's request due to emotional arousal, in goal-directed prosocial behaviors, prosocial behavior is used to reach one's goals (i.e., gaining approval from others).

In sum, as individuals tend to behave prosocially, these behaviors are exhibited in organizations, too. Because of the nature of the work context, many discourses have been asserted about business and management welfare and its relationship with organizational members' roles (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

1.2. Prosocial Behaviors in Organizational Context

According to Katz's (1964) seminal work, more than usual formal job descriptions should be preferred by organizations, because this kind of working style and organizational functioning shows a fragile system and eventually leads to low performance. Following this argument, organizational behaviors that promote the benefits of the organization, customers, and other organizational members have been conceptualized by many researchers as related to prosociality. Several terms describe different roles and helping behaviors in organizations (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983).

According to Katz's (1964) three propositions on organizational roles, employees first engage in and stay in their roles and organizations. Second, they meet performance standards. Third, employees exceed role demands and engage in behaviors, such as speaking favorably for the organization and having cooperative attitudes. The third pattern holds significant value for organizational survival and is not determined by formal role requirements. Katz (1964) referred this as voluntary and spontaneous behavior for the organizational benefits.

Moreover, Staw (1984) argued about prosocial behavior in an organizational context by stating that people can be motivated to behave selflessly and altruistically in particular organizational contexts, such as universities. However, Staw (1984) did not conceptualize prosocial organizational behavior. Based on Katz's (1964) paradigm and previous research on prosocial behavior (e.g., Latane & Darley, 1968), Brief and Motowidlo (1986) proposed the conceptualization of POB. They defined and explained POB as prosocial behaviors in an organizational setting and suggested the arguments below:

1. An organizational member performs POB,
2. POB targets other individuals, groups, and organizations that the individual interacts while doing their job,
3. It is performed to benefit and promote the welfare of the individual, group, or organization.

Specifically, Brief and Motowidlo (1986) defined 13 specific types of POB:

1. Assisting organizational members on job-related issues to benefit others can be an extra-role behavior defined in one's organizational role. Examples of these actions include helping other employees who are absent, helping newcomers by orienting them, and assisting managers.
2. Assisting organizational members with problems such as family issues or preventing and protecting others against organizational censures. This type of POB is primarily extra-role and is either functional or dysfunctional in the organization.

3. Adopting leniency in personal decisions by behaving in favor of others is usually reflected in hiring, compensation, and performance appraisal decisions. Since these decisions should be independent of the subjective factors, employees who make such decisions and act according to the benefit of an organizational member do not produce functional results for the organization.

4. Helping consumers (i.e., customers, clients, etc.) by providing services and products in a consistent organizational style is related to specific professions and industries such as banks and hospitals. This is a role-prescribed and organizationally active type of POB because the qualities of these jobs and work areas focus on consumers' needs and demands.

5. Helping consumers (i.e., customers, clients, etc.) by providing services and products in inconsistent organizational ways is a kind of POB that is detrimental to organizations since these behaviors do not necessarily focus on organizational interests. For example, a salesperson might offer an inappropriate price to a client.

6. Assisting and helping consumers (e.g., customers, clients, etc.) with their issues occurs when an organizational member who is often in touch with consumers attends and provides help to the consumer. These behaviors are extra-role and may be functional and dysfunctional for organizations depending on the person's role (i.e., these behaviors may be directly or indirectly relevant to the job description).

7. Complying with organizational rules, policies, practices, and values refers to behaviors that benefit the organization rather than the individual. The employee accepts both implicit and explicit norms of the organization, which are acceptable organizational behaviors, and follows the rules in daily life, such as not wasting organizational resources.

8. Making suggestions for organizational improvement is related to the behaviors as suggesting changes in management practices, jobs, and organizational structure.

9. Objections to inappropriate policies and procedures begin when an organizational member realizes the need for change. For example, a policy may be unethical or illegal, and employees might criticize behaviors.

10. Extra effort for a job involves personal expenses. Employees may exert extra effort through diligence, conscientiousness, and perseverance.

11. Volunteering for additional tasks and assignments is related to extra job effort and volunteer activities, such as taking jobs in committee assignments that are not necessary.

12. Staying in the organization despite challenges represents organizational loyalty. Employees who engage in that kind of POB stay in the organization even if other individuals or the organization cause uncomfortable and inconvenient conditions.

13. Representing the organization positively and favorably to outsiders is another kind of loyalty by speaking well about the organization to people and institutions from outside.

As mentioned in the list above, some POBs are functional in the organization, whereas others are dysfunctional. For example, Katz's (1964) descriptions of behavioral patterns can be evaluated as an active type of POB (i.e., behaving in favor of an organization) in Brief and Motowidlo's (1986) classification. Other types of POBs benefit organizational members even if they are dysfunctional (e.g., protecting colleagues from negative organizational implications). In addition, for this classification of Brief and Motowidlo (1986), POB can go beyond the role requirements and be part of the prescribed roles required for the job. Some occupations help individuals, such as psychotherapists, and engaging in helping behaviors is in the scope of these professions' job descriptions and specializations.

On the other hand, organizational prosociality research in Turkey has also adopted many perspectives of prosociality. Some studies evaluated POB as a relational concept with positive organizational behavior and positive psychology (Akçay, 2018; Kanten & Yeşiltaş, 2013). According to Bülbül (2013)'s research, POB can benefit individuals and organizations while having internal and external focus. Internal focus refers to behaviors like helping a coworker and compliance with the organizational procedures depending on who benefits from the prosocial behavior (i.e., individuals or organizations). External-centered prosocial behaviors can be protecting the company image and engaging in positive behaviors toward customers. Also, prosociality has been studied as both extra-role and role prescribed in the context of Turkey (Öcal & Sarnıç, 2017).

In addition to prosociality research, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; Bateman & Organ, 1983) was proposed in the relevant literature. OCB was first defined as extra-role contributions to an organization (Organ, 1988). Employees who are good citizens neither expect rewards nor are rewarded for their discretionary behaviors (see Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009, for review). In the later revision of OCB definitions, Organ (1997, p.95) described OCB as "performance that supports the social environment in which task performance takes place." by revising the definition of the extra roles.

In general, the five sub-dimensions of OCB are as follows (Organ, 1998):

Altruism: It is discretionary interpersonal helping behavior in organizations. Teaching a coworker how to use new equipment and helping them complete a task before the deadline are the examples of altruism.

Courtesy: It is a behavior that aims to prevent possible coworker problems before they occur. Examples of courtesy include gestures and notifications about delays. Through these discretionary behaviors, knowledge sharing also occurs.

Conscientiousness: This behavior is beyond the formal role requirements and duties and includes behaviors that benefit the organization. For example, only if not repeated, managers and organizations can tolerate the absence of unexpected urgent situations such as weather conditions and illness. Other examples are arriving at work early and leaving late, avoiding unnecessary breaks, and not wasting organizational resources (i.e., electricity, water, and equipment).

Sportsmanship is the employee's willingness to tolerate less-than-ideal circumstances without complaining and avoiding complaints about undesirable work conditions, such as doing overtime to finish a task and having an early deadline.

Civic virtue: This behavior refers to organizational survival and contributes to organizational governance processes by attending meetings even if they are not required or providing suggestions for administrative work.

In addition to this classification of OCB, Graham (1991, p.255) proposed three interrelated categories: organizational participation, obedience, and loyalty. This explains positive interactions with others through sharing ideas and full engagement in governance. Organizational obedience is defined as respecting rules and procedures, including behaviors such as completing tasks before deadlines. Organizational loyalty is about identification with the organizational management and the organization as a whole and giving importance to others. Protecting the organization from harmful cases and collaborating with others are examples of organizational loyalty, while employee participation is about being part of the organizational process.

Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994) defined five OCB dimensions based on Graham's (1991) dimensions. These dimensions are obedience (e.g., conforming to organizational rules and regulations), loyalty (e.g., being loyal to the management and organization), social participation (e.g., having positive communication with other organizational members), advocacy participation (e.g., engaging in behaviors to

change the status quo in the organization), and active participation (e.g., being a volunteer in the organization without the request of the superior).

Furthermore, Moorman and Blakely (1995) suggest a four-dimensional concept of OCB, supporting the dimensions of Organ (1988) and Graham (1991). The first dimension—interpersonal helping—refers to providing aid to coworkers. Individual initiatives define interactions with others to improve performance. The personal industry goes beyond formal job responsibilities by engaging in special duties. Actions and attitudes define loyal boosterism in developing an organizational reputation (Moorman & Blakely, 1995, p. 130).

In the review of Podsakoff and colleagues (2000), various dimensions of OCB were organized into seven groups:

Helping behavior is voluntary behavior to help others with work-related problems and preventing them.

Sportsmanship includes the behaviors of people who do not complain during disturbing situations and the behaviors of employees who stay positive at times, even when their suggestions are not accepted and their interests are not met.

Organizational loyalty is about promoting the organization to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats, and remaining committed to it even under adverse conditions.

Organizational compliance refers to obeying rules and following administrative regulations that no one monitors.

Individual initiatives are related to extra-role behaviors by also engaging in task-related behaviors.

Civic virtue is a commitment to the organization by actively participating in organizational governance and monitoring the environment for threats and opportunities.

Self-development is an employee's effort to develop knowledge, skills, and abilities.

Williams and Anderson (1991) proposed another conceptualization of OCB by dividing it to two categories: OCB-O (OCB directed at organizations) and OCB-I (OCB directed at individuals). OCB-O refers to attitudes and behaviors that benefit organizations, such as following the informal rules of the company and providing an earlier notification in case of absence during the workday. OCB-I helps specific organizational members, such as caring for other individuals in organizations. OCB-I consists of altruism

and courtesy dimension of Organ (1988)'s OCB dimensions, whereas OCB-O captures sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002).

Based on the differentiation that focuses on the foci of citizenship behavior as either organization or other people, interpersonal citizenship behavior (ICB; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002) has been proposed as a concept related to OCB-I (Williams & Anderson, 1991). An ICB occurs when a coworker helps another by going beyond job requirements. It contributes directly or indirectly to the group and organizational functioning (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). Person-focused ICB (P-ICB; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002) refers to interpersonal facilitation, such as coworker cooperation and social participation (Van Dyne et al., 1994). An employee can voluntarily give aid to a fellow employee to solve a problem and perform a task (Organ, 1988), and these behaviors are discretionary since they are directed to a coworker with their personal situations, even work-related. Likewise, person-focused ICB is about emotional support based on concern for others, such as providing counseling and encouragement, and understanding toward other individuals at work. Task-focused interpersonal citizenship behavior (T-ICB) targets work-related challenges and helps coworkers with work-related tasks that are less personal. Examples of T-ICBs include assisting coworkers with heavy workloads and providing work-related advice (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002).

Besides the different classifications of citizenship behaviors, some concepts are related to the definitions of POB. Contextual performance describes behaviors that are not included in the formal job requirement but support organizational functioning and effectiveness by influencing social and organizational areas. Extra-role behavior refers to behaviors that exceed formal role requirements, such as voluntarily helping a coworker (Kılıklı & Çarıkcı, 2019; Meydan, Şeşen, & Basım, 2011). Behaviors like mentoring (i.e., contributing to a mentee's progress; Bear & Hwang, 2015) and knowledge sharing (i.e., exchanging information with other employees; Connelly & Kelloway, 2003) can theoretically overlap with prosociality in organizations.

Subsequently, based on the previous conceptualizations, OCB can be classified into different types due to its nature and targets. These classifications include behaviors like ICB. Furthermore, many concepts are associated with the a priori definitions and behavioral examples of POB and OCB, such as contextual performance, extra-role behavior, mentoring, and knowledge sharing. In addition to different terminologies, literature has discussed the determinants of prosociality and related behaviors. The following part will provide an overview of the recent evidence about the POB antecedents.

1.3. Etiology of Prosocial Behaviors

The core work of sociologists such as Durkheim and Parsons (1951) has discussed how and when prosocial behavior occurs. Their answers focused on socialization, in which norms and prosocial personalities are formed (for a review, see Hoffmann, 1983). The following arguments proposed a perspective based on a "social dilemma." When people have to contribute to creating a jointly desired outcome, they often free-ride, even if they are socialized accordingly (Kiyonari & Barclay, 2008). In such social dilemma situations (Dawes, 1980), where non-prosocial behavior is beneficial for each group member yet insufficient for the group, it may be better to check individuals' self-interest rather than their socialization. Therefore, the central paradigm for investigating cooperative behavior in social dilemma situations leaned heavily on rational choice theory, which is explained as self-interest based on economics and game theory rather than the socialization perspective (e.g., Coleman, 1990; Hechter, 1987).

Evolutionary biology also discusses cooperative behavior, especially since some solidarity-based behaviors may have been part of evolution (Trivers, 1971). According to the evolutionary view, a genetic predisposition toward prosocial behavior can survive and spread in a population as long as this behavior favors the reproduction and survival of the organism (Simpson & Beckes, 2010). Prosocial tendencies are explained as genetic predispositions and evolutionary success that are the survival of one's genes in subsequent generations (Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, & Schroeder, 2005). Mechanisms, such as kin selection, reciprocal altruism, and group selection, help explain the functions of prosocial actions. Kin selection theory explains that humans tend to help close relatives because of their genetic similarities. Helping a relative increases the probability of passing one's genes to the next generation (Dovidio et al., 2017). For instance, Burnstein, Crandall, and Kitayama (1994) found that people in life-or-death situations are likelier to help close relatives than distant relatives. People help others in a manner that increases the probability of passing their genes to the next generation. While kin selection theory explains prosocial acts towards relatives, reciprocal altruism proposes that people help non-relatives. According to reciprocal altruism, people exhibit prosocial acts because prosocial behavior increases the likelihood of receiving help (Carter, Chen, & Razik, 2020). Group selection theory suggests that altruistic behavior increases the evolutionary success of groups. Thus, people tend to help members of their groups since these behaviors increase their probability of survival (Penner et al., 2005).

Another important line of research relates to prosocial and solidary behavioral development in children and teens. As fostering prosocial behavior has been widely discussed in the developmental psychology literature (e.g., Jambon, Madigan, Plamondon, & Jenkins, 2019; Taylor, 2020), several factors

regarding infants, children, and adolescents have been proposed. Young children base their moral judgment and behavior on the consequences of their behavior for themselves (e.g., if a specific behavior is punished, the children labels it a wrong behavior). In later years, children tend to attach to social rules and norms as morally good without questioning the legitimacy of such regulations. During late adolescence, teens base their moral judgment and behavior on abstract ethical rules. As individuals enter adolescence, their capacity to think increases abstractly. Since teenagers reflect more deeply on values and meaningful goals, they are more likely to empathize with others who are close or distant and more rigorously consider moral principles. Their increased cognitive, physical, and social development enables them to engage in prosocial activities (Steinberg, 2005). Identity development is also crucial for developing prosocial habits because people who view prosocial values and behaviors as central to their identities are likely to behave prosocially across situations (Aquino & Reed, 2002). Besides developmental issues, cognitive psychology and micro sociology evidence show other explanations of prosociality.

According to the cognitive perspective (e.g., social-cognitive mechanisms such as perspective taking; Gülseven, Kumru, Carlo, & de Guzman, 2020), the way a situation is subjectively "framed" or "defined" influences choice and behavior (De Dreu & Boles, 1998; Kahneman & Tversky, 1984). The "situation" does not simply determine behavior. Framing and perception processes enhance preferences and actions. The first step is to notice when others need help (Eisenberg, Guthrie, Cumberland, Murphy, Shepard, Zhou, & Carlo, 2002). Other-oriented individuals pay more attention to people and are more likely to recognize when they need help (Narvaez & Lapsley, 2009). Empathy is another antecedent of prosocial behavior, which refers to understanding other people's experiences, sufferings, and needs. When people better understand others' pain, they are more likely to do something to relieve it (Davis, 2015).

Concerning empathy, social psychologists have attempted to determine whether pure altruism exists. Psychologists have focused on both material rewards to behave for the benefit of others and internal rewards resulting from prosocial behavior (e.g., the feeling of being a moral person). Batson, Batson, Slingsby, Harrell, Peekna, & Todd (1991) specifically argued that altruism is motivated by empathic concern for a person- the empathic altruism hypothesis. However, research also suggests that even if someone is concerned about others, empathizes with their suffering, and feels the urge to help, they are likely to act if they believe their actions will effectively change another person's experiences. Accordingly, agency refers to people's perception of control over their surroundings. The agency is critical for motivating and reinforcing prosocial behavior. When people believe that they can make a difference, they are more

likely to take action (Caprara & Steca, 2005). People may also be more likely to behave prosocially if caring for others is their duty (De Cremer & Van Lange, 2001).

Psychologists generally employ two strategies to understand the antecedents of prosocial behavior (Batson & Powell, 2003). The first is the application and extension of the theory. Using this strategy, the researcher identifies psychological mechanisms beyond prosocial behaviors. Social learning, norms and roles, social exchange, attribution, esteem maintenance/enhancement, and moral reasoning explain prosocial behaviors. Social learning theory argues that observational learning and role modeling by observing others' actions affect prosocial behaviors. Specifically, a person can learn to behave prosocially by copying others' behaviors (Bandura, 1986; Cialdini et al., 1981).

Regarding social learning, norms refer to written and unwritten rules in society, and roles are the expected behavioral patterns of a person who occupies a social position. A person learns the norms and roles of a given situation through social observation and modeling. For example, prosocial attitudes can be a natural part of the norms and roles of specific occupations (e.g., mental health workers). Moral reasoning theories also (e.g., cognitive development of morality) assume the universality of moral development and its effect on ethical choices and related prosocial behaviors (see DeTienne, Ellertson, Ingerson, & Dudley, 2021 for a review). On the contrary, reciprocity suggests that people behave prosocially to gain rewards. A help recipient can return the favor in a tangible way (i.e., money) and people behave prosocially to enhance and recover their self-esteem and feel good about themselves (Brown & Smart, 1991). Relatedly, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) has been extensively proposed to explain prosocial behaviors. According to this theory, the actor can behave for the target's benefit, and the target's attitudinal or behavioral response comes as an interchange.

Another factor that predicts ongoing patterns of prosocial behavior is the discrete act of prosociality. Several factors contributed to this pattern. First, repeating any action across time diminishes the amount of cognitive energy required to plan and execute a behavior, making it more automatic (Schneider & Shiffrin, 1977). Second, a well-documented "positive feedback loop" exists between prosocial behavior and positive emotions: Helping others leads people to a good mood, making them more likely to help others (Layous, Nelson, Kurtz, & Lyubomirsky, 2017). These actions alter people's relationships with their contexts, which could make the contexts themselves more conducive to prosocial behavior. For example, if a person chooses to volunteer in a homeless shelter, they will meet people who run the shelter, learn the shelter's schedule, and may be invited to return to volunteer again. Changing how individuals interact with their contexts is

critical for enacting sustainable behavioral changes (Bolier, Haverman, Westerhof, Riper, Smit, & Bohlmeijer, 2013).

The second way to study prosocial behavior in the psychology literature is to analyze the prerequisites and variances of prosocial behavior (Batson & Powell, 2003). Specifically, individual- and situation-level factors are prominent in explaining prosociality (McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Sharma & Tomer, 2018). Situational factors appear to be powerful determinants, such as the victim's need (i.e., the severity of need), the cost of helping, the physical appearance of the victim, rural or urban location, and the presence of other bystanders (Batson & Powell, 2003). A wide range of research has also proposed social-level antecedents of prosocial behavior in many social contexts and groups. Evidence asserts that practices such as nurturant parenting and parental modeling of prosocial behavior are related to children's and adolescents' prosocial responsiveness toward others (Radke-Yarrow, Zahn-Waxier, & Chapman, 1983). Likewise, Bowler and Brass (2006) argues the association between friendship and helping behaviors. In organizations, previous evidence shows that workplace friendships enhance OCB as a positive example of interpersonal workplace relationships (Wang, Liu, Zhang, & Li, 2022). Findings have revealed coworkers influence on prosocial behavior through many psychological mechanisms, including social learning (Bommer, Miles, & Grover, 2003; Fleming, 2019).

Interpersonal behaviors and relationship quality are intimately intertwined, as described by Hinde (1995). Interactions between two individuals form relationships. Relationships affect how individuals behave, and relationships are affected by individuals' behavior toward each other. For example, two people who consistently help each other may develop a supportive and secure relationship. Following the evidence and discussions mentioned above, the current research focuses on the effect of coworker relationships as the social determinants of POB.

Considerable evidence has shown the vital role of relatedness in promoting prosocial behavior. Self-reported relatedness satisfaction is positively associated with adolescents' willingness to engage in prosocial behaviors, such as donating to charity, volunteering, and recycling (Gagné, 2003). A longitudinal study among Chinese adolescents has demonstrated that satisfaction with relatedness needs at school directly affects prosocial behavior (Tian, Zhang, & Huebner, 2018). Therefore, being self and other-oriented would affect engaging in prosocial behaviors (Poulin, Ministerio, Gabriel, Morrison, & Naidu, 2021).

Göregenli mentioned that society in Turkey could not only be classified as an individualist or a collectivist society (1995). Because of the trends toward individualism, it is even more challenging to expect the society to carry the traits associated with a single dimension. In line with this view, the development of

the self differs from one social segment to another. While upper socioeconomic status segments of society seem to have individualism, middle and lower socioeconomic status segments emphasize collectivistic people (İmamoğlu, 1998). In the culture of Turkey, developing solid relationships is a basic behavioral pattern for most individuals. Maintaining close ties with the family, relatives, and other social groups traditionally reflects the sociocultural context of the society (İmamoğlu, 2003). More specifically, an individual may have individualist and collectivist tendencies (i.e., independent and interdependent self-construals) in Turkey. Therefore, individuals' behaviors can change due to their individualist and collectivist orientations.

Besides the sociocultural-level determinants, the roles of age and gender have been discussed in the relevant literature as individual level antecedents in addition to personality-based determinants (e.g., Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997; Rose-Ackerman, 1996; Motowidlo & Beier, 2010). Previous meta-analysis findings highlight the importance of gender in predicting OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Research suggests that women are more likely to behave communally than men (Eagly, 2009) and display higher OCB (Kidder & Parks, 2001). Employee age can also act as a catalyst for predicting prosocial behaviors (Ng & Feldman, 2008). Evidence unveils that older employees engage in more OCB (e.g., sportsmanship and civic virtue) than younger ones (Gyekye, Wager, & Malone, 2012), as they have more cooperative motives and stronger affiliation needs than their younger counterparts (Singh & Singh, 2010).

Research on prosocial behaviors in many social environments has examined how single demographic group categories (e.g., elderly vs. young and women vs. men) behave. However, people have multiple social identities and characteristics that interact with each other to predict work behavior and outcomes (Strinić et al., 2020). For example, although previous discourses suggest that females have more communal attitudes (Eagly, 2009), a possible interaction of gender with independent and interdependent self-construal and age might produce different results. In other words, a female and older employee with interdependent self-construal may engage in higher POB than a male and younger employee with independent self-construal.

Based on the arguments, relevant research questions are developed for this thesis to reveal the role of coworker relationships and the intersectionality of age, gender, and self-construals as the antecedents of prosocial behaviors in organizations.

1.4. The Major Goals of the Current Study

Prosocial behavior in organizations still needs to be discovered by its possible antecedents and measurement methods. This thesis extends the previous findings in several ways.

i) Investigating prosocial behaviors in an organizational setting. Chapter 2 uses grounded theory to explore employees' prosocial behaviors towards other organizational members. Therefore, this study presents an emic theoretical framework for prosocial behavior in the private organizations of Turkey.

ii) Based on the framework in Chapter 2, a new measurement of prosocial organizational behavior that targets other individuals in organizations is developed in Chapter 3.

iii) Chapter 4 explores the multiplicative effects of self-construals, gender, age, and coworker relationships on workplace relationship quality and prosocial organizational behaviors. Building on the intersectionality approach (Cole, 2009; Crenshaw, 1989) and depending on interpersonal and sociocultural determinants of prosociality, it is assumed that the interaction of multiple characteristics, rather than one individual attribute alone, affects coworker relationships in the workplace and, eventually, prosocial organizational behaviors. Further, since previous findings have highlighted the effect of self-construal, age, and gender, different intersectionalities of age, gender, and self-construals on the relationship between coworker relationship quality and prosocial organizational behaviors are examined in Chapter 4.

1.5. An Overview of the Empirical Chapters

This part outlines an overview of the empirical chapters, a summary of the sample, and the primary purposes of the research by presenting the initial research questions and hypotheses examined in the subsequent chapters.

Table 1. Overview of the Empirical Chapters

Chapter and Research Questions/Aim	Research Approach/Analyses	Sample
Chapter 2: Emic approach to prosociality in organizations		
1) Which organizational behaviors benefit other individuals? 2) What are employees' perceptions and experiences of the antecedents of behaviors that benefit others in organizations? 3) What are employees' perceptions and experiences of the consequences of behaviors for benefiting others in organizations?	Qualitative research- Grounded theory	25 participants working in a private organization
Chapter 3: Prosocial organizational behaviors: A new measurement tool		
Is POB scale valid and reliable?	Quantitative research- Exploratory factor analysis- Pearson correlation	303 participants working in a private organization
Chapter 4: Prosocial organizational behaviors: An explanation based on workplace relationships, social identity and self construals		
1) Are coworker relationships associated with POB? 2) Do age, gender, and self-construals jointly moderate this relationship?	Quantitative research- Cross sectional- Confirmatory factor Analysis- Linear Regression	344 participants working in a private sector organization

Note. POB= prosocial organizational behavior

CHAPTER 2: EMIC APPROACH TO PROSOCIALITY IN ORGANIZATIONS

2.1. Introduction

Besides work goals and values, work-life is about ongoing interactions and interdependence between people (e.g., between subordinates and their superiors and between employees and clients). Employees engage in active or passive behaviors within and outside their organizational roles (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). While prosocial behavior has been extensively studied, defining prosociality in organizations is challenging because of its nature. Searching for "pure" prosociality (usually used as a synonym with altruism; see for a review, Snyder & Dwyer, 2013) and possible dark sides of prosocial behaviors in organizations have been discussed (Bolino & Grant, 2016). Employees can behave for the benefit of others because of impression management (Wulani, Handoko, & Purwanto, 2021), or employees whose role is to provide care to others (e.g., nurses or psychological counselors) show prosocial behavior at work because they do their jobs (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Owing to the use of different terminologies (e.g., OCB, ICB, and extra-role behaviors), concepts are scattered to reveal prosociality in organizations, and a consensus regarding the prosociality definition has not been achieved. Research and related discussions need to be organized and specific regarding behaviors that benefit others in organizations.

Another discussion has been prevalent regarding the universality of these behaviors. Social and cultural psychology demonstrates that human behavior can not exist in isolation but is embedded in social contexts where it develops (e.g., Helfrich, 1999). However, psychological and organizational theories often provide generalized and universal assumptions using "people," even if they found evidence from Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, and Democratic (WEIRD) societies. These researchers represent only 12% of the world's population (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010). While the relevancy of conducting more cross-cultural replications is important for enhancing the knowledge of social and organizational behaviors, conducting research across cultures has been mere "copy-and-past" from one cultural context to another without considering the possibility that not only theories but also the meanings of concepts, procedures, and research materials can differ from one cultural and social context to another. Such "etic" approaches to cross-cultural research (i.e., assuming that the psychological concepts can be evaluated on similar dimensions; Pike, 1954) might ignore the aspects of different cultural contexts.

From an anthropological perspective, there are fundamental differences in the conceptualization of prosocial behavior in different cultural contexts. For example, it has been suggested that prosocial behavior developments can only be fully understood by considering each society's cultural aspects (Köster et al.,

2015). As mentioned in Chapter 1, emic approach asserts that human action cannot be separated from their cultural context, and behavior can only be understood through the eyes of the individuals who experience it and under the examination of the particular behavior (Hansen & Heu, 2020). Thus, there is a relativity of the insights gained from Western perspectives. Relatedly, OCB research has uncovered the different nature of OCB in China as a collectivist country (Farh, Zhong, & Organ, 2004). Following this, a few researchers attempted to conduct culturally relevant, emic, and inductive research for OCB (e.g., Rauf & Kumar, 2015).

Based on the discussions above, grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) by adopting an emic perspective for the context of Turkey is significant for understanding employees' experiences of benefiting others in work life and revealing the definition of prosociality in organizations. Therefore, the primary goal of this chapter is to deepen the academic understanding of prosocial behavior in organizations. This chapter aims to contribute to discussions and understanding of prosocial behavior in organizations by utilizing grounded theory research methods. To achieve this, the chapter presents an overview of relevant literature on prosocial behavior in organizations and discusses different conceptualizations and definitions of prosociality with its antecedents and outcomes. Following this, it is aimed to reach a prosocial behavior conceptualization for private organizations in Turkey by adopting an emic approach.

2.2. Prosocial Behaviors in Organizations

As discussed in the previous chapter, many behaviors explain prosociality in organizations (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Katz, 1964). Examples include offering help to others and protecting organizational reputations (Organ, 1988). Arguments propose that prosocial behaviors in organizations are either discretionary (i.e., extra-role) or role-prescribed (i.e., in-role) and that they may or may not be rewarded for engaging in these behaviors (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Organ, 1997). Since its introduction to the field, researchers have expressed different names and explanations, and there are many different perspectives regarding prosociality in organizations. Scholars have also habitually focused on OCB as a prototype of prosocial behavior. However, with the deepening of relevant research, behaviors other than OCB, including compassion, mentoring, and knowledge sharing, have been added to the literature (Bolino & Grant, 2016).

In Brief and Motowidlo's (1986) definition, POB is broadly described as behavior that benefits other individuals, groups, or organizations. Likewise, Bolino and Grant (2016) defined prosocial behavior in organizations as behavior performed by an organizational member to promote or protect the benefits of other individuals, groups, and organizations. Although there are narrower conceptualizations (i.e., OCB), the aforementioned general definitions aim to cover a wide range of prosocial behaviors with many targets,

including colleagues, customers, organizations, and company image (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Bülbül, 2013). For example, Vos and Van Der Zee (2011) proposed that prosocial behaviors manifest as cooperative behaviors.

It is seen that prosocial behaviors are sometimes referred as working cooperatively (Vos & Van Der Zee, 2011) in organizations. Besides variations in usage, some researchers developed different POB terminologies. For example, in Bettencourt and Brown's (1997) study, prosocial behavior was described with three dimensions: role-prescribed, extra-role, and cooperation. Similar to the previous conceptualization, role-prescribed prosocial behavior was defined as expected and desirable employee behaviors related to the job description and work obligations. In addition, complying with organizational policies is in the scope of these prosocial behaviors. Extra-role prosocial behaviors refer to behaviors that go beyond formal roles. Organizations do not officially reward these behaviors. Cooperation is also described as prosocial behavior in organizations (e.g., helpful behavior toward others in organizations). Thus, employees assist others in their job-related and personnel matters.

Further, organizational prosocial behaviors involve voluntary acts that benefit other individuals or entities within and outside work contracts. Such behaviors can include altruistic acts, such as providing emotional support to a colleague during a difficult time, or more instrumental acts, such as sharing knowledge to increase a team's or an organization's productivity. Using extensive labels (e.g., prosocial behavior) or particular labels (e.g., interpersonal helping) can have critical implications for theory development and related measurements. Likewise, the discrepancy remains about how many different dimensions of the concepts that refer to prosociality in an organization exist (Podsakoff et al., 2000) and what the benefits are of revealing specific types of prosocial behaviors, such as taking the initiative (Bolino et al., 2016; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

In general, POBs have been classified into four essential dimensions: formation, target, goal, and resource. First, behaviors are either reactive or proactive in prosociality (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Klotz & Bolino, 2013). While some behaviors occur in response to others' requests (Anderson & Williams, 1996), employees can take the initiative before helping (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009). Employees may mentor others and make suggestions without being asked directly. Second, the target of POB can range from other organizational members to the entire organization (Williams & Anderson, 1991) and from current to future society or generations (Wade-Benzoni & Tost, 2009). All organizational stakeholders (i.e., customers and employees) are POB targets. Third, prosocial behavior can be affiliative and challenging (Spitzmuller & Van Dyne, 2013). Affiliative behaviors (e.g., compliance and help) aim to facilitate and maintain the status

quo, whereas challenging behaviors (i.e., proactive behaviors) aim to change it. Fourth, prosocial behaviors may use different types of resources, such as personal, social, and informational resources. For example, knowledge-sharing behaviors require informational resources, as prosociality is broad; focusing on one target of POB would be beneficial since behaviors can differ based on their focus. More specifically, due to the width of organizational stakeholders and employees, prosocial behavior may change based on the concerned party (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986).

Employees' behaviors towards each other are crucial for understanding other organizational behaviors and guiding managerial decisions. For example, positive employee behaviors such as POB can serve as role models for others (Yeşiltaş, Kanten, & Sormaz, 2013) and may increase a peaceful work environment. Thus, POBs focusing on other employees should be examined in depth. Based on the discussions and gaps in the literature, qualitative research is needed to explain prosociality concerning other organizational members (Creswell, 2009) clearly. To explore POB that targets other individuals in organizations, three research questions guided the current study.

Research Question 1: Which organizational behaviors benefit other individuals?

Research Question 2: What are employees' perceptions and experiences of the antecedents of behaviors that benefit others in private organizations?

Research Question 3: What are employees' perceptions and experiences of the consequences of behaviors for benefiting others in private organizations?

2.3. Method

Qualitative research was used in the current study. Qualitative research entails knowledge of what is happening in the natural world (Glaser & Strauss, 2017). The primary feature of the qualitative perspective is that reality itself is social and can be extracted from individuals' perceptions of that world (Creswell, 1994). Grounded theory aims to "discover theory from data— systematically obtained and analyzed" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; p. 1). Data derived from the subjects were examined accordingly to generate a theory. Based on grounded theory, this study examines private sector workers' perceptions and experiences of prosocial behaviors in organizations by adopting grounded theory and an inductive emic approach.

2.3.1. Data and Research Strategy

In grounded theory, there have been divisions depending on the literature and data strategy. Glaser's approach (1978, 1992) is considered classic grounded theory research in which no literature is recommended, whereas Strauss's approach (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) accepts a literature review. Relatedly, McGhee, Marland, and Atkinson (2007) argued that the "use of literature or any other pre-knowledge should not prevent a grounded theory arising from the inductive–deductive interplay which is at the heart of this method" (p. 334). They related it to reflexivity, that is, the researcher's conscious expression and consideration of experience and their possible influence on research and is needed to share for the authenticity of the data by stating that the researchers should be open to deriving conclusions that might not be related to the established theory and previous arguments. Following McGhee and colleagues (2007)' approach, an early literature review was included in the current study due to the extensive research on prosociality. Even though the literature may be a part of the data (LaRossa, 2005), combining different data collection methods leads to a dataset without over-reliance on the literature. This study follows the following aspects;

1) Research questions were formed based on definitions from the relevant literature. Based on the previous conceptualization, prosocial behavior is defined for the current research as any behavior that contributes to the wellness and benefits of others and occurs in any social context, including organizations.

2) Reflexivity–background, experience, and knowledge of the researcher- was provided (Creswell, 1998).

3) Semi-structured interviews and diary methods were used as data collection tools. While interviews were the primary data collection method, the diary method was included as complementary to examine the perspectives of the different samples with a different methodology as a technique related to triangulation, obtaining data from other sources (Denzin, 1978). Interviews were used to pursue a more profound understanding of prosocial behaviors. The interviews lasted approximately 30–45 minutes. Interviews with respondents attempted to achieve Sunstein and Chiseri-Strater's (2012) recommendation of "collaboration" between interviewer and participant in the spirit of a "friendly talk" (p. 219) with the "researching people" perspective (Sunstein & Chiseri-Strater, 2012, p. 219). During the interviews, active listening and asking for clarification were used to examine the views and experiences of others. The researcher tried to capture the tone of voice and level of emotional intensity during speaking, which was evaluated during transcripts and coding of interviews. The diary method was used as the second data collection tool.

2.3.2. Participants

Participants working full-time in a private sector organization operating in Turkey were sought. Purposive sampling was used to include full-time working adults. In total, 25 individuals working in a private sector organization participated in the research. Among 25 participants in the current research, diaries were provided to 5 individuals working in a private-sector company. Interviews were conducted with other 20 participants. The participants were randomly assigned either for a diary or interviews.

Of the 20 participants who took part in the interview research, there were 14 women and 6 men. The participants were between 22 and 39, with a mean age of 29,5. The educational status was as follows: 11 participants held a bachelor's degree, 8 participants had a master's degree, and 2 participants had a doctorate. Of the 5 diary study participants, 3 were women, while 2 were men. 3 of the participants had a master's degree, while 2 of the participants held a bachelor's degree. Tables 2 and 3 present the participants' demographic details.

This study was approved by the Marmara University Social Sciences Institute Ethical Committee. Each participant was given a consent form, and confidentiality was ensured. The participants were free to choose whether to participate. Participants were explained that the research was about understanding workplace behaviors. The files, videos, and transcripts were stored in a double-protected digital store. Only anonymous transcriptions were open to access for the thesis supervisor and two student assistants, in addition to the researcher. Individuals were asked about their behaviors or experiences regarding the behaviors of others' benefits on a particular workday for five consecutive days (see Appendix D). Five questions were asked to 20 private sector employees, different from the diary sample.

Table 2. Participant Demographics in Interviews

Participants (n=20)	Age	Gender	Education Level	Industry	Work experience (in months)	Tenure (in months)	Organizational role
1	29	Female	Master	Education	29	4	School psychologist
2	27	Male	University	Software	58	10	Computer engineer
3	32	Female	University	Banking	72	60	Banker
4	23	Male	University	Consulting	11	2 weeks	HR Assistant
5	22	Female	University	IT	12	2	HR Associate Specialist
6	31	Female	Master	IT	36	7	HR Specialist
7	26	Female	University	Construction	40	16	Architect
8	26	Female	University	Construction	32	18	Architect
9	33	Male	University	Marine	125	4	Inspector
10	30	Female	University	Communication	72	13	Community manager
11	26	Female	Master	Education	36	30	Research assistant
12	27	Male	Master	Finance	65	29	Product Management Specialist
13	34	Male	Master	Education	120	120	Librarian
14	31	Female	University	Marine	82	2	Internal Audit Responsible
15	33	Female	University	Education	72	1	Teacher
16	29	Female	Master	Education	60	6	Clinical psychologist
17	27	Male	Master	Education	42	40	Engineer
18	27	Female	University	Automobile	38	38	HR Specialist
19	39	Female	Doctorate	Education	228	112	Education Coordinator
20	29	Female	Master	Marine	54	30	HR Specialist

Table 3. Participant Demographics in Diaries

Participants (n=5)	Age	Gender	Education Level	Industry	Work experience (in months)	Tenure (in months)	Organizational role
1	25	Woman	Master	Communication	30	48	Social Media Responsible Research
2	35	Woman	Master	Education	360	21	Assistant
3	28	Woman	University	Insurance	40	12	Lawyer
4	28	Man	University	Retail	45	24	Software Engineer
5	26	Man	Master	Education	20	12	Research Assistant

2.3.3. Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness, relevancy, and credibility are usually referred when assessing a qualitative research (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). By trustworthiness, the researcher can persuade themselves and their readers that their findings deserve worth (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Guba and Lincoln (1989) suggested some crucial facets of the trustworthiness of qualitative research. Credibility refers to readers' real-life experiences and the study's findings. Thus, if readers see a fit between what is proposed in the study and their experiences, this defines the credibility of the research (Tobin & Begley, 2004). Researcher triangulation can be a way to increase the credibility of qualitative research since they include an external review other than the researcher (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To achieve dependability, researchers must ensure the research process is traceable, logical, and documented (Tobin & Begley, 2004). Transferability explains how the research results can be transferred to other contexts or social settings (Polit & Beck, 2014).

Confirmability establishes that the researcher's interpretations and findings are derived from the data, requiring the researcher to reach conclusions and interpretations (Tobin & Begley, 2004). According to Guba and Lincoln (1989), confirmability is established when credibility, transferability, and dependability are achieved. Koch (1994) recommended that researchers should state the decisions for the reasons for theoretical, methodological, and analytical choices throughout the entire study so that others can understand how and why decisions were made. Data analysis, coding, and interpreting the results of this research were based on the criteria described above. All the processes, including data collection and procedures, were explained transparently.

Following the necessary steps of trustworthiness, in the present study, as mentioned before, more than one sample and data collection tool (i.e., interviews and diary) were used. All the recordings were

transcribed to meet dependability. In relation with credibility, during the coding of the text, additional coders took part in the coding process besides the researcher. For both credibility and transferability, during and after the analyses, the researcher, the supervisor of this thesis, and the thesis committee, who included two professors of organizational behaviors, evaluated the themes and codes. Statistical methods were also utilized for the inter-coder agreement, which will be described in the subsequent parts. Also, the current qualitative research processes were clearly shown in the reporting for dependability of the study.

2.3.4. Data Analysis Procedures

All the analyses were performed by using the coding tool MAXQDA Analytics Pro 2022. Interviews were digitally recorded and then transcribed verbatim by the researcher. Following transcription, identifying information was removed from transcripts to protect participants' anonymity, which further supported reducing the potential for researcher bias. Following Corbin and Strauss's (2008) suggestions, the coding process started with open coding and continued with axial and selective coding, respectively (Corbin, 1998). During open coding, interview transcripts were examined line by line, and the main concepts and themes were identified with notes during interviews. During axial coding, themes, concepts, and codes are linked to one another and checked sub-categories with their respective categories and themes. The primary goal of selective coding is to formulate a core variable or category to which all other categories and codes can be related. After this step, the researcher developed a preliminary codebook— a set of constructs and their definitions and characteristics, open to refining throughout the analysis. In the selective coding process, checking for internal validity and logic were checked to validate and redefine the theory.

Triangulation (Denzin, 1978) was tried to be adopted during the analysis. Thus, data derived from the participants were assessed from different points of view. Two student assistants were included in the coding stage—one student assistant coded interview transcripts, and the other coded diary entries. The student assistants were given a summary guide of the conceptual and theoretical framework for the research, the main research questions, and the significant aims of the study. For the interview transcription and diary, the first author and one student assistant independently coded the quotes of five participants for the interviews. The coding results were compared and discussed. This process resulted in a revised coding scheme. Next, the researcher and the research assistant independently coded the additional 15 participants, and Cohen's kappa was examined for the interview study.

Furthermore, diary data were coded based on the codebook derived from the interviews by the researcher and the student assistant differently. An inter-rater reliability analysis using Cohen's Kappa statistic was performed to show consistency among raters. The Cohen's Kappa coefficient of agreement for

the quotes was 0.78 for the interviews (see Figure 1). The inter-rater agreement was calculated for the diary study, since there were fewer codes than in the interviews. In total, 51 codes emerged during the first coding of the researcher. The code agreement between the researcher and the student assistant who independently coded the diary entries was 85%. Interview and diary codes are substantial and good, respectively (Landis & Koch, 1977).

Figure 1. Cohen's Cappa Statistics of the Interview Codes

	Coder 1		
	Agreements	1	0
	Total		
Coder 2	1	a = 1034	b = 147
	0	c = 148	0
		1182	147
			1329

$P(\text{observed}) = P_o = a / (a + b + c) = 0.78$; $P(\text{chance}) = P_c = 1 / \text{Number of codes} = 1 / 177 = 0.01$

Kappa = $(P_o - P_c) / (1 - P_c) = 0.78$

2.3.5. Reflexivity

Clarification of researcher bias can be critically important in a qualitative research. The reader is better to understand the researcher's position on the topic. As mentioned during the procedure, reflexivity, defining the background, experience, and knowledge of the researcher about the topic, is provided to give the reader a more comprehensive presentation of the researcher's possible subjectivity and prosocial experiences (Creswell, 1988).

While working on this thesis, the researcher worked as a research assistant. She had several coworkers. From the beginning of her days, they have oriented her. Whenever she felt anxious and confused, she consulted them, and they have worked in a back-up way since then. She has also helped people who share a similar hierarchy with her. They have talked about work not only matters but also personal matters too. They sometimes emotionally support each other regarding problems with the managerial decisions or macro conditions in our surroundings (e.g., economic problems or pandemics).

She has other work experience in two different private sector companies. She was an intern during her first job. There were other interns, too. They used to go out together and became friends during coffee breaks and lunch times. In her second previous job, she was a part-time recruitment specialist. She had several coworkers who were emotionally supportive of her. They were talking about personal matters rather than the work of the company. They all had time-limited employment contracts and were discussing

alternative career routines. A coworker of hers had a psychology major like her. They had an exciting time when they were talking about psychology-related topics. Thus far, lunch time has been joyful, and they shared many things during their chats. They acknowledged each other about work matters and answered questions every time. She has learned from her knowledge and experience that prosociality is about sharing something and being nurtured by other people, such as sharing jokes, knowledge, technical information, and even their personal lives.

2.4. Results

2.4.1. Interview Study

Antecedents of Prosocial Organizational Behaviors: Behaviors that aim to benefit others vary; seven types of prosocial behaviors are revealed in this research.

1. Initiating prosocial behavior refers to taking action for the benefit of others. When a problem negatively affects organizational members, an employee may perform prosocial behavior by taking charge before others.

1.1. Talking with the superior on behalf of others: When there is a problem or/and an issue that others encounter, the employee chooses to talk with the superior to find a solution and make the superior informed about it.

“His manager is also my manager, so I took the initiative and explained this to my manager since he was with me in İzmir. Again, he was golddrinking, but I am a let me show you, you do-it-yourself kind of person. I will show you once, and I will not do it again because he can do it, too. I also recommended this method to my friend. But since she was three years younger than me, it was a suitable environment for him to use her, but when I explained this situation to my manager and said that it was done not only to her but also to me, he was warned.” (Participant 11)

1.2. Cooperating with others: Employees behave according to the organizational members about the organizational goals or other people’s benefit.

“You should do some behaviors even if you do not get rewards. Because even if no one says well done, you should complete the job and get a salary. It is like how resilient you are outside of work; you can take a load. It is also about business ethics and ethics. Because you can be sick. The system of the institution you work for is also important. You are also responsible for the children there. Because of the child's best interests, that lesson should be covered if there is no teacher.” (Participant 18)

1.3. Acting by taking initiative: Providing solutions to the problem or trying to fix organizational problems

“I can give an example of this. Where I work, we are swamped at the end and the beginning of the month. Sometimes we also work on public holidays. My friend before me worked for the previous two years, and there was no overtime payment. He went after this job. He worked on the solution suggestions.” (Participant 3)

1.4. Preventing the problem: Before an employee-related crisis happens in the organization, preventing it

“If I think from my job before an employee's problem gets bigger and goes to the top management.”(Participant 16)

1.5. Providing recommendations: Making suggestions for the problems of other's work and the organization's work in general

“We operate the ships. We are finding a quick solution when there is a malfunction in the ships. Whoever finds a solution gets a reward. Because if it takes longer, we will all have to work overtime.” (Participant 9)

As mentioned above, employees can do things without being told with the initiative POB. These types of behavior are talking with the superior (e.g., a manager or a team leader) on behalf of others, engaging in cooperation with other employees, simply acting by taking the initiative by fixing the issues, attempts or actions to prevent organizational problems, and providing recommendations for work and organizations as a whole.

2. Guiding prosocial behavior is about informing and directing other organizational members. An organizational member can act as a mentor to a coworker and orient another person.

2.1. Acting as a mentor: Giving advice to others for their career and personal development

“Let them learn; so that they can also grow. They should develop.” (Participant 10)

2.2. Orientation behaviors: Making others- especially newcomers- to be familiar with the work, tasks, and organization

“When there is a need, we transfer business without hesitation. I am open to conveying information.” (Participant 11)

Guiding prosocial behaviors are mentioned in the list and definition above. These POBs include mentoring others with their career or personal development and giving orientation, such as introducing the

organization and job to the other members. The different organizational members can also be newly hired people. Employees can do all of these with or without a formal job description.

3.Protective prosocial behavior is another type of prosocial behavior. Besides benefiting others, individuals protect employees from dangers and harm, and prevent problems.

3.1.Defending behaviors: Protecting other organizational members from harm, danger, and accusations coming from the management and superiors

“I told them but they did not listen to me. Then my friend said that they thought wrong, this is what my friend should do, she defended me. Email cannot be retrieved like a message. Yes, it could be a mistake, and a price list was requested from the wrong customer. She helped me by saying it was not that important. I was silent at that moment and could not explain myself to others. She saved me because she was at CC, too. I was pleased. I could not express myself.” (Participant 19)

3.2.Not telling the superior about a problem: When encountering an issue, hiding or intentionally not telling the superior about it

“But I say we did the job. We filled it. Not putting myself forward and not appropriating the behavior. I find this virtuous. I do not see it as the proper behavior to make my friend look small and stand out. But if I do, I can be rewarded. By implying this, this manager can be made to feel by using the first singular. But I used the first plural; so as not to put my friend in a bad situation.” (Participant 10)

3.3.Engaging in solution-oriented attitudes: When another employee is in a troubled situation, having a constructive way of speech and behaviors

“It happened today. We have two representatives of the same name with different brands. I sent an email to someone else instead of the person I would initially send. I noticed this right away. Unfortunately... Because I was constantly emailing the other person. I did what I should not have. This is my carelessness. My friend, whom I put on CC, noticed the situation. She said okay, we will do something in a way.”(Participant 19)

Protective POBs serve preventive and protective roles, as mentioned above. These behaviors encompass defending another employee during problems at work, hiding something by not telling the superior about the situation to protect others, and having a solution and constructive oriented attitude in troubles.

4. Courteous and cooperative prosocial behavior is related to kindness. Individuals engage in such behaviors by compensating others' shortcomings, behaving virtuously, being flexible, being open to communication, giving priority to the other party, engaging in small chats, using kind language, working in a harmonious and collaborative style, recognizing a need without being offered help, and praising others.

4.1.Compensating shortcomings: Intentionally hiding others' mistakes rather than making them explicit and seen by others, including superiors

“Then you have to fix people's mistakes. You can complain about them to your managers, but you call them a living wage. At least, I do not.” (Participant 7)

4.2.Behaving virtuously: Performing behaviors in terms of high moral standards

“However, I say that we did the job. We filled it. Not putting myself forward and not appropriating behavior... I find this virtuous. I do not see it as the correct behavior to make my friend look small and stand out. But if I do, I can be rewarded. By implying this, this manager can be made to feel by using the first singular. However, I used the first plural; so as not to put my friend in a bad situation. (Participant 10)

4.3.Being flexible: Adapting spontaneous situations and changes in daily life

“My coworkers are generally very understanding under challenging times, whether it is sickness or work that I have to deal with outside. You know this is a business environment. Since we create that trust by being flexible, I also behave relax.” (Participant 16)

4.4.Being open to communication: Constantly conveying and exchanging information and news with others

“The same can be done then. For example, a person is working in the dean's office. She guides us and supports us in all matters. She talks about how we should do things.” (Participant 6)

4.5.Giving priority to the other party: Regarding others before oneself in terms of actions

“It could be the example I just gave. It could be adjusting your schedule for someone else or dedicating your time to another person.” (Participant 2)

4.6.Engaging in small chats: Making conversations with others about daily issues on social occasions

“For example, when working face-to-face, we interacted with many people because of the personnel service.. The conversations about how the day was supportive.”(Participant 6)

4.7. Using polite language: Showing regard and gesture to other organizational members in speeches

“He should not raise his tone too much, no matter what. It is crucial for me that he does not suppress and reflect his stress to the other side.” (Participant 13)

4.8. Harmonious and collaborative working style: Working with others jointly and agreed

“Now I understand helping each other here, actually in the working environment.” (Participant 2)

4.9. Recognizing a need without being offered help: Seeing others when they need a hand

“It becomes a space to express it more easily when others need it. It is in the form of seeing someone's needs and helping each other.” (Participant 18)

4.10. Praising others: Expressing warm respect, approval, and admiration to other members of the organization

“He tries to communicate in every necessary and unnecessary way. He gives compliments. Says things that will honor the other person.” (Participant 17)

As listed above, courteous and cooperative prosocial behavior is another type of POB related to positive organizational attitudes. This behavior varies but serves as a kindness example, including virtuous behaviors, having small chats with a colleague with also using a polite tongue, being flexible in case of unexpected life experiences (e.g., an urgent absence of another employee), having an open stance to communicate with others at work, recognizing physical and psychological needs of others, giving priority to others, having a collaborative working style, praising others, and compensating shortcomings of other individuals.

5. Collectivist prosocial behavior is a type of POB, and it is related to collectivism as a type of culture that gives importance to groups such as family, relatives, and friends. Turkey is classified as a collectivist nation (Hofstede, 1984). Collectivist prosocial behaviors include welcoming another organizational member with hospitality at home, offering advice on non-work issues, getting a beverage for others, bringing snacks to the workplace, and giving small gifts to others in the organization.

5.1. Welcoming a co-worker with hospitality at home: A friendly and bountiful reception and entertainment for the guests from one's workplace

“She even invited me to his home. It is good to connect outside of work.” (Participant 18)

5.2. Offering advice on non-work issues: Talking about non-work issues and providing suggestions

“For example, everyone has a life outside of work. They may have problems. I may tell a coworker that she seems sluggish today, is she okay? If there is a problem, she can share it with me.” (Participant 12)

5.3. Getting a beverage for others: When grabbing a beverage like coffee, getting another one for others

“Alternatively, it could be a small gesture like I would buy something coffee or I bought it for you.” (Participant 5)

5.4. Bringing snacks to the workplace: Preparing or buying some snacks like cakes for others to bring to the workplace

“We were bringing cupcakes; friends in the office were also bringing them.” (Participant 6)

5.5. Giving small gifts to others: Buying small things for others as a gift

“There may be small gifts.” (Participant 5)

Non-work-related behaviors are in the scope of prosociality in the organization. For being an emic and inductive research, the current study's findings show collectivist behaviors that one may not usually encounter in the previous etic management literature. For being a collectivist national culture, employees, who worked in an organization operating in Turkey and were probably raised in this culture, welcome another employee at their home, make suggestions about personal issues (e.g., non-work topics), bring beverages and snacks to the workplace for other to eat, and giving gifts to others.

6. Extra-role prosocial behavior is about exceeding one's job description for the benefit of others by assisting with work, supplying equipment, helping others leave early, doing others' paperwork, taking on different responsibilities, and being unable to get a job-urgent job, relieving workload, and problem-solving.

6.1. Back-up working: Working with crosschecks in some duties

“If you work with a team, harmony between the team is essential. I do business alone, but I prefer doing it with a team. You go with backup, extra eyes are good, and you finish quickly if you mess up the work...- backup working.” (Participant 13)

6.2. Equipment supplying: Finding and supplying equipment for another work

Yes, providing support. To supply equipment.-(Participant 17)

6.3. Helping others to leave early: When someone needs to leave early, giving aid either doing this person's job or covering the person

“If I am not very busy and my colleague is very busy, I help- if I have the necessary knowledge and skills. Sometimes he may not be able to work overtime. There may be examples such as starting early and leaving late. If it is urgent, then support can be provided.”-(Participant 8)

6.4.Doing others’ paperwork: Doing paperwork that is related to other’s official duty and job when the responsible does not know how to do it

“There was a process with my groups. The teacher has never done this process; documents were missing. Some documents had to be done because of the school administration and a possible inspection. I prepared these papers.”-(Participant 4)

6.5.Taking on different responsibilities: Engaging in others' work in addition to one’s task

“If there is a young talent program, which is an example of an assignment given instead of answers like "It is not my responsibility," I try to provide all the support I can to the Turkish side.”-(Participant 11)

6.6.Helping others if one is unable and there is urgency: Giving aid to others in cases when either one is unable to do it or there is an urgency

“For example, if he is going to do something in a hurry, giving him priority can be a way of helping. Everyone has a job, but he wants something from me; I have to give him something to do that job”.- (Participant 2)

6.7.Relieving the workload of others: Helping someone who has a lot to do to complete work

“If my coworker is very busy and I have the necessary knowledge and skills, I help.” (Participant 3)

6.8.Problem solving: Solving the work-related issues or problems of other organizational members

“Find solutions to your problems. But in doing so, I am not only helping someone else.”-(Participant 16)

As the literature covered many behaviors that are conceptualized as extra-role (Öcal & Sarnıç, 2017; Pearce & Gregersen, 1991; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), the theme captures all the work that usually can not be included in formal job descriptions was named as extra-role POB in the present research. Individuals do not necessarily behave in this manner for performing their job, such as back-up working with others, supplying equipment (e.g., a pen) to others in case of need, providing help and support to others when they want or need to head out from the office early, helping and even doing others bureaucratic paperwork, taking on different responsibilities, relieving the workload of others, being unable to get a job-urgent job, and solving others' problems.

7. Socio-emotional supportive prosocial behavior is about taking care of others psychologically. This prosocial behavior includes giving others a ride, helping when one is sick, taking care of others' well-being, motivating others, listening to and supporting others who have problems, not making others feel alone, and extricating others from trouble.

7.1. Give others a ride: Dropping an organizational member off to some place where the person needed to go

"I usually go to work by car. Some friends come without a car. Bank jobs happen during the day. The bank is usually far away. I took them by car. I have benefited them."-(Participant 9)

7.2.Nurturing and helping sick co-workers: Genuinely taking care of a coworker when the person is sick

"I cannot even think of helping me like this right now. I have a friend whom I live close to with my coworkers. So, I have a friend who lives in the back street. Again, without any interest, she came home when I was very sick and helped me go to the hospital. She helped me to get dressed. This strengthened the bond between us. But she did it as a duty of humanity and friendship. This example comes to my mind." (Participant 10)

7.3.Taking care of others' well-being: Considering others' well-being and making them feel good

"I deliberately try to do this. I know that some friends need such communication and warmth." (Participant 10)

7.4.Motivating others: Supporting people to reach their goals and wishes

"I motivate friends to give support as well." (Participant 11)

7.5.Listening and supporting others in their problems: When others face a personal issue, listen to and keep them in the workplace.

"We also have a relationship with our friends outside of work. For example, someone had a loss from their family. We had contacts here to see if they had any needs other than work."-(Participant 12)

7.6.Not to make others feel alone: Taking care of another person even outside of work

"My friend was leaving Istanbul and traveling by plane to a place on a heavy snowy day. I said, please make me updated. Does she need anything? It can be emotional support that will not make others feel alone, like asking when the plane takes off and lands." - (Participant 12)

7.7.Extricating others: When work-related trouble happens to other members, making them free from the difficulty

“Again, a detail had to be solved in a construction site environment. It was a moment when my friend was naturally helpless. In a window, the detail would be resolved. I helped there.”-(Participant 19)

Socio-emotional supportive POB is associated with emotionally supportive behaviors, including psychologically and physically taking care of other individuals' well-being at work, giving others a ride if one has a car, helping a sick co-worker inside and outside of work, motivating others, listening to and supporting others who have issues, not making others feel alone, and extricating others.

Table 4. Frequency Table of Prosocial Behaviors, Interviews

1.Initiating prosocial behaviors	Frequency
<i>Talking with the superior on behalf of others</i>	4
<i>Cooperating with others</i>	5
<i>Acting by taking initiative</i>	10
<i>Preventing the problem</i>	3
<i>Providing recommendations</i>	6
2.Guiding prosocial behaviors	Frequency
<i>Acting as a mentor</i>	8
<i>Orientation behaviors</i>	16
3. Protective prosocial behaviors	Frequency
<i>Defending behaviors</i>	4
<i>Not telling the superior about the problem</i>	16
<i>Engaging in solution-oriented attitudes</i>	8
4. Courteous and cooperative prosocial behaviors	Frequency
<i>Compensating shortcomings</i>	7
<i>Behaving virtuously</i>	4
<i>Being flexible</i>	2
<i>Being open to communication</i>	10
<i>Giving priority to the other party</i>	4
<i>Engaging in small chats</i>	4
<i>Using polite language</i>	19
<i>Harmonious and collaborative working</i>	13
<i>Recognizing a need without being offered help</i>	4
<i>Praising others</i>	3
5. Collective prosocial behaviors	Frequency
<i>Welcoming a coworker with hospitality at home</i>	2

<i>Offering advice on non-work issues</i>	4
<i>Getting a beverage for others</i>	4
<i>Bringing snacks to the workplace</i>	2
<i>Giving small gifts to others</i>	2
6. Extra-role prosocial behaviors	Frequency
<i>Back-up working</i>	20
<i>Equipment supplying</i>	4
<i>Helping others to leave early</i>	8
<i>Doing others' paperwork</i>	4
<i>Taking on different responsibilities</i>	22
<i>Helping others if one is unable and there is urgency</i>	4
<i>Relieving the workload of others</i>	24
<i>Problem solving</i>	8
7. Socio-emotional supportive prosocial behaviors	Frequency
<i>Give others a ride</i>	4
<i>Nurturing and helping sick coworkers</i>	2
<i>Taking care of others' well-being</i>	13
<i>Motivating others</i>	8
<i>Listening and supporting others in their personal problems</i>	10
<i>Not to make others feel alone</i>	6
<i>Extricating others</i>	8

As listed above, all types of POB have more than one frequency. Taking on different responsibilities, relieving the workload of others, back-up working, and using polite language are the most frequent codes that emerged from the interviews. Following them, not telling the superior about the problems and issues was also mentioned more than other behaviors (e.g., motivating others).

Overall, the antecedents of POB were collected under two dimensions: **intentions and reasons**.

Intention is the purpose or aims behind engaging prosocial behavior in organizations. The intentions derived from data analysis are listed below:

Work: A person behaves for the benefit of others just for work purposes and the continuation of work.

“For the work to progress well, not to make any mistakes, not to deal with that job again.” (Participant 6)

Personal interest: It refers to pragmatic reasons of POB. The employee behaves to benefit themselves via benefiting others. This may include political behaviors such as impression management.

“Many use it only for materiality and to show themselves.” (Participant 11).

Social: This is related to developing bonding with others. People may engage in prosocial behaviors at work to develop positive interpersonal communication and relationships.

“Frankly, sharing information is done to strengthen cooperation and help. I could not think of anything other than that.” (Participant 12)

Altruism: As an intention, altruism refers to any thought for the benefit of others without any other consideration.

“However, 90 percent is at least well-intentioned. It is like adding something to your teammate.” (Participant 12)

As listed above, the intentions of POB can vary, including ending work processes, personal interest- so called pragmatic-, building social bonds with others, and pure interest as altruism and just giving benefit to another person at work.

Reasons can be the direct or indirect causes of POB. The reasons that emerged from data analysis are listed below:

Moral: Individuals may behave prosocially because of their moral principles, that is, their beliefs about right and wrong.

“People generally work with the reward-punishment technique... Especially in societies like ours. Sometimes doing what feels right to you, even when you know you will not be rewarded.” (Participant 18)

Cognitions: POB can be based on the beliefs, motivation, and thought patterns of the person who behaves for the benefit of others.

“You might try harder, but if you are going to do it, you will do it. Nevertheless, they do not need to reward you. You can do it with or without a reward if you want to do it.” (Participant 18)

Individual factors: Personal level characteristics and personality would be a reason for POB.

“It can be associated with a person's emotion or character.” (Participant 17).

Work-related factors: Things related to work conditions can be a reason for prosociality in organizations.

“However, if it is something I know, I support it. If it does not interfere with my work, I will.” (Participant 3)

Organizational and social commitment: The relationship between the organization and the employee can be a source of POB. Also, the relationships among other people, like having cohesive and supportive social relationships at work, would be an antecedent of POB.

“There are usually long-tenured employees in the company. Against the management, which has been emotionally committed to the company for years.” (Participant 17)

“It is like a family there. You see the same people in an office daily, from morning to the evening. You become like family with these people. I do not do anything for myself. We are together until the evening. I do my best to the best of my knowledge and possibilities.” (Participant 9)

Pragmatism: Because of personal gains, individuals can behave for the benefit of other organizational members.

“Because we are in the same group, the word that came to her would have also come to me.” (Participant 4)

Intentions usually capture more cognitive aspects. Reasons for POB may include personality, commitment to the organization and social atmosphere within the workplace, individual values, and as an exchange getting the personal benefit at the end of prosocial behavior; cognitive level determinants such as motivation and moral beliefs.

Table 5. Frequency Table of the Antecedents of Prosocial Organizational Behavior, Interviews

Intention	Frequency
Work	9
Personal interest	16
Social	8
Altruism	7
Reason	Frequency
Moral	4
Cognitions	3
Individual factors	5
Work-related factors	6
Organizational and social commitment	16
Pragmatism	4

The frequencies of personal interest as an intention and organizational and social commitment were the highest among others, as seen in Table 5. In addition to the antecedents, prosocial behavior in organizations can positively and negatively affect people and organizations. The positive effect of prosocial

behavior is regarded as a benefit, while negative consequences can be named the risk of POB. The results about the details of POB consequences are explained below:

Prosocial behavior in organizations can positively and negatively affect people and organizations. The positive effect of prosocial behavior is regarded as a benefit, while negative consequences can be named the risk of POB. The results about the details of POB consequences are explained below:

Benefits

Benefits to other organizational members: Prosocial behavior can benefit others positively.

But he supported me by completing a little paperwork I was not concentrating on. (Participant 11)

Personal benefits: The employee may get individual benefits from their prosocial behavior in the workplace.

I am helping as much as I can. He also responded verbally, but I can say that I am satisfied. Yes, when you get verbal feedback from him. (Participant 16)

Benefits to work process: Besides benefits to individuals, POB may lead to positive consequences for the business and work process (i.e., organizational benefits). On the contrary, these behaviors may be expected to lead to any benefits for anyone.

I am generally responsible for the same part; if I were asked, I would have completed the job. (Participant 4)

Benefits to social environment: POB is also associated with social benefits, including enhanced interpersonal relationships.

You are asking about acting for someone's benefit. I like work environments a little bit. This is an organization. After all, when you do something for someone's benefit and work with someone under one roof, the person feels understood when you see your work. This also affects relationships. I think so. (Participant 18)

As it can be derived from its definition as providing benefit to others, POB benefits the people who do the behavior, the social environment where it occurs, and the work processes.

Risks: POB may be a risk factor for the individual. Despite its positive expected nature (i.e., behaving for the benefit of others), two risk-related themes emerged: Personal risks and risks associated with another party.

Personal risks: Behaving for others' benefit may harm the person who does the action. This includes being put upon by another member.

You can help everyone, but you get a job lock after a while and are abused. (Participant 7)

Risks associated with other parties: Actions that benefit others may give someone a hard time since people sometimes do not prefer an aid.

I get very nervous when he helps me. It can also be a self situation, so everything given to me is at the level I can do. So in the time that I can grow. Nevertheless, when someone offers to help me, I get nervous, as if I cannot do the job given to me. That is why I cannot ask for help too quickly. (Participant 14)

Despite its definition that includes benefits, prosocial behaviors can also be risky to the person who engage in the behavior. For example, the help recipient may not demand benefits, or the person can feel hassles such as wasting personal resources.

Table 6. Frequency Table of The Consequences of Prosocial Organizational Behaviors, Interviews

Benefits	Frequency
Benefits to other organizational members	5
Personal benefit	14
No benefit	3
Benefits to work process	13
Benefits to social environment	10
Risks	Frequency
Personal risk	8
Risks associated with other parties	2

As demonstrated in Table 6, personal risks and benefits had the most frequency among other codes. The results of the diary study are given in the following section.

2.4.2. Diary Study

Diary entries were collected in three headings parallel to the interview: behaviors, antecedents, and consequences. There was no concept differently emerging from diary entries. Therefore, the codebook and related explanations are the same as the ones with the interview. All the themes and sub-themes are listed below.

1. Guiding prosocial behaviors:

a. Mentoring

In addition, my coworkers stated that I could consult them if something went wrong. (Participant 6)

2. Protective prosocial behaviors:

a. Engaging in solution oriented attitudes

Information has been given to the business owner to correct the wrong work sharing. (Participant 2)

3. Courteous and cooperative prosocial behaviors:

a. Recognizing a need without being offered help

Information has been given to the business owner to correct the wrong work sharing. (Participant 2)

b. Using polite language

I thought I did my job. I behaved kindly. (Participant 2)

4. Collectivist prosocial behaviors:

a. Getting beverages for others

My friend wanted to be the moderator of this meeting instead of me. He asked me to bring tea and water, and I brought both. (Participant 5)

5. Extra role prosocial behaviors:

a. Back-up working

I helped my colleague with a case related to the journal processes. (Participant 3)

b. Helping others if one is unable and there is urgency

I helped my friend who did not complete the process on time. (Participant 2)

c. Relieving others' workload

I ran a query on my pc for one of the team. (Participant 1)

d. Problem-solving,

I took over a process that needed to be resolved and resolved it. With some frustrating workflows, it is crucial to get support from coworkers. (Participant 3)

e. Taking on different responsibilities

Yes, my friend was supposed to be out today and care for his personal affairs. I quickly took care of the things we needed to do with him on my own (Participant 1)

f. Doing other's paperwork

Since my friend was unwell, I prepared the document that she needed to prepare. (Participant 4)

6. Socio-emotional supportive prosocial behaviors:

a. Taking care of others' well being

To cheer her up and motivate her to do her work, I posted a video of her that she liked when she was having a hard time. (Participant 4)

6 main behavior themes emerged in diary studies like those listed above. These themes and the behavior types under the themes were the same with interview codes and their definitions. For example, participants reported that they had mentored another employee by giving them consultation and providing knowledge about a job-related matter. Having a solution-oriented approach emerged as a type of protective POB. Using polite language and seeing and understanding another person's needs without being offered aid are the behaviors derived from diary codes as courteous and cooperative POB.

Regarding collectivist prosocial behaviors, bringing and getting beverages for other organizational members was coded. Concerning the work, backup working, helping others if one is unable and there is an urgent job, relieving others' workload, taking on different responsibilities other than one's current job description, and giving aid and doing other's paperwork were coded under the theme of extra-role behaviors of diary studies. Besides work, the participants also reported taking care of others' well-being at work, which is a type of socio-emotional POB.

Table 7. The Frequency Table of Prosocial Organizational Behaviors, Diary

Guiding prosocial behaviors	Frequency
<i>Acting as a mentor</i>	4
Protective prosocial behaviors	Frequency
<i>Engaging in a solution-oriented attitudes</i>	2
Courteous and cooperative prosocial behaviors	Frequency
<i>Behaving virtuously</i>	1
<i>Using kind language</i>	1
<i>Recognizing a need without being offered help</i>	1

Collective prosocial behaviors	Frequency
<i>Getting coffee for others</i>	1
Extra-role prosocial behaviors	Frequency
<i>Back-up working</i>	2
<i>Doing others' paperwork</i>	1
<i>Taking on different responsibilities</i>	4
<i>Helping others if one is unable and there is urgency</i>	2
<i>Relieving the workload of others</i>	1
<i>Problem solving</i>	2
Socio-emotional supportive prosocial behaviors	Frequency
<i>Taking care of others' well-being</i>	1

As seen in Table 7, acting as a mentor and taking on different responsibilities had more frequency than other behavior types.

Antecedents: Intention and reason

Personal interest

It will benefit me in the future. My friend will be able to undertake the work alone at a time when I am tight.
(Participant 4)

Work

In general, I thought that the business would go well and there would be no significant problems.
(Participant 6)

Personal interest emerged as an intention to behave prosocially from the daily reporting of individuals. Work-related determinants like completing and work necessities were considered reasons for POB in the diary studies.

Table 8. The Frequency Table of the Antecedents of Prosocial Organizational Behaviors, Diary

Intention	Frequency
Work	1
Personal interest	2

Personal interest was coded twice, while work as a reason level antecedent of POB was mentioned once, as seen in Table 8.

Consequences: Risks and benefits

Personal risks:

Extra work

I believe I am useful, but I don't want it to happen again because it spoils people's whole plan (Participant 6)

Benefits:

Personal benefit

It will benefit me in the future. My friend will be able to undertake the work alone at a time when I am tight. (Participant 4)

Work process

The process has finished successfully. A load has been lifted from us. (Participant 3)

The consequences of POB were both positive and negative, as it was shown in the interview study results. Individuals may have personal risks like the need to work extra because of helping someone at work. On the contrary, an employee can also get unique benefits such as helping someone who would return to them as reciprocity. Also, work can be benefited from interpersonal prosocial behaviors at work in daily life.

Table 9. The Frequency Table of the Antecedents of Prosocial Organizational Behaviors, Diary

Benefits	Frequency
Personal benefit	11
Benefits to work process	3
Risks	Frequency
Personal risk	1

As it can be seen in Table 9, personal benefits had the most frequent of consequences. Benefits to work processes also had more frequency than personal risks.

2.5. Findings and Discussion

Prosocial behavior has a broad scope, from donating money to helping strangers to move heavy goods (Dovidio et al., 2017). Organizational researchers have adopted several perspectives concerning prosociality in the workplace (Zettler, 2022), and many concepts have been proposed to explain prosocial organizational behaviors. While some studies focus on behaviors that exceed role prescriptions, others

reveal different aspects of prosociality, including proposing some terms as defending behaviors that protect someone's well-being against danger or organizational voice by telling wrongdoings in a work context (Bülbül, 2013; Geraci & Franchin, 2021).

Organizations can have many targets for prosocial behaviors, such as customers, other organizational members, and the organization. Depending on these considerations and the definition of prosociality (i.e., behaviors for the benefit of other parties; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), a broader and more appropriate explanation of prosocial behavior in organizations is needed. Among the many possible targets of POB, POB, which focuses on other organizational members, is studied in the current study because of its critical importance in organizational behavior and relationships (Reich & Hershcovis, 2011). Through in-depth exploration using a grounded theory approach, seven types of POB emerged from the current data. As expected and relevant to the previous literature, extra-role prosocial behavior refers to task-related behaviors beyond formal job descriptions (Pearce & Gregersen, 1991; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). An employee helps another person's job or paperwork with others. By initiating prosocial behaviors, employees take responsibility for talking with a superior about an issue or trying to prevent a problem. Guiding prosocial behavior captures two widespread behaviors at work: mentoring other organizational members and orienting newcomers and other employees. By guiding prosocial behavior, an employee guides and supervises another organizational member and newcomer. Although employees may sometimes feel an obligation to behave for the benefit of others in organizations, that is referred to as compulsory citizenship behavior (Liu, Zhao, & Sheard, 2017; Vigoda-Gadot, 2006), they still can prefer delivering knowledge to a new employee or a friend at work.

Collectivism-related prosocial behaviors can be observed in organizations, too. From its definition in cultural studies, collectivism refers to prioritizing and valuing social groups and relationships (Brewer & Chen, 2007). Due to its relation to this cultural dimension, this theme was named collectivism-related prosocial behavior. This may be because the current research is implemented in Turkey, with native Turkish speakers expected to be highly exposed to collectivist cultural values and norms (Hofstede, 1984). Examples of collectivism-related prosocial behavior in organizations include taking care of a coworker when they are sick or welcoming a person from work to one's home. This might be a crucial finding for understanding the prosociality of organizations and adopting emic research in the organizations operating in the context of Turkey.

Prosociality and related concepts were initially developed in a research atmosphere in which Western cultures predominated (Hansen & Heu, 2020). Most research and theories can be criticized for

their etic approach. In addition to culture, collectivism-based prosocial behavior is expected to be linked with Turkey's traditions regarded as hospitality. Likewise, other practices in different world regions involve having small chats with coffee during breaks (e.g., Fika; Caprioli, Larson, Ek, & Ooi, 2021). Collectivism-based prosocial behavior can also be observed in these business environments (e.g., getting coffee for a coworker). Yet, differently from collectivism-based prosocial behavior, socio-emotional supportive prosocial behavior is about helping when another person is sick and not making others feel alone at work. Individuals share a social atmosphere in their workplace where they usually need social support. This finding aligns with previous prosocial behavior conceptualizations that used emotional care as a type of prosocial behavior (Carlo & Randall, 2002).

Courteous and cooperative prosocial behaviors encompass kind, gentle, and coherent behaviors. Examples include having small chats, using kind language, harmonious and collaborative work, and recognizing a need without help. This theme is consistent with the literature on social behaviors. For example, workplace incivility is usually studied as antisocial organizational behavior (Schoenherr & Nguyen, 2019). Relatedly, courteous and cooperative prosocial behavior can be evaluated as the positive end of the organizational behavior continuum, whereas the examples of antisocial behavior are the opposite as related to the conceptualization of Boxer and colleagues (2004).

As this chapter aims to develop a theory of POB, both antecedents and consequences emerged from participants' experiences and views (see Figure 3). There is extensive empirical evidence regarding the antecedents of prosocial behaviors in organizations (Anderson & Williams, 1996; Kang, Kim, Choi, & Li, 2020; Kim & Qu, 2020; McNeely & Meglino, 1994) because of the conceptual complexities and usage of similar terms interchangeably with prosocial behaviors, revealing that individuals' experiences of the antecedents of prosocial behavior are insightful.

In general, two themes emerged from the data regarding the antecedents of POB: intentions and reasons. Concerning social-cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), intention has emerged as a reason for prosocial behavior in organizations. The work-related intention is about completing and proceeding with work. Additionally, an employee behaves in the interest of another organizational member because of interpersonal relationships with that person, and prosocial behavior can occur for altruistic intentions (Batson & Powell, 2003).

Conversely, a person behaves for others' wellness due to their interest (e.g., to get a promotion and be liked by everyone else in the organization). While there are many discussions about the intention to engage in prosocial behaviors, this study is crucial for developing a theory based on qualitative research

among private sector employees. Interestingly, there are many common points with previous evidence on intentions of prosocial behaviors. Individuals have many sides, and the intentions behind their behaviors can be complex. In the current qualitative evidence, intention can be complex, and there may be work, pragmatic, altruistic, and social bonding intentions among prosocial behaviors in organizations. A person can behave prosocially for the benefit of herself, the benefit of the organization (i.e., work), and others.

Another theme that emerged from the data was named reason. Cognitive reasons emerged related to discussing the cognitive aspects of prosocial behavior. This sub-theme differs from intentions since it includes reasoning practices and motivational issues. Pragmatic and social reasons were identified as the determinants. Individuals behave prosocially because of their self-interest in organizations. They may engage in behaviors for the benefit of others for political reasons. For example, if an employee wants tenure, they may help team members to provide a superior view of their beneficence. In addition, employees behave prosocially because of social and altruistic considerations such as helping friends and providing benefits to close friends. Organizational and social commitment was another reason for prosociality in the current study. Thus, it can be concluded that if an employee has a positive attitude toward the organization (Arshad, Abid, Contreras, Elahi, & Athar, 2021), they may engage in prosocial acts. In addition, individual-level factors, such as character and behavior patterns, were found to be the reason for POB. As expected from the knowledge from recent relevant literature (Gülseven, Kumru, Carlo, & de Guzman, 2020), moral reasons can be an antecedent of POB.

On one hand, there is increasing evidence regarding the definition of morality and its relevance among different cultures. However, the scope of morality and its effect on prosocial behavior is still a relatively new era in organizations. Morality as an antecedent of POB emerged in this research as individuals' judgments about right or wrong. This study extends the discussion on the relationship between morality and prosocial behavior in an organizational context by considering the consequences of prosocial behavior.

Several benefits emerged from the interviews and diary entries, parallel with and somehow different from the literature. In general, POB can benefit other organizational members, businesses (e.g., developing work processes by completing work and fixing problems), individuals (i.e., the possibility of gaining help in the future from the person whom the employee has helped before), and making friends at work), and the social environment at work (e.g., strengthening relationships at work). Unexpectedly, some participants stated that POB might not benefit any party. This theme may arise from individuals' inability to comprehend

the question and their cognitive distortion or subjective bias. More specifically, they might persuade themselves to be good people and provide answers in the scope of social desirability.

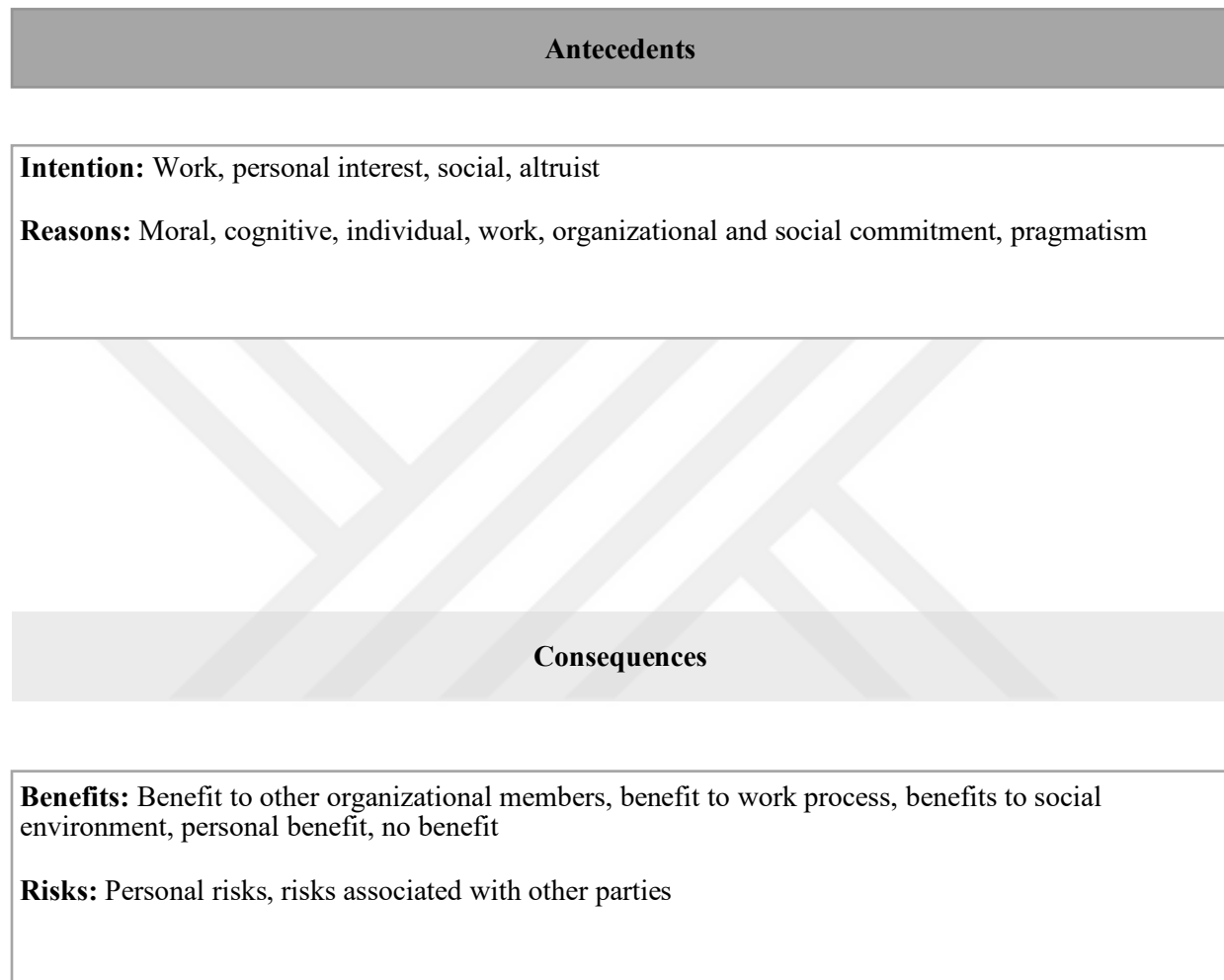
Distinct from the general focus of prosocial behavior research, the risks of POB emerged from the data as another consequence of prosociality in organizations. While the dark sides of prosociality have just begun to be discussed (Bolino & Grant, 2016), it was interesting to see employees' experiences and perceptions of risks associated with prosocial behaviors in organizations. A person may not prefer to get aid from others at work, and attempting to help these people cause stress and exceeds personal boundaries. Also, someone may abuse another person's prosocial inclination in work by generating an extra load on them.

Overall, this chapter provides a theory on POB from an emic perspective for the private organizations of Turkey. The grounded theory derived from this chapter is presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Types of Prosocial Organizational Behaviors



Figure 3- Antecedents and Consequences of Prosocial Organizational Behavior



CHAPTER 3: PROSOCIAL ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR: A NEW MEASUREMENT TOOL

3.1. Introduction

The qualitative evidence in Chapter 2 shows 41 types of prosocial behaviors in organizations gathered under the seven main themes. Depending on the emic research perspective and the grounded theory findings of Chapter 2, developing a reliable and valid POB measurement for organizations in Turkey seems crucial for revealing context-specific (i.e., the organizational environment of Turkey) prosocial behaviors in work life. Compared to the body of research conducted with many prosociality-related concepts (e.g., OCB, ICB, and interpersonal helping), to the best of knowledge, organizational science has not yet extended a reliable and valid measurement of prosocial behavior in organizations by adopting an emic research agenda. Information regarding the prediction of POB and outcomes of behaving prosocially in the organization still needs to be unveiled to understand employee behaviors within Turkey's national culture and social context.

Studies have traditionally relied on citizenship behavior scales to assess prosociality in the workplace (e.g., Sun, Liden, & Ouyang, 2019), while previous studies have suggested various methods to measure several types of prosocial behavior (Armstrong-Carter, & Telzer, 2021; Carlo & Randall, 2002; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). Existing measures of prosocial behavior outside the organizational context have also assessed specific dimensions of prosocial behavior, such as helping (e.g., Bar-Tal, 1982), donating, sharing (e.g., Stewart & McBride-Chang, 2000) and empathic concern/feelings (e.g., Batanova & Loukas, 2012). Despite understanding a specific type of prosocial behavior might be instrumental in identifying the psychological mechanisms and contextual processes involved in that particular behavioral response, measuring the general propensity to act in favor of others (i.e., prosociality) in organizations is less dependent on specific psychological mechanisms and reactions to others' needs. Thus, individuals' acting or not acting prosocially in organizations can be assessed via a prosocial behavior scale in organizations. Questionnaires are more feasible in applications than behavioral/experimental measures of prosocial behavior. They can reach larger samples, including large intervention projects, and can be quickly tested for their generalizability to a particular social context (Altunışık, Coşkun, Bayraktaroğlu, & Yildirim, 2007; Cheung, Burns, Sinclair, & Sliter, 2017).

Several instruments for prosocial behavior and related organizational behavior assessments have been developed. All measures relevant to organizations can be classified depending on the source from which information is gathered:

1. Self-assessment or self-report instruments, in which individuals evaluate their behaviors (Henderson, Foster, Matthews, & Zickar, 2020).

2. Peer-assessment measures and studies in which peers or coworkers are the ones who evaluate individuals' behaviors (e.g., Doyle, Goffin, & Woycheshin, 2019)

3. Superior-assessment measures, in which managers or team leaders evaluate subordinates' behaviors (e.g., team leader rates the ICB of each member; Peng, Chen, Zhang, & Li, 2021).

In terms of developmental processes, assessing prosocial behavior in children often involves observational data or reports (Vaish, Carpenter, & Tomasello, 2009). Adults' prosocial behavior measurements have principally been self-reported (e.g., Carlo and Randall, 2002). Scholars who support the importance of using self-reports to assess adults' prosocial behaviors assert that, given adolescent socio-cognitive development, no one can report habits and behavioral tendencies as accurately as the individuals themselves.

Self-report measures of prosocial behavior are usually classified into those that assess global prosocial behavior or those that assess prosocial behavior in specific situations or contexts (e.g., Carlo, Hausmann, Christiansen, & Randall, 2003). Most available measures of prosocial behavior globally include prosocial behavior as a component/factor of a comprehensive questionnaire assessing other relevant adjustment/maladjustment dimensions of children's or adolescents' development. These scales were generally formed for clinical purposes (e.g., Taylor & Wood, 2014). Self-reported measures of prosocial tendencies and behaviors for general samples have sometimes been included in assessing general interpersonal skills. For example, the Values in Action Inventory of Strengths (VIA-IS; Peterson, Park, & Seligman, 2005a) considers a subscale of the interpersonal strengths of "befriending" others. Some examples of prosocial measurement in Turkey show differences when adapting them to the Turkish language and culture (Bayraktar, Kindap, Kumru, & Sayıl, 2010).

Thus far, drawing upon the literature and relevant research, reliable, valid, and contextually applicable self-report measures for evaluating prosocial behavior in organizations are needed. For this reason, it is sought to provide an assessment tool in this chapter.

3.2. Aims

The first aim of the current chapter is to generate items for a prosocial behavior scale that can be applied in the organizations of Turkey based on the codes and themes of Chapter 2. Relevant literature has

proposed context-specific conceptualizations based on qualitative research and an associated measurement tool (e.g., morality in Turkey; Cesur, Tepe, Piyale, Sunar, & Biten, 2020). After generating the initial items for a POB scale, testing their reliability and validity is another research aim. The following research question is formed as follows:

Research Question: Is the POB scale valid and reliable?

3.3. Method

3.3.1. Procedure

The scale development process can be carried out by following specific steps (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2003; Nunnally, 1967):

Stage 1- Preliminary item generation: The researcher provides related theoretical support for the initial item pool. Methods for the initial item generation can be classified as deductive, inductive, or a combination of the two. The deductive method involves item generation based on pre-existing scales and a comprehensive literature review. In contrast, inductive methods are often based on qualitative information regarding a concept obtained from the opinions of the target population (Kapuscinski & Masters, 2010). In the current research, an inductive method was applied by following the grounded theory study of Chapter 1. 42 items were generated drawing on the behaviors listed in the qualitative research. The list of the items is presented in Table 10.

Stage 2- Item purification: To purify the measurement items, the list of things generated is assessed by an expert panel (Churchill, 1979). The supervisor of this thesis and the thesis committee composed of organizational behavior professors reviewed the items' clarity, redundancy, and accuracy. In this way, ambiguous items were clarified and categorized based on theoretical construct definitions related to prosociality in organizations. After suggesting modifications to the items, all items were retained and included for the subsequent analysis.

Stage 3- Validity of the scale: In this step, the researcher evaluates the content validity of the new scale by ensuring that the initial item pool reflects the desired concept. To reach content validity, the researcher applies other opinions about the items. The opinions can be the expert judges or target population judges who are potential scale users. In this way, the researcher ensures that the measurement tool appropriately represents the construct of interest (Nunnally, 1967). There are multiple methods for evaluating content validity. The content validity index (CVI) was used after getting expert judges. Therefore, experts were

asked to rate the relevancy of each item. CVI is one of scale development studies' most widely reported content validity approaches. There are two methods for computing CVI: scale level and item level, item based (I-CVI) was employed to understand the relevancy of each item. I-CVI is calculated as the number of experts rated "very relevant" for each item divided by the total number of experts. Values that the experts give range from 0 to 1 where $I-CVI > .79$, the item is relevant, between .70 and .79, the item needs revisions, and if the value is below .70, the item should be eliminated. The recommended number of experts to review a scale varies from 2 to 20 individuals, and at least five experts are suggested to review the instrument to have sufficient control over a possible chance agreement (Zamanzadeh, Ghahramanian, Rassouli, Abbaszadeh, Alavi-Majd, & Nikanfar, 2015). Following these instructions, the newly developed scale was sent to the five experts from FMV Işık University, Middle East Technical University, Çankaya University, and Marmara University. Experts' fields were social psychology, industrial and organizational psychology, and organizational behavior. After assessing I-CVI's, six items were dropped since they were rated low in terms of content validity. 11, 12, 21, 23, 24, and 27 were eliminated. The I-CVI calculations for the relevancy of each item are in Table 11. Thirty-six items were marked as relevant, and the I-CVIs ranged from .60 to 1.00. Twenty-three items had an I-CVI as 1.00, nine a score of .80, and four a score of .60. Most items were considered relevant, except for six questions (see Table 12 for the results).

Table 10. Content Validity Results of Prosocial Organizational Behavior Scale Items

Item Number	Relevancy					CVI
	Expert 1	Expert 2	Expert 3	Expert 4	Expert 5	
1	4	4	3	4	4	1
2	3	4	3	2	4	0,8
3	4	4	4	4	4	1
4	4	4	4	4	4	1
5	3	4	4	4	4	1
6	4	4	4	2	4	0,8
7	4	4	4	2	4	0,8
8	4	4	3	4	4	1
9	4	4	4	4	4	1
10	3	4	4	4	2	0,8
11	-	2	4	-	-	-
12	2	-	3	4	2	-
13	4	4	4	4	4	1
14	2	4	4	4	4	0,8
15	3	4	4	4	4	1
16	4	4	4	4	4	1
17	4	4	4	4	-	0,8
18	4	4	4	4	-	0,8
19	4	4	4	4	4	1
20	4	4	4	4	3	1
21	2	4	2	4	3	0,5
22	4	4	3	4	3	1
23	1	4	1	1	1	0,2
24	1	4	1	4	1	0,2
25	4	4	1	5	4	0,8
26	4	4	2	4	4	0,8
27	1	4	2	4	3	0,4
28	1	4	2	4	3	0,6
29	2	4	1	4	4	0,6
30	1	4	2	4	4	0,6
31	4	4	3	2	4	0,6
32	4	4	3	4	4	1
33	4	4	3	4	4	1
34	4	4	3	4	4	1
35	4	4	3	4	4	1

36	4	4	3	4	4	1
37	4	4	3	4	4	1
38	4	4	4	4	4	1
39	4	4	3	4	4	1
40	4	4	4	4	4	1
41	4	4	4	4	4	1
42	4	4	4	4	3	1

Table 11. Clarity Ranking of the Items

Clarity							
Item Number	Expert 1	Expert 2	Expert 3	Expert 4	Expert 5	Result	
1		3	3	2	3	3	0,8
2		3	3	3	3	3	1
3		3	3	3	3	3	1
4		3	3	3	3	3	1
5		3	3	3	3	3	1
6		3	3	3	3	3	1
7		3	3	2	3	3	0,8
8		3	3	3	3	3	1
9		3	3	3	3	3	1
10		3	3	3	3	1	0,8
11		3	1	3	3	-	0,6
12		2	3	3	3	1	0,6
13		3	3	3	3	3	1
14		2	3	3	3	3	0,8
15		3	3	3	3	3	1
16		3	3	3	3	3	1
17		3	3	3	3	2	0,8
18		3	3	3	3	2	0,8
19		3	3	3	3	-	0,8
20		3	3	2	3	2	0,6
21		3	3	3	3	2	0,8
22		3	3	3	3	2	0,8
23		2	3	3	3	1	0,6
24		3	3	3	3	2	0,8
25		3	3	3	3	1	0,8
26		3	3	3	3	1	0,8
27		2	3	3	3	1	0,6
28		2	3	3	3	1	0,6

29	2	3	3	3	2	0,6
30	2	3	3	3	-	0,6
31	3	3	3	3	3	1
32	3	3	3	3	3	1
33	3	3	3	3	3	1
34	3	3	3	3	3	1
35	3	3	3	3	3	1
36	3	3	3	3	3	1
37	3	3	2	3	3	0,8
38	3	3	3	3	3	1
39	3	3	3	3	3	1
40	3	3	3	3	3	1
41	3	3	3	3	3	1
42	3	3	3	3	2	0,8

Stage 4-Pre-testing the items: Pre-testing helps ensure the target population understands items before administering the survey. By pre-testing, possible misunderstandings and subsequent measurement errors might be prevented. Experts were also asked for their opinions about the wording of the items (see Table 11). Their total ratings ranged from .80 to 1.00, determining that items can be understood. In addition to the experts, the scale was pre-tested on 30 respondents working in a private organization. These surveys were conducted online, and participants were asked to give feedback about the timing of the scale. Filling out the scale took approximately 6-7 minutes. The mean age of the pilot study was 31.06 and the group consisted of 10 females, 9 males, and one participant who did not want to specify a gender. It was confirmed from the pilot groups that the items and instructions were clear, and the form design was user-friendly.

For the item 29, 3 participants made a recommendation. The item was about giving a ride to another organizational member with one's car. Since only some have their car, the item was revised by adding the condition of having one's car.

Stage 5- A relevant psychometric analysis is made. The researcher assesses whether the new scale has construct validity and reliability. Construct validity can be assessed by using principal component analysis (PCA). The reliability of a scale is usually measured by internal consistency in addition to other techniques (e.g., test-retest reliability and split-half; DeVellis, 2003). To ensure construct validity and reliability, the data should be collected from a representative sample of the target population. A common rule of thumb is that there should be at least 5 participants for each item on the scale.

Table 12. Preliminary Item Generation

Turkish	English*
Proaktif prososyal davranışlar	Proactive prosocial behaviors
Beni ve/veya iş arkadaşlarımı olumsuz etkileyen durumlarda; 1.Onlar adına yöneticilerim ile konuşurum. 2.Diğerleriyle ortak hareket ederim. 3.Gerekirse inisiyatif alıp harekete geçerim. 4.Çeşitli öneriler sunarım. 5.Oluşabilecek problemi önceden engellemeye çalışırım.	In situations that negatively affect me and/or my coworkers; 1. I talk to my superiors on their behalf. 2. I cooperate with others. 3. If necessary, I take the initiative and take action. 4. I offer various suggestions. 5. I try to prevent the problem beforehand.
Rehberlik eden prososyal davranışlar	Guiding prosocial behaviors
Benden daha tecrübesiz veya işe yeni başlamış iş arkadaşlarımın; 6.Bireysel gelişimlerine yardımcı olup onlara mentörlük ederim. 7.Kurum ve işle ilgili bilgiler verip iş ortamına uyum sağlamaya yardımcı olurum.	For my coworkers who are more inexperienced than me or who have just started to the job; 6. I help and mentor their personal development. 7. I help them to adapt to the business environment by giving information about the organization and the job.
Korumacı prososyal davranışlar	Protective prosocial behaviors
İş arkadaşlarım hata yaptıkları zaman; 8.Onları savunurum. 9.Yanlışlarını yüzüne vurmam. 10.Yöneticimize söylemem. 11.Çözüm odaklı yaklaşırım. *	When my coworkers make mistakes; 8. I defend them. 9. I do not rub their noses in it. 10. I do not tell the manager. 11. I have a solution-oriented approach.
Nezaket ve uyumluluk odaklı prososyal davranışlar	Courteous and agreeable prosocial behaviors
Genel olarak iş arkadaşlarıma karşı davranışlarımı düşündüğümde; 12.Onların eksik yönlerini kapatırım. * 13.İş arkadaşlarıma karşı doğruluk ve ahlak çerçevesinde davranışlar sergilerim. 14.İş arkadaşlarıma karşı esnek olup katı davranmam. 15.İletişime açığımdır. 16.Gerekli durumlarda onlara ve işlerine öncelik verip yardımcı olurum. 17.Onlarla küçük sohbetler etmeye gayret ederim. 18.Onlarla nazik bir iletişim kurarım (sık sık teşekkür etmek gibi) 19.Onlarla uyumlu çalışırım. 20.Yardım istemeden ihtiyaçlarını fark ederim. 21.Onları överim.* 22.Onlara karşı şeffaf davranırım. 23.Onlar için yalan söylerim.*	When I think about my behavior towards my coworkers in general; 12. I compensate their shortcomings. 13. I behave towards my coworkers within the framework of honesty and morality. 14. I am flexible with my coworkers. 15. I am open to communication. 16. When necessary, I give priority to them and their work and help them. 17. I try to have small conversations with them. 18. I communicate politely with them (like thanking them often) 19. I work in harmony with them. 20. I notice their needs without their help request. 21. I praise them. 22. I act transparently to them. 23. I lie for them.
Toplulukçu prososyal davranışlar	Collective prosocial behaviors
24.Evimde ağırlarım.*	24. I welcome them in my home.

25.İş dışı konularda da öneriler sunarım.	25. I offer suggestions on non-work matters.
26.Kendime kahve, çay alırken onlara da alırım ve/veya almayı teklif ederim.	26. When I buy coffee and tea for myself, I buy them and/or offer to buy them.
27.İmkanlar doğrultusunda ofise kek, kurabiye gibi yiyecekler getiririm.*	27. If possible, I bring food such as cakes and cookies to the office.
28.Onlara ufak hediyeler veririm.	28. I give them small gifts.
29.Kendi arabamla bir yere götürürüm.	29. I give a ride with my own car.
30.Hastayken kişisel bakım sağlarım.	30. I provide personal care when they are sick.
Sosyal ve duygusal destekçi prososyal davranışlar	Socio-emotional supportive prosocial behaviors
31.İyi oluşlarıyla ilgilenip onları neşelendirmeye çalışırım.	31. I care about their well-being and try to cheer them up.
32.Onları motive ederim.	32. I motivate them.
33.Sorunlarını dinleyip destek olurum.	33. I listen to their problems and support them.
34.Yalnız hissetmemeleri için çaba gösteririm.	34. I make an effort for not to make them feeling lonely.
35.Gerekirse onları zor durumdan kurtarırım.	35. If necessary, I get them out of trouble.
Rol dışı prososyal davranışlar	Extra-role prosocial behaviors
İş arkadaşlarımızla işimde,	In my work with our coworkers,
36.Onlara arka çıkarak destekli çalışırım.	36. I support them with back-up working.
37.Eşya ve ekipman tedariği konusunda yardımcı olup gerekli durumlarda kendi eşyalarımı paylaşıyorum.	37. I help them with goods and equipment supplying and share my own belongings when necessary.
38.Gerekirse erken çıkmaları için onlara yardım ederim.	38. If necessary, I help them to leave early.
39.Onların sorumluluk alanına giren işlere de yardımcı olurum.	39. I help to the work that falls under their responsibility.
40.Acil bir durumda veya işlerin yetişmemesi halinde onlara yardımcı olurum.	40. I help them in an emergency or if things don't work out.
41.İş yüklerini hafifletmeye çalışırım.	41. I try to alleviate workloads.
42. Olası sorunlarının çözüme kavuşması için çaba gösteririm.	42. I do my best to solve possible problems.

Note. *The scale was initially developed in Turkish, yet the items were translated into English to make them more readable due to the original language of the current thesis. Evidence is needed to adapt the scale to the English language and the relevant culture.

3.3.2.Participants

Since the grounded theory approach of Chapter 2 was to reveal prosocial behaviors in private organizations located in Turkey, snowball sampling was used to reach full-time employees of a private sector organization. An online questionnaire link was sent to 310 individuals via various online channels, including e-mail and LinkedIn. 303 participants completed the questionnaire with a 97.74% return rate.

Before the data collection, ethical approval was obtained from the Ethical Committee of Marmara University Social Sciences Institute. Participants were informed about the general scope of the study and emphasized that participation was voluntary and anonymous and that they could withdraw at any time.

Total number of the participants meets this criterion. The mean age was 30 years, and the 56% was female. With 52% undergraduate degree, the educational level of the participants was relatively high.

Table 13. Participant Demographics

Variable	Level	<i>n</i>	%
Education	High school	10	.33
	Vocational school	12	.40
	University	159	.52
	Master	106	.35
	PhD	16	.53
Gender	Not want to specify	3	.1
	Male	129	.43
	Female	171	.56
Experience	Less than 1 year	10	.33
	1-5 years	136	.45
	5-10 years	95	.31
	More than 10 years	62	.20
Tenure	Less than 1 year	76	.25
	1-5 years	163	.54
	5-10 years	46	.15
	More than 10 years	18	.60

3.3.3. Measures

Prosocial organizational behavior. Participants were administered 36 POB items previously generated in pre-testing. Participants were also instructed to indicate how often they behaved in the manner stated in each item on a scale of 1 (almost never) to 5 (always).

Organizational citizenship behavior. OCB scale used in the research was developed by Basım and Şeşen (2006) by combining two different scales and translating them into Turkish. Validity and reliability studies were initially conducted on two different samples. Reliability was found as .94 (Basım & Şeşen, 2006). The related scale consists of five basic dimensions in line with organizational citizenship dimensions introduced by Organ (1988). In the questionnaire created by the authors, 19 items were included, remaining dependent to the original, and a 6-point Likert scale was used. Among five dimensions (i.e., courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, altruism, and conscientiousness), courtesy and altruism were

used in this research since they focus on interpersonal behaviors rather than behaving for organizational benefit directly.

Coworker relationships. The quality of coworker relationships was measured by Hain (2005)'s workplace relationship scale. Çoban (2020) adapted this scale to Turkish. The internal reliability of the scale was found as .92 in both researches.

3.4. Results

Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, PCA, and Pearson's correlation coefficient. PCA was applied by using the principal component method with varimax rotation. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of the factor analysis was .80. This is an index of the appropriateness of sample size for the analysis, which can take on values that range from 0 to 1. Values between .80 and .90 are considered good (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). The KMO value obtained from the PCA indicates that the sample size can produce a population correlation matrix. The other index that was used to evaluate the factorability of the data was Bartlett's test of sphericity, which was found to be significant ($\chi^2(174) = 926.304, p < .001$). Among 36 questions, 17 were statistically eliminated before and during the analysis.

Names were assigned to factors by essential indicator items of the factors. Factor names, means, and standard deviations of the factors formed are shown in Table 14. These findings indicate that the POB scale has a clear five-dimensional structure and that the sub-scales possess sufficient internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha was .76 for courteous prosocial behavior, .89 for socio-emotional supportive prosocial behavior, .75 for proactive prosocial behavior, .72 for extra-role prosocial behavior, and .76 for guidant prosocial behavior. The overall reliability of the scale was found as .86, which can be regarded as good reliability.

Table 14. Factorial Structure of Prosocial Organizational Behavior Scale

*Item Number	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Factor				
			1	2	3	4	5
22. I give them small gifts.	3.09	1.32	.72	.23	.21	.23	-.17
23. I give a ride with my own car/ If I have.	4.23	1.47	.70	.21	.14	-.01	.24
20. I offer suggestions on non-work matters.	4.35	1.39	.70	.04	-.00	.18	.27
24. I provide personal care when they are sick.	3.01	1.58	.67	.23	.06	-.07	-.21
21. When I buy coffee and tea for myself, I buy them and/or offer to buy them.	5.29	.86	.51	.24	.13	.06	.24
25. I care about their well-being and try to cheer them up.	4.63	1.09		.29	.79	.13	-.00
26. I motivate them.	4.80	1.02	.08	.79	.04	.25	-.00
27. I listen to their problems and support them.	4.94	.99	.27	.75	.12	.09	.26
28. I make an effort not to make them feeling lonely.	4.92	1.08	.22	.69	.22	.15	.26
2. I cooperate with others.	4.26	1.12	.08	.05	.80	-.04	.01
8. I defend them.	3.82	1.29	-.05	.16	.68	.17	-.01
1. I talk to my superiors on their behalf.	3.04	1.49	.23	.06	.67	.21	.12
3. If necessary, I take the initiative and take action.	4.28	1.24	.16	.08	.58	.58	.08
30. I support them with back-up working.	4.88	.97	.29	.37	.50	-.09	.29
4. I offer various suggestions.	4.87	.99	.12	.15	.07	.73	.30
5. I try to prevent the problem beforehand.	4.84	1.04	-.17	.17	.13	.71	.08
18. I notice their needs without their help request.	4.19	1.13	.40	.04	.07	.69	.05
6. I help and mentor their personal development.	5.12	.90	.12	.06	-.03	.19	.84
7. I help them to adapt to the business environment by giving information about the organization and the job.	5.33	.78	.04	.29	.11	.16	.75

Note. *The scale was initially developed in Turkish, yet the items were translated into English to make them readable due to the language of the current thesis. Evidence is needed to adapt the scale to the English language and the relevant culture.

Courteous prosocial behavior as a factor represents polite and considerate actions. Another factor formed and named social and emotional supportive prosocial behavior. The definition given for this facet is related to recent research that describes social-emotional support as being aware of others' needs, using perspective-taking and empathy, and acting responsibly (Carlo & Randall, 2002). Proactive prosocial behavior refers to doing things on behalf of others and taking the initiative (Boxer et al., 2004). Extra-role prosocial behaviors are defined by going beyond the formal job descriptions, such as preventing problems and providing suggestions at work. The fifth factor was named counseling prosocial behaviors. This dimension included orientation and mentoring others who are either newcomers or current employees.

Regarding construct validity, Pearson's correlation analysis was performed with coworker relationships, OCB, and POB. The correlation value was revealed between POB and coworker relationships as .45 and .55 emerged between POB and OCB as moderate values.

Table 15. Construct Validity Results

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3
1. OCB	5.00	.57			
2. CWR	4.88	.90	.42***		
3. POB	4.39	.72	.56***	.45***	

Note. POB= prosocial organizational behavior, OCB= organizational citizenship behavior, CWR= coworker relationships

$p < .05^*$, $p < .01^{**}$, $p < .001^{***}$

3.5. Findings and Discussion

This study aimed to inductively develop and validate a multi-dimensional scale to assess individuals' prosocial behaviors in organizations. Based on the grounded theory in Chapter 2, 41 items were initially developed.

Various items that could address different aspects and dimensions of prosociality were explored in the literature. These items were not considered since this research is emic and has an inductive research strategy. The scale was revised after getting five experts' assessments of the items. Experts' fields were important for their knowledge about prosociality and organizational behaviors. The panel consisted of social psychologists with expertise in industrial and organizational psychology, business administration, and organizational behavior.

The data obtained from the participants working in a private sector organization were analyzed using PCA to identify and establish the factors and the underlying items. The results supported the newly developed scale's content and construct validity by showing that a five-factor model with 19 items is the most suitable. These items' loading patterns are as follows: 5 items on courteous prosocial behaviors; 4 on socio-emotional supportive prosocial behaviors; 5 on proactive prosocial behaviors; 3 for extra-role prosocial behaviors; and 2 for counseling prosocial behaviors, as shown in Appendix F in Turkish language, which is the original language of the scale. These findings suggest that three general arguments about measuring prosociality phenomena in organizations can be reached. First, in parallel with previous research on OCB and other conceptualizations (Organ, 1988; Organ, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000), prosocial behavior in organizations has an extra-role facet. Employees may consider others' workloads and urgent tasks they cannot handle alone. Also, while POB is not necessarily an extra role effort, it may usually exceed doing one's usual task. For example, providing social and emotional support to others, counseling, and courteous behaviors as two dimensions of the POB scale. These are not the official things that employees do when performing their tasks. Nevertheless, these behaviors can be expected because of organizational culture, climate, and political manners. Individuals sometimes have to behave nicely to be liked by everyone

else at work and to manage their impressions to have benefits such as being part of an in-group of their leader and getting bonuses.

Social support behaviors have not been included in the relevant scales. Behaviors like mentoring new employees are used extensively in citizenship behaviors (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Similar to the recent discussions, proactive behaviors are reached as another dimension of POB. Relevant literature shows that behaviors like voice can be regarded as a benefit for organizations and their members. The research proposes that prosocial values and motivation are associated with proactivity (Grant & Rothbard, 2013; Lebel & Patil, 2018). Prosociality theories also propose two types of proactive or reactive behaviors (Boxer et al., 2004).

Moreover, this scale is expected to identify cultural differences and culture-specific prosocial behavior. Indeed, it also is crucial to recognize the role of cultural values in examining national differences in prosocial behaviors. Using Hofstede's (1984) rankings, the nurturing and socio-emotional facet of the POB scale shows collectivism in Turkey as a nation. Previous sales have not yet included expressions like getting beverages for others at work or bringing snacks. However, it is also important to note that, as developed in the preliminary item generation and emerged in Chapter 2, the collectivism-related prosocial theme was eliminated during the validating scale. This finding can be associated with professional life and boundaries in the society. Individuals may engage in prosocial behaviors but only to some extent. For example, welcoming a coworker at home may be too much and informal, which may require more intimacy (e.g., closer relationships) among people.

In summary, the current study moves forward to the existing knowledge of POB by also encompassing the items of traditional measurements of prosociality. However, the emic nature of this research should be noted. The primary aim was to develop a scale for assessing prosocial behaviors in the organizations of Turkey. Besides this, one can not state that the employees who perform and experience this behavior do not necessarily belong to a particular social identity, such as Turkish and Muslim, since there are many ethnic backgrounds and religious beliefs in Turkey's social and work context. From a broader perspective, this scale is for the employees who work in organizations operating in Turkey's national culture and social context. These dimensions may not be present in other contexts combined differently in national culture dimensions (see Hofstede, 1984, for a review).

CHAPTER 4: A NEW EXPLANATION BASED ON WORKPLACE RELATIONSHIPS, SOCIAL IDENTITY AND SELF-CONSTRUALS

4.1. Introduction

Although Chapter 3 offers a valid and trustworthy POB measurement, additional evidence is required to illuminate its psychometric properties and suitability in a research model. As demonstrated by the grounded theory approach in Chapter 2 and in the light of the most current understanding of organizational behaviors, social and individual-level factors have emerged as determinants among a wide range of potential antecedents (Aquino & Reed, 2002; Bandura, 1986; Cialdini et al., 1981; Dovidio et al., 2017; Eisenberg et al., 2002; Poulin et al., 2021; Tian et al., 2018). More specifically, research conducted in many social contexts has proposed a relationship between social relationships and prosocial behaviors. For example, individuals' relations with others affect how they treat others (Hinde, 1995). In organizational research, more is needed to know to understand how coworker relationships affect prosocial organizational behaviors. While previous evidence has unveiled the effect of workplace friendships on citizenship and helping behaviors (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2009; Yu-Ping, Chun-Yang, Ming-Tao, Chun-Tsen, & Qiong-yuan, 2020), less is known about the relationship between interpersonal dynamics and POB. Since coworkers are important social-psychological factors for employees as they interact with each other during work (Jackson & LePine, 2003; Sias & Shin, 2019). Their presence can be expected to influence employees' prosociality in organizations.

In addition to the coworker effect on POB, this chapter examines underlying processes that influence prosociality by assessing the intersection of gender, age, and self-construal as the moderators between coworker relationships and POB. Based on gender roles, women may be more communal than men. Studies on age state that individuals' increased tendencies to be more nurturing through aging, age, and gender can be crucial in changing the effect of coworker relationships on POB. Likewise, individuals, who are more dependent on their social groups (e.g., family and friends), tend to define themselves based on their relationships and might be in a different dynamic than others in the case of workplace relationships and POB. One's independent or interdependent self-construal may be effective on the link between coworker relationships and POB. Thus far, current study highlights the importance of considering individual-level variables and their potential moderating effects on the relationship between coworker relationships and POB. This suggests that gender, age, and self-construal can play a significant role in shaping the link between coworker relationships and POB.

4.2. Coworker Workplace Relationships

Individuals are driven to establish and maintain interpersonal relationships (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Beginning in the early years, interpersonal relationships matter in one's life. For example, interactions among friends can be important for support and companionship (Berndt & Perry, 1986; Buhrmester & Furman, 1987). Unlike random acquaintances, interpersonal relationships are characterized by repeated individual interactions (Sias, Krone, & Jablin, 2002). In organizations, interpersonal relationships impact the employees in those relationships and the organizations in which the relationships exist and develop. Workplace relationships involve all interpersonal relationships that employees engage in while performing their jobs, including supervisor-subordinate relationships, workplace friendships, and romantic relationships (Sias & Shin, 2019).

Peer relationships (Sias et al., 2002; Sias & Shin, 2019) are relationships between employees with no hierarchy as a social tie. Unlike peers, a coworker is someone whom a worker usually works with and interacts. Coworkers hold membership organizations by sharing the same power and authority. They play an essential role in forming informal networks that are instantaneously structured in the organization. The relationship between employees and coworkers has become increasingly important because organizations have adopted more team-based structures and work styles. Thus, coworkers can influence other employees (Jackson & LePine, 2003).

The relationship with coworkers is an integral component of employees' everyday lives in the workplace. A positive coworker relationship can be beneficial and supportive in dealing with day-to-day issues and strain in the work atmosphere (Deery, Iverson, & Walsh, 2010). Positive coworker relationships increase involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Madlock & Booth-Butterfield, 2012). Coworker support has also been associated with organizational-level attitudes, such as increased job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational identification (Sluss, Klimchak, & Holmes, 2008). Work intensity can be regulated through collaboration between coworkers, and workplace norms are often formed through coworker interactions and collaboration (Deery et al., 2010). Coworkers' social support includes providing information and resources, empathy, mentoring, and other forms that help employees (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008).

Previous research has also shown the effect of coworkers on organizational behaviors, such as task performance and OCB (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2009; Jiang, Li, Li, & Li, 2017). Employees behave cooperatively and altruistically for the benefit and wellness of their friends at work (Nougrou, 2017).

Overall, coworker relationships may positively impact prosocial behaviors in organizations. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formed based on the literature:

Hypothesis 1: Coworker relationships predict POB.

To truly understand the importance of coworker relationships on POB, delving deeper into how they affect POB with the underlying processes can be necessary. The following parts will discuss the potential impact of individual-level factors based on their association with coworker relationships and POB.

4.3. The Role of Age and Gender Intersectionality

Individual-level determinants can have a significant impact on social behaviors. Leary and Hole (2009) have provided an overview of various individual dispositions, including interpersonal, emotional, cognitive, motivational, and self-related, which affect social behaviors. Likewise, Piff, Kraus, Côté, Cheng, & Keltner (2010) found that lower social class individuals were more generous, charitable, trusting, and helpful than their upper-class counterparts. A recent meta-analysis (Thielmann, Spadaro, & Balliet, 2020) proposes individual-level factors' importance on prosocial behaviors.

Regarding individual characteristics, age and gender have been among the most influential determinants of social behaviors and relationships. Older employees can have more cooperative motives and more substantial affiliation needs than their younger counterparts (Singh & Singh, 2010), leading them to engage in more prosocial behaviors than younger ones (Gyekye et al., 2012). As people age, they become more aware that their time is limited (Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999). This perception horizon makes people prioritize personally meaningful events and interpersonal relationships. Based on the discussions above, it is assumed that older women give more importance to relationships with their coworkers; thereby, their POB would be affected by coworker relationships more.

Gender is usually described as the earliest learned social dichotomy (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Attributions about gender differentiations begin during infancy and continue throughout adulthood. Gender roles are the shared and learned beliefs that are applied to individuals in society based on their socially identified sex. For example, women are presumed to show high levels of friendliness and concern for others, whereas men are expected to have agentic attributes such as assertiveness and confidence (e.g., Eagly, 2009).

Gender role beliefs are implied different prosocial behaviors across men and women (Eagly, 2009). Spence and Helmreich (1980) argued that feminine behaviors like empathy are considered other-oriented

behaviors. Masculine behaviors like competitiveness are considered self-oriented behaviors. Based on these arguments, Kidder and Parks (2001) have indicated that other-oriented behaviors (e.g., OCB-I, altruism, courtesy) are consistent with women's gender roles, and self-oriented behaviors (e.g., OCB-O, sportsmanship) are more consistent with male agentic characteristics. Several findings also showed the differences between men and women in engaging in different types of citizenship and helping behaviors (Chiaburu, Sawyer, Smith, Brown, & Harris, 2014; Farrell & Finkelstein, 2007).

Social psychologists have long been interested in examining the gender role expectations that shape the prosocial behaviors of women and men (Wood & Eagly, 2010). Research on dispositional differences revealed that women are more oriented toward helping and caring for others than men in that, in the aggregate, women report greater altruism, agreeableness, and warmth relative to men (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001). Women are likelier to have a more communal attitude than men (Eagly, 2009), and tend to assess workplace relationships regarding social and emotional support more than men. In contrast, men may have a more pragmatist view of respecting workplace relationships (Morrison, 2007). Therefore, women may be affected by the workplace's social relationships and develop POB compared to men.

Recent evidence shows that social categories and individual characteristics are not independent (e.g., being an older woman). Instead, individuals' identities and defining characteristics intersect in many ways. For example, a person would be multiracial and transgender simultaneously. These complications have important psychological implications for the person who experiences these identities (Cole, 2009; Crenshaw, 1989). In the literature on intersectionality, the debate has focused on how different combinations of multiple social identities and personal characteristics lead different experiences and social perceptions (İşiaçık & Turnalar-Çetinkaya, 2022). The intersection between gender and age has been mainly overlooked, not only among professional scholars but in intersectionality theory as well (Choroszewicz & Adams, 2019). Gender advantages and disadvantages are intertwined with age, generation, and life course. Research has argued that differences between men and women become particularly prominent during crucial life course transitions, such as first entry into professional employment (Seron, Silbey, Cech & Rubineau, 2016).

Kahn, McGill, and Bianchi (2011) found that men and women in their 50s and 60s provide high informal help to their adult children, elderly parents, and friends. Relatedly, social support significantly impacts mental health for people under 30 years old, and women may benefit slightly more from social support than men (Milner, Krnjacki, Butterworth, & LaMontagne, 2016). Nevertheless, it remains to be seen whether different intersections, such as being an older man and a younger woman, would affect the

link between coworker relationships and POB. According to an extended range of research, it has been unveiled that one's relationships and behavioral patterns are related to not only their characteristics and identities but also their self based on sociocultural factors (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

4.4. Interdependent and Independent Self-Construals

Individualism-collectivism is one of the most studied dimensions differentiating sociocultural determinants. Research emphasizes that individualistic and collectivistic tendencies show themselves in the behaviors of individuals (Hofstede, 1984). In his study of cross-cultural work value data, Hofstede mentioned individualism-collectivism first (Triandis, Bontempo, & Villareal, 1988). He defined collectivism as the power of the social group. Growing up in a family of many people, from parents to grandparents, teaches individuals to define themselves as part of a "we" group. On the contrary, individualism represents individual interests' dominance over any group by mentioning the nuclear family structure with only two parents. In these families, children would develop an "I" perception of the self, which is different from the others' perceptions. He defined individualism and collectivism as two opposite sides of one cultural dimension, which implies that societies scoring high in one dimension will also score low in another (Hofstede, 1984).

Individualist and collectivist societies also create diverse definitions of the self. Self is a psychological concept about how individuals see their world in relationship with others and shows how individuals think and feel about themselves. Self exists with social interaction, defining the person's self-awareness and self-perception. Since individuals grow up in a culture that shapes their sense of self, each individual may have a distinctive self-concept based on the culture in which they live (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996). Despite having divergent views of the self, the Western view of the self was idealized as an independent, autonomous, and self-determining actor. However, cross-cultural studies have examined that the monocultural approach to the self does not represent the characteristics of other cultures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

Different self-construals in diverse cultures have been studied in the relevant literature to understand the effect of culture on the perception of the self. The concept of self-construal was initially defined by Markus and Kitayama (1991) to explain the relationship between the self and others with the degree to which individuals see themselves as connected with others and separated from others. According to this definition, self-construal describes how a person perceives themselves with others and forms a set of feelings, thoughts, and actions based on the connection with or separation from other individuals (Markus

& Kitayama, 1991). Singelis (1994) also used self-construal as the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors concerning an individual's relationships with others and the self as distinct from other people.

Self-construal is crucial in analyzing an individual's cognitive structure about how they view themselves or others in a social context (Cross, Morris, & Gore, 2002). Considering it as an individual-level cultural orientation, self-construal is generally used to understand the effects of culture on social behaviors. It is developed based on comparing individualistic and collectivistic dimensions of culture, drawing on Hofstede's work (1984). Based on the difference between individualist and collectivist cultures, different types of the self are conceptualized by societies (Triandis et al., 1988).

In Turkey, Kağıtçıbaşı proposed a new self-construct framework by suggesting that interpersonal distance and agency are two distinct dimensions that enable the "self" to develop as both relational and autonomous (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996). One can integrate agency and interpersonal distance and develop a self that can either be heteronomous separate, autonomous separate, heteronomous related, or autonomous related depending upon the child-rearing and parenting style of the family in which one is included (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996, 2005). More specifically, the heteronomous-separate self is low in both relatedness and autonomy; the autonomous-separate self is high in autonomy but low in relatedness; the heteronomous-related self is high in relatedness but low in autonomy; and the autonomous-related self is high in both relatedness and autonomy (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005).

In general, independent self-construals (represents independent self which focuses on personal goals, needs, and rights) and interdependent self-construal (refers to interdependent selves which focus on commonality) have been recognized in every person, and individuals have both these tendencies to some extent, while one of them may be more effective on behaviors and attitudes (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2013; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Utz (2004) found that individuals primed with interdependent self-construal exhibit higher levels of cooperation in social dilemmas than those with independent self-construal. Likewise, individuals with a more interdependent self-construal were more likely to engage in helping behaviors (Yong Seo & Scammon, 2014). In organizations, individuals' interdependent self-construals seem crucial for associating coworker relationship quality and prosocial behaviors.

The present study aims to go beyond a simple independent-interdependent self-dichotomy by investigating the different combinations of age, gender, and self-construals. For example, a subdivision of the independent self may lead to identifying consistent gender differences (see Kashima, Yamaguchi, Kim, Choi, Gelfand, & Yuki, 1995 for a further review). Cross and Madson (1997) showed the likely consequences of gender differences in self-construal concerning the independent-interdependent self-

dichotomy, such as motivation, self-enhancement, and emotional response. Relatedly, Fung, Isaacowitz, Lu, & Li, (2010) found the age-related negativity reduction effect was attenuated among older, more interdependent Chinese individuals. Based on the evidence respecting the effect of the interplay between age, gender, and self-construals on psychological processes, and previous research on the role of age, gender, and self-construals on interpersonal relationships and prosociality, the following hypothesis is formed in the current research.

Hypothesis 2: Age, gender, and self-construals jointly moderate the relationship between coworker relationships and POB.

The proposed research model is given below:

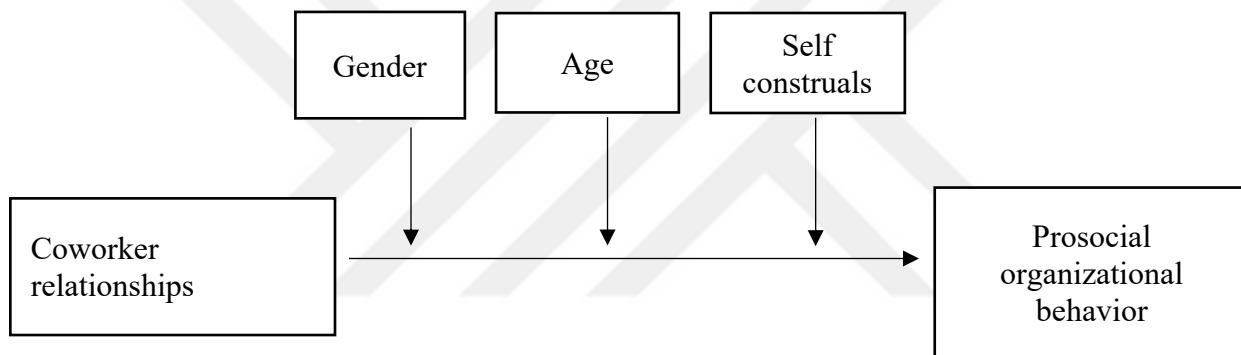


Figure 4. The Research Model of Chapter 4

4.5. Method

4.5.1. Instruments

With the scope of this research, three different scales were used to measure the variables of Chapter 4. Those three scales used within the study were measured with a six-point Likert scale ranging from *1=strongly disagree/ always* to *6=strongly agree/ never*.

The questionnaire consists of two sections demographic factors and the scales used in the study. Participants' gender, age, education level, work experience, and tenure in the current workplace were asked. The questionnaire was in online and paper form (see Appendix E, for the structure). Since the questionnaire was also distributed in paper form, two questions were placed randomly in the questionnaire to understand that the participants were reading the items and were giving attention. An example of the item that searches

for the participants' attention: "*If you are reading this item, please select 6. Always*". All measures of the study are explained briefly as follows.

Prosocial organizational behavior. The POB scale that was developed in Chapter 3 was used.

Self-construal. The self-construal scale (Singelis, 1994) measures independent and interdependent self-construals. Wasti and Erdil (2007) adapted the scale into Turkish. The scale consists of 15 items for interdependent self-construal (e.g., "Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid an argument") and 15 for independent self-construal (e.g., "I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects"). Cronbach's alpha scores were found for .63 and .72 for independent and interdependent self-construals, respectively (Wasti & Erdil, 2007). In another research, alpha coefficients were found to be .70 for independent self-construals and .71 for interdependent self-construals (Alper, 2016).

Coworker relationships. The same scale was used in Chapter 3 (i.e., workplace relationship scale; Hain, 2005; Çoban, 2020).

4.5.2. Participants

A convenience sampling method was applied. Participants were from different sectors, such as information technologies, e-commerce, and education. A total of 364 questionnaires were answered by people working in private sector organizations in Turkey, and the sample consisted of 344 people for the analyses. 20 people needed to be eliminated since they answered the attention question incorrectly. It was concluded that they did not read the item. Therefore, their results could not be trusted for the further analyses.

Table 16 shows that 179 participants were female and 162 were male. The mean age was 29.30 ($SD= 5.51$).

Table 16. Participants' Demographics

Demographics	<i>n</i>	%
Gender		
Male	162	46.95
Female	179	51.88
Not want to specify	2	.58
Missing	2	.58
Work experience		
Less than one year	23	6.66
1-5 years	176	51.01

5-10 years	90	26.08
More than 10 years	54	15.65
Missing	2	.58
Education Level		
Vocational school	10	2.9
University	229	66.8
Master	93	27.1
PhD	11	3.2

4.6. Results

4.6.1. Factor and Reliability Analyses of Prosocial Organizational Behavior Scale

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to validate the five-factor solution of the POB scale provided in the principal component factor analysis of Chapter 3. Model fit indices showed a marginal fit. Therefore, minor model modifications were performed to develop a better-fitting model. Two covariances were added based on modification indices and theoretical relevance (residual covariance between item 4 and item 5 and between item 1 and item 3). The model significantly improved and indicated a marginal fit where $X^2 (140, n = 344) = 420.736$, CFI = .90, GFI = .98, TLI = .88, NFI = .86, RMSEA = .07. CFA results can be seen in Table 16. The reliability of the whole POB scale was found as .89.

Table 17. The CFA Results of Prosocial Organizational Behavior Scale

Model	X^2	df	p	GFI	TLI	NFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Five Factor Solution	420.736	140	.000	.98	.88	.86	.07	.006

Table 18. Prosocial Organizational Behavior Scale- Means and Standard Deviations of the Items

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
POB1	3.20	1.38
POB2	4.14	1.07
POB3	4.28	1.18
POB4	4.71	1.09
POB5	4.67	1.07
POB6	5.05	1.07
POB7	5.19	0.94
POB8	3.84	1.21
POB9	4.09	1.07
POB10	4.12	1.20
POB11	4.99	1.09

POB12	2.97	1.33
POB13	3.73	1.60
POB14	2.99	1.58
POB15	4.31	1.21
POB16	4.62	1.10
POB17	4.87	1.07
POB18	4.66	1.19
POB19	4.65	1.15

Note. POB=prosocial organizational behavior

Using the principal component method, EFA was applied to identify the items for all scales used in the current study and reach a reliable conclusion before the hypothesis testing. Then, CFA was applied with the data from all participants to examine the construction of the workplace relationship and self-construals scales and construct validity. Therefore, a second-order measurement model was tested to determine whether each measurement item would load significantly onto the scale with which they were associated (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

4.6.2. Factor and Reliability Analyses of Workplace Relationships Scale

In parallel with the previous evidence that showed the one-factor structure of the workplace relationship scale, one factor emerged after the current analysis (KMO = .87, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity= 1128.63, $p < .001$). Also, the reliability of the whole scale was unveiled as .90.

Table 19. EFA Results of Workplace Relationships Scale

Item	Factor Loading
WR3	.88
WR5	.88
WR1	.85
WR4	.84
WR2	.84
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = .871	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square = 1128.633	
$df = 10$	
$p < .001$	

Note. WR= workplace relationship

A CFA was implemented to validate the one factorial structure of the workplace relationship scale. The one-factor solution model was found as a good fit without any modification $X^2(10, n = 344) = 47.721$, CFI = .96, GFI = .99, TLI = .92, NFI = .95, RMSEA = .01. Results are depicted in Table 20.

Table 20. The CFA Results of Workplace Relationships Scale

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>GFI</i>	<i>TLI</i>	<i>NFI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>SRMR</i>
One Factor Solution	47.721	10	.000	.99	.92	.95	.01	0.03

4.6.3. Factor and Reliability Analyses of Self- Construal Scale

While the self-construal scale has been used among researchers (Hardin, Leong, & Bhagwat, 2004; Levine, Bresnahan, Park, Lapinski, Wittenbaum, Shearman, Lee, Chung, & Ohashi, 2003), additional analyses were recommended to reveal the scale's reliability and validity. During EFA with the principal component method, items 1, 2, 3, 5, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 22, 23, and 21 were excluded. Four dimensions were unveiled and renamed based on their theoretical relevance. More specifically, the interdependent and independent self-construal framework was kept but divided into two based on the factorial structure. Interdependent self-construals included the items as externally focused interdependent self-construal 1 and externally committed- interdependent self-construal 2. In contrast, independent self-construal was divided under integrity-independent self-construal 1 and autonomy-independent self-construal 2. The factorial loadings and details are shown in Table 21.

Table 21. EFA Results of Self Construals Scale

	Factor Loading			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1 Externally focused-Interdependent SC1				
SC28	.78	.13	-.12	.11
SC26	.78	.09	.15	.07
SC4	.70	.04	.03	-.13
Factor 2 Externally committed-Interdependent SC2				
SC16	-.07	.71	.06	-.15
SC21	.19	.71	-.07	-.02
SC17	.13	.69	.11	.07
Factor 3 Integrity-Independent SC1				
SC29	.08	.03	.85	-.04
SC20	-.02	.07	.83	.16
Factor 4 Autonomy-Independent SC2				
SC7	-.05	-.01	.12	.83
SC27	.08	-.08	.00	.82
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy= .607				
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square= 424.426				
df= 45				
p < .001				

Note. SC= self-construal

A CFA was applied to validate the four factorial structures of the self-construal scale. During the analyses, item 21 had a fit with the factor 4-autonomy-independent self-construals 1. Therefore, it is used as a reverse coded item for the fourth factor rather than its factor loading on EFA, which was located under factor 2-externally commitment interdependent self-construal. Overall, model fit indices showed a marginal fit. Based on theoretical relevance and modification indices, three covariances were added (residual covariance between item 28 and item 21; between item 7 and item 27; between item 27 and item 28). The model was significantly improved and indicated a good model fit where $X^2(26, n= 344) = 48.199$, $CFI = .94$, $GFI = .99$, $TLI = .90$, $NFI = .89$, $RMSEA = .05$. CFA results can be seen in Table 22.

Table 22. The CFA Results of Self-Construals Scale

Model	X^2	df	p	GFI	TLI	NFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Four Factor Solution	48.199	26	.05	.99	.90	.89	.50	.004

Table 23. Self-Construals Scale- Means and Standard Deviations of the Items

Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
SC26	4.71	0.94
SC28	4.78	0.92
SC4	4.56	1.06
SC16	3.00	1.34
SC17	2.91	1.26
SC20	3.96	1.37
SC29	3.71	1.42
SC27	5.06	0.91
SC7	4.94	1.03
SC21	3.34	1.28

Note. SC= self-construal

4.6.4. Correlation Analysis

Pearson correlation analysis was performed with the main variables to see the relations among the concepts of the research model. For theoretical reasons, independent self-construal and interdependent self-construals were added as different variables. Descriptive statistics and correlation coefficients for all variables are displayed in Table 23.

Results indicate that the main variables are significantly related to each other except for independent self-construal and interdependent self-construal. The correlation between POB and coworker relationships is significantly moderate and positive ($r = .55, p < .01$), while independent self-construal has a weak correlation ($r = .23, p < .01$) with POB. In addition to the main variables, all the correlations among all the sub-dimensions were checked.

Coworker relationships showed a higher correlation with POB4 ($r = .54, p < .01$). External focus-interdependent self-construals have a moderate correlation with POB1 ($r = .32, p < .01$). Autonomy-independent self-construal showed weak significant correlation with POB2 ($r = .195, p < .01$). The details are shown in Table 24.

Table 24. Means, standard deviations, and correlations among main study variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4
1.POB	4.27	.71				
2.CWR	4.69	.98	.55***			
3.Independent Self Construal	4.14	.72	.34***	.32***		
4.Interdependent Self Construal	3.82	.68	.23***	.20***	.06	

Note. POB=prosocial organizational behavior, CWR=coworker relationships
 $p < .05^*$, $p < .01^{**}$, $p < .001^{***}$

Table 25. Means, standard deviations, and correlations among sub-dimensions

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. POB1	4.09	.83										
2. POB2	4.49	.82	.47**									
3. POB3	3.76	.98	.70**	.44**								
4. POB4	4.61	.98	.67**	.52**	.61**							
5. POB5	5.12	.95	.34**	.39**	.30**	.45**						
6. externalfocus	4.69	.74	.32**	.26**	.24**	.30**	.24**					
7. externalcommitment	2.95	1.02	.17*	.12*	.11*	.19**	.09	.22**				
8. integrity	3.84	1.19	.23**	.23**	.14	.14	.08	.06	.11*			
9. autonomy	4.44	.67	.07	.19**	.01	.01	.04	.04	-.09	.13*		
10. CWR	4.69	.98	.47**	.34**	.39**	.54**	.37**	.41**	.12*	.23**	.05	

Note. POB=prosocial organizational behavior, CWR=coworker relationships
 $p < .05^*$, $p < .01^{**}$, $p < .001^{***}$

4.7. Hypothesis Testings

4.7.1. Simple Regression

After the correlation analyses, a simple regression analysis was applied to examine the effect of coworker relationships on POB. The result of regression analysis demonstrated that coworker relationships have a positive and significant contribution to prosocial behaviors in organizations ($\beta = .40$, $p < .001$, $F(1,342) = 149$). It can be concluded that coworker relationships contribute to and predict employee prosocial behaviors. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Table 26. The Effect of Coworker Relationships to Prosocial Organizational Behaviors

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	p
Constant	2.40	.16	15.4	.000**
Coworker relationships	0.40	.33	12.2	.000**

$p < .05^*$, $p < .01^{**}$, $p < .001^{***}$

4.7.2. Moderation Analyses

As argued in the hypotheses section of this chapter, individuals' self-construals (interdependent vs independent), gender, and age both independently and interactionally, can play a moderator role between coworker relationships and POB. Moderator variables have a critical role on the relationship between independent and dependent variables since they can either strengthen or weaken the relationship (Field, 2009). Furthermore, the moderator variable with an interaction effect on the dependent variable might change the direction between the variables. For this reason, multiple regression analyses were performed to reveal the interaction effects.

To test the second hypothesis, the moderating role of age, gender, and self-construals on the relationship between coworker relationships and POB was analyzed distinctly. Since previous research reveals the role of individual determinants on prosociality, it was assumed that this might be important to reveal possible individual-level differences that change the direction and the magnitude (i.e., strengthen or weaken) of the association between coworker relationships and POB. The interaction between coworker relationships and age was not significant ($p = .206$). For this reason, it can be concluded that employees' age did not have a moderating role between coworker relationships and POB. Likewise, no significant interaction effect was found between gender and coworker relationships ($p = .534$). Gender, age, and self-

construals did not have a moderating role on the coworker relationships and POB when examined distinctly. Their possible interaction combination was also tested by following the intersectionality perspective (Cole, 2019; Crenshaw, 1989). The interaction between independent self-construals and age did not moderate the relationship between coworker relationships and POB ($p > .69$). Similar insignificant results revealed when examining the moderating role of the intersection between women's age and interdependent self-construals ($p > .79$), woman's age with independent self-construal, men's age with independent self-construal ($p > .72$), and men's age with interdependent self-construal ($p > .81$). Likewise, the role of being a younger or older women did not moderate the relationship between coworker relationships and POB ($p > .96$), the similar results were found for being an older men vs young men ($p > .84$). Nevertheless, men's independent self-construal was influential on the link between coworker relationships and POB ($p < .00$). When men's independent self-construals are lower, the effect of coworker relationships on POB gets strengthened in a positive manner ($\beta = .48, p < .01$; see Figure 5). On the contrary, men's interdependent self-construals did not moderate the association between coworker relationships and POB. Regarding self-construals intersection with gender, women's independent self-construals had also a moderating role between coworker relationships and POB ($p < .001$). Unlike men's independent self-construals, the link between coworker relationships and POB was strengthened when women had higher independent self-construals ($\beta = .49, p < .00$, see Figure 6). In contrast, women's interdependent self-construal did not have a moderating role in the link between coworker relationships and POB ($p > .13$).

Figure 5. Moderation of Men's Independent Self-Construals on POB

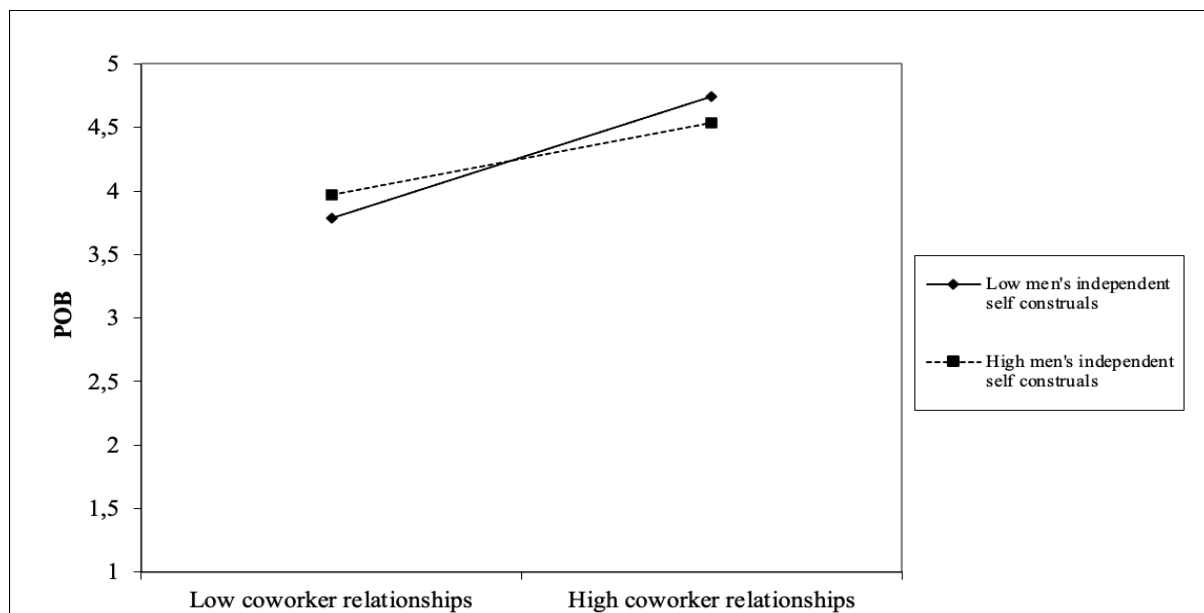
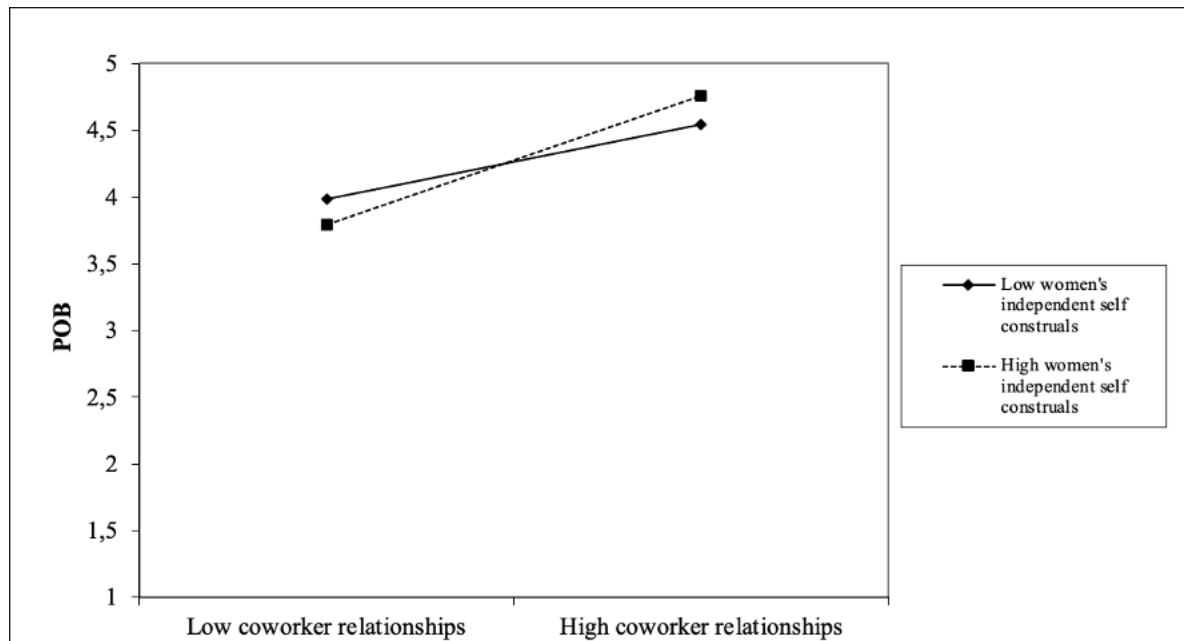


Figure 6. Moderation of Women's Independent Self-Construals on POB



4.8. Additional Analyses

One-way ANOVA tests were performed to test whether the study variables differ depending on education, gender, total experience in work life, and total current organization experience. Results showed that coworker relationships, self construals, and POB did not differ depending on gender, educational level, total experience in work life, and tenure in the organization.

4.9. Findings and Discussion

The current chapter has some theoretical and managerial conclusions. First, the factorial structure POB scale developed in Chapter 3 was validated through CFA. As mentioned in the results, the model showed a marginal fit with some minor revisions based on modification indices.

Other scale structures were also checked before the hypothesis testing to reveal their validity and reliability for the current sample and with the newly developed scale. According to the EFA and the following CFA, the factorial structure of workplace relationships scale that measured the quality of coworker relationships was the same as with the previous usings (Hain, 2005).

However, the self- construals scale items had a different factorial structure than its suggested version, and 12 items were excluded during the first EFA because of their loadings. While many researchers used this scale before, there have been critics about the possible invalid and unreliable structure of the scale in several social contexts (Wasti & Erdil, 2007). Thereby, the EFA of the current research unveiled four sub-dimensions of the self-construal scale: externally focused, externally committed, integrity, and autonomy based on the relevant theory of self-construals (Singelis, 1994). The four dimensions were grouped as externally focused interdependent self-construal 1 and externally committed- interdependent self-construal 2. Independent self-construal was divided under integrity-independent self-construal 1 and autonomy-independent self-construal 2.

Interestingly, this findings and novel grouping of self-construal aligns with Oyserman and colleagues' (2002) argument that the self-construal scale might have a hierarchical structure consisting of the autonomous and relational self and its sub-dimensions. Accordingly, autonomy/assertiveness, individualism, behavioral consistency, and the consistency of the individual are sub-dimensions of the autonomy-independent self-construals dimension. Relational dependence and respect for the group were defined as the expansions of the relationality-interdependent self-construal dimension. Similarly, Wasti and Erdil (2007) also suggested that contexts and groups should be evaluated by using the self-construal scales and pursuing assumptions of two-dimensionality (i.e., independent and interdependent self-construals).

Besides factor analyses, several linear regression analyses were utilized to test the hypotheses. As the first hypothesis assumed that coworker relationships predict individuals' prosocial behaviors in organizations, findings revealed a moderate magnitude correlation between coworker relationships and POB. More specifically, POB can be significantly predicted by coworker relationships and the role of workplace relationships (e.g., workplace friendship) on prosociality-related behaviors (e.g., OCB) can be assumed by following the current evidence.

While testing the effect of individual characteristics, age, gender, and self-construals did not moderate the association between coworker relationships and POB. As assumed by the second hypothesis, gender and self-construals interacted in a specific manner to determine the link between coworker relationships and POB. It was revealed that if the employee is a man and has a lower independent self-construal, the effect of coworker relationships on POB would be more; on the contrary, if women employees have higher independent self-construals, they may be affected by the coworker relationship quality more than the women who are low in independent self-construals. These findings are important to show the intersectionality of self-construals with gender roles. Women who are high in independent self- construals

may benefit from their workplace relationships more. As reciprocity, they behave for the benefit of other employees in work since they may not feel obligation to their social groups as they are high in independent self-construal. However, a higher level of independent self-construal affects men's interpersonal perceptions and social and organizational behaviors. These findings are in line with the previous literature that suggests gender differences in self-construal experiences. For example, research has argued that women and men differ in their cognitive representations of relational and collective groups (Foels & Tomcho, 2009). Nonetheless, it seems that age does not have a role in the intersection of self-construals and gender. Thus, the second hypothesis is partially supported.

CHAPTER 5: PROSOCIAL ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIORS: A NEW PERSPECTIVE FOR MEASUREMENT AND EXPLANATIONS

5.1. Implications of the Findings for Organizational Behavior and Psychology

In summary, this thesis builds upon the emic research perspective and previous literature on prosociality in organizations by particularly proposing a POB conceptualization, measurement, and the determinants of these behaviors. Among many potential beneficiaries of POB in an organizational context, the present study has focused on prosocial behaviors that benefits other organizational members because of the importance of interpersonal dynamics in the workplace. Thus far, POB that focuses on other employees has been examined in the current research. There are several implications of the findings which are worthy of pointing out. In this section, theoretical and practical implications will be discussed.

The presence and varieties of prosocial behaviors in organizations: Understanding employee behaviors is one of the priorities of the relevant management and psychology studies since organizational behaviors influence businesses and other people in every aspect of life. Compared to other concepts, prosociality is open to discussion and its relevance in the work setting (Bolino & Grant, 2016). Individuals tend to engage in many behaviors to benefit others. Prosocial organizational behaviors can be extensive, from helping someone's work to getting a beverage to a coworker. Hence, there are many types of POB (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Bülbül, 2013; Grant & Ashford, 2008).

Prosocial behaviors can be formed with many antecedents (Batson & Powell, 2003; Gülseven et al., 2020; Poulin et al., 2021; Tian et al., 2018) and lead to several consequences (Davila & Finkelstein, 2013; Ranjhan & Mallick, 2018). This shows the multidimensional nature of prosociality. Individuals try to benefit others in organizations for many reasons, including trying to get advantage from it or altruistically aiding a person at work. However, attention also should be given to the consequences since this may harm

the person who does the behavior (i.e., they can be abused for their good intentions), or the benefactor does not demand any of these behaviors, which may lead to crossing the personal boundaries.

The need for reconsider prosociality conceptualizations in organization: While several critics and disagreements have emerged in the OCB literature (e.g., the extra-role nature of OCB and whether it is unrewarded), researchers usually focused on OCB as a prosocial behavior in organizations (Bolino & Grant, 2006). These researches chose their assessment tool accordingly (e.g., Wan, Carlson, Quade, & Kacmar, 2022).

Organ (1997) redefined OCB by dropping the discretionary depiction and described OCB as the supportive behaviors for the psychological and social context of the organization. Likewise, there are many different views about the number of OCB dimensions (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Williams & Anderson, 1991), conceptualizing OCB as a unitary or multidimensional concept (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002), and the advantages of examining OCB-related terms such as helping and taking the initiative (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). It is crucial for research on prosocial behavior to review OCB and prosociality literature to get to know the discussions and the possible scope of prosociality. This study calls attention to this issue by reviewing the studies on prosociality.

Research has used prosociality with positive aspects, such as positive organizational behavior literature used it as a positive employee behavior (Kanten & Yeşiltaş, 2013). However, other types of POB (e.g., proactive behaviors, including voice) also occur in organizations that may not always be favorable for every stakeholder. Likewise, organizational researchers usually fail to characterize prosocial behaviors explicitly since some may increase particular parties' welfare. It is recommended that researchers should specialize in one specific form of prosocial behavior to reach an understanding of prosociality in organizations (Bülbül, 2013). For example, pro-environmental organizational behaviors (Francoeur, Paillé, Yuriev, & Boiral, 2021) and POB seems conceptually different since they capture different behaviors and attitudes. Based on the current findings, the necessity of revealing novel conceptualizations for prosocial behaviors targeting specific organizational stakeholders can be concluded.

The costs and benefits of using broad labels (e.g., prosocial behavior) or specific labels (e.g., employee helping behavior): Due to the reason that conceptualizations have critical implications for a research design, including data analysis, measurement, and theoretical background, considering redefining prosocial behaviors in the organizational framework can be helpful for a simple construct cleaning. Some prosocial behaviors, like taking the initiative for other employees, should be categorized differently than behaviors like protecting the image of a company and showing a positive attitude to the clients (Bülbül,

2013). Therefore, broadening but limiting the scope and focus of prosocial behaviors in the organization is crucial to deepen the general understanding of its antecedents and outcomes and develop a theoretically and practically accurate conceptualization of these behaviors. This has substantial implications for measuring prosocial behavior.

Social context as an influential determinative factor: Several prosocial behaviors can be context-dependent as concluded in the current evidences. Context may represent various factors, including occupational group, sector, and society. This study proposes an emic conceptualization for the employees working in private sector organizations in Turkey. Some previous research has also particularly demonstrated context-specific citizenship behaviors (Farh, Zhong, & Organ, 2004). Different behaviors can emerge because the context influence requires researchers to replicate previous findings and research other organizational behaviors.

The need for prosocial organizational behavior measurement: As it can be derived mainly from the present research, prosociality does not mean citizenship behavior, extra-role behaviors, or any other behaviors that are used to give benefit others in an organizational context. POBs may involve all of these, but they can be more than these depending on the context. Hence, measuring prosocial behaviors should be based on an appropriate conceptualization rather than traditional OCB scales. Also, as some examples of the prosocial scales adaptation showed different dimensions compared to their originals (e.g., Bayraktar et al., 2010), measuring a behavior can be highly affected by the culture in that this behavior is engaged. Thus, a measurement method based on emic findings can show more relevant results for research models and related organizational practices.

While the development of scales using emic approaches should be highlighted, and the current analyses proved that the POB scale is valid and reliable, more evidence is needed to understand its relevance for the private sector organizations in Turkey. Nevertheless, this scale can be used as mass testing to reveal individuals' prosocial behaviors concerning the relevant occupation (e.g., psychotherapists, nurses, and sales workers). Also, as it was discussed by Brief and Motowidlo (1986) and in the previous chapters, prosocial behaviors do not necessarily stick to the role descriptions. Some may be the necessary behaviors to perform a job and related duties. The POB scale has many facets including extra-role prosocial behaviors as a sub-dimension, and selecting the best-fit factors and items can provide insight for future research models.

While POB scale was developed by adopting an emic approach, that is developing a model based on the private sector organizations of Turkey, this scale can work in other collectivist societies' private

sector organization workers or public sector employees. Questionnaires can be shortened and made more relevant to the job and context by selecting just the relevant sub-dimensions from the POB scale. Researchers can also utilize the whole POB scale pool to develop context-specific scales that can be used to predict various criteria of interest. Nonetheless, this scale has a relatively less number of items. POB is a user-friendly test for many research models that needed to be continued for examination in future research.

This research collected data from two samples to understand the scale's psychometric properties (i.e., reliability and validity). This is the study's strength, as most studies use the same participants and sample as the source for both EFA and CFA.

The need for culturally relevant organizational and social behavior research: Behaviors may differ across countries (Hofstede, 1984). These results indicate that, at a general level, context-specific prosocial behaviors in private organizations in Turkey. Relatedly, according to an extended range of cultural research, one's self-descriptions and patterns are related to sociocultural norms (Singelis, 1994). The variances between behaviors and the factors affecting interpersonal dynamics are vital in collectivist and individualist cultural tendencies. One's sociocultural tendency would affect prosocial behaviors in social contexts.

Importance of relationship factors on prosocial behaviors: Following the first hypothesis testing of Chapter 3, the effect of coworker relationships on POB was revealed. A coworker does not necessarily mean workplace friendship or a teammate. Instead, it refers to people working together primarily by holding equal hierarchical status in the organization. Coworkers can be in the same department and have a work schedule associated with each other, or they might work in different divisions (Sias & Shin, 2019). Whether being friends or not, behaving for the benefit of others can be influenced by the quality of relationships among other individuals with the same authority and power (i.e., holding the same status in the organizational hierarchy).

Practical implications should offer new insights for developing organizational interventions related to the prosociality literature. Current findings emphasize that coworker relationship is vital for enhancing prosocial behaviors—interventions to increase interpersonal relationship quality matter. On the contrary, organizational management should also consider not pushing employees to the things they do not want. For example, some behaviors may be just waited from people whom employees develop informal relations (e.g., taking care of others and getting advice from a coworker). Thus, context should be regarded to understand prosocial behaviors in organizations.

Gendered independent self and its effect on workplace relationships and prosocial behaviors:

As it was argued in the previous literature (e.g., Kashima et al., 1995), one can mention the gender of self. More specifically, independent self-construal had different effects on women's and men's POB. Women with higher independent self-construal get benefit from coworker relationships more, and this lead to POB. On the other hand, male employees with lower independent self-construal can be affected by the coworker relationship quality more, which leads to benefiting others at work.

Practices for ensuring interpersonal relationship quality should be increased and be diversified according to the interpersonal dynamics of the organizations. Thus, the climate and workforce demographics should be understood clearly before making plans. While age and gender did not interact as a moderating variable on the link between coworker relationships and POB, independent self-construals interacted with gender as a moderating variable on the established association between coworkers relationship quality and POB. Organizational plans and procedures need to consider employees' needs and wishes in this manner. For example, they may not benefit from social events before developing behaviors like POB.

5.2. Limitations and Future Recommendations

Future research should overcome several limitations of the current research. First, while self-reported scales used in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 are suitable for the adult sample, a multi-method approach can show how self-reported behaviors can be consistent with other organizational members' assessments of prosociality (e.g., coworker and manager ratings). Since it may be reasonable to expect people to overestimate their prosocial behavior, controlling social desirability in future research is beneficial. Prosocial behaviors are usually desirable because they benefit other people. Therefore, individuals are more likely to report the experiences that they consider as socially acceptable.

Regarding the findings of some nonsignificant and unloaded factors, it is unlikely that the value of any specific loading is utterly zero due to some specific characteristic of the current samples. Future research can check the values of the nonsignificant factor loadings with a higher sample size. In particular, reaching a wide range of age groups would be important to unveil age roles in the hypothesized relationships. The present research needs to be more extensive in reaching different age intervals. This may change the factorial structure of the newly proposed scale. For example, collecting data from different segments (i.e., low, middle, and high socio-economic) and age groups may reveal collectivist POB, which was extracted during principal factor analysis.

Moreover, subsequent research can consider testing specific factors of the POB scale to propose different prosocial behavior types and their relations with several organizational, relational, and individual determinants to understand undiscovered organizational behaviors better.

Despite all these limitations, this study represents a step forward in assessing prosocial behaviors from an emic perspective. In terms of emic and qualitative research, a POB approach was provided based on real-world examples. As grounded theory assumes that a behavior is only understood by the subjects who experience it (Corbin & Strauss, 2008), the participants can always make some distortions. Another qualitative study can be conducted with a different sample of private sector workers of organizations with different methods, such as focus groups and observation.

Regarding hypothesis testing, longitudinal data and another cross-sectional research with a more sample may be beneficial to test the supported hypotheses. Additional intersectionalities (e.g., status) can affect coworker relationships and POB differently. Besides coworker relationships, the relationships with superiors can expand the knowledge about the scope that this thesis focused on (i.e., the influence of workplace relationships on POB) with different intersectionality of personal characteristics.

Importantly, future studies with samples from different countries and cultures provide a comparative perspective on prosocial behaviors, antecedents, and consequences. A possible cross-cultural emic qualitative study would be interesting to reveal some differences and similarities of prosociality in organizations. As a limitation, the current study did not reveal possible online POB. Examples like increasing hybrid working styles and virtual teams made understanding employees' digital behaviors necessary. Less is known regarding individuals' prosocial behaviors when working remotely. Future research may examine this by considering different occupations (e.g., software engineers) and sectors.

Moreover, evidence is needed to test other prosocial behaviors focusing on many organizational stakeholders. Novel conceptualizations are important to understand prosocial behavior that targets specific organizational stakeholders. Following sustainability concerns, POB that focuses environment (Francoeur et al., 2021) should be examined by considering cultural and social psychological aspects. Therefore, showing and broadening the scope of POB seems beneficial to deepen the understanding of the nature of those behaviors and their effects on the surroundings, including other people, management, organizational dynamics, and even the environment.

As independent self-construal is effective in understanding the link between coworker relationships and POB, understanding the role of self-construals is crucial by considering team structures and workplace dynamics (e.g., competitive and individualism-oriented working climates). Evidence also may highlight the

impact of organizational demography (e.g., Pfeffer, 1983) on the association between coworker relationships, self-construals, and POB.

Besides prosociality discussions, since self-construals scale worked differently than their general measurement and assumption tendencies, future research may use the recommended factorial and sub-dimensional structure of the self-construals measurement of this study. It would be important to see the workability of the newly proposed independent and interdependent self-construals of individuals in Turkey. Also, this study has not included diversity factors other than gender and age when investigating intersectionality. This may be a limitation that future examinations can integrate. For example, the conceptualization of in-group and out-group dynamics, culture, and social identities that affect many personal characteristics can be examined with interpersonal relationships and prosocial behaviors in organizations to reach knowledge about many different angles of social relationships and prosociality at work.

In line with the current arguments, future research can adopt a similar emic study for antisocial behaviors in organizations that can be defined as harming individuals and other stakeholders at work. Research models can simultaneously test antisocial and prosocial behaviors in organizations as dependent variables. As mentioned before, these behaviors can focus on many stakeholders. Following an emic perspective, a mixed-method approach can be used in future research designs.

According to the results of the ANOVA, demographics did not matter for people's overall POB, self-construals, and coworker relationships. This finding still may differ in other samples. Nevertheless, it should be tested with different social groups and work contexts to understand the possible effect of personal factors on the outcomes before reaching a comprehensive result. Finally, as emic findings provided many antecedents and consequences for POB of private sector workers in Turkey, future quantitative studies may test these factors in a research model. Also, the determinants like "social and organizational commitment" and "personal risks" might be conceptualized and tested in additional research as the antecedents of POB with other possible variables.

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-

APPENDIX A- INTERVIEW- INFORMED CONSENT

Sayın katılımcı,

Bu araştırma, Marmara Üniversitesi Örgütsel Davranış doktora öğrencisi Serin İşıaık tarafından Prof. Dr. Seçil Bülbül danışmanlığında bir doktora tez çalışması olarak yürütülmektedir (Marmara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Etik Kurulu Onay Protokol No: 2022-1/5). Bu çalışmanın amacı çalışanların işyerlerindeki yardım etme davranışlarını anlamaktır. Bu araştırmada bize yardımcı olmanız için sizi de davet ediyoruz. Kararınızdan önce araştırma hakkında sizi bilgilendirmek istiyoruz.

Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz takdirde sizlerle yaklaşık 30-35 dakika süren çevrimiçi bir görüşme yapacağız. Görüşmede, sizlere sadece araştırmaya yönelik sorular yöneltilecektir. Bu araştırma, bilimsel bir amaçla yapılmaktadır ve katılımcı bilgilerinin gizliliği esas tutulmaktadır. Görüşme sırasında sizlerden isim-soy isim ve çalıştığınız yer gibi kişisel bilgilerinizi paylaşmanız istenmeyecektir. Video ve ses kayıtları araştırma projemiz süresince iki şifreyle korunan bir ortamda muhafaza edilip sadece araştırmacı tarafından erişilebilecek ve bilimsel bir yöntemle değerlendirilecek olup araştırma sona erdiğinde silineceklerdir.

Bu araştırmaya katılmak tamamen isteğe bağlıdır. Katıldığınız takdirde çalışmanın herhangi bir aşamasında herhangi bir sebep göstermeden onayınızı çekmek ve araştırmadan ayrılma hakkına da sahipsiniz. Araştırma projesi hakkında ek bilgi almak istediğiniz takdirde sorumlu araştırmacıya aşağıdaki irtibat bilgilerinden ulaşabilirsiniz.

Eğer bu araştırma projesine katılmasını kabul ediyorsanız, lütfen aşağıdaki kutucuğu işaretleyiniz.

Ben, yukarıdaki metni okudum ve katılmam istenen çalışmanın kapsamını ve amacını, gönüllü olarak üzerime düşen sorumlulukları tamamen anladım. Çalışma hakkında soru sorma imkanı buldum. Bu çalışmayı istediğim zaman ve herhangi bir neden belirtmek zorunda kalmadan bırakabileceğimi ve bıraktığım takdirde herhangi bir olumsuzluk ile karşılaşmayacağımı anladım. Bu koşullarda söz konusu araştırmaya kendi isteğimle, hiçbir baskı ve zorlama olmaksızın katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Formun bir örneğini aldım / almak istemiyorum (bu durumda araştırmacı bu kopyayı saklar).

Araştırmacının Adı-Soyadı: Serin İşıaık

Tarih (gün/ay/yıl):

İletişim Bilgileri:

Serin İşıaık (Marmara Üniversitesi-Örgütsel Davranış Doktora Öğrencisi, FMV Işık Üniversitesi, İktisadi, İdari ve Sosyal Bilimler Fakültesi, Psikoloji Bölümü Araştırma Görevlisi)

APPENDIX B- INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Mülakat Soruları

Bir çalışma ortamında gün içerisinde, çalışanların, birlikte çalıştıkları kişilerin iyiliğine ve yararına yönelik çeşitli davranışlar sergiledikleri bilinmektedir.

1)Peki, bir iş ortamında diğer bireylerin yararına davranmak ifadesi size hangi davranışları çağrıştırmaktadır, siz kendi çalışma ortamınızda ne gibi davranışlar gözlemlemektesiniz, bu davranışlara örnekler verebilir misiniz?

2)İş yerinde birlikte çalıştığınız birinin yararına davrandığınız bir zamanı düşünün. Bundan kısaca bahseder misiniz?

****Olay neydi? Olay öncesi, sonrası ve sonrasında neler düşündünüz ve hissettiniz? Nasıl davrandınız? Sonunda fayda sağladınız mı?**

3)İşyerlerinde başkasının yararına davranışlar sergilemek sizce karşı tarafa fayda sağlama amacı dışında başka hangi amaçlarla yapılabilir? Bir başka deyişle, genel olarak bakıldığında bu davranışlar hangi duygu ve düşüncelerle ilişkili olabilir?

Prompting ifadeler: Kişisel fayda sağlamak, arkadaşlığı güçlendirmek vs.

4)Birlikte çalıştığınız biri tarafından yapılan ve size fayda getiren bir davranış düşünün. Bu davranıştan kısaca bahseder misiniz? Olay neydi? Kişi bu davranışı neden yaptı? Sonunda kendisi bir fayda sağladı mı?

5)Bir kişi, işinde, arkadaş grubunda veya toplumda ayrıca ödüllendirilmeyeceğini bildiği halde çalıştığı ortamda başkasının yararına hangi davranışları sergileyebilir?

6) Bir çalışma ortamında, başka bireyler ve kurum tarafından ayrıca ödüllendirilebileceği bilinen başkasının yararına davranışlar neler olabilir?

APPENDIX C- DIARY- INFORMED CONSENT

Sayın katılımcı,

Bu araştırma, Marmara Üniversitesi Örgütsel Davranış Bilim Dalı doktora öğrencisi Serin İşıaık tarafından Doç. Dr. Seçil Bülbül danışmanlığında bir doktora tez çalışması olarak yürütülmektedir (Marmara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Etik Kurulu Onay Protokol No: 2022-1/5). Bu çalışmanın amacı çalışanların işyerlerindeki davranışlarını anlamaktır. Bu araştırmada bize yardımcı olmanız için sizi de davet ediyoruz. Kararınızdan önce araştırma hakkında sizi bilgilendirmek istiyoruz. Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz takdirde sizlere 5 iş günü boyunca işyerinizdeki davranışlarınızı kısaca yazmanız istenecektir. Size her gün iki kere hatırlatma e-postası gelecektir.

Araştırma, bilimsel bir amaçla yapılmaktadır ve katılımcı bilgilerinin gizliliği esas tutulmaktadır. Araştırma boyunca sizlerden herhangi bir kişisel bilgi paylaşmanız istenmeyecektir.

Bu araştırmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük temellidir. Katıldığınız takdirde çalışmanın herhangi bir aşamasında herhangi bir sebep göstermeden onayınızı çekmek ve araştırmadan ayrılma hakkına da sahipsiniz. Araştırma projesi hakkında ek bilgi almak istediğiniz takdirde sorumlu araştırmacıya aşağıdaki irtibat bilgilerinden ulaşabilirsiniz.

Eğer bu araştırma projesine katılmasını kabul ediyorsanız, lütfen aşağıdaki kutucuğu işaretleyiniz.

Ben, yukarıdaki metni okudum ve katılmam istenen çalışmanın kapsamını ve amacını, gönüllü olarak üzerime düşen sorumlulukları tamamen anladım. Çalışma hakkında soru sorma imkanı buldum. Bu çalışmayı istediğim zaman ve herhangi bir neden belirtmek zorunda kalmadan bırakabileceğimi ve bıraktığım takdirde herhangi bir olumsuzluk ile karşılaşmayacağımı anladım. Bu koşullarda söz konusu araştırmaya kendi isteğimle, hiçbir baskı ve zorlama olmaksızın katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Formun bir örneğini aldım / almak istemiyorum (bu durumda araştırmacı bu kopyayı saklar).

Araştırmacının Adı-Soyadı: Serin İşıaık (Marmara Üniversitesi-Örgütsel Davranış Doktora Öğrencisi, FMV Işık Üniversitesi, İktisadi, İdari ve Sosyal Bilimler Fakültesi, Psikoloji Bölümü Araştırma Görevlisi)

Tarih (gün/ay/yıl):

İletişim Bilgileri:

Serin İşıaık (Marmara Üniversitesi-Örgütsel Davranış Doktora Öğrencisi,

FMV Işık Üniversitesi, İktisadi, İdari ve Sosyal Bilimler Fakültesi, Psikoloji Bölümü Araştırma Görevlisi)

E-posta: _____

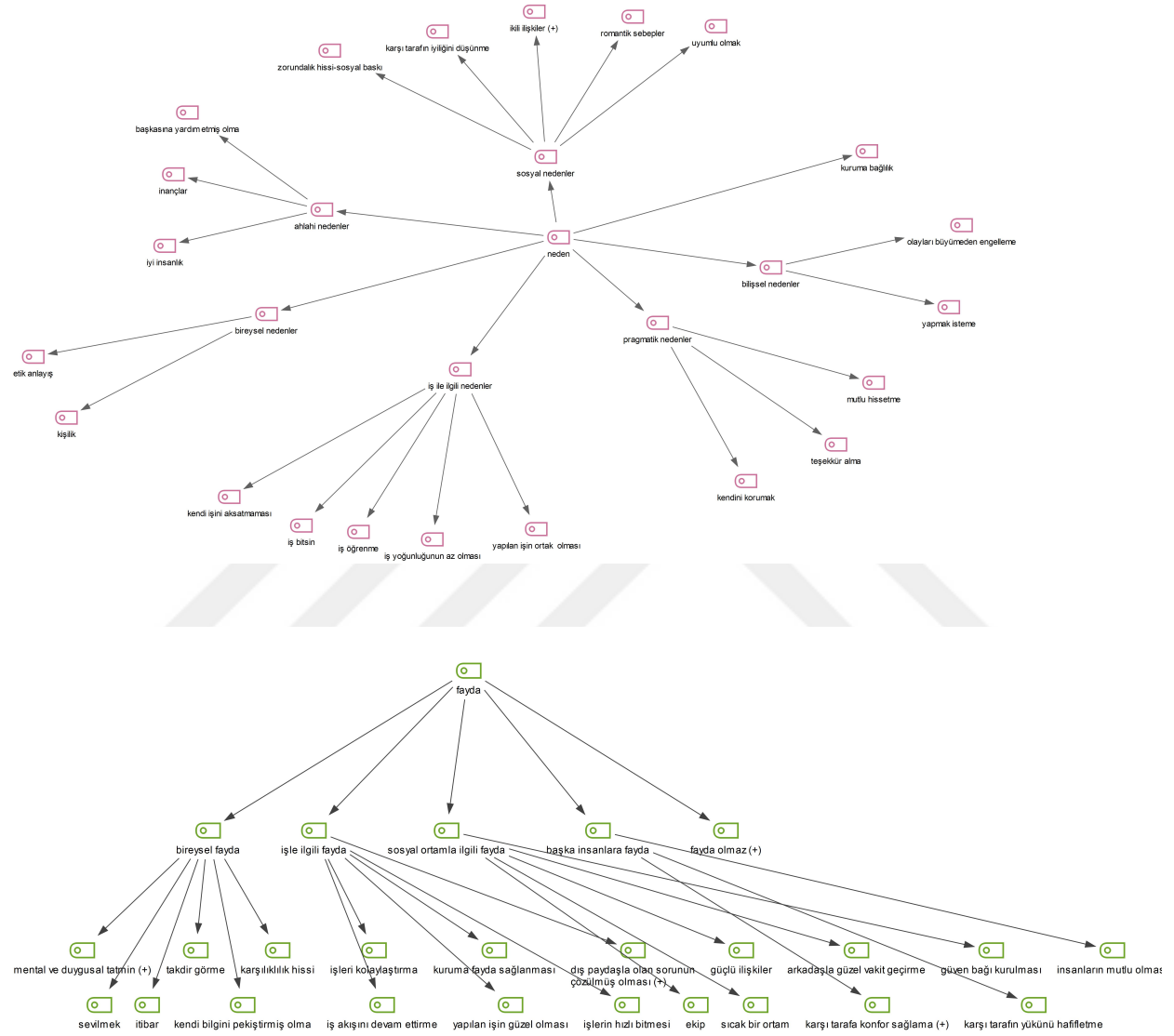
APPENDIX D- DIARY QUESTIONS

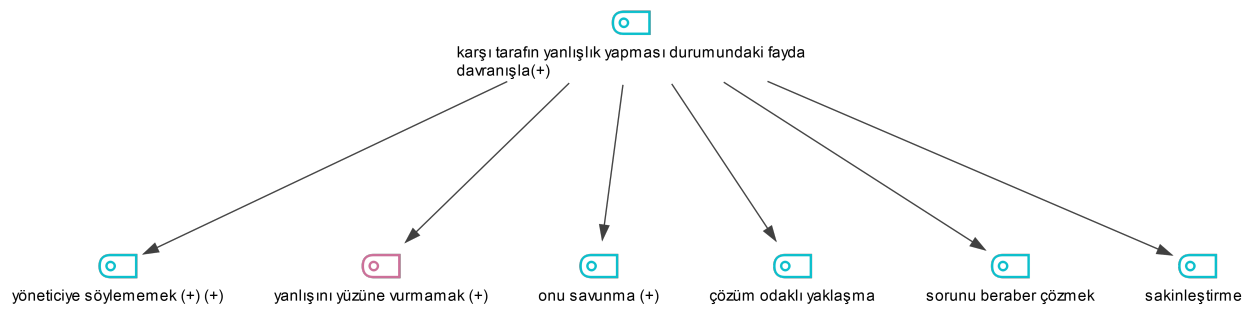
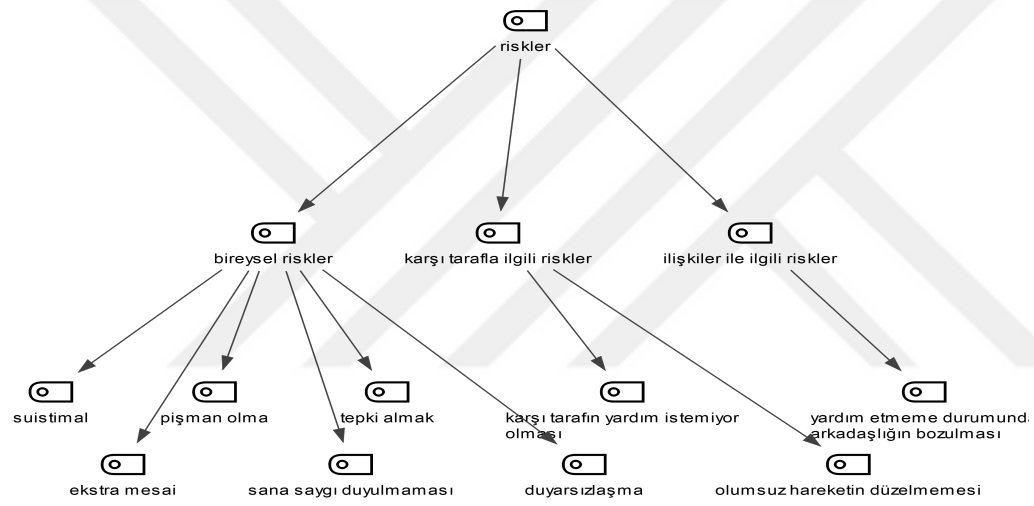
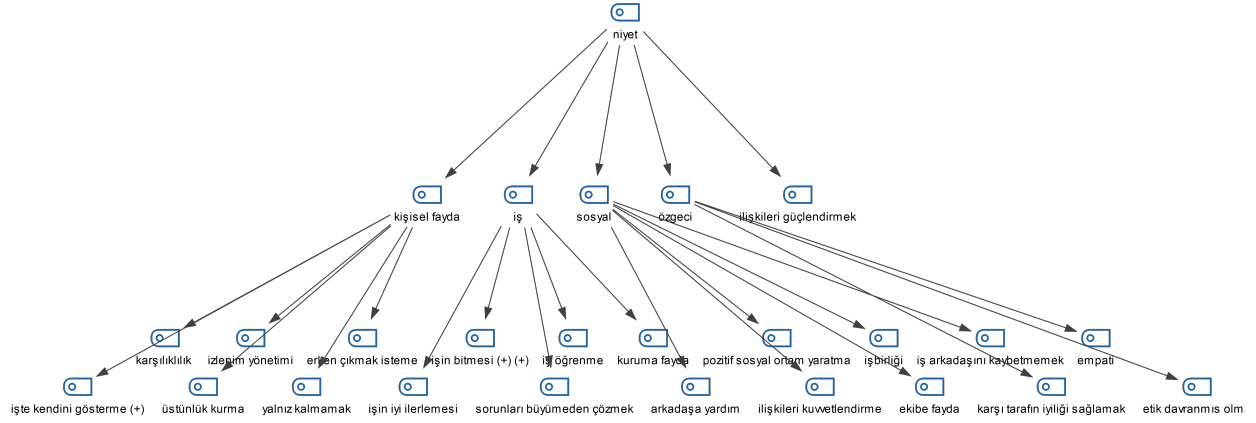
- 1) Bugünkü iş gününüzü düşündüğünüzde, iş yerinizde birlikte çalıştığınız birinin (sizinle aynı kademede) yararına bir davranış sergilediniz mi veya size karşı böyle bir davranış sergilendi mi? **Olay neydi? Olay öncesi, sırası ve sonrasında neler düşündünüz ve hissettiniz? Nasıl davrandınız? Sonunda fayda sağlayacağınızı düşünüyor musunuz?

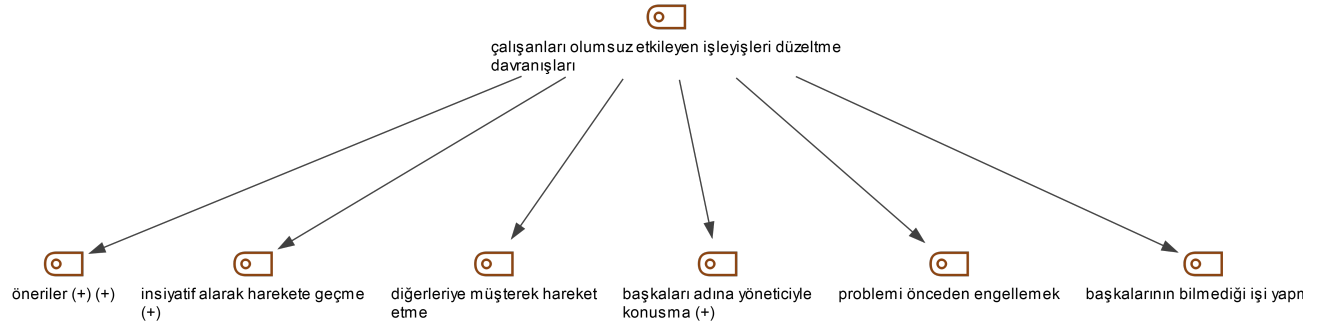
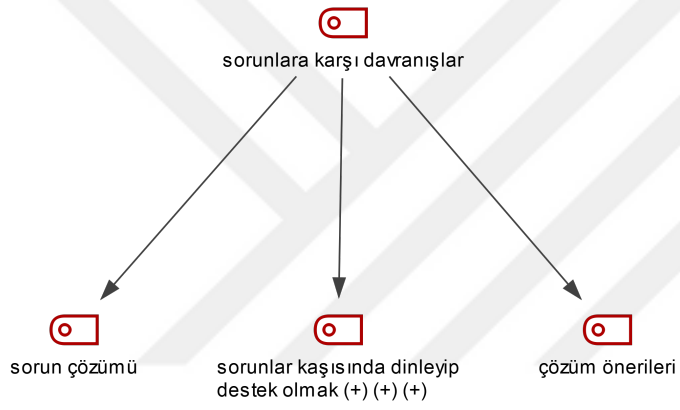
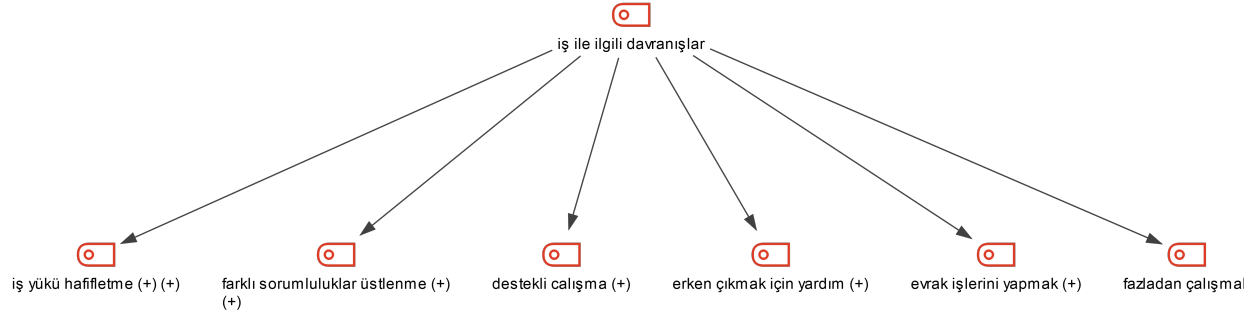


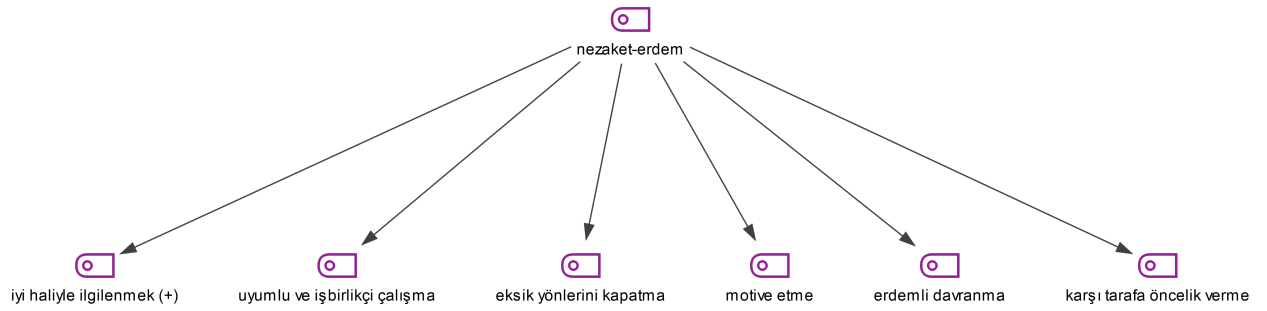
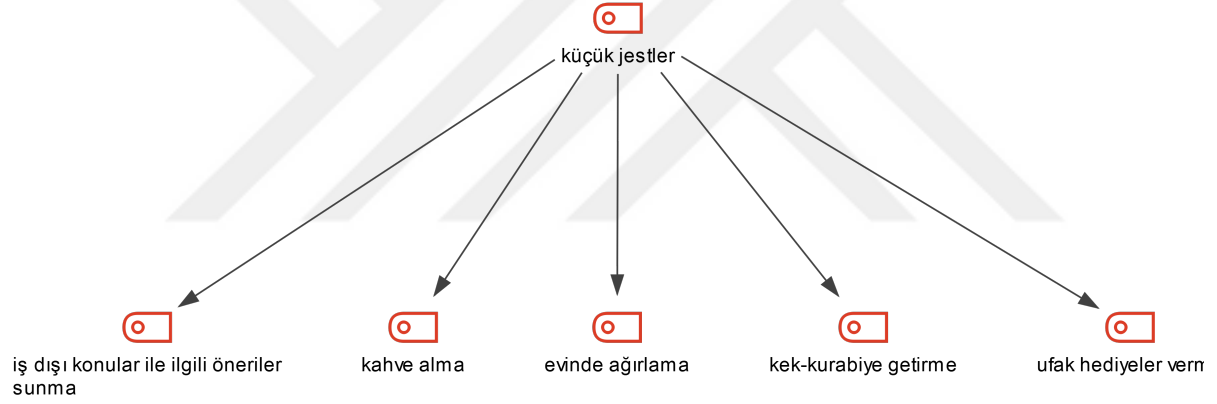
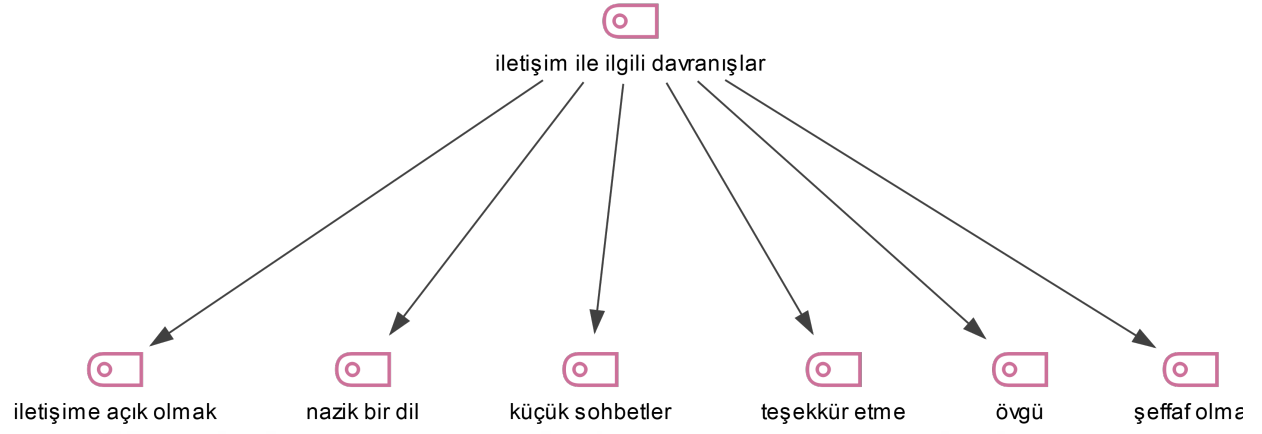
APPENDIX E- INITIAL OUTLOOK OF THE CODES

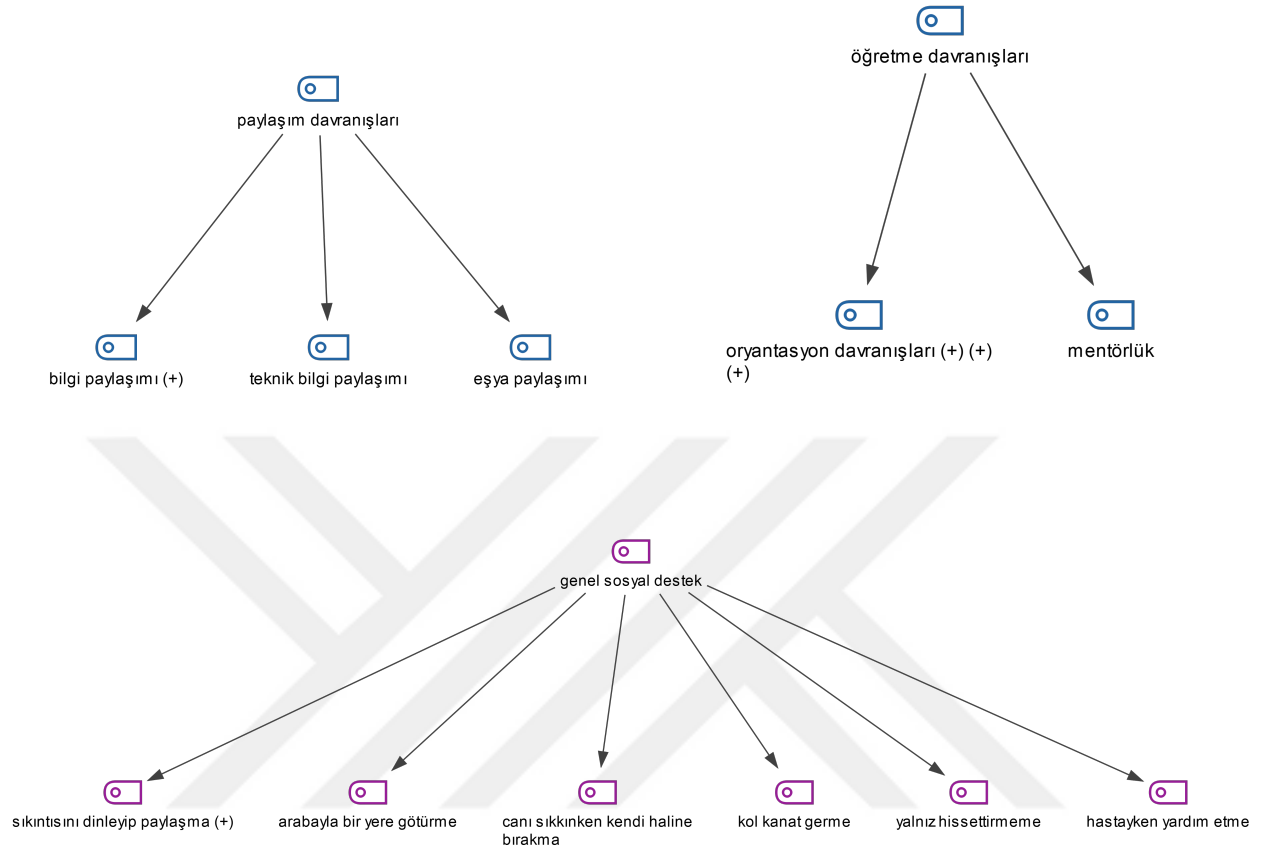
INTERVIEWS



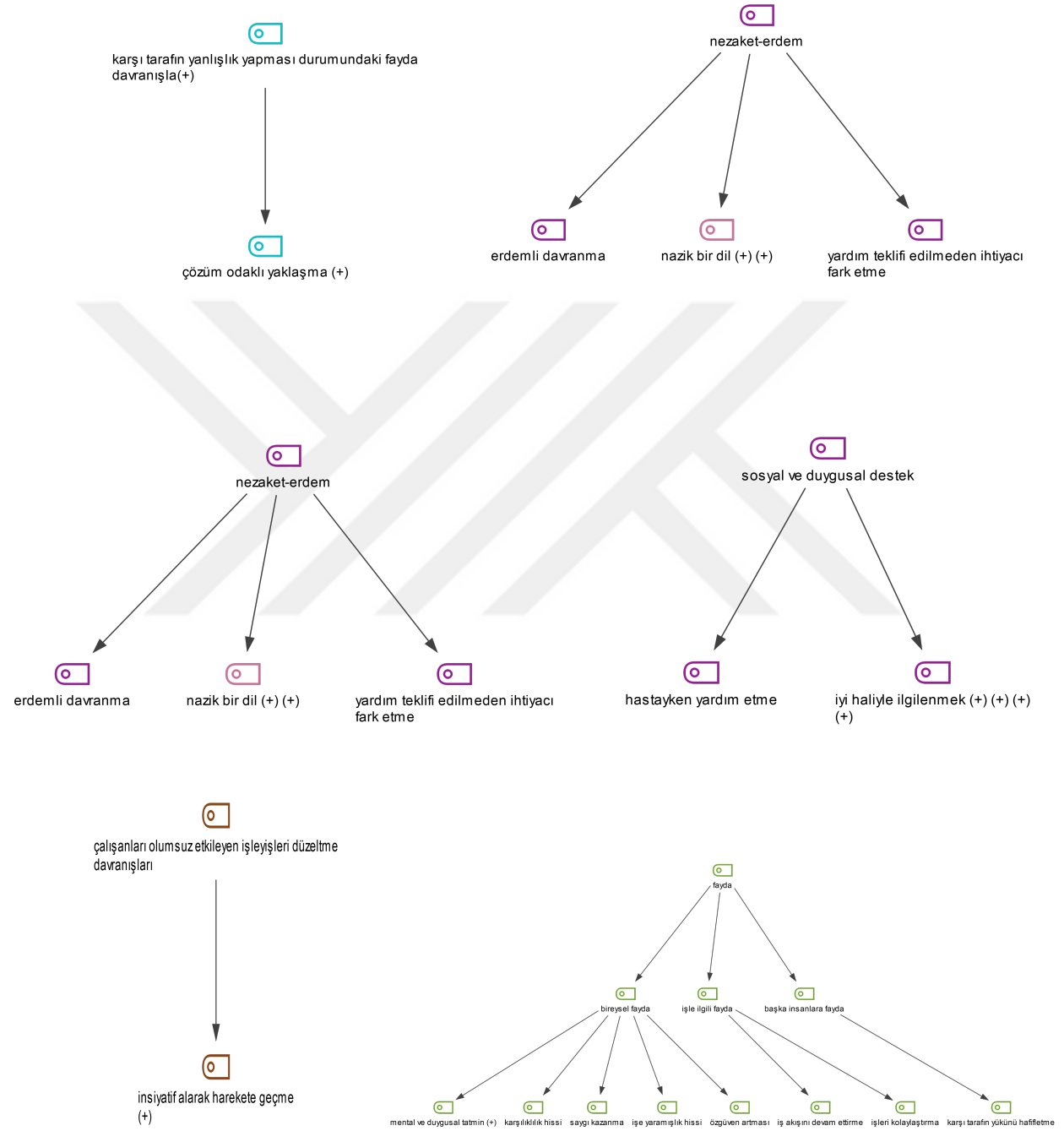








DIARY



APPENDIX F - INFORMED CONSENTS FOR QUESTIONNAIRES AND THE QUESTIONNAIRE OF CHAPTER 4

Bilgilendirilmiş Gönüllü Onam Formu

Bu araştırma, Marmara Üniversitesi Örgütsel Davranış Doktora Öğrencisi Serin İşıaık tarafından Prof. Dr. Seçil Bülbül danışmanlığında bir tez çalışması olarak yürütülmektedir. Araştırma, Marmara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Etik Kurulu onaylıdır (Protokol no: 2022-1/5). Çalışmanın amacı, kişilerin iş ve sosyal ortamdaki davranışlarını anlamaktır. Sizlere araştırma kapsamında çeşitli sorular yöneltilecektir. Soruları yanıtlamak yaklaşık 10 dakikanızı alacaktır.

Katılımcılardan herhangi bir kişisel bilgi (isim ya da kurum ismi gibi) alınmayacaktır. Bu araştırmadan elde edilen veriler sadece bilimsel bir amaç için kullanılacaktır. Araştırmamıza katılmak tamamen isteğe bağlıdır. Katıldığınız takdirde çalışmanın herhangi bir aşamasında, bir sebep göstermeden onayınızı çekmek ve araştırmadan ayrılma hakkına sahipsiniz. Araştırma projesi hakkında ek bilgi almak istediğiniz takdirde sorumlu araştırmacıya aşağıdaki irtibat bilgilerinden ulaşabilirsiniz.

Eğer bu araştırma projesine katılmasını kabul ediyorsanız, lütfen aşağıdaki kutucuğu işaretleyiniz. Talep etmeniz durumunda formun bir örneği sorumlu araştırmacı tarafından size iletilecektir.

Ben, yukarıdaki metni okudum ve katılmam istenen çalışmanın kapsamını ve amacını, gönüllü olarak üzerime düşen sorumlulukları tamamen anladım. Çalışma hakkında soru sorma imkanı buldum. Bu çalışmayı istediğim zaman ve herhangi bir neden belirtmek zorunda kalmadan bırakabileceğimi ve bıraktığım takdirde herhangi bir olumsuzluk ile karşılaşmayacağımı anladım. Bu koşullarda söz konusu araştırmaya kendi isteğimle, hiçbir baskı ve zorlama olmaksızın katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

☐

Araştırmacının Adı-Soyadı: Serin İşıaık (Marmara Üniversitesi-Örgütsel Davranış Doktora Öğrencisi, FMV Işık Üniversitesi, İktisadi, İdari ve Sosyal Bilimler Fakültesi, Psikoloji Bölümü Araştırma Görevlisi)

İletişim Bilgileri:

E-posta: _____

(BENLİK KURGUSU ÖLÇEĞİ)	1 Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Kısmen katılmıyorum	4 Biraz Katılıyorum	5 Katılıyorum	6 Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1. Birçok yönden kendine özgü ve başkalarından farklı olmaktan hoşlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Benden yaşça epey büyük olsa bile biriyle tanıştıktan kısa süre sonra ona ilk ismiyle hitap etmekten çekinmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Grubun üyelerine hiç katılmasam bile tartışmadan kaçınırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. İşkide bulunduğum otoritelere saygı duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Başkaları ne düşünürse düşünsün kendi bildiğimi okurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Kendileri hakkında alçakgönüllü olan insanlara saygı duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Bağımsız bir kişi olarak davranmanın benim için çok önemli olduğunu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. İçinde bulunduğum grubun menfaati için kişisel çıkarlarımı feda ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Yanlış anlaşılırmaktansa, doğrudan “hayır” demeyi tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Canlı bir hayal gücüm olması benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Eğitimim ve kariyerimle ilgili plan yaparken anne-babamın tavsiyelerini göz önünde bulundurmam gerekir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Kaderimin çevremdekilerin kaderiyle örülü olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Yeni tanıştığım kişilerle muhatap olduğumda açık ve dobra olmayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Başkalarıyla iş birliği yaptığım zaman kendimi iyi hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Herkesin arasından seçilerek ödüllendirilmek veya övülmek konusunda kendimi rahat hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Kardeşim başarısız olsa kendimi sorumlu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Çoğu zaman başkalarıyla ilişkilerimin kendi başarılarımdan daha önemli olduğunu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Bir toplantı sırasında fikirlerimi beyan etmek benim için sorun değildir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Otobüste yerimi amirime teklif ederdim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Kiminle olursam olayım, aynı şekilde davranırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Benim mutluluğum çevremdekilerin mutluluğuna bağlıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Sağlığımın iyi olmasına her şeyden çok değer veririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Bu ifadeyi okuyorsanız "4. Biraz Katılıyorum" seçeneğini işaretleyiniz.	1	2	3	4	5	6

24. Mutlu olmasam bile eğer bir grubun bana ihtiyacı varsa grupta kalırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Başkalarını nasıl etkilerse etkilesin, kendim için en iyi olanı yapmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. Kendi başımın çaresine bakabiliyor olmak benim için birincil kaygıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. Grup içinde verilen kararlara saygı göstermek benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. Başkalarından bağımsız olarak bireysel kimliğim benim için çok önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. Grubum içindeki uyumu muhafaza etmek benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. Evde ve işte aynı şekilde davranırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. Kendim farklı şeyler yapmak istesem bile, genelde diğerlerinin yapmak istediklerine uyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Aşağıdaki sorularda size birlikte çalıştığınız insanlarla ilgili sorular sorulacaktır. Soruları deneyimlerinizi dikkate alarak yanıtlayınız.

(OLUMLU SOSYAL VE ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ ÖLÇEĞİ)	1) Hiçbir zaman	2) Nadiren	3) Bazen	4) Sıklıkla	5) Genellikle	6) Her zaman
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İş arkadaşlarımı olumsuz etkileyen durumlarda;

1.Onlar adına yöneticimle konuşurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.Diğerleriyle ortak hareket ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.Gerekirse inisiyatif alıp harekete geçerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.Çeşitli öneriler sunarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.Oluşabilecek problemi önceden engellemeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Benden daha tecrübesiz veya işe yeni başlamış iş arkadaşlarımın;

6.Bireysel gelişimlerine yardımcı olup onlara mentörlük ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Kurum veya işle ilgili bilgilenmelerini sağlayıp, onların iş ortamına uyum sağlamalarına yardımcı olurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.Bu ifadeyi okuyorsanız "6.Her zaman" seçeneğini işaretleyiniz	1	2	3	4	5	6

İş arkadaşlarım hata yaptıkları zaman;

9. Onları savunurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
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Genel olarak iş arkadaşlarıma karşı davranışlarımı düşündüğümde;

10.Yardım istemeden ihtiyaçlarını fark ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.İş dışı konularda da öneriler sunarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.Kendime kahve, çay alırken onlara da alırım ve/veya almayı teklif ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.Onlara ufak hediyeler veririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.Kendi arabamla bir yere götürürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.Hastayken kişisel bakım sağlarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.Onların iyi oluşlarıyla ilgilenirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.Onları motive ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6

18.Sorunlarını dinleyip destek olurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.Yalnız hissetmemeleri için çaba gösteririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.Onlara arka çıkarak destekli çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Aşağıdaki soruları iş ortamındaki ilişkileriniz ile ilgili düşüncelerinizi dikkate alarak yanıtlayınız. (MEVKİDAŞ İLİŞKİLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ)		Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Çoğu zaman	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
1	İşyerinde çalışma arkadaşlarım ile birlikte geçirdiğim zamandan keyif alıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	İş arkadaşlarım iş performansımı pozitif yönde etkilemektedir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Şu andaki iş arkadaşlarım ile beraber çalıştığım için kendimi şanslı hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	İş konusunda çalışma arkadaşlarım ile benim aramda olumlu bir etkileşim/ilişki vardır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Çalışma arkadaşlarım ile iş yerinde iyi bir dayanışma ve işbirliği içindeyiz.	1	2	3	4	5	6

1.Yaşınız

2. Cinsiyetiniz?

1) Erkek 2)Kadın 3) Belirtmek İstemiyorum

3. Eğitim durumunuz? (Birini işaretleyiniz)

- 1) İlköğretim
- 2) Lise
- 3)Lisans
- 4)Yüksek lisans
- 5)Doktora

4. Çalıştığınız sektör?

5.Kurumunuzdaki unvanınız nedir?

6. Kurumunuzdaki çalışan sayısı

- 1) 1-49
- 2) 50-249
- 3) 250-999
- 4) 1000+

7. Bu firmadaki toplam çalışma süreniz (Ay olarak)?

8. Tüm çalışma hayatınızı göz önüne alarak toplam iş tecrübeniz kaç yıldır?

- 1) 1 yıldan az
- 2) 1-5 yıl arası
- 3) 5-10 yıl arası
- 4) 10 yıl ve üstü

APPENDIX G- FACTORIAL STRUCTURE OF THE POB SCALE

22.Onlara ufak hediyeler veririm.	.721	1.Nezaket
23.Kendi arabamla bir yere götürürüm/ arabam olsaydı götürürdüm.	.702	
20.İş dışı konularda da öneriler sunarım.	.698	
24.Hastayken kişisel bakım sağlarım.	.673	
21.Kendime kahve, çay alırken onlara da alırım ve/veya almayı teklif ederim.	.510	
25.Onların iyi oluşlarıyla ilgilenirim.	.787	2.Sosyal-duygusal destek
26.Onları motive ederim.	.786	
27.Sorunlarını dinleyip destek olurum.	.753	
28.Yalnız hissetmemeleri için çaba gösteririm.	.691	
2.Diğerleriyle ortak hareket ederim.	.803	3.Proaktif
8.Onları savunurum.	.681	
1.Onlar adına yöneticimle konuşurum.	.668	
3.Gerekirse inisiyatif alıp harekete geçerim.	.582	
30.Onlara arka çıkarak destekli çalışırım.	.502	
4.Çeşitli öneriler sunarım.	.731	4.Rol dışı
5.Oluşabilecek problemi önceden engellemeye çalışırım.	.714	
18.Yardım istemeden ihtiyaçlarını fark ederim.	.689	
6.Bireysel gelişimlerine yardımcı olup onlara mentörlük ederim.	.838	5.Rehberlik
7.Kurum ve işle ilgili bilgiler verip iş ortamına uyum sağlamaya yardımcı olurum.	.751	

APPENDIX H- PROSOCIAL ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR SCALE-OLUMLU SOSYAL VE ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ ÖLÇEĞİ

İş arkadaşlarımı olumsuz etkileyen durumlarda;

- 1.Onlar adına yöneticimle konuşurum.
- 2.Diğerleriyle ortak hareket ederim.
- 3.Gerekirse inisiyatif alıp harekete geçerim.
- 4.Çeşitli öneriler sunarım.
- 5.Oluşabilecek problemi önceden engellemeye çalışırım.

Benden daha tecrübesiz veya işe yeni başlamış iş arkadaşlarımla;

- 6.Bireysel gelişimlerine yardımcı olup onlara mentörlük ederim.
7. Kurum veya işle ilgili bilgilenmelerini sağlayıp, onların iş ortamına uyum sağlamalarına yardımcı olurum.

İş arkadaşlarım hata yaptıkları zaman;

8. Onları savunurum.

Genel olarak iş arkadaşlarıma karşı davranışlarımı düşündüğümde;

- 9.Yardım istemeden ihtiyaçlarını fark ederim.
- 10.İş dışı konularda da öneriler sunarım.
- 11.Kendime kahve, çay alırken onlara da alırım ve/veya almayı teklif ederim.
- 12.Onlara ufak hediyeler veririm.
- 13.Kendi arabamla bir yere götürürüm(arabam varsa).
- 14.Hastayken kişisel bakım sağlarım.
- 15.Onların iyi oluşlarıyla ilgilenirim.
- 16.Onları motive ederim.
- 17.Sorunlarını dinleyip destek olurum.
- 18.Yalnız hissetmemeleri için çaba gösteririm.
- 19.Onlara arka çıkarak destekli çalışırım.