

T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İNGİLİZCE İŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI
ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNG.) BİLİM DALI

**A RESEARCH ABOUT THE RELATIONSHIP OF PSYCHOLOGICAL
SAFETY AND ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS PERCEPTION WITH
COMPULSORY CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR**

Master Thesis

SUZAN ECE ALKAN

İstanbul, 2015

T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İNGİLİZCE İŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI
ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNG.) BİLİM DALI

**A RESEARCH ABOUT THE RELATIONSHIP OF PSYCHOLOGICAL
SAFETY AND ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS PERCEPTION WITH
COMPULSORY CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR**

Master Thesis

SUZAN ECE ALKAN

Thesis Advisor: Doç. Dr. Tülay TURGUT

İstanbul, 2015



T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

TEZ ONAY BELGESİ

İŞLETME (İNGİLİZCE) Anabilim Dalı ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNGİLİZCE)
Bilim Dalı TEZLİ YÜKSEK LİSANS öğrencisi Suzan Ece Alkan'nın A RESEARCH ABOUT
THE RELATIONSHIP OF PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY AND ORGANIZATIONAL
POLITICS PERCEPTION WITH COMPULSORY CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR adlı tez
çalışması, Enstitümüz Yönetim Kurulunun 12.05.2015 tarih ve 2015-17/13 sayılı kararıyla
oluşturulan jüri tarafından oy birliği / oy çokluğu ile Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Tez Savunma Tarihi 27, 05, 2015

Öğretim Üyesi Adı Soyadı

İmzası

1. Tez Danışmanı	Doç. Dr. TÜLAY TURGUT	
2. Jüri Üyesi	Yrd. Doç. Dr. KUTLU ÇALIŞKAN	
3. Jüri Üyesi	Yrd. Doç. Dr. GÜL SELİN ERBEN	

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my advisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Tlay TURGUT for all her exertions and contributions in order to generate a perfect study and Assist. Prof. Dr. Melek BİRSEL for all her innovative contributions and support. Without their kindness and friendly approach, this thesis could not be possible. I am also grateful to the members of my committee, Kutlu ÇALIŞKAN and Gl Selin ERBEN for their guidance, advices, and contributions. I would also like to thank to all precious teachers of Organizational Behavior Department.

I confess that this dissertation can not be possible without my dear family’s support. I am absolutely grateful to my mother, Ayla ALKAN who is one of the most devoted mothers on earth and my father, a dedicated mechanical engineer, Vedat ALKAN. I would also like to thank my first brother, Assist.Prof. Dr. Emre ALKAN and my second brother, Mert ALKAN for their understandings and their endless encouragement for finalizing this thesis.

I am also definitely grateful to my beloved friend Oktay Tuğrul ALPARSLAN who helped me very much in data collection and always allocates his time for me.

To my beloved grandmother and grandfather...

İstanbul, 2015

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amaçları arasında; çalışanların Zorunlu Vatandaşlık Davranışı (ZVD) sergileyip sergilemediklerinin araştırılması, ZVD'ye sebep olabilecek olası baskı unsurlarının belirlenmesi ve Psikolojik Güvenlik (PG) ile Örgütsel Politika Algısının (ÖPA) ZVD ile ilişkisinin incelenmesi bulunmaktadır.

ZVD'yi Türk firmalarında incelemek üzere; geleneksel Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı (ÖVD) ölçeklerinden derlenerek 27 ifadeli ZVD ölçeği hazırlanmış ve bu davranışların baskı ile yapılıp yapılmadığı konusundaki açıklama metniyle birlikte katılımcılara sorulmuştur. Kişinin kendisi, ailesi, çalışma arkadaşları, örgüt iklimi ve yöneticisi gibi olası baskı unsurları da ayrıca sorulmuştur. PG, Edmondson (1999) tarafından geliştirilen yedi maddelik ölçek, ve ÖPA Kacmar ve Ferris (1991) tarafından geliştirilen dokuz maddelik ölçek ile ölçülmüştür. Ankete katılan 170 katılımcı ağırlıklı olarak bankacılık/finans firmalarında çalışmaktadır. Anketler bir program aracılığıyla çalışanların firmalarında yapılarak toplanmıştır. Sonuçlara göre, ZVD; Zorunlu Ahenk, Zorunlu Fedakarlık ve Zorunlu Vicdanlılık olmak üzere 3 faktöre ayrılmıştır. ÖPA; Genel Politik Davranışlar ve Başarılı Olmak İçin Devam olmak üzere 2 faktöre ayrılmıştır. PG'nin ZVD üzerinde anlamlı bir katkısı bulunmamıştır ancak ÖPA'nın ZVD üzerinde anlamlı katkısı bulunmuştur. Finans çalışanları ZVD'yi fazlaca sergilememektedir. Çalışanların ZVD'yi sergilemek için kendi kendilerine baskı yaptıkları ve en çok hissedilen ikinci baskının ailevi sorumlulukların baskısı olduğu görülmüştür. Kendi kendine yapılan ve ailevi sorumluluk baskısının ZVD ve alt faktörleri üzerinde anlamlı katkısı bulunmamıştır fakat yönetici, çalışma arkadaşları ve örgüt iklimi baskılarının ZVD ve alt faktörleri üzerinde anlamlı katkıları bulunmuştur. Evlilerin bekarlara göre ve üniversite mezunlarının yüksek lisans mezunlarına göre daha fazla ZVD sergiledikleri görülmüştür.

Anahtar Kelimeler: psikolojik güvenlik, örgütsel politika algısı, zorunlu örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı, örgütsel vatandaşlık baskısı, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı

ABSTRACT

This study's main purposes are investigating whether employees exhibit Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors(CCB), identifying probable pressures behind CCB and examining the relationship of Psychological Safety(PS) and Organizational Politics Perception(OPP) with CCB.

In order to investigate CCB in Turkish firms, 27-item CCB scale is compiled from conventional OCB scales and asked with an introduction whether respondents experience any pressure for displaying these behaviors. Moreover, the potential pressures such as respondents' oneself, family, peers, organizational climate and supervisor are asked. PS is measured by 7-item scale developed by Edmondson (1999) and OPP is measured by 9-item scale developed by Kacmar and Ferris (1991). Participants are composed of 170 employees working in banking/finance institutions. The data was collected at one time by using a survey instrument. According to the results, CCB is divided into three factors which are labeled as Compulsory Harmony, Compulsory Devotion, Compulsory Conscientiousness. OPP is divided into two factors which are labeled as General Political Behaviors and Get Along To Get Ahead. PS does not make significant contribution on CCB but OPP makes a significant contribution. CCB are not high among finance employees. It is seen that employees mostly put pressure on themselves and secondly they feel their family responsibilities for displaying CCB. However, self and family pressure do not make significant contribution on CCB and its dimensions but manager, successful coworker and organizational climate pressures make significant contribution on CCB. Married employees exhibit more CCB than single ones and university graduated employees exhibit more CCB than master graduated ones.

Key words: psychological safety, organizational politics perception, compulsory citizenship behavior, citizenship pressure, organizational citizenship behavior

TABLE OF CONTENTS	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	II
ÖZET	III
ABSTRACT	IV
LIST OF TABLES & FIGURES	VII
ABBREVIATIONS	VIII
INTRODUCTION	1
1. ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR (OCB)	3
1.1. Definition Of The Conventional Organizational Citizenship Behavior	3
1.2. Dimensions Of Organizational Citizenship Behavior	5
1.3. Antecedents Of Organizational Citizenship Behavior	7
2. COMPULSORY CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR (CCB)	10
2.1. Increased Market-Based Pressure	11
2.2. Vagueness Of The Boundary Between In-Role & Extra-Role Behaviors	11
3.LITERATURE REVIEW ABOUT ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS FROM DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVES	15
4. PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY	19
4.1. Definition Of Psychological Safety	19
4.2. Antecedents & Consequences Of Psychological Safety	20
4.3. The Relationship Between Psychological Safety And Compulsory Citizenship Behavior	22
5. ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS	24
5.1. Definition Of Organizational Politics	24
5.2. Antecedents Of Organizational Politics Perceptions	26
5.2.1. Organizational Influences	26
5.2.2. Job/Work Environment Influences	27
5.2.3. Personal Influences	28
5.3. Consequences Of Organizational Politics Perceptions	29
5.4. The Relationship Between Organizational Politics Perception And Compulsory Citizenship Behavior	31
6. THE RESEARCH MODEL	34
7. RESEARCH QUESTION: THE SOURCES OF PRESSURES ON EMPLOYEES	35
8. METHODOLOGY	37
8.1. Sample	37
8.2. Procedure	38
8.3. Survey Instruments	38
8.3.1. Perception Of Organizational Politics Perception Scale	38
8.3.2. Psychological Safety Scale	39
8.3.3. Compulsory Citizenship Behavior Scale	39
8.3.4. Sources Of Pressures Scale	40
9. RESEARCH FINDINGS	41
9.1. Factor And Reliability Analysis Of The Scales	41
9.1.1. Factor And Reliability Analysis Of Compulsory Citizenship Behavior Scale	41
9.1.2. Factor And Reliability Analysis Of Organizational Politics Perception	44

9.1.3. Factor And Reliability Analysis Of Psychological Safety	45
9.2. Test Of Hypotheses	46
9.3.Which Sources Of Pressure Mostly Effect Compulsory Citizenship Behavior	51
9.4.Correlations And Comparisons With Regard To Demographic Variables	56
9.4.1. Correlation Analysis For Demographics	56
9.4.2. Comparison By Demographics	57
9.4.2.1. Comparison By Gender	57
9.4.2.2. Comparison By Marital Status	57
9.4.2.3. Comparison By Education	58
9.4.2.4. Comparison By Having Children	59
9.4.2.5. Comparison By Working Departments	59
9.4.2.6. Comparison By Job Title	60
9.5. Additional Analysis	60
10. DISCUSSION	62
10.1. Discussion Of The Research Findings	62
10.2. Limitations And Recommendations	68
REFERENCES	69
APPENDIX	84

LIST OF TABLES & FIGURES	
Table 1: Five Factor Model Of OCB Dimensions And Definitions	6
Table 2: Articles About OCB From Different Perspectives	16
Table 3: Demographic Features Of The Sample	37
Table 4: Factor and Reliability Analysis Of Compulsory Citizenship Behavior	43
Table 5: Factor and Reliability Analysis Of Organizational Politics Perception Scale	45
Table 6: Correlations of All Dimensions Of Organizational Politics Perception Scale And Psychological Safety With Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors	47
Table 7: Regression Analysis Results For Organizational Politics Perception And Psychological Safety With Compulsory Citizenship Behavior	48
Table 8: Regression Analysis Results For Organizational Politics Perception Dimensions And Compulsory Citizenship Behavior	48
Table 9: Regression Analysis Results For Organizational Politics Perception Dimensions And Psychological Safety With Compulsory Harmony	49
Table 10: Regression Analysis Results For Organizational Politics Perception Dimensions And Psychological Safety With Compulsory Devotion	50
Table 11: Regression Analysis Results For Organizational Politics Perception Dimensions And Psychological Safety With Compulsory Conscientiousness	50
Table 12: Correlation Analysis For Pressure Sources With Compulsory Citizenship Behavior And Its Dimensions	52
Table 13: Regression Analysis Results For Pressure Sources With Compulsory Citizenship Behavior	53
Table 14: Regression Analysis Results For Pressure Sources With Compulsory Harmony	53
Table 15: Regression Analysis Results For Pressure Sources With Compulsory Devotion	54
Table 16: Regression Analysis Results For Pressure Sources With Compulsory Conscientiousness	55
Table 17: Correlations Of Demographics Variables With Organizational Politics Perception, Psychological Safety & Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors	56
Table 18: Group Statistics Of The t-test Analysis For Marital Status	58
Table 19: Group Statistics Of The t-test Analysis For Education	59
Table 20: Frequency Table Of The Most Pressured CCB	61
Table 21: Frequency Table Of Probable Pressure Sources	61
Table 22: Compulsory Citizenship Behavior Scale	86
Table 23: Pressure Sources Scale	87
Table 24: Psychological Safety Scale	88
Table 25: Organizational Politics Perception Scale	89
Table 26: Frequency Table Of Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors Factor Items	90
Table 27: Frequency Table Of Other Compulsory Citizenship Behavior Items	91
LIST OF FIGURES	
Figure 1: The Suggested Theoretical Framework	34

ABBREVIATIONS

CCB	Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors
OPP	Organizational Politics Perception
PS	Psychological Safety

INTRODUCTION

When we think about our life, we can recognize that some behaviors are displayed with many kind of pressures. The source of pressure can change from one situation to another such that you can feel social pressure because of your friends when you do not buy a car and prefer walking to school while your friends are coming by car or you may feel challenged by a powerful coworker if he/she suggests innovative ideas but you can not. The pressure source can be yourself, friends, family, coworkers, immediate supervisor, organizational climate, etc.

In this thesis, one of our aims is to clarify the probable source of pressures in the workplace for displaying Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB) which is assumed that it is exhibited with voluntarism rather than pressure. Most writings about OCB emphasized its positive side till today and many empirical studies state that OCB play a key role in increasing the effectiveness, efficiency and positive climate in the workplace but there are also other researches that give clues about the existence of pressure and coercive managerial implementations in the workplace and these results have risen the criticism about the voluntarism nature of OCB. Then, we have to ask ourselves this question: What kind of pressure is that?

As we all know, companies expect their employees to engage in more OCBs in the workplace. Therefore, these extra-role behaviors become a norm of the workplace that creates coercion on workers to perform OCBs and they may feel themselves pressured directly or indirectly. These pressures can be “internal” which is derived from the workers’ own traits and preferences or “external” which may be stemmed from organizational factors such as immediate supervisor, coworkers, organizational culture, etc.

Our main target is to find out whether there is any pressure on employees for displaying OCB in the private sector and to clarify the potential sources of pressure in this study. Therefore, we tried to examine Compulsory Citizenship Behavior (CCB).

The CCB concept is virtually a new phenomenon and literature about this concept is limited. When we look at previous researches, CCB was analyzed on teachers in Israel schools (Gadot, 2007), on subordinates and supervisors in a large diversified company in southern China (Zhao et al., 2014) and on employee-coworker pairs in a large service

company in China (Zhao et al., 2013). Also, the similar concept which is named as Citizenship Pressure was investigated among full-time employees enrolled in a Professional Master's of Business Administration (PMBA) program at two universities located in the southwestern United States (Bolino et al., 2010). CCB or Citizenship Pressure has not been investigated in Turkish culture yet. Therefore this research was implemented on Turkish companies in order to seek that if there is any pressure on employees to exhibit OCB or not.

Moreover, we try to examine the relationship between Psychological Safety (PS) and Organizational Politics Perception (OPP) with Compulsory Citizenship Behavior (CCB). In a psychologically safe working environment, employees are more willing to participate and involve in the work processes and they can easily express their opinions, share their suggestions and failures, etc. Therefore, PS fosters collaboration and learning among employees. However, in low level of psychologically safe environments, we expect that employees can not express their true thoughts and feelings so it can be stated that they are under some kind of pressure such as the fear of losing their job, refraining from retaliation, etc. We expect that job demands will increase in such that working environment and it can be seen that OCBs are started to be displayed with pressure.

A similar logic can be applied to the relationship between OPP and CCB. In a political working environment, you can observe insincere behaviors, not genuine or spontaneous behaviors such as OCB. We expect that political working environment creates internal or external pressure on employees in order to survive at the workplace. Therefore, OCBs lose its discretionary nature in a political working environment and employees are reduced to exhibit these behaviors with some kind of pressure.

1. ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR (OCB)

1.1. DEFINITION OF THE CONVENTIONAL ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

To remain competitive in today's work environment, it is imperative that organizations not only select individuals who possess the technical skills to perform the job, but also identify those individuals who contribute to the organization's success by going above and beyond what their respective job duties entail. The latter represents Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), or what Organ and his colleagues label as the "good soldier syndrome" in the workplace (Organ, 1988; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983). Sample behaviors include helping a coworker, offering suggestions for improvement, and adhering to informal work policies (Tolentino, 2009).

Drawing upon the concept of suprarole behavior advanced by Katz and Kahn (1966); Organ (1977), Bateman and Organ (1983) were the first scholars who introduced the construct of OCB into the literature.

According to Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie (2006), OCB is a behavior "that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization". Generally speaking, OCBs involve actions such as being helpful and cooperative, tolerating inconveniences at work, taking on additional responsibilities, and keeping up with company affairs (Organ et al., 2006). Moreover, it has been argued that when employees are motivated to engage in such behaviors, it makes an organization more effective and competitive (Bolino, Turnley & Bloodgood, 2002; Organ et al., 2006; cited in Halbesleben et al., 2010).

Over the past few years, research concerning OCB has grown rapidly (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). Indeed, Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, and Ensley (2004) recently noted that nearly 200 articles have been published on the topic, the bulk of which had appeared within the previous 7 years (Halbesleben et al., 2010).

By and large, most prior research has argued that OCBs are generally motivated either by employees' concern for their organizations or by the prosocial values held by

particular individuals (Organ, 1988; Organ et al., 2006). Rooted in the notion of social exchange, the organizational-concern view proposes that employees tend to engage in OCB because their organizations have looked after them by giving them satisfying jobs, fair treatment, inspirational leaders, interesting work, and so on (Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Organ, 1990). With regard to prosocial values, Organ et al. (2006) described how early conceptualizations of OCB drew heavily on theory and research regarding prosocial behavior (i.e., behavior that benefits others, rather than oneself). Consistent with this notion, studies have found that employees who are less individualistic and who show concern for others have a greater tendency to engage in OCBs (McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Moorman & Blakely, 1995; cited in Halbesleben et al., 2010).

In addition, it has also been argued that impression-management concerns might help to explain why employees exhibit OCBs (Bolino, 1999; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Salamon & Deutsch, 2006). The findings of Bowler and Brass (2006) indicated that lower status employees tend to target their helping behaviors toward coworkers with higher status, while those with higher status are unlikely to help out colleagues with less influence in their organizations, suggesting that employee helpfulness may be influenced by a desire to look good in front of more powerful others. More generally, Bolino, Varela, Bande, and Turnley (2006) found that the use of certain impression-management tactics by employees was associated with supervisor ratings of OCB. Overall, then, some empirical support for the link between impression management and employee citizenship is beginning to emerge, indicating that, as proposed by Rioux and Penner (2001), organizational concern, prosocial values, and impression management are all motives that underlie OCB (Halbesleben et al., 2010).

Studies examining supervisor evaluations and judgments of OCB have revealed that supervisors typically respond positively to employee citizenship because they view OCBs as important, see OCBs as a sign of employee commitment, and believe that OCBs are related to overall job performance (Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 1993, 2000; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Halbesleben et al., 2010).

Beside the conceptualization of OCB by Organ (1988), similar domains of behaviors overlapping with that of OCB has been investigated and conceptualized as prosocial organizational behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; George, 1990a, 1991; George &

Bettenhausen, 1990b; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997), extra-role behavior (Van Dyne, Cummings & McLean Parks, 1995) and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Borman, White & Dorsey, 1995; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; cited in İmer, 2009).

1.2. DIMENSIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

There are several researches about the dimensionality of OCB in the literature and different dimensions are mostly overlapping with each other. Despite the growing interest in citizenship-like behaviors, a review of the literature in this area reveals a lack of consensus about the dimensionality of this construct (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

The earliest dimensionalization for the construct was proposed by Smith et al. (1983), which is comprised of the two dimensions, *altruism* and *generalized compliance*. Altruism captured behavior directly intended to help a specific person in face-to-face situations such as helping others who have been absent, volunteering for things that are not required, orienting new people even though it is not required, helping others who have heavy workloads; and generalized compliance represented impersonal behaviors like compliance with norms defining a good worker (e.g. being punctual, not spending time in idle conversation) (İmer, 2009).

A few years later, Organ (1988) expanded the earlier classification of OCB to include five dimensions of *altruism* (narrower than the altruism of Smith et al., 1983), *conscientiousness* (a narrower form of generalized compliance), *sportsmanship* (e.g., not complaining about trivial matters), *courtesy* (e.g., consulting with others before taking action), and *civic virtue* (e.g., keeping up with matters that affect the organization) (İmer, 2009). The definitions of these different dimensions are mentioned below in Table 1.

Table 1: Five Factor Model of OCB Dimensions and Definitions

Dimension	Definition
Conscientiousness	Going well beyond the minimum requirements of the organization in the areas of attendance, obeying rules and regulations, and/or taking breaks.
Sportsmanship	Willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining, as well as maintaining a positive attitude when things do not go as one plans.
Civic Virtue	Macro-level interest in, or commitment to the organization as a whole, displayed such as participating actively in meetings, monitoring the organization's environment for potential threats, and looking out for its best interests.
Courtesy	Behaviors aimed at preventing work-related problems with others from occurring.
Altruism	Behaviors that have the effect of helping specific others with a work-relevant problem.

(Source: Organ, 1988. *Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Good Soldier Syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books)

Some researchers (e.g. Williams & Anderson, 1991) have differentiated the focal target of the OCB among the dimensions, such that OCB can be defined as prosocial or helping behavior directed at other coworkers (OCB-I) (e.g., altruism and courtesy toward other individuals) or as prosocial behavior directed toward the employee's organization (OCB-O) (e.g., sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness in promoting the welfare of the organization) (Cilla, 2011).

It is possible to observe various approaches about OCB dimensions in the literature. Organizational loyalty and self-development are other dimensions which are studied by Podsakoff and his colleagues (2000). **Organizational Loyalty** is described as the behavior of; praising the organization worked in to the outsiders, identification with the organization as a whole, defending the organization against the threats, and loyalty to the organization under bad conditions as well (Graham, 1991; Borman, White & Dorsay, 1995). **Self Development** comprises the voluntary behaviors involved by the employees in order to improve their information, skills and abilities. Although it has not gained an empiric approval in the

literature of citizenship behavior; self development regarded as an extra role behavior, and even as a personality trait in some researches, comes forward as –contributing to the organization by self development- differently from the other OCBs (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Though recognized as highly relevant, surprisingly little attention has been given so far to the cultural context of OCB (Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000). There are some indications that culture influences the meaning of the construct of OCB. Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997) for example developed a specific Chinese OCB scale. Civic virtue, altruism, and conscientiousness are present in both western and Chinese OCB scales, whereas protecting company resources seems a typical Chinese form of OCB. Paine and Organ (2000) argue that both the perception of OCB and the likelihood of demonstrating OCB are influenced by cultural dimensions, such as individualism-collectivism and power distance (PD), and in recent years the academic interest in the influence of culture on OCB is growing (Gelfand et al., 2007; Karam & Kwantes, 2006; Euwema et al., 2007).

If we sum up, although there are a number of ways in which OCBs have been conceptualized over the years (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988, 1990; Smith et al., 1983; Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994; Williams & Anderson, 1991), the two most popular conceptualizations are those developed by Organ (1988, 1990) and Williams and Anderson (1991; Podsakoff et al., 2009).

1.3. ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

Researchers have identified several OCB antecedents. Attitudinal variables like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and justice (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983; Moorman, 1991; Moorman, Niehoff & Organ, 1993; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994; Williams & Anderson, 1991) and personality traits like conscientiousness, agreeableness, and positive affectivity (Borman, Penner, Allen & Motowidlo, 2001; Hertz & Donovan, 2000; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000) are important predictors of OCB (Tolentino, 2009).

Empirical research has focused on four major categories of antecedents: individual (or employee) characteristics, task characteristics, organizational characteristics, and

leadership behaviors. The earliest research in this area (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988; Smith et al., 1983) concentrated primarily on employee attitudes, dispositions, and leader supportiveness. Subsequent research in the leadership area (Podsakoff et al., 1996b; Podsakoff et al., 1990) expanded the domain of leadership behaviors to include various forms of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. The effects of task and organizational characteristics are found primarily in the substitutes for leadership literature (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 1996b; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996a; Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie & Williams, 1993). Early research efforts on employee characteristics (Bateman & Organ, 1983; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Smith et al., 1983) focused on two main causes of OCBs. The first of these is a general affective “morale” factor, which Organ and Ryan (1995) view as underlying employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceptions of fairness, and perceptions of leader supportiveness. In addition to “morale,” Organ and Ryan (1995) argue that various dispositional factors, such as agreeableness, conscientiousness, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity, “predispose people to certain orientations vis-a-vis coworkers and managers (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Role perceptions also have been found to have significant relationships with at least some of the OCB dimensions, although the size of these relationships is not very substantial. Both role ambiguity and role conflict are significantly negatively related to altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship but not to conscientiousness and civic virtue. However, since both role ambiguity and role conflict are known to be related to employee satisfaction, and satisfaction is related to OCBs, it is likely that at least a portion of the relationship between ambiguity and conflict and OCBs is mediated by satisfaction (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Of the remaining **employee characteristics** examined in the literature, only indifference to rewards was found to have a consistent relationship with OCBs. Indeed, indifference to rewards was negatively related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. However, none of the other employee characteristics including ability, experience, training, and knowledge: professional orientation; or need for independence had a consistently strong relationship with any of the citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

All three forms of **task characteristics** included in the substitutes literature (task feedback, task routinization, and intrinsically satisfying tasks) were significantly related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Task feedback and intrinsically satisfying tasks were positively related to citizenship behavior, while task routinization was negatively related to OCBs (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

The relationships between **organizational characteristics** and OCBs were somewhat mixed. Neither organizational formalization, organizational inflexibility, advisory/staff support, nor spatial distance were consistently related to citizenship behaviors. However, group cohesiveness was found to be significantly and positively related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue; and perceived organizational support was found to be significantly related to employee altruism. In addition, rewards outside the leader's control were negatively related to altruism, courtesy, and conscientiousness (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Leadership behaviors can be divided into transformational leadership behaviors ("core" transformational behaviors, articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, and intellectual stimulation), transactional leadership behaviors (contingent reward behavior, contingent punishment behavior, non-contingent reward behavior, non-contingent punishment behavior), and behaviors identified with either the Path-Goal theory of leadership (role clarification behavior, specification of procedures, or supportive leader behavior), or the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory of leadership. Generally speaking, the transformational leadership behaviors had significant and consistent positive relationships with altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Two forms of transactional leader behavior were significantly related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue; one positively (contingent reward behavior), and the other negatively (non-contingent punishment behavior) (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

2. COMPULSORY CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR (CCB)

OCB is investigated from the positive side such as its positive image, its constructive implications, its contribution to individuals and organizations at multiple levels, and its general reinforcement of performance in the workplace (Gadot, 2006a) till today but in recent years, the assumptions behind the concept are started to question and there are growing studies (Bolino, Klotz, Turnley & Harvey, 2013; Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap & Suazo, 2010; Bolino, Turnley & Niehoff, 2004; Gadot, 2006a; Salamon & Deutsch, 2006; Zhao, Peng, Han, Sheard & Hudson, 2013; Zhao, Peng & Chen, 2014) which have examined OCB from a different perspective.

Gadot (2006a) has proposed that OCB can arise from other motives, some of them less voluntary or less self-initiated. Among these motivations are the abusive and exploitative behavior of immediate supervisors and the pressure by management or peers to become involved in activities in which the employee would otherwise not involve himself (Tepper, 2000). For example, a manager may require that employees stay late to put in extra work on a project, or intrude on a worker's vacation to have him or her put the final touches on a presentation (Bolino et al., 2013).

Thus, while the conventional approach has defined OCB on the assumption that all extra-role behaviors and OCBs are rooted in employees' "good will," rarely has anyone taken a different perspective, suggesting compulsory antecedents to extra-role or citizenship behaviors in and around the workplace (Gadot, 2006a).

There is an important question that we have to ask ourselves that what happens when the free will of individuals to engage in so-called good citizenship behavior or OCBs is deliberately hijacked by managers or other powerful social activists to increase work load? Where is the fine line between what people choose to do as a matter of "good will" and what they feel they must do because refusing to do so is just not an option? (Gadot, 2006a). Gadot (2006a) stated that if an external pressure is applied to perform OCB, then OCB (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue) lose its voluntary meaning.

2.1. Increased Market-Based Pressure:

Increased market pressures and higher levels of competition have forced modern organizations to maximize their effectiveness and efficiency by all available means. As the theory of OCB has previously demonstrated, organizations with a strong emphasis on citizenship behavior are healthier and more successful than other organizations that lack such a climate (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Thus, it is an important goal of managers everywhere to make employees aware of the benefits of OCB and, if possible, encourage it. However, the pressure to strive for higher levels of OCB may also increase the likelihood that managers and managements adopt other strategies aimed at increasing extra-role behaviors by other means. Such abusive, exploitative activities may include exerting strong pressure on individuals to engage in unrecompensed extra-role work activities beyond their formal job definitions and creating a social atmosphere in which working extra hours beyond the formal work day with no formal compensation becomes the accepted norm. Employees may also be made to feel that unless they are willing to undertake these activities, their social position or even their formal standing in the organization, in terms of tenure, will be jeopardized (Gadot, 2006a).

The fact that OCB has become a measure defined solely by employers is also problematic (Morrison, 1994). Managers have a monopoly on what is defined as OCB and what is not. In so doing, they sometimes extend the definition of formal duties into the informal area of good will and put unfair pressure on subordinates to undertake a heavier workload than they should strictly speaking be required to complete (Gadot, 2006a).

2.2. Vagueness of the Boundary between In-Role & Extra-Role Behaviors:

Another important issue is that, there is not a clear boundary between extra-role and in-role behaviors. Although Organ (1988) conceived of OCB as extra-role activity, subsequent studies questioned its discretionary nature. Van Dyne, Cummings and Parks (1995) maintained that to be considered extra-role, behavior must exceed expectations. Consequently, whether OCB assumes in-role or extra-role status will depend on the perspectives of the provider, the recipient(s), and observers. Further, expectations, and thus perceptions, change over time as one's responsibilities and tenure with the organization evolve (Finkelstein, 2013).

In evaluating employees, supervisors often consider OCB, viewing citizenship as the duty of a productive employee rather than extra-role service (Barksdale, 2001; Podsakoff et. al, 2000) and allocation of rewards (Allen, 1998; Podsakoff et.al., 2000; Van Scotter, 2000; cited in Finkelstein, 2013). In an attempt to increase competitiveness and the performance of the work unit, some managers and peers may try to narrow the gap between formal and informal work definitions (Gadot, 2006a). Additionally, supervisor perceptions of the motives underlying OCB affect performance ratings. Employees who appear to be motivated by a genuine desire to help are viewed more favorably than those whose citizenship behavior is dismissed as an attempt at impression management (Halbesleben et al, 2010). However, supervisor-focused impression management tactics can indeed influence a supervisor favorably (Bolino, Varela, Bande & Turnley, 2006; cited in Finkelstein, 2013).

Beliefs about whether an activity is obligatory or discretionary differ among employees and between employees and their supervisors. Workers are more likely to engage in OCBs they consider in-role. According to Vey and Campbell (2004) young workers in particular view many items typically contained in OCB instruments as in-role behaviors (Finkelstein, 2013).

Graen (1976) and Morrison (1994) who noted that “roles in organizations are rarely fixed and that role perceptions evolve as employees and supervisors negotiate the scope of work activities”. In line with this approach, Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) suggest that jobs are socially constructed rather than objectively defined. They are cognitive constructions created when both employees and employers make sense of social and behavioral cues. Rousseau (1989) supports this notion in a study of the psychological contract that found a mismatch between employees’ understanding of their employment obligations and their employers’ understandings of these duties. Thus, Morrison (1994) summarizes by stating that the fine line between in-role and extra-role (OCB) behaviors is ill defined and subject to multiple interpretations (Gadot, 2006a).

The general phenomenon of “good citizenship” or OCB can thus be interpreted along a continuum with two ends. The first represents self-initiated activities (spontaneous/voluntary) that are aimed at helping the organization, other persons, or any other social institution. The second includes socially initiated activities (coercive/non-voluntary)

that try to promote constructive ideas and interests by forcing or compelling others to invest time and effort beyond their duties (Gadot, 2006a).

Another conceptualization is called “citizenship pressure” was developed by Bolino et al. (2010) about the probable pressure on employees for engaging in OCB. Citizenship pressure is defined as a specific job demand in which an employee feels pressured to perform OCBs. It is somewhat similar to what Ehrhart and Naumann (2004) describe as an individual’s subjective OCB norms. In contrast to subjective and personal OCB norms, though, citizenship pressure describes the degree to which employees actually feel pressured to engage in such behavior. Thus, while OCB norms may contribute to feelings of citizenship pressure, we view citizenship pressure as different from and conceptually broader than, OCB norms. For instance, in cases where individuals’ personal OCB norms support the idea that employees should give organizations their all, we would expect them to feel higher levels of citizenship pressure; conversely, where personal OCB norms suggest that citizenship is less valued or normative, we would expect lower levels of citizenship pressure among employees. In this way, OCB norms are likely to operate as antecedents of citizenship pressure. More broadly, conceptualizing citizenship pressure in this way suggests that feelings of pressure could stem from either internal (e.g., dispositional) or external (e.g., group norms, role perceptions, desire for advancement) forces (Bolino et al., 2010)

There is an important question: Why employees are engaging in OCB? What are the motives behind these behaviors? Are we engaging in these behaviors with pressure or do we prefer to perform them with our own decisions? If there is any pressure, is it stemmed from internal or external factors?

When we examine the conceptualization of CCB and citizenship pressure, we can state that CCB concerns with the external sources of pressure like abusive supervision, market-based pressure, peer pressure, social and managerial pressure, etc. However, citizenship pressure also covers internal sources of pressures besides external. The requirement or pressure to perform OCBs may stem from a number of different sources, such as organizational imperatives to “do more with less” (Van Dyne & Ellis, 2004), the expectation by supervisors that employees should engage in these behaviors to help the organization (Gadot, 2006a), or the belief by employees that OCBs are simply part of their

jobs (McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison & Turban, 2007; Morrison, 1994). Moreover, prior work suggests that employees may engage in OCBs because they are worried about losing their job because of poor economic conditions, layoffs, or other uncertainties, and that engaging in citizenship behaviors may provide a way for workers to stand out from their peers. For instance, Salamon and Deutsch (2006) argued that employees engage in citizenship behaviors for instrumental reasons in order to demonstrate that they are exceptional employees worth retaining (Bolino et al., 2013).

Over time, however, routinely performing OCBs can have adverse consequences for employees. For instance, Bolino and Turnley (2003) proposed that employees may experience **“escalating citizenship”** when engaging in OCBs becomes so normative that they must continually do more OCBs in order to be seen as going the extra mile. They argue that escalating citizenship may make it harder for employees to truly get away from work and could contribute to competition and friction among workers who want to be seen as the most committed employees. Further, Bergeron (2007) noted that escalating citizenship implies that the value of OCBs may diminish as citizenship becomes normative, such that the costs associated with performing OCBs (e.g., time and energy) may eventually outweigh the benefits (e.g., rewards and advancement (Bolino et al., 2013).

Exploring the idea that citizenship may lose its discretionary quality, Van Dyne and Ellis (2004, p. 181) developed a conceptual model of **“job creep”**, which occurs when “employees feel ongoing pressure to do more than the requirements of their jobs”. They suggest that when OCBs are performed regularly over time, acts that were once considered beyond the scope of formal job requirements gradually become part of employees’ regular or expected duties (Van Dyne & Ellis, 2004). Put another way, what employees originally did voluntarily is no longer considered “extra” but instead is simply viewed as in-role job performance (Bolino et al., 2013).

3. LITERATURE REVIEW ABOUT ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS FROM DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVES

When we look over the articles that examine the OCB from different perspectives, we can find many researches about it as shown below in Table 2. The table is originated from Bolino et al. (2013) and expanded with the newest articles in the literature.

There are growing empirical studies that criticize the assumptions of conventional OCB and emphasize its negative effects beside its positive effects on both employees and the organization. Because of this reason, Organ (1997), the founder of the OCB concept, has recognized the need to reconsider the prevailing assumptions of OCB and questioned the basic assumptions that he made in his monograph named “Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Good Soldier Syndrome” (Organ,1988). He suggested that there are problems with the assumptions that OCB was defined as discretionary, extra-role and beyond the job requirements because it was seen empirically that OCB measure contains elements that many observers would consider part of the job. Morrison (1994) reported that 18 of 20 OCB items were described by a majority of respondents as “in-role”. Jobs, like roles, are changing in the wake of downsizing, flattening, team-based, flex form organizations (Organ, 1997). Also, there are researches (Mackenzie, Podsakoff & Fetter, 1991; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1994; Werner, 1994) that strongly suggest that some forms of OCB might be just as likely as in-role performance to lead to monetary recompense (Organ,1997).

Some scholars have put forward the idea that employees’ OCB may stem from self-monitoring or self-serving motives (Bolino et al., 2004). Bolino (1999), Leary (1996), Leary and Kowalsky (1990) and Schutz (1998) have suggested a concept of impression management and have asserted that people always try to make an impression on others and that they categorize others according to those impressions. Thus, it is controversial whether the main reason for facilitating or helping behaviour by employees is OCB or impression management tactics (Bolino, 1999). Secondly, some authors have argued that individual performance appraisal processes might be damaged because of the OCB of others. Podsakoff et al. (1993) argued that the evaluation of OCB by managers could make employees dissatisfied with their performance appraisals (Şeşen et al., 2014). We can state that employees may feel themselves

obliged to perform OCB because of peers' high performance, competition with them and the managers' assessment potential of OCB.

According to Vey and Campbell (2004), several recent publications on OCB have not recognized Organ's redefinition and still define OCB as extra-role or unrequired and unenforceable behavior.

There are growing articles that emphasize OCB's negative implications if a pressure was put on employees:

Table 2: Articles About OCB from Different Perspectives

Article	Construct of interest or theoretical lens	Findings or implications
Bergeron (2007)	Resource-allocation framework	As a result of time constraints, employees who engage in OCB use resources for these behaviors, which they then cannot use for task performance. Thus, there is potential for a negative relationship between OCB and task performance
Bergeron et al. (in press)	Resource-allocation framework	Employees who spent more time on OCB had lower salary increases and advanced more slowly than employees who spent less time on OCB
Bolino and Turnley (2005)	Individual initiative	Investigated the effects of individual initiative, a specific type of OCB that involves behaviors such as coming to work early or staying late, working at home, rearranging personal plans because of work, and taking on special projects. Individual initiative was positively related to role overload, job stress, and work-family conflict, and the relationship between individual initiative and work-family conflict was particularly strong among women
Bolino et al. (2004)	Reexamining prevailing assumptions of OCB	Other motives such as self-serving, transgression, make others look bad, dissatisfaction with or disinterest in one's in-role responsibilities, dissatisfaction with one's personal life can turn out OCB. Role ambiguity, less accurate performance appraisal processes, escalating citizenship, resentment and conflict among employees are potential individual-level outcomes of OCB.
Bolino et al. (2010)	Citizenship Pressure	Introduced citizenship pressure, which is "a specific job demand in which an employee feels pressured to perform OCBs" (p. 836). Citizenship pressure was related to higher levels of OCB, and this relationship was stronger among unmarried employees and those low in conscientiousness. Citizenship pressure also predicted work-family conflict, work-leisure conflict, job stress, and intentions to quit
Halbesleben et al. (2009)	Conservation of resources theory	OCB was positively related to work-family conflict, but this relationship was weaker among highly conscientious employees
Organ (1997)	Reexamining prevailing assumptions of OCB	The basic assumptions of OCB such that it is extra-role, beyond the job and unrewarded by the formal system, are no longer seems fruitful. A more plausible conceptualization of OCB can be made along the lines of what Borman and Motowidlo (1993) called <i>contextual performance</i>
Salamon and Deutsch (2006)	Evaluational psychological perspective	Employees engage in OCB to signal that they are valuable members of the organization, and they make a calculated decision about what type of OCB to perform depending on the perceived necessity of demonstrating their value to the organization
Van Dyne and Ellis (2004)	Job Creep	Introduced job creep, which refers to the "slow and subtle expansion of job duties" (p. 181), which is not recognized by supervisors or the organization
Vey & Campbell (2004)	Reexamining prevailing assumptions of OCB and OCB measurement	Criticized the prevailing assumption of OCB that it is assumed to represent extra-role behaviors. While conscientiousness and courtesy are highly considered as in-role behaviors; altruism and civic virtue are highly specified as extra-role.
Vigoda-Gadot (2006)	Compulsory Citizenship Behavior	Introduces compulsory citizenship behaviors, which occur when supervisors or other powerful individuals increase employees' workloads beyond their job descriptions in an effort to elicit higher levels of performance out of employees
Vigoda-Gadot (2007)	Compulsory Citizenship Behavior	Compulsory citizenship behaviors positively related to job stress, organizational politics, intentions to quit, negligent behavior, and burnout, and negatively related to innovation, job satisfaction, and in-role performance
Zhao et al. (2013)	Compulsory Citizenship Behavior	Abusive supervision positively associated with CCB, psychological safety mediated the link between abusive supervision on CCB and Chinese traditionality moderated the strength of the mediated relationship between abusive supervision and CCB via psychological safety
Zhao et al. (2014)	Compulsory Citizenship Behavior	Organizational identification mediated the negative relationship between CCB and OCB and interactional justice moderated the indirect effect of CCB on OCB via organizational identification

(Source: Bolino et al. (2013). *Exploring the dark side of organizational citizenship behavior*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34, 542–559; the table is enlarged with recent publications)

According to Gadot (2006a), increased market-based pressure and vagueness of the boundary between in-role and extra-role behaviors are the most important antecedents of CCB. Gadot (2007) stated that OCBs, at least some of them may arise from coercive managerial strategies or coercive social pressure by peers. Therefore, it can be understood that employees may engage in OCBs with different motivations. Among these motivations are the abusive and exploitative behavior of immediate supervisors and the pressure by management or peers to become involved in activities in which the employee would otherwise not involve himself (i.e., Tepper, 2000; cited in Gadot, 2007). Additionally, Bolino et al. (2010) stated that citizenship pressure can stem from either internal (e.g. dispositional) or external (e.g., group norms, role perceptions, desire for advancement) forces.

When we take a look at the outcomes; CCB is positively related with job stress, organizational politics, intentions to quit, negligent behavior and burnout and negatively related to innovation, job satisfaction and in-role performance (Gadot, 2007). Additionally, citizenship pressure predicted work-family conflict and work-leisure conflict (Bolino et al., 2010).

In this study, we mainly focus on antecedents of CCB and select psychological safety and organizational politics to examine. The reasons of these two variables to be chosen as antecedents in our study are mentioned in the following.

Employees generally can not resist or say “no” if there are coercive job demands because they think that their resistance may harm their social or formal position in the organization and also they feel that they may face with retaliation. However, in a psychologically safe working environment, employees can easily express themselves, opinions, thoughts, suggestions, etc. and therefore we expect that it has a negative effect on CCBs.

However, political working environment is expected to have a positive effect on employees to engage in CCBs. Employees can not be genuine in a political working environment because of pressures such as social or managerial. Also, individuals working in a political environment should have high levels of job strain because they are unable to predict how others will act or to forecast what the most appropriate action to take would be (Harris &

Kacmar, 2005). In highly political organizations, rewards are not necessarily related to work performance (Kacmar & Ferris, 1991), but may instead be tied to relationships, power, and other less objective factors. Because perceptions of politics are related to ambiguous reward structures, in a highly political environment employees may not have confidence that their work behaviors will be recognized, or that valuable rewards will be distributed according to those behaviors (Cropanzano et al., 1997; cited in Zivnuska et al., 2004). Therefore, it can be asserted that employees think that they can not create a difference if they solely fulfill their formal job tasks. In highly political environments, employees may feel themselves pressured to create a difference and feel strain to seek other activities such as OCB to show themselves in order to survive.

4. PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY

4.1. DEFINITION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY

The concept of psychological safety is rooted in the areas of clinical psychology (Rogers, 1958), family therapy (Minuchin, 1974) and groups (Gibbard, Hartman and Mann, 1974). The central theme is that positive outcomes are achieved under conditions in which individuals feel safe (Ning & Jin, 2009).

Psychological safety is defined by Kahn (1990) as ‘feeling able to show and employ one’s self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career (Ning & Jin, 2009). More specifically, the concept of psychological safety is rooted in interpersonal interactions where individuals who perceive that they are not at risk interpersonally will be more willing to try new and different ways of getting work done hence increasing individual work performance (Ning & Jin, 2009). As such, psychological safety refers to one’s beliefs about how others will respond when he or she would ask questions, seek feedback, report an error, or come up with a new idea. An individual assesses the interpersonal consequences of the above behaviors, namely if I would speak up or report a mistake will others in the organizations hurt or act in a way that embarrasses me (Edmondson, 2004; cited in Carmeli & Gittell, 2009).

The construct of psychological safety is extended to an organizational climate for psychological safety. A climate for psychological safety refers to formal and informal organizational practices and procedures guiding and supporting open and trustful interactions within the work environment. Thus, a climate for psychological safety describes a work environment where employees are safe to speak up without being rejected or punished (Baer & Frese, 2003).

4.2. ANTECEDENTS & CONSEQUENCES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY

Positive outcomes are achieved under conditions in which individuals feel safe and negative outcomes are achieved under conditions in which individuals feel unsafe. In a trustworthy environment, individuals will be more willing to try new and different ways of getting work done and they feel that they are able to engage in work without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status or career (Li & Yan, 2009).

Although the psychological condition of safety and its antecedents and outcomes have received relatively little attention in the literature to date, there are some researches about its outcomes and antecedents. When we investigate the outcomes of psychological safety, we found some researches about it. Edmondson (1996, 1999) has identified psychological safety as a vital condition that fosters learning. Psychological safety provides members with the supportive, accepting climate so that they can engage in reflection and innovate (Carmeli & Gittell, 2009; Karik & Carmeli, 2009). They feel their own abilities and personalities are appreciated, believe they are free to ask for help and take risks, have few fears that they will be blamed, and believe that others will not undermine their efforts. (Chen & Tjosvold, 2012). Psychological safety was originally used as an individual- and team-level concept (Baer & Frese, 2003). For the purposes of the present research, we focus on the individual level concept. Psychological safety has been related at the individual-level of analysis with positive outcomes such as greater job engagement (Kahn 1990), increased vitality and involvement in creative work endeavors (Karik & Carmeli, 2009), improved learning and performance (Carmeli et al.2009), and reduced escalation of commitment to unpromising decisions (O'Neill 2009; cited in Roussin & Webber, 2012).

As Dollard & Bakker (2010) asserted that a lack of psychological safety climate in an organization could lead to poorly designed jobs and chronic job demands. For example, high levels of work pressure may prevail because of a lack of policies, practices, and procedures aimed at maintaining work demands at manageable levels. An example could be a lack of procedures to report work overload and fatigue. A lack of psychological safety climate could also lead to increased pressure to hide emotions rather than express them. This may occur if worker concerns are not listened to, or if the importance of psychological well-being is not recognized, so that fear of expression is increased, along with associated emotional

demands. Therefore, low level of psychological safety has an increasing effect on psychological health problems via increasing job demands (Dollard & Bakker, 2010). In another research, front line personnels in hotels may be reluctant to bring customer's requests, complaints and expectations for-ward to management for fear of retaliation (i.e., lack of employee perceptions of psychological safety at the workplace) (Guchait et al., 2014). Also a growing stream of research examines psychological safety's relationship to extra-role behaviors such as speaking up. Speaking up, or voice, is defined as upward-directed, promotive verbal communication (Premeaux & Bedeian 2003, Van Dyne & LePine 1998). Challenging the status quo and offering ideas to improve process can be a vital force in helping organizations learn. However, considerable research has shown that individuals often do not work in environments where they feel safe to speak up (Detert & Edmondson 2011, Milliken et al. 2003, Ryan & Oestreich 1998). Liang and colleagues (2012) examined psychological safety, felt obligation for constructive change, and organization-based self-esteem as three unique, interacting variables to predict supervisory reports of promotive and prohibitive voice (Edmondson & Lei, 2014).

In the study of May et.al (2004), supportive supervisor and rewarding co-worker relations had positive relations with feelings of psychological safety, and adherence to co-worker norms was negatively related. These findings confirm previous research, which has discussed the positive effects of supportive managerial behavior on creativity, task performance and psychological safety (e.g. Deci et al., 1989; Edmondson, 1999; Oldham & Cummings, 1996). Also, individuals who reported adhering to co-worker norms experienced less psychological safety at work. Perhaps employees who consciously feel they must comply with normative behaviors set by their co-workers do not feel as if they can truly be themselves at work and experience the negative aspects of concertive control systems in teams (Barker, 1993). Additionally feelings of self-consciousness significantly influenced employees' psychological safety. Those individuals who constantly worry about what others think of them are likely to experience less psychological safety at work. They will be inhibited when it comes to trying new ways of accomplishing their tasks (May et al., 2004). The feeling of always being worry about what other people think, reflects the social pressure on employees. We can infer that these feelings lower the psychological safety and may lead to exhibiting behaviors such as OCB under pressure.

4.3. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY AND COMPULSORY CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

Organizations with a climate for psychological safety will enhance learning behavior as well as the use of employees' creative potential. Potential mechanisms by which climate for psychological safety produces a higher degree of performance are: ease and reduced risk in presenting new ideas in a safe climate (Edmondson, 1999; West, 1990), better team-learning (Edmondson, 1999), higher level of job involvement and exertion of greater effort (Brown & Leigh, 1996), and smoother collaboration in solving problems (Baer & Frese, 2003). However, low level of psychological safety may have positive effects on job demands (Dollard & Bakker, 2010) and also Liang and colleagues (2012) found psychological safety to be strongly related to prohibitive voice which describes employee expressions of concern about existing or impending practices, incidents, or behaviors that may harm their organizations (Edmondson & Lei, 2014). Therefore, we can infer that employees can not express their true feelings and thoughts about their job under low level of psychological safety. Therefore, they can not refuse to exhibit OCBs under pressure (supervisory, peer and organizational pressures) and we should expect that psychological safety will be in a negative relationship with CCB. According to Zhao et al. (2013) research, psychological safety has a significant negative relationship with CCB and they also asserted that abusive supervision is positively related with CCB and psychological safety mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and CCB.

Many researchers (e.g., Edmondson, 1999; Gregory et al., 2009) consider psychological safety to be one of the most important psychological variables for predicting behaviors that people develop at work. Furthermore, psychological safety may also consistently link to CCB. This is because once employees feel less psychologically safe, they are less willing to participate in extra-role activities (Li & Yan, 2009; cited in Zhao et al., 2013). Also, as mentioned above, low level of psychological safety may have positive effects on job demands (Dollard & Bakker, 2010). Therefore we can infer that in low levels of psychological safety, the discretionary willingness nature of exhibiting OCB deteriorates and employees just "seem" to display extra-role activities because of refusing to face some undesirable outcomes such as losing job, retaliation from the supervisor, being compared with

other co-workers who have OCBs and assessed as inadequate by the supervisor if they do not display OCB, etc. Thus, we can state that these behaviors turn out to be robotic and serve as a token. The discretionary nature of OCB deteriorates because of a social, environmental or managerial pressure on it. Thus, we can expect that:

H1: Psychological safety contributes negatively to compulsory citizenship behavior.

5. ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS

5.1. DEFINITION OF ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS

As all we know, our main target is to achieve our goals in life, especially at the work. When we think about the different dynamics in work such as our supervisor, coworkers, organizational climate, relationships with other departments and upper management; we are playing a multi-player game at work. We have to generate good relationships with these actors and satisfy them in order to carry out.

Moreover, today's work environment is based on inter-departmental work design such that you have to work with various departments for accomplishing an assignment. For example; if you are working in a marketing department, you have to be in a relationship with the departments of corporate communications, customer relations management (CRM), law & compliance, sales, etc. While you are making your assignments with these departments, you have to monitor them for whether they can finish or not their parts of the job till the deadline and sometimes you have to exhibit political behaviors in order to make them finish their parts.

There are at least two widely used definition of political behavior (Cropanzano et al., 1997). One view sees politics as an influence process that is exercised within work settings. In this view, political behavior includes a very general set of social behavior. It is a broad and influential social tool that can contribute to the basic functioning of the organization. Perhaps as a result of this generality, this definition allows that politics can be functional or dysfunctional depending on the circumstances. However, a more common view defines politics more narrowly. In the more specific definition, the term politics is limited to behavior that is strategically designed to maximize short term or long term self interests (Ferris, Russ and Fundt, 1989). Working individuals' effort for more power and resources in order to actualize their goals forms the basis of political behavior (Ferris and Kacmar, 1992). An individual who wants to attain power and resources in order to reach his/her wished outcome must have an influence on certain individuals and groups within the social processes of an organization (Çalışkan, 2006).

Organizational political behavior is described as employees' intentional (manipulative) set of behaviors towards other people in order to influence them and to attain

power and resources in line with their benefits or those of their groups that represent them (Kipnis, Schmidt and Wilkinson, 1980; cited in Çalışkan, 2006). Kacmar and Baron (1999a) offered the following definition: “organizational politics involves actions by individuals, which are directed toward the goal of furthering their own self-interests without regard for the well-being of others or their organization”.

There is a growing acknowledgment that politics play a prominent role in organizational policies and processes (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Frost, 1987; Gandz & Murray, 1980; Gioia & Longenecker, 1994; Longenecker, Sims, & Gioia, 1987; Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995; Pfeffer, 1981; Tziner, Latham, Price, & Haccoun, 1996) and likely influence several important work-related attitudes and behaviors (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997; cited in Ford, 2002).

Ferris, Russ, and Fandt (1989) identified two characteristics of organizational politics that impact its relationships with employee attitudes and behaviors. First, perceptions of organizational politics are more important than reality (Ferris et al., 1989). Gandz and Murray (1980) suggested that organizational politics should be viewed as a subjective assessment rather than as an objective state. The second characteristic of organizational politics that influences its relationship with important organizational and individual variables is that organizational politics may be interpreted as either beneficial or detrimental to an individual's wellbeing (Ferris et al., 1989). As such, organizational policies and practices that are viewed as highly political can provide situations of potential gain (i.e., opportunity) as well as potential loss (i.e., threats) (Ferris et al., 1996b). For example, research suggests that for many individuals, organizational politics are perceived as a threat to their wellbeing (Baum, 1989; Cropanzano et al., 1997) and result in a variety of negative affective reactions (e.g., increased job anxiety, reduced job satisfaction) (Kacmar & Baron, 1999a). However, some individuals may perceive organizational politics as an opportunity to advance their self-interests, which may result in positive affective reactions (Ferris et al., 1996b; Ferris et al., 1989; cited in Ford, 2002).

According to Ferris and Kacmar (1992) apart from the actual existence of politics in organizations, the employees' political perception is very important issue because how employees see their organizations' political nature, influence their way to do their jobs. These

perceptions affect the feelings of employees about their colleagues, their company and their boss and also influence their productivity, job satisfaction and turnover intention (Ferris and Kacmar, 1992). For example, organizational politics perceptions have been found to be related to increased job anxiety (Anderson, 1994; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Ferris et al., 1996a; Ferris et al., 1996b), reduced job satisfaction (Anderson, 1994; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Ferris et al., 1996a; Ferris et al., 1996b; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Nye & Witt, 1993; Parker et al., 1995), reduced satisfaction with supervisor (Drory, 1993; Ferris et al., 1996b), and increased intent to turnover (Anderson, 1994; Cropanzano et al., 1997). Research suggests that individuals who perceive high levels of organizational politics also are likely to enact political behavior themselves (Ferris, Harrell-Cook, & Dulebohn, 2000), thereby creating a self-perpetuating cycle (Ford, 2002).

It can be asserted that if employees' politics perceptions about their workplaces are in a negative way, it reduces the organizational effectiveness and employees' motivation. When politics perception in organizations is high, employees feel uncertainty and ambiguity for their work environments because they have no idea about which actions will be rewarded or punished (Haris, Harris & Harvey, 2007, p.635; cited in Yaldiran, 2011).

5.2. ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS PERCEPTION

Organizational politics scholars claim that, several factors including both organizational and individual influences have effects on perceptions of organizational politics. Ferris et al., (1989) categorized influential antecedents under three groups; organizational influences, job/work environment influences and personal influences.

5.2.1. Organizational Influences:

Organizational influences consist of four variables; centralization, formalization, hierarchical level and span of control which affect the occurrence of organizational politics at workplaces (Parker et al., 1995).

Centralization: Centralization, by concentrating power and control, increases the likelihood that individuals with little legitimate power will use other influence strategies (Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwork & Mayes, 1980) and also perceive other decisions to be

motivated by self-interests. Additionally, if an organization is highly centralized, then employees at lower levels may have less control over decision outcomes and might therefore, perceive more decisions to be politically motivated. The relationship between centralization and politics perceptions has not yet been tested, however (Parker et al., 1995).

Formalization: Formalization of goals, roles, and procedures should lead to a decrease in political behavior by reducing members' ambiguity in reaching objectives. Surprisingly, however, Ferris and Kacmar (1992) found no relationship between formalization and politics perceptions (Parker et al., 1995).

Hierarchical Level: While the model posits that employees at higher levels of the organizational hierarchy should perceive more politics than those at lower levels, tests of this relationship have been mixed: Madison et al. (1980) reported that CEO's perceived more politics than middle and lower level managers, and that 90% of the managers surveyed in their study believed that politics is more frequent at higher levels. Gandz and Murray (1980), however, found that employees at lower levels in the organization actually perceive more politics. Further, Ferris and Kacmar (1992) found no differences in the perception of organizational politics among supervisors and non supervisors (Parker et al., 1995).

Span of Control: Although increased supervisory span of control is also predicted to increase employees' perceptions of politics by increasing employees' ambiguity (Ferris et al., 1989), Ferris and Kacmar found no relationship between these constructs (Parker et al., 1995).

5.2.2. Job/Work Environment Influences:

The second set of antecedents, job / work environment influences, include job autonomy, job variety, feedback, availability of advancement opportunities, and the quality of relationships with supervisor and coworkers (Parker et al., 1995).

Hackman and Oldham (1980) posited that job autonomy, job variety, and feedback would reduce incumbents' uncertainty regarding their work environment; an increase in any of these factors, therefore, is predicted to lower politics perceptions. Recent research-finding skill variety, job autonomy and feedback all to be negatively related to politics perceptions (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992) supports these predictions (Parker et al., 1995).

When limited career options are available, political influence processes are expected to play a greater role in vying for those positions. For example, subjects in the Madison et al. (1980) study perceived more politics in reorganization and personnel changes than in any other situations. In other studies, individuals' perceptions of advancement opportunities were found to be negatively related to politics perceptions (Gandz & Murray, 1980; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; cited in Parker et al., 1995).

Lastly, Ferris et al. (1989) predicted the quality of members' interactions with supervisors and co-workers to be negatively related to politics perceptions; individuals perceived as acting opportunistically should increase other individuals' perceptions of politics. Consistent with this hypothesis, Ferris and Kacmar (1989) found that the relationship with one's supervisor and work group cohesion were both negatively related to politics perceptions (Parker et al., 1995).

5.2.3. Personal Influences:

Personal influences of politics perceptions, identified in the Ferris et al. (1989) model, include gender and age. They hypothesized that women and older employees are more likely to have experienced and been impacted by politics in promotions and awards than men and younger individuals. Additionally, younger individuals may approach work more idealistically than older employees. Moreover, Witt et al. (2004) claim that older employees have higher levels of political skills than younger employees. These higher levels of political skills give older employees the advantage to cope better with workplace politics. Ferris and Kacmar (1992) found no evidence for either of these relationships (Parker et al., 1995).

In addition, personality characteristics like, machiavellian and self-monitoring are the individual antecedents of perception of organizational politics. Perception of organizational politics model suggests that both high machiavellian and high self-monitor individuals may see their work environments as more political than their counterparts (Ferris et al., 1989).

5.3. CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS PERCEPTION

Ferris et al. (1989) proposed effects of politics perceptions on several outcomes, including: organization withdrawal, job involvement, job anxiety and job satisfaction. They suggest that these outcomes are primarily the result of three responses that may occur once individuals perceive politics in their organization: First, individuals may withdraw from the organization- through turnover or absenteeism- in order to avoid becoming involved with politics. Second, individuals might also remain in the organization but become so involved in their work that they do not notice the effects of politics or are able to just ignore its existence. A third alternative is to become more involved in the organization's politics in order to increase one's understanding and control; as decisions become less ambiguous, job anxiety is likely to be reduced while job satisfaction should increase (Parker et al., 1995).

Job Satisfaction: According to Ferris and friends (1989), an increase in the employees' perception of organizational politics is negatively associated with job satisfaction (cited in Cropanzano et al., 1997, p. 164). Ferris and Kacmar (1992) reported strong negative correlations between perceptions of politics and job satisfaction. This decrease in job satisfaction can be explained with the resource allocation decisions that controlled by political considerations which are generally thought to be unfair (Poon, 2003).

It was also suggested (Ferris et al., 1989) that these effects are moderated by an individual's perceived control and their understanding of the organization and political influence processes. Indeed, Ferris, Brand, Brand, Rowland, Gilmore, King, Kacmar and Burton (1993) reported that the effects of politics perceptions were stronger for respondents with low control than those with more control (Parker et al., 1995).

Job Involvement: Ferris and Kacmar (1992) reported a small positive relationship between perception of politics and job involvement. This result can be explained as the reluctance of the employees to play the political game, while they have interest on the job and on the organization or they need the job (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). On the contrary, Cropanzano and colleagues (1997) think that, when it comes to working with peers, to experience politics in peer relations, may decrease one's desire for involvement which means

a negative relationship between job involvement and perception of organizational politics (Yaldiran, 2011).

Job anxiety: From Jex and Beehr's (1991) point of view, job anxiety is associated with a number of stressor at the workplace (ascited in Ferris et al., 1996b, p.242). In additon to that statement Ferris and colleagues propose that as being a work-related stressor, organizational politics is positively associated with job anxiety (Ferris et al., 1996b; cited in Yaldiran, 2011).

Organizational Withdrawal: In many cases when employees find their enviornments uncomfortable, they will tend to avoid from this constrained environment and withdraw psychologically (Cropanzano et al., 1997). Also an employee who perceives his/her work environment as political, responses to the situation by withdrawing him/herself from the organization (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). Withdrawal can take place in two ways; psychologically and physically; employees who have the luxury to quit the job, take the pshysical way and resigned from the organization whereas the other employees who don't have the chance to quit the job immediately take the psychological way and relax themselves by thinking about quitting the job (Poon, 2003). There are two forms of withdrawal in terms of absenteeism or turnover which expected to occur when the perceivers desire not to be involved in the political games of the organization (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). Previous research indicates that organizational politics is significantly associated with organizational withdrawal (Conpranzano et al., 1997; cited in Yaldiran, 2011).

5.4. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS PERCEPTION AND COMPULSORY CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

Since politics is an epidemic phenomenon in organizations (Gadot, 2000), the impact of organizational politics on OCB has captured the interest of organizational scholars for quite some time (e.g., Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Gadot, 2000). An organization with high levels of political tactics has been considered an unwholesome environment (Hsiung et al., 2012). In highly political environments, organizations fail to consistently recognize performance, as reward decisions are often tied to nonmerit-based factors, such as group membership, power, nepotism, and retaliation motives (Rusbult et al. 1990; cited in Chang et al., 2012). From a social exchange theory perspective, such an environment may result in psychological strain, decline of morale, and disequilibrium in the exchange relationship, all of which impairs the altruistic motives of OCB (Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009; cited in Hsiung et al., 2012). Social exchange theory suggests that, in response to the imbalance in the employee-organization exchange relationship, employees withdraw time and effort from their job. Moreover, when experiencing exchange relationship imbalances, employees often first withdraw effort from extra-role activities because these activities fall outside of formal requirements and, thus, reducing these activities is less likely to be punished by supervisors (Rosen et al. 2009a, b; cited in Chang et al., 2012).

However, the above perspective cannot fully explain the relationship between organizational politics and OCB. In the 1990s, scholars proposed impression management theory to explain the occurrence of OCB. That research stream proposes that citizenship behaviours may stem from impression enhancing and self-serving motives (e.g., Bolino, 1999; Eastman, 1994). Previous research has found employees who exhibit higher levels of OCB receive higher performance evaluations and more rewards than those who exhibit lower levels of OCB (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). If OCB accrues individual benefits, employees may engage in such behaviours based on self-serving purposes rather than the motives of altruism, reciprocity, and concern for the organization (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Individuals' impression enhancing and self-serving motives are more likely to be expressed in highly political environments (Bolino, 1999; cited in Hsiung et al., 2012). In this case, OCB is essential in their efforts to take advantage of the perceived opportunity, as it is

used to acquire benefits from the political environment (e.g., developing relational ties with powerful others) (Chang et al., 2012). Therefore, organizational politics may encourage individual employees to use citizenship behaviours as a means to shape their public image and pursue personal goals (Hsiung et al., 2012). Hence, it can be deduced that employees are not motivated to perform OCB due to negative feelings towards colleagues or the organization if they perceive the workplace as political (Hsiung et al., 2012). However, they feel obliged to perform OCBs as a tool to survive in the workplace because as Bolino et al. (2010) mentioned that managers are encouraging OCB by means of organizational norms and culture, employee performance evaluation, and stories that highlight the expected beyond-duty behavior (OCB), thus putting pressure on employees to engage actively in OCB. While there can be a direct pressure on employees for engaging OCB such as a job demand, there can be also indirect pressures such as social and organizational which employees may put pressure on themselves in order to survive in the political work environment.

According to Hsiung et al. (2012), perception of organizational politics is negatively related to OCB through the mediation of job satisfaction, while perception of organizational politics is positively related to OCB through the mediation of careerism. Although these two processes appear contradictory, they reflect a common practical phenomenon: the psychological dilemma that an employee may experience when he/she perceives the workplace as political. Such an employee is not motivated to perform OCBs due to negative feelings towards colleagues or the organization. Nevertheless, this person may feel “*obliged*” to perform these behaviours because such actions are necessary or beneficial for career development (Hsiung et al., 2012). Thus, it can be deduced that political environment creates pressure on employees to survive at the job and pursue career. Therefore, employees may choose to act as a “good citizen” and they create the image of a team player who does not rock the boat by questioning the decisions of the management.

Zhao et al. (2014) stated that employees may experience different types of social and managerial pressure in terms of CCB, such as immediate supervisors, powerful peers and organizational climate (Gadot, 2006a) which in turn influences compulsory citizenship’s structure. In the form of a political organizational climate, there are several studies have tested perception of organizational politics in relation to a handful of job outcome-related variables

(e.g., Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewé & Johnson, 2003; Vigoda-Gadot & Drory, 2006b). From these studies, empirical evidence has accumulated, focusing mainly on the negative effect of organizational politics on job satisfaction (e.g., Ferris et al., 1996a; Zhou & Ferris, 1995), organizational commitment (e.g., Randall, Cropanzano, Borman, & Birjulin, 1999; Vigoda, 2000), job stress and strain, and job burnout (Kacmar et al., 1999b; Valle & Perrewé, 2000; cited in Gadot & Talmud, 2010).

As can be deduced from the job outcomes, organizational politics probably cause stress and strain because of trying to exhibit direct or indirect (active or passive) engagement of people in influence tactics and power struggles. These activities are frequently aimed at securing or maximizing personal interests or, alternatively, avoiding negative outcomes within the organization (Ferris et al., 2002; Kacmar & Ferris, 1991; cited in Gadot & Talmud, 2010).

Therefore, we can deduce that the organizational politics will be a source of pressure on employees for displaying OCB which turns out to be CCB.

H2: Organizational politics perception contributes positively to compulsory citizenship behavior.

6. THE RESEARCH MODEL

Overall, our research model consists of organizational politics and psychological safety as independent variables and compulsory citizenship behavior as dependent variable. With this research model, we aim to analyze the relationship and contributions of organizational politics and psychological safety on CCB. The research model and hypotheses are presented below.

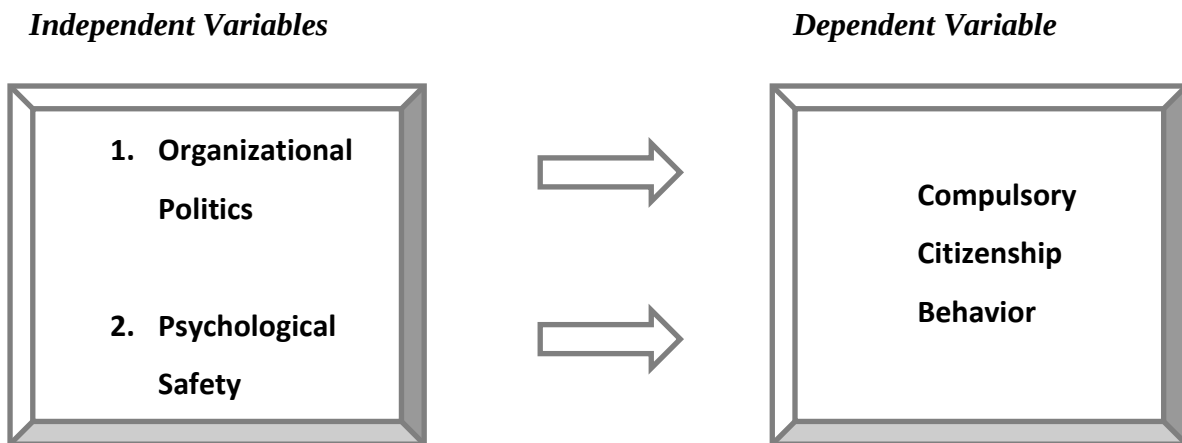


Figure 1. The Suggested Theoretical Framework

HYPOTHESES:

H1: Psychological safety contributes negatively to compulsory citizenship behavior.

H2: Organizational politics perception contributes positively to compulsory citizenship behavior.

7. RESEARCH QUESTION: WHICH SOURCES OF PRESSURE MOST CONTRIBUTE TO CCB?

When we consider ourselves, we spend most of our time at work with the actors such as our supervisor, coworkers, employees of other departments and we have to deal with the behaviors of such actors that shape the organizational climate. We alter our behaviors with the observations according to the work environment. Which employee can say that he/she did not change a little bit after starting a job?

As all we know, social learning is one of the most important concepts in psychology literature. Albert Bandura states that you can learn how to behave with observations, reading and hearing but you do not exhibit all behaviors that you learn because expectations are a basic determiner for displaying a behavior. For example, if you observe that your coworker is rewarded or praised because of offering new revenue bracket or suggests an innovation, you will think that you can get rewarded when you display these same behaviors. Therefore, we can think that the actors that surround us are very influential on our behaviors and the behaviors and approaches of these actors may turn into a source of pressure.

The organizational citizenship behaviors can be thought in a same manner. As Finkelstein (2011) states that an intrinsically motivated individual engages in an activity because it is inherently interesting or satisfying. Intrinsically motivated activities have been characterized as a form of self-expression (Amabile, 1994) because the objective resides in the behavior itself. Extrinsically motivated individuals undertake a task to obtain some separable outcome. Their aim is to acquire specific external rewards or avoid negative consequences (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Rioux and Penner 2001 identified three motives for OCB (Finkelstein & Penner; 2004). Two are relatively other oriented: pride in and positive affect for the organization (Organizational Concern) and regard for and the desire to help coworkers (Prosocial Values). The more self-focused Impression Management motives refer to the desire to be perceived as helpful to acquire certain rewards or avoid negative consequences. (Finkelstein, 2011). These negative consequences should be analyzed in depth. These negative situations can be the fear of losing job, stay behind of other coworkers, the worry about getting a low performance rate by supervisor, etc. These all may create pressure on employees that they are aware or unaware of. It can be understood that employees can engage

in OCB because of their dispositions, external factors or pressure. As Zhao et al. (2013) states that it is possible that CCB results from various types of external pressure such as immediate supervisors and powerful peers (Gadot, 2006a).

From this point of view, we have separated the factors which can affect OCB such as the person itself, the family and the work environment that consists supervisor, powerful peers and organizational climate. Family responsibilities are added to the scale because we thought that it might be an indirect pressure on employees to show themselves at work and it can be a stimulus for not losing the job. At this point, our interest is to investigate whether some sources of pressure are more significant for employees in displaying CCB. Hence, we ask the research question below.

Research Question: Which sources of pressure most contribute to CCB?

8. METHODOLOGY

8.1. SAMPLE

This study aimed to target a population of employees from finance sector, who are working in İstanbul. Among a convenient sample of 265 employees; 170 employees responded the survey (the response rate is 64%). More than half of the respondents are female (60%). Most of them are between 31-40 years old (61%), married (64%) and university graduates (74%). Respondents' tenure in their current organization is 6 years in average and the tenure changes between a range of 1-21 years. Respondents' total tenure is 12 years in average and the total tenure changes between a range of 1-32 years. The details of distributions of demographic variables are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Demographic Features of the Sample

VARIABLES		FREQUENCY	PERCENT
GENDER	Male	68	0,40
	Female	102	0,60
MARITAL STATUS	Married	108	0,64
	Single	62	0,36
EDUCATION	High School	4	0,02
	University	126	0,74
	Master	40	0,24
NUMBER OF CHILDREN	No Children	110	0,65
	At least One Child	60	0,35
DEPARTMENT	Audit/Compliance/Law	35	0,21
	Operations	61	0,36
	Product Management / Sales / Marketing	74	0,44
JOB TITLE	Manager	84	0,49
	Assistant Manager	45	0,26
	Supervisor	23	0,14
	Officer	18	0,11
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES UNDER RESPONSIBILITY	0	95	0,56
	1-2	32	0,19
	3 and more	43	0,25

8.2. PROCEDURE

Data were collected from 265 participants who are working in various organizations in finance sector located in İstanbul. Questionnaires were sent to the participants by e-mail. Of 265 responses, 95 surveys were disregarded due to the missing data and remaining 170 surveys constituted the data for this study. Therefore, 64% of response rate was achieved in a period of two months. A brief introduction explaining the purpose of the study was given by the researcher to the participants. Also, the assurance of the confidentiality of the study was provided by mentioning the academic purposes of the study. The fulfillment of the questionnaires took less than 10 minutes. The completed questionnaires were collected by the researcher via a survey programme.

8.3. SURVEY INSTRUMENTS

Four measurement scales of the related research areas are used in this present study in order to evaluate the effects of employees' perceptions of organizational politics and psychological safety on CCB. Also we developed the sources of pressures scale which includes the pressure sources that can be stemmed from employees' themselves, their family, their manager, their coworkers and their organizational environment. In the questionnaire, there were 7 demographic questions to be analyzed for comparing groups.

8.3.1. Perception of Organizational Politics Scale

Perception of Organizational Politics Scale (POPS) developed by Kacmar and Ferris (1991) is used widely all around the world to measure employees' politics perception in their organizations. Kacmar and Ferris (1991) suggested the first version of the scale with 40 items, which was re-examined by Kacmar and Carlson (1997), who proposed a more parsimonious 12-item scale. This latter scale has become the most accepted measure of POPS (Gadot & Talmud, 2010). The scale for these questions ranged from 1 (totally disagree) to 6 (totally agree). While low scores mean that organizational politics is low, high scores mean that organizational politics is high in the organization.

Examples of Perception of Organizational Politics Scale (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997, p.656) items are given in the following sentences; "Favoritism, rather than merit, determines

who gets ahead in this organization”, “There has always been an influential group of employees in this organization that no one ever crosses”, “Rewards come only to those employees who work hard in this organization”. The last one is a reverse item.

Three items from the scale were omitted because of the similarity of expressions in the items with psychological safety scale. The omitted items are as follows: “There is no place for yes-men in this organization: Good ideas are desired, even when it means disagreeing with superiors”, “Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly, even when they are critical of well-established ideas”, “Employees here usually don’t speak up for fear of retaliation by others”.

8.3.2. Psychological Safety Scale

Psychological Safety is measured by a seven-item scale which was developed by Edmondson (1999) and is generally used by scholars in order to measure the psychological safety climate in the organization. Examples of Psychological Safety scale items are given in the following sentences; “Members of this organization are able to bring up problems and tough issues”, “It is safe to take a risk in this organization”, “No one in this organization would deliberately act in a way that undermines my efforts”. The scale for these questions ranged from 1 (totally disagree) to 6 (totally agree). While low scores mean that psychological safety is low, high scores mean that psychological safety is high in the organization.

8.3.3. Compulsory Citizenship Behavior Scale

Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors are measured by 27-item Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale which was compiled from the items of scales developed by Organ and Konovsky (1989; 1996), Bolino et.al (2010) and Gadot (2007). The 5-item scale of compulsory citizenship behavior which was developed by Gadot (2007) was used with short expressions such as “Taking extra duties besides the current work load”, “Helping other co-workers even if having no energy or time”. Besides these five items, the organizational citizenship behavior scale items which were developed by Organ (1989) were added to the scale. Example items are given in the following sentences; “Help others who have heavy work loads”, “Helps orient new people even though it is not required”, “Respects the rights

and privileges of others”, “Attendance at work is above average”. Additionally, some items were added from the scale that was used by Bolino et.al (2010). Example items are given in the following sentences; “Giving support with a cell phone or e-mail for work even if I am not at work”, “Goes into the office before normal business hours”, “Rearranges or alters his/her personal plans because of work”. The items were selected by considering the most complaining topics at work by employees.

CCB was measured with the compiled OCB scale by asking respondents to indicate how often they felt pressure to engage in OCBs such as altruism, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue and generalized compliance (conscientiousness). The scale for these questions ranged from 1 (with no pressure) to 6 (always with pressure). While low scores mean that CCBs are low, high scores mean that CCBs are high in the organization.

8.3.4. Sources of Pressures Scale

After asking the respondents the level of pressure which is felt for performing OCBs, the sources of pressures which can be stemmed from employees’ themselves, their family, their coworkers, their managers and their working environment are asked with an introduction: “If you think about yourself, the people that you interact and your working environment; could you please give a rating for the pressure is felt for each of the sources given below while considering the pressure ratings that you gave for OCB items in the previous section. The response scale ranged from 1 (with no pressure) to 6 (always with pressure).

- I feel that I am putting pressure on myself.
- I feel the pressure of my family responsibilities.
- I feel the pressure of my coworkers who are successful and have a strong career.
- I feel the pressure of my manager.
- I feel the pressure of my working environment.

9. RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter aims to investigate the findings of the research. Initially, factor and reliability analyses are conducted. After factor and reliability analyses, the hypotheses based on the research model are tested by using simple and multiple regression analyses. Our research question is analyzed with multiple regression analyses. To examine the differences between demographic groups, independent t-tests and one-way ANOVA are conducted.

9.1. FACTOR AND RELIABILITY ANALYSES OF THE SCALES

The factor analysis carried out in order to find out the dimensions of Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors, Organizational Politics Perception and Organizational Safety.

In Factor Analysis, to examine the correlation between the items, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Barlett's test are conducted, as well. The KMO has to be 0,50 of minimum and Barlett's Test of Sphericity should be significant only through values lower than 0,05 to demonstrate the acceptability of the data for factor analyses. Principle components analysis and Varimax rotation are applied as well to figure out the relevant factors. After finding out the relevant factors, reliability analysis is conducted by Cronbach's Alpha model for testing the consistency between the items of a factor. In order to have reliability, a factor's Cronbach's Alpha value should be higher than 0,70.

9.1.1. Factor and Reliability Analysis of Compulsory Citizenship Behavior

Compulsory Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale has 19 items with the KMO value of 0,927. The value exhibits that there is a correlation between the items and they are suitable for factor analyses. As the value of KMO is bigger than 0,80; it can be stated that there's a perfect correlation between the items. Barlett's test produced the value of 2300,488 with significance level of 0,000; confirms the conclusion that the data are suitable for factor analysis.

The analysis is continued with varimax rotations. Through the analysis, the items which have near factor loadings under more than one factor such that the difference of factor loadings is less than 0,100 are selected and extracted. Factor analysis is performed repeatedly deleting the items such as 16, 23, 14, 4, 22, 17, 27, 15. As a result of the factor analysis, 3

factors with 19 items are found. The three factors, named as Compulsory Harmony, Compulsory Devotion and Compulsory Conscientiousness, explain 67,895% of the total variance.

Then reliability analysis for each factor is conducted to see if there is any factor with Cronbach alpha of reliability coefficient less than 0,70. The reliability analysis indicated that three factors have Cronbach alpha of reliability coefficient greater than 0,70 (See Table 4). Also, the reliability analysis for all 19 items of Compulsory Citizenship Behavior scale indicated that 19 items have 0,943 Cronbach alpha of reliability coefficient.

Table 4: Factor and Reliability Analysis of Compulsory Citizenship Behavior

	Compulsory Citizenship Behavior Scale Factors	Factor Loading	% Variance Explained	Cronbach α
Item No.	Factor 1: Compulsory Harmony		24,576	0,905
18	Respecting to the right of the other employees	0,839		
19	Trying not to cause problems for the coworkers	0,814		
10	Warning the other employees for their good when unexpected problems occur	0,743		
11	In work related problems, do not hesitate sharing my resources with the others	0,731		
12	Participating in all research and project groups for the improvement of the organization	0,612		
9	Helping a new comer in his tasks	0,598		
20	Do not complaining about the tasks under my responsibility	0,535		
Item No.	Factor 2: Compulsory Devotion		23,399	0,896
3	Investing more effort in my job beyond my formal job requirements	0,766		
8	Performing actively in the conflict management within the organization	0,745		
6	Helping others who has not come to work or who have been absent	0,71		
1	Engaging in extra job tasks beside my own tasks	0,704		
5	Assisting my supervisor even if I have no time or energy	0,691		
2	Working extra hours for performing more than my own tasks without expecting any reward	0,654		
7	Supporting the changes in the organization	0,595		
Item No.	Factor 3: Compulsory Conscientiousness		19,921	0,874
21	Working without taking a break	0,853		
25	Rearranging or altering my personal plans because of work load	0,755		
24	Going into the office and starting to work before the formal business hour	0,677		
26	Trying to keep the attendance at work above average	0,669		
13	Dealing only with my job tasks through the formal business hours	0,604		
KMO = 0,927; Bartlett's test of Sphericity = 2300,488; df = 171; p = 0,000				

9.1.2. Factor and Reliability Analysis of Organizational Politics Perception

Organizational Politics Perception Scale has 9 items with the KMO value of 0,866. The value exhibits that there is a correlation between the items and they are suitable for factor analyses. Barlett's test produced the value of 696,739 with significance level of 0,000; confirms the conclusion that the data are suitable for factor analysis.

The analysis is continued with varimax rotations. Through the analysis, there is no factor loadings less than 0,50. As a result of the factor analysis, 2 factors with 9 items are found. These two factors explain 64,129% of the total variance.

Then reliability analysis for each factor indicated that the Cronbach alpha of reliability coefficient of the first factor (General political behavior: 1., 2., 5., 6., 7., 8., 9. items) is 0,889 and the Cronbach alpha of reliability coefficient of the second factor (Go Along To Get Ahead: 3., 4. items) is 0,658 (See Table 5). Also, the reliability analysis for all 9 items of Organizational Politics scale indicated that 9 items have 0,863 Cronbach alpha of reliability coefficient.

Table 5: Factor and Reliability Analyses of Organizational Politics Perception Scale

	Perception of Organizational Politics Scale Factors	Factor Loading	% Variance Explained	Cronbach α
Item No.	Factor 1: General Political Behavior		45,593	0,889
1	Favoritism rather than merit determines who gets ahead around here.	0,782		
2	There has always been an influential group of employees in this organization that no one ever crosses.	0,655		
5	Employees in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down.	0,699		
6	I have seen changes made in policies of this organization that only serve the purposes of a few employees, not the organization.	0,824		
7	There is a group of employees in this organization who always get things their way because no one wants to challenge them.	0,704		
8	I remember that a person received a pay increase or a promotion that was inconsistent with the organization's policies.	0,823		
9	Since I have worked in this organization, I have seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically for some employees.	0,802		
Item No.	Factor 2: Go Along To Get Ahead		18,536	0,658
3	Rewards come only to those who work hard in this organization.	0,883		
4	Promotions in this organization generally go to top performers.	0,802		
KMO = 0,866; Bartlett's test of Sphericity = 696,739; df = 36; p = 0,000				

9.1.3. Factor and Reliability Analysis of Psychological Safety

Psychological Safety Scale has 7 items and the rotated component matrix stated that only one component was extracted so it means that Psychological Safety Scale items are classified under one factor. The reliability analysis is conducted for the 7 items and the Cronbach alpha of reliability coefficient of 7 items is 0,847.

9.2. TEST OF HYPOTHESES

In order to analyze the relationship between the dependent variable (Compulsory Citizenship Behavior) and the independent variables (Organizational Politics Perception and Psychological Safety) Multiple Regression Analysis has been carried out. Since all the variables are measured on an interval scale and there is more than one independent variable and it's aimed to understand how much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained when several independent variables are theorized to simultaneously explain it, it would be more meaningful to investigate the relationship by conducting multiple regression tests.

Before carrying out the regression analyses, correlation analysis is conducted in order to understand whether there is multicollinearity between the dimensions of organizational politics perception and psychological safety. The correlations related to two factors of organizational politics perception and the correlations between organizational politics perception and psychological safety are depicted in Table 6. Even though there are a few high level relationships between certain study variables, none of these relationships exceeded the value of 0.70, thus there isn't a multicollinearity problem regarding the variables, so regression analyses can be conducted to test the following hypotheses.

As in the Table 6, there is a linear, significant, negative and weak relationship between psychological safety and compulsory citizenship behavior ($r = -0,177$). When we analyze the relationship between psychological safety and the dimensions of compulsory citizenship behavior, we can see that there is a linear, significant, negative and weak relationship between psychological safety and compulsory devotion ($r = -0,169$, $p < ,05$) and there is a linear, significant, negative and weak relationship between psychological safety and compulsory conscientiousness ($r = -0,223$, $p < ,01$). However, there is not a significant relationship between psychological safety and compulsory harmony ($r = 0,081$, $p > ,05$). There is a linear, significant, positive and moderate relationship between politics perception and compulsory citizenship behavior ($r = 0,417$). When we analyze the relationship between politics perception and the dimensions of compulsory citizenship behavior, we can see that there is a linear, significant, positive and weak relationship between politics perception and compulsory harmony ($r = 0,363$, $p < ,01$), between politics perception and compulsory devotion ($r = 0,389$, $p < ,01$) and between politics perception and compulsory

conscientiousness ($r = 0,349$, $p < .01$). When we take a look at the relationship between the dimensions of organizational politics and compulsory citizenship behavior dimensions, it can be seen that there is a linear, significant, positive and weak relationship between general political behaviors and compulsory harmony ($r = 0,351$, $p < .01$), between general political behaviors and compulsory devotion ($r = 0,383$, $p < .01$) and between general political behaviors and compulsory conscientiousness ($r = 0,347$, $p < .01$). However, there is not a significant relationship between go along to get ahead and any dimension of compulsory citizenship behavior.

Table 6: Correlations of All Dimensions of Organizational Politics Perception and Psychological Safety with Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors

Variables	Mean	Std.Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Psychological Safety	3,29	0,83	1							
2. Politics Perception (9-items)	2,97	0,88	-,153*	1						
3. General Political Behaviors	3	1,2	-,272**	,961**	1					
4. Go Along To Get Ahead	2,89	1,17	,460**	-,057	-,331**	1				
5. Compulsory Citizenship Behavior (19-items)	1,78	0,83	-,177*	,417**	,410**	-,057	1			
6. Compulsory Harmony	1,54	0,82	-,081	,363**	,351**	-,030	,885**	1		
7. Compulsory Devotion	2	0,99	-,169*	,389**	,383**	-,059	,904**	,690**	1	
8. Compulsory Conscientiousness	1,83	1,04	-,223**	,349**	,347**	-,062	,857**	,667**	,653**	1

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

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

After the correlation analysis, regression analyses are conducted and the results are discussed in the following. Regression analyses are implemented first on our study variables and then it is conducted on the dimensions of our study variables.

As can be seen from Table 7, psychological safety and organizational politics perception together explain 18,7 percent of the variance of compulsory citizenship behavior ($R^2 = 0,187$; $F = 19,218$; $p < 0,001$).

The beta coefficients show that the variances of compulsory citizenship behaviors are significantly predicted by only politics perceptions ($\beta = 0,399$; $p < 0,001$). However, psychological safety ($\beta = -0,116$; $p > 0,05$) is not a significant predictor of compulsory citizenship behaviors (see Table 7). Therefore, it can be concluded that politics perception is

the variable that can explain the variances of compulsory citizenship behaviors. Hence H2 is supported but H1 is rejected.

Table 7: Regression Analysis Results for Organizational Politics Perception and Psychological Safety with Compulsory Citizenship Behavior

Dependent Variable: Compulsory Citizenship Behavior			
Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
Psychological Safety	-0,116	-1,640	0,103
Politics Perception	0,399	5,657	0,000
R = 0,433; R² = 0,187; Adjusted R² = 0,17; F value = 19,218; p value = 0,000			

The dimensions' contribution of organizational politics perception on compulsory citizenship behaviors are examined respectively in the following analyses.

As can be seen from Table 8 general political behaviors and go along to get ahead together explain 17,5 percent of the variance of compulsory citizenship behavior ($R^2 = 0,175$; $F = 17,724$; $p < 0,001$).

The beta coefficients show that the variances of compulsory citizenship behaviors are significantly predicted by only general political behaviors ($\beta = 0,439$; $p < 0,001$). However, go along to get ahead ($\beta = 0,089$; $p > 0,05$) is not a significant predictor of compulsory citizenship behaviors (see Table 8). Therefore, it can be concluded that general political behavior is the variable that can explain the variances of compulsory citizenship behaviors.

Table 8: Regression Analysis Results for Organizational Politics Perception Dimensions and Compulsory Citizenship Behavior

Dependent Variable: Compulsory Citizenship Behavior			
Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
General Political Behaviors	0,439	5,898	0,000
Go Along To Get Ahead	0,089	1,190	0,236
R = 0,418; R² = 0,175; Adjusted R² = 0,165; F value = 17,724; p value = 0,000			

The dimensions' contribution of organizational politics perception and psychological safety on compulsory citizenship behavior dimensions are examined respectively in the following analyses.

As can be seen from Table 9 general political behaviors, go along to get ahead and psychological safety together explain 13,2 percent of the variance of compulsory harmony ($R^2 = 0,132$; $F = 8,450$; $p < 0,001$).

The beta coefficients show that the variances of compulsory harmony are significantly predicted by only general political behaviors ($\beta = 0,380$; $p < 0,001$). However, go along to get ahead ($\beta = 0,108$; $p > 0,05$) and psychological safety ($\beta = -0,027$; $p > 0,05$) are not significant predictors of compulsory harmony (see Table 9). Therefore, it can be concluded that general political behavior is the variable that can explain the variances of compulsory harmony.

Table 9: Regression Analysis Results for Organizational Politics Perception Dimensions and Psychological Safety with Compulsory Harmony

Dependent Variable: Compulsory Harmony			
Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
General Political Behaviors	0,380	4,907	0,000
Go Along To Get Ahead	0,108	1,292	0,198
Psychological Safety	-0,027	-0,334	0,739
R = 0,364; $R^2 = 0,132$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0,117$; F value = 8,450; p value = 0,000			

As can be seen from Table 10 general political behaviors, go along to get ahead and psychological safety together explain 16,4 percent of the variance of compulsory devotion ($R^2 = 0,164$; $F = 10,823$; $p < 0,001$).

The beta coefficients show that the variances of compulsory devotion are significantly predicted by only general political behaviors ($\beta = 0,393$; $p < 0,001$). However, go along to get ahead ($\beta = 0,127$; $p > 0,05$) and psychological safety ($\beta = -0,121$; $p > 0,05$) are not significant predictors of compulsory devotion (see Table 10). Therefore, it can be concluded that general political behaviors the variable that can explain the variances of compulsory devotion.

Table 10: Regression Analysis Results for Organizational Politics Perception Dimensions and Psychological Safety with Compulsory Devotion

Dependent Variable: Compulsory Devotion			
Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
General Political Behaviors	0,393	5,165	0,000
Go Along To Get Ahead	0,127	1,545	0,124
Psychological Safety	-0,121	-1,499	0,136
R = 0,404; R ² = 0,164; Adjusted R ² = 0,148; F value = 10,823; p value = 0,000			

As can be seen from Table 11 general political behaviors, go along to get ahead and psychological safety together explain 15,3 percent of the variance of compulsory conscientiousness ($R^2 = 0,153$; $F = 10,002$; $p < 0,001$).

The beta coefficients show that the variances of compulsory conscientiousness are significantly predicted by general political behaviors ($\beta = 0,341$; $p < 0,001$) and psychological safety ($\beta = -0,195$; $p < 0,05$). However, go along to get ahead ($\beta = 0,140$; $p > 0,05$) is not a significant predictor of compulsory conscientiousness (see Table 11). Therefore, it can be concluded that general political behaviors and psychological safety are the variables that can explain the variances of compulsory conscientiousness.

Table 11: Regression Analysis Results for Organizational Politics Perception Dimensions and Psychological Safety with Compulsory Conscientiousness

Dependent Variable: Compulsory Conscientiousness			
Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
General Political Behaviors	0,341	4,458	0,000
Go Along To Get Ahead	0,140	1,695	0,092
Psychological Safety	-0,195	-2,394	0,018
R = 0,391; R ² = 0,153; Adjusted R ² = 0,138; F value = 10,002; p value = 0,000			

9.3. WHICH SOURCES OF PRESSURE MOSTLY EFFECT COMPULSORY CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS?

Before carrying out the regression analyses, correlation analysis is conducted in order to understand whether there is multicollinearity between the dimensions of pressure sources. The correlations related to five pressure sources and the correlations between pressure sources and compulsory citizenship behaviors and its dimensions are depicted in Table 12. As can be seen from Table 12, only the correlation between manager pressure and organizational climate pressure exceeded the value of 0.70, thus the multicollinearity problem regarding these variables will be analyzed in regression analyses by assessing the VIF values.

As it is seen in Table 12 below, there is a linear, significant and positive relationships between each of pressure sources and compulsory citizenship behaviors. There is a weak positive correlation between self pressure and compulsory citizenship behaviors ($r = 0,199$); between family responsibility pressure and compulsory citizenship behaviors ($r = 0,246$). However, there is a moderate positive correlation between manager pressure and compulsory citizenship behaviors ($r = 0,508$); between successful coworker pressure and compulsory citizenship behaviors ($r = 0,508$); and between organizational climate pressure and compulsory citizenship behaviors ($r = 0,508$).

As it is seen in Table 12 below, self pressure is the most felt pressure with a mean of 3,71. The other pressures that are felt by employees respectively, family responsibility pressure with a mean of 3,15, organizational climate pressure with a mean of 3,07, manager pressure with a mean of 2,97, successful coworker pressure with a mean of 2,51.

Table 12: Correlation Analysis for Pressure Sources with Compulsory Citizenship Behavior and Its Dimensions

Variables	Mean	Std.Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Self Pressure	3,71	1,45	1								
2. Family Responsibility Pressure	3,15	1,49	,505**	1							
3. Successful Coworker Pressure	2,51	1,49	,437**	,460**	1						
4. Manager Pressure	2,97	1,53	,366**	,281**	,465**	1					
5. Organizational Climate Pressure	3,07	1,50	,434**	,389**	,510**	,743**	1				
6. Compulsory Citizenship Behavior (19-items)	1,78	0,83	,199**	,246**	,508**	,508**	,508**	1			
7. Compulsory Harmony	1,54	0,82	,176*	,197*	,490**	,341**	,372**	,885**	1		
8. Compulsory Devotion	2,00	0,99	,181*	,196*	,449**	,505**	,507**	,904**	,690**	1	
9. Compulsory Conscientiousness	1,83	1,04	,169*	,270**	,405**	,494**	,458**	,857**	,667**	,653**	1

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

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

The contribution of pressure sources on compulsory citizenship behaviors is examined in the following section.

Firstly, the VIF values of manager pressure and organizational climate pressure are analyzed for the multicollinearity problem. The VIF value of manager pressure is 2,304 and the VIF value of organizational climate pressure is 2,560 so it can be stated that there is not a multicollinearity problem.

As can be seen from Table 13, the pressure sources together explain 37,8 percent of the variance of compulsory citizenship behavior ($R^2 = 0,378$; $F = 19,948$; $p < 0,001$). That means the sources of pressures on employees significantly explain the variances of compulsory citizenship behavior.

The beta coefficients show that the variances of compulsory citizenship behavior are significantly predicted by three pressure sources: successful coworker pressure ($\beta = 0,346$; $p < 0,001$), manager pressure ($\beta = 0,239$; $p < 0,05$), and organizational climate pressure ($\beta = 0,210$; $p < 0,05$). However, the contribution of successful coworker pressure on compulsory citizenship behavior is stronger. Table 13 shows that self pressure ($\beta = -0,134$; $p > 0,05$) and family responsibility pressure ($\beta = 0,006$; $p > 0,05$) are not significant predictors of compulsory citizenship behavior. Therefore, it can be concluded that successful coworker pressure, manager pressure and organizational climate pressure are the variables that can explain the variances of compulsory citizenship behavior.

Table 13: Regression Analysis Results for Pressure Sources with Compulsory Citizenship Behavior

Dependent Variable: Compulsory Citizenship Behavior			
Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
Self Pressure	-0,134	-1,762	0,080
Family Responsibility Pressure	0,006	0,077	0,939
Successful Coworker Pressure	0,346	4,443	0,000
Manager Pressure	0,239	2,554	0,012
Organizational Climate Pressure	0,210	2,128	0,035
R = 0,615; R² = 0,378; Adjusted R² = 0,359; F value = 19,948; p value = 0,000			

The contribution of pressure sources on each dimension of compulsory citizenship behaviors are examined in the following sections. In the first place, the contribution of pressure sources on Compulsory Harmony is analyzed.

As can be seen from Table 14, pressure sources together explain 27 percent of the variance of compulsory harmony ($R^2 = 0,270$; $F = 12,152$; $p < 0,001$).

The beta coefficients show that the variances of compulsory harmony are significantly predicted by only successful coworker pressure ($\beta = 0,436$; $p < 0,001$). The other four pressure types are not significant predictors of compulsory harmony. Therefore, it can be concluded that successful coworker pressure is the variable that can explain the variances of compulsory harmony.

Table 14: Regression Analysis Results for Pressure Sources with Compulsory Harmony

Dependent Variable: Compulsory Harmony			
Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
Self Pressure	-0,086	-1,043	0,299
Family Responsibility Pressure	-0,039	-0,473	0,637
Successful Coworker Pressure	0,436	5,174	0,000
Manager Pressure	0,069	0,684	0,495
Organizational Climate Pressure	0,150	1,406	0,161
R = 0,520; R² = 0,270; Adjusted R² = 0,248; F value = 12,152; p value = 0,000			

The contribution of pressure sources on Compulsory Devotion is depicted below in Table 15.

As can be seen from Table 15, pressure sources together explain 34,6 percent of the variance of compulsory devotion ($R^2 = 0,346$; $F = 17,327$; $p < 0,001$).

The beta coefficients show that the variances of compulsory devotion are significantly predicted by three pressure sources: successful coworker pressure ($\beta = 0,277$; $p < 0,001$), manager pressure ($\beta = 0,245$; $p < 0,05$), and organizational climate pressure ($\beta = 0,249$; $p < 0,05$). The other pressure sources such as self pressure and family responsibility pressure are not significant predictors of compulsory devotion. Therefore, it can be concluded that successful coworker pressure, manager pressure and organizational climate pressure are the variables that can explain the variances of compulsory devotion.

Table 15: Regression Analysis Results for Pressure Sources with Compulsory Devotion

Dependent Variable: Compulsory Devotion			
Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
Self Pressure	-0,120	-1,539	0,126
Family Responsibility Pressure	-0,037	-0,478	0,633
Successful Coworker Pressure	0,277	3,467	0,001
Manager Pressure	0,245	2,560	0,011
Organizational Climate Pressure	0,249	2,468	0,015
$R = 0,588$; $R^2 = 0,346$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0,326$; F value = 17,327; p value = 0,000			

The contribution of pressure sources on Compulsory Conscientiousness is depicted below in Table 16.

As can be seen from Table 16, pressure sources together explain 30,8 percent of the variance of compulsory conscientiousness ($R^2 = 0,308$; $F = 14,617$; $p < 0,001$).

The beta coefficients show that the variances of compulsory conscientiousness are significantly predicted by two pressure sources: successful coworker pressure ($\beta = 0,200$; $p < 0,05$) and manager pressure ($\beta = 0,322$; $p < 0,001$). However, the contribution of managerial pressure on compulsory conscientiousness is stronger. The other three pressure types are not significant predictors of compulsory conscientiousness. Therefore, it can be concluded that successful coworker pressure and manager pressure are the variables that can explain the variances of compulsory conscientiousness.

Table 16: Regression Analysis Results for Pressure Sources with Compulsory Conscientiousness

Dependent Variable: Compulsory Conscientiousness			
Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value
Self Pressure	-0,152	-1,903	0,059
Family Responsibility Pressure	0,110	1,381	0,169
Successful Coworker Pressure	0,200	2,440	0,016
Manager Pressure	0,322	3,271	0,001
Organizational Climate Pressure	0,139	1,339	0,182
R = 0,555; R ² = 0,308; Adjusted R ² = 0,287; F value = 14,617; p value = 0,000			

9.4. CORRELATIONS AND COMPARISONS WITH REGARD TO DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

9.4.1. Correlation Analysis for Demographics

In order to investigate the relationship between continuous demographic variables and research variables, correlation analysis is conducted. All the correlations between demographic variables such as age, number of employees under responsibility, tenure in organization, total business tenure, psychological safety, politics perception and compulsory citizenship behaviors are shown in one table (Table 17). As it is seen in the summary table below, age has a linear, significant, negative and weak correlation with compulsory citizenship behaviors ($r = -.199$, $p < .05$), compulsory devotion ($r = -.184$, $p < .05$) and compulsory conscientiousness ($r = -.235$, $p < .05$). Number of employees under responsibility has no significant relationship with compulsory citizenship behaviors and its dimensions, psychological safety and politics perceptions. Organization tenure has a linear, significant, negative and weak correlation with compulsory devotion ($r = -.160$, $p < .05$) and compulsory conscientiousness ($r = -.173$, $p < .05$). Total tenure has a linear, significant, negative and weak correlation with compulsory citizenship behaviors ($r = -.205$, $p < .05$), compulsory devotion ($r = -.188$, $p < .05$) and compulsory conscientiousness ($r = -.226$, $p < .01$).

Table 17: Correlations of Demographics Variables with Organizational Politics Perception, Psychological Safety & Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors

Variables	Mean	Std.Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age	33,36	5,52	1									
2. Number of Employees Under Responsibility	2,44	4,93	,286**	1								
3. Tenure In Current Organization	6,11	4,36	,604**	,320**	1							
4. Total Tenure	11,92	5,68	,879**	,366**	,630**	1						
5. Psychological Safety (7-items)	3,29	0,83	-,032	,128	,071	-,001	1					
6. Politics Perception (9-items)	2,97	0,88	-,027	,044	,011	-,048	-,153*	1				
7. Compulsory Citizenship Behavior (19-items)	1,78	0,83	-,199*	-,080	-,158	-,205*	-,177*	,417**	1			
8. Compulsory Harmony	1,54	0,82	-,115	-,057	-,084	-,131	-,081	,363**	,885**	1		
9. Compulsory Devotion	2,00	0,99	-,184*	-,080	-,160*	-,188*	-,169*	,389**	,904**	,690**	1	
10. Compulsory Conscientiousness	1,83	1,04	-,235*	-,074	-,173*	-,226**	-,223**	,349**	,857**	,667**	,653**	1

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

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

9.4.2. Comparisons by Demographics

9.4.2.1. Comparison by Gender

Whether compulsory citizenship behaviors show difference according to gender has been tested by Independent Samples t-test.

Significant differences have not been found according to Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors with respect to gender ($t = 0,051$, $p > 0,05$).

Additionally, significant differences have not been found according to each dimension of Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors. There is no significant difference for gender according to Compulsory Harmony ($t = 0,005$; $p > 0,05$); Compulsory Devotion ($t = -0,184$; $p > 0,05$); Compulsory Conscientiousness ($t = 0,396$; $p > 0,05$).

9.4.2.2. Comparison by Marital Status

Whether compulsory citizenship behaviors show difference according to marital status has been tested by Independent Samples t-test.

As it is seen in the Table 18, significant differences have not been found according to compulsory citizenship behaviors with respect to marital status ($t = -0,188$, $p > 0,05$).

Additionally, whether each dimension of Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors show difference according to marital status has been tested by Independent Samples t-test. There is no significant difference for marital status according to Compulsory Harmony ($t = -0,459$; $p > 0,05$) and Compulsory Conscientiousness ($t = -0,666$; $p > 0,05$). However, there is a significant difference for marital status according to Compulsory Devotion ($t = 0,451$; $p < 0,05$). As can be seen in Table 18, the mean of married employees for Compulsory Devotion is greater than single employees so it can be stated that married employees feel more pressure for performing Compulsory Devotion behaviors than single employees.

Table 18: Group Statistics of the t-test Analysis for Marital Status

	Marital Status	N	Mean	Std.Dev.	t	df	p
Compulsory Citizenship Behavior	Married	108	1,77	0,85	-0,188	168	0,524
	Single	62	1,80	0,79			
Compulsory Harmony	Married	108	1,52	0,82	-0,459	168	0,913
	Single	62	1,58	0,83			
Compulsory Devotion	Married	108	2,02	1,08	0,451	168	0,038
	Single	62	1,95	0,82			
Compulsory Conscientiousness	Married	108	1,79	1,02	-0,666	168	0,912
	Single	62	1,90	1,06			

9.4.2.3. Comparison by Education

Whether compulsory citizenship behaviors show difference according to education has been tested by Independent Samples t-test.

As it is seen in the Table 19, significant differences have not been found according to compulsory citizenship behaviors with respect to education ($t = 1,030$, $p > 0,05$).

Additionally, whether each dimension of Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors show difference according to education has been tested by Independent Samples t-test. There is no significant difference for education according to Compulsory Harmony ($t = 0,364$; $p > 0,05$) and Compulsory Conscientiousness ($t = 1,218$; $p > 0,05$). However, there is a significant difference for education according to Compulsory Devotion ($t = 1,136$; $p < 0,05$). As can be seen in Table 19, the mean of university graduated employees for Compulsory Devotion is greater than the employees with MA degree so it can be stated that university graduated employees feel more pressure for performing Compulsory Devotion Behaviors than employees with MA degree.

Table 19: Group Statistics of the t-test Analysis for Education

	Education	N	Mean	Std.Dev.	t	df	p
Compulsory Citizenship Behavior	University	126	1,83	0,85	1,030	164	0,184
	Master	40	1,68	0,78			
Compulsory Harmony	University	126	1,56	0,82	0,364	164	0,723
	Master	40	1,51	0,87			
Compulsory Devotion	University	126	2,06	1,05	1,136	164	0,023
	Master	40	1,86	0,79			
Compulsory Conscientiousness	University	126	1,89	1,06	1,218	164	0,266
	Master	40	1,66	1,00			

9.4.2.4. Comparison by Having Children

Whether compulsory citizenship behaviors show difference according to having children has been tested by Independent Samples t-test.

Significant differences have not been found according to compulsory citizenship behaviors with respect to having children ($t = 0,670$, $p > 0,05$).

Additionally, significant differences have not been found according to each dimension of Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors. There is no significant difference for having children according to Compulsory Harmony ($t = 0,186$; $p > 0,05$); Compulsory Devotion ($t = 0,499$; $p > 0,05$); Compulsory Conscientiousness ($t = 1,169$; $p > 0,05$).

9.4.2.5. Comparison by Working Departments

Whether compulsory citizenship behaviors show difference according to working departments has been tested by one-way ANOVA. 61 participants mentioned their department as operation, 74 participants as product management, marketing and sales and 35 participants as audit/compliance/controlling. According to the analysis, compulsory citizenship behavior mean values of these three groups are not significantly different ($F = 0,035$; $p > 0,05$). In other words, working department of the individual does not have any explanatory power on compulsory citizenship behaviors.

Additionally, significant differences have not been found according to each dimension of Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors. There is no significant difference for

working departments according to Compulsory Harmony ($F = 0,741$; $p > 0,05$); Compulsory Devotion ($F = 0,043$; $p > 0,05$); Compulsory Conscientiousness ($F = 0,173$; $p > 0,05$).

9.4.2.6. Comparison by Job Title

Whether compulsory citizenship behaviors show difference according to job title has been tested by Kruskal Wallis analysis. 18 participants mentioned their job title as officer, 45 participants as assistant manager, 84 participants as manager and 23 participants as supervisor. According to the analysis, there is no significant difference in compulsory citizenship behaviors according to the job titles (Chi-square = 4,752; $p > 0,05$). In other words, job title of the individual does not have any explanatory power on compulsory citizenship behaviors.

Additionally, significant differences have not been found according to each dimension of Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors. There is no significant difference for job titles according to Compulsory Harmony (Chi-square = 1,404; $p > 0,05$); Compulsory Devotion (Chi-square = 5,907; $p > 0,05$); Compulsory Conscientiousness (Chi-square = 3,432; $p > 0,05$).

9.5. ADDITIONAL ANALYSIS

In this section, frequency analyses of Compulsory Citizenship Behavior items and Pressure Sources items are given in order to show the most pressured behaviors and to analyze which of the five pressure sources is the most felt.

The frequency rates of the Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors items are pointed out in the table below. In this study, we have considered the items which were answered at least “usually with pressure” as being exposed to pressure for displaying Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. The frequency tables in detail can be found in Appendix. As it is pointed out in Table 20, the most faced (%15 and more) Compulsory Citizenship behaviors are listed below;

Table 20: Frequency Table of the Most Pressured CCB

Items	At Least “Usually With Pressure” (%)
Item 7: Supporting the changes in the organization.	18%
Item 25: Rearranging or altering my personal plans because of work load.	17%
Item 1: Engaging in extra job tasks beside my own tasks.	15%

The frequency rates of the probable sources of pressures on OCB are pointed out in the table below. In this study, we have considered the items which were answered at least “usually” as being exposed to pressure for displaying Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. As it is pointed out in Table 21, pressures for displaying Organizational Citizenship Behaviors are listed below;

Table 21: Frequency Table of Probable Pressure Sources

Items	At Least “Usually With Pressure” (%)
Item 1: I feel that I am putting pressure on myself.	56%
Item 2: I feel the pressure of my family responsibilities.	42%
Item 5: I feel the pressure of my working environment.	38%
Item 4: I feel the pressure of my manager.	35%
Item 3: I feel the pressure of my coworkers who are successful and have a strong career.	28%

10. DISCUSSION

10.1. DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

According to the previous studies in literature, it is indicated that Organizational Citizenship Behaviors can be displayed with different reasons such as impression management (Bolino, 1999; Bowler & Brass, 2006; Grant & Mayer, 2009; Snell & Wong, 2007; Yun et al., 2007), individual (or employee) characteristics, task characteristics, organizational characteristics and leadership behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Beside these explanations, there are recently growing literature about the “dark side of OCB” (Bolino et al., 2010; Bolino et al., 2013; Bolino et al., 2004; Gadot, 2006a; Gadot, 2007; Zhao et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2014; Şeşen et al, 2014). OCB is mainly criticized because of the accepted assumption in the literature that it has a discretionary nature. Scholars instead support the argument that OCB is not based on the genuine, spontaneous “good will” of the individual (Gadot, 2006a). Instead, it emerges in response to external pressures by significant and powerful others in the workplace (i.e., managers or co-workers) who wish to increase the employees’ work load by involving them in duties that are beyond the scope of their job description (Porpara, 1989).

When we take a look at the literature, it is considered that Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors are measured by different scales. For example, Gadot (2007) measured Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors with five items that includes pressure expressions and other scholars mentioned the necessity to generate a more comprehensive scale which covers the pressure for engaging in more than one kind of OCB (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy or civic virtue) and also they mentioned that CCB can result from various types of external pressures such as immediate supervisors, powerful peers and organizational climate (Zhao et al, 2013). From these points of view, we have used the OCB scale with an introduction that includes whether employees experience pressure to perform these OCBs or not in order to measure the pressure level on all OCB items. Also, we have thought that there can be external or internal pressure for performing these OCBs so we obtained five sources of pressures such as they may be stemmed from the self, family responsibilities, successful coworkers, immediate supervisors and organizational climate.

Our CCB survey instrument has covered the necessity of implementing a comprehensive survey which covers OCB factors (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy or civic virtue) and measures the pressure level. In the factor analysis of our CCB survey, 3 factors has emerged which were labeled according to the items as Compulsory Harmony, Compulsory Devotion and Compulsory Conscientiousness. The first factor is labeled as Compulsory Harmony because of containing different items which were classified under different factors such as Courtesy, Altruism, Civic Virtue and Sportsmanship in the literature. The second factor is labeled as Compulsory Devotion because of containing items which can be assessed as satisfactory behaviors such as engaging in extra job tasks, investing more effort in the job beyond the requirements, working extra hours, etc. The third factor is labeled as Compulsory Conscientiousness because of containing items which can be assessed as dutiful behaviors such as working without taking a break, starting to work before formal business hours, dealing only with job tasks through formal business hours, etc. In the literature, these items were classified under different factors such as altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue but because of asking the OCB items with an introduction of whether employees feel any pressure for performing these behaviors, these items turn out to be compulsory behaviors and they grouped together under different factors that we labeled.

According to the results, Psychological Safety is in a significant and negative relationship with CCB but when it has been regressed together with Organizational Politics Perception on CCB, it has no significant contribution to CCB. However, Politics Perception is in a significant and positive relationship with CCB and it has a significant and positive contribution to CCB ($\beta = 0,399$; $p < 0,001$). Thus, Politics Perception should be considered as a pressure source for displaying Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors. As we mentioned before, employees generate two different behavior types in response to Organizational Politics: staying or leaving. When they leave the political organization, the problem is solved but when they choose to stay, they should cope with the political relationships so this coping refers to a pressure on the employee and it increases CCB.

In the regression analysis of Organizational Politics dimensions with the dimensions of Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors, it has been recognized that General Organizational

Politics has a significant and positive contribution to all three dimensions of Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors. It can be stated that General Organizational Politics put pressure on employees to show themselves or to survive in the organization with displaying Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors. “General Political Behaviors” includes actions such as policy changes that help only a few, the existence of groups that always get their way and building oneself by tearing others down (Gadot & Drory, 2006). Thus, it is meaningful that General Organizational Politics have a contribution on the employees’ pressure level for displaying CCB. However, Go Along To Get Ahead dimension of Organizational Politics has no significant contribution to any of the three dimensions of Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors. “Go along to get ahead” is considered as a career-planning political behavior (Witt et al., 2002; cited in Gadot & Drory, 2006). In situations where employees perceive the organizational reality as politicized, they may behave accordingly, deliberately withholding important information from executives when that information is thought to be contrary to the executive agenda. By remaining silent or even misleading executives by telling them what they want to hear, employees are attempting to be seen as “team players” who do not “rock the boat”. In essence, they are “going along to get ahead” to the detriment of business operations and employee morale (Witt et al., 2002. p.913; cited in Gadot & Drory, 2006). Thus, it is meaningful that Go Along To Get Ahead does not have a contribution on the employees’ pressure level for displaying CCB because by assessing the items under Go Along To Get Ahead, we recognize that these two reverse items reveal that hard-working and top performers can reach their target by being a successful employee so employees do not feel pressure for performing OCB.

According to the results, Psychological Safety has no significant contribution on CCB but it has a significant and negative contribution to only Compulsory Conscientiousness. People feel safe in situations in which they trusted that they would not suffer for their personal engagement (Kahn, 1990) and not surprisingly, conscientiousness has also been considered as an aspect of contextual performance by Smith, Organ, and Near (1983). It can be stated that Psychological Safety has a negative contribution on the pressure level for displaying Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors and it affects the conscientiousness of the employees positively.

According to the results, it can be concluded that finance employees do not feel much pressure for displaying Compulsory Citizenship Behaviors. However, as a result of the mean values and the frequency Table 24, it can be seen that the highest pressure level that the employees felt is self pressure. It means that employees put pressure on themselves for displaying CCB. It is interesting that family responsibility pressure is the second felt pressure by employees for displaying CCB. It may mean that employees try to be distinguished at work in order to continue earning money. We all hear from around that people are working for giving their children a good future, increasing their quality of life, etc. We can assert that people are reflecting these thoughts about their family responsibilities to their work and maybe they think that they have to exhibit CCB in order to survive at work and continue to make a living. The third most felt pressure by employees is the organizational environment pressure. Organizational environment consists of norms, behaviors, rules, work and role definitions, etc. so these all generate employees' behavioral patterns at work. It means that employees display CCB by regarding these behavioral patterns. The fourth most felt pressure by employees is the manager pressure. This result is in line with Gadot's (2006a) and Zhao's (2014) interferences about the immediate supervisor and abusive supervision. The least felt pressure by employees is the successful coworker pressure.

According to the regression analyses; successful coworker, manager and organizational climate pressures make contribution to CCB and its dimension, Compulsory Devotion. However, successful coworker pressure is the only pressure for making contribution on Compulsory Harmony despite its lower mean among other pressure sources. It has also contribution on Compulsory Devotion and Compulsory Conscientiousness. These results give us the clue that a low level of successful coworker pressure is enough for shaping the behaviors. As all we guess, coworker pressure is an indirect pressure on employees, not such a direct pressure with giving orders by successful employees. Employees always compare themselves with coworkers and try to take actions according to these comparisons. When we analyze it from another point of view, coworkers are likely to be jealous of the relationship and threatened by the positive outcomes that OCB can bring about for the employee when they recognize that some of their coworkers are in high-quality LMX relationships with their supervisors (Bowler et al., 2010). Therefore, employees would like to engage in extra-role activities with the pressure of "catching-up" their coworkers. For

example, the items in Compulsory Devotion and Compulsory Conscientiousness such as “Working without taking a break” , “Going into the office and starting to work before the formal business hour”, “Investing more effort in my job beyond my formal job requirements” or “Engaging in extra job tasks beside my own tasks” are drawing a picture of a competitive working environment. Another probable reason is that employees try to put themselves forward with their good working relationships in order to compete with their successful coworkers. For example, the items in Compulsory Harmony such as “Respecting to the right of the other employees” or “Trying not to cause problems for the coworkers” can be considered as genuine behaviors but it is meaningful that successful coworker pressure makes contribution on these behaviors.

Manager pressure also makes contribution for engaging in CCB and its dimensions, Compulsory Devotion and Compulsory Conscientiousness. Our study is in line with the phenomenon of abusive management suggested by Tepper (2000) and later developed by Zellars et al. (2002) and Tepper et al. (2004) but the managerial pressure in this study rather refers to excessive requests by the managers which the employees can not refuse to comply (Gadot, 2007). Finance organizations are institutional organizations and the human resource management is professional so we do not expect that there can be a verbal or physical abuse on employees for engaging in CCB by the managers. We consider that manager pressure rather refers to indirect intervention in this study.

Lastly, organizational environment is also another source of pressure for engaging in CCB. It covers the psychological relationships, the way the works are done, attributions, expectations and perceptions of the employees, etc. in the working environment. It has a contribution on CCB and its Compulsory Devotion dimension. It is meaningful that Compulsory Devotion includes several behaviors such as helping, managing conflicts, showing greater effort, taking responsibility of extra tasks, working extra hours, supporting the changes and the organizational environment covers all the elements and behaviors in the workplace so it probably creates a social pressure on employees to perform these CCBs.

Family responsibilities pressure and the pressure that is stemmed from the self are not significant predictors to perform CCB. Family responsibilities and the pressure that is stemmed from the self may not considered as a pressure by participants because they are

internal factors which depends on the employees' characters and family life. However; work-sourced (external) pressures such as successful coworkers, managers and organizational climate mostly put pressure on employees to perform CCB according to the results.

For today's complex organizations, environmental change has increasingly become a fact of life. The organization, in an attempt to adjust to environmental changes, will be forced to increase the number and complexity of internal changes (Mealiea, 1978). Therefore, the organization forces the employees to support the change and comply. Dent and Goldberg (1999) argue that people do not resist change itself, but rather the anticipated consequences or expected effects that may be associated with change, such as loss of status, loss of pay, or loss of comfort. Employees may probably think that if they are seen to support the changes, they will not lose their status, pay or comfort. These conclusions are in line with our results. According to the frequency Table 23, employees mostly feel pressure for supporting the changes.

Rearranging and altering personal plans considering the work load refers to work-life conflict which exists when work activities interfere with personal or family activities or vice versa (Reynolds, 2005). Some authors suggest that work-life conflict makes people want to reduce the number of hours they work (Clarkberg & Moen, 2001). Other authors imply that work-life conflict encourages some people to flee family life and work even more hours (Hochschild, 1997; Kofodimos, 1990). Economic needs, social pressures, and the lure of job rewards can also make people facing work-life conflict not want to change the number of hours they work. According to the frequency Table 23, employees mostly feel pressure for rearranging their personal plans.

Participants also mentioned that they engage in extra job tasks beside their own tasks with pressure. According to the frequency Table 23, employees mostly feel pressure for engaging in extra job tasks. From these results, it can be stated that employees are not genuinely taking extra job tasks. They maybe monitor their coworkers and compare themselves so they try to catch up coworkers' performance level by taking extra job responsibilities. They may also take extra job tasks with manager pressure and probably can not resist by saying "no" because of refraining any retaliation from their managers such as

losing their status or job, receiving low job performance assessment, engaging in low leader-member exchange (LMX) relationship, etc.

When the results are analyzed regarding the demographics; gender, having children, working departments and job titles do not show difference according to CCB and its three dimensions. However, married employees show significant difference according to Compulsory Devotion while comparing with single employees. This result gives us the clue that married employees have more responsibility (children, maintaining living of their family, etc.) than single employees and as a result, they feel more pressure in order to survive at the workplace. Also university graduated employees show significant difference according to Compulsory Devotion while comparing with master graduated employees. It is interesting that despite both university and master graduation mean high level of education, university graduated employees feel more pressure. This may be caused by the feeling of master graduated employees that they are more sophisticated among increased number of university graduated employees and they feel less pressure to display CCB than university graduated ones.

10.2. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMANDATIONS

The results of present study are based on a small convenience sample so our results can not be generalized. The data was collected in İstanbul / Turkey and from different finance institutions. Although the sample size is large enough, it may be implemented on a larger sample in further research for the results can be generalized.

Also our study is cross-sectional so we can not conclude cause-effect relationships among the variables. It may be interesting to conduct this study in a longitudinal format in order to make cause-effect interpretations.

Our study is conducted in finance institutions with professional human resource implementations so low pressure level for displaying CCB is reasonable for our study. If a similar study is conducted in other sectors, in other organizational cultures or in family-owned businesses, higher level of pressure for displaying CCB might be revealed.

REFERENCES

- Allen, R.W., Madison, D., L., Porter, L., W., Renwick, P., A. & Mayes, B., T. (1980). Organizational politics: Tactics and characteristics of its actors. California Management Review, 22, 11-83.
- Allen, T., D., Rush, M., C. (1998). The effects of organizational citizenship behavior on performance judgements: A field study and a laboratory experiment. Journal of Applied Psychology, 83, 247-260.
- Amabile, T., M., Hill, K., G., Hennessey, B., A., Tighe, E., M. (1994). The Work Preference Inventory: Assessing intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 66, 950–967.
- Anderson, T., P. (1994). Creating measures of dysfunctional office and organizational politics: The DOOP and Short Form DEEP Scales. Psychology: A Journal of Human Behavior, 31(2), 34.
- Baer, M., Frese, M. (2003). Innovation is not enough: climates for initiative and psychological safety, process innovations, and firm performance. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24, 45–68.
- Barker, J., R. (1993). Tightening the iron cage: Concertive control in self-managing teams. Administrative Science Quarterly, 38, 408–437.
- Barksdale, K., Werner, J., M. (2001). Managerial Ratings of in-role behaviors, organizational citizenship behaviors, and overall performance: testing different models of their relationship. Journal of Business Research, 51, 145-155.
- Bateman, T., S., Organ, D., W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee “citizenship.” Academy of Management Journal, 26, 587–595.
- Baum, H., S. (1989). Organizational politics against organizational culture: A psychoanalytic perspective. Human Resource Management, 28, 191-206.
- Bergeron, D., M. (2007). The potential paradox of organizational citizenship behavior: Good citizens at what cost? Academy of Management Review, 32, 1078–1095.
- Bolino, M., C., Turnley, W., H., Bloodgood, J., M. (2002). Citizenship behavior and the creation of social capital in organizations. Academy of Management Review, 27, 505–522.

- Bolino, M., C., Turnley, W., H. (2003). Going the extra mile: Cultivating and managing employee citizenship behavior. Academy of Management Executive, 17, 60–71.
- Bolino, M., C. (1999). Citizenship and impression management: Good soldiers or good actors? Academy of Management Review, 24, 82–98.
- Bolino, M., C., Varela, J., A., Bande, B., Turnley, W., H. (2006). The impact of impression-management tactics on supervisor ratings of organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27, 281–297.
- Bolino, M., C., Turnley, W., H., Gilstrap, J., B., Suazo. (2010). Citizenship Under Pressure: What's A "Good Soldier" To Do? Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31, 835–855.
- Bolino, M., C., Turnley, W., H., Niehoff, B., P. (2004). The Other Side Of The Story: Reexamining Prevailing Assumptions About Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Human Resource Management Review, 14, 229-246.
- Bolino, M., C., Klotz, A., C., Turnley, W., H., Harvey, J. (2013). Exploring the dark side of organizational citizenship behavior, Journal of Organizational Behavior, 34, 542–559.
- Borman, W., C., & Motowidlo, S., J. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt & W. C. Borman (Eds.), *Personnel selection in organizations* (pp. 71-98). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Borman, W., C., & Motowidlo, S., J. (1997). Task performance and contextual performance: The meaning for personnel selection research. Human Performance, 10, 99-109.
- Borman, W., C., White, L., A., Dorsey, D., W. (1995). Effects of ratee task performance and interpersonal factors on supervisor and peer performance ratings. Journal of Applied Psychology, 80, 168-177.
- Borman, W., C., Penner, L., A., Allen, T., D., Motowidlo, S., J. (2001). Personality predictors of citizenship performance. International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 9, 52-69.
- Bowler, W., M., Brass, D., J. (2006). Relational correlates of interpersonal citizenship behavior: A social network perspective. Journal of Applied Psychology, 91, 70–82.
- Bowler, W., M., Halbesleben, J., R., B., Paul, J., R., B. (2010). If you're close with the leader, you must be a brown nose: The role of leader–member relationships in follower, leader, and coworker attributions of organizational citizenship behavior motives. Human Resource Management Review, 20, 309–316.
- Brief, A., P., Motowidlo, S., J. (1986). Prosocial organizational behaviors. Academy of Management Review, 10, 710-725.

- Brown, S., P., Leigh, T., W. (1996). A new look at psychological climate and its relationship to job involvement, effort, and performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 81, 358–368.
- Carmeli, A., Brueller, D., Dutton, J. (2009). Learning behaviours in the workplace: The role of high-quality interpersonal relationships and psychological safety. Systems Research & Behavioral Science, 26(1), 81–98.
- Carmeli, A., Gittell, J., H. (2009). High-quality relationships, psychological safety, and learning from failures in work organizations. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 30, 709–729.
- Cilla, M. J. (2011). Exploring the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational climates for creativity. Master's Theses, San José State University.
- Chang, C., H., Rosen, C., C., Siemieniec, G., M., Johnson, R., E. (2012). Perceptions of Organizational Politics and Employee Citizenship Behaviors: Conscientiousness and Self-monitoring as Moderators. Journal of Business Psychology, 27:395–406.
- Chang, C., H., Rosen, C., C., Levy, P., E. (2009). The relationship between perceptions of organizational politics and employee attitudes, strain, and behavior: A meta-analytic examination. Academy of Management Journal, 52, 779–801.
- Chen, G., Tjosvold, D. (2012). Shared rewards and goal interdependence for psychological safety among departments in China. Asia Pacific Journal Of Management, 29: 433–452.
- Clarkberg, M., Moen, P. (2001). The time-squeeze: is the increase in working time due to employer demands or employee preferences? American Behavioral Scientist, Vol. 44 No. 7, 1115-1135.
- Cropanzano, R., Howes, J. C., Grandey, A. A., Tooth, P. (1997). The relationship of organizational politics and support to work behaviors, attitudes, and stress. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 18, 159–180.
- Çalışkan, K. (2006). Political Behavior In Organizations: Antecedents And Consequences. Doctor of Philosophy, Marmara University.
- Deci, E., L., Connell, J., P., Ryan, R., M. (1989). Self-determination in a work organization. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 580–590.
- Deci, E., L., Ryan, R., M. (2000). The “what” and “why” of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. Psychological Inquiry, 11, 227–268.

- Dent, E., B., Goldberg, S., G. (1999). Challenging "Resistance to Change". The Journal Of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 35, No. 1, 25-41.
- Detert J.,R, Edmondson A., C. (2011). Implicit voice theories: taken-for-granted rules of self-censorship at work. Acad. Manag. J. 54(3):461–88.
- Dollard, M., F., Bakker, A., B. (2010). Psychosocial safety climate as a precursor to conducive work environments, psychological health problems, and employee engagement. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 83, 579–599.
- Drory, A. (1993). Perceived political climate and job attitudes. Organization Studies, 14, 59-71.
- Eastman, K., K. (1994). In the eyes of the beholder: An attributional approach to ingratiation and organizational citizenship behavior. Academy of Management Journal, 37, 1379–1391.
- Edmondson, A., C. (1999). Psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams. Administrative Science Quarterly, 44, 350-383.
- Edmondson, A., C., Lei, Z. (2014). Psychological Safety: The History, Renaissance, and Future of an Interpersonal Construct. The Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 1:23-43.
- Edmondson, A., C. (2004). Psychological safety, trust, and learning in organizations: a group-level lens. In *Trust and Distrust in Organizations: Dilemmas and Approaches*, Kramer RM, Cook KS (eds). Russell Sage Foundation: New York; 239–272.
- Edmondson, A., C. (1996). Learning from mistakes is easier said than done: Group and organizational influences on the detection and correction of human error. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 32 (1): 5–28.
- Ehrhart, M., G., Naumann, S., E. (2004). Organizational citizenship behavior in work groups: A group norms approach. Journal of Applied Psychology, 89, 960–974.
- Euwema, M., C., Wendt, H., Emmerik, H., V. (2007). Leadership styles and group organizational citizenship behavior across cultures, Journal of Organizational Behavior, 28, 1035–1057.
- Farh, J., L., Earley, P., C., Lin, S., C. (1997). Impetus for action: A cultural analysis of justice and organizational citizenship behavior in Chinese society. Administrative Science Quarterly, 42, 421–444.

- Ferris, G., R., Kacmar, K., M. (1992). Perceptions of organizational politics. Journal of Management, 18: 93-116.
- Ferris, G.,R., Russ, G., S. Fandt, P., M. (1989). Politics in organizations. Pp. 143-170 in R.A. Giacalone & P. Rosenfeld (Ed.), Impression management in the organization. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Ferris, G., R., Frink, D., D., Galang, M., C., Zhou, J., Kacmar, K., M., Howard, J., L. (1996b). Perceptions of organizational politics: Prediction, stress-related implications, and outcomes. Human Relations, 49, 233-266.
- Ferris, G., R., Frink, D., D., Bhawuk, D., P., S., Zhou, J., Gilmore, D., C. (1996a). Reactions of diversity groups to politics in the workplace. Journal of Management, 22, 23-44.
- Ferris, G.,R., Brand, J., L., Brand, S., Rowland, K., Gilmore, D., King, T., R., Kacmar, K., M. Burton, C., A. (1993). Politics and control in organizations, Pp. 83-113 in E.J. Lawler, B. Marlokovsky, J. O'Brien & K. Heimer (Eds.), Advances in group processes, Vol. 10. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Ferris, G., R., Adams, G., Kolodinsky, R., W., Hochwarter, W., Ammeter, A., P. (2002). Perceptions of organizational politics: Theory and research directions. In F. J. Yammarino & F. Dansereau (Eds.), The many faces of multi-level issues (pp. 179–254). Bingley, UK: Emerald.
- Finkelstein, M., A. (2013). Correlates of Individualism and Collectivism: Predicting Organizational Citizenship Behavior. International Journal of Psychology and Behavioral Sciences, 3(2): 57-62.
- Finkelstein, M., A. (2011). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: A Functional Approach to Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Journal of Psychological Issues in Organizational Culture, Volume 2, Number 1.
- Finkelstein, M., A., Penner, L., A. (2004). Predicting organizational citizenship behavior: Integrating the functional and role identity approaches. Social Behavior and Personality, 32, 383–398.
- Ford, J., M. (2002). Organizational Politics And Multisource Feedback. Doctor of Philosophy, Louisiana State University.
- Frost, P., J. (1987). Power, politics, and influence. In F. M. Jablin, L. L. Putnam, K. H. Roberts, & L. W. Porter (Eds.), Handbook of organizational communication (pp. 503-548). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

- Gadot, E., Drory, A. (Eds.). (2006b). Handbook of organizational politics. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.
- Gadot, E., V. (2000). Internal politics in public administration systems: An empirical examination of its relationship with job congruence, organizational citizenship behavior, and in-role performance. Public Personnel Management, 29, 185–210.
- Gadot, E., V. (2006a). Compulsory Citizenship Behavior: Theorizing Some Dark Sides of the Good Soldier Syndrome in Organizations. Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour, 36:10021–8308.
- Gadot, E., V. (2007). Redrawing The Boundaries Of OCB? An Empirical Examination Of Compulsory Extra-Role Behavior In The Workplace. Journal of Business and Psychology, Volume 21, Issue 3, 377-405.
- Gadot, E., V., Drory, A. (2006). Handbook Of Organizational Politics. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Gadot, E., V., Talmud, I. (2010). Organizational Politics and Job Outcomes: The Moderating Effect of Trust and Social Support. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 40, 11, pp. 2829–2861.
- Gandz, J., Murray, V., V. (1980). The experience of workplace politics. Academy of Management Journal, 23, 237-251.
- Gelfand, M., J., Erez, M., Aycan, Z. (2007). Cross-cultural organizational behavior. Annual Review of Psychology, 58, 479–514.
- George, J., M. (1990a). Personality, affect, and behavior in groups. Journal of Applied Psychology, 75, 107-116.
- George, J., M. (1991). State or trait: Effects of positive mood on prosocial behaviors at work. Journal of Applied Psychology, 76(2), 299-307.
- George, J., M., Bettenhausen, K. (1990b). Understanding prosocial behavior, sales performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. Journal of Applied Psychology, 75, 698-709.
- George, J., M., Brief, A., P. (1992). Feeling good-doing good: A conceptual analysis of the mood at work-organizational spontaneity relationship. Psychological Bulletin, 112(2), 310-329.
- George, J., M., Jones, G., R. (1997). Organizational spontaneity in context. Human Performance, 10, 153-170.

- Gioia, D., A., Longenecker, C., O. (1994). Delving into the dark side: The politics of executive appraisal. Organizational Dynamics, 22, 47-58.
- Graen, G.,B. (1976). Role making processes within complex organizations. In D. Dunnette (Ed.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology (pp. 1201–1245). Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Graham, J., W. (1991). An Essay on Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 4, 249 –270.
- Gregory, B. T., Osmonbekov, T., Gregory, S., T. (2009). Abusive supervision and organizational citizenship behaviors: An examination of potential boundary conditions. Unpublished manuscript, The W.A. Franke College of Business, Northeast Arizona University, Flagstaff, Arizona.
- Guchait, P., Paşamehmetoğlu, A., Dawson, M. (2014). Perceived supervisor and co-worker support for error management: Impact on perceived psychological safety and service recoveryperformance. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 4, 28–37.
- Hackman, J., R., Oldham, G., R. (1980). Work redesign. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Halbesleben, J., R., B., Bowler, W., M., Bolino, M., C., Turnley, W. (2010). Organizational concern, prosocial values, or impression management? How supervisors attribute motives to organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 40, 1450-1489.
- Harris, K., J., Kacmar, K., M. (2005). Easing the strain: The buffer role of supervisors in the perceptions of politics–strain relationship. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 78, 337–354.
- Harris, R.,B., Harris, K., J., Harvey, P. (2007). A test of competing models of the relationships among perceptions of organizational politics perceived organizational support and individual outcomes. The Journal of Social Psychology, 147 (6), 631-655.
- Hochschild, A.,R. (1997). The time bind: When work becomes home and home becomes work. New York: Metropolitan Books.
- Hochwarter, W., A., Kacmar, C., Perrewé, P., L., Johnson, D. (2003). Perceived organizational support as a mediator of the relationship between politics perceptions and work outcomes. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 63, 438–456.
- Hsiung, H., H., Lin, C., W., Lin, C., S. (2012). Nourishing or suppressing? The contradictoryinfluences of perception of organizational politicson organizational

- citizenship behaviour. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 85, 258–276.
- Hurtz, G.,M., Donovan, J., J. (2000). Personality and job performance: The Big Five revisited. Journal of Applied Psychology, 85, 869-879.
- İmer, H.,P. (2009). Contextual and Dispositional Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: Does Occupation Make A Difference? Doctor of Philosophy, Boğaziçi University.
- Kacmar, K., M., Ferris, G., R. (1991). Perceptions of organizational politics scale (POPS): development and construct validation. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 51, 193–205.
- Kacmar, K., M., Baron, R., A. (1999a). Organizational politics: the state of the field, links to related research, and an agenda for future research. In G. R. Ferris (Ed.), Research in personnel and human resources management (Vol. 17, pp. 1–39). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Kacmar, K.,M., Carlson, D., S. (1997). Further validation of the Perceptions of Politics Scale (POPS): A multi-sample approach. Journal of Management, 23, 627- 658.
- Kacmar, K.,M., Bozeman, D., P., Carlson, D., S., Anthony, W., P. (1999b). An examination of the perceptions of organizational politics model: Replication and extension. Human Relations, 52, 383–416.
- Kahn, W., A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. Academy of Management Journal, 33(4): 692–724.
- Karam, C., Kwantes, C., T. (2006). Cross-cultural, cross-level OCB research: Understanding work behaviour in context. Paper presented at the 18th IACCP Conference, July, Spetses, Greece.
- Karik, R., Carmeli, A. (2009). Alive and creating: The mediating role of vitality and aliveness in the relationship between psychological safety and creative work involvement. Journal of Organization Behavior, 30: 785–804.
- Katz, D., Kahn, R., L. (1966). The social psychology of organizations. New York: Wiley.
- Kipnis, D., Schmidt, S., M., Wilkinson, I. (1980). Intraorganizational influence tactics: explorations in getting one's way. Journal of Applied Psychology, 65, 440 – 452.
- Kofodimos, J., R. (1990). Why executives lose their balance. Organizational Dynamics, 19(1), 58–73.

- Leary, M., R. (1996). Self-presentation, impression management and interpersonal behavior. Oxford: Westview Press.
- Leary, M., R., Kowalsky, R., M. (1990). Impression management: A literature review and two-component model. Psychological Bulletin, 107, 1, 34-47.
- Li, N., Yan, J. (2009). The Effects of Trust Climate On Individual Performance. Frontiers of Business Research In China, 3, 27-49.
- Liang, J., Farh, C., I., C., Farh., J., L. (2012). Psychological antecedents of promotive and prohibitive voice: a two-wave examination. Acad. Manag. J. 55:71–92.
- Longenecker, C., O., Sims, H., P., Gioia, D., A. (1987). Behind the mask: The politics of employee appraisal. Academy of Management Executive, 1, 183-193.
- Mackenzie, S., B., Podsakoff, P., M., Fetter, R. (1991). Organizational Citizenship Behavior and objective productivity as determinants of managerial evaluations of salespersons' performance. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50, 123-150.
- Madison, D., L., Allen, R., W., Porter, L., W., Renwick, P., A. Mayes, B., T. (1980). Organization politics: An exploration of managers' perceptions. Human Relations, 33: 79-100.
- May, D., R., Gilson, R., L., Harter, L., M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 77, 11–37.
- McAllister, D., J., Kamdar, D., Morrison, E., W., Turban, D., B. (2007). Disentangling role perceptions: How perceived role breadth, discretion, instrumentality, and efficacy relate to helping and taking charge. Journal of Applied Psychology, 92, 1200–1211.
- McNeely, B., L., Meglino, B., M. (1994). The role of dispositional and situational antecedents in prosocial organizational behavior: An examination of the intended beneficiaries of prosocial behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79, 836–844.
- Mealea, L., W. (1978). Learned Behavior: The Key to Understanding and Preventing Employee Resistance to Change. Group & Organization Management, 3: 211.
- Milliken, F., J., Morrison, E., W., Hewlin, P., F. (2003). An exploratory study of employee silence: issues that employees don't communicate upward and why. J. Manag. Stud. 40:1453–76

- Moorman, R., H., Blakely, G., L. (1995). Individualism–collectivism as an individual difference predictor of organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 16, 127–142.
- Moorman, R., H. (1991). The relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? Journal of Applied Psychology, 76, 845-855.
- Moorman, R., H., Niehoff, B., P., Organ, D., W. (1993). Treating employees fairly and organizational citizenship behaviors: Sorting the effects of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and procedural justice. Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 6, 209-225.
- Motowidlo, S., J., Van Scotter, J., R. (1994). Evidence that task performance should be distinguished from contextual performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79, 475-480.
- Morrison, E.,W. (1994). Role definition and organizational citizenship behavior: The importance of the employee’s perspective. Academy of Management Journal, 37, 1543–1567.
- Ning, L., Jin, Y. (2009). The effects of trust climate on individual performance. Front. Bus. Res. China, 3(1): 27–49.
- Nye, L., G., Witt, L., A. (1993). Dimensionality and construct validity of the perceptions of organizational politics scale (POPS). Educational and Psychological Measurement, 53, 821-829.
- Oldham, G., R., Cummings, A. (1996). Employee creativity: Personal and contextual factors at work. Academy of Management Journal, 39, 607–634.
- O’Neill, O., A. (2009). Workplace expression of emotions and escalation of commitment. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 39, 2396–2424.
- O’Reilly, C., Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification and internalization on prosocial behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71: 492–499.
- Organ, D., W. (1977). A reappraisal and reinterpretation of the satisfaction-causes-performance hypothesis. Academy of Management Review, 2, 46–53.
- Organ, D., W., Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2006). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature, antecedents, and consequences. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Organ, D., W. (1988). *Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Good Soldier Syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Organ, D., W. (1990). The motivational basis of organizational citizenship behavior. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), Research in organizational behavior (Vol. 12, pp. 43–72). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Organ, D., W., Konovsky, M. (1989). Cognitive versus affective determinants of organizational citizenship behaviors. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 157-164.
- Organ, D., W., Konovsky, M. (1996). Dispositional and Contextual Determinants of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Journal of Organizational Behavior, Vol.17, 253-266.
- Organ, D., W., Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. Personnel Psychology, 48: 775–802.
- Organ, D., W. (1997). Organizational Citizenship Behavior: It's Construct Clean-Up Time. Human Performance, 10(2), 85-97.
- Paine, J., B., Organ, D., W. (2000). The cultural matrix of organizational citizenship behavior: Some preliminary conceptual and empirical observations. Human Resource Management Review, 10, 45–59.
- Parker, C., P., Dipboye, R., L., Jackson, S., L. (1995). Perceptions of Organizational Politics: An Investigation of Antecedents and Consequences. Journal of Management, Vol. 21, No. 5, 891-912.
- Pfeffer, J. (1981). *Power in organizations*, Boston, MA: Pitman.
- Podsakoff, P., M., MacKenzie, S., B. (1994). Organizational citizenship behaviors and sales unit effectiveness. Journal of Marketing Research, 31, 351-363.
- Podsakoff, P., M., MacKenzie, S., B., Hui, C. (1993). Organizational citizenship behaviors and managerial evaluations of employee performance: A review and suggestions for future research. In G. R. Ferris (Ed.), Research in personnel and human resources management (Vol. 11, pp. 1–40). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Podsakoff, P., M., MacKenzie, S., B., Bommer, W., H. (1996b). Transformational leader behaviors and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Journal of Management, 22: 259–298.

- Podsakoff, P., M., MacKenzie, S., B., Moorman, R., H., Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Leadership Quarterly, 1: 107–142.
- Podsakoff, P., M., MacKenzie, S., B. (1995). An examination of substitutes for leadership within a levels of analysis framework. Leadership Quarterly, 6: 289–328.
- Podsakoff, P., M., MacKenzie, S., B., Bommer, W., H. (1996a). A meta-analysis of the relationships between Kerr and Jermier's substitutes for leadership and employee job attitudes, role perceptions, and performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 81: 380–399.
- Podsakoff, P., M., Niehoff, B., P., MacKenzie, S., B., Williams, M., L. (1993). Do substitutes for leadership really substitute for leadership? An empirical examination of Kerr and Jermier's situational leadership model. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 54: 1–44.
- Podsakoff, P., M., MacKenzie, S., B., Paine, J., B., Bachrach, D., G. (2000). Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: A Critical Review of the Theoretical and Empirical Literature and Suggestions for Future Research. Journal of Management, Vol. 26, No. 3, 513–563.
- Podsakoff, N., P., Podsakoff, P., M., Whiting, S., W., Blume, B., D. (2009). Individual- and Organizational-Level Consequences of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: A Meta-Analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 94, No. 1, 122–141.
- Poon, J., M. (2003). Situational antecedents and outcomes of organizational politics perceptions. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 18 (2), 138-155.
- Porpara, D.,V. (1989). Four concepts of social structure. Journal for the Theory of Social Behavior, 19, 195–211.
- Premeaux, S.,F., Bedeian, A., G. (2003). Breaking the silence: the moderating effects of self-monitoring in predicting speaking up in the workplace. J. Manag. Stud. 40:1537–62.
- Randall, M., L., Cropanzano, R., Borman, C., A., Birjulin, A. (1999). Organizational politics and organizational support as predictors of work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20, 159–174.
- Reynolds, J. (2005). In the Face of Conflict: Work-Life Conflict and Desired Work Hour Adjustments. Journal of Marriage and Family, 67, 1313–1331.
- Rioux, S., M., Penner, L., A. (2001). The causes of organizational citizenship behavior: A motivational analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 86, 1306–1314.

- Rosen, C., C., Chang, C., H., Johnson, R., E., Levy, P., E. (2009a). Perceptions of the organizational context and psychological contract breach: Assessing competing perspectives. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 108, 202–217.
- Rosen, C. C., Harris, K. J., & Kacmar, K. M. (2009b). The emotional implications of perceived organizational politics: A process model. Human Relations, 62, 27–57.
- Rotundo, M., Sackett, P., R. (2002). The relative importance of task, citizenship, and counterproductive performance to global ratings of job performance: A policy-capturing approach. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87, 66–80.
- Rousseau, D.,M. (1989). Psychological and implied contracts in organizations. Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 2, 121–139.
- Roussin, C., J., Webber, S., S. (2012). Impact of Organizational Identification and Psychological Safety on Initial Perceptions of Coworker Trustworthiness. Journal of Business Psychology, 27:317–329.
- Rusbult, C., Campbell, M., Price, M. (1990). Rational selective exploitation and distress: Employee reactions to performance-based and mobility-based reward allocations. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 59, 487–500.
- Ryan, K.,D., Oestreich, D., K. (1998). Driving Fear out of the Workplace. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. 2nd ed.
- Salamon, S., D., Deutsch, Y. (2006). OCB as a handicap: An evolutionary psychological perspective. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27, 185– 199.
- Salancik, G.,R., Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. Administrative Science Quarterly, 23, 224–253.
- Schutz, A. (1998). Assertive, offensive, protective, and defensive styles of self-presentation: A taxonomy. The Journal of Psychology, 132, 6, 611-628.
- Smith, C., A., Organ, D., W., Near, J., P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. Journal of Applied Psychology, 68, 655–663.
- Şeşen, H., Soran, S., Caymaz, E. (2014). Dark Side of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB): Testing a Model between OCB, Social Loafing, and Organizational Commitment. International Journal of Business and Social Science, Vol. 5, No. 5.
- Tepper, B., J., Duffy, M., K., Hoobler, J., Ensley, M., D. (2004). Moderators of the relationships between coworkers' organizational citizenship behavior and fellow employees' attitudes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 89, 455–465.

- Tepper, B.,J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. Academy of Management Journal, 43, 178–190.
- Tolentino, A., L. (2009). Are all good soldiers created equal? examining the "why" that underlies organizational citizenship behavior: The development of an OCB motives scale. Doctor of Philosophy, University of South Florida.
- Tziner, A., Latham, G., P., Price, B., S., Haccoun, R. (1996). Development and validation of a questionnaire for measuring perceived political considerations in performance appraisal. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17, 179-190.
- Werner, J., M. (1994). Dimensions that make a difference: Examining the impact of in-role and extra-role behaviors on supervisory ratings. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79, 98-107.
- West, M., A. (1990). The social psychology of innovation in groups. In M. A. West, & J. L. Farr (Eds.), *Innovation and creativity at work: Psychological and organizational strategies* (pp. 309–335). Chichester: Wiley.
- Williams, L., J., Anderson, S., E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. Journal of Management, 17(3), 601-617.
- Valle, M., Perrewé, P., L. (2000). Do politics perceptions relate to political behaviors? Tests of an implicit assumption and expanded model. Human Relations, 53, 359–386.
- Van Dyne, L., LePine, J., A. (1998). Helping and voice extra-role behaviors: evidence of construct and predictive validity. Acad. Manag. J. 41:108–19.
- Van Dyne, L., Cummings, L., L., McLean Parks, J. (1995). Extra-role behaviors: in pursuit of construct and definitional clarity (a bridge over muddied waters). Research in Organizational Behavior, 17, 215-285.
- Van Dyne, L., Graham, J., W., Dienesch, R., M. (1994). Organizational citizenship behavior: Construct redefinition, measurement, and validation. Academy of Management Journal, 37, 765–802.
- Van Dyne, L., Ellis, J., B. (2004). Job creep: A reactance theory perspective on organizational citizenship behavior as overfulfillment of obligations. In J. A. M. Coyle-Shapiro, L. M. Shore, M. S. Taylor, & L. E. Tetrick (Eds.), *The employment relationship: Examining psychological and contextual perspectives* (pp. 181–205). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Van Scotter, J., R., Motowidlo, S., J. (1996). Interpersonal facilitation and job dedication as separate facets of contextual performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79, 98-107.
- Van Scotter, J., R., Motowidlo, S., J., Cross, T., C. (2000). Effects of task performance and contextual performance on systematic rewards. Journal of Applied Psychology, 85, 526-535.
- Vey, M., A., Campbell, J., P. (2004). In-role or extra-role organizational citizenship behavior: Which are we measuring? Human Performance, 17, 119-135.
- Yaldiran, A. (2011). A Study On The Relationship Between Organizational Politics And Mobbing Behaviors At The Workplaces. Master Thesis, Marmara University.
- Zellars, K., L., Tepper, B., J., Duffy, M., K. (2002). Abusive Supervision and Subordinates' Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol.87, No.6, 1068-1076.
- Zivnuska, S., Kacmar, K., M., Witt, L., A., Carlson, D., S., Bratton, V., K. (2004). Interactive effects of impression management and organizational politics on job performance. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25, 627-640.
- Zhao, H., Peng, Z., Han, Y., Sheard, G., Hudson, A. (2013). Psychological Mechanism Linking Abusive Supervision And Compulsory Citizenship Behavior: A Moderated Mediation Study. The Journal of Psychology, 147(2), 177-195.
- Zhao, H., Peng, Z., Chen, H., K. (2014). Compulsory Citizenship Behavior And Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Role Of Organizational Identification And Perceived Interactional Justice. The Journal of Psychology, 148(2), 177-196.
- Zhou, J., Ferris, G., R. (1995). The dimensions and consequences of organizational politics perceptions: A confirmatory analysis. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 25, 1747-1764.

APPENDIX

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu araştırma Marmara Üniversitesi İngilizce İşletme Bölümü Örgütsel Davranış yüksek lisans programı öğrencisi Suzan Ece Alkan'ın Yüksek Lisans tez çalışmasıdır.

Araştırma, kurumlardaki çalışanların bazı iş tutumlarına yönelik bir çalışmaya ışık tutmak amacıyla yapılandırılmıştır. Bu çalışma için doldurmanızı rica ettiğimiz ölçeklere vereceğiniz yanıtlar araştırmanın sağlıklı bir şekilde yürütülmesi açısından çok önemlidir.

Araştırma için kimlik bilgileriniz istenmeyecek olup, yanıtlarınız üçüncü şahıslar ve kurumlar ile paylaşılmayacaktır. Lütfen hiçbir soruyu yanıtsız bırakmayınız.

Anket yaklaşık 10 dakikanızı alacaktır. Ayırdığınız zaman ve katkınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

1. Yaşınız : _____

2. Cinsiyetiniz : Kadın ☐ Erkek ☐

3. Medeni Durumunuz : Bekar ☐ Evli ☐ Dul ☐ Boşanmış ☐

4. Öğrenim Durumunuz: Lise Mezunu ☐, Üniversite Mezunu ☐, Yüksek Lisans ☐, Doktora ☐

5. Sahip Olduğunuz Çocuk Sayısı: 0 ☐, 1 ☐, 2 ☐, 3 ☐, 4 ve üzeri ☐

6. İşiniz / Mesleğiniz : _____

7. Çalıştığınız Sektör: Denetim ☐, Eğitim ☐, Finans ☐, Gıda ☐, Hizmet ☐, Otomotiv ☐, Sigorta ☐, Telekomünikasyon ☐, Tekstil ☐, Diğer ☐

8. Çalıştığınız Departman: Bilgi Teknolojileri (IT) ☐, Çağrı Merkezi ☐, Denetim ☐, Hukuk ☐, İnsan Kaynakları ☐, Mali Kontrol / Planlama ☐, Mevzuat / Uyum ☐, Muhasebe ☐, Operasyon ☐, Satış ☐, Ürün Yönetimi / Pazarlama ☐, Diğer ☐

9. Unvanınız: Yetkili ☐, Yönetici Yardımcısı ☐, Uzman Yardımcısı ☐, Uzman ☐, Yönetici ☐, Müdür ☐, Direktör ☐, Diğer ☐

10. Sorumlu Olduğunuz / Size Bağlı Çalışan Kaç Kişi Vardır? : _____

11. Şu Anki İş Yerinizde Kaç Yıldır Çalışıyorsunuz? : _____

12. Toplam Kaç Yıldır İş Hayatında Bulunuyorsunuz?: _____

Table 22: Compulsory Citizenship Behavior Scale

Aşağıda kurumlarda çalışan bireyler tarafından sergilenebilecek davranışlar sıralanmıştır. Aşağıdaki davranışları sergilemeniz konusunda; - Bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinizi/müdürünüzü, - Kariyeri güçlü olan çalışma arkadaşlarınızı, - Çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumdaki genel çalışma ortamını, - Ailenizi/ailevi sorumluluklarınızı, düşündüğünüzde; bu unsurlardan herhangi biri veya birkaçından ne sıklıkla baskı gördüğünüzü aşağıda bulunan 6'lı ölçekte işaretleyiniz.		Her zaman baskı görerek	Çoğu zaman baskı görerek	Genellikle baskı görerek	Bazen baskı görerek	Nadiren baskı görerek	Hiçbir zaman baskı görmeden
1	Mevcut görevlerim dışında ekstra görevler almak	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Herhangi bir ödül beklemeden mevcut iş yükümden daha fazla iş yapabilmek için mesaiye kalmak	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	İşimin gerektirdiği çabadan daha fazlasını sarfetmek	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Zamanım ve enerjim olmasa bile çalışma arkadaşlarıma yardım etmek	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	Zamanım ve enerjim olmasa bile yöneticime yardım etmek, destek olmak	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	Günlük izin alan/işe gelmeyen bir çalışanın o günkü işlerini yapmak	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	Kurum içindeki değişikliklere ayak uydurmak	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	Şirket içinde çıkan çatışmaların çözülmesinde aktif rol almak	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	Yeni işe başlayan birisinin işi öğrenmesine yardımcı olmak	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	Beklenmeyen problemler oluştuğunda diğer çalışanları zarar görmemeleri için uyararak	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	İşle ilgili problemlerde elimde bulunan malzeme ve bilgileri diğer çalışma arkadaşlarımla paylaşmak	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	Her türlü geliştirici faaliyet icra eden araştırma ve proje gruplarının içerisinde yer almak	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	Mesai saatlerinde zamanımın çoğunu işimle ilgili faaliyetlerle geçirmek	6	5	4	3	2	1
14	Üst yönetimde yayımlanan duyuru, mesaj, prosedür ya da kısa notları okumak	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	Kurumum için olumlu imaj yaratacak tüm faaliyet/toplantılara katılmak	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	Aşırı iş yükü olan çalışma arkadaşlarıma yardım etmek	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	Şirketin sosyal faaliyetlerine katılmak	6	5	4	3	2	1
18	Diğer çalışanların hak ve hukukuna saygı göstermek	6	5	4	3	2	1
19	Birlikte görev yaptığım diğer çalışanlar için problem yaratmamak	6	5	4	3	2	1
20	Sorumluluğumdaki işlerle ilgili şikayet etmemek	6	5	4	3	2	1
21	Mesai saatleri içerisinde mümkün olduğunca yerimden kalkmadan, mola vermeden çalışmak	6	5	4	3	2	1
22	Mesaiye yaşadığım olumsuz durumlara karşı gücenmemek / kızgınlık duymamak	6	5	4	3	2	1
23	İşe gelemediğim zamanlarda e-posta veya telefonla destek vermek	6	5	4	3	2	1
24	Mesai başlamadan işe koyulmak	6	5	4	3	2	1
25	İş yoğunluğum nedeniyle kişisel planlarımı ertelemek	6	5	4	3	2	1
26	İşe devamlılığımı ortalamanın üzerinde tutmak	6	5	4	3	2	1
27	İşimi geliştirmek için önerilerde bulunmak	6	5	4	3	2	1

Table 23: Pressure Sources Scale

Kendinizi, çevrenizdekileri ve iş ortamınızı düşündüğünüzde yukarıda görüşlerinizi ilettiğiniz davranışları sergilemeniz konusunda her bir unsurun üzerinizdeki baskı derecesini aşağıdaki 6'lı ölçekte işaretleyiniz.		Her zaman	Çoğu zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman
1	Kendi kendime baskı yaptığımı hissediyorum.	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Ailevi sorumluluklarımın baskısını hissediyorum.	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Kariyeri güçlü olan ve başarılı çalışma arkadaşlarımın baskısını hissediyorum.	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Yöneticimin/müdürümün baskısını hissediyorum.	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	Kurumumdaki genel çalışma ortamının baskısını hissediyorum.	6	5	4	3	2	1

Table 24: Psychological Safety Scale

	Çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumunuzu düşündüğünüzde aşağıdakilere ne derecede katıldığınızı işaretleyiniz.	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Çoğunlukla Katılıyorum	Oldukça Katılıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Çok Az Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1	Bu kurumda çalışanlar yaşadıkları problemleri ve başa çıkılması zor konuları rahatlıkla dile getirebilirler	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Bazı çalışanlar kurumdaki diğer çalışanlar tarafından farklı olsalar bile kabul görürler	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Çalıştığım kurumda rahatlıkla risk alınabilir	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Bu kurumda çalışma arkadaşlarından rahatlıkla yardım istenebilir	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	Bu kurumda hiç kimse işlerimi baltalayıcı davranışlarda bulunmaz	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	Bu kurumda beceri ve yeteneklerime değer veriliyor, onlardan faydalanılıyor	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	Çalıştığım kurumda bir çalışan hata yaptığında bu durum onun aleyhinde kullanılır	6	5	4	3	2	1

Table 25: Organizational Politics Perception Scale

	Çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumunuzu düşündüğünüzde aşağıdakilere ne derecede katıldığınızı işaretleyiniz.	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Çoğunlukla Katılıyorum	Oldukça Katılıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Çok Az Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1	Kimin yükseleceğini yeterlilikten ziyade adam kayırmacılık belirler	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Bulduğum departmanda kimsenin karşı gelmeyi göze alamayacağı etkili bir grup vardır	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Ödülleri yalnızca çok çalışan kişiler alır	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Bulduğum departmanda terfileri genellikle en iyi performans gösteren kişiler alır	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	Çalıştığım kurumda herkes birbirinin üzerine basarak yükselmeye çalışır	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	İşletme politikalarında yapılan değişikliklerin kurumun yararından çok bazı kişilere fayda sağlamak için yapıldığını düşünmekteyim.	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	Bu kurumda bazı kişiler kendilerine engel olabilecek kişilerle karşılaşmadıkları için işlerini kendi bildikleri gibi yaparlar.	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	Bazı çalışanların terfi ve prim politikalarına aykırı şekilde terfi ettirildiğini veya prim aldığını hatırlıyorum	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	Bu işletmede çalışmaya başladığımdan bu yana politik ilişkiler sonucu maaş veya terfi alan çalışanlar gördüm	6	5	4	3	2	1

Table 26: Frequency Table of CCB Factors Items

	Compulsory Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale	Always With Pressure	Generally With Pressure	Usually With Pressure	Sometimes With Pressure	Rarely With Pressure	Never With Pressure
Item No.	Factor 1: Compulsory Altruism						
18	Respecting to the right of the other employees	1,8%	1,8%	2,4%	2,4%	7,1%	84,7%
19	Trying not to cause problems for the coworkers	1,8%	2,4%	1,8%	5,3%	10,6%	78,2%
10	Warning the other employees for their good when unexpected	0,6%	1,2%	1,8%	6,5%	15,3%	74,7%
11	In work related problems, do not hesitate sharing my resources with the others	1,2%	2,4%	2,9%	4,1%	14,1%	75,3%
12	Participating in all research and project groups for the improvement of the organization	0,6%	1,8%	2,9%	10,0%	28,8%	55,9%
9	Helping a new comer in his tasks	2,4%	3,5%	3,5%	6,5%	24,1%	60,0%
20	Do not complaining about the tasks under my responsibility	1,8%	2,4%	2,9%	10,6%	24,7%	57,6%
Item No.	Factor 2: Compulsory Devotion						
3	Investing more effort in my job than I want to and beyond my formal job requirements	1,2%	2,9%	8,8%	11,2%	22,9%	52,9%
8	Performing actively in the conflict management within the organization	2,4%	1,8%	5,3%	11,8%	21,8%	57,1%
6	Helping others who has not come to work or who have been absent	2,9%	2,9%	8,2%	9,4%	23,5%	52,9%
1	Engaging in extra job tasks beside my own tasks	2,4%	3,5%	9,4%	17,6%	34,7%	32,4%
5	Assisting my supervisor even if I have no time or energy	1,8%	4,7%	5,3%	10,0%	18,2%	60,0%
2	Working extra hours for performing more than my own tasks without expecting any reward	1,8%	4,1%	7,1%	16,5%	27,1%	43,5%
7	Supporting the changes in the organization	4,7%	4,7%	8,8%	15,9%	25,3%	40,6%
Item No.	Factor 3: Compulsory Conscientiousness						
21	Working without taking a break	1,8%	5,3%	4,7%	8,2%	21,8%	58,2%
25	Rearranging or altering my personal plans because of work load	5,3%	2,9%	8,8%	12,4%	30,6%	40,0%
24	Going into the office and starting to work before the start of formal business hour	1,2%	4,1%	4,1%	10,6%	15,9%	64,1%
26	Trying to keep the attendance at work above average	3,5%	4,7%	5,3%	3,5%	14,1%	68,8%
13	Dealing only with my job tasks through the formal business hours	2,4%	1,8%	4,1%	9,4%	18,8%	63,5%

Table 27: Frequency Table of Other CCB Items

Item No.	Compulsory Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale	Always With Pressure	Generally With Pressure	Usually With Pressure	Sometimes With Pressure	Rarely With Pressure	Never With Pressure
4	Assisting my coworkers even if I have no time or energy	1,8%	1,2%	4,7%	11,8%	16,5%	64,1%
14	Following the announcements, messages, procedures or short notes that are issued by the management	2,9%	4,1%	2,9%	8,2%	18,8%	62,9%
15	Attending and participating in meetings regarding the company	1,2%	4,1%	5,3%	11,2%	25,3%	52,9%
16	Helping others who have heavy workloads	1,8%	3,5%	2,9%	5,9%	28,8%	57,1%
17	Attending and participating in social activities of the company	3,5%	5,3%	6,5%	12,9%	31,8%	40,0%
22	Tolerating occasional inconvenience when they arise	3,5%	2,4%	6,5%	14,7%	31,8%	41,2%
23	Giving support with cell phone or e-mail for work when I am not at the office	4,7%	1,8%	4,7%	11,2%	24,1%	53,5%
27	Offering suggestions for ways to improve operations	2,4%	1,2%	3,5%	7,6%	16,5%	68,8%