Organizational Altruism: Exploration and development of the concept.

Joanna Maria Szulc

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Leeds

Leeds University Business School

March 2017

The candidate confirms that the work submitted is his/her own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.

This copy has been supplied on the understanding that it is copyright material and that no quotation from the thesis may be published without proper acknowledgement.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

Helpful behaviours among employees have been a central issue in the study of organizations for a long time and previous work has demonstrated their positive influence on the organizational, group, and personal effectiveness. Most of these studies have been grounded in the traditional theories assuming the principle of rational self-interest – often reducing human interactions to a process of reciprocal exchanges and calculations. However, recent changes in the nature of workplace relationships that reflect the growing mutual dependencies of employees point out to the importance of behaviours that are not predicated on any form of a "deal". This thesis therefore directly responds to the challenges of contemporary, increasingly interdependent organizational forms and draws scholars' attention to the concept of Organizational Altruism (OA). In broad terms, OA can be defined as benefiting a colleague as an end in itself. However, the concept is still poorly understood and its characteristics have not been dealt with in depth. Whereas the importance of OA for organizational effectiveness has been emphasised, because of the lack of a widely accepted definition, the extant evidence regarding OA is only partial and relatively inconsistent. The specific aim of this thesis is therefore to better understand the construct of OA. Three in-depth qualitative case studies with 47 dyadic interviews and 94 individuals in total provided insights ultimately enhancing our understanding of the nature of OA, the factors which influence engagement in this type of behaviour, and its consequences. Most importantly, the findings of this research allowed for an introduction of a definition of OA, a comprehensive model theorizing how OA processes unfold in organizational contexts, and a unifying theoretical framework that can act as enrichment to the field of OA. These findings have important implications for both research and practice and give rise to new areas that future research should now take account of.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CR	Critical Realism
HR	Human Resources
IRI	Interpersonal Reactivity Index
OA	Organizational Altruism
OB	Organizational Behaviour
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behaviour
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
TA	Template Analysis

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

It has been half a century since scholars proposed that organizational, group and personal effectiveness will be enhanced by employee engagement in a variety of prosocial behaviours not formally required by the organization (Katz and Kahn, 1966). This topic has proved to be popular in organizational behaviour and related scholarship (e.g., Bailey et al., 2017; Carpenter et al., 2014; Lam et al., 2016; Lemoine et al., 2015; Li et al., 2014; Methot et al., 2017; Podsakoff et al., 2014; Trougakos et al., 2015) and extensive evidence has supported this proposition (Ehrhart and Naumann, 2004; Grant et al., 2008; Mignonac and Richebe, 2013; Podsakoff et al., 2000; 2009). The requirement of "pro-sociality" (in its various guises) has been elevated further following technological advances in the workplace and increased globalization. These changes provided greater autonomy for teams to interact across cultural, occupational, and geographic boundaries and generally resulted in increases in interdependence and interactions among co-workers (Grant and Parker, 2009; Grant and Patil, 2012). In the light of these advancements, organizations with employees who contribute to other people and the company itself are frequently characterized by more commited workforce and more efficient and effective functioning (Li et al., 2015).

Nevertheless, an overwhelming tendency in the literature is to assume that helping among employees is predominantly driven by reciprocity-based interactions (Gouldner, 1960; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005) where individuals are rational and economical (Schein, 1980) and therefore their actions are underpinned by an intention of securing rewards or avoiding punishment (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 2001; Fehr and Falk, 2002; Fehr and Gachter, 2002; Feinberg et al., 2014; Goldstein et al., 2008; LePine et al.,

2008; Reiche et al., 2014; Sommerfeld et al., 2007). In contrast, this research adopts a position that reciprocal expectations which are inevitably ingrained in these arrangements are not a sufficient response to the needs of contemporary organizational forms and increasingly complex workplace relationships. This is because outside the (largely) clear rules of competition, what is perceived as being fair in terms of reciprocal exchange is often very subjective and can sully the effectiveness of such arrangements (Conway and Briner, 2005; Herriot et al., 1997). Moreover, the changing and often indeterminate needs of the contemporary organization (Grant and Parker, 2009) mean that the conditions are often unfavourable to building a stable pattern of cooperation based on explicit reciprocal deals.

This thesis therefore supports an argument that there is a clear need to encourage helping and other forms of prosocial behaviour that are not predicated on any form of a reciprocal "deal". Instead, scholars' attention is drawn to the concept of Organizational Altruism (OA). OA assumes that individuals engage in help-giving actions to genuinely benefit someone in need rather than the self. Given the escalation of interdependent job roles in contemporary organizations demands even greater levels of cooperation, scholars started to recognize that organizations which promote and have highest degrees of altruistic behaviours are likely to outcompete their rivals and bring ensuing benefits for individuals within the organizations (Clarkson, 2014; Li et al., 2014). This is because when employees value the success and well-being of others – as reflected in the definition of OA - they are more likely to notice the needs of others and be prepared to sacrifice their own energy to help them (Meglino and Korsgaard, 2004; Bergeron et al., 2013; Bolino and Turnley, 2005; Moon et al., 2008). In addition, such actions will usually be characterized by higher levels of persistence, performance, and productivity (Bing and Burroughs, 2001; Deci and Ryan, 2000; Grant et al., 2007; Grant, 2008;

Korsgaard et al., 1997) and should elicit more positive reactions among organizational members than seemingly self-oriented acts (Halbesleben et al., 2010; Lemoine et al., 2015). In light of these benefits, surprisingly little empirical research has actually been conducted on the topic.

More specifically, as an object of research, OA encompasses different perceptions and varying definitions (e.g., Clarkson, 2014; Haynes et al., 2015; Li et al., 2014; Loi et al., 2011; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Wagner and Rush, 2000). A lack of clear distinction between them have resulted in the illusion of agreement and amalgamating acts that substantially differ in nature. This in turn is problematic because without an appropriate level of specification we are not able to fully understand the concept. Consequently, more empirical evidence is needed on individuals' experiences of OA. This information should enable scholars to gain a comprehensive understanding of the specific meaning behind OA and the processes guiding such behaviours. What is more, given that an emerging stream of work has begun to question the conventional wisdom that helping behaviours among colleagues should result in positive consequences for employees and organizations (e.g., Bergeron et al., 2013; 2014; Griffin and O'Leary-Kelly, 2004; Koopman et al., 2016), this may also apply to OA. Consequently, it appears essential that any exploration of OA critically assesses the impact that it has on organizations and their members.

The scarcity of research on OA is regrettable because it is the sort of evidence that would raise scholarly and practitioners' awareness of this specific phenomenon and would enable organizations to understand how it can be effectively managed to the advantage of key organizational stakeholders. Characteristics of OA, the processes associated with it, and the consequences of such behaviours are, of course, very much an open empirical question that the reported in this thesis research sets out to explore.

1.2. Research questions

The aim of this research is to better understand the nature of OA, the factors which influence engagement in it, and its impact on organizations and their employees. This should constitute a necessary step in helping practitioners to effectively manage OA in a way that is most beneficial to all the workplace parties. Consistent with the broader aim of the study, three main research questions are addressed:

1) How do employees in the investigated organizations perceive the nature of organizational altruism?

2) How is engagement in organizational altruism influenced according to employees in the investigated organizations?

3) What are the consequences of organizational altruism according to employees in the invetstigated organizations?

1.3. Research approach

The research discussed here is carried out under the assumptions of a critical realist ontology and a social constructionist epistemology. In order to meet the study's objectives, an in-depth qualitative methodology and a case study design is employed to take advantage of being able to provide particularly rich data sets that produce a detailed picture of the phenomenon of interest (Creswell and Poth, 2017; Patton, 2015). The choice of three case studies across organizations from public and not-for-profit sectors is carefully considered and further justified in chapter 3. The methods within the employed case studies involve dyadic semi-structured interviews. 47 interviews with 94 participants in total allowed to inductively gain particularly rich understanding of

employees' perceptions and experiences of OA and thus to comprehensively answer the research questions posed for this thesis.

1.4. Significance of the research

By unpacking and analysing current understanding of OA, factors influencing engagement in such acts, and their consequences, this thesis contributes to the organizational literature in a number of ways. First, it questions the basic assumptions underlying the current understanding of the concept of OA and the predominant reliance of the existing theories on self-interest and direct reciprocal arrangements. It is demonstrated that OA motivated by concern for others should be given greater attention in frameworks addressing workplace relationships. Second, this work explains that stretching the concept of OA to other behaviours may result in unclear conceptualizations. Striving for construct clarity, a definition of OA which emphasizes its unique nature is provided. It further sets OA aside from related phenomena, and thus contributes towards greater consistency of scholarly research on the topic. Third, a comprehensive model explaining how OA processes unfold in organizational contexts is developed. Hence, this research responds to the critical questions of why, when and how employees engage in OA to genuinely benefit other organizational recipients. In doing so, a unifying theoretical approach into understanding of the concept of OA is offered that combines the knowledge from the domain of organizational studies as well as social psychology. Overall, the sort of evidence that this thesis provides will enable organizations to better understand how to effectively manage OA and give sound basis for future research in this exciting yet still underdeveloped area.

Methodologically, this qualitative exploratory study collects data on OA directly from individuals and based on their experiences. This is critical in order to fully understand

how those individuals perceive the studied phenomena and what influences their behaviours. Given that the previous research usually provided individuals with a preconceived set of measures supposed to quantify their altruistic behaviours (e.g., Glomb et al., 2011; Heilman and Chen, 2005; Sosik et al., 2009; Strobel et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2009), this study contributes to the existing literature in a way that it leaves room for understanding of participants' own accounts of OA and allows for appreciation of the contextual and social influences on their perceptions. What is more, employing so far relatively neglected in the management research dyadic form of interviews (Morgan et al., 2016) allows for building on vibrant interactions among the study's participants who engage in intense discussion that generates particularly rich data and adds further insights into the complexity of OA.

Practically, the reported research has implications for managers as it is set to raise their awareness about the importance of the concept of OA for organizational practice. It also offers a number of suggestions for organizations interested in fostering OA in a way that brings most advantages to workplace parties. This is particularly important since the existing organizational value systems appear to predominantly foster individualism which presents a somewhat untenable context for the display of altruistic behaviours and therefore may not reflect the needs of the 21st century organizations and their members (see: Clarkson, 2014).

1.5. Outline of thesis structure

This introductory chapter outlines the main issues to be addressed in this thesis. Chapter 2 presents a critical review of literature surrounding OA and related concepts in order to gain deeper insight into the subject matter and to establish the nature of the literature gap. Chapter 3 describes the philosophical assumptions guiding this thesis and provides

justification for the proposed research methodology. It describes the research design used in the study, the profiles of the three participating organizations, as well as issues of access, consent and interview administration. The following Chapter 4 reports on the research findings reflecting on each main research question respectively. The subsequent Chapter 5 provides discussion of the findings in relation to the existing literature and offers suggestions for the extension of the existing theory. The final Chapter 6 evaluates the research in terms of its implications for the development of theory and contributions to research and practice. The chapter also details several areas where further research is now required.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter examines the previous literature on Organizational Altruism and related behaviours and explores some of the main issues that have been raised in this field in order to set the context for the current research. It starts with a discussion about the meaning of OA and introduces different approaches that have been used to study the concept. Subsequently, a detailed examination of the significance of OA for organizational success is given. It is demonstrated how other-oriented OA is likely to elicit more effective help than self-serving behaviours. Potential negatives associated with OA of which organizations should be aware are further described. A case is then made for the clarification of the existing conceptualizations of OA and a parsimonious working definition of OA is introduced. This sets the construct aside from related phenomena and enables operationalizing the current research. To further unpack and analyse current understanding of OA, the chapter details the theoretical perspectives used to study OA and questions some of the basic assumptions behind the existing research on the concept. By identification of key contemporary organizational dilemmas, it is revealed that OA motivated by concern for others should be given greater attention in frameworks addressing workplace relationships. The subsequent section includes a discussion of the existing methodological approaches used to study OA. It provides a brief summary of how the concept has been operationalized in the management research and identifies when existing operationalizations may be problematic. Finally, the value of this thesis is re-emphasised by concluding on the gaps in the extant literature on OA and re-stating the research questions guiding the current study.

2.2. The meaning behind Organizational Altruism

The concept of altruism goes back as far as the 19th century, when Auguste Comte, a French philosopher, first coined the term (1854). He associated altruism with a fundamental maxim to live for others (*vivre pour l'autrui*) which was based largely on his uncompromising belief in collectivism and a utopian view of the world where altruism would always triumph over egoism.

The topic of altruism has quickly gained popularity among management scholars (Clarkson, 2014; Kanungo and Conger, 1993; Li et al., 2014; Loi et al., 2011; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Wagner and Rush, 2000). Usually loosely defined as "helping specific others" (Koster and Sanders, 2006, p.521) or giving "help to others" (Koys, 2001, p.103), altruism is regularly contrasted with selfishness (Avolio and Locke, 2002), greed (Haynes et al., 2015), or aggression (Cropanzano et al., 2017).

More specifically, the way in which management scholars conceptualize OA differs depending on whether they focus on the substance, motivations, or the effects of such behaviours. First, most scholars are interested in altruism as a general helping behaviour. They take a behavioural perspective to studying OA and describe as altruistic any form of helping directed at others, no matter what the intentions behind it (e.g., Koster and Sanders, 2006; Koys, 2001; Li et al., 2014). A popular conceptual strategy among these scholars is to bring OA under the notion of wider Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs; e.g., Astakhova, 2015; Carmeli, 2005; Deckop et al., 2003; Glomb et al., 2011; Heilman and Chen, 2005; Jex et al., 2003; Wagner and Rush, 2000). Described as discretionary and not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward systems, OCBs are employees' actions that aim to promote the effective functioning of the organization (Smith et al., 1983; Organ, 1990). OA is then one of the

several dimensions of OCBs which involves helping or assisting others with work-related problems.

Albeit significantly outnumbered by those interested only in behaviour itself, another set of scholars describes OA as based on genuine concern for other(s) and rejects self-serving motivations as altruistic (e.g., Guinot et al., 2015; Lemmon and Wayne, 2015). This perspective is often grounded in the extensive research on human altruism conducted by social psychologists who have shown a particular interest in individuals' motivations (e.g., Batson, 2014; Dovidio et al., 2006). By conceptualizing OA in this way, scholars reject as altruistic acts which, while directed at others, could be ultimately governed by self-gain (e.g., strategic, financial, and/or reputational benefits).

Despite the stark differences between behavioural and motivational perspectives on OA, further variation can be identified within these frameworks based on the self-sacrifice criterion. For some, an act will be considered as altruistic only if a helper incurs a cost as a result of his/her action (e.g., Furnham et al., 2016). In this way, OA is evaluated based on the extent to which a particular helping act decreases the actor's immediate benefits (for further discussion see: Li et al., 2014). For others, in contrast, cost will not appear to play any significant role in the conceptualizations of OA (e.g., Loi et al., 2011).

2.3. The importance of OA in organizational settings

This section combines the available evidence from organizational research and, where possible, from social psychology in order to demonstrate that OA is particularly significant for organizations and their members. In addition, given that situations in which OA is either positive or potentially negative in consequences are surprisingly underexplored in the existing literature available on the topic, further attention is drawn

to the possibility that there may be a threshold at which OA will no longer produce positive outcomes.

2.3.1. Benefits of OA

As demonstrated in the introductory chapter, the approach adopted in this thesis is based on the argument that OA will bring more advantages to all organizational members than direct *quid pro quo* exchanges which reduce human interaction to a rational process of calculations (see, e.g., Miller, 2005). This argument is grounded in the extensive research evidence from the field of social psychology demonstrating that if helping is exerted for altruistic reasons (i.e., as an end in itself), it could not be as easily bypassed if a barrier arises or if alternative routes to the ultimate goal are found (for reviews, see: Batson, 2011). This is associated with more sensitive care produced by altruistic motivation since it prompts one's attention to the long-term welfare of others (Sibicky et al., 1995).

In contrast, the quality of instrumental helping ingrained in reciprocal exchanges and exerted for self-serving purposes is often short-lived and tends to deteriorate when individuals meet their ultimate goals (Bolino, 1999; Bolino et al., 2004; Bowler et al., 2010). For instance, Hui et al. (2000) found that employees who perceive helping others as instrumental for their career success have a tendency to decrease their engagement in these behaviours once they have been promoted. Likewise, the research conducted by Bowler and Brass (2006) indicates that once the reason for exerting helping behaviours at work serves impression management function, lower-status employees are more likely to help their more influential colleagues and, similarly, those with higher status are unlikely to help colleagues with lower-status.

What is more, in line with the tenets of the attribution theory which posits that humans make causal attributions with regards to behaviours they observe (Lord and Smith, 1983), less self-focused effort – such as OA - should elicit positive reactions among all organizational stakeholders (see: Allen and Rush, 1998; Halbesleben et al., 2010; Tepper et al., 2004). Similarly, while it should be acknowledged that the attribution of motives may not always be necessarily correct and judging behaviours as altruistic is a subjective process (Eastman, 1994), the existing literature implies that attributions of altruistic intentions could engender both trust (Doney et al., 1998) and liking (Johnson et al., 2002), and will generally be associated with more favourable feedback (Grant et al., 2009; Lemoine et al., 2015). It was also demonstrated that attribution of altruistic motivation has a further positive influence on the beneficiary's motivation to perform a task since it makes them feel more genuinely valued (Wild et al., 1997; Weinstein and Ryan, 2010) and, for that reason, it may improve the overall quality of the relationships between the actor and the beneficiary (Weinstein et al., 2010). Finally, in a longitudinal study of 151 management-level employees, Mignonac and Richebe (2013) demonstrated that the attribution of disinterested support received from others decrease employee turnover through enhancing perceptions of organizational commitment.

Given the recalled evidence and the fact that the other-oriented intentions associated with OA are regularly found to promote both individual performance outcomes (Grant, 2008; Grant and Berry, 2011; Grant and Sumanth, 2009) as well as overall team effectiveness (Hu and Liden, 2015), it could be concluded that whether workplace behaviours are self-serving or altruistic may have important implications for long-term organizational success (see also: Halbesleben et al., 2010). This idea was also taken up by Clarkson (2014) who proposed a model of employment relations for the 21st century organizations which is based on the assumptions of OA and a proposition that

companies where individuals work as a collective and exert "some degree of individual self-sacrifice in the form of altruistic behaviours" (p. 257) are most likely to be successful in a competitive word of business. Consequently, given the available evidence, a case can be made that OA is of particular importance for organizations and their members.

2.3.2. Potential negative side of OA

Although the general picture in the literature is that any type of helping behaviour should result in positive consequences for employees and organizations (e.g., Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Spitzmuller and Van Dyne, 2013), an emerging stream of work has begun to recognize the potential negative consequences of such acts (e.g., Bergeron et al., 2013; 2014; Griffin and O'Leary-Kelly, 2004; Koopman et al., 2016). It is therefore essential that any exploration of OA also acknowledges the existence of a potentially dark side behind it. In fact, Oakley et al. (2012, p.8) made a useful suggestion that "if science is truly to serve as an ultimately altruistic enterprise, then science must examine not only the good but also the harm that can arise from feelings of altruism and empathetic care for others".

Potentially negative consequences of OA may be quite similar to those already established for a range of citizenship behaviours. For instance, Bolino and Turnley (2005) found that employees engaging in particularly high levels of citizenship can suffer from work overload, job stress, and difficulties with maintaining a healthy work-life balance. Similarly, Koopman et al. (2016) found that citizenship-related behaviours may sometimes negatively interfere with work-goal progress, whereas Bergeron (Bergeron, 2007; Bergeron et al., 2013; 2014) demonstrated that individuals engaging in such acts may indeed receive lower performance evaluations as well as experience

slower career progression. It is pertinent to note, however, that more research is needed in this area since OCBs and OA are, according to the approach adopted in this thesis, conceptually different types of behaviour.

In addition, acknowledging the potential negative consequences of OA does not mean that these are necessarily something common. However, it is rather aimed to suggest that there may be a threshold at which OA will no longer produce positive results. In this sense, the approach adopted in this thesis is based on the argument that any inquiry into altruistic behaviours should acknowledge such a possibility and the research efforts should focus on the most appropriate way to manage OA (i.e., support when beneficial in consequences and mitigate against negative outcomes).

2.4. The case for conceptual clarity

So far it was demonstrated that OA is a relatively complex type of behaviour that encompasses varying definitions and conceptualizations. Since a clear definition of a concept is essential in developing theory and facilitating communication among scholars (Suddaby, 2010), the differences in the conceptualizations of OA that persist among management scholars may be problematic. For instance, as explained in one of the previous sections (2.2.), a common strategy is to examine OA as one dimension of OCB, i.e., "behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p.4). OCB is, however, a very complex construct. In their review, Podsakoff et al. (2000) identified its 30 overlapping yet distinct forms. In addition, several related concepts, such as prosocial organizational behaviours (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986), extra-role behaviours (Van Dyne et al., 1995), contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994), and

organizational spontaneity (George and Brief, 1992) have been included in conceptual discussions of OCBs. Such behaviours are clearly important in the workplace context and research demonstrated their relationship with positive organizational consequences (Podsakoff et al., 2000; 2009; 2014). Nevertheless, their breadth have made it difficult for researchers to acknowledge the important differences between the specific concepts under this one label (see, Moon et al., 2005). The differences may include the motives behind such behaviours (Rioux and Penner, 2001), the beneficiary of an action (Williams and Anderson, 1991), the extent to which it is perceived as in-role or extra-role (Morrison, 1994), reactive or proactive (Spitzmuller and Van Dyne, 2013), functional or dysfunctional (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986), and autonomous or controlled (Weinstein and Ryan, 2010).

What is more, the differences between behavioural and motivational definitions of OA may also be crucial. Most importantly, in contrast to a motivational view on OA, a behavioural perspective is not concerned with the extent to which benefiting another is either a goal in itself or a means to achieve some other benefits. However, identifying reasons to engage in a given act can tell us a lot about its underlying nature. For instance, helping others performed to create favourable impressions in the eyes of others (Hardy and Van Vugt, 2006; Rioux and Penner, 2001), or to signal one's underlying qualities to enhance one's status and reputation (Becker, 1974; Glazer and Konrad, 1996; McAndrew, 2002; Tang et al., 2008; Willer, 2009) and open the door for rewards and recognition (Halbesleben et al., 2010) will be characterized by different underlying processes than acts where benefiting another is a goal in itself (De Dreu and Nauta, 2009; Meglino and Korsgaard, 2004; 2006; Weinstein and Ryan, 2010; Wild et al., 1997). What is more, the consequences of such differently motivated behaviours are

also likely to differ (e.g., Batson, 2014; Clary and Snyder, 1991; 1998; Kanungo and Conger, 1993).

The existing different conceptualizations of OA also result in differences regarding how the relationship between OA and the aspect of reciprocity is perceived. The common strategy to conceptualize OA under the notion of OCBs or simply to employ a behavioural definition of OA frequently invokes reciprocity as a justification for why individuals engage in altruistic behaviours (e.g., Kanungo and Conger, 1993; Koster and Sanders, 2006). In this way, OA is viewed as a result of calculative processes that are prone to reciprocation. In contrast, those who consider OA as benefiting another as an end in itself (see, for instance, Lemmon and Wayne, 2015, p. 131-132) would rather perceive the behaviours embedded in tit for tat exchange of inducements as superficially altruistic behaviours that, in reality, are opportunistic. For instance, Clarkson (2014) juxtaposed the concept of reciprocity with altruism and argued that these two are fundamentally different and that a pressing need exists for workplace models to pay more attention to the latter.

Whereas some scholars argue against maintaining separate literatures for specific behaviours if they share similar dimensions or processes (see, e.g., Grant and Ashford, 2008) and suggest that research should focus on the dynamics that may be common across multiple proactive behaviours (Crant, 2000; Parker, 2000; Rank et al., 2004), the approach adopted in this thesis posits that what first appears to be a gain in extensional coverage (i.e., breadth) may lead to being matched or even surpassed by losses in precision (i.e., depth). Since this thesis is based on an argument that various conceptualizations of OA have led to the illusion of agreement and interpreting as

altruistic acts that substantially differ in nature, the need for a single way of conceptualizing the construct of OA is advocated.

Importantly, the intent here is not to suggest that the results of past studies regarding altruism should be undermined or devalued. Indeed, the existing literature base may be very helpful in guiding the development of the altruistic theory. Such a belief is consistent with the suggestions of Schwab (1980), who argued that the results of empirical studies frequently result in modifying the measures of constructs or their definitions and that such modifications are a natural part of the construct validity processes.

2.5. Working definition of OA

To overcome the discussed problems relating to different conceptualizations of OA, in this thesis a single definition of OA is employed. This allows for operationalization of the current research and draws attention to some important characteristics of the construct. Before the definition is introduced, a number of arguments on which the choice for a definition has been made is discussed.

First, since identifying the actual reasons behind one's actions is crucial to examine when and where help can be expected and how effective it is likely to be (e.g., Batson, 2014; Clary and Snyder, 1991; 1998; Kanungo and Conger, 1993), in this thesis a position is taken that OA initiated by concern for others would generally be associated with more sensitive care. For instance, the existing research and theorizing demonstrate that those who engage in a particular behaviour out of a genuine concern for others are more likely to be prepared to sacrifice their own energy and effectiveness to help (Meglino and Korsgaard, 2004; Bergeron et al., 2013; Bolino and Turnley, 2005; Moon et al., 2008) and their actions are characterized by higher levels of persistence (Bing and

Burroughs, 2001; Deci and Ryan, 2000; Grant et al., 2007; Grant, 2008; Korsgaard et al., 1997). The positive consequences specific to other-oriented altruistic behaviours are further explained elsewhere (see section 2.3.1.), but the main point is that in order to be able to draw on the range of such benefits, the definition of OA needs to reflect this other-oriented nature of the construct. Indeed, Organ et al. (2006) emphasised the role of intentions guiding OA by arguing against labelling a helping dimension of OCB as altruism. Nevertheless, these calls were relatively unheard as it still remains common practice to consider OA under the notion of OCBs (e.g., Astakhova, 2015; Deckop et al., 2003; Glomb et al., 2011; Hui et al., 2015; Li et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2009).

Secondly, a definition which pays attention to the reasons behind OA and sees it as behaviour intended to benefit others rather than oneself should move away from the existing tendency in the literature to assume that helping among employees is predominantly driven by reciprocity-based interactions (Gouldner, 1960; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Having acknowledged that explicit reciprocal arrangements may no longer be a sufficient answer to the changing structures of organizations and increasingly complex work relationships, it appears particularly appealing to employ a definition of OA that appreciates its other-oriented nature and sets it away from the assumptions of *quid pro quo.*

Given the above arguments, and inspired by the works of scholars who demonstrated interest in different motivations guiding employees' citizenship actions (e.g., Avolio and Locke, 2002; Bowler et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2013; Lai et al., 2013; Lemmon and Wayne, 2015; Rioux and Penner, 2001; Snell and Wong, 2007; Sosik et al., 2009; Cardador and Wrzesniewski, 2015), in this thesis an approach is taken that differences in underlying intentions to help a colleague are crucial. More specifically, the aproach

adopted in this thesis borrows from the definition developed by Batson et al. (2007b, p. 241) and defines OA in the following parsimonious way:

OA - behaviour aimed at benefiting a colleague as an end in itself.

Defined in this way, OA is initiated by different mechanisms and governed by distinct processes in comparison to self-serving forms of helping behaviours. Table 2.1. illustrates the essence of the introduced definition and further demonstrates how OA differs to self-serving help.

Table 2.1.: Organizational Altruism versus self-serving help

Organizational Altruism	Self-serving help
Condition of initiation	
Perception of need	Perception of need
Anticipatory outcomes	
The other's need being reduced or eliminated (benefiting a colleague)	Protection of own interests (benefiting oneself)
Ways to achieve satisfactory outcome	
Help or have somebody else help; help should be effective	Help or find an easier alternative for protecting own interests; help does not need to be effective for beneficiary
Self-sacrifice	
May involve cost	May involve cost

Source: Own analysis

First, what initiates a helping behaviour, be that in the form of OA or a self-serving act, is the perception of other (i.e., a colleague) as in need. Perceiving the other as in need means that the actor notices a discrepancy between the other's current state and what is desirable for them in terms of their well-being.

Second, in terms of OA, benefiting a colleague constitutes the actor's anticipatory outcome rather than being instrumental means for reaching a selfish goal (see also: Lemmon and Wayne, 2015; Sosik et al., 2009). In contrast, those engaging in self-serving help are not necessarily interested in the needs of others. Rather, they expect that, ultimately, their interests will be protected. At this point it should be acknowledged that it is both necessary and sufficient that benefiting the other is an end in itself for an act to be recognized as altruistic. Put simply, as long as benefiting the other is the ultimate goal, the behaviour will be considered as OA regardless of whether the actor also personally benefits from the positive outcome.

Third, the introduced definition also sheds more light on the distinct processes associated with OA. Given that OA is characterized by different anticipatory outcomes in comparison to self-serving help, ways to achieve these also differ. Since those who engage in OA ultimately want to reduce the need of the other, they should be equally satisfied when they learn that others have helped the person in need as when they engage in a helping act themselves. What matters for them is that help is effective while the other's need is reduced. In contrast, given that those engaging in self-serving help focus on their own needs and are less concerned with the welfare of the beneficiary, having somebody else help will probably not protect their interests. In order to meet their goals (such as getting a promotion or receiving a favour), they will either need to

help the person in need themselves or they will look for an easier way of protecting their own interests (see also: Batson, 2014; Dovidio et al., 2006).

Fourth, in terms of the cost criterion, while OA is extremely likely to involve considerable costs to the actor and, indeed, those who engage in OA are prepared to sacrifice their own energy and time perhaps more than others (Meglino and Korsgaard, 2004; Bergeron et al., 2013; Bolino and Turnley, 2005; Moon et al., 2008), it is not viewed as a key determinant of OA. Rather, and similarly to other helping behaviours, in this thesis OA is viewed as behaviour that can be placed along a continuum characterized by different levels of self-sacrifice involved (from actions that do not require much effort on the part of the actor to more resource-consuming activities).

Overall, after having emphasised why a need exists for conceptual clarity around OA, a working definition of the construct has been introduced to facilitate greater precision in the operationalization of the current research. However, it is pertinent to note that the introduced definition is only tentative and subject to change following in-depth interviews with research participants to reflect on their understanding of the concept.

2.6. Theoretical foundations

In organizational research there is no theory or model that would be specific to OA. Since OA is predominantly conceptualized as part of wider OCBs, a general tendency is to investigate it under the framework designed to study citizenship behaviours in general – i.e., that of social exchange theory (Blau, 1967; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Two further theories are also considered in this section – the theory of prosocial behaviour (Batson, 2014) and the empathy-altruism hypothesis (Batson, 2011). These two theories have been successfully used in the considerations of altruism among strangers in the field of social psychology.

2.6.1. Social exchange theory

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1967) is believed to be one of the most influential conceptual paradigms for understanding workplace behaviour (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005) and perhaps is the most often cited theoretical basis for citizenship behaviours (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 2003; Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Organ, 1990). It can be traced back to early 1920s (e.g., Mauss, 1925) and its major claim is that humans form relationships based on a process of negotiated exchanges between the parties (Emerson, 1976). In other words, people who give and help expect something in return. A helper creates the feeling of obligation, which in turn results in the recipient of help trying to reward his/her helper in order to relieve oneself from this obligation.

Consistent with the foundations of the social exchange theory, many academics assume that human beings are highly rational and their behaviours are underpinned by an intention of rewards (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Fehr and Falk, 2002; Fehr and Gachter, 2002; Feinberg et al., 2014; Goldstein et al., 2008; LePine et al., 2008; Rioux and Penner, 2001; Sommerfeld et al., 2007; You-Jin et al., 2013). Nevertheless, while social exchanges are characterized by expectations of returns, the nature of such returns is not stipulated in advance and it is mainly ingrained in trust in the exchange partner. This sets social exchange apart from purely economic exchange.

Furthermore, while the norm of reciprocity lies at the heart of social exchange theory, it does not necessarily provide the only universal principle of exchange. According to Meeker (1971), other exchange principles may include rationality (i.e., maximizing own gains), equity (i.e., receiving what one deserves on the basis of input), competition and rivalry (i.e., maximising own gains at an absolute cost), and altruism (i.e., helping another person). Similarly, Sahlins (1972) distinguishes between generalized and

balanced reciprocity types. Whereas balanced reciprocity is characterized by a *quid pro quo* approach to the exchange, generalized reciprocity is characterized by altruistic orientation which is not concerned over the timing and the content of the exchange.

Despite the existence of altruistic dimension of the social exchange theory, a general tendency is to take its balanced approach grounded in reciprocal exchanges (i.e., *I do it for you = You do it for me*) when investigating workplace behaviours at work (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Deckop et al., 2003; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Halbesleben and Wheeler, 2011; 2015). As Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005, p.880) pointed out, "the majority of the models of social exchange theory in the organisational sciences focus primarily on principles of reciprocity, rather than altruism (…)". Although the relationships based on such direct reciprocal deals are undoubtedly important, the approach adopted in this study is based on the premise that other rules are viable as well and should not be neglected if fertile ground for theory development is to be provided. What is more, focusing solely on reciprocity reduces human interaction to a purely rational process of calculations (Miller, 2005) and whereas growing research on citizenship-related behaviours started to recognize that employees can and often do hold both self- and other-centred desires (e.g., Grant and Mayer, 2009; De Dreu and Nauta, 2009), still a pressing need exists for a consideration of a complementary theoretical perspective that accepts the altruistic part of human nature. This seems particularly important due to the pervading narrow focus on individualism in organizations and promotion of competitiveness - reflecting a more general neglect that altruistic perspective to workplace relations has suffered in both research and practice.

2.6.2. Theory of prosocial behaviour

The theory of prosocial behaviour has been developed by Batson (1991) who has spent majority of his academic career conducting some of the most important work on altruism in the field of social psychology (for a review, see, Batson, 2014). The theory experimentally distinguishes between two underlying drivers of helping behaviours: egoistic and altruistic motivation. Whereas egoistic motivation is based on the desire to reduce one's own unpleasant emotional arousal or the perception that helping another will result in a reward, altruistic motivation is defined by the need to help another reduce their needs. In other words, the key to differentiating whether a given behaviour is driven by egoistic or altruistic motivation is the reason for engaging in such acts.

Although the original theory mainly focused on helping behaviour in experimental conditions imitating helping strangers in every-day situations, it can be extended to explain motives for a variety of workplace helping behaviours such as OCBs or OA. Indeed, more recently, contemporary management scholars started to recognize and appreciate the value of Batson's theory in their empirical work. For instance, Lemmon and Wayne (2015) integrated it to study egoistic and altruistic forms of OCB. Building on Batson's work, the authors defined workplace altruism as improving the well-being of the beneficiary which is "and end unto itself" (p.132) and which is based on interpersonal feelings of caring. The authors concluded that even if the actor also personally benefits from the positive outcome, the behaviour counts as altruistic as long as satifying the needs of others is the ultimate goal. Similarly, building on the theory of prosocial behaviour, Sosik et al. (2009, p.400) assumed that "if the needs of others is the ultimate goal, then helping others is an altruistically motivated behaviour, regardless of whether one also personally benefits from the positive outcome".

Integrating the theory of prosocial behaviour into the study of OA contributes to researchers' calls to differentiate whether helping behaviours at work are altruistic or self-focused (Grant et al., 2009; Lai et al., 2013; Sosik et al., 2009) and reflects the idea that "OCB may not always have a large altruistic component" (Van Emmerik et al., 2005, p.95). However, despite assisting the progress of further research in this area, the theory tells us little about specific processes associated with OA. While it provides a clear framework for identifying categories of motives for engaging in a variety of helping behaviours at work, it does not provide detail as to why this is so and under what conditions certain types of motivations are likely to occur.

2.6.3. Empathy-altruism hypothesis

Empathy-altruism hypothesis, also developed by Batson (Batson et al., 1981; Batson, 1987; 2014), is more explanatory and it may potentially constitute a useful theoretical explanation of the nature of OA. The theory received extensive research attention among social psychologists within the last three decades (for reviews, see: Batson, 2011; Eisenberg and Miller, 1987) and it posits that the feelings of empathy (an other-oriented emotional response which is elicited by and congruent with the perceived welfare of a person in need) are a source of altruistic action - i.e., helping the other as an end in itself. Such an empathic desire is usually triggered by perceiving another as in need (Berger, 1962; Bandura and Rosenthal, 1966; Craig and Wood, 1969) and valuing the other's welfare intrinsically (Batson et al., 2007a). According to the theory, individuals high in situational empathic concern, after having perceived the other as in need, remain focused on the other as opposed to self or other aspect of the situation and are altruistically motivated to remove the need of that other person.

Interestingly, a number of plausible egoistic alternatives have been introduced to challenge the assumption that empathetic concern can motivate altruistic behaviours. It was argued that rather than inducing altruistic motivation, empathy is associated with reward-seeking, punishment-avoiding, or arousal reducing behaviours (see, Archer et al., 1981; Cialdini et al., 1987; Schaller and Cialdini, 1988; Smith et al., 1989). Nevertheless, strong counterevidence has been offered which further supports the tenets of empathy-altruism hypothesis and implies that altruistic desires may be, indeed,very powerful (for a review, see: Batson, 2011).

Whereas empathy-altruism hypothesis may produce advantages for a scholarly community since it facilitates our ability to precisely define the essence of OA in such a way that differentiates it from other similar behaviours, no organizational research to date has investigated whether situational empathy would be of importance when engaging in OA in the workplace context. However, given that the positive link between the trait of empathy and a range of citizenship-related behaviours has been identified (e.g., Axtell et al., 2007; Ho and Gupta, 2012; Joireman et al., 2006; Kamdar et al., 2006; McNeely and Meglino, 1994; Settoon and Mossholder, 2002; Taylor et al., 2010), it seems appropriate to assume that the research examining the link between situational empathy and altruism in laboratory experiments should yield similar results in organizational contexts.

Despite its potential, empathy-altruism hypothesis emphasizes the role of a single variable only and therefore seems able to explain only a facet of the phenomenon. Consequently, still little is known about the specific nature and processes associated with OA and more theoretical and empirical work is needed in this area. More specifically, we need to know under what conditions OA is most likely to occur, how it is influenced, and what factors are of importance in this process.

2.7. Methodological approaches to OA in previous research

To date, the concept of OA has majorly been examined by adopting a positivist research paradigm based on quantitative methodologies using survey methods (for exceptions see: Lähdesmäki and Takala, 2012; Perlow and Weeks, 2002). Given the lack of a conceptual framework designed particularly for the study of OA, scholars operationalize such behaviours as an altruistic dimension of OCBs (Allen and Rush, 1998; Carmeli, 2005; Glomb et al., 2011; Heilman and Chen, 2005; Hsiung et al., 2012; Jex et al., 2003; Kemery et al., 1996; Loi et al., 2011; MacKenzie et al., 1991; Sosik et al., 2009; Strobel et al., 2013; Wagner and Rush, 2000; Zhang et al., 2009). Hence, a general trend is to provide research participants with a preconceived set of measures supposed to quantify their altruistic behaviours. The items in such measures vary slightly between the scales used, but their overall goal is to describe regularities that are deemed to be universally applicable. Table 2.2. presents items that most generally fall under the altruistic dimension of OCBs.

As demonstrated in the table, in most research OA is pictured simply as a helping behaviour. This reflects a general tendency in the literature to use OA interchagably to helping (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998) and interpersonal helping (Moorman and Blakely, 1995). However, to date, the measure grounded in Organ's concept of OCB is the closest measure in management science to assess OA in organizations. Studies that employed it were able to generalize across contexts to impose wide-ranging theories and provide scholarly practice with extensive descriptive information about altruism as one component of more general behaviours such as OCBs. Nevertheless, despite the range of advantages it has been associated with, it could be argued that the items in this measure may still represent somewhat limited content and only a minimalist assessment

of altruism (see, Sosik et al., 2009). This is particularly the case when the aim of research is to understand the specificities regarding OA and not general helping behaviours or if the goal is to explore contextual influences and participants' own understanding and experiences of OA.

Table 2.2.: Altruistic dimensions of OCB

Altruistic dimensions of OCB	Source
Helps others who have been absent	Smith et al. (1983) Podsakoff et al. (1990)
Volunteers for things that are not required	Smith et al. (1983)
Orients new people even though it is not required	Smith et al. (1983) Podsakoff et al. (1990)
Helps others who have heavy workloads	Smith et al. (1983) Podsakoff et al. (1990
Assists supervisor with his or her own work	Smith et al. (1983)
Willingly helps others who have work related problems	Podsakoff et al. (1990)
Is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her	Podsakoff et al. (1990)
Makes innovative suggestions to improve department	Smith et al. (1983)

Source: Own analysis

More specifically, the existing operationalization of OA does not distinguish whether the act is exerted for other- or self-oriented reasons. Hence, OA may simply represent

helping rather than helping *as an end in itself* (see, for instance, Glomb et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2009). In this way, measuring OA as an element of OCBs could result in operationalizing OA as an act resulting from calculative processes prone to direct reciprocation and/or impression management techniques as opposed to examining why individuals engage in behaviours primarily intended to benefit others. This practice may be problematic (as explained in 2.4.) and increasing interest in motives associated with certain workplace behaviours lately (e.g., Bowler et al., 2010; Grant, 2007; 2008; Grant and Berry, 2011; Kim et al., 2013; Lai et al., 2013; Lemmon and Wayne, 2015; Rioux and Penner, 2001; Snell and Wong, 2007; Sosik et al., 2009) appears to support and emphasize this point.

Second, OA is a very complex phenomenon which, like other helping behaviours at work, is susceptible to contextual influence (Bamberger, 2008; Dekas et al., 2013; Farh et al., 2004; Hulin, 2002; Johns, 2006; Kim et al., 2013; Lai et al., 2013; Reynolds et al., 2015; Spence et al., 2011; Thau et al., 2004; Wagner and Rush, 2000) and individual's perceptions on the concept (Dekas et al., 2013; Farh et al., 2004; Halbesleben et al., 2010; Heilman and Chen, 2005; Lai et al., 2013; Mignonac and Richebe, 2013; Morrison, 1994; Toegel et al., 2013). In fact, Penner and Orom (2010, p.56) argued that "a full understanding of the causes of prosocial actions requires considering how person and situation interact". Consequently, if the research goal is to explore the contextual and social influences on the perceptions of OA, then it may be beneficial to seek for alternative ways of researching OA (see, for instance: Lähdesmäki and Takala, 2012; Perlow and Weeks, 2002 for exploration of participants' perceptions on altruism, and: Dekas et al., 2013, Snell and Wong, 2007 for exploration of participants' perceptions on OCBs). It appears particularly appealing to operationalize OA in a way that leaves room for participants' own interepretations in specific settings since research has

demonstrated that citizenship-related behaviours (including OA) may vary markedly across cultural boundaries (Farh et al., 1997; Farh et al., 2004; 2007) and across organization types (Dekas et al., 2013; Farh et al., 2004).

To conclude, it should be acknowledged that past studies concerning OA have significantly contributed to the research practice and allowed for building some wide-ranging theories concerning helping behaviours in general. This existing literature base may in turn be very helpful in guiding further development of the altruistic theory specifically where, depending on the goal of the study, it may be necessary to modify the existing measures of OA to reflect upon its unique nature or to adopt methodologies that allow for in-depth exploration and appreciation of the contextual and social influences on the participants' perceptions of OA.

2.8. Conclusions on the gaps in the existing literature

A carefully conducted literature review presented in this chapter demonstrated the importance of OA both for scholarly inquiry as well as for practice. It also identified gaps in the existing literature and pointed out to areas that require further research. By placing all the gaps in this one concluding section the author aims to stress the importance and potential theoretical contribution of the reported study.

First of all, this thesis is based on the premise that if an individual engages in OA, then he/she is concerned with increasing the welfare of the person perceived to be in need. Nevertheless, majority of work on employees' behaviours implicitly assumes that individuals are equally motivated to pursue their self-interests (e.g., Bolino et al., 2006; Halbesleben et al., 2010; Hsiung et al., 2012; Spitzmuller and Van Dyne, 2013). While it is not the aim of this study to imply that individuals are driven solely by altruistic desires to benefit others, an argument is put forward that neither they are driven solely

by self-interests. Concomitant with the growing number of scholars who started to recognize that employees can and often do hold both self- and other-centred desires which can function in conjunction (see, Grant and Mayer, 2009; De Dreu and Nauta, 2009) and further supported with the extensive evidence provided by social psychologists who found that both altruistic and self-serving motives can be equally powerful (for a review, see Batson, 2011; Penner et al., 2005), a strong rationale exists for the importance of OA in the context of organizations and therefore it is vital that organizational scholarship does not overlook this important aspect.

At the moment, however, OA merited surprisingly limited empirical attention as a separate concept. First, the lack of a conceptual framework designed particularly for OA resulted in difficulties associated with discerning and interpreting OA. As a consequence, OA still remains largely undefined in the organizational literature. Second, studying OA under the umbrella of wider citizenship behaviours largely limits the altruistic inquiry to the egocentric view of human nature. Such an approach resulted in somewhat incomplete theories in organizational behaviour which, arguably, do not adequatly represent the recent striking changes in the conext of work environment. Given that growing interdependencies and interactions among the workplace parties mean that OA may potentially end up becoming naturally integrated with work processes, research would benefit from crafting theories that appreciate that some employees simply do things for others without hidden agendas. Third, while there is abundance of studies on antecedents of OCB (for a review, see: Organ et al., 2006), little is really known about the factors influencing specifically OA. Additionally, although a case has been made that OA is particularly beneficial for organizational success, the consequences of OA for different workplace parties have remained

relatively underexplored and more research is needed to examine the ways in which OA can be most effectively managed to the advantage of all those involved.

Considering the identified gaps in the literature, the current study aims to answer the following research questions:

1) How do employees in the investigated organizations perceive the nature of organizational altruism?

2) How is engagement in organizational altruism influenced according to employees in the investigated organizations?

3) What are the consequences of organizational altruism according to employees in the invetstigated organizations?

In order to explain how these questions will be answered, the following chapter outlines the employed research methodology.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the research methodology employed in this thesis. Having re-stated the specific research questions driving the conceptualization of the study in the previous chapter, this part of the thesis involves a discussion of the philosophical assumptions underpinning the study, including the author's ontological and epistemological position. It also describes the research strategy of the empirical enquiry, accompanied by the methods and techniques employed to collect and analyse the data. A detailed account of the sampling methods, participants, and procedures is then provided. The chapter concludes with ethical considerations.

3.2. Philosophical assumptions

The following sections explain how, as a researcher, I[1] come to know and explain the reality and how my philosophical assumptions influence the overall shape of this thesis. Based on how I perceive the nature of reality and my beliefs as to what can be known about it (Barron, 2006; Guba and Lincoln, 1994), this research is guided by a critical realist ontology. Furthermore, reflecting on my beliefs as to how the research can be conducted and what is researchable (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Sumner, 2006), this thesis is guided by a social constructionist epistemology. The following sections describe these in more depth.

---

[1] First person is used throughout this chapter due to the chapter's specific nature

3.2.1. Critical realist ontological position

Critical Realism (CR) has been originally developed by Bhaskar (1975) and subsequently adopted by a range of sociologists (e.g., Archer, 1995; Elder-Vass, 2012; Maxwell, 2009; Sayer, 2000) to result in slightly different versions of the philosophy. The starting point of CR ontology, however, is the proposition that there exists a real complex world. This complexity is reflected in the social world being stratified into discrete domains of the empirical (directly or indirectly experienced aspects of reality), the actual (occurring but not necessarily experienced aspects of reality), and the real. The real is composed of real mechanisms generating phenomena at the level of the actual, which, in turn, may or may not be observed at the level of the empirical (Bhaskar, 1975). CR, then, takes this proposition further and argues that there can be more than one scientifically correct way of understanding of the world (Bhaskar, 1975; Sayer, 2004). Consequently, according to the CR tradition, my belief is that the knowledge we possess is only partial and fallible (Cook and Campbell, 1979; Lakoff, 1987; Maxwell, 2004b; 2009; Sayer, 2000).

One significant characteristic of critical realist ontology is that it accepts the validity of the concept of a "cause" in scientific explanation. Like scholars coming from this tradition, I therefore perceive causality as fundamentally referring to the specific mechanisms which are involved in certain events and situations and I see the key task of researchers as to "stress on the mechanics of explanation" (Pawson and Tilley, 1997, p.55). In CR tradition the relationships between causal mechanisms and the effects of these are, however, not fixed but they depend on the context within which the mechanisms operate, the emotions, beliefs and values – which are all part of reality (Maxwell, 2004a; 2012; Putnam, 1999; Sayer, 2000).

This directly links to the CR belief that causal mechanisms in the natural world occur in open systems with their own distinct mechanisms. As a result of the combined effects of these distinct mechanisms, we can only predict tendencies as opposed to outcomes of given interventions. In doing so, as a critical realist researcher, I should direct my attention to "an *understanding* and *explanation* of those tendencies" (Houston, 2001, p.850; italics in original). In basic terms, I believe that entities that interact to cause the events that we observe cannot be understood in isolation from their environment. Rather, physical contexts have a causal influence on individuals' beliefs and perspectives.

The critical realists' proposition that individuals' perspectives are real and separate phenomena that causally interact with each other draws my attention to the individuals' accounts as the "indispensable starting point of social enquiry" (Archer et al., 1998, xvi). Importantly, I should note that in line with the CR tradition, I assume that individuals, including the researcher, are open to distorted perceptions of the social world and that some of us are closer to the truth than others.

By assuming that our knowledge of the world is a construction from a certain perspective, but there is nonetheless a real world (a world which can be understood more or less adequately), CR appears not to assume a forced choice between positivism and interpretivism or constructivism. In order to understand the complexity of the world, critical realists study the events and the processes that connect them. This analysis of causal processes by which some events influence others results in developing theoretical models which become "a transferable resource" (Vincent and Wapshott, 2014, p.167) which can be reapplied in similar analyses of similar mechanisms. More specifically, the developed models can be used as a basis for subsequent building of alternative explanations which are not confined to the

boundaries of a single study (see also: Huberman and Miles, 1985; Maxwell, 2012; Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Sayer, 2004).

3.2.2. Social constructionist epistemology

This research is guided by a social constructionist epistemology which has become increasingly popular within organization studies over the last 20 years (Cunliffe, 2008). As an epistemological position it assumes that individuals develop subjective meanings of their experiences and our understanding is often formed through interactions with other people (Burr, 2015). Grounded in a social constructionists epistemology, I thus believe that organizations are unique sites where members collectively engage in the construction of a social reality (Berger and Luckmann, 1967). What is more, the subjective meanings developed by individuals are varied and multiple and therefore I aim to seek a complexity of views rather than to narrow meanings into a few ideas (Creswell, 2014). This is especially important in terms of the current study, as in order to fully understand the nature of OA, I will get closer to participants, understand their perceptions and, as a result, I will view the research problem holistically.

At this point it must be noted that I recognize that my own background may shape my interpretations and access to truth cannot occur externally to the mind (Burr, 2015). Consequently, I am aware of my own understandings, interpretations, and intentions which may impact the research process and I position myself in the research to acknowledge how my interpretations flow from my own experiences.

3.2.3. Compatibility of critical realism and social constructionism

In this research I drew upon a critical realist ontology and a social constructionist epistemology in a way that I accepted that there is a reality that exists outside of our

experience and knowledge and that individuals develop subjective and often multiple perceptions of this reality through interactions with other people. While the approach adopted in this research is based on the premise that such a combination of ontological and epistemological assumptions offers a coherent approach to conducting research, there exist debates about the compatibility of realism and social constructionism (see, for instance, Nightingale and Cromby, 2002; Tsoukas, 2000). Building on that, social constructionism has often been associated with anti-realist ontology of the social world. In its most extreme form, social constructionism is based on the claim that everything is simply a construction and therefore nothing can be known about the world. However, I agree with Elder-Vass (see, for instance, 2007; 2010; 2011; 2012) who appears to be right in arguing that such a view undermines the critical potential of constructionism. Elder-Vass (2012) provides his readers with the tools that allow for a development of a more coherent form of constructionism – the one where causal mechanisms behind social construction can be analysed and understood, and where only constructionist claims consistent with those mechanisms are accepted. In this way, he undermines prescribed notions about the incompatibility of a critical realist ontological perspective with a social constructionist epistemological approach. In a similar vein, Ahl (2004) argues that drawing on both critical realist ontology and social constructionist epistemology in research is entirely reasonable because:

> "social constructionism (…) is an epistemology, not ontology and although it suggests that that there is no way to get objective knowledge about the world, independent of the observer, it does not claim that a world independent from our observation does not exist." (p.21).

Consistently, while as a critical realist I retain an ontological realism (there is a real world that exists independently of our perceptions), I accept a form of epistemological social constructionism (our understanding of this world is inevitably a construction from our own perspectives). Indeed, CR agrees that there is no possibility of attaining a single and correct understanding of the world. This is closely aligned with the argument of Frazer and Lacey who posited that "Even if one is a realist at the ontological level, one *could* be an epistemological interpretivist ... our knowledge of the real world is inevitably interpretive and provisional rather than straightforwardly representational" (1993, p.182; cited in Maxwell, 2012; italics in original).

Based on the above reasoning, critical realism and social constructionism stand as the most compatible philosophical paradigm to guide this research - allowing for decoding complex phenomena and describing them in context (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). Such a choice of a philosophical paradigm is closely related to embracing a qualitative approach in this research which is further discussed in section 3.3.

3.2.4. Researcher's reflexivity

It is pertinent to note that given my philosophical assumptions I recognize that my own background may shape my interpretations and access to truth cannot occur externally to the my mind (Burr, 2015). Consequently, I am aware of my own understandings, interpretations, and intentions which may impact the research process and I position myself in the research to acknowledge how my interpretations flow from my own experiences. I performed personal analyses before the research process which allowed me to understand my assumptions, beliefs, and worldviews. This reflexivity on the part of the researcher has been generally associated with higher quality research (see: Cohen et al., 2011, p.225; Maxwell, 2012, pp.96-99).

3.3. Research design

3.3.1. Qualitative research

Based on the literature review conducted in Chapter 2, a conclusion can be made that most studies on altruistic behaviours adopt a positivist research paradigm based on quantitative methodologies (for exceptions see: Lähdesmäki and Takala, 2012; Perlow and Weeks, 2002). In this way, the existing research is majorly concerned with describing regularities that are deemed to be universally applicable (e.g., Heilman and Chen, 2005; Loi et al., 2011; Sosik et al., 2009; Wagner and Rush, 2009). However, if the aim of the research is to explore the independent role of broader contexts from which, according to the critical realist position, the examined phenomena cannot be separated, then qualitative methodology appears particularly beneficial in a way that it allows for appreciation of the contextual and social influences on the perceptions of OA and enables the researcher to produce rich accounts of the investigated construct (see, O'Mahoney and Vincent, 2014).

Given the particular aims of this study and the fact that qualitative design is not only gaining importance in management research (Bansal and Corley, 2012; Gephardt, 2004) but it is also considered to be the most appropriate and rigorous way to conduct a systematic enquiry into meanings and interpretation of phenomena under investigation (Shank, 2005), I adopted a position that qualitative research design would add further insights into existing considerations of OA and would enable me to comprehensively answer the research questions posed for this thesis. Indeed, empirical research collecting data directly from individuals based on their experiences and perceptions facilitated fuller understanding as to how those individuals perceived the studied phenomena and how their behaviours were influenced.

Moreover, since qualitative inquiry is associated with seeking to understand human actions and beliefs as well as symbolic practices that they attach to their lives, objects and social relations (see, Brown and Roberts, 2014), it provided me as the researcher with some in-depth contextual information that moved beyond a simple set of variables and emphasised the importance of context when proposing explanations (see, Huberman and Miles, 1985; Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Sayer, 1992; 2000). Because the aim of this thesis was not to impose wide-ranging yet relatively simplistic theories based on regularities, but instead, to place considerable emphasis on the context-dependence of causal explanation, qualitative research was considered to be most appropriate and effective to guide the current study.

3.3.2. Case study

In line with the tenets of the critical realist paradigm (see: Ackroyd and Karlsson, 2014; Kessler and Bach, 2014) and focusing on the specific aims of this thesis, I considered case study as the most appropriate methodology to guide the reported research. Perceived as one of the most popular qualitative research strategies (see, e.g., Piekkari et al., 2010) which can be associated with its "potential to generate novel and groundbreaking theoretical insights" (Welch et al., 2010, p.740), case study design is said to benefit the research when the study seeks to answer "how" and "why" questions, the behaviour of those involved in the study cannot be manipulated, and contextual conditions are important to the phenomenon under study (Yin, 2013). Hence, I considered it to be particularly useful to this research.

More specifically, a distinction can be made between two main approaches that guide case study methodology: one proposed by Yin (2013) and the second one proposed by Stake (1995). Both scholars seek to ensure an in-depth exploration of the topic of

interest, however, the methods they employ differ significantly. Since Yin's approach and language suggests more of the quantitative paradigm of a positivist, in this research I followed the approach adopted by Stake which builds upon the premise of a social construction of reality and therefore is consistent with my epistemological assumptions.

Stake (2000, p.21) suggested that a choice of case study is most beneficial "when the aims are understanding, extension of experience, and increase in conviction in that which is known". Given the context of this study, by employing multiple case studies I was therefore allowed to closely collaborate with the study's participants and through exploring their views of reality through listening to their stories, I better understood the participants' actions and experiences. Consequently, the employed research design not only allowed me to explore the phenomenon of OA through a variety of lenses but I gained a rich understanding of multiple facets of OA that were revealed during the course of the research. The three cases chosen for this research are further detailed in section 3.4.1.

3.3.2.1. Semi-structured dyadic interviews

I chose semi-structured dyadic interviews in order to meet the aims of this thesis. They were deemed to be the most effective way to, in line with the CR tradition, explore the interpretations of OA held by research participants and to analyse the social contexts with their constraints and resources within which those participants act (Smith and Elger, 2014, p.111).

Dyadic interviews are defined as a specific type of an interview where "two participants [interviewed together, simultaneously] interact in response to open ended questions" (Morgan et al., 2013, p.1276). To-date, dyadic interviews have been mostly associated with family research (e.g., Harkness-Hodgson et al., 2004; Holmberg et al., 2004;

Morgan et al., 2013; Walker and Dickson, 2004). This format has proved particularly useful in examining couple relations as by eliciting similarities and differences in the perceptions of both partners regarding aspects of their relationships, information was revealed which would otherwise prove difficult to unearth (see, Eisikovits and Koren, 2010; Radcliffe and Cassell, 2014). Although dyadic interviews have been appearing in studies for almost half a century (see, Allan, 1980; Arskey, 1996), they still represent a developing method (Eisikovits and Koren, 2010; Morgan, 2015; Morgan et al., 2016) and remain relatively uncommon in the field of management.

Given that dyadic interviews have been described as "an exciting new option for qualitative research" (Morgan et al., 2013, p.1283) associated with a broad range of advantages (see, for instance, Bell and Campbell, 2014; Morgan et al., 2013), I deemed them as most suitable to conduct this research. Most specifically, one of the key strengths of dyadic interviews lays in recognizing the existence of shared experience between individuals and embracing it as a source of valuable information. In this way, when conducting research, I was able to stimulate ideas which might have been forgotten or not recognized by the study participants. Moreover, dyadic interviews allow participants to trigger ideas from each other that help them jointly explore a topic and co-construct their version(s) of the explored phenomena (e.g., Morgan et al., 2016). Indeed, the choice of dyadic interviews enabled me to run conversations between participants that were based on a mix of agreement and discussions of differences in their experiences and perceptions. Such comparisons arose directly in the course of the interviews and, in some instances, were probed by me as an interview moderator. Due to the format of the interviews participants remained in vibrant interactions, disclosed in-depth thoughts and engaged in intense discussion that generated particularly rich data.

At this point it should be acknowledged that conducting dyadic interviews requires particular attention from the researcher in order to avoid potential disadvantages of this way of conducting interviews. First of all, in order to avoid the risk of participants being unwilling or unable to freely share information in the presence of the second interviewee (see, for instance, Bell and Campbell, 2014), I created a sense of ease and relaxation for participants even when discussing particularly sensitive topics. In order to alleviate the risk of an interviewee changing their response (i.e., withholding information, changing presentation style, complying with the perceptions of another interviewee), I followed the suggestions of Morgan et al. (2013; 2016) and ensured that participants felt secure enough in the dyadic settings to agree on some issues and disagree on others. This was partly achieved by careful selection of dyads based on the level of their acquaintance in order to provide participants with a sufficient level of comfort of discussions (see p.53 for details of the sample). Finally, each participant had an opportunity to express their opinion about the format of an interview and raise any additional concerns in an anonymous follow-up questionnaire. This practice revealed no concerns with the format of interviews - which were positively assessed by research participants.

Secondly, I was aware that individuals taking part in the study may over-report the extent to which they engage in desired behaviours like altruism (Allen et al., 2000; Chan, 2009) and that such a risk could be higher when they have an opportunity to impress an interview partner (or an interviewer). Consequently, in order to reduce the potential of obtaining socially desirable responses, instead of asking direct questions that seek personal information, I led the discussions using mainly indirect questions that referred to general situations or the experiences of their colleagues or subordinates. What is more, the existence of an interview partner may equally well acted as a buffer

for socially desirable answers since the presence of another participant implies that the extent to which one's answers are true may be easily assessed by a colleague. Finally, the aim of this research was not to measure the quantity of altruistic behaviours. Rather, the main goal of this study was to qualitatively explore individuals' perceptions of altruistic acts, understand their consequences and the factors which may influence such behaviours – exploration of which was greatly facilitated by the use of dyadic interviews.

Third, it should be noted that the skills of an interviewer are particularly important and can have a significant influence on the overall quality of an interview process (Rubin and Rubin, 2012). Consequently, I carefully moderated the interview processes in a way that minimized the risk of creating opportunities for one person to dominate an interview (see, Bell and Campbell, 2014). In situations where one person remained quiet during the interview and gave no comments, I followed the suggestions of Steyaert and Bouwen (2004) to intervene and repeat my appreciation for every opinion even if this was very equal to or very different from the opinions presented by the other participant. I was also careful in order not to directly ask for participation but rather I kept some space open so that the quiet participant was not pushed towards speaking but was able to make his or her own decision about the level of participation.

Reflecting on the specific context of this study, dyadic format of interviews was particularly useful when it came to considerations of OA. It allowed for an in-depth exploration of the phenomenon in common context and drew upon both individual as well as shared perceptions and experiences to determine agreed understanding of the concept. Dyadic interviews further allowed for disentangling the complexity of altruistic behaviours embroiled in considerations of altruism be that in motive or in action. Such

considerations led to complex and at times challenging debates – and thus proved context for lively discussions about the conceptualizations of altruism.

In line with the suggestions of other scholars, the choice of semi-structured format of interviews enhanced rapport between me as the researcher and participants (Adler and Adler, 2003), gave flexible balance to the interviewees to speak up (Gillhan, 2005), facilitated fully focusing on the participants experiences (Marshall and Rossman, 2011), and enabled an in-depth exploration of interpretations, meanings, and perceptions (Cunliffe, 2011).

The interview guide can be found in Appendix A. As described elsewhere (see section 3.4.2.), I sought to interview employees across organizational hierarchies - i.e., those in general positions as well as those who are supervisory in positions and manage a group of people. The interview questions were designed to find information on individuals' experiences as the actors, recipients, and observers of OA. To avoid sensitive questions seeking personal information, most questions were asked in an indirect way, relating either to the perceived experiences of colleagues (or subordinates) or to the organizational environment in general.

It should be also acknowledged that at the beginning of an interview process, participants were informed that the conversations will be focused on a specific type of behaviours - i.e., those performed by an employee to benefit a colleague as an end in itself and not as a way to achieve benefits for oneself (thus reflecting the working definition of OA introduced in Chapter 2). Importantly, I purposefully did not use the word "altruism" or "organizational altruism" during the interview process. Rather, reference was made to "this type of behaviour", "the specific behaviour discussed today", etc. (see Appendix A for an interview guide). The aim of this practice was to

guide the research process and allow for in-depth conversations about OA without imposing specific labels on individuals. In addition, participants were given freedom to modify this definition and expose their own understanding behind "behaviour aimed at benefiting a colleague as an end in itself". This practice provided context for discussions about the conceptualizations of OA which resulted in a detailed picture of participants' perceptions of the nature of the construct.

3.3.2.2. Background information

Within two weeks after the interview process, each participant was emailed or sent a follow-up questionnaire in order to collect background information and provide an overview of participants who took part in the research (see, Appendix B). The questionnaire consisted of three sections concerning basic personal information, respondents' empathy, and an open question asking for participants' feelings about the format of a research.

- *Personal information* - The first part of the questionnaire asked participants for demographic information - i.e., that of gender and their position in an organization. Gender-wise, despite some inconsistencies (Andreoni and Vesterlund, 2001), research demonstrates that women are usually found to be more altruistic and helpful than men (Eckel and Grossman, 1998; Schenk and Heinisch, 1986). In addition, one's role within an organization may dictate the level of freedom individuals have to express their values such as OA (Bolino and Grant, 2016, p.31). Consequently, data on these two factors was collected in order to get a clear picture of the sample and to examine the context of the research.

- *Empathy* – Given an already well-established role of empathy in the social psychological research on helping and altruism (for reviews, see: Batson, 2011;

Eisenberg and Miller, 1987), levels of empathy among research participants were assessed and patterns of responses were visually inspected in order to understand the context of the research and to obtain a comprehensive picture of the sample.

For organizational scholars and social psychologists alike, the psychological construct of empathy may be referred to either a cognitive or an emotional form. The former reflects the cognitive act of adopting the perspective of another individual and recognizing the individual's thoughts and perspectives (known as perspective-taking) whereas the latter is affective in nature and encompasses the feelings and emotions (such as concern and compassion) that a person experiences as a result of another person's emotional condition (known as empathic concern). Both forms of this dispositional trait of empathy were assessed with the subscales derived from the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI; Davis, 1983). These two particular subscales have been regularly successfully combined by OB researchers to assess individuals' empathic tendencies and they proved highly reliable (see, for instance, Joireman et al., 2006; Kamdar et al., 2006; Settoon and Mossholder, 2002). The reliability estimates (αs) for the subscales approximate 0.79 (empathic concern) and 0.84 (perspective taking). Sample items include "I often have tender concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me" (Empathic Concern) and "I always look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision" (Perspective Taking). Individuals respond to the statements on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (does not describe me well) to 5 (describes me very well).

- *Other* – A final third part of the questionnaire gave each participant a chance to reflect on the overall format and shape of their recent interview as well as to

provide their overall impressions about the nature of the background questionnaire itself. This tactic facilitated uncovering some of the previously unknown opinions and influences which added additional insights into data.

3.3.2.3. Pilot interviews

Prior to the actual interviews, I conducted pilot interviews with four dyads do not involved in the actual research. Two of these dyads were individuals that worked together in the same organization (public and private sector) and the other two involved individuals who work in different organizations (public and private sector) but were familiar with each other. All four interviews were conducted using the interview guide formulated based on the analysis of the literature. By examining participant's responses, the timing of the interviews, and the ease of understanding of the interview questions I was able to ensure the quality of the research and integrate any issues that have arisen into the questions in the actual interviews. As a result of the pilot studies, some of the questions were slightly re-worded or the structure of the sentence was changed to become more simplistic.

I also asked participants taking part in the pilot study to complete and comment on the background questionnaire. Since no problems were identified with these, the format remained unchanged. Conducting pilot studies helped me to ensure the quality and credibility of the interview process and demonstrated that dyadic format of interviews can facilitate gathering particularly insightful and rich data on the topic of OA.

3.4. Research sample

3.4.1. Selection of cases

The value of a case study, particularly in a CR tradition, is the capacity to balance the specific context with a broader perspective in order to locate wider patterns and causal mechanisms (Ackroyd and Karlsson, 2014). However, the ability to move beyond local processes and to reveal wider patterns lies in the careful selection of cases (Kessler and Bach, 2014). In this research I used a purposeful sampling technique to identify three companies that took part in the research. Since the logic and power of purposeful sampling lie in the selection of information-rich cases which can be studied in depth (Rubin and Rubin, 2012), it allowed me to learn about the issues of central importance to the purpose of the research and to illuminate the questions under study (see: Kumar, 2012).

Based on the selection of cases which involved seeking out groups, settings, and individuals where the phenomenon of OA was most likely to occur (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011), three research sites have been purposefully sampled. Two organizations taking part in this research come from a public sector and one from a not-for-profit sector. The value of such organizations usually lies in achievement of social purposes for which no revenue stream is readily apparent (Moore, 2000) while their employees usually perceive their careers as vehicles for implementing social change (Drucker, 2006; Rawls et al., 1975). Such organizations are also often characterized by collectivistic culture that consists of employees who are more motivated to engage in exchanges that benefit the larger group based on the tenets of altruism as opposed to individualistic cultures where employees focus on self and individual gain (Hebson et al., 2015; Lemmon and Wayne, 2015). The distinction between collectivistic versus

individualistic cultures may also be associated with certain personality characteristics that tend to congregate in the same organizations (Crandall and Harris, 1976; Korsgaard et al., 2010), implying that companies coming from public and not-for-profit sectors attract certain types of employees - i.e., those of a more altruistic disposition. This may also be linked to the belief that employees working in public, or more often in not-for-profit sectors, make an informed choice of an employer which is often driven by their altruistic motivations (see, Winter and Thaler, 2015). What is more, it has been suggested that a firm's overall human resources philosophy is likely to affect the amount of altruistic behaviours displayed by employees (Morrison, 1996). In relation to this claim, it may be suggested that public sector and not-for-profit companies will be more likely to employ human resource management practices that support OA, directly or indirectly, as compared to the policies existent in private sector companies.

Importantly, the broad advantage of employing three organizations that are likely to yield the same results is that, in reality, it revealed divergence related to, for instance, structural, institutional, or other features of the selected cases (see, for instance, Greer and Hauptmeier, 2008). While at face value the explored organizations came from similar backgrounds, actually each of these cases was placed in unique and specific contexts which yielded particularly interesting findings and revealed some autonomous relationships and in-depth contextual information regarding the researched phenomenon. The following sections describe the three selected case organizations in more detail.

3.4.1.1. Not-for-profit Organization

"Not-for-profit Organization" is a major provider of community services in Northern England. They support people with learning disabilities, mental health problems, those

with issues around drugs and alcohol use, and the homeless. Their services include housing and accommodation based support and care services. With 1500 staff, Not-for-profit Organization supports more than 5000 clients. Founded almost half a century ago, the company still emphasises its mission to shape the service they provide around people's needs.

3.4.1.2. School

"School" is a secondary public school based in Northern England. It employs around 160 staff members whose aim is to support over a thousand of students aged 11 to 18. It is considered to be a larger than the average-sized secondary school. The school's mission revolves around meeting the aims and aspirations of the students and parents and providing families with a range of accessible support services.

3.4.1.3. Academic Institution

"Academic Institution" is a Business School of one of the well-established universities based in Northern England. It employs approximately 160 staff members who support around 1,500 students. The School's mission is based on the ethos of innovation and responsible leadership as well as producing ground-breaking research.

3.4.2. Sampling within cases

A purposive and snowball sampling techniques were employed to target individuals within cases. A cross section of employees was sought in terms of their role and gender in order to obtain a varied research sample.

Sixteen dyadic interviews were conducted in both the Not-for-profit Organization and at the School, and fifteen dyadic interviews were conducted in the Academic Institution - amounting to forty seven interviews with ninety four individuals in total. The amount of

gathered data allowed me to reach data saturation (Saumure and Given, 2008) and to gain multiple perspectives on the same phenomenon from employees working in different companies, in a variety of departments, and job positions. Appendix C provides an overview of the sample and the formation of dyads.

3.4.3. Access and procedures

I approached both the Not-for-profit Organization and the Academic Institution directly and accessed the School after a referral made by one of the Not-for-profit Organization's employees. I initially approached a HR director in the Not-for-profit Organization, a Head Principle in the School, and a Director of Research in the Academic Institution. I sent them a letter of introduction to the research (see Appendix D) which explained the process in depth, listed the potential benefits of taking part in the research to the organization, and assured of anonymity. After the letter has been sent out I remained in constant contact with the organizations to answer any questions they may had. Once I received a positive answer from organizations, I contacted individual employees directly by email with the information about the project and an annotation that the study is supported by management (Appendix E). The letter also contained an "Information Sheet" attachment with further details about the research project (Appendix F).

The level of the management engagement in recruiting participants for the study varied between organizations. In the Not-for-profit Organization the HR director sent a generic email to all staff explaining the research taking place in the organization and asking all employees to consider taking part in the study. The HR director was also in direct contact with me and gave me valuable advice as to how dyads should be best formed based on employees' level of acquaintance. In the School, after listening to the required

characteristics of the sample, the Head Principle was approaching staff personally and asking them to take part in the research. In the Academic Institution, I was given the permission to contact staff myself and there was no further engagement from the Director of Research.

The final decision of each individual whether to participate in the research project remained voluntary in all of the investigated organizations. In the Not-for-profit Organization and the Academic Institution I was contacting staff by email. Once having received a positive answer from them, each participant was contacted to arrange a suitable date and time for an interview and to discuss potential candidates for a dyad. Each participant was given an opportunity to self-select themselves into pairs or leave the task with the researcher. Most of the time I created dyads myself. I followed a suggestion of Morgan et al. (2013) to pair individuals who are acquainted. In the School, the dyads were also formed based on the level of acquaintance; however, that choice has been left with the Head Principle. Moreover, employees were approached directly by the Head Principle and the interview followed within the next hour. In order to ensure participants felt comfortable, they were given sufficient time to read information about the project, had a chance to ask questions, and I assured all of them that the research is voluntary and they are free to leave the interview room without any information being passed on to the Head Principle. All of the approached employees continued with an interview.

All the interviews were conducted in participants' workplaces during working times. Once in an interview room, I re-explained the process of an interview and asked participants for any questions. They were, once again, shown an Information Sheet and were asked to sign a Participant Consent Form (Appendix G). I assured participants of their right not to give answers to my questions or to resign from the research at any

point during an interview. I asked participants if they agree to be audio-recorded and assured that these recordings will be used in the process of data analysis only.

Each interview lasted approximately 50 minutes. At the end of the interview participants were once again thanked for their time and contribution and were reminded that they will be emailed a background questionnaire within two weeks' time. The entire data collection process lasted six months and took place between May and October 2016.

3.5. Data analysis

Given that dyadic format of interviewing may present considerable challenges when it comes to its analysis due to the potential complexities associated with combining both individual and dyadic levels of understanding and capturing the overall perspective on the explored phenomenon without losing or corrupting the individual's versions (Eisikovitz and Koren, 2010), I decided to use a thematic analysis as the most appropriate tool to identify, analyse, and report patterns within data (Boyatzis, 1998). Described as "a useful and flexible method for qualitative research" (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.77), it emphasises the active role of the researcher and his/her judgements in the process of data analysis and allows for capturing the complexity of the explored phenomenon by generating knowledge based on participants' unique perspectives (Patton, 2015).

I further chose a specific style of thematic analysis known as Template Analysis (TA; King, 2004; 2012). This form of a thematic analysis balances the flexibility to adapt it to the needs of a particular study with a relatively high degree of structure in the process of analysing textual data. The basic element of the technique is a coding template, developed on the basis of a subset of data, which is subsequently applied to further data,

and revised and refined in the light of careful consideration of each transcript. A final version of the template served as the basis for my interpretation or illumination of the data set and for the writing up of findings.

Even though there is no one universal and right way of analysing data (Gibbs, 2007), since TA is particularly well suited to studies examining multiple perspectives within specific contexts (Brooks et al., 2015; King, 2012), I considered it as the most effective tool to conduct this research. It enabled me to explore a variety of perceptions, experiences, and stories in order to identify shared understanding across data without being tied to a certain theoretical framework. Eventually, it allowed me to end up with a comprehensive understanding of the explored phenomenon of OA in real depth.

When carrying out TA, I followed a set of guidelines clearly outlined by Brooks et al. (2015) and King (2012). The first steps of analysis involved familiarising myself with data. This initially included personally transcribing data verbatim. The transcription process was not perceived to be a practical way of simply scripting what participants said, but rather a powerful act of representation which affects what information is highlighted as important (Oliver et al., 2005). The process of data transcription of 47 dyadic interviews resulted in generating a total of 770 pages of transcripts (font 12, double line spacing). Every line on each of the transcripts was numbered for ease of the subsequent analysis. Once all the data were transcribed, I familiarized myself with the data set by reading and re-reading created transcripts for several times.

Consequently, I chose three interviews from each of the three cases as a sub-set of the transcript data and I carried on a preliminary coding on these in order to develop the initial template. Codes were defined in light of the research questions and were organized hierarchically into meaningful clusters – paying attention how they relate to

each other within and between these groupings. This included hierarchical relationships with more narrowly focused themes placed within broader themes, as well as some lateral relationships across clusters. Once the subset captured a good cross-section of the issues covered in the data as a whole, the initial template was applied to further data. This constituted an iterative process of working systematically through the full sets of interview transcripts, identifying the sections of the text which are relevant to the research questions and marking them with the relevant code from the initial template. Since the codes from the initial template were not rigid coding categories but rather provisional codes open to modification, when inadequacies in the initial template were discovered, modifications in the form of insertions, deletions, mergers, or changes to the scope of existing codes were made to allow for a comprehensive representation of data (see, King, 2012). Once the initial template was developed to its final form and no new themes could be identified, I applied it to the full data set (see Appendices H and I to compare the initial template with its final version). Subsequently, I further organized the coded data using diagrammatical representations in order to graphically illustrate the emerged patterns and to fully explore the complex connections between the different issues. The combination of these two strategies allowed me for the examination of the data without losing sight of the big picture as well as each individual voice.

It must be acknowledged that throughout the whole process of data analysis, I tried to remain highly aware of the potential complexities associated with the dyadic format of an interview. This involved paying particular attention to contrasts and overlaps within and between dyads as well as focusing on any signs of imbalance in the dyadic dialogues. The analysis attended to whether participants speak of individual or joint experiences (Seale et al., 2008) and care was taken to avoid interpreting individual's comments as a shared interest (Morgan et al., 2013).

Due to the mentioned complexities surrounding the dyadic format of an interview combined with the complex nature of the explored phenomenon, I decided to employ a manual data analysis aided by the Microsoft Word processor. While there exist several software programs available for qualitative data analysis such as NVivo, Atlas and CAQDAS, these were deemed less appropriate given an iterative process of analysis where continuous attempts were made to relate meanings, understandings, and experiences on the level of an individual, a dyad, and an organization. While such software programmes are popular in qualitative research, the usefulness of these can be questioned for in-depth case studies where contextualized understanding is of particular importance. Indeed, employing a manual data analysis aided by the Microsoft Word processor is said to be likely to eliminate the potential of the separation of the researcher from the research (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2011) and arriving at de-contextualised and objective pieces of data (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Consistently, it deemed the most effective way of carrying out the data analysis for this research.

For ethical reasons, while balancing the need to preserve both context and confidentiality, some contextual information was omitted or slightly altered. Furthermore, all participants' names were changed in order to protect the privacy of the persons quoted. Further ethical considerations are discussed in the following section.

3.6. Ethical considerations

Studies employed in this thesis followed the Code of Ethics and Conduct stated by the British Psychological Society expressed in the principles of respect, competence, responsibility, and integrity. As further explained in section 3.4.3., the chosen organizations were fist sent a letter of introduction which informed the companies about the goals and procedures of the research and assured of the study's confidentiality and

the right to withdraw without giving explanations (Appendix D). Once access to organizations was granted, individual employees received similar letters (Appendix E) with an information sheet (Appendix F) with further details of the study. If participants agreed to take part in the research, they were once again shown an information sheet and asked to sign a participant consent form (Appendix G). It is essential to note that the creation of pairwise relationships in dyadic interviews, due to the presence of the interview partner, did not allow me to guarantee research participants full confidentiality and anonymity. However, I ensured that all participants understood this important implication.

During the interview process, data were originally collected in the form of audio recording. Immediately after each interview, I transferred audio documents to my personal university drive which is password protected and to which only me as the researcher had access. I then transcribed the data into a written document for the purpose of analysis and stored it at the university password protected drive. During the interviews, no sensitive questions seeking personal information were asked. If any of the participants would have disagreed to being audio recorded at any point of the interview, their right for privacy would have been fully respected.

Finally, the research was governed by honesty, accuracy, clarity and fairness in my interactions with all persons and I sought to promote integrity in all facets of scientific and professional endeavours. Design, methodology, and procedures of all studies were approved by the University of Leeds Research Ethics Committee.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the data collected from the three examined organizations in order to get a holistic understanding of Organizational Altruism. The body of this chapter is organised to reflect upon three research questions:

1) How do employees in the investigated organizations perceive the nature of organizational altruism?

2) How is engagement in organizational altruism influenced according to employees in the investigated organizations?

3) What are the consequences of organizational altruism according to employees in the invetstigated organizations?

Each main section of the chapter is concluded with a graphic model illustrating the findings.

4.2. Research Question 1: How do employees in the investigated organizations perceive the nature of organizational altruism?

This section analyses the findings on participants' perceptions of the nature of OA. First, characteristics of OA, as reported by research participants, are described. Second, an emphasis is given to different dimensions on which the construct of OA was reported to vary. This information provides an answer to the first of the research questions posed for this thesis and is summarized in a graphic model in the concluding section.

4.2.1. Key characteristics of OA

Research participants considered OA as the specific type of behaviour that differs to other types of help that could be exerted at work in a way that it is guided by concern for other organizational recipient, it does not involve expectations of returns, and it is discretionary in nature.

4.2.1.1. Concern for organizational recipient

Examination of reasons for engaging in OA among research participants revealed that they do it "genuinely for the good of other people" (N-6 Imogen) and because they "care for them and worry about how they must feel (…)" (S-12 Kate). Similarly, when asked what is special about OA, A-1 Anna concluded that "people do it [OA] because (…) when they see someone struggling they really feel for them and they want to help". Since participants regularly emphasised that OA involves feelings for those in need and a desire to alleviate such needs, these examples imply that OA is, inevitably, guided by concern for others. This is also well illustrated in the following example where N-8 Donna, when asked for specific examples of OA on the part of her colleagues, admitted that she had been a recipient of OA many times and she always felt that such behaviours were guided by concern for her as an individual:

> Interviewer: Can you think of any examples when your colleagues engaged in such [altruistic] behaviours?
>
> N-8 Donna: I have experienced people wanting to help me quite a lot to be honest. That's how I felt anyway. When it's happened I felt that they wanted to help *me*. And I have never felt that someone has quite done it because they either felt that they have to do it or that I will reward them

in some way. I've always felt that I've been helped for *me*, because they

cared for *me*.

The recalled representative responses suggest that OA involves feeling concern for others as opposed to focusing on other aspects of the situation. At times compared to an "altruistic motivation" (S-4 Tamara) or "altruistic spirit" (N-1 Laura), concern for other organizational recipient appears to distinguish OA from related behaviours because it emphasises the other-oriented nature of the concept. People who feel concerned for others and are motivated to alleviate this need, are more likely to end up engaging in OA than any other type of helping behaviours. The following quote from S-9 Zoe illustrates this:

S-9 Zoe: You are altruistic when you are concerned with others. Full

stop. Whereas other people might come from a place where they think

about something else and they are not so much concerned with others.

4.2.1.1.1. Concern for organizational recipient versus concern for self: Participants' considerations

Despite being confident that concern for other organizational recipient should guide OA, some participants were characterized with relative uneasiness to decide when a given act is truly performed with the welfare of another in mind and when it is concern with self-interests that drives their behaviour. This was particularly evident when discussing OA that falls within one's role boundaries. More specifically, some individuals appeared confused whether in-role behaviours could be considered as based on concern for others or, in contrast, if they are exerted to make one's job easier and therefore are driven by concern for self. The following extract from a conversation between the two managers is an interesting example of such a confusion. Here, N-5

Noah disregards any behaviour that helps him do his job as a manager as OA because it directly relates to his own professional goals, whereas N-5 Kristina appears to hold a broader view and argues that even though OA may help her complete the requirements of her role, she genuinely wants to help the other person and therefore considers her actions as OA:

> N-5 Noah: I don't think as managers you can work in an area where you are completely altruistic. Everything has an end gain in a way. As managers we know the people that will be causing trouble, we head off and ask before they get there. And I think it's not altruistic, it's to make my life easier. So it's the altruistic bit that I struggle with. I don't always do it just to help them, there's always an end gain because this is work. So if I am helping people, I help them because I don't want them to go off sick, I don't want them to be stressed, I want them to have their job done quicker. So at work there's always another behaviour. I don't think I am helpful just for helpful sake, I think it's just part of my make up as a manager. Even though people may think that it comes across as altruistic.
>
> N-5 Kristina: But if someone was in that position where they say 'I am really struggling with this', would you see that you are doing this to help yourself rather than genuinely wanting to help them because you are caring? The people that I manage, I think that I help because I genuinely care. I don't want to see them struggling.

The above example implies that individuals may have different perceptions on when behaviour can be considered as OA. As evidenced in the following quote, for N-5 Noah, only behaviours which are clearly outside the remit of his own role requirements and

consider people who are not under his management can be described as OA because only then they will be clearly guided by concern for others as opposed to any sort of concern for his own professional career:

> N-5 Noah: Well, about a month ago I took Andrea for a coffee for an hour around the corner. And that was in my own break, I took it as a flexi because I said 'yes, you and I need a catch up' because I knew she's been through a terrible time and I don't like talking to her in front of all the other people because she gets upset. So sometimes you can do things. But because I'm not really her line manager, it can be altruistic. I genuinely cared about her, what she's been through. She had an awful time so this was a bit of a break for her, to occupy her. So you can do it that way, really. It's just people who are under my management, it is very hard...

Similar concerns and participants' difficulties associated with typifying as OA behaviours built into the role requirements are well illustrated in the following extract from the conversation between the two senior organizational members discussing the altruistic nature of helping behaviours exerted by their subordinates. It appears that S-1 Luke holds a slightly broader view on OA and concludes that ultimately, for most people working in his organization, behaviours that fall within one's role requirements will be classed as OA since they are guided by concern for others and are performed to make a difference in other people's lives. On the contrary, S-1 Jeff holds a narrower view on OA and does not seem to be confident in treating as OA acts which are built into one's role requirements. He believes these are enabling people to be recognized in

their professional capacity and thus are inevitably guided by concern for self and one's career:

> S-1 Jeff: And in that teaching, what tends to happen is you tend to volunteer or tend to do things which are demonstrating those [altruistic] behaviours. Now - are you doing this because you're trying to demonstrate this to the kids or are you doing this because it's an altruistic behaviour that you firmly believe in? It's a really blurred line.
>
> S-1 Luke: No, I think it is altruistic because you're doing that… because actually ultimately, whilst we want to get the best examples that we can that affect the schools, the majority of teachers comes to teaching because they want to help the students be the best that they can be and get the best results they possibly can in the back pocket.
>
> S-1 Jeff: But to be a good teacher you've got to demonstrate those behaviours.
>
> S-1 Luke: Yes.
>
> S-1 Jeff: So is that altruistic? What you are doing is demonstrating the behaviours that they are going to show to people like us [seniors] that you are doing the job that we require you to do. So it's a two way string in teaching... So are they doing it just because they want to do it? Or are they doing it because we want them to do it, because we recognize that they do it?
>
> S-1 Luke: I think part of this is because they feel that they need to demonstrate services. But people come into teaching because they want to make difference for the good.
>
> S-1 Jeff: The majority.

S-1 Luke: Yes, the vast majority. Not many people do it for the salary. The vast majority come here and do it for altruistic reasons.

Consequently, participants' responses suggest that perceptions of OA differ and will depend on individuals' own interpretations. However, it appears that as long as an individual feels that a given act is performed to genuinely benefit the other (i.e., is guided by concern for other organizational recipient), the potential impact it may have on his/her professional career may not necessarily mean that behaviour cannot be classified as OA. Rather, it is the intention to benefit the other (for whom concern is felt) that constitutes the core element of the definition of OA – and not the automatic or often inevitable consequences of such behaviours.

4.2.1.2. No expectations of returns

The unique nature of OA was also demonstrated by emphasising that such behaviours are not only motivated by concern for other organizational recipient, but – at the same time - that they are not guided by expectations of returns. This is particularly well illustrated in the following representative example from an extract of a conversation between N-2 Gail and N-2 Betty. They acknowledged that OA, in comparison to other helping behaviours, does not involve calculations and expectations of returns placed upon recipients:

N-2 Gail: I think if you start calculating then it is probably not altruistic. Because then you are sort of thinking 'What is it in it for me?' at later point. And I think that calculation doesn't necessarily mean altruism.

N-2 Betty: I agree. Because otherwise you're just doing something for the wrong reason, you are helping someone out because you expect them to do x, y and z.

In contrast to individuals who spend time on calculations and thinking about potential returns, S-1 Luke succinctly explained that "people who help altruistically would give out help selflessly without expecting anything in return". The same point was made by other participants, too. This is well illustrated by N-7 Louise who concluded that "If you engage in it [OA], you would want to help somebody through without really much thought of what you can get out of it. You would just want to help them" and S-11 Kevin who explained that individuals within his organization often engage in OA "(…) just to be helpful to other person, with no expectations behind that". Participants were also clear that OA does not involve expectations of gains when they described their own behaviours. This is well illustrated by A-8 Hollie who explained her own OA as not based on any sort of expectations of benefits – "Speaking from personal experience, I have helped and expected no benefit from that, just for helping sake".

4.2.1.2.1. No expectations of returns versus reciprocity: Participants' considerations

Concomitantly with the interview progress and increasingly complex discussions about the meaning and characteristics behind OA, what also appeared to be a source of relative difficulties in conceptualizing OA among research participants was whether, indeed, OA is not guided by any form of expectations of returns – especially when such behaviours are ingrained in reciprocal exchanges. For instance, in the following extract N-16 Nick and N-16 Becky described OA as behaviour where the parties may expect to receive certain benefits (i.e., returned favours):

> Interviewer: Do you see people in your organization engaging in such [altruistic] behaviours?
>
> N-16 Nick: Yes, I think for me it is ... you potentially always get something out of it because it's helping.

N-16 Becky: It's kind of a win-win.

N-16 Nick: ... a lot of mutual support. I think about the cover arrangements.

N-16 Becky: Yes, I've just asked you [interview partner] to cover for me next week, for example, and you agreed to that because you know it would allow me for time off but also you know that I'll reciprocate.

N-16 Nick: Yes.

Whereas in the above example participants appear pretty confident in placing OA within reciprocal agreements, in most instances where reciprocity appeared in the conversations between participants, the altruistic nature of the examples provided was questioned as soon as they realised these may include elements of expecting something back. The following quote particularly well illustrates how two interview partners started by giving an example of OA and ended up questioning whether it is altruistic because of the potential reciprocity that it involves:

N-14 Mark: I do spend time kind of managing Alex a little bit, even though it is not my job.

N-14 Kath: Yes, I was just going to say when you said you don't do it for a promotion ...the way you've helped him... I think it's altruistic.

N-14 Mark: Anyway, he's my friend and that's part of being a friend with someone. I think equally, if the situation was reversed, he would do the same thing for me and not that I would have to ask him and not that he had asked me but that is part of what friendship is. And again, I question how you'd call it (…) I'd question whether I'd call it altruistic because there's a lot of mutual support in there.

In a similar way, A-2 Steve admitted that he does not expect reciprocity for his OA but, at the same time, he questioned whether he would get annoyed if it did not occur. In this way, he is not confident whether his behaviours truly reflect OA:

> Interviewer: Do you think people in your organizations engage in such [altruistic] behaviours?
>
> A-2 Steve: Yes, I do see that. I do try to engage in that. And I see others that do but others also that don't. So then it can be quite frustrating. Ummm, but to what extent is it just giving for the sake of giving because it's something that you know you just want to do or to what extent it is kind of custom and practice? Is there any form of reciprocity, an expectation of reciprocation? You know, helping people out on their courses or helping people out with things like tutorial or whatever it may be. Like if I do it, I'm not doing it for a return, to get something reciprocated to me. But on the other hand, if it wasn't reciprocated would I be annoyed? Or would I stop doing this? I don't know. I don't think so, I think that I will probably still do it. But to what extend is it just selfless giving? It kind of is selfless but, on the other hand, how long will it take before I got annoyed if it was never reciprocated? So is it me just barerly cleverly planning ahead? I don't think it is but, obviously, you get a bit of reciprocation.

This relative uneasiness of defining when acts are not guided by expectations of returns is also clearly illustrated in the representative extract from a conversation between A-5 Ian and A-5 Lisa. This example succinctly demonstrates that A-5 Ian is not confident

whether his actions could be described as OA or whether it is a two way process where he expects to get something back as a result of his behaviour:

> A-5 Ian: I'm not trying to say in any way that I'm not a helpful person. I would like to think that I'm a very helpful person but what I think I'm saying is – am I doing it in return or in return for something that I am about to get? And is it a two way process? And it's hard, I think. So recently I presented a small gift to a person who has helped me. I spent at least an hour to get it - but it is the person who has helped me - so it's a return. It's helpful, it's a gesture, it's a gift, in no sense I did have to...
>
> A-5 Lisa: But I would then say we would have to crescent whether anything is ever truly altruistic because even keeping a friendship going, the things you do for friendship, there is a benefit of keeping the friendship going.

While an element of reciprocity caused participants to question whether an act could be considered as OA, it could be generally concluded that acts which are ingrained within a wider framework of generalized reciprocity - i.e., viewed as an investment in the collective welfare but without expectation of an instrumental direct benefit (see, Willer et al., 2012), were relatively easy to class as OA. Participants' answers clearly emphasised that such acts of OA are not based on direct reciprocal agreements and the assumption *I do it for you = You do it for me* but rather on more general settlements that may come with benefits which are imprecise, generic, and do not stem from any particular person:

> A-12 Brad: I'm trying to look at it from an altruistic point of view…
> There's an element of 'If I'm doing this, hopefully in the future, people

will come and help me. And it's that sort of thing of someone saying – 'I'm going to give more to help us overall and hopefully it will come back'.

Or:

A-14 Nathan: It [OA] is more general.

A-14 Dorothy: The things will come round in the end and if you're a good team player.

A-14 Nathan: But then the act of reciprocity, it's not as if I do you an act and then next week you do me an act.

A-14 Dorothy: No, no. It doesn't happen.

A-14 Nathan: It's just a process. A process of giving and getting something back - whether it's an emotional level, whether it's an intellectual level, or a relationship level.

Based on the data collected from participants, and as demonstrated in the following representative example, OA includes no expectations of immediate return for the actor but, at the same time, it may form part of wider, indirect, and multilateral exchanges:

S-10 Ivy: There's nothing in it for them, they may hold the door or pick up something you dropped. But you pay it forward three times to three different people. So you're not giving it back to the recipient, you're giving it out to somebody else.

4.2.1.3. Discretion

Research participants further considered as OA only those acts which are discretionary in nature. In other words, OA involves only behaviours where individuals exercise their

own judgement and choice and are not coerced to do something by others. The following example is representative of this view:

> N-2 Gail: One of our colleagues didn't feel well and everyone was really worried about her. And the other colleague was really sweet, he drove her to the hospital where he waited with her till her husband got there. And that's quite an example of altruism as he didn't have to... he could have just said 'I'll call for a taxi' because he had his own work to be fair. So people just go out of their way because they want to.

A short extract from a conversation between A-9 Fiona and A-9 Henry, in contrast, demonstrates how behaviours where individuals are told what to do by others and therefore lack elements of discretion are not considered as OA while participants are more reluctant to engage in them. A-9 Fiona, for instance, suggests that while she will do things she is told to by her management, they will only appear altruistic from the outside whereas A-9 Henry not only agrees with her, but he also adds that one has usually less willingness to engage in such acts.

> A-9 Fiona: You need to feel that you would like to help out. And I don't think being told to do something would help me feel that. And when I'm told that by line manager I tend to say 'Is there anything we can do to relieve some of the pressures from them so that they can do the very important thing that they have to do?'. So you think I'm great. But you may disagree after I explain a little bit more. I know this is going to make me sound terribly uncharitable, ha-ha.
>
> A-9 Henry: I agree with this sort of thing that if someone has to tell you to do something you are more reluctant to do it. You're like… say there's

a big mess in your room, it's ok if you say 'ah this room is in mess, I'd better tidy up'. But if somebody says 'Go clean up that room, it's in a mess'…

A-9 Fiona: There's less enthusiasm to do it ha-ha.

4.2.2. Dimensions of OA

Interviews with research participants indicated that OA could vary along four dimensions. These include OA directed at different beneficiaries, OA based on varying degrees of self-sacrifice, reactive and proactive OA, and task- and person-oriented OA.

4.2.2.1. OA directed at different beneficiaries

In line with the definition of OA introduced in Chapter 2, beneficiaries of OA were reported to primarily include individual colleagues. As succinctly explained by N-7 Bart, "part of it is that you don't want your colleague to struggle, and part of it is because you want that person to succeed". In the same vein, in an example of OA given by S-7 Cynthia, it is clear that she intended to take stress away from her particular colleague:

> S-7 Cynthia: One of the teachers has recently sent us an email saying she had difficulties with one of the students who doesn't feel well in her classes. (…) So that's when I went straight to her, I didn't copy anyone in, anybody above me or a line manager. And if it didn't happen, that lady would be quite stressed.

While orienting OA towards individual colleagues was the mostly cited example in all three organizations, participants from the Not-for-profit Organization and the School also acknowledged that their OA is often intended at benefiting organizational

customers or their organization in general. The following representative extract from a conversation between the two social workers demonstrates that employees often engage in OA towards each other but, ultimately, such acts are intended to benefit the clients:

> N-9 Ted: You will find people who do things that are outside of hours.
>
> N-9 Helen: And you do it for the client really.
>
> N-9 Ted: And sometimes when you go to day centres as well, people help each other out there.
>
> N-9 Helen: I don't think there's anything like ... we will not really get a promotion or anything like that, it's genuinely being nice, being nice to the client so they've got better lives.

In the same vein, the following extract from a conversation between S-5 Karen and S-5 Donna further indicates that genuine interest for customers constitutes an integral aspect of participants' organizational life and is an essential characteristic of their OA behaviours which are regularly aimed at benefiting the students:

> S-5 Karen: And to me, it's all about the end result. The end result is getting a good deal for children.
>
> S-5 Donna: You know the reason why we are all working in school, whether it's on the reception, or you work at the dining room, or you do the admin job like I do, is because you want the children to do well, and you are all working towards the same aim.

Further participants' responses suggest that OA, through helping specific individuals, can also be aimed at ultimately supporting the organization as a whole. That view on OA is clearly illustrated by S-7 Kieran who recalled a recent example of his own OA

and concluded that through his OA, he wanted to benefit not only the individual teacher but the whole school:

> Interviewer: Can you think of any examples of such behaviours [OA] in your organization?
>
> S-7 Kieran: Yes, one that comes to my mind is when we had a supply teacher who came in to teach in the area that was not her specialism. When it came to report writing I came to her and said "don't worry about marking and writing your reports, I'll do half a batch and the other guy will do the other half of a batch because we'll get through it probably quicker and, at the end of the day, it's not the pressure you need". And it's a little bit more for us but we have experience of it. And I suppose it was not only good for her, not just an end in itself, but the bigger picture being - for a school as a whole. That little bit of altruism was of benefit to everybody.

Similarly, and as succintly summarized in these representative examples, OA is "about helping the company" (N-11 Maggie), involves "(…) contributing to the general thing rather than just that one person" (S-4 Ugo), and "it's difficult to say it's completely helping an individual because it [OA] is all for the good of the service - you could have all that side to it" (N-6 Mary). The following illustrative quote from N-15 Bridget demonstrates that, ultimately, OA may have a range of beneficiaries: "I wouldn't stop it [OA] because everybody benefits from it, a whole organization - management, an individual, and a client".

Interestingly, what appears as a strong identification and emotional attachment to customers and the organization in the Not-for-profit Organization and at the School was

not evident in the Academic Institution. Helping customers was considered there more from a business-wise perspective where students were regarded as "shareholders" (A-11 Hayden) and participants did not perceive any actions directed towards helping students or the organization in general as OA.

4.2.2.2. OA based on different degrees of self-sacrifice

An important element behind the perceptions of OA reported by research participants concerned the different degrees of self-sacrifice that characterize such behaviours. The examples provided by respondents started with simple acts of kindness which do not appear to bring any significant cost to the actor (such as making someone a cup of tea or bringing lunch from the shop), and ended with bigger projects that involved "putting themselves [the actors] on the line of fire to benefit others" (S-11 Kevin) and that were often associated with "a massive pain" (A-6 Beth). It therefore sounds as if OA, according to research participants, lies on a continuum from acts which involve hardly any sacrifice to behaviours which require a significant cost to the actor.

4.2.2.3. Proactive and reactive OA

OA was perceived by the study's participants as both proactive and reactive behaviours. Whereas proactive OA is initiated by the actor, reactive form is passive and occurs as a consequence of being asked for support. The following extract from a conversation between two managers who acknowledged that their colleagues can easily observe what is going on around them and they will engage in OA before one even realizes that he or she is struggling is a comprehensive illustration of a proactive form of OA:

> N-8 Donna: Some people actually offer to do something for you before you even know you've needed it.

> N-8 Natalie: Which is very strange but some people can observe you.
> And they may think 'Aw there's a bit of struggle here, would you like
> me to start doing this?'. And this is because they know you do another
> job and they can do that. People can read... some people can read other
> people.

In a similar way, those who engage in OA were compared to the good "fairies" who do
things for others without being asked:

> A-7 Norbert: Yes, the fairies have been here and have done it.
>
> A-7 Liam: And there was no request for it to be done. It has just
> happened.

While most examples of OA involved an individual taking his or her initiative and
actively seeking to benefit the other person, participants' responses suggested that OA
can also take a reactive form. A representative example comes from A-13 Diane who,
when asked if people in her organization engage in OA, emphasised that if people ask
others, then they are likely to engage in such behaviours:

> Interviewer: Do you see people in your organization engaging in such
> [altruistic] behaviours?
>
> A-13 Diane: Yeah definitely, people do help if you ask and certainly you
> know that we would... So we had a new colleague start here and she
> needed help because when you start you need help, and it's true - if you
> ask people they will just stop what they are doing and just help.

Similarly, when asked if OA is a common behaviour in his workplace, N-4 Simon
confidently said that "if you ask people, they do support you" whereas A-10 Theresa

concluded that "it is just the sort of [her] initial reaction if they ask for help". Therefore, it can be concluded that behaviour that stems both from own initiative as well as from being asked for support can be altruistic in nature.

4.2.2.4. Task- and person-oriented OA

Data gathered from participants in all the investigated organizations demonstrated that OA refers to both task- as well person-oriented activities. Task-oriented nature of OA is comprehensively illustrated in the following quote by A-10 Charles who clearly perceives OA as majorly concerned with work-related performance:

> Interviewer: Do you have a chance to engage in such [altruistic] behaviours at work?
>
> A-10 Charles: Yes. For me it's usually in terms of workload. So when you know that someone is busy and something else drops on their desk or whatever it is, sometimes you will just say 'Would you like me to do it for you?'. It would be just picking up pieces of work - just to help out. If you know someone's busy and you're not struggling to get through you just offer to help.

Such task-focused examples of OA included helping others with workload, covering for colleagues who cannot come to work, orienting new employees, developing the skills of others, or making sure that colleagues are not experiencing problems. Person-oriented activities, on the other hand, included mostly support with personal issues. Respondents often emphasised that other employees go out of their way to make others feel better because they genuinely care about them. This is succinctly illustrated by S-1 Luke:

> S-1 Luke: If somebody is having a tough time, there won't be one person, there will be a number of people that would be aware of that, and would be supportive – whether it would be a phone call, a text, twenty minutes of your time, a card, or something.

Other examples of person-oriented OA included organizing extracurricular activities for other employees (e.g., organizing staff days/nights out, trips, meetings, games, or sport activities like tennis or fitness classes) and simple acts of kindness - behaviours or gestures which usually do not require much effort or time on the part of an actor yet they are still perceived altruistic (e.g., making others a drink, bringing lunch from the shop, sending cards or flowers, giving someone a lift in a car).

Interestingly, some participants of the study reported that they find it easier to engage in OA which is person-oriented. In the subsequent representative example, A-8 Hollie indicates that, for her, helping out with personal issues is more instinctive and easier to engage in without considering potential self-benefits:

> A-8 Hollie: I suppose that's my motherly instinct because I knew they were unwell and I said 'Just go home and I'll do it for you'. I think that's more where I'm inclined to help rather than actually picking up a specific piece of work without thinking well, what am I going to get from that? I think I'd be more inclined to help in those situations where it affects someone personally rather than work related.

Similarly, A-15 Danielle suggested that support with personal issues is more unconditional; individuals do it because they want to help somebody. On the other hand, helping with work-related problems will often involve more rationality and thinking behind every decision made:

A-15 Danielle: If it's more on a personal nature then, I think sort of from a human point of view, you want to help somebody out - with more personal problems. But if it's more work related then there are points where you say actually 'No, it's your job to do that, or ask so and so who is more related to that area'. You kind of learn from experience not to say 'yes' to absolutely everything. But there are some sort of cries for help you just can't ignore. And you got to get stuck in there and do something.

4.2.3. Conclusions

In this section the nature of OA was considered based on the interviews with research participants. The findings demonstrated that OA is a discretionary behaviour directed towards benefiting another organizational recipient. It is guided by concern for other(s) and does not involve expecting benefits for self as a result of such actions. It was also demonstrated that OA may entail different levels of self-sacrifice, may be either proactive or reactive, and task or person-oriented. The summary of the key findings regarding the nature of OA, as reported by the research participants, is illustrated in Figure 4.1. Participants' understanding of OA will be further compared and contrasted with mainstream research in the following chapter to identify how, at times, participants' interpretations of OA differ from the traditional insights.

Figure 4.1.: Thematic network of participants' views on the nature of Organizational Altruism
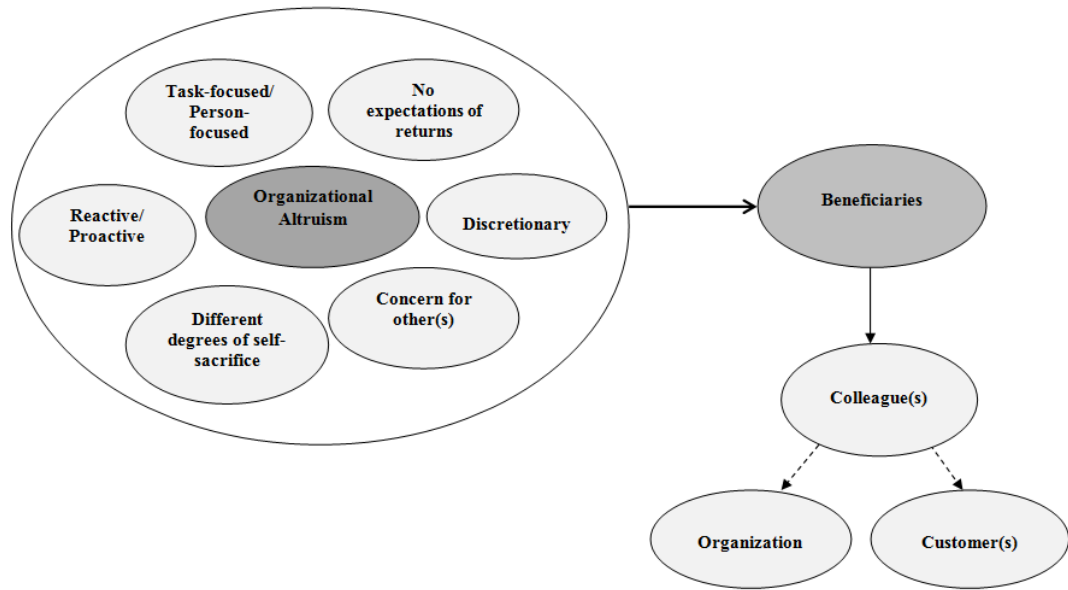
Source: Data analysis

4.3. Research Question 2: How is engagement in organizational altruism influenced according to employees in the investigated organizations?

The findings of this study revealed that the system of OA functions alongside a number of other considerations which interact in a variety of ways. For instance, they may compete in terms of the actor's attention and investment. This section therefore reports the findings on participants' perceptions as to what factors may influence the process of engagement in OA in either a positive or a negative way. First, a consideration is given to the individual characteristics. Second, a focus is placed on the relational characteristics at both the actor-recipient level and at team level. Finally, the role of contextual characteristics is highlighted. This information provides an answer to the second of the research questions posed for this thesis and is summarized in a graphic model in the concluding section.

4.3.1. The role of individual's characteristics

In terms of individual's characteristics, it was reported that the perceptions of individual's nature, capacity for empathy, situational empathy, levels of affective commitment, and a position in an organizational hierarchy may influence engagement in OA at the individual level. Subsequent sections examine these aspects in more depth.

4.3.1.1. Individual's nature

A tendency in participants' answers was to associate engagement in OA with one's "personality", "psychological makeup", "nature", or "mindset". Participants in all the investigated organizations acknowledged that some people simply "have it in their nature" (N-15 Amy) to be an altruistic person and "it is just what type of people [they] are" (A-3 Anna). A typical way of characterizing individuals who tend to engage in OA was to say that they are simply "more inclined to help out, go out of the way to help people" (A-11 Hayden). It was also noticed that there will be individuals who will not engage in OA "because it is just not in their nature" (S-2 Kay) and hence, people that would usually be approached for support "will probably have the same kind of disposition, they are all similar kinds of people" (A-10 Charles). In the following example one of the participants perceived her dyadic partner as a "very caring person" and compared her to those who are, by nature, less concerned with others:

> N-1 Tracy: I think that you are a very caring person. And I think you'd like to feel that everybody is comfortable. And you're good and you know how to do that.
>
> N-1 Laura: Yes, and make sure I am being fair as well.
>
> N-1 Tracy: Whereas other people might come from a place where their driving behaviour is that things are right. The systems and procedures are

right. And not so much concerned with others. It's a psychological makeup as well, really.

As evidenced in the following quote, having the other-oriented, helpful nature can act as a buffer against external factors that may discourage people from engaging in OA:

> A-7 Liam: Looking at it from the HR perspective, you're thinking what could happen that could stop people helping each other? What would the university do or what would the school do that will prevent me from helping you or people? And the answer is nothing. I can feel very angry, I can feel very bad, the institution can make you angry, the institution can make you not want to help, but you're going to do it because it's instinctive.

In direct opposition to those who appear to have other-oriented nature, people who are self-oriented - i.e., they tend to be career-oriented and they strive for recognition, promotions and achievement, were reported to be usually those people who are least likely to engage in OA:

> S-9 Zoe: You know when you said about helping behaviours and that it's doing it for somebody else and it's not about what you would gain, so if somebody is quite ruthless, and I don't know if it's a type of personality, so somebody may be in it for...'I want to be a head teacher within 5 years'. Driven?
>
> S-9 Moira: Driven, yes.
>
> S-9 Zoe: I think that wouldn't necessarily be a person type that has helping behaviour that you're looking at. Because I think their decisions will be based on what they are getting out of this.

The above example demonstrates that people who seem to be predisposed to be mainly concerned with their own career outcomes are capable of engaging in helping behaviours but these are not perceived by research participants as altruistic because they will often be driven by direct extrinsic rewards as opposed to a desire to benefit the other person. As noted by S-12 Kate, such people "would feather their own nest first, so they will look at their own interest first, look at what they can get out". Similarly, when asked if she can think of anyone in her organization who does not engage in OA, A-5 Lisa did not have difficulties to identify such people and point out to them putting emphasis on own needs and career aspirations:

> A-5 Lisa: Well I can think of two people immediately. They are extremely ambitious... huge self-aspirations mean they just use other people, they don't contribute equally to the work of the school, and they focus only on their own needs and aspirations. And they will look all over a lot of other people in order to get where they want to be.

Again, the above example implies that when people appear to be self-oriented (i.e., concerned with one's own strive for achievement), they are less likely to engage in OA. Interestingly, seemingly self-oriented nature was identified as negatively influencing engagement in OA only in the School and at the University which are characterized by relatively high levels of competition and, in the case of the Academic Institution, highly individualized reward systems – the characteristics which do not describe the Not-for-profit Organization where appearing to be self-oriented and focusing on own achievement was not mentioned as influencing engagement in OA at all.

4.3.1.2. Capacity for empathy

The crucial role of the ability to empathize and its link to one's engagement in OA was reported to "push people to do good things, always" (N-6 Imogen). As succinctly explained by N-2 Gail, being able to feel empathy towards others allows an individual to understand what the other person may feel and therefore it triggers a desire to alleviate the need of that person:

> N-2 Gail: I think a lot of it comes down to empathy. When you can empathize with other people, you know how it feels to be really stressed or how it feels to be really down. Actually, you are thinking 'how I can make them feel better?'. So I think empathy goes a long way, doesn't it?

The same argument was frequently made by other participants of the study. When asked what makes them engage in OA, a common response was that "it is the capacity for empathy – just being able... even if you have not experienced what that person is going through, you can just imagine" (S-3 Mia). In the same vein, the following extract demonstrates how the ability to empathize facilitates engagement in OA whereas those who lack the capacity to feel empathy are simply unaware of the needs of others:

> A-5 Ian: I think ability to empathize is important. Not to sympathise but to share that thought, that place, that walking in the other person's shoes. I think that there is an area of that which - the more you can do that - the more likely you are to be able then to offer assistance or to feel that it's good to help that person. Someone might be seen as unhelpful while, actually, they just do not have the ability to see it.
>
> A-5 Lisa: Yes, they just don't have the ability to empathize.

While it was reported to be easier to feel empathy for others in situations in which one is familiar with, the ability to empathize appeared to be particularly important in the situations which are new to the actors, or where the actors cannot personally relate to them:

> N-6 Imogen: You can be empathetic in situations that you understand but if it's a situation that you really don't understand, it is quite a skill to be able to do that and not everybody can do that – and you cannot teach empathy.

In line with participants' comments, the feelings of empathy towards others appear to distinguish OA from other helping behaviours in a way that individuals who have capacity to empathize with others seem to be primarily focused on the welfare of the other person and genuinely concerned about the end outcomes for that person(s) in general. Consistently, it could be inferred that the capacity to feel empathy towards another individual plays an important role when engaging in OA and that the more individuals are capable of such feelings, the more likely they are to understand the perspective of the person in need, and therefore engage in OA. Interestingly, the capacity for empathy was reported to be of particular importance in the Not-for-profit Organization and the School and relatively less emphasis on its influence was reported in the Academic Institution.

4.3.1.3. Situational empathy

The data reported in the previous section demonstrated that capacity to feel empathy for others is an important quality that facilitates the process of engagement in OA. This, in turn, automatically implies that empathic emotions experienced by individuals towards those perceived to be in need in a given situation are, as well, relevant in the process of

engagement in OA. Indeed, most participants of the study suggested that feeling empathy towards the other plays a significant role in linking awareness of need and altruistic concern for others. As succinctly explained by N-7 Bart, this is because once an individual feels empathy towards the person who is in need, then he or she is likely to understand the difficulty of this person's situation, have better understanding of their position, and therefore will be more likely to end up exerting OA:

> N-7 Bart: When we talk about engaging in this sort of [altruistic] behaviour... I think you can get a lot of.... going back to empathy... you do end up feeling a lot about how that person feels. Even though it's not you going through this situation. There's this sort of… you find yourself thinking about if it was you in that situation and you have this level of understanding. You do get that quite a lot. And it makes it easier to then to understand their situation and just be able to offer them that assistance.

Similarly, when asked what makes them want to engage in OA, S-2 Kay posited that "It's empathy. (…) You think how I would feel if I was in that situation, you know. That's the thing" whereas N-9 Ted suggested that "if I empathize with a situation, if it's a situation I've been in, or I know somebody who's been in it, I think that will make me want to help more". An illustrative example of A-3 Martha further demonstrates the role situational empathy plays in OA when she explains what the process of OA looks like for her - "I just imagine what it would be to be in their position, to really not know how to do something, and I just feel for them". The fact that situational empathy plays an important facilitating role in the processes associated with OA was also clearly evident in the extract from a conversation between S-7 Cynthia and S-7 Kieran. Whereas S-7 Cynthia suggested that "There's an element of you empathizing and understanding how

you would have felt in that situation or how you feel when you have so much pressure and so many deadlines", S-7 Kieran further added later on that "it's the empathy side of things that you hope you're making somebody happier - you do have that empathy".

Nevertheless, what appeared as significant for some, others found not necessarily important in the process of engaging in OA. In the following example, A-7 Liam revealed that for him, OA is a natural reaction which does not involve a lot of thinking or empathy:

> A-7 Liam: Well, I think you don't have to over think it [OA]. You see someone who needs help and you think that person needs help and I can help, therefore I will do it. (…) So I don't think empathy comes into it. I think it's just a purely instinctive natural reaction. You don't think it through, you go and do it.

It should be acknowledged that, similarly to the findings regarding individuals' capacity for empathy in the process of engagement in OA, situational empathy appeared to be of particular importance in the Not-for-profit Organization and the School and relatively less emphasis on its influence was reported in the Academic Institution. Given that, there exists a possibility that for some individuals empathy (and hence capacity for it) does not play a role in the processes of OA. Alternatively, it may be that the feeling of empathy associated with OA is more of a heuristic process which is automatic and subconscious and therefore it was not mentioned as regularly by some participants as other factors influencing OA. The instinctive nature of empathy was, indeed, mentioned in the conversation between N-6 Imogen and N-6 Mary:

> N-6 Imogen: I found empathy very interesting. It's something that we were talking quite a bit about and...

> N-6 Mary: If someone comes to you, with anything, and sometimes things can be quite surprising, you instinctively know how to react to that person to make them feel the best in that situation.
>
> N-6 Imogen: Yes, I'd say empathy is very instinctive.
>
> N-6 Mary: Yes, it just comes naturally. Doesn't it?

The latter explanation appears particularly compelling given that the results of the background questionnaire administered to research participants demonstrated that respondents are characterized with high levels of both emotional and cognitive forms of empathy. Compared to the means for empathic concern and perspective taking gathered originally by Davis (1980) to test his Interpersonal Reactivity Index, the means for the sample of this research are notably higher and this trend is visible across all three investigated organizations (see Table 4.1. for a comparison).

Given the characteristics of the sample and the fact that majority of research participants acknowledged the role of empathy in the processes associated with OA, a conclusion can be made that empathy may positively influence on one's willingness or the ability to engage in OA.

Table 4.1.: Scores on empathy – this research vs. Davis' (1980) sample

	Females	Males
	Davis' (1980) sample Females N=582; Males N=579	
Empathic concern	M = 21.67 (SD = 3.83)	M = 19.04 (SD = 4.21)
Perspective taking	M = 17.96 (SD = 4.85)	M = 16.78 (SD = 4.72)
	This research sample	
	Overall (three organizations) Females N=46; Males N=27*	
Empathic concern	M = 28.55 (SD = 3.32)	M = 27.38 (SD = 3.35)
Perspective taking	M = 25.7 (SD =2.82)	M = 25.04 (SD = 3.97)
	Not-for-profit Organization Females N=18; Males N=10	
Empathic concern	M = 29.44 (SD = 3.45)	M = 27 (SD = 3.71)
Perspective taking	M = 24.61 (SD = 2.38)	M = 24.6 (SD =3.24)
	School Females N=11; Males N=7	
Empathic concern	M =28.5 (SD = 2.5)	M = 26.83 (SD = 3.54)
Perspective taking	M = 26 (SD = 2.45)	M = 24.33 (SD = 4.13)
	Academic Institution Females N=17; Males N=10	
Empathic concern	M = 27.65 (SD = 3.6)	M = 28.1 (SD = 3.07)
Perspective taking	M = 26.65 (SD = 3.22)	M = 25.9 (SD = 4.75)

Source: Own data analysis combined with Davis (1980)

* based on the 78% response rate

4.3.1.4. Perceived levels of affective commitment

Research participants from the Not-for-profit Organization and the School appeared to feel particularly strong emotional attachment to the work they are performing and to strongly identify with the organizational goals. This state of relatively high affective commitment was frequently reported by research participants to positively influence their engagement in OA. In contrast, participants from the Academic Institution emphasised how lack of affective commitment on their part undermines going beyond of what is required from them, including engagement in OA.

Particularly high levels of affective commitment are indicated in the following quote, where one of the support workers from the Not-for-profit Organization explained how the good of the company and the good of the clients is the driving factor behind staff OA. Based on this representative quote, it could be inferred that much of OA would not have happened if participants were not committed to their clients and the services they provide:

> N-3 Ed: That's the way we do stuff. So we're not doing it during hours, we're not booking hours down, we just do it. Because we want things to run. Because one of the clients needs a bed, there's a bed going from the different house, and we need to make sure the clients gets it in the budget. We can order one and pay for it out of the budget but the budget is tight.

Strong attachment to the organizational goals and the clients was also demonstrated in the School where participants frequently emphasised that they engage in OA because they are aware they are modelling behaviours to their students.

S-3 Mia: That sense of community at school… you're trying to install that in the students that you work with. And I think that actually working with young people and knowing how your behaviour can impact on them makes you question your behaviour more and look at it.

S-3 Sue: We're an example to many minds. You know, these children have minds and we're an example to many minds. And that's what it is. We have 20 minds in a classroom and 250 minds in a whole, you know, it's about that, it's about doing things correctly and properly. And yes, that's what it is.

Whereas the perceived levels of affective commitment appeared to be strong among employees from a Not-for-profit Organization and a School, this was not as evident at the Academic Institution. While some participants working at the Academic Institution implied they were characterized by strong attachment to the organizational goals, it was a common trend to suggest that there are people at the Academic Institution who do not take interest in students and do not do more than is expected. In the following example, one of the academics calls them "plastic academics" and "glorified teachers" who do not seem to be preoccupied with the welfare of the students or the general good of the organization but who rather seem to be concerned solely about themselves:

A-2 Steve: You've got to be careful with universities because you get plastic academics. And that basically are lecturers who are very secure, have a steady job, and they're just planning their retirement, taking it easy, not updating the lectures each year, still teaching the rubbish they were teaching each year. And it's just pretending to be something they're not, they're just glorified teachers. And I think they are less likely to give

because they literally are just holding along to work retirements or
whatever it is they want to do. I know people here that have been like
that since their 20s, just to hob along, going to management positions,
and really not caring or doing anything for the students. They are least
likely to be giving in what they do because they already have got this set
in mind what they do each year and they will do no more, they will not
go beyond what they did last year.

The above quotes indicate that there exists a link between perceptions of affective
commitment and engagement in OA. The more an individual appears to be
characterized with high levels of affective commitment, the more likely he/she is to
engage in OA. In contrast, individuals who do not appear to be characterized with
affective commitment are less likely to go out of their way to altruistically help others.
Affective commitment appears to be specifically related to OA since strong
identification and emotional attachment imply that one is particularly interested in the
welfare of the client or the good of the organization as an end product – thus
emphasising the altruistic component of behaviours shaped by affective commitment.

4.3.1.5. Position in a hierarchy

Another aspect influencing one's engagement in OA raised by the study's participants
was a degree of responsibility associated with one's position in a hierarchy.
Unexpectedly, it was found that those in most senior positions who are held responsible
for the overall running of the organization find it most difficult to engage in OA. The
main reason for this state of things was associated with the level of responsibility and
the importance of keeping the professional boundaries. For instance, in the following

example two senior members of staff explained how they "end up being a robot" who "cannot even smile" due to their roles and the associated responsibilities:

> N-1 Laura: But as you become more senior, you do get weight down by the really serious stuff, the disciplinaries and serious incidents.
>
> N-1 Tracy: Yes, yes, police involvement, really bad stuff, and you just take it really seriously.
>
> N-1 Laura: Yes.
>
> N-1 Tracy: Sometimes you cannot even smile. And it's your job, you're dealing with some really, really serious procedural things but you have to… you just end up being a robot – you have to get it right. There isn't any room for… Sometimes I got a feeling 'Aw, aw, what are you? A human?'.

Concomitant with the interview progress, more associations were made by N-1 Laura and N-1 Tracy as to how their OA may be restricted. They added that despite their willingness to engage in OA, they need to carefully think any action through to avoid potential negative consequences relating to keeping professional boundaries:

> N-1 Tracy: Because you want to be liked, everyone wants to be liked. And sometimes you can't be liked in this role because you've got to make quite tough decisions about people's pay awards or their employment… so it's….
>
> N-1 Laura: And you know that you might cross someone and you're really friendly with them and altruistic and then you can end up in a hearing with them.
>
> N-1 Tracy: Yes, yes.

N-1 Laura: So you're very aware that you can end up seeing them in a different context. And you have to hold that level of respect and boundary between you. And too altruistic, too kind, can just blow up the boundaries.

N-1 Tracy: You are fighting yourself all the time.

In addition, seniors often emphasised how their OA is perceived by their subordinates as false or dishonest because of the position they are holding – another aspect discouraging them from engaging in such acts:

N-5 Noah: Sometimes, if you are too altruistic people suspect that you are not being altruistic and you self-gain. So you need to be careful what you're doing really. So if I... it's like we're having those top team awards here. So I can't nominate any of my area managers for top team or top manager award because in a sense it will make everyone else look crass.

N-5 Kristina: Your favourite.

N-5 Noah: And also things like you can't bring in cakes or something because they will think … You just can't really be genuinely altruistic in that sense. People are suspicious of you doing things.

N-5 Kristina: Because we deal with disciplinaries, you're dealing with people on probation, because you are dealing with problems all the time, people do become suspicious, they question why you're doing things.

The same point was made by the senior members from the School. The following quote demonstrates how, what they often feel to be OA towards their subordinates, is misinterpreted by others and associated with organizational agendas as opposed to a genuine concern for other and willingness to benefit an individual:

S-1 Luke It's instant that in the vast majority of schools, if you came across a new head teacher, the default position for people would be that they [employees] will be very suspicious of that person.

S-1 Jeff: Yes, absolutely.

S-1 Luke: Very, very suspicious of that person. But I would hope that there's been enough water under the bridge now and most people would feel that I genuinely want and try to support them. Uhm... in terms of... some people are more resistant but...

S-1 Jeff: You know, the organization is hierarchical – whichever way you look at it. So our relationship with our colleagues quite often is significantly different to their relationship with each other because we're not in a classroom and we are attempting something to improve the overall organization. There are some very challenging conversations that we've got with other people. They make people feel very uncomfortable, so then they mistrust your... if you are doing something with the best intentions, it's very difficult sometimes those best intentions. Because they sometimes misinterpret your actions. Because they are mixed in with the fact that we are determining their wage structure. We are determining their conditions of service. So therefore giving people what we think they should be given is sometimes tempered. Because their opinion about our giving is sometimes different to our feeling about it.

To sum-up, seniors who hold high levels of responsibility for employees and the organizational in general associated two main problems with their engagement in altruistic behaviours. First, they "have got a very different role to play" and they "become a statistic rather than a person" (N-1 Laura). In other words, they are required

to focus their attention on business outcomes and make sure they keep professional boundaries. Secondly, because of the seriousness of their roles and constant organizational pressures, their OA is often perceived as "false" (N-1 Tracy) and "disingenuous" (N-1 Noah). It was reported that many people think that helping behaviours that stem from those in senior positions are related to "some hidden agendas" (S-1 Luke) with regards to organizational outcomes rather than being genuinely interested in the welfare of subordinates.

It should also be noted that problems relating to the level of responsibility held by certain individuals were only evident in a Not-for-profit Organization and at the School. None of the Academic Institution employees mentioned about a difficulty to engage in OA because of their position in the organizational hierarchy. This, however, may be justified by contextual factors - i.e., a considerable lack of a rigid hierarchy in the Academic Institution structures where each academic is somewhat responsible for their own productivity and career.

4.3.2. The role of relational characteristics

4.3.2.1. Actor-recipient level

It was reported that the relationship closeness between an actor and a potential recipient of OA as well as recipients' past appreciation for received help have an impact on an individuals' willingness to engage in OA. Subsequent sections examine these aspects in more depth.

4.3.2.1.1. Relationship closeness

It was commonly reported that those people who developed close working relationships are more likely to help each other out for altruistic reasons. The following extract from a conversation between N-12 Chloe and N-12 Freya succinctly illustrates this:

> N-12 Chloe: I think what makes you more want to genuinely help someone is when you're quite close with them.
>
> N-12 Freya: Some people here are really good friends.
>
> N-12 Chloe: So that's why I think sometimes…
>
> N-12 Freya: They'll help more.
>
> N-12 Chloe: Because they are close.

It was also demonstrated that it comes more naturally to exert OA towards people with whom one has developed close relationships because individuals are concerned with each other's welfare and therefore they simply want to relieve the pressures from those who are close to them. This is well illustrated in this representative example:

> N-11 Maggie: You are more likely to help somebody that you get along with, because that's natural that you want to help somebody if you get along with them. And you want somehow to relieve that pressure and stress from somebody.

In addition, it was frequently noted by the participants that having developed a relationship with the other individual makes it easier to be aware of their situation and perhaps to notice that they need help:

> S-2 Nicky: Probably if you know that person more, you're more aware of the stresses that they are under. And you can see signs that maybe they

> need help. So it's hard if you don't know the person very well to do it
> then.

To conclude, it appears that although individuals are often willing to go out of their way and exert OA to anyone perceived to be in need, they will find it more natural to altruistically help those colleagues with whom they developed some sort of a relationship.

4.3.2.1.2. Recipient's appreciation

Although receiving appreciation for the acts of OA was not considered to be a factor which would be decisive about one's engagement in such behaviours, it was, nevertheless, recognized as having an impact upon one's willingness to engage in OA. It was common among participants to acknowledge that if the potential beneficiary does not tend to show any kind of appreciation for received help, they would be more hesitant about engaging in OA towards that person:

> S-14 Tina: I'd do it once but if they weren't grateful for it, then I'd think
> twice again.
>
> S-14 Lauren: Yes, like what you say about doing something someone
> wants and if someone was then like 'yes, I've sorted this out and I'm all
> right now' and just walked away I would be like really...
>
> S-14 Tina: I'd think twice then, I'd prioritize if he came again. I'd say
> well, I am just doing this….

Similarly, when asked what would discourage him from engaging in OA, N-14 Mark admitted he would have been more hesitant to help should a person on the receiving end not show appreciation:

> N-14 Mark: The colleagues, again, you get much more feedback from them. When I was supportive of Archie, he was very grateful and appreciative and that's really nice. It's not what I'm doing it for but it's a very positive feedback. And if he wasn't appreciative I might possibly be a bit more hesitant.

An important point raised by N-14 Mark is that appreciation or recognition is not the reason for engaging in OA ("it's not what I'm doing it for"). In this way, the reason for exerting OA is still associated with benefiting the organizational recipient. What is more, it was evident in interviews that, even if individuals were not recognized for their altruism, it would not stop them from engaging in acts of OA overall. Rather, they would think about these more carefully. Perhaps if people do not show appreciation for past OA acts, one may be less concerned about their welfare and therefore their willingness to help out of a genuine interest for this person can be lowered when the next opportunity arises. Similarly, the actor may decide to direct his/her altruistic efforts towards other individuals. In contrast, past appreciation should not have a major influence if one exerts help to get some rewards as long as these rewards can still be met through exerting help.

4.3.2.2. Team level

Relationships closeness among employees and general levels of helpfulness were reported to affect engagement in OA at the team level. Subsequent sections examine these aspects in more depth.

4.3.2.2.1. Relationships closeness

It has been already reported that close relationships between the actor and the potential recipient facilitate engagement in OA. Interviews with participants further demonstrated

that, in a similar vein, having developed close relationships within one's team in general is associated with more OA within that team. In fact, such close relationships between team members were related to the "glue that keeps the family together" (A-6 Tess) and it was commonly reported that "if you haven't got a good cohesive team, the desire to show altruism is much less prevalent" (A-9 Fiona). As evidenced in the following representative quote by N-2 Betty, participants further believed that developing close relationships among team members mean that people are not only more likely to be willing to engage in OA but those on the receiving end will feel more comfortable about sharing their problems:

> N-2 Betty: You build stronger bonds which means that you do want to help people as much as you can - whether it is on a professional or personal level, people are more comfortable in opening up.

A similar argument is succinctly illustrated by A-15 Danielle who clearly demonstrated that close relationships within workplace not only allow individuals to be aware of the needs of others but they also facilitate opening up and asking for support:

> Interviewer: What makes it easier to engage in such [altruistic] behaviours then?
>
> A-15 Danielle: I think you have to develop closer relationships within workplace because otherwise you don't know what is going on for people and you don't know whether they may want some help. And they'd be less willing to sort of ask for help. So if there's no relationship there, everybody is like in their own little boxes doing their own thing and not talking to each other, you've got no idea if somebody is struggling or may need just a little bit more support, a little bit of getting

other people to ease off and sort of help them through some stuff. If we all become automats and robotic people producing stuff, it would be a horrible place to work, wouldn't it?

The extract from a conversation between the two support workers N-3 Ed and N-3 Todd below further demonstrates that individuals are more likely to engage in OA if their group is not segregated but - rather - if they have a sense of belonging and know each other well:

> N-3 Ed: I worked in a place when the team was quite cliquey, where there are groups of people that stick together and other people may feel they would be out of that. Well.... we don't see any of that [here] because we all get on really well. We all work together. If somebody is struggling in a certain area we do pick on that very quickly and support that.
> N-3 Todd: It's like a little family there.
> N-3 Ed: Yes, we all know each other well enough.

In the quote above, N-3 Todd compared his team to a "little family". Similar comparisons were made by participants from other investigated organizations. One administrative employee from the School also compared her team to a "family" (S-2 Nicky) whereas a member of the Academic Institution used the term "blood brotherhood" (A-7 Norbert). Comparing one's team to a family implies that it is characterised with special bonds. This, according to the participants of this study, facilitates engagement in OA because one genuinely cares about other team members. As suggested by one of the teachers from the School, "if you lose the networks, the fabric and fibre that exists between staff, then you will also start to lose that sort of altruistic nature (…) You will have less empathy with them" (S-6 Chuck). On the

contrary, "once we know people better they become more people to us, they became more human, more real" (A-5 Ian).

4.3.2.2.2. Level of general helpfulness

Closely related to the relationships between team members is the level of general helpfulness within a team. It appears that if there is, generally, a high level of helpful behaviours and support among employees in a given group, engaging in OA becomes a natural thing which does not tend to be carefully thought through. For instance, the following extract from an interview demonstrates that OA, in a way, has become a natural thing within N-3 Edd and N-3 Todd's team because everybody simply helps everybody:

> N-3 Ed: We just do it as a matter of course, really. We tend to sort of pick up without being asked really, somebody may mention 'ah I struggle to get that done', and 'I'll just sort it'. We do this sort of things.
>
> N-3 Todd: Yes, it's like a natural thing. You don't even think about it. It's just 'oh'.
>
> N-3 Ed: 'Get out, don't worry about it, we'll sort it'.
>
> N-3 Todd: I don't think there's anybody in the team that haven't sort of helped... and... there's probably nobody in some way that I haven't sort of helped. We will all get involved in each other's work and each other's projects and that sort of stuff.
>
> N-3 Ed: Everybody just helps everybody.
>
> N-3 Todd: We will go out of our way.

In the above example exerting OA within teams that are characterized by high levels of helpfulness was described as a natural thing. Similarly, others implied that exerting OA in helpful environments is a norm that is simple and easy to understand:

> A-10 Theresa: The group I work in have that sort of really good team spirit. So it [OA] is kind of seen as a norm within a group. I think it seems normal to them. You know, 'will you do this?'. It's like volunteers for an open day on a Saturday - who will volunteer? And one of them got up 'oh yeah, I will do it'. And it's that simple. And I think it's because it's seen as quite normal within a group. Whereas in other place you may hear, 'oh we've never done that'. And I think whenever you ask them, they just see it as general every day... people do just volunteer. Just help each other out. And that's been the sort of the way we foster, the way we work, it's always been like that.

It was further demonstrated that if people continually support others within a team, then individuals will not feel embarrassed to ask for help. This, in turn, should create more opportunities to engage in OA:

> S-2 Luke: And I think that if ... it's ok if any one member of staff is within a tricky situation, let's say they haven't finished reports there, I think they could go to a number of people and ask for that help. I know that they would give out that help selflessly without expecting anything in return and I know that these people will help altruistically. And I think that every member of staff in this building could do that. And would feel supported and wouldn't feel... actually, wouldn't feel embarrassed to go

and ask for help either. I think it's one of the greatest strengths of the school.

S-2 Jeff: Yes, there's no shame in asking for help when you need it, is it? And as long as people don't abuse that by doing something like constantly asking for help, everybody just gives quite freely, whatever it is.

In the following example, A-1 Anna and A-1 Rob reach similar conclusions. They suggest that if people in a team are generally unhelpful and do not engage in OA it will lead to a negative environment where the unwillingness to support others will spread from one person to another. They name it a "domino effect":

A-1 Anna: And if they [group members] don't engage in altruism then there will be another consequence, that it's like negative environment and....

A-1 Rob: Yeah yeah yeah. What you say about a team, it's just one person and then it spreads across a team. If they say 'no', then the whole team starts to think ...

A-1 Anna: What am I doing here? Ha-ha. It is a domino effect, I think.

It appears that high levels of general helpfulness in one's team make people less preoccupied with potential benefits for self or expectations of reciprocity because helpful behaviours are almost a norm and majority of team members engage in such behaviours on regular basis. In contrast, if team environment is characterized by low levels of general helpfulness then people tend to find it more difficult to invest extra effort and engage in OA.

4.3.3. The role of contextual characteristics

With regards to contextual characteristics, participants identified their levels of workload, perceptions of organizational care, organizational values, external pressures put on an organization, organizational reward systems, and opportunities to interact as common factors influencing their engagement in OA towards other organizational recipients. The following sections report on these in more depth respectively.

4.3.3.1. Workload

Intensified workload was the most frequently reported factor making it difficult to engage in OA and potentially in other types of helping behaviours. Interviews with participants implied that no matter how much individuals were genuinely willing to benefit the other person, they were often not be able to do so because of the amount of their own work. This is well illustrated in the following representative extract from a conversation between S-4 Ugo and S-4 Ben:

> S-4 Ugo: With the best will in the world there is only so many hours in a day and you've got so much to do. It [OA] will have an effect on the quality of your work, and the quality of your teaching, and you can't afford the time necessarily.
>
> S-4 Ben: Yes, I think when you have the pressure you become more selfish inevitably. It affects what I need to do, I know there's something you need to do but I need to do my things.
>
> S-4 Ugo: You make it snappy, literarily have less time for people…

The above example clearly demonstrates that one's concern for other and a desire to engage in OA can be significantly inhibited by the amount of workload one is facing. In

the same vein, one of the managers from the Not-for-profit Organization suggested that her place of work is getting busier on regular basis and increased workload may not completely stop people from engaging in OA, but it will have a negative influence on its frequency:

> N-16 Becky: I think a factor is that people within our organization are much busier now than they were previously. We've all got more on. And that can sometimes have an impact, you know, it may reduce how much people can offer to assist. I don't think it stops people offering but it can be a factor, I think. I am thinking about one of the managers in my team who is sort of a less supportive of her colleagues because she feels very much under pressure with what she's got to do with herself.

This negative impact of work pressure on engagement in OA is also well illustrated in the following example of S-3 Mia who suggested that this is an increasingly important problem:

> S-3 Mia: I think sometimes it's time, having the time. Some people, they don't deliberately set out to ignore that somebody may need help and support but it's just that the pressure is on them and their time. You can't always see what's going on around you, so it's not a conscious decision, it's just you're busy doing your own thing. And actually I think probably there's an increase; I think there's more of that now than what I witnessed before. Even though I would still say we are very supportive as a school and staff is very supportive, I would say that it seems to be more of that now than what I've experienced in the past. I think this is because there are more and more pressures on people.

Similarly, the following representative example further illustrates that engagement in OA will be dictated by practicalities and if individuals have no resources to offer and their work is characterized by high intensity and tension, then they cannot simply engage in additional activities that they consider as altruistic:

> A-4 Kate: You can only do that extra when you've got capacity and as the work intensifies I can certainly feel a tension on myself. And I'm thinking – well, actually if I'm given another module to teach, I'll not be able to engage in that altruistic additional activities because actually that requires me to give up even more time on weekends and evenings. And I think – well, if the institution then is forcing us to do more and more with less and less resources, how can I keep altruistic and helpful at work?

Interestingly, whereas increased workload appeared to act as a barrier to engaging in OA, at the same time the said increased workload was reported to make OA among employees particularly important. This relatively contradictory situation is well illustrated by S-8 Kim:

> S-8 Kim: As colleagues working in the same kind of environment we recognize better than probably anybody from outside this environment how difficult it can be and how important it [OA] is. So I was having a bad time earlier in the week and somebody just dropped me an email "You didn't see yourself today, are you ok? Would like to chat?". And that happens a lot, I'm not the only person. And I think the reason it happens is because we understand the demands, the demands that are placed on us, and we can recognize them because we've been there

ourselves, when you're having a pinch point and you just need somebody to come and help you.

4.3.3.2. Organizational care

By organizational care employees referred to the perception that the organization supports its members and cares about their well-being. According to the participants of this study, a perception of whether their organization cares about them is an important factor affecting their willingness and frequency with which they engage in OA. This is well illustrated in the following example where it is suggested that it is the organizational policies and programmes that support employees and provide a person-centred approach that make it easier for employees to engage in OA at the Not-for-profit Organization:

> Interviewer: What do you think makes it easier to engage in such [altruistic] behaviours here?
>
> N-2 Gail: I think maybe it's the kind of policies that we have here. We promote things like work-life balance, we have an employee system programmes and stuff - a special leave policy, employee assistance programme, flexible working. So we have a lot of policies designed to help the employee - ultimately all that focus is on the well-being of an employee. And I suppose on the professional level that help exists but personally it extends to each other as well. It's the culture; I think the organization is focused on helping people so there is an ethos of an organization to provide a person-centred approach.

When asked the same question, members of the School also referred to the range of activities that the school organizes for its employees in order to make them believe they

can develop their abilities and in order to improve their well-being. The following extract from a conversation between a teacher and an administrative worker clearly illustrates this trend:

> S-9 Moira: I think the work we've done around mindset has made a difference to how thoughtful and kind people are to each other. It's being more emotionally intelligent and aware... isn't it? And that mindset stuff along with mindfulness and wellbeing things I think really helps.
>
> S-9 Zoe: Yes, we had a lot of training on that and books. And the whole wellbeing thing that has started this year... well, it's been on for longer but now they've really put emphasis on it. When we had a wellbeing day, the amount of staff that said 'I really needed that' was... everyone I spoke to, and I was the same, I really needed that. Yes, it was very good and those things help.

Supportive management was considered to be an integral aspect affecting the perceptions of organizational care. As reported in the following representative example, if individuals have supportive management it gives them more confidence to exert OA, even if it may result in mistakes:

> N-14 Mark: We do feel we've got the support from the top, we also are aware that if we make a mistake it's our responsibility but we do feel that we are supported. It gives us the confidence to do other stuff.

Similarly, it was implied that if individuals are having a supportive and understanding manager, they are not afraid to admit that they are having difficulties and, indeed, that they need help from others. If a manager demonstrates support, this will spread

throughout the organization and people will be more likely to be supportive towards each other in an altruistic way:

> S-2 Nicky: It's the management culture in the school. You have to feel that you can go to your manager and be honest about the difficulty that you're having without feeling that you're going to be judged for it. And I think that sort of underpins it, that if management will help and support and facilitate and encourage, then you will do that to each other as well.

Perceptions of organizational care (or perhaps lack of it) were also considered as an important factor influencing one's willingness to engage in OA at the Academic Institution. At the time of research, the organization was undergoing a restructure – another one, after a relatively unsuccessful restructure a few years before. In fact, both of these restructures were considered by the study's participants not to be employee-friendly and to be negative in consequences for them. They often emphasised how they felt "cheated", "fooled", or "screwed" by the organization – implying that the Academic Institution neither supports them nor cares about their well-being. Consequently, this was reported to have a negative influence on the frequency with which people engage in OA because they often do not feel like they should exert extra effort for the organization that fooled them or does not care about them. This is well illustrated in the conversation between the two administrative workers:

> A-1 Rob: So another restructure in a minute, some people are being told that their job is no longer what their job was, so there is less money. So they will just go 'Well I'm not going to help you, I will just do the least amount possible because you know you downgraded me, I don't want to be here'. They're just going to be more resentful because they've been

screwed around, they've lost the money, the job has changed… There's a lot of that going on. That's not healthy.

A-1 Anna: True, yeah.

A-1 Rob: Another thing, the biggest thing that's worrying people here is like... every three or four weeks they'll say all right, there's a meeting this week and we're going to tell you what next stage is. And then in two days you'll get an email 'oh no, we've cancelled the meeting, we've moved the meeting' and then you found the next day that it's not on for another 6 weeks. So people got suspicious, asking why you have suddenly moved it for 6 weeks. What's going on? And they won't tell you. Sometimes they will tell you but sometimes they won't.

A-1 Anna: So like you get those rumours and no-one really comes to you and says anything, doesn't confirm. So you hear those different rumours about restructuring and your job and you don't know what's going to happen and they deny everything and then out of a sudden six months later they say 'aw, actually yeah there is a restructure in place' ha-ha. So it's a bit like... Feels like you work for the university, give so much, but no-one really cares about you.

A-1 Rob: Yes, that's what I said. There's been a big change in that in terms of how the university cares about people. And they don't.

Participants' answers clearly suggest that feeling supported by one's organization and management may lead to increased willingness to engage in OA. On the other hand, if an organization does not seem to care about its employees, people tend to move away from exerting OA and be genuinely supportive of others without hidden agendas.

4.3.3.3. External pressures put on an organization

Closely related to the levels of workload are the external pressures put on an organization which were associated with a negative impact upon employees' ability to engage in OA. Such externally driven pressures may come from a government or the need to remain competitive as an organization. It was reported that they result in increased work intensification whereas individuals become insecure about their jobs and stressed about their future. In this situation, they are forced not to think about others, but rather to focus on their own benefits. This is well illustrated in the following example when one of the support workers, when asked if he can think of something that could discourage him or his colleagues from engagement in OA, explained how recent government cuts on welfare payments affect the job they are performing:

> N-14 Mark: We are very aware that the current government has decided to cut back on welfare payments and it threatens our jobs and it threatens our clients, and that's something which is causing us a known amount of stress, something that is constantly on our mind, causing us to think how we can more efficiently work with this client, how we can reduce the cost instead of focusing really on … other things.

External constraints put on an organization were particularly strongly emphasised by members of the School. A tendency was to compare the way the school has to be run at the moment to a business-like model due to "OFSTED changing the game every five minutes" (S-5 Karen). One of the teachers explained that if the pressure from the government continues and the school is run like a business, it is likely to significantly change the nature of the working environment in the organization and this could

ultimately result in less OA on the part of employees as they will start to look after their own interest only:

> S-6 Chuck: If that situation continues… this sort of model of running school like a business, you know being accountable cost-effective, etc. - if you're running it as a self-centred business, like streamlined version – what you're going to get are behaviours which are more self-centred where people go 'actually I'm just going to look out after myself' because at the end we need to feed our families and this is my career and to help everybody else... and the more people like that you have within a school, the less generalized helping you will get. Or teachers coming through will grow in an environment which is more self-centred and where people are more career driven, and then they will learn these behaviours and they will pass them on. So I think this idea of running schools like business, this sort of academy model, which lacks empathy may create a less collegiate, a less empathetic working environment that we currently have. It's one of those things, you can see why government wants to create this sort of business-like model, because it's more effective and it's marketized, etc. but in the same time I think it lacks the understanding that education is not a business. That's my understanding.

4.3.3.4. Organizational values

Interviews with participants revealed that organizational values that emphasize the importance of care and support are likely to encourage individuals to engage in OA more often. As reported by the study's participants, the organizational culture of both a Not-for-profit Organization and a School is characterized by very strong values of

caring and support and this facilitates OA among employees. In contrast, the organizational values of the Academic Institution seem not to put emphasis on care and support and were perceived by its members as making it more difficult to engage in OA. The following extract from a conversation between a manager and an administrative employee from a Not-for-profit Organization demonstrates how organizational values that put emphasis on caring could majorly influence OA. According to N-2 Gail and N-2 Betty, the ethos of the company and a particular type of people that are employed across all levels of organizational hierarchy are the aspects which contribute towards such values:

> N-2 Gail: I think culture is definitely a big part. Because here we're asking each other how we are, we talk about our personal lives, what's going on. So I think it comes down to the kind of company… culture is a big drive of altruistic behaviours. Even if you look at the kind of people that we recruit – we are talking about recruiting people with the right values. So we talk about compassion, empathy…
>
> N-2 Betty: Yes, you recruit someone who is a caring person because this should be their main drive to want to go to the care. So you would expect this kind of a person to want to help not only the service users – the clients, but also each other – colleagues.
>
> N-2 Gail: So I think that the people that we recruit and what we do – our ethos – ultimately promotes a culture of caring. I think that that just filters down really from top downwards. Yeah... I think that probably affects the whole sort of altruism.

The values of caring and support at the School were also reported to be influenced by the type of people recruited. In a way, in both of the investigated organizations OA appeared to be strongly related to the particular type of profession which, fundamentally, is based on the values of care:

> S-6 Chuck: And everybody at different stages of their carer has been through or has needed help with whatever you're asking. So I think there's like a mutual understanding, empathy, amongst teachers and anyone that works in this school, you're pitching together. I think when I was interviewed for my role here I described it as a collegiate environment. I don't know if it's the right expression but we see it as a profession rather than to make money. You're not in it to make money, you're not in it for yourself, you're in it to give, to work with children, to work with staff, and I think the reasons why people join this profession links to people being like that anyway. It's very rare that you come across people that are just focused on their career and won't help unless they benefit from it. I don't think so; I always thought people will bend over and backward to help.

The importance of organizational values of care and support that drive employees to be altruistic towards each other was evident across all levels of organizational hierarchy. This is succinctly summarized by one of the senior managers in the following representative quote:

> N-7 Bart: Here, one thing that is very clear is what the organization stands for and you know it's values and I think everybody from the front line staff to senior managers have that value system. So I think the

culture and the values of an organization would certainly drive people to be more willing to altruistically help others.

Strong values of caring and support were emphasised as an important aspect influencing the frequency with which employees engaged OA in both the Not-for-profit Organization and at the School. In contrast to the Academic Institution, participants' answers demonstrated that both in the Not-for-profit Organization and the School the formal organizational values were willingly adopted by an overwhelming majority of employees where the emphasis on the importance of altruistic care and support was evident in their everyday interactions and became almost an expectation. It was often insisted that "you would expect this kind of a person [who works here] to want to help" (N-2 Betty) and "nobody really comes to this job for financial rewards. (…) They just genuinely want to help people" (N-6 Mary). In contrast, those helping for purposes other than altruistic were often reported to "start being there for wrong reasons" (N-1 Laura) and "at the end of the day if you're doing something where you are going to gain something from it you know that it is wrong" (N-4 Mandy). The strong identification with organizational values of care and support at the Not-for-profit Organization and at the School was further demonstrated by describing those who do not engage in OA as losers as opposed to successful altruists – "successful adults are ones that have empathy, who have strong values and who share and look after each other. If you're not prepared to model that in front of the children then I think you're a loser" (S-6 Chuck). It was also common among research participants in both the Not-for-profit Organization and the School to claim that they do not understand those who choose not to engage in OA - "if we live in a world where people don't do that [OA], then something is seriously wrong. And I cannot understand the mentality when you wouldn't do that" (S-5 Donna).

The values displayed in the Academic Institution differ, to some extent, to what was reported as strong values of help and support in the two other investigated organizations. While it appears that, officially, the culture of the Academic Institution promotes values of caring and support, participants did not find such values as strong among all employees. The quote below demonstrates that while the culture of caring is evident, it does not dominate across the whole organization:

> A-5 Lisa: And that [altruistic helping] happens right across the school. With a lot of people - right across admin, academics, <whispering> not everybody. But admin academics, the professional staff, etc. there are... It's not really friendship but it is sort of a culture of help and support, let me put it that way. And it doesn't dominate but it's quite spread across the school, I think.

The above example illustrates how formal organizational values may differ to more informal values held by employees. In the instance of the Academic Institution, it appears that although the formal message sent by the organization is to be supportive, it did not become widely adopted by individual employees and for the situation to change, those who did not accept these values would need to leave the organization and be replaced with people displaying altruistic characteristics. As suggested by A-1 Anna, "I think the main thing here is about people, to change this culture of helping. You need to look at different people. Fire them all ha-ha. Bring the new ones". This implies that organizational values are inspired by individuals who work for a given organization and also draws our attention back to individual characteristics already discussed in section 4.3.1.

4.3.3.5. Organizational reward systems

The influence of organizational reward systems on the acts of OA was reported to be of importance only among the Academic Institution's employees who characterized their environment as highly pressurized and associated with high levels of competition ingrained in the nature of their reward systems. As argued by one of the academics, while the Academic Institution was, to some extent, able to preserve its culture of caring, the way it operates is now sending signals to employees that OA is not an important behaviour anymore:

> A-6 Beth: I think our school has been able to protect its helping culture to a degree but there are threats. From both kind of external systems that really make you focus on your research that's very selfish, to internal ones when they keep cutting that citizenship allowance and sending signals that it's not important.

The following conversation between the two lecturers further illustrates how organizational structures and reward systems that put an overwhelming emphasis on research outputs actively discourage people from engaging in OA because they need to focus on their own individual outcomes and therefore have not much time left for behaviours that do not directly benefit them:

> A-4 Kate: If you want to be a 4 by 4 research, you know four four star articles in five years which is the REF period, and you want excellent teaching score - you want portability basically so that you can go to another institution and be seen as a...
>
> A-4 Tamara: As an asset.

A-4 Kate: An asset. Or you want the promotion then yes, it could be, it could be potentially... if it's for example around volunteering activities that are not required of you but express helpfulness or concern for improving working conditions, then would that benefit you personally in longer term? Probably not. The criteria for promotion are very clear, the source of evidence you can give is very clear. So if you were very driven in that sense and you thought I need for example, I need to have 2 years at senior lectureship and 3 or 4 publications over a certain period in order to then apply for reader and that's what I'm going to focus on. It can then be that you decide 'I will not engage in anything that does not directly benefit me with those activities'.

A-4 Tamara: And if that schedule is taking 60-70 hours a week there's not much time for things in addition.

Whereas participants of this study did not perceive OA as governed by rewards, it appears that systems that remunerate only a narrow range of individualistic performance may discourage individuals from engaging in OA because in this way they will be able to avoid negative consequences that altruistic actions may have on their career.

4.3.3.6. Opportunities to interact

Finally, participants in all three investigated organizations reported that opportunities to interact have a significant impact on engagement in OA and other types of helping behaviours. As illustrated in the following example, individuals who work independently have fewer opportunities to help another person simply because of the isolated nature of their jobs:

N-2 Betty: If someone has a job that doesn't involve working as a team, it is more of a standalone role, then maybe they work more independently and don't really have that many opportunities to kind of help someone.

Consistently, it was suggested that shared spaces where individuals can interact are crucial when it comes to helping of any type since they create opportunities to interact and to ask or to be asked for support:

S-6 Chuck: And you hear of schools where they got rid of common staff rooms and they just have departmental rooms and teachers complain about being constantly stuck in front of their computer. Whereas if you're in that room, then at least you'll have that opportunity. People that go there are the people that get help and help others more than people who get locked up in front of their computers. So I think it is tremendously helpful to use shared spaces.

In a similar vein, research participants claimed that "regular-ish meetings or at least getting to know one another will certainly ease and make giving easier or more likely" (A-2 Steve). It was also further suggested that the office plan and simple acts of keeping one's office doors open allow for more interaction between employees which should subsequently make it easier to engage in OA or other types of helping behaviours:

A-15 Ellen: Some people are here more and some people chose not to be here as much, and you don't see everybody. We are closed door and corridors staff...

A-15 Danielle: Yes, it's one of the downsides, this building.

A-15 Ellen: At least they keep their doors open here. I've been somewhere where they didn't - they automatically had a shutter on them. And here you walk by and see door, and knock on and see if they're in. And the other place I worked at didn't have windows on the doors and the door shut automatically.

4.3.4. Conclusions

The analysis of participants' answers demonstrated that a variety of factors influences one's ability and willingness to engage in OA. At an individual level, these included other-orientation and the capacity for empathy as well as characteristics that could be modified by various organizational interventions – such as situational empathy, perceived levels of affective commitment, and one's position in an organizational hierarchy. At a relational level, it was demonstrated that the quality of relationships among employees, levels of general helpfulness, and past appreciation could also have an influence on one's engagement in OA. Finally, contextual characteristics were found to have perhaps the biggest scope of influence on OA. These included one's workload, perceptions of organizational care, external pressures put on an organization, organizational values and reward systems, as well as opportunities to interact. It was demonstrated that the strength of such different influencing factors can differ between the organizations such as their relative strength will be context-dependent. The summary of key findings reported in this section is illustrated in Figure 4.2. below. Participants' understanding of how engagement in OA is influenced by these individual, relational, and contextual factors will be further discussed in the light of the existing literature in the following chapter.

Figure 4.2.: Thematic network of participants' views on factors influencing engagement in Organizational Altruism
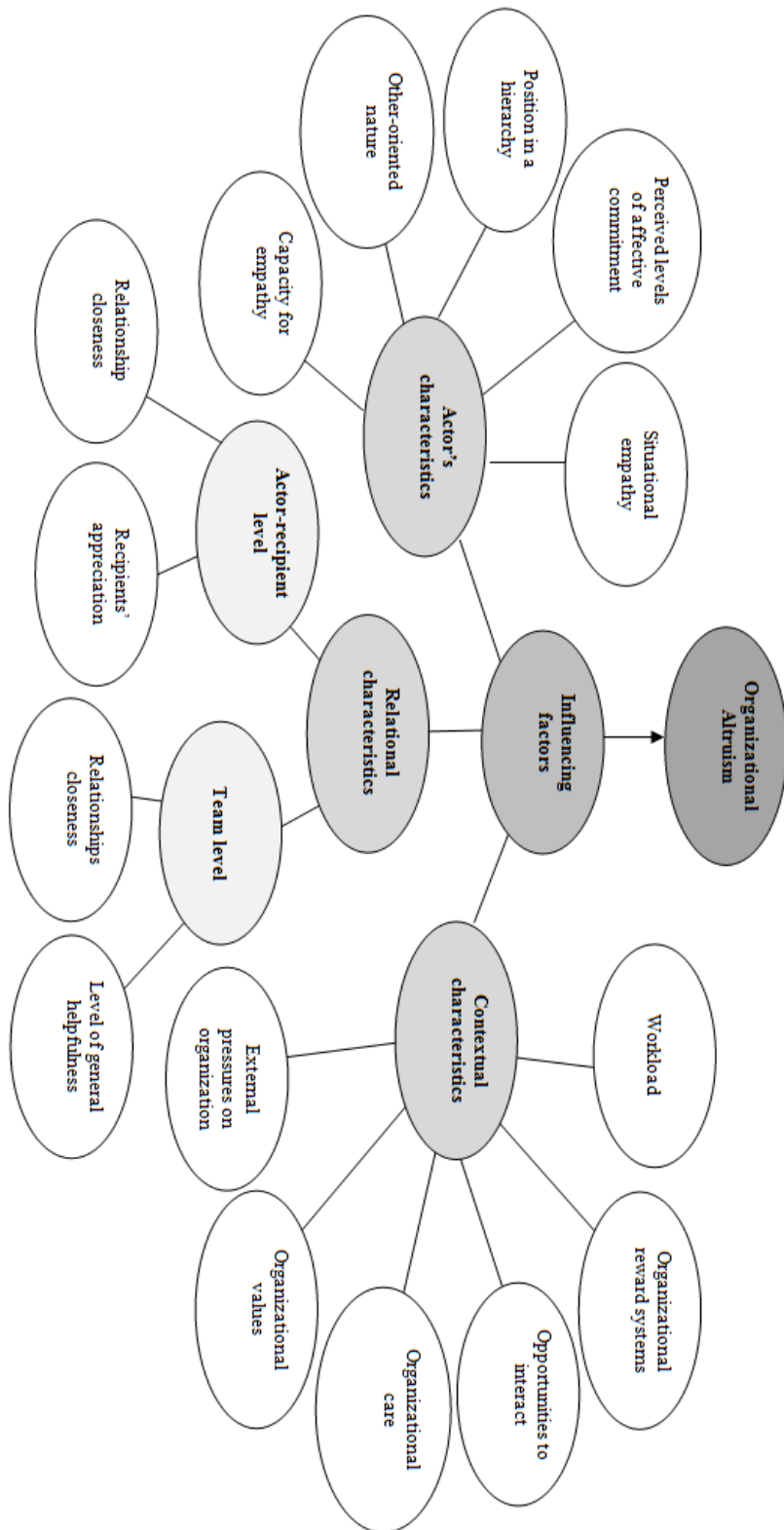
Source: Data analysis

4.4. Research Question 3: What are the consequences of organizational altruism according to employees in the investigated organizations?

This section presents an analysis of the consequences of OA as reported by the research participants. These include positive consequences at a team and an individual level as well as some negative consequences at an individual level. This information provides an answer to the third research question posed for this thesis and is summarized in a graphic model in the concluding section.

4.4.1. Positive consequences

OA was found to be a majorly positive phenomenon with a range of benefits for organizations and its members. At a team level, OA was reported to result in a comfortable working environment, close relationships, increased levels of helpfulness, and more effective performance. At an individual level, OA was associated with feeling good about oneself and with removing stress from individuals.

4.4.1.1. Team level

4.4.1.1.1. Comfortable working environment

It was commonly reported that OA among staff members or "the fact that we help people out because we simply do care about them and genuinely do that extra bit makes the team a nicer environment - a friendly and caring environment" (N-6 Imogen) or, as put by another research participant, "a positive working environment of which, at the end of the day, you are part of' (A-15 Danielle).

A further argument was made that in the conditions where employees are willingly engaging in OA individuals "feel happy about their work and are more positive about

it" (A-10 Theresa) and that "it [OA] makes life much nicer, more enjoyable" (A-14 Nathan). As demonstrated in the following representative example, this is because OA creates supportive environment where individuals are not afraid to seek help. They feel supported and valued because they know that others genuinely care about them:

> A-6 Beth: At the same time I'd hate to work for an organization that didn't have this altruistic bit. So it [altruism] does create the benefit of supportive environment where you feel that you can go to your colleagues when something happens and the colleagues can come to you - you're not alone. So there is an immediate benefit even to behaviour that seems not to generate intangible benefits for the person who is generally helpful.

The above example demonstrates reluctance to work in an environment where people are not helping others for altruistic reasons. This trend has been also evident in other interviews. In a representative example of S-9 Moira, she suggests she would "hate" a place of work where people are helping others only to achieve their own goals:

> S-9 Moira: I'd hate to work somewhere where everybody would be just out for themselves. I don't think it would be a nice place to work without the people who are willing to help without intending to gain something for themselves. I don't think it would be a nice environment at all.

In this vein, environments where people put value on the welfare of others were associated with places where "people feel happy and they are content, they feel like they are in an organization that cares, where people genuinely care for them" (N-2 Gail). It is such feelings of being valued associated with OA that were consistently reported to create a comfortable environment where people enjoy to work.

4.4.1.1.2. Close relationships

OA was also found to contribute towards building closer relationships at work because the attribution of altruistic intentions to helping behaviours was reported to make people feel valued by others and, as a result, to create closer bonds between individuals. This suggests that close relationships not only facilitate OA (see section 4.3.2.2.1.) but they are also one of the consequences of OA. It was commonly reported that OA "brings everybody together" (S-5 Donna) and creates an environment where individuals "know each other better and feel part of the team" (S-10 Ellie). The following representative quote illustrates how being compassionate and caring for others, which is inevitably an integral aspect of OA, results in forming close relationships based on trust:

> N-6 Mary: So I think that altruism forms basis of a good working relationship because everyone has got similar values in terms of care and compassion. And then, I think, the team who is dependent on each other and quite cohesive forms those trusting relationships.

The same point is succinctly illustrated in a comment made by A-11 Hayden who reported there was a positive relationship between OA among team members and the development of close and trusting bonds:

> A-11 Hayden: It [altruism] increases the sort of relationships, the bonds between individuals in the workplace. So that's a positive thing. If people are genuinely helping each other, then the bounds increase. It builds the social capital within the organization.

In direct opposition, as explained in the following representative example, if OA among staff members did not take place, work relationships would have been more strained:

S-8 Alice: I don't think we'd had the type of school that we do if we didn't genuinely help each other out. I think work relationships would feel a lot more strained (…) if people didn't help each other out, if they didn't care for each other.

4.4.1.1.3. Increased level of helpfulness

Another positive consequence of OA identified by research participants was an environment characterized by increased level of helpfulness. This, again, suggests that increased levels of general helpfulness not only facilitate OA behaviours (see section 4.3.2.2.2.) but they are also one of the consequences of OA. The study's participants reported that OA is, in a way, an "investment in the relationships" (N-2 Gail) where, as a consequence of OA, helping behaviours (in different forms) spread from person to person in an automatic way. This is further explained in the following representative example:

N-16 Nick: So you maybe have one person helping one person and it can then go that that person is helping another person. It will cross over so it becomes more of a culture and it's a positive thing. Obviously that does happen.

Similar suggestion was made by S-6 Rod who succinctly explained that if someone had been a recipient of OA then they are more likely to engage in such behaviours towards others:

S-6 Rod: And for someone who is being genuinely helped, they are then much more likely to then go and carry on that good will to someone else.

> And I know that's maybe a little bit too idealistic but that's the way I feel about it.

The link between OA and the consequent increased levels of helpfulness at workplace was further explained by S-9 Zoe who suggested that engagement in OA can easily become a standard and part of an organizational culture. By seeing others engaging in such behaviours, individuals are prepared to do the same:

> S-9 Zoe: I think it's a standard as well, if you seem to be doing it, it should surely encourage other people to do the same. So that should be a positive knock on effect. There's very few people in this school that will say no to helping - and I think that's because there are people who are willing to do it and other people see them doing this so they may think 'aw that must be the culture', it continues like that.

As suggested by one of the managers, because of this knock-on effect that one's OA has on other people engaging in helping behaviours, "you are never going to have a shortfall where you don't have people who can be a resource" (A-8 Emily). Importantly, participants regularly emphasised that increased levels of helpfulness were considered to be solely a consequence of their behaviours rather than the expectation – thus emphasizing the altruistic nature of these. This is particularly well illustrated in the conversation between the two academics who explained how engagement in OA spreads from person to person but, at the same time, they emphasized that it "does not matter" if a good deed is not paid forward:

> A-7 Liam: People helped us along the way.
>
> A-7 Norbert: And equally well we helped others. What goes around comes back around. And it doesn't matter if it doesn't.

A-7 Liam: It doesn't matter.

Similarly, it was relatively common among a whole sample to emphasise how "motivation to help [others] was not to receive help in a distant future – that is just a consequence" (N-13 Darren) and that "there's never any real form of expecting reciprocation ... there's always the opportunity, but there is no expectation. It's just giving to benefit them [others], really" (A-3 Steve).

4.4.1.1.4. Effective performance

Finally, what was commonly reported to be one of the advantages of OA as well as helping in general was more effective performance. It was concluded that OA among co-workers "improves the entire system" (A-1 Anna), "leads to service growth and improvement" (N-1 Tracy), and "keeps the ship floating" (S-5 Karen). This was comprehensively illustrated by S-7 Cynthia who explained that if one of the colleagues is experiencing problems and he or she receives no help then the problem escalates and affects more people in the organization – a problem which could be avoided if helping or OA did occur:

> S-7 Cynthia: I think the school is like an organism. It's like a living breathing thing. So I think if you don't help out when other member of staff is having problems, then that problem won't just disappear. So you can either try to deescalate it or the problem will escalate, and that will be a bigger problem, and somebody else's problem. So it's better to work together. It benefits everybody, including the students.

The same point was well illustrated in the following representative quote where N-11 Hannah clearly indicated that OA among employees results in improved productivity and the quality of services they provide:

> N-11 Hannah: I think work wise, there's a benefit that you are more productive if you work in that [altruistic] way, you get things done more quickly, more efficiently, and I think almost like for us it is slightly the quality of care, it goes up just because of the nature of what we do.

A conclusion can be made using an illustrative quote from one of the directors of the Not-for-profit Organization who, similarly to other members of this research, posited that OA among employees is associated with better quality of the services provided and the overall service growth:

> N-1 Tracy: I think good teams that work well together achieve better results and then you can see that the quality of care and support that they are providing will be better if they are supporting each other. That example of Darren's team… It always struck me as a team that went out of the way to help each other. And that's when the service grew and grew and grew and we got more and more business because they all helped each other and they went an extra mile.

4.4.1.2. Individual level

4.4.1.2.1. Good feeling

The most commonly reported consequence of OA at an individual level was that such acts make actors feel good about themselves. This is clearly illustrated in the following

example where two teachers talked about how helping others for altruistic reasons and seeing how their behaviours affect these people make them feel better:

S-8 Alice: Giving others this little thing makes you feel humble.

S-8 Kim: Well, yes. You do feel better if you help somebody. You do feel better.

S-8 Alice: Yes, I don't do it for myself. I do it for them. But I feel a bit like I'm glad they liked it and I'm glad they are... not appreciative but it's nice to see the smile on their face.

S-8 Kim: Yes that's true, I think you're right.

In the above representative example it is clear that participants feel good knowing that the need of the other person has been alleviated. Similarly, the following example also demonstrates that it is helping others specifically for altruistic reasons as opposed to being concerned with own benefits that results in feeling good about it:

N-4 Mandy: There's nothing better than doing something good for somebody and you knowing personally that you helped somebody. I like helping people just for helping people. It's a nice feeling, well, it's a lovely feeling.

The above examples all point out to the idea that feeling good about oneself is solely a consequence of OA and not one's initial intention. As reported by participants, people end up feeling good about themselves "because they care about other people they work with" (N-3 Todd) but "that's not the reason for why they do it" (N-7 Bart). The following extract from a conversation between two School employees clearly demonstrates that feeling good about oneself is an important consequence of OA but they do not engage in such behaviours for that reason:

S-10 Ivy: Well, I presume if you've got something to give that would make you feel better as a person or as a contributor. It doesn't always work out for best and sometimes we all mess up but I think it does make you - as a person - feel better about yourself even if you don't do it for that reason.

S-10 Ellie: That's the consequence, isn't it? That it does give you a little bit of self-esteem, gives you self-boost, it does make you feel good about yourself. Even if it is not your intention necessarily, that's what you get out of it.

Finally, it was emphasized that despite taking up time resources, OA makes individuals feel good because they can see how someone's situation is considerably improved. This is well illustrated in the following extract from a conversation between A-9 Henry and A-9 Fiona:

A-9 Henry: I suppose it makes you feel like you... it [OA] can't make you feel bad, can it? It makes you feel good about....

A-9 Fiona: Definitely, definitely. I think occasionally it may have a little twinge of 'that's an extra chunk of stuff that I ended up with', but that's just that poor time management where you can go 'oh gosh, I've got this thing to do'. But the actual helping feels good, the actual knowing that you made somebody's life appreciatively better - that's good.

4.4.1.2.2. Lower stress levels

OA was also reported to remove stress from an individual. As demonstrated in the following quote, personal stress is perceived to be a common aspect in modern

organizations whereas OA among staff is likely to reduce it and improve employees' well-being:

> A-14 Dorothy: There will be loads of positive consequences of acting more altruistically generally. I think that at organizational level, in terms of our well-being, and given we're in the context when they are trying to push us to be non-altruistic and independent, and all that staff that is pressured, I think if you could create a culture where we are more social beings... it could only have positive ramifications on everything, including our well-being.
>
> A-14 Nathan: Yes, I think on reduction of stress and anxiety. Something we haven't touched upon. But this is a big problem in modern organizational life - personal stress and anxiety.

The following extract from the conversation between S-2 Nicky and S-2 Kay further explains that OA can remove the pressure and stress from individuals and, as a consequence, people tend to cope better:

> S-2 Nicky: If the ladies at the front are very busy and they have lots on, you can just go there and it eases the pressure and stress for everybody… and it means that they can get out and do whatever they have to do with staff or students. So it releases things.
>
> S-2 Kay: Yes, it just makes things more relaxed. It's easier this way. You don't feel then that ... you don't even see that people are running around, knowing they've got lots to do, and which bit they are doing first. And all that stress that they don't need. So if you can lessen that it makes everybody's life easier, doesn't it? Everybody feels better and everybody

> copes better, and... they can help somebody else if needed. So it's
> certainly going round and round.

OA was also associated with removing stress from the management. As explained in the following illustrative example, seeing staff members helping each other out without hidden intentions releases the pressures management is under.

> N-8 Natalie: And when I see people helping each other, especially at work, I feel less stressed. It removes a lot of stress.
>
> N-8 Donna: Yes, last time when I saw my team helping each other out for really no other reason as to help and obviously to benefit the client in the end, I thought what a lovely team.
>
> N-8 Natalie: It's quite a relaxing situation to be in.

As demonstrated in the above example, given that seniors no longer need to feel stressed about teams' results, this also contributes towards creating a more comfortable working environment. This, in turn, was perceived as another positive consequence of OA that was already discussed in section 4.4.1.1.1.

4.4.2. Negative consequences

Despite the significant number of benefits of OA at both team as well as individual levels, participants also reported certain disadvantages associated with engaging in OA at an individual level. For the actor these may include emotional tension, being used by others, and problems with work, whereas for the recipient of OA - reduced progress.

4.4.2.1. Individual level

4.4.2.1.1. Emotional tension

Emotional tension was reported to be the most common negative consequence of OA. Because OA was often associated with strong feelings of concern and empathy towards others, participants suggested that they can end up being "sick and tired of being helpful" (A-9 Fiona) and that it "could be emotionally draining" (N-7 Louise). The following extract from the conversation between the two managers, for instance, comprehensively illustrates how OA which may involve taking on some significant responsibilities for others, can lead to getting emotionally fatigued:

> N-6 Mary: I think the consequences for me personally, the consequences of being so emotionally involved with staff is that I get emotionally fatigued. At some point I'm just like 'I can't do that crisis today or this week'. And you know I'll go home and I won't necessarily think about it or analyse it but I'll be just like 'Phew'. I'll be like fine, I'll just make a tea. But then I will think like 'Phew that was a lot'. And then I will probably manifest it like.... ha-ha.
>
> N-6 Imogen: Yes, especially when you take that responsibility for helping somebody. That's outside your normal role. It is something that will just play on your mind and you are taking responsibility for what is a big thing.

Another example that clearly represents a tendency to associate OA with emotional fatigue comes from A-15 Danielle who acknowledged that if people engage in OA too often, it could then result in too much stress for them and, eventually, it could negatively affect their life outside of work:

A-15 Danielle: You're taking on another people's stress sometimes. If it is a complex problem that you're helping somebody with or you're just there as a listening ear to somebody's issues, if it's quite emotional, quite deep, and quite distressing, you take that home, don't you? So it is very stressful. And it becomes part of your life as well as part of their life. And we're not trained counsellors. So if you're in that situation, you end up in this kind of counselling mode, with somebody, we're not trained to do that. And a trained counsellor will have ways of unloading the stuff put on them, we don't do that, it's not our job. But you still do take the stress on board. And if you're constantly helping everybody out and not getting on with your job, it's a very stressful place to be.

In addition, as succinctly summarized by S-11 Kevin, OA can be emotionally draining because, and as opposed to other types of help, it often involves empathising with people who are in difficult situations and therefore taking on the negative feelings:

S-11 Kevin: And you know, I'm giving my time, and I'm trying to help you but there's only so far my help can go. And you know, empathy doesn't always feel good. Because if you're empathising with success or you helped someone to achieve success, that's fine, but if you're trying to empathize with someone who is having a really bad time you know, there's no feel good factor to that.

Since the integral part of OA is to be concerned with the welfare of others, it has been suggested that being too concerned with recipients can make the actors forget about their own welfare in that process. In this way, OA may lead to emotional tension and feeling of burnout. This is well illustrated by S-9 Moira who, using an example of her

own OA towards the other member of staff for a prolonged period of time, demonstrated how this has put stress on her and eventually lead to health-related problems:

> S-9 Moira: Well, the person was struggling because they couldn't do the job anymore, because it's changed so much in the past few years, that this person couldn't… or wasn't willing to do the job. So you know, she was massively struggling. So you did it because you didn't want her to... you know... completely go under. Because you don't want to see that happen to anybody. But in the back of your mind there was always like 'I'm not doing this again', and this has been going on for 2 years. So I supported her to literally last day that she was at school, and I got ill of that. Literally, I was diagnosed with an illness. So because of that, because it gave me so much stress, because I was doing two teachers' workloads, so that was a very negative consequence. But in your head, you couldn't not do it. I couldn't let that person be let down on a competency route. Because I watched somebody else going through a competency route on my floor and it is horrendous. It is like.... changes that person's life. It's just an awful experience, and I was like 'No, I can't let that person go through that.' So I was doing that, to stop that, but I was making myself literally ill in the same time. So it can be negative in consequences.

4.4.2.1.2. Being used

It was also reported that people who engage in OA may end up being used by management or their colleagues because they are usually known for their good will.

Whereas this consequence was not common in the Not-for-profit Organization, it was reported to be an important aspect in the School and at the Academic Institution. The following extract from a conversation between A-9 Fiona and A-9 Henry demonstrates that it is usually people who are most willing to help across different situations that are being consistently relied upon by others while their OA becomes almost expected by colleagues:

> A-9 Fiona: I've noticed some colleagues who are genuinely most quick to help… people expect that they will always help.
>
> A-9 Henry: That's a good point actually.
>
> A-9 Fiona: And they end up getting slightly put upon.
>
> A-9 Henry: Yes, and the minute you say 'Sorry, I can't do it', they are like 'WHAT!?'.
>
> A-9 Fiona: Yes, yes, exactly!
>
> A-9 Henry: Whereas someone who hardly ever helps suddenly one day…
>
> A-9 Fiona: Exactly, exactly, it's that expectation and delivery kind of mismatch. If people expect very little from you they will be very grateful whereas if they expect the word of you and you deliver half of the world but not the whole thing, they'll be like … ummm.

The same argument was comprehensively illustrated in the conversation between the School employees who posited that those individuals who are most likely to engage in OA end up being taken advantage of. This is because other people know that they will help them almost unconditionally out of their concern for the eventual outcomes for students:

S-9 Moira: It's taking advantage. Because it's well known that in this school there are supportive staff and there are certain people who completely take advantage of that one – who will do things - because that person knows well that the other person will do it and that person will completely get away with it – so they just literally sit back and everybody else picks up the pieces. And there's probably more than one person like that.

S-9 Zoe: And also take the credit for that. I think there are people maybe in positions of responsibility who will allow people underneath them to do things because these people are doers, these people are doers and they do it for children because they want to be right.

In addition, it was reported that people who are known to engage in OA on regular basis are taken advantage of not only by management but also by government. It was reported that a tendency is to over-rely on the employees' good will and a genuine interest in the students. In addition, because people who engage in OA are so concerned with the welfare of the recipients, they often continue with their actions even though they are aware they are used by others:

S-6 Chuck: But so much of teaching education is based on stuff that you're not paid for. And I think sometimes it does end up taken advantage of by government or anyone in the senior position. They over-rely on reciprocal nature of teaching. You know, you'll just do it – teachers will never let the kids down. Therefore there's no real threat that they can make like in Canada – where the teachers juts stopped going to schools and they had this huge strike that lasted nearly a year. I don't

know how many teachers would be prepared to do this. You know strike is like a really last resource and they hate doing it and it causes them endless amounts of heartache... But I think at the end of the day we will always do what's in the best interest of the kids, which means we will not let them down, which means we will work together, regardless of how we are treated by other organizations, and public perceptions, and public opinion. And I think that's a strength but it also does make us a little bit vulnerable to people over-relying on our good will.

S-6 Rod: I agree with that. Within that team atmosphere you do see at times people's good will gets exploited because they are always relied on to do things which they are not necessarily employed to do.

Playing on the genuine interest of people who show concern for others and using it for own purposes may ultimately lead to the perception of a person who engages in OA as someone who is weak. Indeed, it was reported that they may end up being perceived by others as "mugs" (A-8 Hollie), "pushovers" or as being "soft" (S-16 Rosie) because they are ready to do anything for others. This was particularly comprehensively illustrated by one of the administrative workers:

A-13 Diane: I think we generally are very helpful people and sometimes there are some people who, I feel, that they think I'm maybe… I'm a little bit of a pushover – 'Aw she will do anything'.

4.4.2.1.3. Problems with own work

As reported by the study's participants, engaging in OA can also lead to problems with the actor's own workload. It was commonly suggested that "when you're helping someone, your things might kind of be pushed at one side while helping the other

person" (N-12 Chloe) and "the biggest consequence if you put yourself out and help somebody is that you're increasing your workload so increasing the pressure on yourself" (S-8 Kim). This is particularly specific to altruistic behaviours since OA is more instinctive and people who exert OA are often so preoccupied with the recipients' welfare to the extent that they do not tend to think about the consequences for themselves. In this way, they often agree or offer to do something without realizing how it may affect their own work. This is comprehensively illustrated in the following example where one of the senior managers suggests she should be mindful of the potential impact before agreeing to help every time she is asked to do something:

> N-16 Becky: Thinking on the other side, on some more negative consequences [of OA], potentially… I know like for me I would just instinctively want of help someone and sometimes I have to... you know it's about stepping back and taking account of the practicalities ... and reminding myself if I can't do something, if I can't help, it's ok. And obviously I would explain to that person why I can't help. But... yeah… a potential consequence could be that if I did, I would be behind my work, stressed, etc. etc. So, I mean, within our roles, well within any roles, you need to be mindful of potential impact on yourself I believe.

A-15 Danielle further explained how helping out with something small can develop into a more serious and time-demanding activity which, then, may have a negative impact on her own work:

> A-15 Danielle: Sometimes it [engaging in OA] makes you think 'Oh no! What have I let myself in for?'. When something you think is small becomes bigger. So it's not all nicey nicey, I'm lovely because I helped

somebody out. I don't think... personally I wouldn't even think about that. I wouldn't think I'm a lovely person, look at me, my hair looks shiny. It never occurs to you. It's more... when you make a bad decision and you get mired in something that becomes quite major and sometimes you may think I've got to stick with this because somebody needs my help but sometimes you just think 'Oh no, I haven't got the time for this'. So there is sometimes a negative side to that as well.

OA was perceived to have a negative effect on one's own work particularly when it overextended and there was too much of OA. This is succinctly illustrated by the directors of the Not-for-profit Organization who clearly suggested that there needs to be the right balance of OA if it is to be effective:

> N-1 Laura: I think that when altruism overextends that's when things can go wrong. There needs to be a balance of... The people, first of all, must be doing their jobs, because that's what we're here for.
> N-1 Tracy: Yes, yes.
> N-1 Laura: And if we're only here for each other and altruism takes over a team, then we've lost the plot.
> N-1 Tracy: Yes.

4.4.2.1.4. Reduced progress

A final aspect relating to the potential negative impact of OA is the lack of progress for a recipient of OA. It was reported by employees from both the Not-for-profit Organization and the School that because of the nature of the caring environment in which they work, people often constantly support others and therefore recipients of OA are likely to become dependent on others and less likely to learn how to do certain tasks

by themselves. This trend is comprehensively illustrated by the two senior members of the Not-for-profit Organization:

> N-7 Louise: I think possibly one downside ... well it kind of depends on what somebody does, because if somebody is perhaps struggling and that goes on for a long time and you constantly have to help and support that person to do the job, then sometimes you will be just propping a person up that you shouldn't be propping up. Because they actually can't do the job and that would perhaps become quite difficult to do it, definitely.
>
> N-7 Bart: Yes.
>
> N-7 Louise: Because it's clear that they are really struggling and propping them up continually isn't going to do any good because what if you suddenly go?
>
> N-7 Bart: Yes, and I think we prop people up more than other organizations. If you work in a private sector, I think you don't get as many chances as you do here. I think that comes back to what you are saying – we are far more willing to help people than some other companies.

The same point was made by one of the senior School members who gave a specific example of an individual who was constantly being helped by others which, eventually, did not allow that person to progress and learn how to do their job effectively on their own. Similarly to the example used above, S-9 Moira emphasised that it is the nature of the job that had an influence on constantly supporting that person:

> S-9 Moira: I think it [OA] can be possibly even negative. I'm thinking in my department, a member of staff left over Christmas and that person

was given so much help that actually it got to the point where we were carrying this person. So the consequences of that were negative. And we were doing it because that's the nature of the job. Because at the end of the day, kids go to that person's class losing out. So we had to over-compensate it, plan lessons, cover when they were not in, support in marking their works. And you do it for the greater good, but you're not helping that person as an individual...

As suggested by one of the senior managers from the Not-for-profit Organization, it is important not to create a dependency between somebody who is experiencing problems and those who altruistically support that person. However, this may be particularly difficult since - in the case of OA - the actors' concern for the welfare of the other may be too strong to think more rationally and to stop exerting help. He gave an example when the person who was engaging in OA towards a particular member of staff was not able step away and let the person who was struggling learn to do the job by himself simply because of too much concern for that other person. Thus, he implied that it is OA in particular that is prone to result in reduced progress of the person perceived to be in need:

> N-16 Nick: It [OA] should not be creating a dependency between ... I suppose if someone gets almost... I'm trying to think... there was somebody who struggled with some form of support planning and basically there was another worker who supported him a lot to do these support plans. And basically that kept going. And it was almost like... it was always that person doing it for him and… it was done but actually the person offering help wasn't able to step away and say 'OK, you

know it now, you can do it yourself'. And so he became dependent...

which isn't necessarily healthy.

4.4.3. Conclusions

The findings of this study demonstrated that the impact of OA on organizational stakeholders can be varied. On the one hand, OA was found to contribute towards a more comfortable working environment, close relationships among employees, increased levels of helpfulness, more effective performance, reduced levels of stress as well as more positive affect. However, on the negative side, OA was also associated with increased emotional tension, ending up being used by others, problems with own work, and – although less frequently - reduced progress of recipients of OA. It is important to note that these negative consequences associated with OA were found only at an individual level thus implying that OA is generally beneficial for teams. The consequences of engagement in OA, as reported by research participants, are illustrated in Figure 4.3. Participants' understanding of the consequences of OA will be further discussed in the light of the existing literature in the following chapter.

Figure 4.3.: Thematic network of participants' views on the consequences of Organizational Altruism
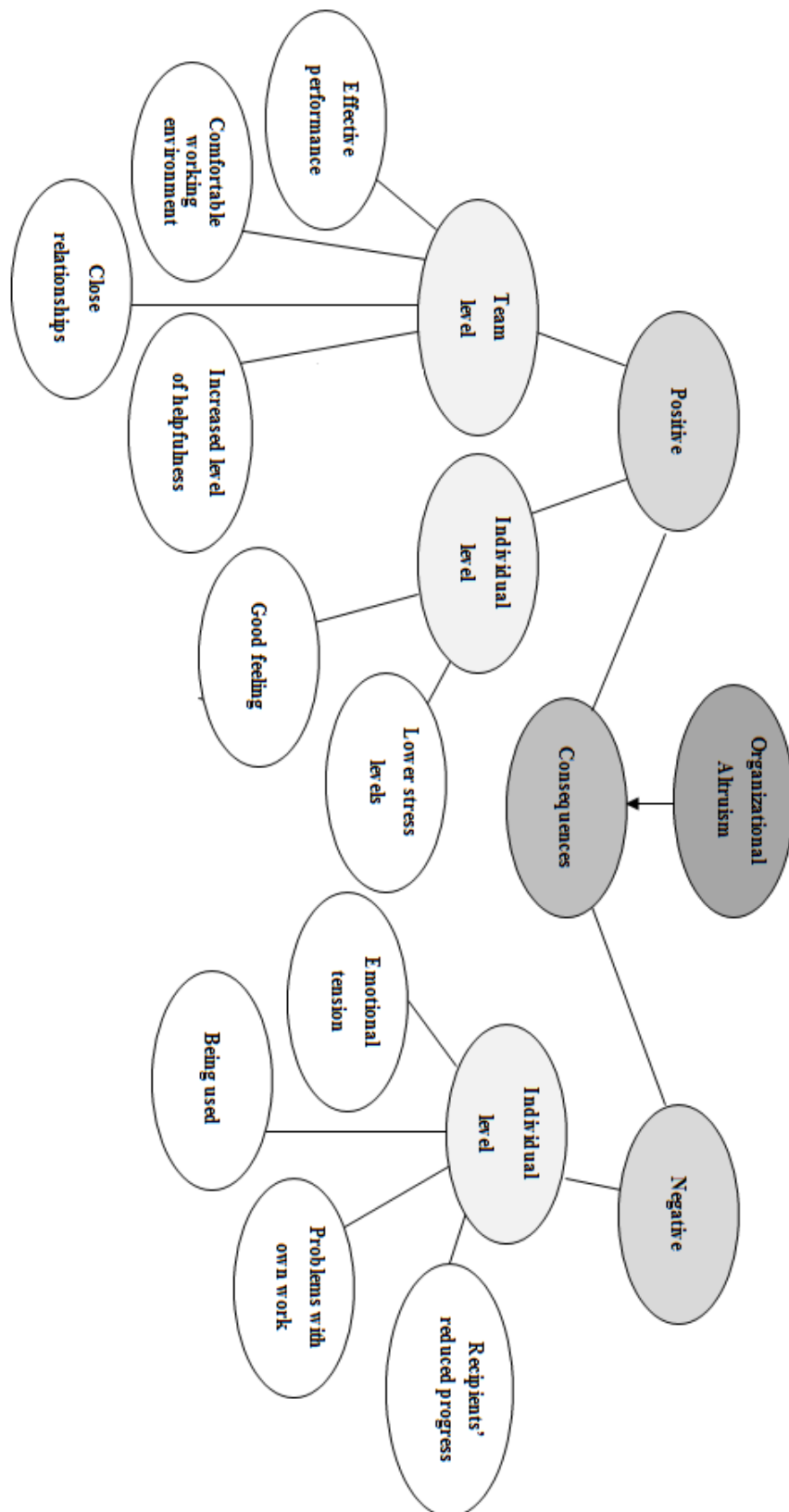
Source: Data analysis

4.5. Chapter conclusions

Following an in-depth exploration of the perceptions of OA held by employees from three organizations (Not-for-profit Organization, School, Academic Institution), this chapter shed more light on the phenomenon of OA, its nature, influencing factors, and consequences. This practice provided answers to the research questions posed for this thesis. The following chapter will discuss these findings in the light of the existing literature on the topic to provide greater insights into what they mean within the context of previous research and to understand how theory in the area of OA may be extended.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction

The analysis of the findings presented in the previous chapter addressed the three research questions posed for this thesis to broaden our overall understanding of the phenomenon of OA. Accordingly, this chapter discusses these findings in the light of the existing literature and provides insights into how the reported research enhances and enriches the current stock of knowledge so that the theory in this area may be extended.

5.2. Research findings in the light of existing research

This section discusses the findings reported in this study and considers these in light of contemporary research. The structure of this section reflects the order in which these findings appeared in the previous chapter - the nature of OA is discussed first, factors which influence engagement in OA are discussed second, and the consequences of OA are discussed third.

5.2.1. The nature of OA

It was identified in Chapter 4 (4.2.) how participants of this study perceived the nature of OA. Its discretionary nature was emphasised and it was demonstrated that it is motivated by concern for others and does not involve expecting returns. In terms of its dimensions, it was further posited that OA can vary based on who the target is, how much sacrifice it involves, whether it is task- or person-oriented, and if it is reactive or proactive. These characteristics and dimensions of OA are now discussed in relation to the existing literature on the topic

5.2.1.1. Key characteristics

The fact that the actor is motivated by concern for other organizational recipient and is not preoccupied with expectations of direct reciprocity or self-benefits constitutes a particularly important element of the perceptions of OA. These two aspects delineate the other-oriented nature of such behaviours and differentiate them from other types of helping at work where such a requirement is not mandatory (e.g., Grant and Mayer, 2009; Koopman et al., 2016; Organ et al., 2006; Rioux and Penner, 2001). This finding further implies that OA is narrower in scope than more general citizenship behaviours which can be, and often are, guided by expectations of returns or self-benefits (e.g., Bourdage et al., 2012; Bowler et al., 2010; Cheung et al., 2014; Farrell and Finkelstein, 2011; Kim et al., 2013; Lavelle, 2010; Rioux and Penner, 2001). This in turn means that OA cannot always be equated with OCBs. In instances where individuals engage in citizenship behaviours in order to satisfy personal needs or enhance their image at work (e.g., Bolino, 1999; Flynn et al., 2006; Maneotis et al., 2014), their behaviours cannot be considered as OA.

At the same time, it should be acknowledged participants' answers indicated that behaviours placed within wider processes of generalized exchange could be associated with other-oriented, altruistic concerns. The same view is also reflected in the work of Hsiung et al. (2012, p.260) who suggested that generalized reciprocity "helps people transcend self-serving motivations" and Clarkson (2014, p.265) who added that it "seems more altruistic in its nature, insofar as there is no real tracking of the exact value of the exchange (…) [and it] does not preclude the situation where reciprocation does not occur". In a similar vein, Korsgaard et al. (2010) argued that the internalized moral norm to reciprocate does not involve the likelihood of future returns and is more of a

heuristic process (automatic and subconscious) as opposed to the rational calculations associated with expectations of reciprocity.

In addition, the results of this study demonstrated that in order to be considered as OA, an act needs to involve a degree of own discretion as opposed to simply being told what to do. This idea reflects the basic assumptions behind Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Ryan and Deci, 2000) which posits that felt autonomy results in higher internalized motivation to perform a given task (Grant, 2008; Grant and Berg, 2012; Sheldon et al., 2003). The finding that OA is perceived to be solely a discretionary type of behaviour further demonstrates that OA is narrower in scope than more general OCBs which migrated "from discretionary to required" (Turnipseed and Wilson, 2009, p.201) and can stem either from personal values and initiatives or from external pressures or rewards. In fact, a growing body of research suggests that compulsory OCB is prevalent in organizations (e.g., Vigoda-Gadot, 2006; 2007; Zhao et al., 2014) and could result in increased levels of stress, negligence, intention to quit, and even work-family conflict (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; Bolino et al., 2013).

At the same time, it should be acknowledged that participants' responses demonstrated that discretion levels are different to role breadth – i.e., employees may feel that behaviours considered as in-role entail high levels of discretion and they could have an impression that they have little choice in whether to perform behaviours that fall outside the role boundaries. This finding reinforces scholarly calls to differentiate between the idea of role breadth and discretion levels as they constitute two distinct constructs (McAllister et al., 2007; Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

In addition, the fact that in this research OA, in most instances, was considered as falling outside one's job description is consistent with a general view in the literature

that considers OA as an extra-role behaviour (e.g., Hui et al., 2015). However, a considerable number of participants of this study also perceived OA as in-role - as long as it was driven by concern for others. Those relative inconsistencies in participants' perceptions as to whether OA could be perceived as in-role or needs to fall outside one's job responsibilities may be related to the differences in perceived job breadth. This idea was examined by Morrison (1994) who demonstrated that job boundaries are subject to employee interpretation and employees with the same job descriptions may perceive their responsibilities differently. The findings of this research add further support to these views and are largely in line with some significant developments in that area which suggest that individuals can hold different perceptions on their role breadth (Kamdar et al., 2006; McAllister et al., 2007; Parker, 2000; Parker et al., 1997; Vey and Campbell, 2004). In addition, the perception of OA as extra-role but, in some instances, also as in-role acts challenges a predominant tendency to conceptualize OA solely as extra-role behaviours that go beyond prescribed job descriptions and one's call of duty (e.g., Bolino and Turnley, 2003; Turnipseed and Rassuli, 2005; Van Dyne et al., 1995).

Having clearly indicated what the key characteristics of OA are, a conclusion can be made that participants of the study regularly engage in behaviours intended to benefit others without expectation of rewards for themselves or framing such behaviours in direct reciprocal exchanges. This appears to be particularly important in the light of the dominating tendency among scholars to accept at face value that humans' innate propensity is to be concerned with safeguarding and improving their own self-interests (for a discussion see: Grant and Patil, 2012; Haynes et al., 2015). Although attributions of motives or intentions may not always be correct (see, for instance, Halbesleben et al., 2010), it is promising to empirically demonstrate that some individuals are willing to engage in other-oriented behaviours and are not doing it for their own gain - therefore

adding an argument against a view that altruism in business is an oxymoron (see also: Sosik et al., 2009).

5.2.1.2. Dimensions

First, in terms of the beneficiaries of OA, participants emphasised that they engage in OA in order to benefit the other colleague or, through directly helping a colleague, they aim to benefit the clients or the organization (see: Figure 5.1.). Hence, the conceptualization of OA that emerged as a result of this research differs to the initial definition of OA tentatively employed in Chapter 2 where only a specific individual was considered to be a recipient of OA and also from the overall tendency in the existing literature to associate the beneficiaries of OA only with specific persons (e.g., Carmeli, 2005; Farh et al., 1990; Glomb et al., 2011; Smith et al., 1983) who are helped particularly in "face-to-face situations" (Loi et al., 2011, p.672).

Figure 5.1.: Intended beneficiaries of Organizational Altruism
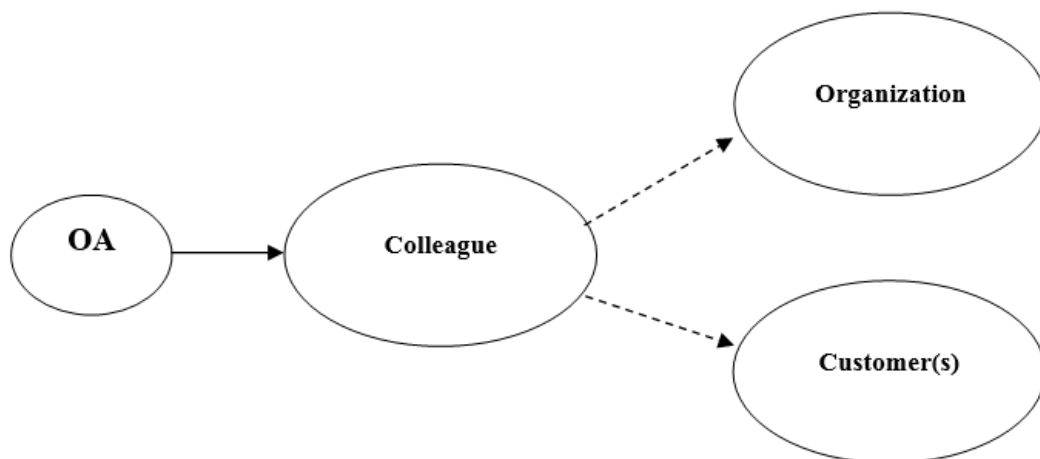
Source: Data analysis

Given a significant amount of research demonstrating that individuals are capable of altruistic actions towards not only people they care about but also strangers (Bierhoff et

al., 1991; Clary and Snyder, 1991; Oliner, 2002), it appears rational that one may engage in OA to ultimately benefit the client – especially if they developed close bonds or if the actor demonstrates emotional attachment to the work he/she is performing. However, the question of whether employees can be altruistic toward the non-living entity such as their organization is more complex. Whereas it has been commonly suggested that individuals will often participate in OCBs due to organizational concern (Rioux and Penner, 2001), this tends to be placed within the context of a more straightforward social exchange where employees extend extra effort as means of reciprocating the positive treatment they receive from their organization (Lapierre and Hackett, 2007). In contrast, the reported in this thesis findings draw attention to benefiting one's organization without considering this as a reciprocal exchange. Interestingly, the research conducted by Lemmon and Wayne (2015) demonstrated that since individuals can personify the organization, they can take the organization's perspective and develop feelings of compassion and sympathy to its needs and values. The findings of the reported in this thesis research, therefore, appear to be in line with Lemmon and Wayne's (2015) arguments. Not only was it demonstrated that individuals are capable of developing concern for organization as a whole, but also that this concern can, and often does, lead to OA ultimately directed at benefiting the organization.

Relating to the self-sacrifice criterion, in the existing literature cost appears to be a particularly important aspect present in the economic and behavioural definitions of altruism that see it as "costly acts that confer economic benefits on other individuals" (Fehr and Fischbacher, 2003, p.785). Interestingly, when Grant and Berry (2011, p.77) wanted to demonstrate the difference between prosocial motivation and altruism, they posited that "prosocial motivation can involve, but should not necessarily be equated with altruism; it refers to a concern for others, not a concern for others at the expense of

self-interest", thus emphasising the critical role of self-sacrifice criterion that should characterize altruism. This is also consistent with other scholars who consider OA as acts that incur a considerable cost as a result of one's actions (e.g., Furnham et al., 2016) and who evaluate OA based on the extent to which it decreases the actor's immediate benefits (for further discussion see: Li et al., 2014). However, given that in this research participants paid little attention to the costs associated with OA and they talked about a range of behaviours including simple acts of kindness that do not require much effort on the part of the actor to more resource-consuming activities, the findings of this study demonstrated that OA can be placed along a continuum characterized by different levels of self-sacrifice involved. While the results of the study chime with the existing tendency in the literature to accept that those who altruistically support others are prepared to sacrifice their own energy and time perhaps more than others (see also: Meglino and Korsgaard, 2004; Bergeron et al., 2013; Bolino and Turnley, 2005; Moon et al., 2008), a conclusion can be made that OA consists of high-sacrificial acts and those that require less resources.

The findings of this research further demonstrate that OA can take both reactive and proactive forms. Put simply, it was found that an act is considered as altruistic no matter if it is initiated by the actor or whether it is more passive and occurs as a consequence of being asked for help. These findings deviate from the assumptions made by Spitzmuller and Van Dyne (2013) in their influential work on helping behaviours, where they made an argument that while reactive help is often associated with altruistic motives, proactive help would be predominantly based on fulfilling personal needs such as reputational benefits, self-development, well-being, or favourable self-evaluations. Contrary to this, the reported in this thesis research demonstrated that once individuals perceive somebody else to be in need and they are concerned with their welfare, they

are usually prepared to altruistically help that person in order to alleviate their need and not to gain benefits for oneself.

Further attention should also be drawn to scholars increasingly often emphasising the importance of proactive behaviours as critical determinants of organizational success (e.g., Bergeron et al., 2014; Crant, 2000; Grant et al., 2009; Parker et al., 2006; Parker and Collins, 2010; Rank et al., 2007). However, the results from this study demonstrated that reactive behaviours are as important as those behaviours where one actively seeks opportunities for improving things and therefore their potential impact on organizations should not be underestimated.

It was also demonstrated that OA can be conceptualized as addressing both task- and person-focused needs. The former one is more likely to involve practical assistance with the resolution of work-related problems and to deal with organization-based issues, whereas the latter to entail emotional support or solving problems of a more personal nature and is often grounded in friendships and social support. This deviates from the existing conceptualizations of OA which characterize it as behaviour concerned only with work-related problems (Organ, 1988; see also: Guinot et al., 2015; Heilman and Chen, 2005; Loi et al., 2011).

5.2.2. Factors influencing OA

This section discusses the findings presented in Chapter 4 (4.3.) concerning the factors which influence engagement in OA in the light of existing literature on the topic. The discussion is split into four sections. The first three sections reflect the three groups of factors identified as of importance in the data collection process: individual, relational, and contextual. The final section discusses external influences which are further

considered as of importance due to the nature of the environment within which the examined cases were embedded.

5.2.2.1. Individual

The analysis of interview data demonstrated that individual-level factors influencing engagement in OA include the individual's nature, capacity for empathy, situational empathy, perceived levels of affective commitment, and a position in an organizational hierarchy.

The finding that people with certain qualities are more likely to engage in OA reflects the view in the existing literature that those characterised with certain personal traits are more likely to behave altruistically over a diverse range of situations (Bierhoff et al., 1991; Eisenberg et al., 1989; Oliner and Oliner, 1988; Rushton et al., 1986; Staub, 1974). More specifically, organizational scholars found across a number of studies that helping behaviours at work are often predicted by traits and values such as concern for others and empathy (Joireman et al., 2006; Kamdar et al., 2006; McNeely and Meglino, 1994; Settoon and Mossholder, 2002), prosocial values (Grant, 2008; Rioux and Penner, 2001), or other-orientation (Meglino and Korsgaard, 2004). In a similar vein, in this research the perceptions of other-oriented nature and capacity for empathy were reported to facilitate engagement in OA. It was commonly suggested that individuals who seem to be more other-oriented and who are able to feel empathy are more likely to be concerned with the welfare of others and pay attention to their needs. Being concerned with the needs and welfare of others are, in turn, essential components of OA. By the same token, it should be more instinctive for individuals who appear to be less able to feel empathy and whose disposition seems to be less focused on others not

to be concerned with the needs of those around and/or to deny personal responsibility for intervention (see also: Kamdar et al., 2006)

The findings that the capacity to feel empathy can facilitate engagement in OA suggests that situational feelings of empathy experienced by individuals must play an important role in the processes associated with OA. Indeed, participants of the study acknowledged that situational empathy towards an organizational recipient helps them to connect the awareness of the other's need to an altruistic concern to alleviate this need and therefore it further facilitates engagement in OA. To put it in the words of Mayselles (2016, p.35), by giving individuals a stake in the welfare of others empathy can "provide the proximal bases for the emergence of motivation to care". Consequently, the findings of this research appear to be consistent with the empathy-altruism hypothesis widely researched by social psychologists (for reviews see: Batson, 2011; Dovidio et al., 2006; Eisenberg and Miller, 1987) - which posits that feelings of empathy will lead to an altruistic concern to reduce the need of other - and some further research conducted by organizational scholars who found that high levels of empathy resulted in placing the well-being of others above anything else (Mencl and May, 2009), in being less willing to hurt others (Cohen, 2010), and less likely to engage in calculative strategies focused on profits (Wang and Murnighan, 2011).

Perceived levels of affective commitment - i.e., how strong individuals seem to be emotionally attached to the work they perform and how strong they identify with the organizational goals (Chênevert et al., 2015; Meyer and Allen, 1991) were reported as another aspect at an individual level that could affect engagement in OA. In line with the existing empirical evidence (Astakhova, 2015; Colbert et al., 2016; Macey and Schneider, 2008), in this research it was demonstrated that behaviourally engaged

individuals who seem to take enjoyment in their work are more likely to direct their efforts to doing things that are not required of them. Whereas organizational research usually relates affective commitment to employees' OCBs (Liu, 2009; Shore et al., 1995), the findings of this research draw attention to the relation between the perceived levels of affective commitment and OA specifically. This is because it appeared that the stronger the perceived emotional attachment to the organization and one's work, the more respondents seemed to be concerned with the welfare of organizational stakeholders and did not appear to perceive helping behaviours as an obligation or an opportunity for self-benefits. This idea is also succinctly summarized by Birkinshaw et al. (2014, p.49) who suggested that the sense of purpose transcends self-benefits such as making money – "It is about people coming together to do something they believe in and allowing profit to follow as a consequence, rather than as an end in itself".

One's position in an organizational hierarchy was reported as another aspect influencing individuals' willingness and ability to engage in OA. More specifically, those in top positions had to constantly think about the professional consequences of their OA and hence they were not always able to follow their altruistic desires and concern for others. Rather, they had to carefully calculate benefits and drawbacks of each decision made – therefore reducing the altruistic component of their helping behaviours. These findings appear surprising given most recent theorizing which clearly suggests that "power reveals" and those in top positions have freedom and resources to express their values such as altruistic behaviours (Bolino and Grant, 2016, p.31). Moreover, high levels of autonomy in one's job have been usually positively associated with employees' citizenship behaviours (Chen and Chiu, 2009; Van Dyne et al., 1994) and increased task control was reported to equip individuals with confidence to perform proactive, interpersonal tasks (Axtell and Parker, 2003). While such conditions should enable

individuals to perform OA, the findings of this research demonstrate it may not necessarily be the case and those holding top positions in an organizational hierarchy may face serious barriers that prevent them from engaging in OA.

5.2.2.2. Relational

This research found that various aspects of relationships at work will be likely to influence one's engagement in OA and these include relationship closeness between the actor and the potential beneficiary and generally within a team, levels of general helpfulness experienced by participants in their environments, and the recipients' appreciation for support received in the past. In fact, aspects relating to workplace relationships have played an integral role in organizational science for decades (McKnight et al., 1988; Morrison, 2002; Ragins and Dutton, 2007; Sluss and Ashforth, 2007) and their influence on individual outcomes has been widely acknowledged (Dutton and Heaphy, 2003; Gittell et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2008; Morrison, 2002; Ragins et al., 2000; Settoon and Mossholder, 2002). The reported research adds further evidence to the existing claims in this area.

The finding that relationship closeness both between the actor and the potential recipient of OA as well as generally within a team is likely to have a positive influence on one's engagement in OA is largely in line with the existing research which clearly suggests that individuals tend to show higher rates of helping behaviours towards their in-group members (see: Wright and Richard, 2000) especially when such groups are characterised with close relationships (Collins et al., 2014; Feeney and Collins, 2015; Halbesleben and Wheeler, 2015). More specifically, the findings reported in this study demonstrate that close relationships within teams make their members feel supported and valued – conditions which are likely to facilitate OA. This chimes with the existing evidence that, in similar circumstances, individuals are more likely to put greater efforts

on behalf of others (Bishop et al., 2000) and are less concerned about their own benefits in this process (Grant, 2007). This may be because high quality relationships between individuals have been found to influence the degree of trust in each other to share problems (Dutton et al., 2010) and feelings that it is psychologically safe to do so (Edmondson, 1999; see also: Lilius et al., 2012).

The analysis of interviews with participants further revealed that high levels of helpfulness among team members encourage OA on the part of individuals. This chimes with the existing scholarly evidence which usually associates generally helpful environments as facilitating further acts of support (Bolino and Grant, 2016; Willer et al., 2012). More specifically, this was found to be the case because in such conditions participants goodwill and concern for others are less likely to be taken advantage of, it appears more appropriate to offer and ask for help, and it is less likely that others will perceive those engaging in OA as weak. These findings therefore further reinforce the existing claims that the more a group behaves in the same way in a given situation, the more such behaviours will be deemed as appropriate and the more likely others are to perform such behaviours themselves (Ehrhart and Naumann, 2004) and that perceiving OA as an acceptable norm of behaviour will reduce concerns about looking foolish or weak (see: Grant and Patil, 2012; Ratner and Miller, 2001).

It may be argued that if groups develop norms that prescribe be that help or – more specifically - OA, then the altruistic component of such behaviours is lost because it is no longer voluntary. Indeed, existing research shows that it is difficult to speak out against the existing norms as it often comes at serious personal cost (Goldberg et al., 2011). However, if it is true that "the norm of giving implies that one should want to give, not because of any anticipated returns but for its own value" (Leeds, 1963, p.229), then the altruistic component is not necessarily lost. George and Jones (1997), for

instance, suggested that individuals may label their behaviours as voluntary and, at the same time, view it as important to their own status as members of the group. Therefore, it is certainly possible for social influence to inspire people to act altruistically and for values and norms to form with regard to OA without violating the basic components of its definition.

5.2.2.3. Contextual

With regards to contextual characteristics, their scope of influence on individuals' OA was interpreted as the widest of all factors. The analysis of interview data revealed that levels of workload, external pressures put on an organization, perceptions of organizational care, organizational values, organizational reward systems, and opportunities to interact are common factors influencing engagement in OA.

First, the amount of workload faced by employees was regularly reported to act as a significant barrier to engaging in OA. This finding is not surprising given that work-related pressures generally reduce the likelihood of noticing the needs of others and the ability to act upon those needs no matter what the intentions behind a helping act are (Dutton et al., 2006; Frost, 2003; Hallowell, 1999; Lilius et al., 2012). This is also related to the finding of the current study that external pressures put on an organization reduce the likelihood that individuals will be able to freely engage in OA. This is because external pressures to remain competitive as an organization often result in increased work intensification whereas individuals become insecure about their jobs. Such a situation subsequently makes individuals less able to notice and act upon the subtle signals that someone is struggling and it draws individuals' attention to their own benefits instead of thinking about others.

In a similar vein, the findings of this research imply that cues that others are struggling may be easily lost if there are little or no opportunities to interact. This is, again, supported by the existing literature which suggests that interactions among employees not only buffer the negative outcomes that arise with high job stressors (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007) but also bring employees to regular and close contact which allows for better understanding of the needs of their colleagues (Lilius et al., 2012). Attention paid to the needs of others is in turn a necessary component of OA.

It was also reported that the higher the perceived levels of organizational care the more likely employees are to engage in OA. The concept of organizational care is used to describe those organizations "whose values and organizing principles centre on fulfilling employees' needs and acting in their best interests" (McAllister and Bigley, 2002, p.894). As such, it captures policies, practices, and behaviours of an organization that signal care and concern for employees (see also: Carmeli et al., 2017; Houghton et al., 2015). Such caring organizational practices are generally associated with employees perceptions of self-worth and value (Worline and Dutton, 2017) and feelings of relatedness (Bammens, 2016). The findings of this research add to the existing body of knowledge and demonstrate that organizational care will also influence whether individuals are likely to engage in OA or not. This is because employees' perceptions that the organization cares about them and is interested in their well-being facilitates ingraining the values of care in individuals and gives them more confidence to engage in OA. In contrast, if employees do not perceive organization as caring then they are less likely to feel sympathetic to its needs.

The above finding is closely related to the fact that organizational values of altruistic caring and support which are grounded in the organizational ethos and widely accepted by employees were found to encourage individuals to engage in OA more often. This

also reflects a suggestion put forward by Grant and Berg (2012, p.34) who posited that collectivistic norms and values make it more "appropriate and legitimate" to be concerned about the well-being of others and some further research conducted by Perlow and Weeks (2002) who demonstrated that when an organization emphasises collectivistic norms of support employees are more likely to support their colleagues, whereas if individualistic values are prevalent and self-interest dominates, then helping is seen as "unwanted interruption" (p. 345) and employees feel they should pursue their own self-interests (see also: Chen and Bachrach, 2003; Van Lange et al., 2013). Interestingly, laboratory experiments conducted by Kay and Ross (2003) demonstrated that even non-conscious cooperative versus competitive primes can affect behavioural decisions. Using the simple prisoner's dilemma task, the authors found that using prosocial labels for the game (e.g., "Community Game", "Team Game") made participants act more cooperatively compared to when the individualistic labels were used (e.g., "Wall Street Game"; "Battle of Wits").

Closely related to the idea of organizational values of altruistic care and support is the finding that whether organizational reward systems focus on individualistic versus collective performance outcomes will influence one's engagement in OA. This is because environments which focus solely on individualistic performance were considered by research participants to be highly pressurized and associated with high levels of competition. This in turn sends employees signals that OA is not an encouraged behaviour. This finding reflects the existing research and theorizing that time-consuming activities that do not directly contribute to increasing one's own productivity - such as OA – will not be valued and may come at a particularly high cost to the actor in environments which rely heavily on monitoring a narrow range of

individuals' objective results and outputs (Bergeron, 2007; Bergeron et al., 2013; Clarkson, 2014).

5.2.2.4. External influences

Extrapolating from the fact that the three cases examined in this research were all placed in the context of the UK, a conclusion can be made that cultural nuances may have affected participants' perceptions on OA (see, for instance, Paine and Organ, 2000). Indeed, existing research had demonstrated that our formulation of a range of citizenship behaviours (including OA) will depend on the unique cultural context within which a phenomenon is investigated (Cohen, 2007; Farh et al., 1997; 2004; 2007; Kwantes et al., 2008; Lam et al., 1999). Consistently, it appears essential to acknowledge that external environments within which an organization is nested will have a further influence on the meanings behind OA, the processes associated with it, and its consequences beyond the individual, relational, and contextual factors identified as of importance in the process of data analysis.

5.2.3. Consequences of OA

It was reported in Chapter 4 (4.4.) that the consequences of OA could be positive and negative. Positive consequences were noted at the team and individual levels, whereas negative consequences concerned only individual employees.

Starting with positive consequences, at an individual level OA was regularly associated with feeling good about oneself and reduced stress levels. Indeed, existing research examining a range of helping behaviours comes to similar conclusions - it has been commonly accepted that engagement in help-giving actions improves an individual's affect (Conway et al., 2009; Glomb et al., 2011; Sonnentag and Grant, 2012). However,

in case of OA, positive affect does not come as a result of self-serving gains (e.g., Brockner and Higgins, 2001; Freitas and Higgins, 2002; Lanaj et al., 2012; Neubert et al., 2008; Scholer and Higgins, 2010). Rather, since self-benefits do not constitute the reason for engaging in OA, the positive affect that results from OA appears to be associated with longer-term benefits that follow from OA automatically. These may include the ability of such behaviours to fulfil one's need for relatedness (Weinstein and Ryan, 2010), help to build social relationships which provide resources contributing to happiness and well-being (Argyle, 2001), make individuals experience a strong sense of meaning and purpose (Grant, 2007), and allow individuals to validate their identifies as caring people (Grant et al., 2008). Although these aspects were not identified by research participants as a goal on its own, they could have led to the experience of positive emotions and reduced stress levels as an automatic consequence.

Additionally, OA was also associated with a number of negative consequences at an individual level. These included emotional tension, problems with own work, reduced progress of a recipient of OA, and even being used by others. This is somewhat contradictory to the finding that the same type of behaviour was also found to bring a range of benefits for the actor's well-being. However, the existing literature is also described by contrary findings. For instance, it was suggested that assisting to the needs of others at work can be stressful and draining (Bolino and Turnley, 2005; Bolino et al., 2015; Bolino and Grant, 2016) to the extent that it can impede one's career success (Bergeron et al., 2013; Koopman et al., 2016; Lanaj et al., 2016). Consequently, the findings reported in this research reflect a more general paradox identified in the existing literature where – on the one hand – workplace helping behaviours like OA are desired and promoted (Grant and Patil, 2012; Mossholder et al., 2011), and – on the other – they are accused of consuming too many resources and leaving employees

depleted and exhausted (Haynes et al., 2015; see also: Lanaj et al., 2016 on the potential paradox). This paradox has led to an increasing number of calls in the literature to examine under what conditions such acts will be beneficial and under what conditions they will be detrimental for individuals (e.g., Bolino and Grant, 2016; Clarkson, 2014; Koopman et al., 2016).

The results of this research are significant since they provide a partial answer to the above questions. Essentially, it was reported that it is the environment in which OA is exerted that will influence the degree to which OA could be beneficial for the actors. The findings of the reported study clearly indicate that individuals are more likely to thrive through engaging in OA when teams are characterized with close relationships and relatively high levels of helping behaviours in general whereas the organization supports and promotes the values of altruistic care. In contrast, work environments characterized by low levels of general helpfulness and relatively distant relationships among co-workers were reported to create conditions where individuals are more likely to experience problems with their own work because they are rarely helped by others should they be in need, and their good will may end up being used by other individuals in the company including colleagues and management. It was further demonstrated that when OA is displayed in environments that reward only a narrow range of individualistic performance, then it is more likely to lead to particularly high personal costs that may have a negative impact on the actor's career outcomes.

At the same time, it should be noted that although the existing scholarly evidence is concerned with the negative consequences of different types of helping behaviours (Bolino et al., 2013; 2015; Koopman et al., 2016; Lanaj et al., 2016), the approach adopted in this thesis is based on the suggestion that it is OA in particular that may

bring highest risk to individuals. This is because it was reported that those who genuinely want to help the other person may find it more difficult not to act upon their concern for others when the environment is not favourable of such behaviours. In contrast, those who engage in help for self-serving reasons are usually less willing to act when this may be associated with problems (see also: Grant et al., 2007; Grant, 2008).

Interestingly, negative consequences of OA were identified only at an individual level. In contrast, at team level OA was associated solely with benefits. It was commonly reported that OA improves staff performance, creates a comfortable working environment, increases general levels of helpfulness among team members, and facilitates forming close relationships. The finding that OA does not bring negative consequences at the team level provides initial empirical support to the argument made by Clarkson (2014, p.253) that "internally altruistic groups are likely to outperform their more selfish counterparts".

5.3. Theoretical considerations in the light of findings

This chapter commenced with a discussion of the findings of this study in light of the literature available on the topic. The focus now is placed upon unpicking the key findings of this research in order to demonstrate how it may affect the existing theory relating to OA. First, reflecting upon the analysed data, a revised definition of OA is introduced in an attempt to provide a unifying definition of the construct. Second, a model of OA that illustrates and explains its nature and how it is likely to be influenced is introduced. The model serves the purpose of summarizing the findings in the visual way and filling the gap in our knowledge about the specific processes associated with OA. Finally, a unifying theoretical framework to provide a more detailed explanation of OA is provided based on the combination of the findings of this research with the

existing organizational theory underlying wider OCBs and social-psychological theory underlying altruism and prosocial behaviours.

5.3.1. Definition of OA

The literature review conducted in Chapter 2 demonstrated that there exist different ways in which OA is conceptualized. This in turn makes theoretical progress in the area much more difficult to achieve. To address this issue, this thesis tentatively introduced a working definition of OA - i.e., *a behaviour aimed at benefiting a colleague as an end in itself* in Chapter 2. Subsequently, during the course of the interviews participants were provided with context for discussions about their conceptualizations of OA. Following a careful interpretation of the data collected during interviews, the tentative definition of OA introduced in Chapter 2 warrants adjustment to reflect on interpretations of participants' understanding of the phenomenon. Consequently, a new definition of OA is presented and it is suggested as an attempt towards a unifying definition of the construct which avoids conceptual overlaps and is not a source of misunderstandings in the body of research:

> *Organizational Altruism - Discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting other organizational recipient and mainly motivated by concern for others.*

Reflecting on data presented and discussed throughout chapters 4 and 5 (see: 4.2. and 5.2.1), the definition will be now stripped down into individual components in order to provide a detailed explanation of the phenomenon.

- *Discretionary behaviour* – OA is a type of behaviour in which individuals engage using their own free will – i.e., they cannot be pressurised to perform

OA. Behaviours that stem from demands, obligations, or expectations cannot be labelled as OA.

- *Aimed at benefiting other organizational recipient* – OA is aimed at benefiting an organizational recipient other than the self. Organizational recipients may include colleague(s), client(s), or an organization as a whole. Behaviours where an actor aims to benefit oneself rather than other(s) cannot be labelled as OA. In addition, as long as the behaviour is *aimed* at benefiting other organizational recipient, OA does not necessarily have to result in such benefits. Indeed, examples discussed in Chapter 4 demonstrated that in some instances, despite the good will of the actor, OA may lead to negative consequences for its recipients (i.e., reduced progress; see: 4.4.2.1.4.).

- *Mainly motivated by concern for others* – OA is the type of behaviour which, as reported by the actors, is motivated primarily by concern for others. In other words, those who engage in OA are concerned about contributing to others rather than calculating personal benefits. For these reasons, OA cannot be labelled as a helping behaviour underpinned by an intention of self-benefits nor as a motivational state on its own.

The proposed definition delineates the specific nature of OA. More specifically, since distinctive motivational mechanisms are characterized by specific patterns of conditions that instigate and/or inhibit them (Batson, 2014; Snyder et al., 2000), perceiving OA as motivated by concern for others results in accepting that OA will be governed by unique processes and that it will result in unique consequences that do not necessarily need to apply to other types of helping behaviours at work. For instance, it was demonstrated that concern for others characterizing people who engage in OA often makes them so preoccupied with the recipients' welfare that they do not tend to think about the

potentially negative impact it may have for themselves. In this way, their actions are more persistent but – at the same time - they are more prone to risks such as problems with own work. In contrast, those who engage in help for self-serving reasons are usually less willing to act when this may be associated with problems (see also: Grant et al., 2007; Grant, 2008).

It is pertinent to note that while it may be argued that "it is likely that individuals' motives generally are mixed" (Bolino, 1999, p.83; see also: Bolino et al., 2013; Lemmon and Wayne, 2015) and, indeed, the findings of this study demonstrated that OA system could function alongside a number of other considerations which compete in terms of the actor's attention, research participants confidently reported that only acts that *they* believed to be primarily motivated by concern for others could be considered as OA. Although attributions of motives or intentions may not always be correct (see, for instance, Halbesleben et al., 2010), participants' firm beliefs about the altruistic nature of certain behaviours strongly suggest that these are unique acts that should be distinguished from behaviours governed by self-interested motives.

At this point it is essential to consider the fact that some of the data collected during the research process does not neatly reflect the provided definition. As already discussed in the previous chapter, a small minority of research participants found it relatively difficult to conceptualize OA and their perceptions of the concept appeared somewhat inconsistent. Namely, in some instances they started describing as OA behaviours not governed by concern for others but rather – to a bigger or lesser extent - by an intention of rewards. In most of these cases they were challenged by their interview partners who pointed out that they were not describing OA or they had realized themselves that they may be talking about acts that are not altruistic in nature and they subsequently engaged

in internal debates about the true meaning of OA. This implies that a proposed definition of OA may not fully reflect everyone's understanding of the construct. This finding, in fact, reflects the philosophical assumptions guiding this thesis. Namely, there is a real world but individuals are open to its distorted perceptions. Since behaviours are socially constructed (see, for instance: Dekas et al., 2013; Morrison, 1994), how OA is defined may differ based on employees' perceptions and lived experienced across different circumstances and therefore some of them may understand the phenomenon more or less adequately.

5.3.2. Model of OA

The findings reported in chapter 4 and further discussed in this chapter enabled the development of a model of OA (Figure 5.2.) that fills the gap in our knowledge about the specific nature OA, how OA can be influenced by certain factors, and what consequences OA can bring for individuals and organizations.

Figure 5.2.: Proposed model of Organizational Altruism
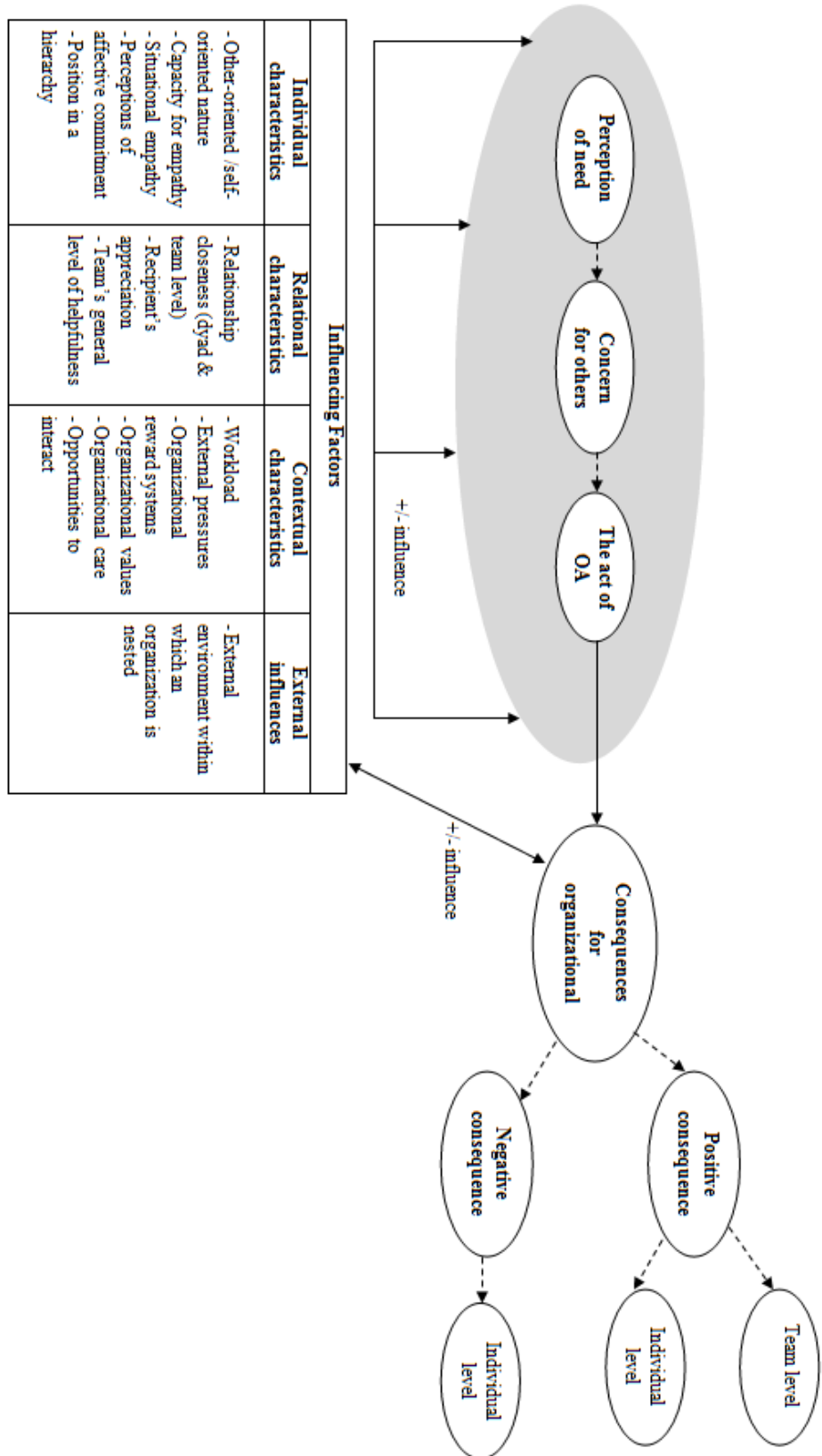
Source: Data analysis

First, an act of OA starts with the perception of need of the other. This means that the actor must notice or assume a discrepancy between the other's current state and what is desirable for them in terms of their well-being or, otherwise, he or she will not act. In the same manner, the perception of need was also identified as a necessary precondition to helping in the bystander intervention model (Latané and Darley, 1976) and to feeling concern for others and altruistic motivation in the empathy-altruism hypothesis (Batson, 2011). More specifically, since OA was found to be either proactive or reactive (see section: 4.2.2.3.), individuals can either notice such a discrepancy themselves or the actor may realize that the other person is struggling only after being asked for help.

It was further reported that the perception of need is not specific to OA and it may give rise to different types of help exerted at work. The findings of this study demonstrated that in order for an act to be considered as OA, it must be preceded with and motivated by concern for an organizational recipient (see: 4.2.1.1.). This idea neatly reflects the tenets of the theory of prosocial behaviour (Batson, 2014) which distinguishes between egoistic and altruistic motivation to perform a given task. In the instance of OA, motivation guided by concern for other organizational recipient is reported to be clearly altruistic.

Importantly, while it is concern for others that guides OA, the findings of this study revealed that the system of OA can function alongside a number of other considerations which interact in a variety of ways (see: 4.3.). This means that being motivated by concern for others may not always result in the act of OA (hence the dashed arrow in the figure). This in turn means that OA is not the only possible response of the person who is motivated by concern for other organizational stakeholder. Rather, the option selected will be a product of concern for others as well as of other considerations prompted by the impulse to act on the motivation to alleviate the need of other(s). This

idea is also reflected in more general social-psychological research on altruism where altruistic motivation produced by concern for others is compared to "a fragile flower" (Batson, 2014, p.125) which can be easily overridden by egoistic alternatives or inhibited by other factors (Hauser et al., 2014; Stich et al., 2010).

It may be argued that the existence of considerations other than solely concern for organizational recipient contradicts the nature of OA since it implies an egoistic component of such behaviours. Nonetheless, to deal with concern for others in a way that incurs possibly a minimal cost to self (see, e.g., Grant and Rebele, 2017) does not mean that the intention to have the other's need removed is no longer altruistic. As uncovered in the process of data analysis, it rather points to the complexity of the processes associated with OA.

This complexity is illustrated in the model, where the dashed arrows imply that the perception of need and concern for other(s) are necessary but not sufficient preconditions to OA and the link between perception of need, concern for others, and the act of OA may be either strengthened or weakened by a number of influencing factors including individual, relational and contextual characteristics.

These factors neatly reflect the findings already reported in chapter 4 (4.3.) and further discussed in this chapter (5.2.2.). At an individual level, the process of OA (including perceiving the other as in need, feeling concern for that other, and the act of OA) will be facilitated if one appears to be predisposed towards being other- versus self-oriented, is capable of empathic feelings and – consequently – experiences such feelings in particular situations, appears to be high as opposed to low in affective commitment and does not hold senior positions of responsibility which inhibit engagement in OA. At relational level, the processes of OA will be facilitated if there are close relationships

(both between the actor and a potential recipient as well as generally within a team), if a person at whom an act of OA is directed has shown appreciation in the past, and if a general level of helpfulness among team members is relatively high as opposed to low. Finally, at contextual level, the process of OA will be facilitated if individuals do not experience high workload levels, the organization is not under intensive external pressures, organizational reward systems do not focus solely on individualistic performance but recognize collective efforts, organizations values appear to be founded on the principle of care and support, employees feel that organization supports its members and cares about their well-being, and opportunities for interaction among organizational members are provided.

It should be also acknowledged that the influencing factors were found not only to affect the key processes associated with OA but also the consequences of such behaviours. The bi-directional arrow between the influencing factors and the consequences of OA illustrates the findings that certain factors are likely to evoke more positive consequences whereas others can lead to more negative outcomes associated with OA. For instance, it was demonstrated in the previous chapter that OA exerted in environments where levels of general helpfulness are relatively high are likely to yield positive consequences of OA (4.3.2.2.2.) whereas OA exerted in environments that put emphasis on individualistic rewards may bring the risk of negative consequences associated with OA (4.3.3.5.). In the same manner, some of the consequences of OA could impact on the relative strength of the factors which influence the processes associated with OA. An example of that may include a situation when OA results in closer relationships among employees (4.4.1.1.2.) which then further reinforce the role of close relationships as promoting engagement in OA (4.3.2.1.1.). In a similar way, if OA results in problems with own work (4.4.2.1.3.), they are then likely to further

strengthen the negative influence of workload levels on the actor's engagement in OA (4.3.3.1.).

5.3.3. Unifying theoretical framework for the study of OA

It was demonstrated in Chapter 2 that the literature on OA can be characterized by the lack of a unifying theoretical approach. What is more, there is clearly a shortfall of research that would be specific to OA and most of the available evidence comes from studying OCBs where OA is only one of the investigated dimensions (e.g., Astakhova, 2015; Deckop et al., 2003; Glomb et al., 2011; Hui et al., 2015; Li et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2009). Hence, significantly less (or no) attention is paid to its unique characteristics that were argued to distinguish OA from other behaviours (see discussions in 2.4. and 2.5). However, combining the literature review conducted as part of this thesis together with the findings from this empirical study provides an insight into how the existing theory can be combined and extended to provide a more detailed explanation of OA.

More specifically, in Chapter 2 three theories were considered as having potential to theoretically explain certain aspects relating to OA – social exchange theory, theory of prosocial behaviour, and empathy-altruism hypothesis. Subsequently, the findings of this thesis provided empirical evidence that all three of these theories can, indeed, be applied to the study of OA.

First, the findings that individuals often reported to be motivated by concern for others and without framing their behaviours as grounded in expectations of benefits provides evidence that the theory of prosocial behaviour can be applied to organizational contexts in order to distinguish OA from other helping behaviours where the motivation is not necessarily altruistic.

Second, the finding that situational feelings of empathy are likely to make individuals follow their concern for others and engage in OA suggests that empathy-altruism hypothesis can provide theoretical basis to explain not only general altruism but also OA that takes place in organizational contexts.

Whereas the theory of prosocial behaviour facilitates identification of concern for others as an altruistic motive and the empathy-altruism hypothesis draws attention to the role of empathy in the processes of OA, the theories appear to explain only a facet of the phenomenon. However, reflection on the findings of this study demonstrates that, despite this limited scope, these two theories can act as a useful enrichment to the theory of social exchange. Whereas the theory is founded on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) which posits that individuals give benefits to others in expectation of receiving equivalent value of benefits back from them (Blau, 1967) and, indeed, individuals tend to form relationships based on a process of negotiated exchanges between the parties (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Deckop et al., 2003; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Halbesleben and Wheeler, 2011; 2015), some scholars acknowledged that social exchange may include situations where "no reciprocation is expected" (Bowler and Brass, 2006, p.71). Consequently, in this thesis an idea of an altruistic dimension to social exchange is emphasised and advocated as a theoretical basis to explain OA.

Whereas a conventional view on the social exchange theory addresses the relationships among employees in terms of outcomes for the self (e.g., "Will exchanges with others result in favourable outcomes for me?"), the theory of prosocial behaviour and the empathy-altruism hypothesis demonstrate that the relationships among employees could be addressed in terms of outcomes for others (e.g., "Are those I am in relationship with receiving favourable outcomes?"; also see Kamdar et al., 2006, p.850).

The findings of the reported in this thesis study further demonstrated that when the underlying principle of the social "exchange" is that of altruism then exchanges between employees are guided by the principles of OA and the benefits exchanged are valued as symbols of concern for others as opposed to expectations of returns. The essence of the altruistic dimension to social exchange can be summarized using the words of Colbert et al. (2016, p.1217) who suggested that in some work relationships "the opportunity to give to others is not merely an input into the social exchange process, but a valuable end in itself".

The extension of the social exchange theory with the tenets of the theory of prosocial behaviour and the empathy-altruism hypothesis can be further enriched by an additional consideration of the findings of this study that are comprehensively summarized in the proposed model of OA (see Figure 5.2.). It demonstrates how certain individual, relational, and contextual factors are likely to influence the processes leading to engagement in OA and therefore provides additional insight into our understanding of the concept.

Consequently, having combined the empirical evidence gathered through this research with the theories of prosocial behaviour and the empathy-altruism hypothesis, a new dimension to social exchange theory is advocated as a theoretical explanation for the phenomenon of OA and it is suggested as a viable way of looking at workplace relationships. Indeed, Cropanzano et al. (2017) called for filling the "missing cells" with respect to social exchange constructs. And while, most certainly, the authors did not consider the altruistic dimension of social exchange based on concern for others as a potential avenue for such an extension, an argument is put forward that this new way of looking at the social exchange theory has a number of potential implications for further

organizational research which can bring a considerable advantage to scholars interested in the topic of OA.

Finally, it is pertinent to note that to advocate the altruistic dimension of social exchange theory by no means undermines the fact that individuals can and often do engage in different forms of helping behaviours to reciprocate positive treatment they receive from colleagues, supervisors, or their organization (e.g., Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Halbesleben and Wheeler, 2011; LePine et al., 2008; Lyons and Scott, 2012; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Indeed, there exists evidence that demonstrates that employees are more likely to help others if they anticipate personal benefits as a result of such behaviours (Hui et al., 2000; McNeely and Meglino, 1994). However, the reported research has demonstrated that in some instances we should go beyond the "you scratch my back and I'll scratch yours" approach to social exchange since it reduces human interaction to a rational process of calculations (see, e.g., Miller, 2005) which, as demonstrated in this study, does not always characterize employees' actions.

5.4. Conclusions

Following an in-depth exploration of the perceptions of OA held by participants of this study in the previous chapter, this chapter discussed the findings in light of the existing literature on the topic to provide greater insights into what they mean within the context of previous research. The subsequent sections then provided a more in-depth look at the findings in order to demonstrate how the reported research affected the existing theory relating to OA. First, a revised definition of OA was introduced in an attempt to provide a unifying definition of the concept. Second, a model of OA that fills the gap in our knowledge about the specific processes associated with OA was provided. Finally, the findings of this research were combined with the existing theories to achieve a unifying

theoretical perspective aimed at ultimately enriching the field of OA research. The following chapter discusses the theoretical and practical implications of this research, and being critically open to the limitations of the study, it offers some recommendations for future inquiry that this study has opened.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1. Introduction

The 21st century has observed a significant change in the way in which organizations are run. Due to the increases in interactions among employees, special emphasis has been put on the importance of collaborative behaviours at work. However, the literature review conducted as part of this thesis demonstrated that most of the existing work on helping behaviours at work reduces workplace relationships to a process of reciprocal exchanges and calculations of own benefits. An argument was then made that such reciprocal arrangements inevitably represent "deals" which do not reflect the recent changes in organizational life and the complexity of workplace relationships. Consequently, attention was drawn to the concept of OA. Evidence was presented to demonstrate that, in contrast to reciprocal arrangements, OA is likely to bring ensuing benefits for individuals and organizations. It was further acknowledged that despite the growing interest in OA, as an object of research, it encompasses different perceptions and varying definitions and surprisingly little research has been conducted on the topic.

The broad aim of this thesis was therefore to better understand the phenomenon of OA. The main concern of the study was to collect data that would allow for gaining rich understanding of employees' perceptions and experiences of OA. Chapter 3 provided an explanation for the research approach employed to guide the thesis and a continued endeavour was made to explain why certain decisions were made. Conducting 47 dyadic interviews with 94 individuals in total allowed to provide answers to the three research questions posed for this study:

1) How do employees in the investigated organizations perceive the nature of organizational altruism?

2) How is engagement in organizational altruism influenced according to employees in the investigated organizations?

3) What are the consequences of organizational altruism according to employees in the invetstigated organizations?

The study has extended our knowledge about the phenomenon of OA. In summary, the analysis of the findings presented in chapter 4 demonstrated that OA is perceived to be discretionary behaviour aimed at benefiting other organizational recipient and reported to be mainly motivated by concern for others. Second, it was demonstrated that engagement in OA may be facilitated or inhibited by certain factors that were grouped into individual, relational, and contextual types. It was further acknowledged that external environments within which organizations are nested will also impact the processes associated with OA. Whereas contextual characteristics appeared to have the biggest impact on OA, it was demonstrated that the relative strength of these influencing factors is context-dependent and can differ between organizations. Third, it was found that the impact of OA on organizational stakeholders can be varied. On the one hand, OA was found to contribute towards a more comfortable working environment, close relationships among employees, increased levels of helpfulness, more effective performance, reduced levels of stress, and positive affect. On the negative side, OA was also associated with increased emotional tension, ending up being used by others, problems with own work, and reduced progress of recipients of OA. Whereas the positives associated with OA were acknowledged on both individual and team levels, negative consequences of OA were identified only for individuals. More specifically, the important role of environment was identified in shaping the consequences of OA. Namely, it was demonstrated that individuals are more likely thrive through engaging in OA when the organization supports and promotes the

altruistic values of care and when teams are characterized with close relationships and relatively high levels of helping behaviours in general. In contrast, work environments characterized by low levels of general helpfulness and relatively distant relationships among co-workers were reported to create conditions where individuals are put at risk of experiencing negative consequences associated with OA.

Chapter 5 involved the discussion of these findings in light of the existing literature and special attention was paid to the theoretical considerations arising from the reported research. These involved an introduction of a unifying definition of OA that sets it asides from related behaviours and an introduction of a model of OA which drew together the findings regarding the nature of OA, how OA can be influenced by certain factors, and what consequences OA can bring for individuals and organizations. It was demonstrated that since OA is motivated by concern for others, it will be governed by unique processes and that it will result in unique consequences that do not necessarily need to apply to other types of helping behaviours at work. For instance, it was demonstrated how concern for others can make OA not only more persistent than other helping behaviours but, at the same time, also more prone to risks such as problems with own work. Finally, the extension of the social exchange theory to include an altruistic dimension was suggested as a viable strategy to provide theoretical explanation for OA.

The aim of the current chapter is now to evaluate the findings of this thesis in terms of their implications for theory and practice. Being critical about the research limitations, several areas where future research is now required are detailed.

6.2. Research contributions

The current research has made important theoretical and practical contributions. Whereas the discussion presented in the previous chapter inevitably involved referring to the implications of the reported study for theory, the following section briefly summarizes such information. The subsequent section then moves to the consideration of practical contributions.

6.2.1. Theoretical contributions

6.2.1.1. New perspective on helping at work

Interest in helping behaviours at work has grown significantly in the past few years (Podsakoff et al., 2014) and scholars have called for further research investigating a range of such behaviours as one general phenomenon (Bolino and Grant, 2016). This thesis, in contrast, demonstrated that there are benefits of adding an extra level of specificity.

Focusing specifically on OA, the research reported in this thesis illustrated the importance and uniqueness of workplace behaviours that are aimed at benefiting organizational recipients out of genuine concern for others. It was demonstrated that employees are capable of and often will engage in acts which are driven by concern for others and are not ingrained in reciprocal arrangements.

This finding is particularly important given that the overall tendency is to assume that most work relationships are predominantly based on reciprocity-based interactions (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2017; Halbesleben and Wheeler, 2011; Lyons and Scott, 2012). However, such conditions can lead to cooperation only under a limited set of conditions. As opposed to OA which was found to be more

persistent, reciprocal interactions appear to be more fragile. This is because the norm of reciprocity "is not unconditional" (Lambert, 2000, p.802) and narrowly defined expectations that inevitably form reciprocal agreements mean that a seemingly uncooperative action or valuing outcomes differently by exchange partners can spark an immediate defection.

Given that interactions among workers are of continuously increasing importance for organizations and their members, a new perspective on helping at work that moves away from predominantly reciprocal interactions and focuses upon other-oriented behaviours that are guided by concern for others is particularly relevant. It extends our understanding of workplace helping behaviours in general and allows us to "see profoundly, imaginatively, unconventionally into phenomena we thought we understood" (Mintzberg, 2005, p.361).

6.2.1.2. Unifying definition of OA

By introducing a definition of OA that sets it aside from other behaviours, the current research articulated the key features of OA and contributed towards a more detailed understanding of the degree to which different concepts related to OA overlap or differ. In doing so, the thesis also answered and re-emphasized the call of Organ et al. (2006) not to label a helping dimension of OCBs as altruism but to treat it as a separate construct. Precisely defined phenomena are not only easier to operationalize and test, but also research outputs are easier to compare and contrast (Bagozzi and Edwards, 1998). This in turn facilitates communication among scholars and allows for building on the work of prior researchers (see: Suddaby, 2010).

Reflecting on recent calls of Bolino and Grant (2016) to develop a comprehensive model of prosocial behaviours, the outcomes of this study also point out to the

importance of taking into consideration the vital differences between various subtypes among prosocial behaviours and to the consistent use of specific versus broad labels (i.e., OA versus help). This should then have critical implications for theory development and research design (e.g., measurement or data analysis).

6.2.1.3. Model of OA: New cues and insights

The reported research allowed for an introduction of a model designed to extend existing limited understanding of why, when and how people engage in OA. As noted previously, scholars have begun to acknowledge the importance of distinguishing between altruistic versus self-serving workplace behaviours (Avolio and Locke, 2002; Bowler et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2013; Lai et al., 2013; Lemmon and Wayne, 2015; Rioux and Penner, 2001; Snell and Wong, 2007; Sosik et al., 2009), but little organizational theory and research exist to provide a comprehensive explanation of the mechanisms that underlie employees' OA. Hence, this study contributes to the theory of OA by highlighting the key processes associated with OA and identifying the factors that could either facilitate or inhibit engagement in such acts. The model sheds light on the black box that accounts for why organizational members are willing to engage in OA. In doing so, it points out to key factors that have not been previously associated with OA (such as situational empathy) but which could have a significant influence on its processes.

Importantly, while the interpretations of participants provide holistic insights into OA as they highlight a wider range of factors affecting this phenomenon, the exact processes associated with OA still require further investigation. This research, however, provided scholars with some building blocks for further inquiry. The introduced model can

therefore act as a guide highlighting factors of importance when the process of OA is considered and further investigations of how to control OA in the workplace.

6.2.1.4. Theoretical integration

Reflecting on the lack of a unifying theoretical framework that would explain OA, the reported research and – more specifically – the introduced model of OA provided insight into how theory in this area may be extended to provide a more detailed explanation of OA. Having combined the findings of this thesis with the theories of social exchange, prosocial behaviour, and the empathy-altruism hypothesis allowed for a theoretical integration where the findings not covered by one theory were further explained by another theory. Following the suggestion of Wolcott (2009, p.81) that "we do not, indeed, should not, limit ourselves to a consideration of only one theory at a time", the combinations of these theories allowed for identification of an altruistic dimension to social exchange theory. Consequently, it can act as an enrichment to the field of OA and a viable theoretical explanation of the phenomenon.

6.2.1.5. The effects of OA: A detailed picture

The research on consequences of different types of prosocial, OCBs, or helping behaviours is gaining momentum. Scholars not only examine if such behaviours are simply good or bad (Grant and Sonnentag, 2010; Halbesleben et al., 2009; Rubin et al., 2013; Sonnentag and Grant, 2012) but increasing attention is also paid to the effects of such acts on particular individuals in particular circumstances (Bolino and Grant, 2016; Bolino et al., 2015; Koopman et al., 2016). The research reported in this thesis adds further insights into these lines of investigation – not only did it identify that OA cannot be simply good or bad, but it highlighted mechanisms that explain positive and negative consequences of OA. Pursuing answers to such more complex questions allowed to gain

an insightful picture of the effects of such behaviours on the actors, recipients, and organizations.

What is more, this research further contributed to theory and research by taking into consideration the consequences for all the workplace parties simultaneously - including the actors and recipient(s). In contrast, most of the existing organizational literature investigates outcomes of a variety of helping behaviours either on recipients (see: Spitzmuller et al., 2008) or the actors (Koopman et al., 2016).

Examining both positive and negative effects of OA specifically and identifying particular conditions under which given outcomes are more likely to occur contributes to the current debates on consequences of helping behaviours in general and, most importantly, it extends relatively limited understanding of how and why OA in particular can help or hurt the involved parties. As discussed in the next section, this has significant implications for organizational practice.

6.2.2. Practical contributions

6.2.2.1. Managerial awareness of OA

From a practical standpoint, this thesis demonstrated that managerial awareness of the phenomenon of OA and its implications for organizational success should be raised. If practitioners are not aware of OA on the part of their employees or, at least, a potential for such acts, they will likely fail to understand how such acts could play an important role in organizations. Since altruistic behaviours among employees are perceived to be a key component of organizational success (Clarkson, 2014; Li et al., 2014), increased awareness of such acts should allow management to benefit from a range of advantages that come with OA – such as higher levels of persistence, performance, and productivity

(Bing and Burroughs, 2001; Deci and Ryan, 2000; Grant et al., 2007; Grant, 2008). In addition, being aware of the phenomenon of OA should also help practitioners to avoid the negative consequences that may be associated with such acts in certain environments. These may include, for instance, work overload or increased levels of job stress (Koopman et al., 2016). Consequently, increased managerial awareness of OA should facilitate capitalizing on the power and advantages of such behaviours and buffering against the potential negative consequences that they may bring. Hence, it appears particularly important for organizations and their members.

6.2.2.2. Strategies for encouraging OA

Since contextual characteristics were most frequently reported to shape how regularly individuals can engage in OA behaviours, this implies that organizations, by introducing subtle and/or more significant changes in their environments, may actively influence how OA is exerted by employees. Consequently, this research also makes a number of recommendations as to how OA on the part of employees may be encouraged.

First, while it might be tempting to try to directly encourage employees to behave altruistically, Li et al. (2014) rightly noticed that if members view OA as coercion, then its voluntary component will be violated. In line with this argument, this research highlights the importance of indirect ways to encourage employees to engage in OA. For instance, the introduced model of OA suggests that individuals are more likely to feel concern for others and altruistic motivation if they have more opportunities for interactions and develop close relationships based on trust. Thus, management may consider specific job redesign interventions that aim to foster closer working relationships. For instance, introducing opportunities for job rotation would allow individuals to work with different organizational stakeholders in different points of

time. This will not only provide opportunities for interaction but it should facilitate developing closer relationships among employees and support communication among departments. Interpersonal attachment and feeling of closeness could be further induced by organizing social activities and introduction of a number of "getting-to-know-each-other" procedures.

Fostering closer work relationships appears to be particularly challenging - but even more significant - in the times of changing organizations where individual jobs, roles, and tasks are often massive in their cross-cultural, occupational, and geographical scope (Griffin et al., 2007). In light of these changes, organizational members increasingly rely on a wide range of technological advancements to facilitate work interactions (such as advanced telecommunication) while some work relationships are becoming entirely virtual. With such decreasing opportunities for forming relationships, management is advised to pay particular attention to the power of human bond. Benkeler (2011), for instance, advocates that face-to-face interactions are essential to build trusting and cooperative relationships. While it may not be necessarily possible to follow his suggestion to fly across the countries or continents to have dinner with another business partner, companies may look at other, smaller investments of resources. For instance, factoring in some time in the work schedule to ensure that team members are able to meet, supplementing "faceless" technologies with those such as Skype, and considering the possibilities of on and off site social events could be effective ways to allow for expanding the networks of people with whom individuals share experiences and common bonds. This, in turn, could encourage empathetic understanding of the problems of others and engagement in OA.

The findings of this research also point out to the necessity to consider what aspects should be measured when assessing individuals' contribution to the organization.

Notwithstanding the fact that organizations increasingly often require employees to cooperate to complete their work, organizational settings seem to predominantly foster individualism that is often narrowly defined in terms of self-interest and therefore presents a somewhat untenable context for the display of altruistic behaviours (Grant and Patil, 2012; Sosik et al., 2009). The findings of this research, therefore, draw practitioners' attention to consider whether they are in fact rewarding the right behaviours and outputs. Indeed, other scholars also acknowledged that displaying OA in environments that reward a narrow range of individualistic performance is likely to come with a personal cost (Clarkson, 2014) and may even undermine one's career success (Bergeron et al., 2013). And even though OA should not be determined by rewards, by putting an overwhelming emphasis on individual's outcomes managers may fall into a trap of rewarding A (e.g., individual achievement) while hoping for B (OA; see: Kerr, 2003). Therefore, the practical implications of this research are that to help employees to be altruistic managers should think about the ways in which OA could be recognized but without the risk of reducing the other-oriented nature of these acts (see: Grant and Patil, 2012). Whereas there is not much empirical research to date that would have explored the influence of reward systems on OA – potentially because rewards can increase the instrumentality of OA (Haworth and Levy, 2001) and thus provide an external attribution for it (Deckop et al., 1999), there exists some empirical (Weingart et al., 1993; De Dreu et al., 1998; 2000) and theoretical (Grant and Berg, 2012) evidence implying that collectivistic rewards can increase individuals' concern for and motivation to benefit others. Consequently, management may build OA behaviours into annual reviews and celebrate employees who show engagement in these (Birkinshaw et al., 2014). In addition, small rewards such as plaques or certificates can also serve the

symbolic function of signalling that OA is valued but without treating it as any sort of a competition between employees (Grant and Patil, 2012; Mickel and Barron, 2008).

Finally, extrapolating from observations that people are more willing to help in-group members, they may be less likely to demonstrate such behaviours towards out-groups. This in turn has some implications for management in terms of intergroup boundaries. More specifically, practitioners should think about how groups are operationalized at work – both formally and informally; and what input it may have on OA. For instance, as suggested by Clarkson (2014, p.265), the concept of the "organization" has an element of ambiguity since different subgroups may serve different points of reference for their members. For example, a member of the academic institution may identify with their research centre, department, certain school, or an organization in general. Such different identities at work may, at times, become conflicting. Although the reported research did not identify a situation where OA towards member of one group was exerted at the expense of members of other groups, management should be wary of arbitrary categorizations that may limit OA.

6.2.2.3. Strategies to avoid negative consequences of OA

In terms of the consequences of OA, although it was identified as an overly positive phenomenon, the findings of this research also demonstrated that management should be aware of the potential negatives associated with OA so that they can buffer against those in advance. For instance, in particularly busy workplace environments, management may prompt reflection on the specific areas in which certain individuals exert OA. By engaging in OA in areas that are aligned with employees' expertise and interests, giving should become more sustainable over time and it is more likely that it will lead to energy boosts as opposed to exhaustion or burnout (see: Weinstein and

Ryan, 2010). In addition, management may further consider implementing programs designed to monitor employees' burnout and exhaustion (e.g., Sheldon and Lyubormirsky, 2004) and encourage individuals to reflect on the positive impact their behaviours have on others (see, e.g., Bono et al., 2013).

What is more, reflecting on the finding that internally altruistic environments are likely to yield most positive consequences for those engaging in OA, it appears that changes in the organizational practices and policies that clearly demonstrate to employees that an organization is supportive of OA and that such behaviours are not only appropriate but also encouraged should contribute to the higher levels of OA among employees overall. Consequently, the more employees engage in OA in their environment, the more likely that the potential negative outcomes associated with OA will be eliminated or reduced. It is pertinent to note that such transformation should be deeply rooted in the company's and employees' values and beliefs and therefore it is a long and laborious process.

6.3. Limitations and recommendations for future research

Several limitations of the current study are now considered and recommendations for future research are made. Such a self-critical reflection allows for learning from the experience of researching (Wallace and Wray, 2016) and offers multiple opportunities for further inquiry in this area.

First, the research adopted in this thesis has been explorative in nature, utilizing inductive methodology to develop theory regarding OA and its processes. Although it was not the intention of this research to test the proposed findings, some scholars may raise questions about the scientific generalisation of the findings to other organizations, industries, or geographical regions. Indeed, three organizations based in the Yorkshire region of England coming from similar sectors were chosen as research case studies.

Nevertheless, such a selection suited the theoretical sampling of the study which allowed the researcher to develop particularly rich accounts of OA, its meaning, and the processes behind it. It should also be acknowledged that while the chosen organizations appear similar based on their sectors, both similarities and differences between as well as within cases were identified during the research processes which revealed additional depth of information about the researched phenomenon. In this situation the aim of the current research was not to generalize a claim that differences exist between different sectors or groups of people, nor that a relationship exists between specific variables for a specific population. Instead, it was "to understand the processes, meanings, and local contextual influences involved in the phenomena of interest, for the specific settings or individual studies" (Maxwell, 2012, p.94). Subsequently, the findings were applied to a wider range of phenomena by what is known as theoretical generalisation - i.e., developing a theory of the processes involved that may be applied to other settings but which may result in different outcomes when the contextual influences differ (see Maxwell, 2012 for further discussion). However, it would be interesting for future research to test the proposed findings of this study in larger scale samples and across industries and geographic countries.

This line of research appears particularly relevant since significant differences in the introduced model of OA can be expected across different cultures. For instance, scholars suggested that various forms of cooperative behaviours will be affected by culture, specifically individualism–collectivism (Chen et al., 1998) and further research demonstrated that cultural nuances are likely to affect the meanings of these behaviours and conditions that might facilitate or inhibit them (Paine and Organ, 2000). Since significant differences exist in how people perceive cooperative behaviours across international boundaries (e.g., in US or Australia vs. China or Japan; Farh et al., 2004;

Lam et al., 1999), or amongst people socialized in different cultural viewpoints (Kwantes et al., 2008), more research testing the model in other contexts would be particularly beneficial.

Another potential limitation of this study associated with the research design is that it is not always possible to accurately assess motivations using qualitative inquiry or self-reported data. This is because individuals may simply not know what their ultimate motivation is, those engaging in helping acts out of egoistic concerns may attempt to hide their real motives, or individuals may over-report the extent to which they engage in desired behaviours like OA. While it is important to be aware of problems of this nature when interpreting the data gathered in this research, the aim of this study was not to measure the quantity of altruistic behaviours nor how pure motivations behind such acts were. Rather, the main goal was to provide an in-depth exploration of individuals' perceptions of altruistic acts, understand their consequences, and the factors which may influence such behaviours. Importantly, the methods used in this research enabled insight into these interpretations to be achieved whereas the choice of dyadic interviews was particularly helpful in generating rich data. More specifically, this is something that previous research on OA has significantly underexplored and therefore an important contribution to the current literature. It should be also acknowledged that in order to reduce the potential of obtaining socially desirable responses, instead of being asked direct questions that seek personal information, participants were asked mainly indirect questions referring to general situations or the experiences of their colleagues or subordinates.

Following from the issue that the employed research design did not enable for empirical assurance of individuals' ultimate goals, it should be acknowledged that the existing measures of OA that exist in the organizational literature also have been argued to

represent somewhat limited content and only a minimalist assessment of altruism in the workplace context (Sosik et al., 2009). This is because the existing tendency to operationalize OA as part of wider OCBs risks embedding it in a tit-for-tat exchange of inducements and rather than looking for rationale why individuals engage in behaviors primarily intended to benefit others scholars could end up investigating calculative processes prone to direct reciprocation and/or egoisitic concerns. Consequently, organizational research would benefit from developing new ways of investigating the phenomenon of OA.

One way to do so would be to complement existing measures of OA with the scales intended to measure individual's motivations. Indeed, several scales have been developed to measure individuals' motivations at work (Allen and Rush, 1998; Grant, 2007; Rioux and Penner, 2001). Such scales could be effectively combined with the existing measures of OA to provide additional depth to our understanding of the nature of altruistic behaviours and to clearly distinguish them from related concepts.

Nevertheless, the suggested solution does not avoid the problem associated with distinguishing individuals' motives using self-reports. One way to overcome the mentioned difficulties would be to adopt the approach successfully used by social psychologists who suggest that motivation can be inferred from an individual's behaviour which should be observed in systematically varied situations that isolate the potentials goals of the individual (Batson, 2014). Whereas this approach is most easily implemented in laboratory experiments (e.g., Wayne and Ferris, 1990; Werner, 1994), researchers may ask the study participants to react to hypothetical vignettes in order to examine the role of motives under different conditions (see, e.g., Ashford and Northcraft, 1992). The design of the vignette could be then expanded further to see if

certain situational variables (such as feelings of empathy) influence the subjects' decisions.

Such an approach could also be implemented in longitudinal field-based settings (e.g., Blakely et al., 2003; Vigoda-Gadot and Angert, 2007). To inform the motive in the field, the researcher would need to observe a change in the pattern of potentially altruistic behaviours in the presence of egoistic motives. For instance, it would be interesting to see how employees' helping behaviours change (e.g., in frequency or span) once performance appraisals approach to indicate the underlying nature of these.

Finally, further qualitative research that examines employees' opinion on their (and their co-workers') OA and more self-serving forms of workplace behaviours is likely to prove useful. As suggested by Bolino (1999, p.95), it can aid researchers in obtaining "richer, more honest, and more telling data than might be obtained using other research designs".

A further methodological issue that should be considered in this section is the sample choice for this study. While the profile of participants of this research is varied, it must be acknowledged that individuals who voluntarily agreed to take part in the research may be, perhaps, more altruistic than their counterparts who did not show interest in the study. This potential problem of self-selection bias (Olsen, 2008), however, appeared to be of less importance given that the research participants were not asked to focus only on their individual experiences of the explored phenomena, but rather, they were instructed to talk about their workplace in general.

One important claim that this study made is that scholars should not treat OA as ingrained solely in individuals but as something that could be actively shaped by organizations and their members. However, based on the results of this thesis and

utilising knowledge gleaned from explicit research to date, some assumptions were made that individual differences such as other-oriented nature, perceived levels of affective commitment, or capacity to feel empathy will also have an important influence on the display of OA. Nevertheless, since the study did not employ any specific measures on individuals' personality (such as being other-oriented) or affective commitment displayed by research participants, whereas the data on one's capacity for empathy is incomplete (78% response rate), only tentative claims can be made about the specific relationship between these aspects and one's engagement in OA. Consequently, these relations will benefit from some further systematic empirical investigation.

Last but not least, any scholars that will consider the above recommendations for future research are advised to develop consistency regarding the way in which they use labels, be explicit in describing their conceptualization of the investigated construct(s) and in the use of appropriate measures.

6.4. Final remarks

The aim of this study was to engage in, and make a contribution to the existing understanding of the concept of Organizational Altruism. In meeting the research objectives, the study has, as planned, contributed to our theoretical and empirical knowledge of OA and related concepts. It is hoped that a number of important findings that emerged as a result of this study will inspire future discussion about the underlying mechanisms for altruistic actions. The relevance of this study can be judged not only on the questions answered but also on the set of practical implications for management provided, and promising lines of inquiry raised, each of which now needs to be taken forward in future research.

References

Ackroyd, S. and Karlsson, J.C. 2014. Critical realism, research techniques, and research designs. In: Edwards, M.R., et al. eds. *Studying organizations using critical realism: A practical guide.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Adler, A.P. and Adler, P. 2003. The Reluctant Respondent. In: Holstein, A.J. and Gubrium, F.J. eds. *Inside Interviewing: New Lensces, New Concerns.* California: Sage.

Ahl, H. 2004. *The Scientific Reproduction of Gender Inequality: A Discourse Analysis of Research Texts on Women's Entrepreneurship.* Koege: Copenhagen Business School Press.

Allan, G. 1980. A note on interviewing spouses together. *Journal of Marriage and the Family.* **42**, pp.205-210.

Allen, T.D., Barnard, S., Rush, M.C. and Russell, J.E. 2000. Ratings of organizational citizenship behavior: Does the source make a difference? *Human Resource Management Review.* **10**, pp.97-115.

Allen, T.D. and Rush, M.C. 1998. The effects of organizational citizenship behavior on performance judgments: a field study and a laboratory experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **83**(2), pp.247-260.

Andreoni, J. and Vesterlund, L. 2001. Which is the Fair Sex? Gender Differences in Altruism. *Quarterly Journal of Economics.* **116**, pp.293-312.

Archer, M. 1995. *Realist Social Theory. The Morphogenetic Approach.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Archer, M., Bhaskar, R., Collier, A., Lawson, T. and Norrie, A. 1998. *Critical Realism: Essential readings.* London: Routledge.

Archer, R.L., Diaz-Loving, R., Gollwitzer, P.M., Davis, M.H. and Foushee, H.C. 1981. The role of dispositional empathy and social evaluation in the empathic mediation of helping. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* **40**(4), pp.786-796.

Argyle, M. 2001. *The psychology of happiness.* 2 ed. New York: Routledge.

Arskey, H. 1996. Collecting data through joint interviews. *Social Research Update.* **15**, pp.1-8.

Ashford, S.J. and Northcraft, G.B. 1992. Conveying More (or Less) Than We Realize: The Role of Impression-Management in Feedback-Seeking *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes.* **53**, pp.310-334.

Astakhova, M.N. 2015. The Curvilinear Relationship between Work Passion and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics.* **130**(2), pp.361-374.

Avolio, B.J. and Locke, E.E. 2002. Theoretical letters. Contrasting different philosophies of leader motivation: Altruism versus egoism. *The Leadership Quarterly* **13**, pp.169-191.

Axtell, C.M. and Parker, S.K. 2003. Promoting role breadth self-efficacy through involvement, work redesign and training. *Human Relations.* **56**(1), pp.113-131.

Axtell, C.M., Parker, S.K., Holman, D. and Totterdell, P. 2007. Enhancing customer service: Perspective taking in a call centre. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology.* **16**(2), pp.141-168.

Bagozzi, R.P. and Edwards, J.R. 1998. A General Approach for Representing Constructs in Organizational Research. *Organizational Research Methods.* **1**(1), pp.45-87.

Bailey, C., Madden, A., Alfes, K. and Fletcher, L. 2017. The Meaning, Antecedents and Outcomes of Employee Engagement: A Narrative Synthesis. *International Journal of Management Reviews.* **19**, pp.31-53.

Bakker, A.B. and Demerouti, E. 2007. The Job Demands-Resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology.* **22**, pp.309-328.

Bamberger, P. 2008. Beyond contextualization: Using context theories to narrow the micro-macro gap in management research. *Academy of Management Journal.* **51**, pp.839-846.

Bammens, Y.P. 2016. Employees' Innovative Behavior in Social Context: A Closer Examination of the Role of Organizational Care. *Journal of Product Innovation Management.* **33**, pp.244-259.

Bandura, A. and Rosenthal, T.L. 1966. Vicarious classical conditioning as a functioning of arousal level. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* **3**, pp.54-62.

Bansal, P. and Corley, K. 2012. Publishing in AMJ: What's different about qualitative research? *Academy of Management Journal.* **55**(3), pp.509-513.

Barron, L. 2006. Ontology. In: Jupp, V. ed. *The SAGE Dictionary of Social Research Methods.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Batson, C.D. 1987. Prosocial motivation: Is it ever truly altruistic? In: Berkowitz, L. ed. *Advances in experimental social psychology.* New York: Academic Press, pp.65-122.

Batson, C.D. 1991. *The Altruism question: Towards a social psychological answer.* 1 ed. New Jersey: Hove and London.

Batson, C.D. 2011. *Altruism in Humans.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Batson, C.D. 2014. *The altruism question: towards a social-psychological answer.* 2 ed. New Jersey: Hove and London.

Batson, C.D., Duncan, B.D., Ackerman, P., Buckley, T. and Birch, K. 1981. Is empathic emotion a source of altruistic motivation? . *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* **40**, pp.290-302.

Batson, C.D., Eklund, J.H., Chermok, V.L., Hoyt, J.L. and Ortiz, B.G. 2007a. An additional antecedent of empathic concern: valuing the welfare of the person in need. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* **93**(1), pp.65-74.

Batson, C.D., Van Lange, P.A.M., Ahmad, N. and Lishner, D.A. 2007b. Altruism and helping behavior. In: Hogg, M.A. and Cooper, J. eds. *The Sage Handbook of Social Psychology.* Los Angeles: Sage.

Becker, G.S. 1974. A Theory of Social Interactions. *Journal of Political Economy.* **82**(6), pp.1063-1093.

Bell, B.L. and Campbell, V. 2014. *Dyadic interviews in qualitative research (Research Shorts Series #1).* Charlottetown, PE: Young Lives Research Lab, University of Prince Edward Island.

Benkeler, Y. 2011. *The penguin and the Leviathan: How cooperation triumps over self-interest.* New York: Crown Publishing.

Berger, P.L. and Luckmann, T. 1967. *The Social Construction of Reality.* Garden City: Doubleday.

Berger, S.M. 1962. Conditioning through vicarious instigation. *Psychological Review.* **69**(5), pp.450-466.

Bergeron, D., Ostroff, C., Schroeder, T.D. and Block, C. 2014. The Dual effects of organizational citizenship behavior: Relationships to research productivity and career outcomes in academe. *Human Performance.* **27**, pp.99-128.

Bergeron, D., Shipp, A.J., Rosen, B. and Furst, S. 2013. Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Career Outcomes: The Cost of Being a "Good Citizen" *Journal of Management.* **39**(4), pp.958-984.

Bergeron, D.M. 2007. The potential paradox of organizational citizenship behavior: Good citizens at what cost? *Academy of Management Review.* **32**(4), pp.1078-1095.

Bhaskar, R. 1975. *A realist theory of science.* London: Verso.

Bierhoff, H.W., Klein, R. and Kramp, P. 1991. Evidence for the Altruistic Personality from Data on Accident Research. *Journal of Personality.* **59**(2), pp.263-280.

Bing, M.N. and Burroughs, S.M. 2001. The predictive and interactive effects of equity sensitivity in teamwork-oriented organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* **22**, pp.271-290.

Birkinshaw, J., Foss, N.J. and Lindenberg, S. 2014. Combining Purpose With Profits. *MIT Sloan Management Review.* **55**(3), pp.48-56.

Bishop, J.W., Scott, K.D. and Burroughs, S.M. 2000. Support, commitment, and employee outcomes in a team environment. *Journal of Management.* **26**, pp.1113-1132.

Blakely, G.L., Andrews, M.C. and Fuller, J. 2003. Are Chameleons Good Citizens? A Longitudinal Study of the Relationship Between Self-Monitoring and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Business and Psychology.* **18**(2), pp.131-144.

Blau, P.M. 1967. *Exchange and power in social life.* New York: Wiley and Sons.

Bolino, M.C. 1999. Citizenship and impression management: Good soldiers or good actors? *Academy of Management Review.* **24**(1), pp.82-98.

Bolino, M.C. and Grant, A.M. 2016. The Bright Side of Being Prosocial at Work, and the Dark Side, Too: A Review and Agenda for Research on Other-Oriented Motives, Behavior, and Impact in Organizations. *Academy of Management Annals.* **10**(1), pp.599-670.

Bolino, M.C., Hsiung, H.H., Harvey, J. and LePine, J.A. 2015. "Well, I'm Tired of Tryin'!" Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Citizenship Fatigue. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **100**(1), pp.56-74.

Bolino, M.C., Klotz, A.C., Turnley, W.H. and Harvey, J. 2013. Exploring the dark side of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* **34**, pp.542-559.

Bolino, M.C. and Turnley, W.H. 2003. Going the extra mile: Cultivating and managing employee citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Executive.* **17**(3), pp.60-71.

Bolino, M.C. and Turnley, W.H. 2005. The personal costs of citizenship behavior: the relationship between individual initiative and role overload, job stress, and work-family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **90**(4), pp.740-748.

Bolino, M.C., Turnley, W.H. and Niehoff, B.P. 2004. The other side of the story: Reexamining prevailing assumptions about organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management Review.* **14**, pp.229–246.

Bolino, M.C., Varela, J.A., Bande, B. and Turnley, W.H. 2006. The impact of impression-management tactics on supervisor ratings of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour.* **27**, pp.281-297.

Bono, J.E., Glomb, T.M., Shen, W., Kim, E. and Koch, A.J. 2013. Building positive resources: Effects of positive events and positive reflection on work stress and health. *Academy of Management Journal.* **56**, pp.1601-1627.

Borman, W.C. and Motowidlo, S.J. 1997. Task Performance and Contextual Performance: The Meaning for Personnel Selection Research. *Human Performance.* **10**(2), pp.99-109.

Bourdage, J.S., Lee, K., Lee, J.H. and Shin, K.H. 2012. Motives for Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Personality Correlates and Coworker Ratings of OCB. *Human Performance.* **25**, pp.179-200.

Bowler, W.M. and Brass, D.J. 2006. Relational correlates of interpersonal citizenship behavior: A social network perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology* **91**, pp.70-82.

Bowler, W.M., Halbesleben, J.B. and Paul, J.R. 2010. If you're close with the leader, you must be a brownnose: The role of leader–member relationships in follower, leader, and coworker attributions of organizational citizenship behavior motives. *Human Resource Management Review.* **20**(4), pp.309-316.

Boyatzis, R.E. 1998. *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. 2006. Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology.* **3**(2), pp.77-101.

Brief, A.P. and Motowidlo, S.J. 1986. Prosocial Organizational Behaviours. *The Academy of Management Review.* **11**(4), pp.710-725.

Brockner, J. and Higgins, E.T. 2001. Regulatory focus theory: Implications for the study of emotions at work. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes.* **86**, pp.35-66.

Brooks, J., McCluskey, S., Turley, E. and King, N. 2015. The Utility of Template Analysis in Qualitative Psychology Research. *Qualitative Research in Psychology.* **12**(2), pp.202-222.

Brown, A. and Roberts, J.M. 2014. An appraisal of the contribution of critical realism to qualitative and quantitative research methodology: Is dialectics a way forward? In: Edwards, M.R., et al. eds. *Studying organizations using critical realism: A practical guide.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp.300-317.

Bryman, A. and Bell, E. 2015. *Business research methods.* 4 ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Burr, V. 2015. *Social Constructionism.* London: Routledge.

Cardador, T.M. and Wrzesniewski, A. 2015. Better to Give and to Compete? Prosocial and Competitive Motives as Interactive Predictors of Citizenship Behavior. *The Journal of Social Psychology.* **155**(3), pp.255-273.

Carmeli, A. 2005. Perceived External Prestige, Affective Commitment, and Citizenship Behaviors. *Organization Studies.* **26**(3), pp.443-464.

Carmeli, A., Brammer, S., Gomes, E. and Tarba, S.Y. 2017. An organizational ethic of care and employee involvement in sustainability-related behaviors: A social identity perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* pp.n/a-n/a.

Carpenter, N.C., Berry, C.M. and Houston, L. 2014. A meta-analytic comparison of self-reported and other-reported organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* **35**(4), pp.547-574.

Chan, D. 2009. So why ask me? Are self-report data really that bad? In: Lance, C.E. and Vandenberg, R.J. eds. *Statistical and methodological myths and urban legends.* New York: Routledge, pp.309-336.

Chen, C.C., Chen, X.P. and Meindl, J.R. 1998. How can Cooperation be Fostered? The Cultural Effects of Individualism-Collectivism. *Academy of Management Review.* **23**(2), pp.285-304.

Chen, C.C. and Chiu, S.F. 2009. The Mediating Role of Job Involvement in the Relationship Between Job Characteristics and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *The Journal of Social Psychology.* **149**(4), pp.474-494.

Chen, X.P. and Bachrach, D.G. 2003. Tolerance of Free-Riding: The Effects of Defection Size, Defection Pattern and Social Orientation in a Repeated Public Goods Dilemma. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes.* **90**, pp.139-147.

Chênevert, D., Vandenberghe, C. and Tremblay, M. 2015. Multiple sources of support, affective commitment, and citizenship behaviors: The moderating role of passive leadership. *Personnel Review.* **44**(1), pp.69-90.

Cheung, M., Peng, K.Z. and Wong, C.S. 2014. Supervisor attribution of subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior motives. *Journal of Managerial Psychology.* **29**(8), pp.922-937.

Cialdini, R.B., Schaller, M., Houlihan, D., Arps, K., Fultz, J. and Beaman, A.L. 1987. Empathy-based helping: Is it selflessly or selfishly motivated? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* **52**, pp.749-758.

Clarkson, G.P. 2014. Twenty-First Century Employment Relationships: The Case for an Altruistic Model. *Human Resource Management.* **53**(2), pp.253-269.

Clary, E.G. and Snyder, M. 1991. A Functional Analysis of Altruism and Prosocial Behavior: The Case of Volunteerism. In: Clark, M.S. ed. *Prosocial Behavior.* Newbury Park: Sage, pp.119-148.

Clary, E.G., Snyder, M., Ridge, R.D., Copeland, J., Stukas, A.A., Haugen, J. and Miene, P. 1998. Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: a functional approach. *J Pers Soc Psychol.* **74**(6), pp.1516-1530.

Cohen, A. 2007. One nation, many cultures. *Cross-Cultural Research.* **41**(3), pp.273-300.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. 2011. *Research Methods in Education.* 7 ed. London: Routledge.

Cohen, T.R. 2010. Moral emotions and unethical bargaining: The differential effects of empathy and perspective taking in deterring deceitful negotiation. *Journal of Business Ethics.* **94**, pp.569-579.

Colbert, A.E., Bono, J.E. and Purvanova, R.K. 2016. Flourishing via workplace relationships: Moving beyond instrumental support. *Academy of Management Journal.* **59**(4), pp.1199-1223.

Collins, N.L., Kane, H.S., Metz, M.A., Cleveland, C., Khan, C., Winczewski, L., Bowen, J. and Prok, T. 2014. Psychological, physiological, and behavioral responses to a partner in need: The role of compassionate love. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships.* **31**, pp.601-629.

Comte, A. 1854. *Système de politique positive, ou traité de sociologie instituant la religion de l'Humanité Paris.* Paris: Carilian-Goeury.

Conway, J.M., Rogelberg, S.G. and Pitts, V.E. 2009. Workplace helping: Interactive effects of personality andmomentary positive affect. *Human Performance.* **22**, pp.321-339.

Conway, N. and Briner, R.B. 2005. *Understanding psychological contracts at work: A critical evaluation of theory and research.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Cook, T. and Campbell, D.T. 1979. *Quasi-experimentation: Design and analysis issues for field settings.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Coyle-Shapiro, J., Kessler, I. and Purcell, J. 2004. Reciprocity or 'it's my job': Exploring organizationally directed citizenship behaviour in a national health service setting. *Journal of Management Studies.* **41**(1), pp.85-106.

Craig , K.D. and Wood, K. 1969. Physiological differentiation of direct and vicarious affective arousal. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science.* **1**, pp.98-105.

Crandall, J.E. and Harris, M.D. 1976. Social interest, cooperation, and altruism. . *Journal of Individual Psychology.* **32**, pp.50-54.

Crant, J.M. 2000. Proactive behavior in organizations. *Journal of Management.* **26**, pp.435-462.

Creswell, J.W. 2014. *Research Design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.* 4 ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J.W. and Poth, C.N. 2017. *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Approaches.* 4 ed. London: Sage.

Cropanzano, R., Anthony, E.L., Daniels, S.R. and Hall, A. 2017. Social Exchange Theory: A Critical Review with Theoretical Remedies. *Academy of Management Annals.* **11**(1), pp.1-38.

Cropanzano, R. and Mitchell, M.S. 2005. Social Exchange Theory: An Interdisciplinary Review. *Journal of Management.* **31**, pp.874-900.

Cropanzano, R., Rupp, D.E. and Byrne, Z.S. 2003. The Relationship of Emotional Exhaustion to Work Attitudes, Job Performance, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **88**(1), pp.160-169.

Cunliffe, A.L. 2008. Orientations to social constructionism: Relationally-responsive social constructionism and its implications for knowledge and learning. *Management Learning,.* **39**, pp.123-139.

Cunliffe, A.L. 2011. Crafting Qualitative Research: Morgan and Smircich 30 Years On. *Organizational Research Methods.* **14**(4), pp.647-673.

Davis, M.H. 1980. A multidimensional approach to individual differences in empathy. *JSAS Catalog of Selected Documents in Psychology.* **10**, p85.

Davis, M.H. 1983. Measuring individual differences in empathy: Evidence for a multidimensional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* **44**, pp.113-126.

De Dreu, C.K., Giebels, E. and Van de Vliert, E. 1998. Social motives and trust in integrative negotiation: The disuptive effects of punitive capability. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **83**, pp.408-422.

De Dreu, C.K. and Nauta, A. 2009. Self-Interest and Other-Orientation in Organizational Behavior: Implications for Job Performance, Prosocial Behavior, and Personal Initiative. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **94**(4), pp.913-926.

De Dreu, C.K., Weingart, L.R. and Kwon, S. 2000. Influence of social motives on integrative negotiation: A meta-analytic review and test of two theories. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* **78**, pp.889-905.

Deci, E.L. and Ryan, R.M. 2000. The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry.* **4**, pp.227-268.

Deckop, J.R., Cirka, C.C. and Andersson, L.M. 2003. Doing Unto Others: The Reciprocity of Helping Behavior in Organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics.* **47**, pp.101-113.

Deckop, J.R., Mangel, R. and Cirka, C.C. 1999. Getting more than you pay for: Organizational citizenship behavior and pay-for-performance plans. *Academy of Management Journal.* **42**, pp.420-428.

Dekas, K.H., Bauer, T.N., Welle, B., Kurkoski, J. and Sullivan, S. 2013. Organizational citizenship behaviour, version 2.0: A review and qualitative investigation of OVBs for

knowledge workers at Google and beyond. *Academy of Management Perspectives.* **27**(3), pp.219-237.

Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. 2011. Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In: Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. eds. *Handbook of qualitative research.* 4 ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp.1-20.

Dirks, K.T. and Ferrin, D.L. 2002. Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for organizational research. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **87**, pp.611-628.

Doney, P.M., Cannon, J.P. and Mullen, M.R. 1998. Understanding the influence of national culture on the development of trust. *Academy of Management Review.* **23**, pp.601-620.

Dovidio, J.F., Piliavin, J.A., Schroeder, D.A. and Penner, L.A. 2006. *The Social Psychology of Prosocial Behavior.* Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Drucker, P.F. 2006. *Managing the Nonprofit Organization* New York: Harper Collins.

Dutton, J.E. and Heaphy, E.D. 2003. The Power of High Quality Connections. In: Cameron, K., et al. eds. *Positive Organizational Scholarship.* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, pp.263-278.

Dutton, J.E., Roberts, L.M. and Bednar, J. 2010. Pathways for positive identity construction at work: Four types of positive identity and the builsing of social resources. *Academy of Management Review.* **35**(2), pp.265-293.

Dutton, J.E., Worline, M.C., Frost, P.J. and Lilius, J.M. 2006. Explaining compassion organizing. *Administrative Science Quarterly.* **51**, pp.665-697.

Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., Jackson, P. and Lowe, A. 2008. *Management Research.* 3 ed. London: Sage.

Eastman, K.K. 1994. In the eyes of the beholder: An attributional approach to ingratiation and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal.* **37**, pp.1379-1391.

Eckel, C.C. and Grossman, P.J. 1998. Are women less selfish than men: Evidence from dictator experiments. *Economic Journal.* **108**, pp.726-735.

Edmondson, A.C. 1999. Psychological safety and learning behavior in teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly.* **44**, pp.350-383.

Ehrhart, M.G. and Naumann, S.E. 2004. Organizational citizenship behavior in work groups: A group norms approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **89**, pp.960-974.

Eisenberg, N. and Miller, P.A. 1987. The relation of empathy to prosocial and related behaviors. *Psychol Bull.* **101**(1), pp.91-9119.

Eisenberg, N., Miller, P.A., Schaller, M., Fabes, R.A., Fultz, J., Shell, R. and Shea, C.L. 1989. The role of sympathy and altruistic personality traits in helping: a reexamination. *Journal of Personality.* **57**(1), pp.41-67.

Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, P.D. and Rhoades, L. 2001. Reciprocation of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **86**(1), pp.42-51.

Eisikovits, Z. and Koren, C. 2010. Approaches to and outcomes of dyadic interview analysis. *Qualitative Health Research.* **20**, pp.1642-1655.

Elder-Vass, D. 2007. Reconciling Archer and Bourdieu in an emergentist theory of action. *Sociological Theory.* **25**, pp.325-346.

Elder-Vass, D. 2010. *The Causal Power of Social Structures.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Elder-Vass, D. 2011. The causal power of discourse. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour.* **41**, pp.143-160.

Elder-Vass, D. 2012. Towards a realist social constructionism. *Sociologica, Problemas e praticas.* **70**, pp.9-24.

Emerson, R.M. 1976. Social exchange theory. *Annual Review of Sociology.* **2**, pp.335-362.

Farh, J.L., Earley, P.C. and Lin, S. 1997. Impetus for action: A cultural analysis of justice and extra-role behaviour in Chinese society. *Administrative Science Quarterly.* **42**, pp.421-444.

Farh, J.L., Hackett, R.D. and Liang, J. 2007. Individual-level cultural values as moderators of perceived organizational support-employee outcome relationships in China: Comparing the effects of power distance and traditionality. *Academy of Management Journal.* **50**(3), pp.715-729.

Farh, J.L., Podsakoff, P.M. and Organ, D.W. 1990. Accounting for Organizational Citizenship Behaviour: Leader Fairness and Task Scope versus Job Satisfaction. *Journal of Management.* **16**(4), pp.705-721.

Farh, J.L., Zhong, C.B. and Organ, D.W. 2004. Organizational Citizenship Behavior in the People's Republic of China. *Organization Science.* **15**(2), pp.241-253.

Farrell, S.K. and Finkelstein, M. 2011. The Impact of Motive Attributions on Coworker Justice Perceptions of Rewarded Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Business and Psychology.* **26**, pp.57-69.

Feeney, B.C. and Collins, N.L. 2015. A New Look at Social Support: A Theoretical Perspective on Thriving Through Relationships. *Personality and Social Psychology Review.* **19**(2), pp.113-147.

Fehr, E. and Falk, A. 2002. Psychological Foundations of Incentives. *European Economic Review.* **46**(4-5), pp.687-724.

Fehr, E. and Fischbacher, U. 2003. The nature of human altruism. *Nature.* **425**(6960), pp.785-791.

Fehr, E. and Gachter, S. 2002. Altruistic punishment in humans. *Nature.* **415**(6868), pp.137-140.

Feinberg, M., Willer, R. and Schultz, M. 2014. Gossip and ostracism promote cooperation in groups. *Psychological Science.* **25**(3), pp.656-664.

Flynn, F.J., Reagans, R.E., Amanatullah, E.T. and Ames, D.R. 2006. Helping one's way to the top: Self-monitors achieve status by helping others and knowing who helps whom. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* **91**, pp.1123-1137.

Freitas, A.L. and Higgins, E.T. 2002. Enjoying goal-directed action: The role of regulatory fit. *Psychological Science.* **13**, pp.1-6.

Frost, P.J. 2003. *Toxic emotions at work: How compassionate managers handle pain and conflict.* Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Furnham, A., Treglown, L., Hyde, G. and Trickey, G. 2016. The Bright and Dark Side of Altruism: Demographic, Personality Traits, and Disorders Associated with Altruism. *Journal of Business Ethics.* **134**(3), pp.359-368.

George, J.M. and Brief, A.P. 1992. Feeling Good-Doing Good: A Conceptual Analysis of the Mood at Work-Organizational Spontaneity Relationship. *Psychological Bulletin.* **112**(2), pp.310-329.

George, J.M. and Jones, G.R. 1997. Organizational spontaneity in context. *Human Performance.* **10**, pp.153-170.

Gephardt, R. 2004. What is qualitative research and why is it important? . *Academy of Management Journal.* **7**, pp.454-462.

Gibbs, G.R. 2007. *Analysing Qualitative Data.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Gillhan, B. 2005. *Research Interviewing the Range of Techniques.* New York: Open University Press.

Gittell, J.H., Seidner, R. and Wimbush, J. 2010. A Relational Model of How High-Performance Work Systems Work. *Organizational Science.* **21**(2), pp.490-506.

Glazer, A. and Konrad, K.A. 1996. A Signaling Explanation for Charity. *The American Economic Review.* **86**(4), pp.1019-1028.

Glomb, T., Bhave, D.P., Miner, A.G. and Wall., M. 2011. Doing good, feeling good: examining the role of organizational citizenship behaviours in changing mood. *Personnel Psychology.* **64**, pp.191-223.

Goldberg, C.B., Clark, M.A. and Henley, A.B. 2011. Speaking up, a conceptual model of voice re- sponses following the unfair treatment of others in non-union settings. *Human Resource Management.* **50**, pp.75-94.

Goldstein, N.J., Cialdini, R.B. and Griskevicius, V. 2008. A room with a viewpoint: Using social norms to motivate environmental conservation in hotels. *Journal of Consumer Research.* **35**(3), pp.472-482.

Gouldner, A.W. 1960. The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review.* **25**(1), pp.61-78.

Grant, A.M. 2007. Relational job design and the motivation to make a prosocial difference. *Academy of Management Review.* **32**(2), pp.393-417.

Grant, A.M. 2008. Does Intrinsic Motivation Fuel the Prosocial Fire? Motivational Synergy in Predicting Persistence, Performance, and Productivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **93**(1), pp.48-58.

Grant, A.M. and Ashford, S.J. 2008. The dynamics of proactivity at work. *Research in Organizational Behavior.* **28**, pp.3-34.

Grant, A.M. and Berg, J.M. 2012. Prosocial Motivation at Work: When, Why, and How Making a Difference Makes a Difference. In: Cameron, K. and Spreitzer, G. eds. *Handbook of Positive Organizational Scholarship.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp.28-44.

Grant, A.M. and Berry, J.W. 2011. The necessity of others is the mother of invention: Intrinsic and prosocial motivations, perspective taking, and creativity. *Academy of Management Journal.* **54**(1), pp.73-96.

Grant, A.M., Campbell, E.M., Chen, G., Cottone, K., Lapedis, D. and Lee, K. 2007. Impact and the art of motivation maintenance: The effects of contact with beneficiaries on persistence behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes.* **103**, pp.53-67.

Grant, A.M., Dutton, J.E. and Rosso, B.D. 2008. Giving commitment: Employee support programs and the prosocial sensemaking process. *Academy of Management Journal.* **51**(5), pp.898-918.

Grant, A.M. and Mayer, D.M. 2009. Good Soldiers and Good Actors: Prosocial and Impression Management Motives as Interactive Predictors of Affiliative Citizenship Behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **94**(4), pp.900-912.

Grant, A.M. and Parker, S. 2009. 7 Redesigning work design theories: The Rise of relational and proactive perspectives. *The Academy of Management Annals.* **3**(1), pp.317-375.

Grant, A.M., Parker, S. and Collins, C. 2009. Getting credit for proactive behaviour: supervisor reactions depend onwhat you value and how do you feel. *Personnel Psychology.* **62**, pp.31-55.

Grant, A.M. and Patil, S.V. 2012. Challenging the norm of self-interest: Minority influence and transitions to helping norms in work units. *Academy of Management Review.* **37**(4), pp.547-568.

Grant, A.M. and Rebele, R. 2017. Beat generosity burnout. *Harvard Business Review.* (January).

Grant, A.M. and Sonnentag, S. 2010. Doing good buffers against feeling bad: Prosocial impact compensates for negative task and self-evaluations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes.* **111**, pp.13-22.

Grant, A.M. and Sumanth, J.J. 2009. Mission Possible? The Performance of Prosocially Motivated Employees Depends on Manager Trustworthiness. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **94**(4), pp.927-944.

Greer, I. and Hauptmeier, M. 2008. Political entrepreneurs and co-managers: Labour transnationalism at four multinational auto companies. *British Journal of Industrial Relations.* **46**(1), pp.76-97.

Griffin, M.A., Neal, A. and Parker, S.K. 2007. A new model of work role performance: positive behaviour in undertain and interdependent contexts. *Academy of Management Journal.* **50**(2), pp.327-347.

Griffin, R.W. and O'Leary-Kelly, A. 2004. *The dark side of organizational behavior* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Guba, E.G. and Lincoln, Y.S. 1994. Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In: Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. eds. *Handbook of qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp.105-117.

Guinot, J., Chiva, R. and Mallén, F. 2015. The effects of altruism and relationship conflict on organizational learning. *International Journal of Conflict Management.* **26**(1), pp.85-112.

Halbesleben, J.B., Bowler, W.M., Bolino, M.C. and Turnley, W.H. 2010. Organizational concern, prosocial values, or impression management? How supervisors attribute motives to organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **40**, pp.1450-1489.

Halbesleben, J.B. and Wheeler, A.R. 2011. I owe you one: Coworker reciprocity as a moderator of the day-level exhaustion–performance relationship. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* **32**, pp.608-626.

Halbesleben, J.R. and Wheeler, A.R. 2015. To invest or not? The role of coworker support and trust in daily reciprocal gain spirals of helping behavior. *Journal of Management.* **41**(6), pp.1628-1650.

Halbesleben, J.R.B., Harvey, J. and Bolino, M.C. 2009. Too engaged? A conservation of resources view of the relationship between work engagement and work interference with family. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **94**, pp.1452-1465.

Hallowell, E.M. 1999. The human moment at work. *Harvard Business Review.* **77**, pp.58-66.

Hardy, C. and Van Vugt, M. 2006. Nice guys finish first: The competitive altruism hypothesis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin.* **32**, pp.1402-1413.

Harkness-Hodgson, J., Garcia, K. and Tyndall, L. 2004. Parkinson's disease and the couple relationship: A qualitative analysis. *Families, Systems, & Health.* **22**(1), pp.101-118.

Hauser, D.J., Preston, S.D. and Brent, R.S. 2014. Altruism in the Wild: When Affiliative Motives to Help Positive People Overtake Empathic Motives to Help the Distressed. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General.* **143**(3), pp.1295–1305.

Haworth, C.L. and Levy, P.E. 2001. The importance of instrumentality beliefs in the prediction of organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Vocational Behavior.* **59**, pp.64-75.

Haynes, K.T., Josefy, M. and Hitt, M.A. 2015. Tipping Point: Managers' Self-Interest, Greed, and Altruism. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies.* **22**(3), pp.265-279.

Hebson, G., Rubery, J. and Grimshaw, D. 2015. Rethinking job satisfaction in care work: looking beyond the care debates. *Work, employment and society.* **29**(2), pp.314-339.

Heilman, M.E. and Chen, J.J. 2005. Same behavior, different consequences: reactions to men's and women's altruistic citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **90**(3), pp.431-441.

Herriot, P., Manning, W.E.G. and Kidd, J.M. 1997. The content of psychological contract. *British Journal of Management.* **8**, pp.151-162.

Hesse-Biber, S.N. and Leavy, P. 2011. *The practice of qualitative research.* 2 ed. London: Sage.

Ho, V.T. and Gupta, N. 2012. Testing an empathy model of guest-directed citizenship and counterproductive behaviours in the hospitality industry: Findings from three hotels. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology.* **85**, pp.433-453.

Holmberg, D., Orbuch, T.L. and Veroff, J. 2004. *Thrice-told tales: Married couples tell their stories.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Houghton, J.D., Pearce, C.L., Manz, C.C. and Stewart, G.L. 2015. Sharing is Caring: Toward a Model of Proactive Caring through Shared Leadership. *Human Resource Management Review.* **25**(3), pp.313-327.

Houston, S. 2001. Beyond Social Constructionism: Critical Realism and Social Work. *British Journal of Social Work.* **31**, pp.845-861.

Hsiung, H.-H., Lin, C.-W. and Lin, C.-S. 2012. Nourishing or suppressing? The contradictory influences of perception of organizational politics on organizational citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology.* **85**(2), pp.258-276.

Hu, J. and Liden, R.C. 2015. Making a difference in the teamwork: linking team prosocial motivation to team processes and effectiveness. *Academy of Management Journal.* **57**(4), pp.1102-1127.

Huberman, A.M. and Miles, M.B. 1985. Assessing Local Causality in Qualitative Research. In: Berg, D.N. and Smith, K.K. eds. *Exploring Clinical Methods for Social Research.* Beverly Hills: Sage, pp.351-382.

Hui, C., Lam, S. and Law, K. 2000. Instrumental values of organizational citizenship behavior for promotion: A field quasi-experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **85**, pp.822-828.

Hui, C., Lee, C. and Wang, H. 2015. Organizational inducements and employee citizeship behavior: The mediating role of perceived insider tatus and the moderating role of colectivism. *Human Resource Management.* **54**(3), pp.439-456.

Hulin, C.L. 2002. Lessons from industrial and organizational psychology. . In: Brett, J.M. and Drasgow, F. eds. *The psychology of work.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Publishers, pp.3-22.

Jex, S.M., Adams, G.A., Bachrach, D.G. and Sorenson, S. 2003. The impact of situational constraints, role stressors, and commitment on employee altruism. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology.* **8**(3), pp.171-180.

Johns, G. 2006. The essential impact of context on organizational behavior. *Academy of Management Review.* **31**, pp.386-408.

Johnson, D.E., Erez, A., Kiker, D.S. and Motowidlo, S.J. 2002. Liking and attributions of motives as mediators of the relationships between individuals' reputations, helpful behaviors, and raters' reward decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **87**, pp.808-815.

Joireman, J., Kamdar, D., Daniels, D. and Blythe, D. 2006. Good Citizens to the End? It Depends: Empathy and Concern With Future Consequences Moderate the Impact of a Short-Term Time Horizon on Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **91**(6), pp.1307-1320.

Kamdar, D., McAllister, D.J. and Turban, D.B. 2006. "All in a Day's Work": How Follower Individual Differences and Justice Perceptions Predict OCB Role Definitions and Behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **91**(4), pp.841–855.

Kanungo, R.N. and Conger, J.A. 1993. Promoting altruism as a corporate goal. *Academy of Management Perspectives.* **7**(3), pp.37-48.

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

Kay, A.C. and Ross, L. 2003. The Perceptual Push: The Interplay of Implicit Cues and Explicit Situational Construals on Behavioral Intentions in the Prisoner's Dilemma. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology.* **39**, pp.634–643.

Kemery, E.R., Bedeian, A.G. and Rawson Zacur, S. 1996. Expectancy-Based Job Cognitions and Job Affect aS Predictors of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour.* **26**(7), pp.635-651.

Kerr, S. 2003. On the folly of rewarding A, while hoping for B. . In: Thompson, L.L. ed. *The social psychology of organizational behavior* New York: Psychology Press, pp.375-383.

Kessler, I. and Bach, S. 2014. Comparing cases. In: Edwards, M.R., et al. eds. *Studying organizations using critical realism: A practical guide.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kim, Y.J., Van Dyne, L., Kamdar, D. and Johnson, R.E. 2013. Why and when do motives matter? An integrative model of motives, role cognitions, and social support as predictors of OCB. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes.* **121**, pp.231-245.

King, N. 2004. Using templates in the thematic analysis of text. In: Cassell, C. and Symon, G. eds. *Essential Guide to Qualitative Methods in Organizational Research.* London: Sage, pp.256-270.

King, N. 2012. Doing template analysis. In: Symon, G. and Cassell, C. eds. *Qualitative organizational research.* London: Sage, pp.426-450.

Konovsky, M.A. and Pugh, S.D. 1994. Citizenship behavior and social exchange. *Academy of Management Journal.* **37**(3), pp.656-669.

Koopman, J., Lanaj, K. and Brent, S. 2016. Integrating the Bright and Dark Sides of OCB: A Daily Investigation of the Benefits and Costs of Helping Others. *Academy of Management Journal.* **59**(2), pp.414-435.

Korsgaard, M.A., Meglino, B.M. and Lester, S.W. 1997. Beyond helping: Do other-oriented values have broader implications in organizations? *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **82**, pp.160-177.

Korsgaard, M.A., Meglino, B.M., Lester, S.W. and Jeong, S.S. 2010. Paying You Back or Paying Me Forward: Understanding Rewarded and Unrewarded Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **95**(2), pp.277-290.

Koster, F. and Sanders, K. 2006. Organisational citizens or reciprocal relationships? An empirical comparison. *Personnel Review.* **35**(5), pp.519-537.

Koys, D.J. 2001. The effects of employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover on organizational effectiveness: A unit-level, longitudinal study. *Personnel Psychology.* **54**, pp.101-114.

Kumar, R. 2012. *Research Methodology. A Step-by-Step Guide for Beginners.* 3 ed. London: Sage.

Kwantes, C.T., Karam, C.M., Kuo, B.C. and Towson, S. 2008. Culture's influence on the perception of OCB as in-role or extra-role. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations.* **32**(3), pp.229-243.

Lähdesmäki, M. and Takala, T. 2012. Altruism in business – an empirical study of philanthropy in the small business context. *Social Responsibility Journal.* **8**(3), pp.373-388.

Lai, J.Y., Lam, L.W. and Lam, S.S. 2013. Organizational citizenship behavior in work groups: A team cultural perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* **34**, pp.1039-1056.

Lakoff, G. 1987. *Women, Fire, and Dangerous Things: What Categories Reveal about the Mind.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Lam, C.F., Wan, W.H. and Roussin, C.J. 2016. Going the Extra Mile and Feeling Energized: An Enrichment Perspective of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **101**, pp.379-391.

Lam, S.S., Hui, C. and Law, K.S. 1999. Organizational citizenship behavior: Comparing perspectives of supervisors and subordinates across four international samples. . *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **84**(4), pp.594-601.

Lambert, S.J. 2000. Added benefits: The link between work-life benefits and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal.* **43**(5), pp.801-815.

Lanaj, K., Chang, C.H. and Johnson, R.E. 2012. Regulatory focus and work-related outcomes: A review and metaanalysis. *Psychological Bulletin.* **138**, pp.998-1034.

Lanaj, K., Johnson, R.E. and Wang, M. 2016. When Lending a Hand Depletes the Will: The Daily Costs and Benefits of Helping. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **101**(8), pp.1097-1110.

Lapierre, L.M. and Hackett, R.D. 2007. Trait conscientiousness, leader-member exchange, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior: A test of an integrative model. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology.* **80**, pp.539-554.

Latané, B. and Darley, J.M. 1976. *Helping in a crisis: Bystander response to an emergency.* Morristwon, NJ: General Learning Press.

Lavelle, J.J. 2010. Press the escape key to close. What motives OCB? Insights from the volunteerism literature. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* **31**(6), pp.918-923.

Leeds, R. 1963. Altruism and the norm of giving. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly of Behavior and Development.* **9**(3), pp.229-240.

Lemmon, G. and Wayne, S.J. 2015. Underlying Motives of Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Comparing Egoistic and Altruistic Motivations. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies.* **22**(2), pp.129-148.

Lemoine, G.J., Parsons, C.K. and Kansara, S. 2015. Above and beyond, again and again: Self-regulation in the aftermath of organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **100**(1), pp.40-55.

LePine, J.A., Piccolo, R.F., Jackson, C.L., Mathieu, J.E. and Saul, J.R. 2008. A meta-analysis of teamwork processes: Tests of a multidimensional model and relationships with team effectiveness criteria. *Personnel Psychology.* **61**, pp.273-308.

Li, N., Chiaburu, D.S., Kirkman, B.L. and Xie, Z. 2013. Spotlight on the Followers: An Examination of Moderators of Relationships Between Transformational Leadership and Subordinates' Citizenship and Taking Charge. *Personnel Psychology.* **66**(1), pp.225-260.

Li, N., Kirkman, B.L. and Porter, C.O.L.H. 2014. Toward a Model of Work Team Altruism. *Academy of Management Review.* **39**(4), pp.541-565.

Li, N., Zhao, H.H., Walter, S.L., Zhang, X. and Yu, J. 2015. Achieving More With Less: Extra Milers' Behavioral Influences in Teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **100**(4), pp.1025-1039.

Lilius, J.M., Kanov, J., Dutton, J.E., Worline, M.C. and Maitlis, S. 2012. Compassion revealed: What we know about compassion at work (and where we need to know more). In: Cameron, K.S. and Spreitzer, G.M. eds. *The oxford handbook of positive organizational scholarship.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Liu, Y. 2009. Perceived organizational support and expatriate organizational citizenship behavior: The mediating role of affective commitment towards the parent company. *Personnel Review.* **38**(3), pp.307-319.

Loi, R., Ngo, H.-Y., Zhang, L. and Lau, V.P. 2011. The interaction between leader-member exchange and perceived job security in predicting employee altruism and work performance. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology.* **84**(4), pp.669-685.

Lord, R.G. and Smith, J.E. 1983. Theoretical, information processing, and situational factors affecting attribution theory models of organizational behavior. *Academy of Management Review.* **8**(2), pp.50-60.

Lyons, B.J. and Scott, B.A. 2012. Integrating social exchange and affective explanations for the receipt of help and harm: A social network approach. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes.* **117**(1), pp.66-79.

Macey, W.H. and Schneider, B. 2008. The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology.* **1**, pp.3-30.

MacKenzie, S.B., Podsakoff, N.P. and Fetter, R. 1991. Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Objective Productivity as Determinants of Managerial Evaluations of Salespersons' Performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes.* **50**, pp.123-150.

Maneotis, S.M., Grandey, A.A. and Krauss, A.D. 2014. Understanding the "why" as well as the "how": Service performance is a function of prosocial motives and emotional labor. . *Human Performance.* **27**, pp.80-97.

Marshall, C. and Rossman, G.B. 2011. *Designing Qualitative Research.* 5 ed. California: Sage.

Mauss, M. 1925. *The gift: forms and functions of exchange in archaic society.* New York: Free Press.

Maxwell, J. 2004a. Causal explanation, qualitative research, and scientific inquiry in education. *Educational Researcher.* **33**(1), pp.3-11.

Maxwell, J. 2004b. Using qualitative methods for causal explanation. *Field Methods.* **16**(3), pp.243-264.

Maxwell, J. 2009. Evidence: Critical realist perspective for qualitative research. In: Denzin, N.K. and Giardina, M. eds. *Qualitative inquiry and social justice.* Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press, pp.108-122.

Maxwell, J. 2012. *A realist approach to qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Mayselles, O. 2016. *The caring motivation: An integrated theory.* New York: Oxford University Press.

McAllister, D.J. and Bigley, G.A. 2002. Work Context and the Definition of Self: How Organizational Care Influences Organization-Based Self-Esteem. *Academy of Management Journal.* **45**(5), pp.894-904.

McAllister, D.J., Kamdar, D., Morrison, E.W. and 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**(5), pp.1200-1211.

McAndrew, F. 2002. New Evolutionary Perspectives on Altruism - Multilevel-Selection and Costly-Signaling Theories. *Current directions in Psychological Science.* **11**(2), pp.79-82.

McKnight, D.H., Cummings, L.L. and Chervany, N.L. 1988. Initial trust formation in new organizational relationships. *Academy of Management Review.* **23**, pp.473-490.

McNeely, B.L. and Meglino, B.M. 1994. The role of dispositional and situational antecedents in prosocial organizational behaviour: An examination of the intended beneficiaries of prosocial behaviour. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **79**(6), pp.836-844.

Meeker, B.F. 1971. Decisions and exchange. *American Sociological Review.* **36**, pp.485-495.

Meglino, B.M. and Korsgaard, M.A. 2004. Considering Rational Self-Interest as a Disposition: Organizational Implications of Other Orientation. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **89**(6), pp.946-959.

Meglino, B.M. and Korsgaard, M.A. 2006. Considering Situational and Dispositional Approaches to Rational Self-Interest: An Extension and Response to De Dreu (2006). *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **91**(6), pp.1253-1259.

Mencl, J. and May, D.R. 2009. The effects of proximity and empathy on ethical decision-making: An exploratory investigation. *Journal of Business Ethics.* **85**, pp.201-226.

Methot, J.R., Lepak, D., Shipp, A.J. and Boswell, W.R. 2017. Good Citizen Interrupted: Calibrating a Temporal Theory of Citizenship Behavior. *Academy of Management Review.* **42**(1), pp.10-31.

Meyer, J.P. and Allen, N.J. 1991. A Three Component Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment. *Human Resource Management Review.* **1**(1), pp.61-88.

Mickel, A.E. and Barron, L.A. 2008. Getting "more bang for the buck": Symbolic value of monetary rewards in organizations. *Journal of Management Inquiry.* **17**, pp.329-338.

Mignonac, K. and Richebe, N. 2013. No strings attached?: How attribution of disinterested support affects employee retention. *Human Resource Management Journal.* **23**(1), pp.72-90.

Miles, M.B. and Huberman, A.M. 1994. *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Miller, K. 2005. *Communication Theories.* New York: McGraw Hill.

Mintzberg, H. 2005. Developing theory about the development of theory. In: Smith, K.G. and Hitt, M.A. eds. *Great minds in management: The process of theory development.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp.355–372.

Moon, H., Kamdar, D., Mayer, D.M. and Takeuchi, R. 2008. Me or we? The role of personality and justice as other-centered antecedents to innovative citizenship behaviors within organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **93**, pp.84-94.

Moon, H., van Dyne, L. and Wrobel, K. 2005. The circumplex model and the future of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. In: Turnipseed, D.L. ed. *A handbook on organizational citizenship behaviour: A review of 'good soldier' activity in organizations.* New York: Nova Sceince Publishers.

Moore, M.H. 2000. Managing for Value: Organizational Strategy in For-Profit, Nonprofit, and Governmental Organizations. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly.* **29**(1), pp.183-208.

Moorman, R.H. and Blakely, G.L. 1995. Individualism-collectivism as an individual difference predictor of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* **16**(2), pp.127-142.

Morgan, D.L. 2015. *Essentials of Dyadic Interviewing.* London: Routledge.

Morgan, D.L., Ataie, J., Carder, P. and Hoffman, K. 2013. Introducing Dyadic Interviews as a Method for Collecting Qualitative Data. *Qualitative Health Research.* **23**(9), pp.1276-1284.

Morgan, D.L., Eliot, S., Lowe, R.A. and Gorman, P. 2016. Dyadic Interviews as a Tool for Qualitative Evaluation. *American Journal of Evaluation.* **37**(1), pp.109-117.

Morrison, E.W. 1994. Role Definitions and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Importance of the Employee's Perspective. *Academy of Management Journal.* **37**(6), pp.1543-1567.

Morrison, E.W. 1996. Organizational Citizenship Behavior as a Critical Link between HRM Practices and Service Quality. *Human Resource Management.* **35**(4), pp.493-512.

Morrison, E.W. 2002. Newcomers' relationships: The role of social network ties during socialization. *Academy of Management Journal.* **45**, pp.1149-1160.

Mossholder, K.W., Richardson, H.A. and Setton, R.P. 2011. Human resource systems and helping in organizations: A relational pespective. *Academy of Management Review.* **36**(1), pp.33-52.

Motowidlo, S.J. and Van Scotter, J.R. 1994. Evidence that task performance should be distinguished from contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **79**(4), pp.475-480.

Neubert, M.J., Kacmar, K.M., Carlson, D.S., Chonko, L.B. and Roberts, J.A. 2008. Regulatory focus as a mediator o the influence of initiating structure and servant leadership on employee behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **93**, pp.1220-1233.

Nightingale, D.J. and Cromby, J. 2002. Social constructionism as ontology: Exposition and example. *Theory and Psychology.* **12**(5), pp.701-713.

O'Mahoney, J. and Vincent, S. 2014. Critical realism as an empirical project: A beginner's guide. In: Edwards, M.R., et al. eds. *Studying organizations using ciritical realism: A practical guide.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp.1-20.

Oakley, B., Knafo, A., Madhavan, G. and Wilson, D.S. 2012. *Pathological Altruism.* USA: Oxford University Press.

Oliner, S. 2002. Extraordinary acts of ordinary people: Faces of heroism and altruism. In: S., P., et al. eds. *Altruism and altruistic love: Science, philosophy and religion in dialogue.* New York: Oxford University Press, pp.123–139.

Oliner, S.P. and Oliner, P.M. 1988. *The Altruistic Personality.* New York: The Free Press.

Oliver, D.G., Serovich, J.M. and Mason, T.L. 2005. Constraints and opportunities with interview transcription: Towards reflection in qualitative research. *Social Forces.* **84**(2), pp.1273-1289.

Olsen, R. 2008. Self-selection bias. In: Lavrakas, P.J. ed. *Encyclopedia of Survey Research Methods.* Sage Research Methods.

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

Organ, D.W. 1990. The motivational basis of organizational citizenship behavior. In: Staw, B.M. and Cummings, L.L. eds. *Research in Organizational Behavior.* pp.43-72.

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

Organ, D.W. and Ryan, M. 1995. A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology.* **48**, pp.775-802.

Paine, J.B. and Organ, D.W. 2000. The cultural matrix of organizational citizenship behavior: Some preliminary conceptual and empirical observations. *Human Resource Management Review.* **10**, pp.45-59.

Parker, S. and Collins, C.G. 2010. Taking Stock: Integrating and Differentiating Multiple Proactive Behaviors. *Journal of Management.* **36**(3), pp.633-662.

Parker, S., Williams, H.M. and Turner, N. 2006. Modeling the Antecedents of Proactive Behavior at Work. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **91**(3), pp.636-652.

Parker, S.K. 2000. From passive to proactive motivation: The importance of flexible role orientations and role breadth self-efficacy. *Applied Psychology: An International Review.* **49**, pp.447-469.

Parker, S.K., Wall, T.D. and Jackson, P.R. 1997. "That's not my job": Developing flexible employee work orientations. *Academy of Management Journal.* **40**, pp.899-929.

Patton, M. 2015. *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods: Integrating Theory and Practice.* 4 ed. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Pawson, R. and Tilley, N. 1997. *Realistic evaluation.* London: Sage.

Penner, L.A., Dovidio, J.F., Piliavin, J.A. and Schroeder, D.A. 2005. Prosocial behavior: multilevel perspectives. *Annu Rev Psychol.* **56**, pp.365-392.

Penner, L.A. and Orom, H. 2010. Enduring goodness: A person-by-situation perspective on prosocial behavior. In: Mikulincer, M. and Shaver, P.R. eds. *Prosocial motives, emotions, and behavior: The better angels of our nature.* Washington DC: American Psychological Association, pp.55-72.

Perlow, L. and Weeks, J. 2002. Who's helping whom? Layers of culture and workplace behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour.* **23**, pp.345-361.

Piekkari, R., Plakoyiannaki, E. and Welch, C. 2010. 'Good' case research in industrial marketing: Insights from research practice. *Industrial Marketing Management.* **39**, pp.109-117.

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

Podsakoff, N.P., Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Maynes, T.D. and Spoelma, T.M. 2014. Consequences of unit-level organizational citizenship behaviors: A review and recommendations for future research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* **35**, pp.87-119.

Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Moorman, R.H. and Fetter, R. 1990. Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader,

satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly.* **1**(2), pp.107-142.

Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Paine, J.B. and Bachrach, D.G. 2000. Organizational citizenship behaviours: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management.* **26**(3), pp.513-563.

Putnam, H. 1999. *The threefold cord: Mind, body, and world.* New York: Columbia University Press.

Radcliffe, L. and Cassell, C. 2014. Resolving couple's work-family conflicts: The complexity of decision-making and the introduction of a new framework. *Human Relations.* **67**(7), pp.793-819.

Ragins, B.R., Cotton, J.L. and Miller, J.S. 2000. Marginal mentoring: The effects of type of mentor, quality of relationship, and program design on work and career attitudes. *Academy of Management Journal.* **43**(6), pp.1177-1194.

Ragins, B.R. and Dutton, J.E. 2007. Positive relationships at work: An invitation and introduction. In: Dutton, J.E. and Ragins, B.R. eds. *Exploring positive relationships at work: Building a theoretical and research foundation.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, pp.3-25.

Rank, J., Carsten, J.M., Unger, J.M. and Spector, P.E. 2007. Proactive customer service performance: Relationships with individual, task, and leadership variables. *Human Performance.* **20**, pp.363-390.

Rank, J., Pace, V.L. and Frese, M. 2004. Three avenues for future research on creativity, innovation, and initiative. *Applied Psychology: An International Review.* **53**, pp.518-528.

Ratner, R.K. and Miller, D.T. 2001. The norm of self-interest and its effects on social action. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* **81**(1), pp.5-16.

Rawls, J.R., Ullrich, R.A. and Nelson, O.T. 1975. A Comparison of Managers Entering or Reentering The Profit and Nonprofit Sectors. *Academy of Management Journal.* **18**(3), pp.616-623.

Reiche, B.S., Cardona, P., Lee, Y.-T., Canela, M.Á., Akinnukawe, E., Briscoe, J.P., Bullara, C., Caparas, M.V., Caprar, D.V., Charlemagne, D., Grenness, T., He, W., Jamro, K., Kainzbauer, A., Koester, K., Lazo, A., Moreno, A., Morley, M.J., Myloni, V., Nadeem, S., Aguirre Nieto, M., Svishchev, A., Taylor, S.N. and Wilkinson, H. 2014. Why do Managers Engage in Trustworthy Behavior? A Multilevel Cross-Cultural Study in 18 Countries. *Personnel Psychology.* **67**(1), pp.61-98.

Reynolds, C.A., Shoss, M.K. and Jundt, D.K. 2015. In the Eye of the beholder: a multi-stakeholder perspective of organizational citizenship and counterproductive work behaviors. *Human Resource Management Review.* **25**, pp.80-93.

Rhoades, L. and Eisenberger, R. 2002. Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **87**, pp.698-714.

Rioux, S.M. and Penner, L.A. 2001. The causes of organizational citizenship behavior: A motivational analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **86**(6), pp.1306-1314.

Rubin, H.J. and Rubin, I. 2012. *Qualitative Interviewing: The Art of Hearing.* Lodnon: Sage.

Rubin, R.S., Dierdorff, E.C. and Bachrach, D.G. 2013. Boundaries of Citizenship Behavior: Curvilinearity and Context in the Citizenship and Task Performance Relationship. *Personnel Psychology.* **66**(2), pp.377-406.

Rushton, J.P., Fulker, D.W., Neale, M.C., Nias, D.K. and Eysenck, H.J. 1986. Altruism and aggression: The heritability of individual differences. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin.* **50**, pp.1192-1198.

Ryan, R.M. and Deci, E.L. 2000. Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist.* **55**, pp.68-78.

Sahlins, M. 1972. *Stone age economics.* New York: Aldine de Gruyter.

Saumure, K. and Given, L. 2008. Data saturation. In: Given, L. ed. *The SAGE encyclopedia of qualitative research methods.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp.196-197.

Sayer, A. 1992. *Method in social science: a realist approach.* London: Routledge.

Sayer, A. 2000. *Realism and Social Science.* London: Sage.

Sayer, A. 2004. Why critical realism? In: Fleetwood, S. and Ackroyd, S. eds. *Critical realist applications in organisation and management studies.* London: Routledge, pp.6-20.

Schaller, M. and Cialdini, R.B. 1988. The economics of empathic helping: Support for a mood-management motive. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology.* **24**, pp.163-181.

Schein, E.H. 1980. *Organizational Psychology.* New York: Prentice-Hall.

Schenk, J. and Heinisch, R. 1986. Self-descriptions by means of sex-role scales and personality scales: A critical evaluation of recent masculinity and femininity scale. *Personality and Individual Differences.* **7**(2), pp.161-168.

Scholer, A.A. and Higgins, E.T. 2010. Regulatory focus in a demanding world. In: Hoyle, R.H. ed. *Handbook of personality and self-regulation.* Malden, MA: Blackwell, pp.291-314.

Schwab, D.P. 1980. Construct validity in organizational behavior. In: Cummings, L.L. and Staw, B.M. eds. *Research in organizational behavior.* Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, pp.3-43.

Seale, C., Charteris-Black, J., Dumelow, C., Locok, L. and Ziebland, S. 2008. The effect of joint interviewing on the performance of gender. *Field Methods.* **20**, pp.107-128.

Settoon, R.P. and Mossholder, K.W. 2002. Relationship Quality and Relationship Context as Antecedents of Person- and Task-Focused Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **87**(3), pp.255–267.

Shank, G.D. 2005. *Qualitative research: A personal skills approach.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Sheldon, K. and Lyubormirsky, S. 2004. Achieving sustainable new happiness: Prospects, practices, and prescriptions. In: Linley, P.A. and Joseph, S. eds. *Positive psychology in practice.* Hoboken, NJ: Wiley, pp.127-145.

Sheldon, K.M., Arndt, J. and Houser-Marko, L. 2003. In search of the organismic valuing process: The human tendency to move towards beneficial goal choices. *Journal of Personality.* **71**, pp.835-869.

Shore, L.M., Barksdale, K. and Shore, T.D. 1995. Managerial perceptions of employee commitment to the organization. *Academy of Management Journal.* **38**(6), pp.1593-1615.

Sibicky, M.E., Schroeder, D.A. and Dovidio, J.F. 1995. Empathy and helping: Considering the consequences of intervention. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology.* **16**, pp.435-453.

Sluss, D.M. and Ashforth, B.E. 2007. Relational identity and identification: Defining ourselves through work relationships. *Academy of Management Review.* **32**(1), pp.9-32.

Smith, C. and Elger, T. 2014. Critical realism and interviewing subjects. In: Edwards, M.R., et al. eds. *Studying organizations using critical realism: A practical guide.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp.109-131.

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

Smith, K.D., Keating, J.P. and Stotland, E. 1989. Altruism reconsidered: The effect of denying feedback on a victim's status to empathic witnesses. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* **57**, pp.641-650.

Snell, R.S. and Wong, Y.L. 2007. Differentiating Good Soldiers from Good Actors. *Journal of Management Studies.* **44**(6), pp.883-909.

Snyder, M., Clary, E.G. and Stukas, A.A. 2000. The functional approach to volunteerism. In: Maio, G.R. and Olson, J.M. eds. *Why we evaluate: Functions of attitudes.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., pp.365–393.

Sommerfeld, R.D., Krambeck, H., Semmann, D. and Milinski, M. 2007. Gossip as an alternative for direct observation in games of indirect reciprocity. *PNAS: Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences.* **104**, pp.17435-17440.

Sonnentag, S. and Grant, A.M. 2012. Doing good at work feels good at home but not right away: When and why perceived prosocial impact predicts positive affect. *Personnel Psychology.* **65**, pp.495-530.

Sosik, J.J., Jung, D. and Dinger, S.L. 2009. Values in Authentic Action Examining the Roots and Rewards of Altruistic Leadership. *Group & Organization Management.* **34**(4), pp.395-431.

Spence, J.R., Ferris, D.L., Brown, D.J. and Heller, D. 2011. Understanding daily citizenship behaviors: A social comparison perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* **32**, pp.547-571.

Spitzmuller, M. and Van Dyne, L. 2013. Proactive and reactive helping: Contrasting the positive consequences of different forms of helping. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* **34**(4), pp.560-580.

Spitzmuller, M., Van Dyne, L. and Ilies, R. 2008. Organizational Citizenship Behavior: A Review and Extension of its Nomological Network. In: Barling, J. and Cooper, C.L. eds. *The SAGE Handbook of Organizational Behavior: Volume I - Micro Approaches.* London: Sage, pp.106-123.

Stake, R.E. 1995. *The Art of Case Study Research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stake, R.E. 2000. The case study method in social inquiry. In: Gomm, R., et al. eds. *Case study method: Key issues, key texts.* London: Sage, pp.20-26.

Staub, E. 1974. Helping a distressed person: Social, personality and stimulus determinants. In: Berkowitz, L. ed. *Advances in experimental social psychology.* Academic Press.

Steyaert, C. and Bouwen, R. 2004. Group methods of organizational analysis. In: Cassell, C. and Symon, G. eds. *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research.* London: Sage.

Stich, S., Doris, J.M. and Roedder, E. 2010. Altruism. In: Doris, J.M. and Group, T.M.P.R. eds. *The Handbook of Moral Psychology.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Strobel, M., Tumasjan, A., Spörrle, M. and Welpe, I.M. 2013. The future starts today, not tomorrow: How future focus promotes organizational citizenship behaviors. *Human Relations.* **66**(6), pp.829-856.

Suddaby, R. 2010. Editor's comments: Construct clarity in theories of management and organization. *Academy of Management Review.* **35**(3), pp.346-357.

Sumner, M. 2006. Epistemology. In: Jupp, V. ed. *The SAGE Dictionary of Social Research Methods.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tang, T.L., Sutarso, T., Davis, G., Dolinski, D., Ibrahim, A.H. and Wagner, S.L. 2008. To Help or Not to Help? The Good Samaritan Effect and the Love of Money on Helping Behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics.* **82**(4), pp.865-887.

Taylor, S.G., Kluemper, D.H. and Mossholder, K.W. 2010. Linking personality to interpersonal citizenship behaviour: The moderating effect of empathy. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology.* **83**, pp.815-834.

Tepper, B.J., Duffy, M.K., Hobbler, J. and Ensley, M.D. 2004. Moderators of the relationships between coworkers' organizational citizenship behavior and fellow employees' attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **89**(3), pp.455-465.

Thau, S., Bennett, R.J., Stahlberg, D. and Werner, J.M. 2004. Why should I be generous when I have valued and accessible alternatives? Alternative exchange partners and OCB. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* **25**, pp.607-626.

Toegel, G., Kilduff, M. and Anand, N. 2013. Emotion helping by managers: An emergent understanding of discrepant role expectations and outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal.* **56**(2), pp.334-357.

Trougakos, J.P., Beal, D.J., Cheng, B.G., Hideg, I. and D., Z. 2015. Too drained to help: a resource depletion perspective on daily interpersonal citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **100**(1), pp.227-236.

Tsoukas, H. 2000. False dilemmas in organization theory: Realism or social constructivism? *Organization.* **7**(3), pp.531-535.

Turnipseed, D.L. and Rassuli, A. 2005. Performance Perceptions of Organizational Citizenship Behaviours at Work: A Bi-Level Study among Managers and Employees. *British Journal of Management.* **16**(3), pp.231-244.

Turnipseed, D.L. and Wilson, G.L. 2009. From Discretionary to Required: The Migration of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies.* **15**(3), pp.201-216.

Van Dyne, L., Cummings, L.L. and Parks, J.M. 1995. Extra-role behaviors: In pursuit of construct and definitional clarity (a bridge over muddied waters). In: Cummings, L.L. and Staw, B.M. eds. *Research in Organizational Behavior.* Greenwich: RJAI Press, pp.215-285.

Van Dyne, L., Graham, J.W. and Dienesh, R.M. 1994. Organizational Citizenship Behaviour: Construct redefinition, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal.* **37**, pp.765-802.

Van Dyne, L. and LePine, J.A. 1998. Helping and Voice Extra-Role Behaviors: Evidence of Construct and Predictive Validity. *Academy of Management Journal.* **41**(1), pp.108-119.

Van Emmerik, I.H., Jawahar, I.M. and Stone, T.H. 2005. Associations among altruism, burnout dimensions, and organizational citizenship behaviour. *Work & Stress.* **19**(1), pp.93-100.

Van Lange, P.A., Joireman, J., Parks, C.D. and Van Dijk, E. 2013. The psychology of social dilemmas: A review. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* **120**, pp.125-141.

Vey, M.A. and Campbell, J.P. 2004. In-Role or Extra-Role Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Which Are We Measuring? *Human Performance.* **17**(1), pp.119-135.

Vigoda-Gadot, E. 2006. Compulsory citizenship behavior: Theorizing some dark sides of the good soldier syndrome in organizations. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour.* **36**, pp.77-93.

Vigoda-Gadot, E. 2007. Redrawing the boundaries of OCB? An empirical examination of compulsory extra-role behavior in the workplace. *Journal of Business and Psychology* **21**(3), pp.377-405.

Vigoda-Gadot, E. and Angert, L. 2007. Goal Setting Theory, Job Feedback, and OCB: Lessons From a Longitudinal Study. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology.* **29**(2), pp.119-128.

Vincent, S. and Wapshott, R. 2014. Critical realism and the organisational case study: A guide to discovering institutional mechanisms. In: Edwards, P., et al. eds. *Putting Critical Realism into Practice: A Guide to Research Methods in Organization Studies.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wagner, S.L. and Rush, M.C. 2000. Altruistic organizational citizenship behaviour: Context, disposition, and age. *The Journal of Social Psychology.* **140**(3), pp.379-391.

Walker, K.L. and Dickson, F.C. 2004. An exploration of illness-related narratives in marriage: The identification of illness-identy sripts. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships.* **21**(4), pp.527-544.

Wallace, M. and Wray, A. 2016. *Critical Reading and Writing for Postgraduates.* 3 ed. London: Sage.

Wang, L. and Murnighan, J.K. 2011. On greed. *Academy of Management Annals.* **5**, pp.279-316.

Wayne, S.J. and Ferris, G.R. 1990. Influence Tactics, affect, and exchange quality in supervisor- subordinate interactions: A laboratory experiment and field study. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **75**, pp.487-499.

Weingart, L.R., Bennett, R.J. and Brett, J.M. 1993. The impact of consideration of issues and motivational orientation on group negotiation process and outcome. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **78**(3), pp.504-517.

Weinstein, N., DeHaan, C.R. and Ryan, R.M. 2010. Attributing autonomous versus introjected motivation to helpers and the recipient experience: Effects on gratitude, attitudes, and well-being. *Motivation and Emotion.* **34**, pp.418-431.

Weinstein, N. and Ryan, R.M. 2010. When helping helps: Autonomous motivation for prosocial behavior and its influence on well-being for the helper and recipient. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* **98**, pp.222-244.

Welch, C., Piekkari, R., Plakoyiannaki, E. and Paavilainen-Mäntymäki, E. 2010. Theorising from case studies: Towards a pluralist future for international business research. *Journal of International Business Studies.* **42**(5), pp.740–762.

Werner, J.M. 1994. Dimensions that make a difference: Examining the impact of in-role and extra-role behaviours on supervisory ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* **79**, pp.98-107.

Wild, T., Enzle, M.E., Nix, G. and Deci, E.L. 1997. Perceiving others as intrinsically or extrinsically motivated: Effects on expectancy formation and task engagement. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin.* **23**, pp.837-848.

Willer, R. 2009. Groups reward individual sacrifice: The status solution to the collective action problem. *American Sociological Review.* **74**, pp.23-43.

Willer, R., Flynn, F.J. and Zak, S. 2012. Structure, identity, and solidarity: A comparative field study of generalized and direct exchange. *Administrative Science Quarterly.* **57**, pp.119-155.

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

Winter, V. and Thaler, J. 2015. Does Motivation Matter for Employer Choices? A Discrete-Choice Analysis of Medical Students' Decisions Among Public, Nonprofit, and For-Profit Hospitals. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly.* pp.1-25.

Wolcott, H.F. 2009. *Writing up qualitative research.* 3 ed. Los Angeles: Sage.

Worline, M.C. and Dutton, J.E. 2017. *Awakening Compassion at Work: The Quiet Power that Elevates People and Organizations.* Oakland, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Wright, S.C. and Richard, N.T. 2000. Cross-group helping: Perspectives on why and why not. In: Stürmer, S. and Snyder, M. eds. *The psychology of prosocial behavior:*

Group processes, intergroup relations, and helping. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell, pp.311-335.

Yin, R.K. 2013. *Case study research: Design and methods (Applied Social Research Methods).* 5 ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

You-Jin, K., Van Dyne, L., Kamdar, D. and Russell, E., J. 2013. Why and when do motives matter? An integrative model of motives, role cognitions, and social support as predictors of OCB. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes.* **121**(2), pp.231-245.

Zhang, M., Zheng, W. and Wei, J. 2009. Sources of social capital: Effects of altruistic citizenship behavior and job involvement on advice network centrality. *Human Resource Development Quarterly.* **20**(2), pp.195-217.

Zhao, H.H., Peng, Z. and Chen, H.K. 2014. Compulsory Citizenship Behavior and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Role of Organizational Identification and Perceived Interactional Justice. *Journal of Psychology.* **148**(2), pp.177-196.

Appendix A: Interview guide

Introduction
Introduce yourself
Thank for the participants' interest and time
Briefly explain research
Explain the interview process
Provide a consent form
Assure of anonymity and confirm participants' agreement to being audio-recorded
Ask for questions

Re-stating the aim of the interview
Today I would like to talk to you about a specific type of behaviour that might take place at your workplace. This is the kind of behaviour which is performed by an employee to benefit a colleague as an end in itself. By an end in itself I mean that helping in not a way to achieve some benefits for oneself – it is helping the other person. What is more, this type of behaviour potentially requires some degree of selflessness and may become associated with some costs to oneself.
Give an example to illustrate.
The following questions that I will ask should be considered in relation to the behaviours I have just described.
Is that OK with you or would it be beneficial if I explain it in more detail?

Main interview questions *not necessarily in order; follow-up questions may be asked; some questions might not be asked if they seem irrelevant during the course of an interview*	
1.	**General questions**
1.1.	I would like you to tell me what you think about the behaviours I have just described in terms of being displayed in your organization. *Go straight to the next question.*
1.2.	Do you see people in your company engaging in such behaviours?
	If yes: What does it involve, can you give me some examples? Why do you think they do it? What might influence their decision?
	If no: What do you think might have affected this?
2.	**Experiences of colleagues helping each other**
2.1.	Can you think of any experiences when your colleagues helped others just for the sake of helping?
	Whom where they helping?
	What were they helping them with?
	What do you think affected their willingness to help?
	How do you think they felt about it?

2.2.	If you think about your colleagues, are there any people that are more likely than others to engage in such behaviours?
	Why do you think it is so?
	How would you describe these people (that person)?
2.3.	If you think about your colleagues, are there any people that are less likely than others to engage in such behaviours?
	Why do you think it is so?
	How would you describe these people (that person)?
2.4.	What do you think makes it easier for some and more difficult or challenging for others to engage in such behaviours?
3.	**Participants' own experiences**
3.1.	Do you have a chance to engage in such help-giving behaviours?
	Can you give me an example?
	Who are you helping and what are you helping with?
	What makes you help? / What stops you from helping?
	How do you feel about it?

4.	**Antecedents**
4.1.	When one of your colleagues decides whether to help someone, what do you think does he or she take under consideration?
	How it may affect one's decision?
	Why is this important?
4.2.	Can you think of anything that would make it easier for engaging in such behaviours in your organization?
	What could it be?
	In what ways will it facilitate the process?
4.3.	Can you think of anything that could be stopping your colleagues from wanting to help another person?
	What could it be?
	In what ways does it inhibit such behaviours?
5.	**Consequences**
	What do you think are the consequences for those who engage in such help giving actions?
	What are the consequences for those who are being helped?
	What are the consequences for those who are helping?
	What are the consequences for an organization?

6.	**Conclusions**
Thank participant for their time.	
Inform participants when the results will be available	
Ask if they have any questions.	

Appendix B: Background questionnaire

UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

INTRODUCTION

Thank you for your recent interview with me and I appreciate your completion of this follow-up survey. It should take approximately 10 minutes to complete. Please be assured that all answers you provide will be strictly confidential. As you can see, I have used a participants' ID to help me with participants identification for administrative purposes, however, the responses will be compiled together and analysed as a group rather than being identified by individuals. This questionnaire consists of 3 parts. Part 1 collects some basic information about you. Part 2 is designed to learn about your personality. In Part 3 you will be able to provide your opinion and make any comments about the format of your recent interview as well as today's questionnaire. Please take your time to complete the questionnaire and email it back to me (bn12jml@leeds.ac.uk) upon completion. If you prefer it as a hard copy, please let me know and I will post it to you along with a pre-paid envelope for an easy return. Thank you for your help.

PART 1

Please answer the following questions:

    a) What is your gender?

            ☐

    b) What it is your current position in your organization?

            ☐

PART 2

Below are a number of statements which may or may not describe you, your feelings or your behaviour. Please read each statement carefully and indicate how much do you agree with it. <u>There are no right or wrong responses.</u>

1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

1. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me. ☐

2. I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the "other person's" point of view. ☐

3. Sometimes I don't feel very sorry for other people when they are having problems. ☐

4. I try to look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision. ☐

5. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards them. ☐

6. I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective. ☐

7. Other people's misfortunes do not usually disturb me a great deal. ☐

8. If I'm sure I'm right about something, I don't waste much time listening to
   other people's arguments.

9. When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very
   much pity for them.

10. I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.

11. I believe that there are two sides to every question and try to look at them both.

12. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.

13. When I'm upset at someone, I usually try to "put myself in their shoes" for a while.

14. Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their
    place.

PART 3

Following our interview, please use the space below to make any comments you may have about it. I am particularly interested in your thoughts on the format of an interview - i.e., how did you feel about being interviewed together with a colleague of yours? Please let me know if there was anything that you particularly liked or you would have changed.

Today I asked you to complete this questionnaire. Please use the space below to make any comments about it (e.g., was it difficult to complete, was there anything in particular that you didn't understand/like/would have changed?).

Thank you

Appendix C: Overview of the sample

	Not-for-profit Organization		
	Participant ID	Gender	Position
Dyad 1	N-1 Laura	Female	Senior manager
	N-1 Tracy	Female	Senior manager
Dyad 2	N-2 Gail	Female	Manager
	N-2 Betty	Female	Administrative worker
Dyad 3	N-3 Todd	Male	Support Worker
	N-3 Ed	Male	Support Worker
Dyad 4	N-4 Mike	Male	Support Worker
	N-4 Simon	Male	Support Worker
Dyad 5	N-5 Noah	Male	Senior Manager
	N-5 Kristina	Female	Senior Manager
Dyad 6	N-6 Mary	Female	Manager
	N-6 Imogen	Female	Manager
Dyad 7	N-7 Bart	Male	Manager
	N-7 Louise	Female	Senior Manager
Dyad 8	N-8 Donna	Female	Manager
	N-8 Natalie	Female	Manager
Dyad 9	N-9 Ted	Male	Support Worker
	N-9 Helen	Female	Support Worker
Dyad 10	N-10 Ursula	Female	Support Worker
	N-10 Karl	Male	Support Worker
Dyad 11	N-11 Maggie	Female	Manager
	N-11 Hannah	Female	Manager
Dyad 12	N-12 Chloe	Female	Support Worker

	N-12 Freya	Female	Administrative worker
Dyad 13	N-13 Darren	Male	Support Worker
	N-13 Leo	Male	Support Worker
Dyad 14	N-14 Mark	Male	Support Worker
	N-14 Kath	Female	Manager
Dyad 15	N-15 Amy	Female	Manager
	N-15 Bridget	Female	Manager
Dyad 16	N-16 Nick	Male	Manager
	N-16 Becky	Female	Manager

School			
	Participant ID	Gender	Position
Dyad 1	S-1 Luke	Male	Head Teacher
	S-1 Jeff	Male	Head Teacher
Dyad 2	S-2 Nicky	Female	Personal Assistant
	S-2 Kay	Female	Leader Teacher
Dyad 3	S-3 Mia	Female	Administrative worker
	S-3 Sue	Female	Teacher
Dyad 4	S-4 Ugo	Male	Teacher
	S-4 Ben	Male	Teacher
Dyad 5	S-5 Karen	Female	Head of Department
	S-5 Donna	Female	Administrative worker
Dyad 6	S-6 Chuck	Male	Teacher
	S-6 Rod	Male	Teacher
Dyad 7	S-7 Cynthia	Female	Leader Teacher
	S-7 Kieran	Male	Head of Department
Dyad 8	S-8 Alice	Female	Teacher
	S-8 Kim	Female	Assistant to Head of Dept.
Dyad 9	S-9 Zoe	Female	Head of Department
	S-9 Moira	Female	Support Leader
Dyad 10	S-10 Ivy	Female	Assistant to Head Teacher
	S-10 Ellie	Female	Senior Mentor
Dyad 11	S-11 Kevin	Male	Teacher
	S-11 Ethan	Male	Leader Teacher
Dyad 12	S-12 Kate	Female	Teacher
	S-12 – Melanie	Female	Manager

Dyad 13	S-13 Joanne	Female	Administrator
	S-13 Alex	Male	Teacher Assistant
Dyad 14	S-14 Tina	Female	Receptionist
	S-14 Lauren	Female	Technician
Dyad 15	S-15 Ralph	Male	Administrative Worker
	S-15 Eva	Female	Head of Department
Dyad 16	S-16 Rosie	Female	Manager
	S-16 Stanley	Male	Manager

Academic Institution			
	Participant ID	Gender	Position
Dyad 1	A-1 Anna	Female	Administrative Worker
	A-1 Rob	Male	Administrative Worker
Dyad 2	A-2 Steve	Male	Reader
	A-2 Bernie	Male	Senior Lecturer
Dyad 3	A-3 Martha	Female	Manager
	A-3 Rachael	Female	Manager
Dyad 4	A-4 Kate	Female	Lecturer
	A-4 Tamara	Female	Lecturer
Dyad 5	A-5 Lisa	Female	Professor
	A-5 Ian	Male	Senior Lecturer
Dyad 6	A-6 Beth	Female	Lecturer
	A-6 Tess	Female	Lecturer
Dyad 7	A-7 Norbert	Male	Senior Lecturer
	A-7 Liam	Male	Professor
Dyad 8	A-8 Hollie	Female	Administrative Worker
	A-8 Emily	Female	Coordinator
Dyad 9	A-9 Fiona	Female	Librarian
	A-9 Henry	Male	Technician
Dyad 10	A-10 Charles	Male	Administrative Worker
	A-10 Theresa	Female	Administrative Worker
Dyad 11	A-11 Hayden	Male	IT Specialist
	A-11 Ava	Female	Administrative Worker
Dyad 12	A-12 Brad	Male	Marketing Specialist
	A-12 Anna	Female	Manager

Dyad 13	A-13 Diane	Female	Administrative Worker
	A-13 Kayla	Female	Administrative Worker
Dyad 14	A-14 Nathan	Male	Lecturer
	A-14 Dorothy	Female	Lecturer
Dyad 15	A-15 Ellen	Female	Lecturer
	A-15 Danielle	Female	Associate Dean

Appendix D: Letter of introduction (organizations)

UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

Dear [name],

I hope you're well.

My name is Joanna Szulc and I am conducting my PhD at the University of Leeds. My research focuses on colleagues helping each other out as an end in itself.

I am conducting a few case studies in different companies in order to thoroughly explore the topic and I wanted to invite [company name] to take part in it.

Let me tell you a few details about the project which might make it easier for you to make your decision. I chose to approach [company name] because it is the perfect company (context-wise) to fit my research purpose. However, most importantly, I believe the topic that I explore will be of interest to you as research shows the existence of such behaviours and its lack has influence on many aspects of the company's performance and employees' well-being. Such other-oriented helping may bring a whole host of benefits to the organization and its employees but it seems that there is also a dark side to it. As a consequence, my aim is to raise managerial awareness of those often 'invisible' acts of help and explore how organizations can support and maintain them when they bring benefits to all the parties and discourage or modify them if they lead to negative consequences.

My research would involve conducting around 15 dyadic interviews (i.e., two colleagues interviewed together – in the same time). This means that I am looking to interview 30 employees in total. I would also like to ask participants to fill in a short questionnaire after an interview but this shouldn't take more than 10 minutes. It would

be ideal for me if I could interview people who hold different positions in an organizational hierarchy (i.e., hold different roles and levels of responsibility). Apart from that I don't look for anything specific.

In terms of the time span for conducting interviews, I am flexible so it depends on the availability of your employees. If given a chance to conduct my research with [company name], I will make sure that this is done in the most convenient way for you.

I have also attached an Information Sheet – a document that I give out to participants before they take part in an interview. It outlines what the research is about and answers any potential questions.

Let me also emphasise that the research remains confidential and anonymous. Moreover, if you kindly agree to participate, I will be more than happy to create a report for you where I will make recommendations and offer advice based on extensive literature review and results of my study. I hope this is something you would be able to use for your advantage.

Thank you in advance for taking time to consider my research. I would be very grateful if you agree for me to conduct its part at your company. I hope that you will think favourably about my offer and if you would like to see me in person and ask more questions, I am more than happy to see you at your office or talk to any other member of staff that you believe should be contacted.

 Thank you so much for your time and I am looking forward to hearing from you.

 Kindest regards,

Joanna Szulc

Appendix E: Letter of introduction (employees)

UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

Good morning,

 I hope you're well.

 My name is Joanna Szulc and I am a PhD student at the University of Leeds conducting research on helping behaviours among colleagues.

Please excuse my direct approach but I wanted to ask if you would be interested in helping me out and participating in my research. I am supported by the [name of the company director/HR staff] who kindly agreed for me to ask for your help. In return, I will prepare a tailored report for the [company name] where I will make recommendations and offer advice based on the results of my study. I hope this is something that could be used for the [company name] overall advantage. Consistently, I will really appreciate if you agree – I understand that you have busy schedules but your participation would be invaluable to me.

The research would take a form of a joint interview where I will interview you and one of your colleagues at the same time. This should take around an hour and would take place at the most convenient time for you. Please be assured that no-one will be identified through the research and the [company name] will not be named in the published PhD at all. More information about the project can be found in the attached document. Hopefully, it answers any questions that you may have.

As I have mentioned, I am exploring helping behaviours among colleagues. More specifically, I am looking at helping as an end in itself. My aim is to explore staff perceptions on such behaviours and how organizations can support and maintain them

when they bring benefits to all the parties involved and discourage or modify them if they lead to negative consequences.

I would appreciate if you get in touch with me once you make a decision. If you kindly agree to participate, we could then arrange an interview with you and another colleague of yours which would take place at the most convenient time for both of you.

I really hope that you agree to help me out and I am looking forward to hearing from you.

Kindest regards,

Joanna Szulc

Appendix F: Information sheet

UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

Organizational Altruism: Exploration and development of the concept.

You are being invited to take part in a research project. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

What is the project's purpose?

The aim of this project is to better understand helping behaviours at work. Consideration is given to behaviours when people help colleagues as an end in itself.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen to take part in this research as an employee of [*a company name*]. Your insights are likely to help me obtain a better understanding of the workplace behaviours in which you and your colleagues might engage.

Do I have to take part?

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep (and be asked to sign a consent form) and you can still withdraw before I start collecting data. You do not have to give a reason.

What will happen to me if I take part?

You will be asked to choose a most convenient time and a semi-structured dyadic interview will be conducted (i.e., when you and one of your colleagues are jointly interviewed). The interview will take place only once and should last around an hour. I will be asking you about helping behaviours directed at benefiting someone else as an end in itself. I am interested in finding out whether they take place in your workplace, what forms they may take, and what are the general views and perceptions on them among employees.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

There are no expected risks and disadvantages which could arise during the research. Should this happen, this will be immediately brought to your attention.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

Whilst there are no immediate benefits for those people participating in the project, it is hoped that this work will provide richer understanding and raise managerial awareness of the nature of helping behaviours exerted by employees where this could have biggest impact on the organizational effectiveness and employees' well-being.

Will my taking part in this project be kept confidential?

All the information that we collect about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. You will not be able to be identified in any reports or publications. In case you agree for a dyadic interview, only a colleague to be interviewed at the same time as you will hear your answers.

What will happen to the results of the research project?

The results of the research project might be presented at conferences and further published in academic journals. None of the findings will allow your person to be identified in any report or publication. I am happy to send you a final copy of my thesis upon request.

Who is organizing and funding the research?

I am a PhD student at the University of Leeds and an ESRC scholarship partially contributes to funding this project.

Will I be recorded, and how the recorded media be used?

The audio recordings of your activities made during this research will be used only for analysis. No other use will be made of them and they will be deleted after data is analysed. No one outside the project will be allowed access to the original recordings.

Contact for further information

You can contact me on bn12jml@leeds.ac.uk. Should you wish you can also contact my supervisor – Dr Gail Clarkson on g.p.clarkson@leeds.ac.uk.

Regards,

Joanna Szulc

Appendix G: Consent form

UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

Consent to take part in the research project 'Organizational Altruism: Exploration and development of the concept'.

	Add your initials next to the statements you agree with
I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet explaining the above research project and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project.	
I understand that my participation is voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time without giving reasons and without there being negative consequences.	
I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential and I give permission for members of the research team to have access to my anonymised responses.	
I agree for the data collected from me to be used in relevant future research in an anonymised form.	
I agree to be audio-recorded.	
I agree to take part in the above research project and will inform the lead researcher should my contact details change.	

Name of participant	
Participant's signature	
Date	
Name of lead researcher	Joanna Maria Szulc
Signature	
Date	

Appendix H: Initial coding template

PERCEPTIONS ON OA (P)	
Key characteristics (P-KC)	**Intentions (P-I)**

1. Voluntary
 	
2. Initiative
 	
     a. proactive
 	
     b. reactive
 	
3. Role boundaries
 	
     a. out of role
 	
     b. in-role
 	
     c. in-role but giving something more
 	
4. No benefits for self
 	
5. Cost
 	
6. Related to profession
	1. To benefit an individual
	
	2. To benefit the team
	
	3. For overall good
	
	4. Would otherwise feel guilty
	
	5. To behave by example
	
	6. Intrinsic
	
	7. Reciprocity
	
	8. To build relations

Instinct versus rationality (P-IR)	**Easiness of recognition (P-ER)**

1. Balance between rationality and emotions
 	
2. A lot of thinking
 	
     a. deserve help
 	
     b. weighting effects for others
 	
     c. need to see improvements
 	
     d. equal contribution
 	
     e. not irrational
 	
3. No over-thinking
 	
4. The role of empathy
	1. Easy to recognize
	
	2. Difficult to recognize
	
	     a. feeling good
	
	     b. recognition
	
	     c. achievement
	
	     d. expectations of reciprocation

Frequency (P-F)	

1. A lot
 	
    a. In general
 	
    b. within teams
 	
2. Mixed
 	
3. Not too much
 	
    a. in general
 	
    b. at the top
 	
    c. in outgroups
 	
        i. them and us
 	
    c. lack of altruism viewed negatively
 	
    d. lack of altruism viewed neutrally
 	
4. The need to be altruistic	

EXAMPLES OF OA (E)	
Work related (E-WR)	**Non-work related (E-NWR)**
1. Helping with workload 2. Covering for a colleague 3. Orienting new employees 4. Passing on 5. Challenging others 6. Making sure one is ok 7. Developing others	1. Emotional support 2. Support with personal issues 3. Simple acts of kindness 4. Organizing events

INFLUENCING FACTORS (IF)	
Team level (IF-TL)	**Individual level (IF-IL)**
1. Level of general helpfulness	1. Commitment

2. Relationships	2. Personality 3. Having been in a similar situation
Situational (IF-S)	**(Potential) beneficiary (IF-PB)**
1. Workload 2. Practical ability to help 3. Job security	1. Openness to receiving help 2. Appreciation
Organizational (IF-O)	

1. Management
 	
    a. management displaying altruistic values
 	
    b. supportive management
 	
2. Organizational culture
 	
    a. culture of caring
 	
    b. employees' approachability
 	
    c. organizational interest in the employee
 	
    d. level of competition
 	
3. Organizational structure
 	
    a. role definition
 	
    b. divided workforce
 	
    c. opportunities to interact	

4. Problems of seniors
 	
    a. high responsibility
 	
    b. high expectations
 	
    c. no appreciation
 	
    d. lack of understanding their
 	
     position
 	
    e. isolated
 	
    f. do not see the difference
 	
    g. not trusted
 	
    h. seniors as outgroup	

CONSEQUENCES (C)	
Positive (C-P)	**Negative (C-N)**

1. Organization
    a. staff engagement
 	
    b. better service
 	
    c. better results - organizational level
 	
    d. commitment to the organization
 	
    e. no risk of unmet expectations
 	
2. Team
 	
    a. good team
 	
    b. feeling of togetherness
 	
    c. better results – team level
 	
    d. happy workforce
 	
    e. generalized reciprocity
	1. Individual
	
	    a. burnout
	
	    b. stress
	
	    c. work life balance
	
	    d. being used
	
	    e. difficult to keep boundaries
	
	    f. offensive
	
	    g. disheartening

f. builds relationships
 	
g. comfortable working environment
 	
3. Individual
    a. takes away stress
 	
    b. feeling good
 	
    c. feeling valued
 	
    d. better results – individual level
 	
    e. opportunity to develop
 	
    f. ego/self-esteem
 	
    g. feeling supported	

Appendix I: Final coding template

PERCEPTIONS ON OA (P)	
Key characteristics (P-K)	**Intentions (P-I)**

1. Initiative
 	
    a. proactive
 	
    b. reactive
 	
2. Role boundaries
 	
    a. out of role
 	
    b. in-role
 	
3. Discretionary
 	
4. No benefits for self
 	
5. Degree of cost
 	
6. Relates to profession
 	
7. Quick decision
 	
8. In-group phenomenon
	1. Altruistic
	
	    a. to benefit an individual
	
	    b. to benefit the team
	
	    c. to benefit customers
	
	    d. for overall good
	
	2. Non-altruistic
	
	    a. would otherwise feel guilty
	
	    b. reciprocity
	
	    c. to do a good job
	
	    d. recognition

EXAMPLES OF OA (E)	
Work related (E-WR)	**Non-work related (E-NWR)**
1. Helping with workload 2. Covering for a colleague 3. Orienting new employees	1. Support with personal issues 2. Simple acts of kindness 3. Organizing events

4. Developing others 5. Checking on colleagues 6. Passing on a help request to a more appropriate person	

INFLUENCING FACTORS (IF)	
Individual characteristics (IF-I)	**Contextual characteristics (IF-C)**

1. Degree of other-orientation
 	
2. Capacity for empathy
 	
3. Affective commitment
 	
4. Position in a hierarchy
	1. Workload
	
	2. Organizational reward systems
	
	3. Organizational care
	
	     a. policies and procedures
	
	     b. organizational approach to people
	
	     c. the role of management
	
	4. Organizational values
	
	     a. organizational culture
	
	     b. type of profession
	
	     c. expectations
	
	5. External pressures put on an organization
	
	6. Opportunities to interact

Relational characteristics (IF-R)	
1. Team level	

a. level of general helpfulness
 	
b. relationships
 	
2. Helper-recipient level
 	
    a. relationship closeness
 	
    b. recipients' appreciation	

CONSEQUENCES (C)	
Positive (C-P)	**Negative (C-N)**

1. Team level
 	
    a. comfortable working environment
 	
    b. close relationships
 	
    c. increased level of helpfulness
 	
    d. effective performance
 	
2. Individual level
 	
    a. removes stress
 	
    b. feeling good
	1. Individual level
	
	    a. emotional tension
	
	    b. being used
	
	    c. problems with own work
	
	    d. reduced progress of a recipient