This study examined the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and general citizenship behavior in the wider society. First, the article portrays a theoretical link between variants of general citizenship behavior (e.g., political participation, community involvement, general altruism, and faith in citizen involvement) and OCB. The potential contribution of such a relationship to public administration agencies and to society is also developed. Respondents were 200 employees and their supervisors from one of the major public health organizations in Israel. Path analysis using LISREL VIII supports the notion that contextual work attitudes mediate the effect of general citizenship on OCB. The prime implication is that the organization constitutes an important factor in determining whether general citizenship behavior will be transformed in the organization.

**DO GOOD CITIZENS MAKE GOOD ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENS?**
An Empirical Examination of the Relationship Between General Citizenship and Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Israel

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Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has received considerable attention in management research during the past decade. This concept had its roots in the work of Katz and Kahn (1966), who argued that an important behavior required of employees for the effective functioning of an organization is their undertaking innovative and spontaneous activities

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beyond the prescribed role requirement. OCB consists of informal contributions that participants can choose to make or withhold, without regard to sanctions or formal incentives. Many of these contributions, aggregated over time and persons, were thought to enhance organizational effectiveness (Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Up to now, OCB has drawn sustenance from social psychology, some classical writings on management, and organizational psychology. However, although the word citizenship carries social and political implications, little enrichment of the concept has been derived from political theory. Apart from Graham (1986, 1991) and Van Dyne, Graham, and Diensch (1994), no study has tried to explain OCB from a more general perspective of the global concept of citizenship.

This study argues that OCB is conceptually a good representation of voluntary work behaviors that can be related to general citizenship and civic orientations in the wider society. Previous studies mentioned the relationship between workplace values and behaviors and political domains (e.g., Brady, Verba, & Schlozman, 1995; Pateman, 1970; Sobel, 1993). Most of these view the workplace as a potential determinant of a wider political culture. However, empirical evidence as to causality is scarce. Does the work setting affect politics, or does the political environment account for changes in the workplace? It is also possible that a mutual relationship exists between these spheres or that no relationship can be elicited between them.

The present research, however, focuses on the effect of general citizenship on OCB. In the past decade, the topic of voluntary behavior received growing attention by political scientists and organizational behavior scholars alike. Political scientists, especially those concerned with the state of public administration, claim that an independent form of voluntary behavior is already structured in the very basic construct of modern societies. They refer to the third sector as one example of this behavior, which supports the state and its public administration agencies in fulfilling elementary commitments to the citizens (Brudney, 1990; Pweel, 1987). This line of research promotes our understanding of how society in general may benefit from spontaneous behaviors of ordinary citizens. We think that issues of citizenship, voluntary activities, and spontaneous involvement of the people in the administrative process are among the most significant topics in contemporary writing on public administration. Several articles recently published in Administration & Society and in other leading public administration journals support our argument. Taking a somewhat different perspective, organizational behaviorists are more interested in the advantages of spontaneous/voluntary behavior in
organizations, namely, OCB, for improving organizational outcomes and responsiveness. For example, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) mention the potential relationship between OCB and customer-oriented behavior (COB). Thus, OCB may be very useful, especially in public organizations that serve wide populations. The new public management (NPM) approach argues that to improve its functioning, the public sector must become more responsive to citizens' demands and encourage flexibility, creativity, and spontaneous behavior by its employees (Pollitt, 1988, 1990; Stewart & Ranson, 1994). Hence, a better understanding of the general environment and the antecedents of OCB can contribute to higher quality of services and better productivity of public agencies that serve citizens in modern societies.

Inspired by several disciplines (political science, public administration, management, and organizational behavior), this study tried to find a link between different constructs of citizenship behavior. Why is this relationship so important? On the grounds of previous studies (e.g., Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997), it is assumed that better OCB in the public sector contributes to improved productivity and higher performance rates of public personnel. It also advances quality services and high responsiveness to citizens' demands. Studies found positive relationships between good citizenship in the workplace and work outcomes. Good organizational citizenship expresses extrarole behaviors and a better psychological contract between organizations and employees (Organ, 1988). General good citizenship is important for every society. However, for citizens as clients of the public system, it is organizational citizenship that matters more. This study argues that OCB has indispensable merit for organizations in general and mainly for the public arena. Satisfaction of the public with public agencies should be related to the immediate environment of administration and to public personnel and is only indirectly affiliated with general good citizenship behavior. The public may be satisfied or dissatisfied with the services provided by governmental institutions. At least part of this satisfaction level is gained through the extrarole behavior of public servants. Public personnel's citizenship behavior may influence citizens' attitudes to public agencies, improve their legitimacy, and increase citizens' trust in democracy. It is a momentous construct of workplace activities that must be further explored.

Building on the positive effect that OCB may have on public sector performance (a relationship that is not tested here), we believe it is important to explore the antecedents of OCB. If one seeks better knowledge on quality performances by the public sector, one must be aware of the value of...
OCB and explore possible facets that may influence it. Although organizational behavior theory has concentrated on intraorganizational antecedents of OCB, we suggest a slightly different perspective. A basic hypothesis of this study is that good general citizenship behavior is positively related to good OCB and may enhance it directly or indirectly. To support our propositions, several competitive hypotheses and models were developed and examined to show how factors from the civic/political setting may account for variations in the levels of OCB and hence influence public sector outcomes.

THE SOCIOPOLITICAL HERITAGE OF OCB

To establish a sociopolitical heritage of organizational citizenship, a clear link must first be established between internal and external voluntary actions of individuals. Graham (1991) is one of the few researchers who attempted to conceptualize OCB by starting from the political inheritance of citizenship rather than extrarole/organizationally functional defining criteria. Graham's typology is based on three categories of citizenship behaviors revealed by classical philosophy and modern political theory (Aristotle, 1962; Cary, 1977; Inkeles, 1969; Pateman, 1970; Plato, 1892; Walzer, 1970). Together, these categories comprise what Inkeles (1969, p. 1139) termed the active citizenship syndrome. The first category is "obedience," or respect for orderly structures and processes. Citizens are responsible for obeying existing laws, which also protect them. Because OCB represents informal organizational contributions, the expectation is that it will be affected more by informal citizenship behaviors than by formal demonstrations of citizenship such as obedience. Therefore, this article does not deal with obedience. The second category is "loyalty," namely, the expansion of individual welfare functions to include the interests of others, the state as a whole, and the values it embodies. Loyal citizens promote and protect their communities and volunteer extra effort for the common good. The third category, participation, concerns participation in governance, keeping well informed, sharing information and ideas with others, engaging in discussions about controversial issues, voting in constitutional elections, and encouraging others to do likewise (Graham, 1991; Van Dyne et al., 1994). Graham argued that these three citizenship categories could be used in organizational settings. Participation in civic activities, both inside and outside organizations, is basically a voluntary behavior. People may or may not choose to participate in civic activities.
such as voting or involvement in community ventures. OCB is also a voluntary behavior because it is not formally required from employees. Moreover, good organizational citizens are not directly rewarded for such activities. Involvement in voluntary behavior in the civic sphere may thus encourage similar behavior in the work setting, namely, OCB. Van Dyne et al. (1994) empirically tested Graham's typology and concluded that although two forms of citizenship—participation and loyalty—could be applied to measure OCB, the inclusion of obedience as an OCB dimension was not empirically supported.

This expectation is noted in several studies of political theory (Almond & Verba, 1963; Brady et al., 1995; Inkeles, 1969; Peterson, 1990; Sobel, 1993). The basic argument is that work and politics are similar institutions so experiences in one domain can spill over to the other. Almond and Verba (1963) argued that institutions are closer to politics and government when they exist at the same time, are similar in degree of formal authority, or have similar criteria for authority positions. The "closer" two social institutions are, the greater is the likelihood of congruence between their authority structures. The workplace is closer in time and in kind to the political sphere. Work exists contemporaneously with politics, and work and politics are formally structured. Roles in the political sphere can train occupants to perform workplace roles because experiences of self-direction or conformity in politics inculcate congruent values and orientations. Congruence lies in the generally analogous formal authority patterns between institutional spheres. The more closely two experiences approximate each other, the more likely is transference from one experience to the other (Sobel, 1993).

A more recent study by Brady et al. (1995) also shows how experiences in one domain can be transferred further. Their study suggests a resource model of civic skills (i.e., institutional involvement, skill opportunities, and skill acts) that can provide "a powerful explanation of political participation" (p. 272). People use preexisting civic skills (education-based organizational and communications skills as well as innate skills) or develop civic skills through their involvement in the institutions of adult life to perform skill acts. In turn, when individuals perform skill acts in one institution, political or nonpolitical, they increase their skills so that they can engage in still more skill acts in that or in some other domain (p. 278). The study by Brady et al. tries to go beyond socioeconomic status by emphasizing the unique effect of some social institutions (e.g., church and workplace) on political participation. However, resources and skills can also be transferred from the political environment to other organizations.
As noted by Brady and his colleagues, "civic skills could be the result as well as the cause of political activity" (pp. 278-279) and generate different types of citizenship behavior. Hence, political participation and general citizenship traits can provide the individual with civic skills relevant to the workplace. Practicing skill acts (planning meetings, making speeches, participating in debates, being involved in communal life, etc.) develops civic skills that are potentially transferable to work and may be used to enhance organizational performances.

**DIMENSIONS OF GENERAL CITIZENSHIP AND OCB**

Four dimensions of general citizenship can be mentioned. Participation in political activities and community involvement best represent the participation category. As for loyalty, civility is a good example of such behavior. Faith in citizen involvement is more of an orientation that represents loyalty and willingness to participate in a democratic process.

The first dimension is participation in political activities, which is classic and one of the most researched constructs in political science (Peterson, 1990). People who are more involved in political activities like voting, sending support/protest messages to politicians, taking part in political demonstrations, or signing petitions on political issues are expected to be more involved in the work setting. This expectation derives from a positive spillover effect. Experience, expertise, and resources gained in political activities might facilitate higher levels of job performance and OCB (Brady et al., 1995; Peterson, 1990; Sieber, 1974; Sobel, 1993).

The second dimension is participation in community activities. Barber (1984) argued that "political participation in common action is more easily achieved at the neighborhood level, where there is a variety of opportunities for engagement" (p. 303). Recent political science and sociology literature has strongly developed the concept of communitarianism as a separate and important dimension of political participation. For example, Etzioni (1994, 1995) views communitarianism as a necessary behavior of citizens that should be encouraged by modern societies. More community involvement can help the state and its public administration agencies in fulfilling their duties and commitment to the citizens. Citizens' demands from the state, as well as the obligation of the state to fulfill these demands, have dramatically increased in recent decades. Public agencies are some-
times incapable of providing adequate responses to citizens' needs, so citizens themselves become responsible and must react by enhanced communitarianism. The more willing citizens are to initiate voluntary behaviors (e.g., in fields such as education or local administration), the better the state operates and society prospers (Brudney, 1990).

Community activity is also considered a more informal way of participation than national activity (Sobel, 1993). Certain individual characteristics serve to promote both national and local participation, but other personal and local community characteristics primarily stimulate participation in local politics (Pettersen & Rose, 1996). Some people may avoid political activities because they dislike or are indifferent to politics. They may prefer a closer knit, perhaps more personal domain, such as the community, which offers membership of a tenants’ committee or of a school parents’ committee. People active in their community are expected to show higher levels of OCB than those who are not active. The rationale is similar to that for political participation, although Sieber's (1974) explanation of personality enrichment or development might also be relevant here. For example, tolerance gained through recognition of discrepant viewpoints might be helpful in similar situations in the work setting.

The following two dimensions represent the loyalty category of citizens' behavior. Civility focuses on daily behaviors that show care, kindness, compassion, and consideration toward other citizens, in particular those who need such support. These behaviors match the definition of loyalty because loyal citizens are expected to volunteer extra effort for the common good. They are also expected to display higher levels of OCB because civility seems to represent an altruistic behavior outside the work environment. Sieber's (1974) explanation of personality enrichment or development provides a rationale for the way civility will be related to OCB. The sensitivity, kindness, and consideration that people gain and learn in the civil setting will be reflected in the work setting. The fourth dimension, faith in citizen involvement, differs from the above three in that it is more an orientation than a behavior. Political orientations are considered an important aspect of citizenship because they help to shape individuals' understanding of the political world and their place in it (Peterson, 1990). Theiss-Morse (1993) argues that most people are apparently involved in the political sphere in ways consistent with their citizenship perspective. Her study shows that greater predictive power is gained by measurement of people's perspectives on good citizenship, producing better specified models to explain behavior. Faith in citizen involvement is defined as the extent to which people believe that the average citizen can
effect changes in the political system and that by being involved they can influence the political system (Schussler, 1982). Hence, this variable is a good representation of loyalty and trust in the political system. People who believe that they can have some say in the political system will transfer such an orientation to the work setting, resulting in higher levels of OCB.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENERAL CITIZENSHIP AND OCB

Two alternative relationships, direct and indirect, are proposed to describe the effect of general citizenship on OCB. A direct relationship is relatively simple. It implies that characteristics of political participation, community involvement, civility, and faith in citizens' involvement account for variations in OCB. This idea is straightforward and suggests that the organizational environment has no effect on the willingness of employees to take part in intraorganizational voluntary actions. The alternative, however, is an indirect relationship. This model elaborates on job attitudes as possible mediators between general citizenship and organizational citizenship. An indirect relationship reflects the cardinal role of workplace constructs in shaping OCB. A gradual influence is assumed here of the effect of general citizenship on organizational citizenship. General citizenship has a role in framing employees' job attitudes, which in return has an effect on OCB. Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and participation in decision making are among the most important constructs of job attitudes that have received impressive attention in OCB literature during the years. These job attitudes express employees' perceptions of the immediate work sphere, which is so related to OCB. They are also frequently mentioned in organization studies as related to formal and informal performances. Moreover, job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been extensively examined in relation to OCB and found to be positively correlated with its constructs.

Participation in decision making and forms of commitment are mentioned in political science theory as components of citizenship behavior, loyalty, and involvement in society (e.g., Pateman, 1970). For example, commitment to the job may be compared to commitment to other social structures and values (e.g., commitment to democracy). Participation in decision making reflects a willingness to participate in collective efforts both inside and outside the workplace (e.g., in the community or neigh-
The next section develops a rationale for the direct and indirect relationships, as well as competitive hypotheses and models aimed at testing them.

DIRECT RELATIONSHIP

The direct relationship derives mainly from political science theory. Graham (1991) and Sobel (1993) promote the idea of direct spillover of general citizenship behavior to the work setting. This expectation is based on the argument that such spillover provides resources for role performance (Brady et al., 1995) when experience and expertise gained in political activities might facilitate higher levels of OCB. Pateman (1970) and Peterson (1990) also support a direct relationship between these spheres, arguing that a reciprocal relationship may exist. People who tend to perform more good citizenship behavior in the communal or national sphere are also more likely to do so in the workplace. According to this relationship, transformation of civic behaviors and orientations is rooted in personality and is less affected by contextual work attitudes. The fourth type of positive spillover mentioned by Sieber (1974) considers personality enrichment or development and further supports the direct relationship.

The direct relationship model expected a direct relationship between each of the four general citizenship variables and OCB. It did not expect a mediating effect by the three contextual work attitudes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and participation in decision making). The above explanations are based on a positive nonwork-to-work approach. Hence, positive relationships were expected between each of the four general citizenship factors and OCB. The first competitive hypothesis is, therefore,

*Hypothesis 1:* OCB is directly and positively related to general citizenship behavior.

INDIRECT RELATIONSHIP

Several scholars have argued that the relationship between determinants and OCB is not direct but mediated (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Latham & Skarlicki, 1995; Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1988, 1990, 1994). The notion that general citizenship is not related to behavior at work directly was also advanced by political theory. Brady et al. (1995) argued that "the opportunity to practice civic skills in an institution requires both
involvement in the institution and a setting that provides the chance to practice some skills" (p. 275). The relationship one has with the organization can determine whether one will transfer one’s civic skills to a given work setting. Individuals’ attitudes to the organization thus comprise a significant source of knowledge on the chances of using civic skills as a positive work input.

In search of a reliable description of individual-organizational relationships, we turned to three well-studied contextual work attitudes: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and participation in decisions. These variables were tested as mediators of the relationship between general citizenship and OCB. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are good examples of employees’ attitudes in the workplace that were found to relate to OCB (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Highly satisfied and committed employees are more likely to engage in OCBs because of reciprocal exchange relationships and better attachment they have with the work environment. Participation in decisions in non-political organizations was found to be cumulative: Persons participating in decisions in one organization were likely to do so in others. Political participation is also a learned social role acquired by practice in democratic skills. The more individuals participate, the better able they become at it (Pateman, 1970). Participation breeds participation, and intense participation in politics might influence work participation (Sobel, 1993). Accordingly, citizens involved in the civic setting will be involved in the decision-making process in the organization because of the experiences and the skills they acquired (Brady et al., 1995; Peterson, 1990).

Employees who participate in extraorganizational decision-making processes will tend to participate similarly within the organization. Consequently, they will show higher job satisfaction and organizational commitment (DeCotiis & Sommers, 1987; Zeffane, 1994). Committed, satisfied, and involved employees will thus reciprocate with higher levels of OCB. This idea was supported by Organ and Ryan (1995). Their findings showed comparable effect sizes between satisfaction, fairness, organizational commitment, leader supportiveness, and OCB. Participation in decision making has not been tested frequently for its relationship to OCB, but it is presented in political theory as an essential construct that bridges participation in the civic setting to the work setting (Pateman, 1970; Sobel, 1993). It is also considered a good indicator of fairness and justice in the relationship between an employee and the organization (Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990; Skarlicki & Latham, 1996). Milbrath (1965) described the findings of a comparative survey of political partici-
pation in five countries. In those with higher levels of political participation, there was also a much higher level of social and organizational activity. According to this relationship, all three mediators will be affected by citizenship behaviors, and all will affect OCB. Committed and satisfied employees who are involved in the organization will reciprocate with higher levels of OCB. Therefore, the competitive hypothesis for this model is the following:

*Hypothesis 2*: Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and participation in decision making mediate the relationship between general citizenship behavior and OCB.

**MODELS**

Two models are presented in Figure 1, and they examine the competitive hypotheses. Model 1 follows Hypothesis 1. It presents a direct relationship and thus is named the *direct relationship model*. It suggests that each of the general citizenship variables is related directly to each of the two dimensions of OCB. Model 2 follows Hypothesis 2 and is termed the *mediated model*. Here, general citizenship is related to OCB indirectly via the three contextual work attitudes. A path from job satisfaction to organizational commitment is included in all the models tested here. The main reason is that job satisfaction is viewed as one of the determinants of organizational commitment (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982).

**THE CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR STUDY**

Data were collected from a sample of employees at a major public health organization in Israel. The organization agreed to our request that it take part in this study. Out of the 32 clinics of the organization in the north of Israel, 22 had not participated in any other study during the previous year. We contacted the 16 largest clinics out of the available 22. A total of 345 questionnaires were distributed in the 16 clinics to administrative and medical personnel; 200 usable questionnaires were returned for a response rate of 58%.

To overcome the self-assessment error extensively mentioned by Brady et al. (1995), we asked supervisors at each clinic to provide the OCB data for each employee who completed a questionnaire. A breakdown of respondents by occupation showed 31% of the sample to be
physicians, 35% nurses, and 34% clerical and administrative workers; 82% of the sample were female, and 84% were married. The average age of the respondents was 45 years ($SD = 10.3$); average tenure in the clinics
and in the organization was 10.26 ($SD = 7.1$) and 14.9 ($SD = 8.5$) years, respectively. Finally, 38% held a bachelor's degree or higher. The demographic characteristics of the sample are similar to those of the employees of all the clinics in the north of Israel: 79% females, 82% married, average age 45, average tenure in the organization 15 years, and 40% with a bachelor's degree or higher.

**DEFINING AND MEASURING CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS AND WORK ATTITUDES**

**OCB**

Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) found two clear-cut factors of OCB. One factor suggested the quality of altruism, whose component items all concerned helping a specific person, be it the supervisor, a coworker, or a client. The other factor, general compliance, appeared to represent a more impersonal sort of OCB—conscientiousness in attendance, use of work time, and adherence to various rules, but a conscientiousness that far surpassed any enforceable minimum standards. It implied more of a “good soldier” or “good citizen” syndrome of doing things that were “right and proper” but doing them for the sake of the system rather than for specific persons (Smith et al., 1983). Williams and Anderson (1991) suggested that a better measurement of OCB should also include items representing intrarole behaviors because such an analysis would clarify whether the respondents differentiated intrarole and extrarole behaviors. Strongly supported by this work and by Morrison (1994), who found that the boundary between intrarole and extrarole behavior was ill defined, we decided on a mixed scale of OCB and intrarole behaviors. Consequently, a 25-item list taken from scales developed by Williams and Anderson (1991), Morrison (1993), and Organ and Konovsky (1989) was presented to the participating-clinic supervisors, who were asked to evaluate each of their employees on these 25 items over the past year. Each item was measured on a scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always).

Principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation revealed three clear factors. Two of them can be defined as OCB and one as an intrarole performance factor. The largest factor included 10 items, all of them having to do with helping a specific person, either the supervisor or a coworker. This factor was labeled altruism (Cronbach’s alpha = .94). A second factor included three items representing the more impersonal sort
of OCB: use of full work time and adherence to various rules but display of conscientiousness far surpassing any enforceable minimum standards. In accordance with the literature, this factor was termed general compliance (Cronbach’s alpha = .75). A third factor generated by the analysis included seven items, all of them dealing with intrarole performance. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)\(^2\) showed that the supervisors were able to distinguish intrarole from extrarole performance in their particular setting. This encouraging finding led us to include only the two OCB factors in the model. We analyzed the two dimensions of OCB as distinct but related constructs. No theory or findings indicate a causal relationship between these dimensions.

**GENERAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR**

*Political participation.* The most basic construct of general citizenship behavior tested in this study was political participation. This variable was also used by Brady et al. (1995) and refers to “those activities by private citizens that are more or less directly aimed at influencing the selection of governmental personnel and/or the actions they make” (Verba & Nie, 1972, p. 2). A 12-item scale was used based on similar measures developed elsewhere (Almond & Verba, 1963; Brady et al., 1995; Milbrath & Goel, 1977). Respondents were asked to report the frequency of their involvement in these political activities: being a member of a political party, keeping informed about politics, voting regularly in general elections, sending support/protest letters to politicians, writing letters on political issues to different newspapers, taking part in demonstrations or political meetings, engaging in political discussions, explaining the importance of the democratic process to their children, being a candidate for public office, being loyal and caring about their country, explaining civil duties to their children, and signing petitions on political issues. Respondents were asked to indicate on a three-level scale how active they were on each activity: (1) *never was active*, (2) *was active in the past*, (3) *am active today*. The total score for each respondent was calculated by summing the responses for each item.

*Community involvement.* This variable represents one’s attempts to influence and contribute to the community. It was developed for this study following a logic similar to the political participation scale and it included six items: being a member of a voluntary organization in the community, being a member of a tenants’ committee, being a member of a parents’
school committee, taking part in community cultural activities, writing letters to the mayor or to other local officials about different issues, and writing letters to the local newspaper regarding community affairs. The scale for each item was the same as for the political participation variables.

Civility. This variable represents adherence to positive norms in society that are expected in good citizens. Six items were adopted from a scale developed by Conover, Crewe, and Searing (1993). However, results of factor analysis (principal component with varimax rotation) and reliability analysis showed that only two of the items could form an interpretable scale with acceptable reliability. The two items are the following: (a) When someone weak is carrying a heavy luggage, I generally offer my assistance; and (2) When an old person boards a bus, I usually offer him/her a seat. The scale for the two items ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Faith in citizen involvement. This variable reflects the influence of the individual on government and vice versa. People with such faith view government as accessible to the individual and responsive to his or her efforts and appeals. It was measured by nine items adopted from Schussler (1982). Examples are (a) The average citizen has considerable influence on politics; (b) The government is generally responsive to public opinion; (c) By taking an active part in political and social affairs, the people can control world events; (d) The average person has a great deal of influence on government decisions. Responses were made on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

WORK ATTITUDES

Participation in decision making was defined as the degree of staff participation in setting the goals and policies of the entire organization and was measured by four items adopted from Aiken and Hage (1966). Respondents were asked how frequently they usually participated in decisions on promotion of any of the staff, adoption of new policies or programs, and hiring of new staff. The scale ranged from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Job satisfaction (Schriesheim & Tsui, 1980) was measured with six items. Employees were asked to report how satisfied they were with their current job, coworkers, supervisors, current salary, opportunities for promotion, and work in general. The scale ranged from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied). Organizational commitment was measured by
the most commonly used measure of Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) introduced by Porter and Smith (1970). We used a shortened nine-item version that reflects the definition of commitment suggested by Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974). Sample items for this measure include (a) I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization; (b) I really care about the fate of this organization; and (c) I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for the organization. The scale for this measure ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

EXAMINATION OF MODELS

The hypotheses and the models were assessed by path analysis with LISREL VIII (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The usual approach is to estimate structural relationships among latent variables that are free of measurement errors. In our study, the multi-item scales were treated as single indicators of each construct because of the large number of parameters (64 observed variables) relative to the size of the sample and to the structural theoretical parameters (12-20). We corrected for random measurement errors by equating the random error variance associated with each construct to the product of its variance multiplied by the quantity “1 – α” (one minus the estimated reliability; Bollen, 1989). This approach has been used and supported in recent studies (Farkas & Tetrick, 1989; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Netemeyer, Johnston, & Burton, 1990). The fit of the models was assessed by means of eight indices. The chi-square test is the most basic and is essential for the nested model comparison. Because the chi-square test is sensitive to sample size, the ratio of the model chi-square to degrees of freedom was used as another fit index. The following fit indices were also used (Medsker, Williams, & Holahan, 1994): relative fit index (RFI), comparative fit index (CFI), relative noncentrality index (RNI), normed fit index (NFI), nonnormed fit index (NNFI) (or TLI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Finally, a covariance matrix among the research variables formed the input for the path analysis.

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics and intercorrelations of the research variables. The data indicate reasonable psychometric properties of the measures used in this study. The correlations among the independent variables are not high except for the commitment-satisfaction (r = .57) correlation, which is very typical of these variables (Tett & Meyer, 1993).
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<td>.05</td>
<td>.05</td>
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<td>.08</td>
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<td>11. Age</td>
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<td>12. Tenure</td>
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<td>.08</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.68</td>
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<td>0.42</td>
<td>.09</td>
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<td>.03</td>
<td>.03</td>
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<td>.16</td>
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<td>.00</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.05</td>
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<td>14. Job status (not permanent)</td>
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<td>.16</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.09</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

NOTE: N = 192.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.
Despite this correlation, research findings support the view that the two variables make a unique contribution to work outcomes (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Williams & Hazer, 1986). In general, the correlations among the independent variables are quite low and indicate the absence of multicollinearity. This should be noted because although most of the variables in this study were based on self-report data, allowing the possibility of source bias or general method variance, the low correlations among the independent variables demonstrate the absence of common method variance.

Table 2 shows the goodness-of-fit index for the research models. Model 2, the mediated model, is seen clearly to have the best fit. The fit index for this model shows a small, nonsignificant chi-square; the ratio of chi-square to the degrees of freedom is lower than 2; NFI is .97, TLI is 1, and CFI is 1. The direct model has a significant chi-square, indicating lower fit with the data. All its other fit indices are also inferior in comparison with those of the mediated model. These findings support the competitive Hypothesis 2 and reject Hypothesis 1.

Table 3 contains the structural coefficients and squared multiple correlations for the models. An additional indication that the mediated model was superior to the direct relationship model is demonstrated in the $R^2$ for OCB, which is the highest for this model (Model 2). It is .15 for OCB altruism and .19 for OCB compliance. Naturally, main attention is drawn to the structural coefficients of Model 2, which had the best fit with the data. In general, the model supports the notion that the effect of citizenship
### Table 3
Structural Coefficients and Squared Multiple Correlations for OCB Altruism and OCB Compliance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters (Path Coefficients)</th>
<th>Model 1: Direct Relationship Model</th>
<th>Model 2: Mediated Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Political participation → Participation in decision making</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political participation → Job satisfaction</td>
<td>-0.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political participation → Organizational commitment</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Political participation → OCB altruism</td>
<td>-0.26*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political participation → OCB compliance</td>
<td>-0.26*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community involvement → Participation in decision making</td>
<td>0.33*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community involvement → Job satisfaction</td>
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<td>Community involvement → OCB altruism</td>
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<tr>
<td>Community involvement → OCB compliance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Civility → Participation in decision making</td>
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<tr>
<td>Civility → Job satisfaction</td>
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<tr>
<td>Civility → Organizational commitment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Civility → OCB altruism</td>
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<td>Civility → OCB compliance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Faith in citizen involvement → Participation in decision making</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faith in citizen involvement → Job satisfaction</td>
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<td>Faith in citizen involvement → OCB altruism</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faith in citizen involvement → OCB compliance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Participation in decision making → OCB altruism</td>
<td>0.27*</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in decision making → OCB compliance</td>
<td>0.32*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Organizational commitment → OCB altruism</td>
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<td>Organizational commitment → OCB compliance</td>
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<td>Job satisfaction → Organizational commitment</td>
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<td>OCB altruism → OCB compliance</td>
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<td>0.54*</td>
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<td>$R^2$</td>
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<td>Participation in decision making</td>
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<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
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<td>OCB altruism</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.19</td>
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<tr>
<td>OCB compliance</td>
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</table>

NOTE: $R^2$ is calculated only for the dependent variables in the model.

*p < .05.
behaviors and orientations on OCB is strongly mediated by characteristics of the work setting. In terms of the structural coefficients, the findings show no significant effect of political participation on any of the mediated variables. Community involvement had a positive effect on participation in decision making (.33). People who were more involved in their community tended to participate more in the decision-making process in the organization (see Table 3). Civility had a positive effect on organizational commitment (.24). People who demonstrated courtesy in their behavior toward other people in society were more committed to their organization. Finally, those who had more faith in citizen involvement participated more in the organizational decision-making process (.27) and were more satisfied with their job (.40).

As Table 3 shows, there are important differences in the effects of the mediated variables on the two OCB dimensions. Job satisfaction had a strong positive effect on OCB altruism (.41) and a nonsignificant effect on OCB compliance. Organizational commitment had a strong negative effect on OCB compliance (−.49) and a weaker, yet still significant, negative effect on OCB altruism (−.33). These findings support Hypothesis 2. However, the direction of the effect of commitment was unexpected. The data show negative effects for the two dimensions instead of the expected positive effect. Participation in decision making was quite consistent in its effect. The path from participation in decision making to OCB altruism was .27 and slightly stronger for OCB compliance (.32). Both paths were significant and further support Hypothesis 2.

CONCLUSIONS

Do good citizens make good organizational citizens? The findings here show that good citizens can be good organizational citizens, but forms of general citizenship do not have a direct effect on OCB. Model 1, which tested this possibility, showed a poor fit with the data. The data, on the other hand, had a very good fit with Model 2, which argues that one's work experiences strongly filter the effects of citizenship behaviors on OCB. The results support the idea that participation in the civic setting furnishes the individual with positive attitudes and valuable skills that can be transferred to the work setting. However, the extent to which an individual perceives a relationship with the work setting as fair and satisfactory will determine whether these civic skills will be transferred to it. Model 2 supports the notion that the three contextual work attitudes mediate the effect
of general citizenship behavior on OCB. The organization thus has an important role in determining whether external skills and attitudes acquired elsewhere and having the potential to contribute in the work setting will be applied. The practical implication of this is that participation in nonwork activities in general and in citizenship activities in particular can contribute to the organization by increasing levels of OCB. It is much in line with the conclusions of Brady et al. (1995, p. 285) who argued that the civic skills that facilitate participation are not only acquired in childhood but cultivated throughout the life cycle in the major secondary institutions of adult life. In this way, the institutions of civil society operate, as Tocqueville noted, as the school of democracy. Therefore, organizations may benefit from hiring employees with high citizenship values. They should consider candidates’ good records in such values an advantage in the selection process and similarly encourage the adoption of such values by their current employees.

Prior to discussing further implications of the study, it is highly important to mention the cultural context in which the findings should be interpreted. The data in this study were not collected in a North American setting, although most OCB research has apparently been done there. This study provides information on different aspects of citizenship behavior in Israel, and therefore it encourages future comparisons with findings from other cultures. It is possible, however, that the relationship between general citizenship and OCB will be different in the North American setting or in any other culture that has other political values. In the present study, voluntary and citizenship behaviors might be affected by cultural and structural factors unique to the Israeli public sector and to the special characteristics of Israeli society. Despite some reforms originating in the late 1970s and extended during the past decade, this sector is still facing some critical difficulties. For more than 50 years, large parts of the health system had been under the control of the Histadrut, which is the largest labor union in Israel. Our data were collected precisely when this monopoly was coming to an end and a national health law was being legislated. These substantial changes affected the intraorganizational structure and led to a new management style (Kirkman & Bradford, 1996). They also yielded employee-management conflicts that rocked the entire system for a considerable period of time (mainly between late 1993 and early 1995). All this should be taken into consideration when our findings are examined in a cross-cultural perspective.

The application of our findings in the North American context is questionable for another reason. The Israeli political system is different from
the American. As suggested often in the past (e.g., Almond & Verba, 1963; Barber, 1984), citizenship behaviors will possibly have different consequences in different cultures. Citizenship behavior in Israel is different from what it is in North America. For example, voting rates in Israel are very high in general and in local elections (around 70% to 75%), and the feeling of collectivism in Israeli society is relatively strong. The somewhat nonliberal characteristics of parts of Israeli society may also influence citizenship behavior in Israel (e.g., Ben-Eliezer, 1993). Hence, future studies should develop the sociocultural aspects of general and OCB and their mutual relationship.

Beyond the cultural context of our findings, some implications of the study deserve more attention. The prime question in this regard is what the implications are of enhanced OCB for the performances of public organizations and for society in general. Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) summarize some of the most important influences of OCB on organizational success: (a) enhancing coworker and managerial productivity, (b) freeing up resources so they can be used for more productive purposes, (c) reducing the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions, (d) helping to coordinate the activities both within and across groups, (e) strengthening the organization’s ability to attract and retain the best employees, (f) increasing the stability of the organization’s performance, and (g) enabling the organization to adapt more effectively to environmental change. In the public sector, however, these contributions directly affect citizens as customers. OCB represents spontaneous behavior, entrepreneurial activities, and creative ideas that are vital for the development of a prosperous society and a healthy public administration. A discouragement of OCB may lead to inferior services and low levels of responsiveness to citizens’ demands (low COB). When public officials show hampered outcomes, the citizens/clients are negatively affected (Pollitt, 1988). They obtain poor services from unmotivated public servants and as a result may develop negative perceptions toward the public system, its efficiency, and legitimacy. Thus, public organizations that ignore the importance of OCB and its antecedents contradict the very basic notion of communitarianism (Etzioni, 1994, 1995). They also run counter to modern approaches in contemporary public management. Both the quality management movement of the 1980s and 1990s and the NPM approach emphasize spontaneous behavior of employees that is aimed at enhancing the satisfaction of “citizens as clients” (Brudney, 1990; Stewart & Ranson, 1994).
Naturally, dissatisfied citizens should be the concern of modern societies, and new ways should be found to improve the relationship between societies and citizens. In many ways, this relationship can be viewed as bidirectional because democratic values may initiate OCB, but they also derive from it. For example, empirical evidence of the relationship between citizens' attitudes toward political democracy and other external values like perceptions of a market economy can be found in the work of Gibson (1996). In this study, Gibson suggests a causal association of the two sets of values in which citizenship and democratic values are mostly a function of the wish for a more productive economic system. In other words, better production and high performance of organizations positively contribute to democratic values and to better citizenship behavior. The findings imply, however, that high general citizenship behavior and orientations positively affect OCB in the public sector. Public agencies in which OCB is encouraged are more productive and responsive to the public's needs (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Their contribution to society grows, and a healthier interaction develops between governments and citizens. Furthermore, the present findings show that the relationship between general citizenship behavior and OCB was mediated by several work attitudes. Hence, the public sphere was found to have a significant role in buffering the effect of good citizenship behavior and OCB.

GENERAL CITIZENSHIP AND THE WORK SETTING

The strong support for the mediated model indicates no direct spillover of behavior from the civic to the organizational setting. However, the literature suggests that the fit of the models should also be assessed by the magnitude of the individual parameters (Bollen, 1989; Breckler, 1990). Significant paths are not the only or the main criteria for assessing the fit of the models, but they can definitely provide some guidance for future research. The findings here indicated significant paths between general citizenship and OCB in the direct relationship model and significant paths between general citizenship and important work attitudes and behaviors such as commitment, job satisfaction, and participation in decision making in the mediating model. This finding may imply other types of citizenship-workplace relationships, mainly those that represent more complex explanations and examined in different cultural samples.

First, general citizenship is more strongly related to OCB compliance than to OCB altruism. This is demonstrated in the higher multiple cor-
relation for OCB compliance ($R^2 = .12$ for OCB compliance compared with .07 for OCB altruism) and in more significant paths between variables representing general citizenship and OCB compliance. General citizenship is thus related to extrarole behaviors aimed at the system rather than at specific persons. This supports the notion mentioned in previous studies (e.g., Brady et al., 1995; Sieber, 1974) that the resources gained in community involvement can be valuable resources for successful work functioning.

The effect of the variables representing general citizenship on OCB seems to be complex and to represent a mixture of positive and negative spillover. The positive relationship of community involvement represents a more positive spillover, and the negative relationship of political participation and civility with OCB altruism represents a negative spillover. This shows in conflict stemming from nonwork-to-work spillover, such as time spent in political participation, which diminishes time available for work; and behaviors required in nonwork domains, such as civility, are inappropriate for work (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Such negative spillover effects lead to lower levels of OCB. Among the general citizenship variables, political participation deserves further attention. It is more consistently negatively related to work attitudes and behaviors than the other general citizenship variables: Strictly political involvement seems to have negative consequences for behaviors and attitudes at work. It is interesting to ask what so differentiates political involvement from community involvement to result in opposite effects on work attitudes and behaviors. Do people get involved in politics because they seek an entirely new role, one that will compensate them for what they perceive as negative experiences at work? Is involvement in politics so different from involvement in community? How? A related question stems from the positive and relatively strong relationships of community involvement with participation in decision making and OCB compliance. Is this the most appropriate behavior in general citizenship-to-work spillover? Considering previously observed and surprising relationships of community involvement with job satisfaction (Iverson & Roy, 1994; Kirchmeyer, 1992) and organizational commitment (Kirchmeyer, 1992), community involvement deserves more attention than it has received. Future research should deal with all these questions conceptually and empirically.

The findings also show that the variables representing general citizenship were useful in predicting important work attitudes such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction, as well as reported participation in decision making. For example, community involvement was related to
participation in decision making, civility to organizational commitment, and faith in citizen involvement to job satisfaction and participation in decision making. Empirical and conceptual support for such relationships was previously indicated in the literature examining the relationship between work and nonwork (Iverson & Roy, 1994; Kirchmeyer, 1992). All the significant paths in Model 2 indicate that greater citizenship involvement increased job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and participation in decision making. The findings thus show the usefulness of concepts adopted from one discipline (political science) to others (organizational behavior and public management). Moreover, future research should test the possibility that organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and participation in decision making mediate but also moderate the relationship between general citizenship and OCB. Namely, each of these variables might represent conditions in the workplace that might lead to a differential relationship between general citizenship and OCB.

Finally, this study has shown that general citizenship is an important and interesting dimension that should be further explored. The relationship between civic behaviors and work outcomes has hardly been examined, so future studies should explore it as well as the relationship between civic behavior and OCB. The findings of this study have demonstrated the usefulness of examining OCB in a conceptual framework developed in another discipline, political science. It has also shown the potential of structural determinants in affecting OCB levels. Research on OCB has concentrated mostly on contextual work determinants. The relatively low variance encountered in most of that research means that more work is needed. The contribution of the present study lies in its pointing out some new directions in explaining these important behaviors and the potential benefit for public administration in modern societies.

NOTES


2. The findings of the confirmatory factor analysis are available.

REFERENCES


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