

# DOES A “BETTER” EMPLOYEE HAVE GENDER? WOMEN AND MEN DIFFERENCES IN OCBs AND CWBs

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## Abstract

**Background.** Different types of organisational behaviours have become a very popular research topic, particularly the search for behavioural pattern of effectiveness: the degree to which objectives are achieved.

**Research aims.** The study explores gender differences in expression of organisational citizenship behaviours and counterproductive work behaviours, investigating chosen antecedents of the issues.

**Methodology.** Structural equation modelling was used to examine data based on 327 responses from 165 female and 162 male employees.

**Key findings.** It emerges that while citizenship is the “core” organisational behaviour for women, counterproductivity is for men, and there are different antecedents for both types of behaviour, depending on the gender. Women’s OCBs could be increased by elevation of their job satisfaction and remuneration. Men’s OCBs depends on job satisfaction that does not rely on salary. Men’s CWBs depend on citizenship performance, but women’s CWBs are not related to any factors included in our models. Considering citizenship and counterproductivity, both women and men differ rather in specific behaviours than in the dimensions of OCBs and CWBs. The results could be useful in building employees’ motivational programs.

**Keywords:** gender differences, organisational citizenship behaviours, counterproductive work behaviours, job satisfaction.

## INTRODUCTION

It is not surprising that managers prefer better employees. From an organisational point of view, better means more efficient and able to provide additional value in order to maximize a company’s profit.

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That is the reason why different types of organisational behaviours have become a very popular research topic, particularly the search for behavioural pattern of effectiveness: the degree to which objectives are achieved. It appears that there are three main types of organisational behaviours. First, related to task, specified in an agreement between an employee and an employer. The others are extra-task behaviours: citizenship and counterproductive (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). Those two are neither included in employees' contracts nor rewarded. Yet, is it really possible not to reward highly welcome behaviour? To take the argument one step further, which organisation can afford to be passive in the face of their personnel's inappropriate behaviour? All things considered, during employee assessment, one cannot omit OCBs and CWBs. It is regarded as possible that extra-task behaviours could be visible and appraised in organisational environment (Organ, 1997).

Organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) have positive influence on work environment. It was Organ (1988) who first distinguished and described them, however, it has evolved into many classifications. Beginning with two dimensions: interpersonal and organisational, through change-oriented or status quo-oriented (Seppälä *et al.*, 2012); challenge-oriented and affiliation-oriented citizenship behaviours (MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2011); ending with widely recognized five-piece division of OCBs that consists of: altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990). Taxonomies of counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs) are similar to those of OCBs to some extent. There are CWBs focused on individuals and on the organisation (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Gruys & Sackett, 2003), there is also a classification that includes five types of CWBs: abuse against others, theft, withdrawal, production deviance, and sabotage. Having in mind the resemblance of both constructs, it is worth mentioning that they are distinct concepts, not two sides of the same coin (Dalal, 2005; Spector, Bauer & Fox, 2010).

Over the past quarter of the century researchers have been focused on workers' positive and negative extra-task behaviours that occurred in demographically-heterogeneous environment, also with respect to gender. Gender differences in organisational behaviours have become a considerable issue (Kidder & Parks, 2001; Farrell & Finkelstein, 2007; Jepsen & Rodwell, 2012; Cook & Glass, 2014).

## OCBS, CWBS AND GENDER

Judging from the traditional social norms of behaviour, OCBs appear to be a more feminine rather than masculine domain, whereas CWBs, conversely, characterise men. It seems to be not only women's tend and befriend and men's flight or fight strategies (Taylor, 2006), but also a matter of different impression management. In fact, women are inclined to the assessment of others through the lens of social interactions. At the same time, men have a tendency to self-presentation based on their tasks and activities (Leary *et al.*, 1994). In general, compared to men, women are more devoted to social harmony, look after workmate relationships and put their trust in formal procedures and systems (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2012). Additionally, women are punished for task-oriented impression management that is called backlash towards agentic women (Rudman & Glick, 2001). At the same time men are socially and financially penalised (e.g. are less likable and hireable) for being modest and other-oriented (Moss-Racusin, Phelan & Rudman, 2010).

Moreover, there is a different gender pattern of aggression. According to gender stereotypes men should be aggressive, and indeed, they are in behaviour and self-description. Yet, women are aggressive too, but in a different, mostly indirect way, for instance, by the so-called 'relational aggression' that means other people's exclusion, ostracism, and alienation (Prentice & Carranza, 2002; Archer, 2004). Though, in the light of Archer's (2004) meta-analysis, higher women's aggression was limited to late childhood and adolescence. One should not overlook the fact that showing aggression depends on the social context, e.g. in an organisation, men can use verbal aggression instead of physical (Archer, 2004).

Despite the vast majority of literature devoted to citizenship and counterproductive organisational behaviours (e.g. Dalal, 2005), it emerges that there is a lack of literature comparing women's and men's OCBs and especially CWBs. There are some assumptions about women's typical organisational citizenship behaviours. For example, Farrell and Finkelstein (2007) established that two dimensions of OCBs, namely helping (altruism) and civic virtue are more typical for women. However, in their predictions, the aforementioned authors described civic virtue as agentic behaviour and as a result, more representative for men (Farrell & Finkelstein, 2007). Similarly to some

extent, Kidder and Parks (2001) supposed that altruism and courtesy are more feminine, whereas sportsmanship and civic virtue seem to characterise men. The fifth OCBs dimension: conscientiousness, was described as independent of gender.

As to CWBs, the findings related to aggression are certain grounds for supposing that women are in general less counterproductive than men. In addition, female CWBs would be rather indirect than direct. However, it is difficult to predict, which of the five counterproductivity dimensions is more feminine. Perhaps one could exclude sabotage, theft, and physical abuse against others, because those are direct. On the other hand, withdrawal, production deviance, and psychological abuse against others (social exclusion, spreading rumours) seem to be more feminine tools of aggression.

Finally, some “general” antecedents of OCBs and CWBs are also worth mentioning. In this context, one should take job satisfaction into consideration (Dalal, 2005; O’Brien & Allen, 2008; Fox *et al.*, 2012). Additionally, we would like to propose remuneration as a key element of job satisfaction (Spector, 1997) and we find education an important factor in terms of being conscious of varied organisational processes, including social relationships.

## AIMS AND HYPOTHESES

The first aim of the study is to shed light on the differences between women and men in expression of citizenship and counterproductive behaviours. Also, we would like to explore gender diversity in the given subject, including chosen, above stated antecedents of OCBs and CWBs, when structural equation modelling is used.

### Hypotheses:

H1: Women reveal more citizenship behaviours than men, whereas men show more counterproductive behaviours.

H2: Altruism and courtesy are more typical for women, whereas sportsmanship and civic virtue for men.

H3: Withdrawal, production deviance, and psychological abuse against others are more characteristic for women, whereas sabotage, theft, and physical abuse against others are more typical for men.

H4a: Job satisfaction, remuneration, and education contribute to women's OCBs

H4b: Job satisfaction, remuneration, and education contribute to men's OCBs

H4c: Job satisfaction, remuneration, and education contribute to women's CWBs

H4d: Job satisfaction, remuneration, and education contribute to men's CWBs

## METHOD

A total of 400 surveys were distributed among employees in the Lower Silesia province of Poland of which 327 were returned: 165 filled in by women and 162 completed by men. The response rate was 82%. The participants worked in varied occupations and were employed in different types of organisations in the public, private, and third sector. The women's average age was 27 and the men's average age was 32.

### Measures

*Organisational citizenship behaviours:* The OCBs scale consists of 12 items (see Table 1) that are related to five OCBs' dimensions: altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship. It was based on the most popular items of citizenship behaviours (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990; Schnake & Dumler, 2003; Fox *et al.*, 2012). There is a five-point Likert response scale from 1 = never to 5 = every day. *Cronbach's alpha* is 0.76 for all participants, 0.75 for women and for men separately.

*Counterproductive work behaviours:* The CWBs scale was based on the items prevalent in counterproductivity (Spector *et al.*, 2006; Fox *et al.*, 2012). It includes 12 items (see Table 2) and a five-point Likert response scale from 1 = never to 5 = every day. It is worth mentioning that both OCBs and CWBs scales are antithetical items free (OCBs are measured as an absence of CWBs) and have response options form on frequency of behaviours (instead of agreement). Dalal (2005) pointed out these two elements as a source of "artificial" positive relationship between OCBs and CWBs. *Cronbach's alpha* reached 0.85 for all participants, 0.83 and 0.86 for women and for men respectively.

*Job satisfaction:* The job satisfaction scale consists of 20 items. We did the review of the most relevant measures of the issue beforehand, inter alia: The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS); The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ); Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire Subscale (e.g. Spector, 1997). To select the key areas of job satisfaction we also examined content and process theories of motivation (Latham, 2007). Consequently, we prepared items referring to crucial facets of the job satisfaction. The response scale has 5 possibilities: from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. *Cronbach's alpha* is 0.92 for all participants, and for women, for men it is slightly higher and reached a level of 0.93.

*Remuneration:* The remuneration response choice was based on the Polish minimal and average salary and it consists of 12 intervals.

*Education* was divided into 7: 1 – none; 2 – elementary; 3 – vocational; 4 – secondary; 5 – bachelor's degree; 6 – master's degree; 7 – doctoral. Additionally, *years of study* were measured.

## RESULTS

In order to compare women's with men's organisational behaviours *t*-tests were used. It was found that there are differences in general OCBs and CWBs among female and male participants. Women are more citizenship (*mean* = 48.52; *SD* = 5.67) than men (*mean* = 46.53; *SD* = 6.04). The effect size ( $t(324) = 3.06; p < 0.01; \text{Cohen's } d = 0.34$ ) is small (Cohen, 1992). On balance, comparing to women (*mean* = 15.54; *SD* = 4.50), men are characterised by a higher level of counterproductivity (*mean* = 16.94; *SD* = 5.92). The size of the effect ( $t(300) = 2.40; p < 0.05; \text{Cohen's } d = 0.28$ ) is also small (Cohen, 1992). As a result, our first hypothesis was confirmed.

There are also gender differences in particular types of OCBs. The *t*-tests analysis detected them in four out of twelve items that belonged to: conscientiousness (item 2;  $t(325) = 2.62; p < 0.01$ ), civic virtue (item 4;  $t(325) = 2.44; p < 0.05$ ) and courtesy (items 8;  $t(317) = 2.12; p < 0.05$ , and 10;  $t(322) = 2.74; p < 0.01$ ). In fact, all of them were more frequent among women. The gender discrepancy (*Cohen's d*) was small as can be seen in Table 1. To sum up, hypothesis 2 was partly supported.

**Table 1.** OCB items, mean, SD,  $d = 2t/\sqrt{df}$ 

Items	Women N = 165		Men N = 162		Cohen's d
	mean	SD	mean	SD	
1. I attend my work regularly, according to the timetable. (Conscientiousness)	4.72	0.58	4.68	0.62	n/a
2. I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching. (Conscientiousness)	4.45	0.68	4.23	0.83	0.29
3. I engage in actions that are not compulsory, but enhance the company's image. (Civic virtue)	3.50	1.16	3.26	1.21	n/a
4. I try to keep up to date with the latest developments of my organisation. (Civic virtue)	4.14	0.86	3.88	1.04	0.27
5. I focus on the positives of my organisation, rather than the negative sides of it. (Sportsmanship)	3.41	1.00	3.35	0.90	n/a
6. I help my coworkers when I see that they cannot cope with something. (Altruism)	4.02	0.86	3.93	0.84	n/a
7. I help my manager beyond the scope of my job responsibilities. (Altruism)	3.22	1.24	3.19	1.25	n/a
8. I approach coworkers kindly, neither swear nor shout at anybody. (Courtesy)	4.55	0.77	4.35	0.88	0.24
9. I try to prevent conflicts with my coworkers. (Courtesy)	4.33	0.77	4.18	0.81	n/a
10. At the workplace, when I want to prepare or buy something to eat, I ask the others whether they want me to bring them something too. (Courtesy)	3.99	1.06	3.66	1.14	0.31
11. I spread information that I find useful for my coworkers. (Courtesy)	4.48	0.66	4.34	0.77	n/a
12. I help the clients/customers of my organisation beyond the scope of my job responsibilities. (Altruism)	3.67	1.07	3.48	1.13	n/a

Source: own calculations in SPSS.

Also gender differences in specific types of counterproductivity were found. They were in CWBs statements that represent withdrawal (item 2;  $t(324) = 2.32$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ) and psychological abuse against others (items 6;  $t(282) = 2.98$ ;  $p < 0.01$ , and 9,  $t(228) = 4.73$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ), in three among twenty in total. With respect to the results, men are more counterproductive than women. The gender discrepancy measured with *Cohen's d* was small in the second and sixth statements, however, medium in the ninth (see Table 2). In conclusion, our third hypothesis wasn't supported.

Before we present our model we would like to compare women and men with regard to job satisfaction, remuneration, education, and years of study. There is no gender difference in general job satisfaction found, though diversity was discovered in particular facets of the issue (see Table 3). Men are more satisfied with their salary (item 1;  $t(325) = 2.24$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ) and compared to women they are more convinced that they develop themselves thanks to the job (item 8;  $t(325) = 2.11$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ). On balance, women have a stronger sense of organisational belonging (item 4;  $t(313) = 2.40$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ) and assess the flow of information between them and clients or customers of the organisation higher than men (item 18;  $t(325) = 2.03$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ).

When a salary is taken into consideration, women earn less than men ( $M_{rw} = 127.46$ ,  $M_{rm} = 184.72$ ;  $U = 7638.5$ ,  $Z = 5.84$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ;  $N = 311$ ). According to Cohen (1992) in that case ( $r = Z/\sqrt{N}$ ) the size of the effect ( $r = 0.33$ ) is medium. However, there are no differences in terms of education and years of study.

In order to reveal further interdependencies, structural equation modelling was used. Before that, the correlations between variables in women's and men's group were established (see Table 4). It came out that the pattern of interdependencies is different, depending on the gender. With regard to OCBs, there is a negative relationship with CWBs, slightly stronger for men's ( $-0.37$ ) than for the women's group ( $-0.30$ ). On the other hand, in both cases OCBs correlate positively with job satisfaction, though stronger among men ( $0.42$ ). Conversely, for female participants the positive relationship between OCBs and education ( $0.50$ ), as well as years of study ( $0.18$ ) were disclosed, whilst among male participants both were statistically insignificant. Additionally, CWBs correlate with job satisfaction negatively ( $-0.22$ ) in the women's and in the men's group. In the women's case, there is also negative interdependency between CWBs and years of study ( $-0.17$ ). Moreover, among the female participants, job satisfaction associates with two



**Table 2.** CWB items, mean, SD,  $d = 2t/\sqrt{df}$ 

Items	Women $N = 165$		Men $N = 162$		Cohen's $d$
	mean	SD	mean	SD	
1. I purposely damage my employer's materials. (Sabotage)	1.40	0.64	1.43	0.82	n/a
2. I take a longer break than I am allowed to. (Withdrawal)	1.77	1.00	2.05	1.18	0.26
3. I deliberately work slower than things need to be done. (Production deviance)	1.55	0.87	1.67	1.05	n/a
4. I purposely fail to follow the instructions to spite my superiors or coworkers. (Production deviance)	1.17	0.44	1.25	0.64	n/a
5. I take things home without permission to appropriate them. (Theft)	1.29	0.67	1.32	0.72	n/a
6. I deliberately ignore someone at the workplace. (Psychological abuse against others)	1.30	0.63	1.56	0.93	0.35
7. I spread rumours about my coworkers. (Psychological abuse against others)	1.30	0.63	1.38	0.77	n/a
8. I blame coworkers for errors I made. (Psychological abuse against others)	1.20	0.53	1.24	0.61	n/a
9. I make fun of my coworkers and managers at the workplace. (Psychological abuse against others)	1.13	0.41	1.49	0.87	0.63
10. I criticise the work of others to hinder their position in the organisation. (Psychological abuse against others)	1.19	0.57	1.30	0.67	n/a
11. I physically abuse someone at my workplace. (Physical abuse against others)	1.08	0.44	1.08	0.37	n/a
12. I behave rudely to the clients/customers of my organisation. (Either physical or psychological abuse against others)	1.16	0.48	1.18	0.53	n/a

Source: own calculations in SPSS.

**Table 3.** Job satisfaction items, mean, SD,  $d = 2t/\sqrt{df}$ 

Items	Women $N = 165$		Men $N = 162$		Cohen's $d$
	mean	SD	mean	SD	
1. I am satisfied with my salary. (Remuneration)	2.70	1.18	2.99	1.22	0.25
2. My job gives me a sense of security. (Sense of security)	3.05	1.11	3.14	1.11	n/a
3. My job gives me personal prestige. (Prestige)	2.92	1.19	3.12	1.17	n/a
4. I feel a part of the organisation I work for. (Sense of belonging)	3.42	1.05	3.11	1.26	0.27
5. I feel respected in my workplace. (Respect)	3.53	1.00	3.51	1.04	n/a
6. The scope of independence at my work suits me fine. (Independence)	3.68	1.09	3.60	1.17	n/a
7. My job is interesting. (Interest in work)	3.35	1.15	3.56	1.22	n/a
8. I develop myself thanks to my job. (Self-realization)	3.13	1.26	3.43	1.30	0.23
9. I am satisfied with the opportunity of getting a promotion. (Opportunity of promotion)	2.50	1.09	2.69	1.20	n/a
10. Generally speaking, I am satisfied with the physical working conditions, i.e. equipment, temperature, light, level of noise. (Physical working conditions)	3.45	1.15	3.56	1.17	n/a
11. Generally speaking, I am satisfied with the job I do. (General job satisfaction)	3.39	1.10	3.51	1.16	n/a
12. I like my immediate superior. (Liking for the superior)	3.79	0.99	3.57	1.10	n/a
13. I like my coworkers. (Liking for coworkers)	3.99	0.82	4.07	0.73	n/a

**Table 3.** cont.

14. Generally speaking, the management treats me fair. (Sense of management fairness)	3.57	1.02	3.49	0.99	n/a
15. I work with competent people. (Workmates competence)	3.62	0.95	3.60	0.96	n/a
16. Generally speaking, the flow of information between me and my superiors is smooth. (Communication with superiors)	3.62	1.03	3.41	1.10	n/a
17. Generally speaking, the flow of information between me and my coworkers is smooth. (Communication with coworkers)	3.85	0.87	3.83	0.79	n/a
18. Generally speaking, the flow of information between me and my clients/customers is smooth. (Communication with clients/customers)	3.88	0.83	3.70	0.78	0.23
19. Generally speaking, I treat my clients/customers as a "necessary evil". (*) (Attitude to clients/customers)	4.05	0.91	4.02	1.02	n/a
20. The workplace climate suits me fine. (Workplace climate)	3.58	1.03	3.62	1.01	n/a

(\*) item 19 was changed to the opposite before the analysis.  
Source: own calculations in SPSS.

interval variables: education (0.61) and remuneration (0.60), whereas among the male participants this relationships are insignificant. As it could be predicted, in both women's and men's group, the years of study are associated with education (0.50 and 0.53 respectively) and education with remuneration (0.36 and 0.34 respectively). On the other hand, the interdependency between years of study and remuneration is statistically significant only for women (0.32).

**Table 4.** Chosen descriptive statistics and correlations by gender

Women	mean	SD	Pearson's <i>r</i>				
			1	2	3	4	5
1. OCBs	48.52	5.67					
2. CWBs	15.54	4.50	-0.30**				
3. Job satisfaction	69.05	13.03	0.28**	-0.22**			
4. Years of study	5.95	1.77	0.18*	-0.17*	insignificant		
	median	mode	Cramer's <i>V</i>				
5. Education	6	6	0.51**	insignificant	0.61*	0.50***	
6. Remuneration	4	4	insignificant	insignificant	0.60*	0.32*	0.36***
Men	mean	SD	Pearson's <i>r</i>				
			1	2	3	4	5
1. OCBs	46.53	6.04					
2. CWBs	16.94	5.92	-0.37**				
3. Job satisfaction	69.54	14.13	0.42**	-0.22**			
4. Years of study	5.97	1.69	insignificant	insignificant	insignificant		
	median	mode	Cramer's <i>V</i>				
5. Education	6	6	insignificant	insignificant	insignificant	0.53***	
6. Remuneration	4	4	insignificant	insignificant	insignificant	insignificant	0.34*

\*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$

Source: own calculations in SPSS.

With regard to the acknowledged correlations, the models for women and for men were prepared with AMOS 21 (Byrne, 2010). Paths were created on the basis of correlations presented in Table 4. Structural

equation modelling for the women's group (model 1a) revealed that there were four statistically significant paths: between years of study and education, education and remuneration, between remuneration and job satisfaction and also between job satisfaction and CWBs (Table 5).

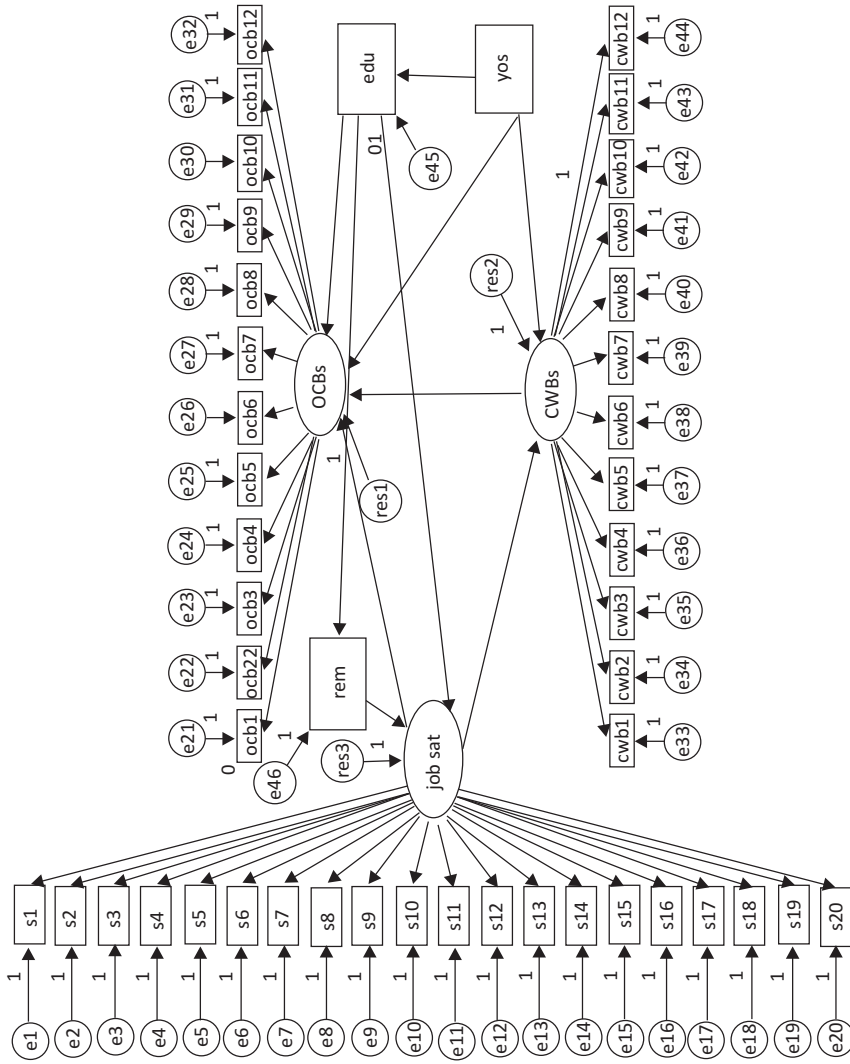
**Table 5.** Regression weights and standardised regression weights for model 2 (women)

Regression Weights:						
			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
education	←	years of study	0.200	0.027	7.522	***
remuneration	←	education	0.497	0.209	2.380	.017
satisfaction	←	remuneration	0.039	0.016	2.389	.017
satisfaction	←	CWBs	-0.173	0.083	-2.089	.037
OCBs	←	CWBs	-3.170	1.545	-2.051	.040
OCBs	←	satisfaction	6.601	2.871	2.299	.021
S.E. – standard error; C.R. – critical ratio; P – probability level *** p < 0.001						
Standardised Regression Weights:						
			Estimate			
education	←	years of study	0.524			
remuneration	←	education	0.218			
satisfaction	←	remuneration	0.294			
satisfaction	←	CWBs	-0.234			
OCBs	←	CWBs	-0.169			
OCBs	←	satisfaction	0.261			

Source: own calculations in SPSS.

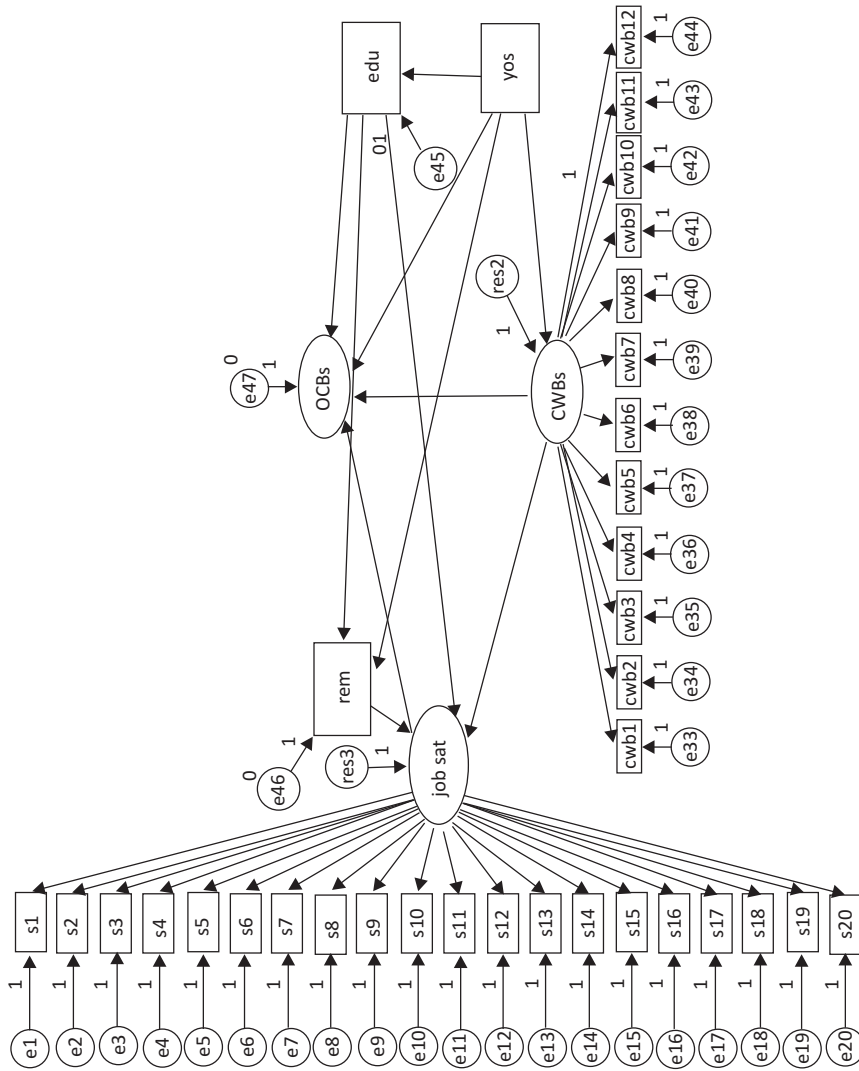
Surprisingly, all paths between OCBs items (observed, endogenous variables) and organisational citizenship behaviours (unobserved, endogenous variable) were statistically insignificant (Figure 1).

Despite the fact that the proposed model 1a fits to data ( $RMSEA = 0.084$ ;  $CFI = 0.62$ ;  $IFI = 0.63$ ;  $NFI = 0.48$ ;  $RFI = 0.43$ ; although the chi-square statistic was significant  $X^2(1026) = 2208.262$ ), OCBs were changed into the observed endogenous variable that represents the result calculated on the basis of the items. After this modification, we also had to change the directions of two paths. The first one, from job satisfaction to CWBs, became insignificant and the other, from OCBs to CWBs, was significant, though had hardly any estimate (-0.009). The final shape of the model 1b is presented in the Figure 2.



**Figure 1. Model 1a**

Source: own calculations in SPSS.



**Figure 2. Model 1b**

Source: own calculations in SPSS.

Although  $\chi^2(587) = 1367,255$  was statistically significant, the other indices suggest goodness of fit ( $RMSEA = 0.09$ ;  $CFI = 0.69$ ;  $IFI = 0.70$ ;  $NFI = 0.57$ ;  $RFI = 0.51$ ). With regard to standardised regression weights, CWBs negatively influence job satisfaction and OCBs. When CWBs go up by 1 standard deviation, job satisfaction decreases by 0.23 and OCBs go down by 0.17. Remuneration increases job satisfaction and job satisfaction extends willingness to OCBs. When remuneration increases by 1 standard deviation, job satisfaction rises by 0.29 and the 1 standard deviation increase in job satisfaction, makes OCBs higher by 0.26 (Table 6).

**Table 6.** Regression weights and standardised regression weights for model 2 (women)

<b>Regression Weights:</b>						
			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
education	←	years of study	0.200	0.027	7.522	***
remuneration	←	education	0.497	0.209	2.380	.017
satisfaction	←	remuneration	0.039	0.016	2.389	.017
satisfaction	←	CWBs	-0.173	0.083	-2.089	.037
OCBs	←	CWBs	-3.170	1.545	-2.051	.040
OCBs	←	satisfaction	6.601	2.871	2.299	.021
S.E. – standard error; C.R. – critical ratio; P – probability level *** p < 0.001						
<b>Standardised Regression Weights:</b>						
			Estimate			
education	←	years of study	0.524			
remuneration	←	education	0.218			
satisfaction	←	remuneration	0.294			
satisfaction	←	CWBs	-0.234			
OCBs	←	CWBs	-0.169			
OCBs	←	satisfaction	0.261			

Source: own calculations in SPSS.



In conclusion, hypothesis 4a was partly confirmed, because job satisfaction directly and remuneration indirectly (via job satisfaction) contribute to women's OCBs. On the other hand, hypothesis 4c was rejected, but CWBs influence job satisfaction, so the relationship has reverse direction than it had been predicted.

By the same token, on the basis of established correlations, a model for the men's group (model 2) was prepared (Figure 3). The model fits to data ( $RMSEA = 0.09$ ;  $CFI = 0.61$ ;  $IFI = 0.62$ ;  $NFI = 0.48$ ;  $RFI = 0.44$ ), even though  $\chi^2(1032) = 2423.17$  was statistically significant. In general, its goodness of fit is not as good as for model 1b in the women's group.

There were four statistically significant paths. When job satisfaction goes up by 1 standard deviation, OCBs increase by 0.53. A decrease in CWBs (0.48) is preceded by 1 standard deviation increase in OCBs. In addition, and not surprisingly, the level of education depends on the years of study and education elevates remuneration (Table 7). We also checked the influence of CWBs on OCBs that turned out to be weaker than reverse relationship. An increase by 1 standard deviation in CWBs decreases OCBs by 0.35.

From the presented results, it follows that hypothesis 4b was confirmed to some extent, because job satisfaction contributes to men's OCBs. By contrast, hypothesis 4d was rejected. Nonetheless, OCBs contribute to CWBs more than counterproductivity to citizenship behaviours.

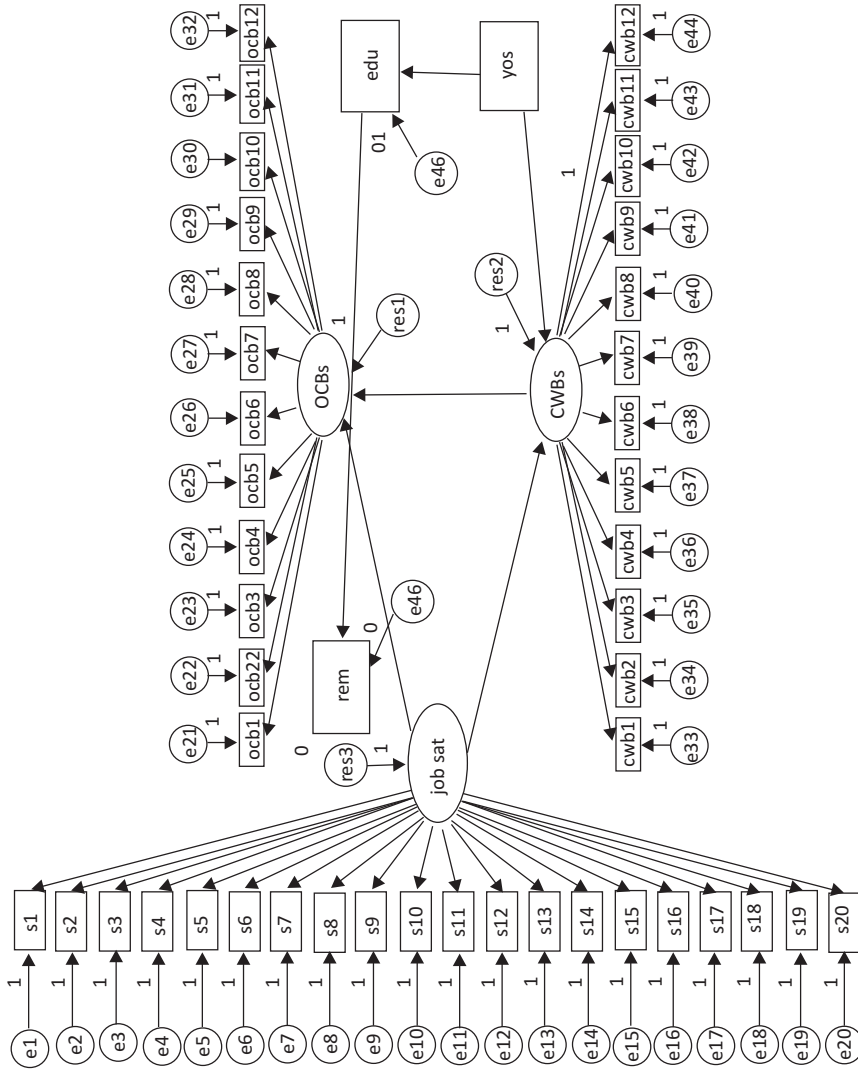


Figure 3. Model 2

Source: own calculations in SPSS.

**Table 7.** Regression weights and standardised regression weights for model 3 (men)

<b>Regression Weights:</b>						
			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
OCBs	←	satisfaction	0.249	0.105	2.376	.018
education	←	years of study	0.234	0.031	7.601	***
CWBs	←	OCBs	-0.743	0.315	-2.360	.018
remuneration	←	education	0.942	0.280	3.368	***
S.E. – standard error; C.R. – critical ratio; P – probability level *** p < 0.001						
<b>Standardised Regression Weights:</b>						
			Estimate			
OCBs	←	satisfaction	0.529			
education	←	years of studies	0.536			
CWBs	←	OCBs	-0.475			
remuneration	←	education	0.262			

Source: own calculations in SPSS.

## DISCUSSION

Our research seems to confirm that women manifest more citizenship behaviours than men, and men are more counterproductive compared to women. It is consistent with the theoretical assumptions and previous findings (Taylor, 2006). However, in our case gender differences in OCBs and CWBs were small. It is worth mentioning that specific discrepancies (higher probability of citizenship behaviour among women), though again small, are visible in such areas as: obeying rules and regulations even when no one is watching (conscientiousness); keeping up to date with the latest development of the organisation (civic virtue) and kind approach to coworkers (courtesy). These results are also convergent with the theory that describes women as focused on social relationships (Leary *et al.*, 1994) and as believers in formal procedures and systems (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2012).

On the other hand, there is only a partial overlap with regard to courtesy between our findings and Kidder and Parks' (2001) suppositions. Moreover, comparing to Farrell and Finkelstein's (2007) outcomes, ours also include civic virtue. Nevertheless, our research did not confirm that altruistic dimension of OCBs is more typical for women than for men, as it was in Kidder and Parks' (2001) theoretical proposal

as well as in Farrell and Finkelstein's (2007) results. Additionally, conscientiousness that was classified by Kidder and Park (2001) as independent of gender, in the light of our results is more a feminine issue, at least with regard to obeying rules and regulations.

From our research it also emerges that there are some, though small, gender differences in types of counterproductivity. Firstly, men are willing to take longer breaks than they are allowed to (withdrawal). Secondly, they express particular psychological abuse against others: they deliberately ignore someone at the workplace and make fun of coworkers and managers. As a result, our third hypothesis is rejected. Yet, it is worth pointing out that our results show that men's aggression in organisation is rather symbolic (psychological abuse and withdrawal) than physical (e.g. physical abuse against others). In conclusion, it is convergent with Archer's (2004) meta-analysis outcomes related to contextual determinants of aggressive behaviours.

Considering citizenship and counterproductive behaviours, both women and men differ rather in specific behaviours than in types of behaviours. Presumably rules of behaviour depend on the organisational culture that regulates employees' performance, however analysis of the relationship between them is beyond the scope of the current paper.

In our study there is also a "typical" result for gender differences (see Gunkel *et al.*, 2007). Namely, women earn less than men, though they are similar in respect to education and years of study. Additionally, for both gender, education is positively related to remuneration, nevertheless slightly weaker for men. It transpires that remuneration practices at the workplace are in favour of men.

When interdependencies based on correlations are concerned, citizenship behaviours are negatively related to counterproductivity, but positively connected with job satisfaction, and in both cases are stronger in the men's group. On the other hand, higher counterproductivity coincides with lower job satisfaction and that concerns both genders. Moreover, only among female participants there is a positive relationship between citizenship performance and education as well as with the years of study, but a negative interdependency between counterproductivity, and years of study. Additionally, women's job satisfaction positively associates with education and remuneration.

The picture of interdependencies based on structural equation modelling has shed more light on gender differences revealed in our study. Concerning citizenship in the women's group, it turned out that it has

more sophisticated origins that one could have predicted. More specifically, it depends not only on particular examples of citizenship behaviours, but also on some other factors, that is the reason why we had to swap unobserved and endogenous OCBs for those observed. Therefore it is supposed that there are some important predictors of citizenship that were not included in our research and as a result, in our model. Presumably, it could be the organisational culture with its rules and regulations, not only on organisational but also on a more general, social level.

Regarding counterproductivity among the female participants, it negatively influences job satisfaction and citizenship. Judging from the previous research it appears that CWBs threaten women's tend and befriend, socially expected attitude (see Taylor, 2006; Leary *et al.*, 1994) resulted in a decrease in job satisfaction and in citizenship. To go further, remuneration has a positive impact on job satisfaction, which in turn, positively affects citizenship behaviours. As a result, compared to men, women can be perceived as more predictable and controllable by a remuneration policy.

Similarly, relations for the men's group were verified. In conclusion, job satisfaction positively influences citizenship performance that in turn, affects counterproductivity. Moreover, OCBs are sensitive to job satisfaction, though job satisfaction is not related to remuneration. To sum up, there are antecedents of male job satisfaction that are not included in our model. To explore them, further studies of the issue are needed.

There are some limitations to our research. The research was conducted among participants employed in varied occupations and in different types of organisations in the public, private, and third sector. Yet, Poland is a homogeneous country with respect to its ethnic criteria (1.23% minorities), racial (100% White), and religious character (96% religious people, of which 88% are Roman Catholics) (GUS [Central Statistical Office]), 2009, 2010). Another limitation is the fact that the study was based on cross-sectional data. On the other hand, the main target of the research was to present gender differences in organisational citizenship and counterproductive behaviours, and the discrepancies are independent on the cross-sectional character of the data. Further research could investigate gender differences in one organisation. As a result, organisational culture variable would be under control. Moreover, a criterion variable, for instance assessment of employee behaviour, prepared by coworkers and superiors, would be useful to set relations between self-description and performance in the area of OCBs and CWBs.

## CONCLUSIONS

Gender differences in citizenship and counterproductive organisational behaviours are more complex than one could have predicted. Firstly, specific behaviours rather than the categories of behaviours are gender-related. Secondly, there is a higher organisational citizenship performance among women than among men and higher counterproductivity among men than in the women's group. OCBs are "core" behaviours for women, whilst CWBs for men. In order to provide modifications in strongly socially nested (core) behaviours, one has to find tools of influence. On the basis of our research, women could be motivated to citizenship with an increase of job satisfaction that is, in turn, dependent on remuneration. Conversely, men could decrease counterproductivity as a result of increase in OCBs that are sensitive to job satisfaction. Yet, men's CWBs are not controlled by remuneration, neither directly, nor indirectly. To sum up, apart from theoretical contributions, our research has also practical applications. It could be useful in the process of creating and changing employees' performance, depending on their gender.

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## CZY „LEPSZY” PRACOWNIK MA PŁEĆ? RÓŻNICE MIĘDZY Kobietami a Mężczyznami w zachowaniach obywatelskich i kontrproduktywnych w organizacji

### Abstrakt

**Tło badań.** Różne typy zachowań organizacyjnych stały się bardzo popularnym tematem badań, ze względu na poszukiwanie behawioralnego wzoru efektywności: stopnia, w jakim osiągnięte są cele organizacyjne.

**Cel badań.** Badanie analizuje różnice między płciami w ekspresji organizacyjnych zachowań obywatelskich i kontrproduktywnych, badając ich wyznaczniki.

**Metodologia.** Do analizy danych zebranych w grupie 327 pracujących respondentów: 165 kobiet i 162 mężczyzn, użyto modelowania równań strukturalnych.

**Kluczowe wnioski.** Wydaje się, że podczas gdy zachowania obywatelskie są „rdzeniowe” dla kobiet, to kontrproduktywne dla mężczyzn. W zależności od płci są różne przyczyny zachowań obywatelskich i kontrproduktywnych. Kobięce zachowania obywatelskie w organizacji mogą być wywoływane poprzez wzrost satysfakcji z pracy i wynagrodzenia. Męskie zależą od satysfakcji z pracy, która nie ma swego źródła w wynagrodzeniu. Męskie zachowania kontrproduktywne mają związek z zachowaniami obywatelskimi, a kobiece zachowania kontrproduktywne nie zależą od czynników ujętych w naszym modelu. Biorąc pod uwagę obywatelskość i kontrproduktywność, kobiety i mężczyźni różnią się raczej w konkretnych zachowaniach, a nie pod względem grup zachowań – obywatelskich lub kontrproduktywnych. Wyniki te mogą być użyteczne w budowaniu pracowniczych programów motywacyjnych.

**Słowa kluczowe:** różnice międzypłciowe, zachowania obywatelskie w organizacji, zachowania kontrproduktywne w organizacji, satysfakcja z pracy.