

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND SOCIAL
CAPITAL: GOING THE EXTRA MILE WHILE ILL?
PRESENTEEISM AS A NEW DIMENSION OF OCB

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RESUMO

Até à presente data, não houve tentativas para estudar se o presentismo pode ser abrangido como uma dimensão de Comportamentos Cidadania Organizacional (CCO). Consequentemente, uma lacuna na literatura de CCO é encontrada e uma questão essencial surge: será que o modelo existente de CCO pode beneficiar com a introdução do presentismo? O presente estudo analisa a relação entre o comportamento de ajuda, *Presenteeism Citizenship Behaviour* (PCB) e capital social, argumentando que comportamento de ajuda e capital social são ambos positivamente relacionados com PCB, com esta última variável como mediadora entre as duas anteriores. Além disso, explora a influência do compromisso organizacional e da percepção de justiça sobre a relação direta entre PCB e capital social e sobre uma indireta entre comportamento de ajuda e capital social por meio de PCB. Dados recolhidos a partir de 383 funcionários de empresas e *startups* de várias e diferentes áreas de conhecimento, revelam que comportamento de ajuda e capital social são ambos positivamente relacionados com PCB, sendo que este medeia a relação entre as duas referidas variáveis. Além disso, o compromisso organizacional tem um impacto positivo nos efeitos de PCB, moderando tanto a relação direta de PCB sobre capital social, bem como a influência indireta de comportamento de ajuda (através de PCB) sobre capital social. Contrariamente às expectativas, a percepção de justiça é somente significativa relativamente à relação direta, moderando a relação de PCB sobre capital social. Implicações assim como orientações para futuras pesquisas são igualmente discutidas no último capítulo deste estudo.

Palavras-chave: Comportamentos de Cidadania Organizacional, Presentismo, Capital Social, Compromisso Organizacional.

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M10 – Business Administration: General

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ABSTRACT

To this date, there were no attempts to study if presenteeism can be encompassed as an Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) dimension, nonetheless some remarks. Therefore, a gap on the OCB literature is found, and a core question arises: can OCB “go the extra mile” with the introduction of presenteeism? The current study examines the relationship between helping behaviour, Presenteeism Citizenship Behaviour (PCB) and social capital, arguing that helping behaviour and social capital are both positively related to PCB, with PCB mediating the relationship between the two. Moreover, it explores the influence of organizational commitment and perception of justice on the direct relationship between PCB and social capital and on the indirect one between helping behaviour and social capital through PCB. Results from a pool of 383 employees from companies and *startups* of various different areas of expertise revealed that helping behaviour and social capital are both positively related to PCB, with PCB mediating the relationship between the two. Moreover, organizational commitment impacted the effects of PCB, moderating both the direct relationship of PCB on social capital as well as the indirect influence of helping behaviour (through PCB) on social capital. Contrary to our expectations, perception of justice did not help to improve our understanding of the indirect relationship although it was significant regarding the direct one, moderating the relationship of PCB on social capital. Insights on the implications of these findings and directions for future research are also discussed in the last chapter of this study.

Keywords: Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, Presenteeism, Social Capital, Organizational Commitment.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

Df – Degrees of Freedom
ICC – Intraclass Correlation Coefficient
N – Sample Size
OCB – Organizational Citizenship Behaviour
 p – p value
PCA – Principal Factor Analysis
PCB – Presenteeism Citizenship Behaviour
SD – Standard Deviation
 α – Cronbach Alpha Coefficient
 β – Standardized regression coefficient

INTRODUCTION

As we know, adapting to changes in a world that is constantly shifting at a vertiginous speed enhances the importance of innovation, resilience, responsiveness and cooperativeness, these concepts becoming of utmost importance if long-term organizational success is sought. In an ever-changing environment, “*an organization which depends solely upon its blue-prints of prescribed behavior is a very fragile social system*” (Katz, 1964:132) which makes organizations become more dependent on employees willing to engage in discretionary employee behaviours that are helpful but not absolutely required by employers – defined as citizenship behaviours – for progress and effectiveness.

More than 2100 articles on the topic of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) were published since Organ introduced the construct decades ago, with interest about this concept dramatically increasing and becoming of value to the success of the organization in the 21st century (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2013). To this day, researchers have different views with respect to the dimensionality of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Nonetheless, researchers persist in using Organ’s (1998) dimensions of OCB which include sportsmanship, civic virtue, conscientiousness, altruism and courtesy (Borman, Ilgen & Klimoski, 2003)

However, and more recently, another concept emerged and raised some questions regarding OCB. Presenteeism has been defined in a number of ways, therefore, a definitional consensus has yet to come. However, the definition “*attending work while ill*” (Johns, 2010: 521) is the one employed by most organizational scholars. Although a relatively new field of study (Johns, 2010), the concept of presenteeism is not new in the workplace and has become an increasingly prevalent phenomenon in today’s work world. In 2008, Le Blanc *et al.* stated that presenteeism “*can also be viewed more positively, i.e. a type of organizational citizenship behaviour*” (pp.52). Two years later, Johns (2010) also mentioned that “*under some circumstances, presenteeism might be viewed as an act of organizational citizenship and garner praise*”. (pp. 521). Nonetheless these remarks, there were no attempts to study if presenteeism can be encompassed as an OCB dimension with the concept not having yet been identified as a possible dimension of OCB in any literature as far as we know.

Therefore, a gap on the OCB literature is found, and a core question arises: can OCB “go the extra mile” with the introduction of presenteeism? In order for this question to be answered various objectives were set and a conceptual model was developed.

A first objective was set which relied on developing a new scale. Thus, the *Presenteeism Citizenship Behaviour* (PCB) construct was developed from the SPS-6 scale and the OCB dimensions. More specifically, the initial sentences of the items of the SPS-6 scale (“Because of my health problem” and “Despite my health problem”) were used together with the OCB dimensions chosen to form the items with the goal of analysing if despite having a health problem, the employee still displayed citizenship behaviours at work or, on the other hand, because of the health problem, those citizenship behaviours were not so present or were even not displayed. Subsequently, and after further investigation was pursued, a conceptual model was defined.

Firstly, and although different forms of OCB in varying combinations can be found in the literature, in the current study, the three factor model configuration was chosen, distinguishing between helping behaviour, sportsmanship and civic virtue, with items measuring helping behaviour grouped into the same single dimension. Thus, helping behaviour is considered and defined as a latent second-order construct comprising four first-order dimensions (altruism, courtesy, peacekeeping and cheerleading), aggregating Organ’s two additional dimensions introduced in 1990 (peacekeeping and cheerleading) and overcoming the difficulties that empirical research indicates, with managers often having difficulty making distinctions between the first order dimensions mentioned and considering them as part of an overall helping dimension (Bachrach *et al.*, 2001; MacKenzie *et al.*, 1991; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994 cited by Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, and considering that helping behaviour is one of the three main dimensions of OCB studied by researchers (Paillé, 2010), it was chosen as the independent or predictor variable and raised was the hypothesis that an individual already displaying helping behaviours at work will more likely exhibit the same behaviour at work while sick, thus engaging in *Presenteeism Citizenship Behaviours*.

Secondly, and since OCBs motivate employees to like, trust, and identify with each other and taking into account that social capital has its foundation in high quality social relations that possess these characteristics, we argue they are likely to be associated with social capital, increasing the social capital in organizations as research already shows

(Bolino *et al.*, 2002 cited by Braun *et al.*, 2012). Thus, and since PCB is an organizational citizenship behaviour, we argued that it would have a positive impact on social capital, helping to create and maintain it.

Consequently, the relationship between helping behaviour and social capital mediated through PCB was studied. Taking into account that helping behaviour is expected to elicit higher levels of PCB which in turn is expected to have a positive impact on social capital, increasing it, it was expected that PCB would mediate the relationship between helping Behaviour and social capital.

Lastly, concerning the outcomes that would influence the previous direct and indirect relationships, meta-analytic studies supported perception of justice and organizational commitment as moderators of these relationships. Therefore, perception of justice and Organizational Commitment would interact with PCB to increase its effect on social capital, so that the direct relationship between PCB and social capital becomes stronger when the mentioned moderators are at high levels. Moreover, the indirect relation of helping behaviour on social capital through PCB would also be conditional on the degree of perceived justice and organizational commitment, in that the mediation effects are stronger under conditions of high perceived justice and organizational commitment.

Therefore, and in sum, the present study argues that helping behaviour and social capital are both positively related to PCB, with PCB mediating the relationship between the two. Moreover, it explores the influence of organizational commitment and perception of justice on the direct relationship between PCB and social capital and on the indirect one between helping behaviour and social capital through PCB.

Providing a positive view on presenteeism and its relationship with OCBs, the study thus contributes to the emerging literature on these two constructs. Furthermore, it unveils a new construct termed PCB – although perhaps always hidden at the surface for as long as OCBs and presenteeism are known – and explores OCB dimension helping behaviour and the concept of social capital, as well as the impact of moderators' organizational commitment and perception of justice. Moreover, Literature and managerial implications are drawn as are limitations and possible future research.

CHAPTER 1 – LITERATURE REVIEW | WHAT DO WE KNOW ABOUT OCB AND PRESENTEEISM?

1.1 LITERATURE REVIEW ON ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Definition

The beginning: extra-role behaviors

In 1964, Katz defined “*extra-role behaviours*” as the behaviors which employees assumed voluntarily in order to contribute to the progress of the organization (Pavalache-Ilie, 2014). These behaviors include any of those gestures (often taken for granted) that lubricate the social machinery of the organization but that do not directly inhere in the usual notion of task performance such as: helping co-workers with a job related problem; accepting orders without a fuss; tolerating temporary impositions without complaint; helping to keep the work area clean and uncluttered; making timely and constructive statements about the work unit or its head to outsiders; promoting a work climate that is tolerable and minimizes the distractions created by interpersonal conflict; and protecting and conserving organizational resources (Bateman & Organ, 1983).

First definition of Citizenship Behavior

However, the expression Citizenship Behavior was first used by Bateman & Organ in 1983. These authors founded their idea of OCB on the concept of “Willingness to Cooperate” proposed by Barnard (1938) and the concepts of dependable role performance and “innovative and spontaneous behaviors” described by Katz (1964) and Katz and Kahn (1966) (Olowookere & Adejuwon, 2015). Organ, considered the father of OCB, and his colleagues (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983) expanded upon Katz's (1964) original work and defined Organizational Citizenship Behavior as an “*individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization*” (Organ, 1997: 86).

As we can see, this definition encompasses three critical aspects. By discretionary, Organ means that “*the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is the clearly specifiable terms of the person’s employment contract with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable*” (Organ, 1997: 86). Moreover, Organ viewed OCB

as “*contributions that might - or might not - invite some future recompense*”. Thirdly, OCB could only comprehend the behaviors that “*in the aggregate, across time and across persons, contribute to organizational effectiveness*” (pp. 87).

The very nature of the construct makes it difficult to operationally define

Although some clarifications were made by Organ about the definition of OCB, Morrison in 1994 (as cited by Organ, 1997: 88) concluded that “*OCB is ill-defined and varies from one employee to the next and between employees and supervisors*”. Organ (1997: 88) then thought that perhaps the problem with defining OCB as “*extra-role or beyond the job requirement inheres in the very fuzziness of the concepts role and job themselves*”. This is even more true nowadays, since jobs have evolved from defined set of tasks and responsibilities into much more ambiguous roles, which makes it difficult to define what is discretionary.

Organ (1997) (cited by Borman, Ilgen and Klimoski, 2003) acknowledged conceptual difficulties associated with the definitional requirements that organizational citizenship behaviors are discretionary and not formally rewarded. Therefore, he redefined OCB according to the definition that colleagues Borman and Motowildo (1993) suggested for contextual performance: “*contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance*” (Organ, 1997: 91). However, researchers persist in using Organ’s (1998) original definition of OCB and instruments developed to measure the construct according to its original definition (Borman, Ilgen and Klimoski, 2003). Recently, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors are defined as “*discretionary employee behaviors that are helpful but not absolutely required by employers*” (Dekas *et al.*, 2013: 219).

Origins of OCB, Rise of interest and its consequences

The concept of OCB was born in an “*intuitive conviction that (...) job satisfaction did bear a functional relation to performance of a sort*” (Organ, 1977 as cited by Organ, 1997: 92). It was believed that “*although job attitudes might have little to do with objective measures of individual output, satisfaction would affect people’s willingness to help colleagues and work associates and their disposition to cooperate in varied and mundane*

from to maintains organized structures that govern work” (Organ, 1977 as cited by Organ, 1997: 92).

More than 2100 articles about the topic of OCB were published since Organ introduced the construct decades ago (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2013). As recent studies show, such as the one from Podsakoff and colleagues (2009), citizenship behaviours increase work quality by 19%, financial effectiveness by 25%, and customer satisfaction indicators by as much as 38%, which makes them an asset for organization survival. The interest about OCB has dramatically increased and it is not surprising given that there are a number of undeniably factors contributing to this trend. First, OCBs are universally recognized as an important criterion measure in the organizational behavior literature and considered a vital part of the employee performance field (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2013). Second, researchers have gone beyond traditional social exchange approaches to OCB and incorporated multiple perspectives in their development of theory in this area (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2013). Finally, if we search about OCBs we will see that it is no longer confined to the area of organizational behavior but has expanded into many others’ including marketing, public administration, engineering, healthcare services, sports science, sociology, computer science, communication, and nursing (Institute for Scientific Information, 2013 cited by Podsakoff *et al.*, 2013).

Furthermore, Organ *et al.* (2006) and Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) (as cited in Braun, Ferreira & Sydow, 2012) research showed that OCB promotes effectiveness outcomes and also increases the in organizations (Bolino *et al.*, 2002 cited by Braun, Ferreira & Sidow, 2012). Effectively, OCBs have historically been linked to the key management concern of organizational effectiveness (Dekas, Bauer & Sullivan, 2013), indicating that it can have a positive impact on organizational success through improvements in coworker and managerial productivity, resource utilization, group activity coordination and across work groups, selection and retention, performance stability and the ability to adapt to environmental changes (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). More recently, Podsakoff *et al.* (2009) found that OCBs have a positive relationship with performance ratings and reward allocations. Moreover, research shows that OCB also increases the social capital in organizations (Bolino *et al.*, 2002 cited by Braun *et al.*, 2012). For these reasons, and the fact that nowadays jobs have ambiguous roles – as mentioned before – the concept of citizenship behavior appears to be of increasing rather than decreasing value to the success of the organization in the 21st century.

Antecedents of OCBs

Much of the early work in this area focused on identifying the antecedents of OCBs and found that a variety of individual differences (e.g., conscientiousness and extroversion), attitudinal or perceptual variables (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and justice perceptions), leadership-related factors (e.g., transformational and transactional behaviors and leader–member exchange), and job characteristics (e.g., task feedback and task interdependence) were significant predictors of employee OCBs (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006 cited by Podsakoff *et al.*, 2013).

More recently, organizational researchers have begun to test the assumptions of antecedents of OCB and to examine the effects of OCBs on individual-level and organizational-level outcomes. A recent meta-analytic review of this literature (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009) indicated that employee OCBs tend to account for as much, if not more, variance in performance evaluations compared with task performance and that unit-level OCBs were positively related to a variety of measures of unit-level performance, including profitability, productivity, product quality, and efficiency. Therefore, it seems that OCBs are important to the success of organizations, and the people that work in them.

OCB multidimensionality

Following in Organ's footsteps, helping behaviour, sportsmanship and civic virtue are the three principal forms of OCB studied by researchers. Up until the 1990's most of OCB studies took place in North America and research on American employees focused on different forms of OCB in varying combinations. Four types of configuration can be seen (Paillé, 2010).

In a first configuration, certain researchers choose to examine citizenship as a whole (e.g., Chen, Hui, & Sego, 1998; Hui *et al.*, 2004; MacKenzie *et al.*, 1998; Thau, Bennett, Stahlberg, & Werner, 2004, as cited by Paillé, 2010). There is no distinction between helping behaviour, sportsmanship and civic virtue. In this case, items on the three subscales (helping behaviour, sportsmanship and civic virtue) are blended into a single scale.

While certain researchers (e.g., Chen & Francesco, 2003; Cohen, 2006; Schappe, 1998, as cited by Paillé, 2010), in studying OCB, distinguish between citizenship behaviors towards individuals and towards the organization, others (e.g., Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Yoon & Suh, 2003 as cited by Paillé, 2010) examine citizenship by adopting a three-factor model distinguishing between helping behaviour, sportsmanship and civic virtue. In this third configuration, items measuring helping behaviour are grouped into the same single dimension. As there is no distinction between different facets of OCB (e.g., courtesy, altruism, etc.), helping behaviour is thus defined as a latent second-order construct (Podsakoff, Whiting, & Blume, 2009). Finally, certain researchers (e.g., Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin, & Lord 2002; Lievens & Anseel, 2004; Tansky, 1993) employ a five-factor structure to study OCB (courtesy, altruism, peacemaking, sportsmanship, and civic virtue).

History of Research on OCB dimensions

Researchers have different views with respect to the dimensionality of Organizational Citizenship Behavior, as we can see in Table 1

Table 1 - History of research on OCB dimensions

Authors	Dimensions
Smith, Organ & Near (1983)	2 dimensions: altruism and generalized compliance.
Brief and Motowidlo (1986) <i>(Prosocial organizational behaviour)</i>	Identified three axes: first, organizationally functional and dysfunctional prosocial behaviors; second, role prescribed and extra-role prosocial behaviors; and thirdly, individual and organizational recipients of prosocial acts. 13 specific categories such as showing leniency in personnel decisions, assisting co-workers with job-related matters and complying with organizational values and policies and regulations.
Organ (a.1998; b.1990)	(a) 5 dimensions: altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. (b) 2 additional factors: peacekeeping and cheerleading.
Graham (1991) <i>(civic organizational behaviour)</i>	3 dimensions: organizational obedience, organization commitment and organization participation
William and Anderson (1991)	Organized OCBs into categories on the basis of target or direction of the behaviour: OCB directed towards specified individual (OCBI) OCB directed towards organization (OCBO).
Podsakoff and Mackenzie (1994)	Recommended dropping conscientiousness since their results showed that managers see this as expected in the workplace.
Podsakoff <i>et al.</i> (2000)	Distinguished almost 30 different forms of OCBs but ended up with 7 dimensions: helping behaviour, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self-development.
LePine, Erez and Johnson (2002)	Listed 40 odd-concepts. Conducted a meta-analysis to understand whether the 5 dimensions of OCB were empirically distinct.
Organ, Poskadoff and Mackensie (2006)	11 diferent conceptualizations, themselves combining a number of forms of OCB.

Since the first developments of Smith, Organ & Near (1983) that conceptualized OCB with two dimensions - altruism and generalized compliance -, other authors came forward with revised and new constructs. One of the most prevalent classifications was advocated by Organ (1988), who differentiated five facets or factors: altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. Subsequently, Organ (1990) also included two additional factors: peacekeeping and cheerleading. However, in 1994, Podsakoff and Mackenzie recommended dropping conscientiousness since their results showed that managers see this as expected in the workplace. Graham (1991) (cited by Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000) revealed three dimensions to OCB: organizational obedience, organizational commitment and organizational participation.

Later on, in their critical review of literature, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000) distinguished almost 30 different forms of organizational citizenship behavior, although there is a great deal of conceptual overlap between the constructs - for that reason, the authors organized them into seven common themes or dimensions: helping behaviour, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self-development.

Two years after Podsakoff *et al.* critical review of literature, LePine, Erez and Johnson (2002) conducted a meta-analysis to understand whether the 5 dimensions of OCB offered by Organ (1988) were empirically distinct, concluding that the relations between these dimensions at the population level are generally about as high as their reliability estimates.

Taking another direction, Williams and Anderson (1991) (cited by Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009) organized OCBs into categories on the basis of target or direction of the behavior. These authors identified three dimensions of OCB which include in-role behaviors (IRB), organizational citizenship behaviors directed at the organization (OCBO) and organizational citizenship behaviours directed at the individuals within the organization (OCBI). The in-role behaviors represent stipulated duties contained in the job description and employment contract - this set of behaviors is similar to the dependable role performance theorized by Katz (1964). The OCBO dimension encapsulates conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue dimensions as posited by Organ (1988), while OCBI consists of courtesy and altruism dimensions as posited by Organ (1988, 1990). As we can see, all of Organ's OCB dimensions are captured in Williams and Anderson's conceptual scheme. In addition,

Williams and Anderson's conceptual scheme incorporates most other OCB constructs into it (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009) – and Organ (1997) himself seems to be favorably disposed to this approach.

Understanding Organ's 5 dimensions of OCB

Since researchers persist in using Organ's (1998) original definition of OCB and instruments developed to measure the construct according to its original definition (Borman, Ilgen and Klimoski, 2003), as said before, it is important to better understand the dimensions of OCB according to this author.

After the introduction by Smith et al. (1983) of the two types of OCB, Organ (1988) (cited by Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009), redefined OCB to refer to extra role behaviors and subsequently revised its dimensions to include *sportsmanship* - defined as a "willingness on the part of employees to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining and making problems seem bigger than they actually are"; *civic virtue* - "behavior indicating that employees take an active interest in the life of their organization"; *conscientiousness* (often called compliance) - "behavior indicating that employees accept and adhere to the rules, regulations, and procedures of the organization"; *altruism* – benevolence; and *courtesy* - consideration and respect for others. As we can see, the generalized compliance dimension was submerged into conscientiousness while altruism was retained as originally proposed.

There is good empirical evidence (Bell & Menguc, 2002; Hui, Lee, & Rousseau, 2004; Lam, Hui, & Law, 1999; Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990 cited by Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009) that managers have little difficulty distinguishing between Organ's (1988, 1990) sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness dimensions. However, empirical research (Bachrach, Bendoly, & Podsakoff, 2001; MacKenzie *et al.*, 1991; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994 cited by Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009) indicates that managers often have difficulty making some of the distinctions between the other dimensions identified in Organ's conceptual model, and that they tend to view altruism (benevolence), courtesy (consideration and respect for others), *peacekeeping*, and *cheerleading* as part of an overall helping dimension. Therefore, helping behaviour is probably best viewed as a second-order latent construct comprising these four first-order dimensions since, as noted by Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie (1997) (cited by Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009), these dimensions "clearly involve helping others with or preventing the occurrence of work-related problems" (pp. 63). Thus,

and considering that helping behaviour is one of the three main dimensions of OCB studied by researchers (Paillé, 2010), it was chosen as the independent variable of our study.

Measures of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

As for measures of OCB, Table 2 summarizes some of them.

Table 2 - Measures of OCB

Instruments sources	Assessment and scoring
Smith, Organ & Near (1983).	Citizenship behaviour was defined by 16 items. Respondents were asked to think of an employee who worked or had worked for them and to rate, on a 5-point scale, how characteristic each statement.
Podsakoff <i>et al.</i> (1990)	Measures OCB based on the dimensions suggested by Organ. The 24-item scale has five dimensions: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue. Responses to the items are based on a 7-point scale ranging from “Strongly disagree” through “Strongly agree”.
Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie (2006)	7-item OCBO, 7-item OCBI scales and some new items based on the conceptual definitions. Moreover, to establish the discriminant validity of OCBO and OCBI scales, a scale to measure employee in-role behavior (IRB). Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement with each of the items listed, using a 7-point scale ranging from “strongly disagree” through “strongly agree”.
Khalid <i>et al.</i> (2009).	5 factors for superior ratings OCB and 6 factors for self-ratings OCB. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent of OCB demonstration using a 5-point Likert scale format from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.
Fox & Spector (2012).	The OCB-C was “specifically designed to minimize overlap with scale of counterproductive work behavior which is a limitation noted in prior scales”. Included were items that reflected acts directed toward the organization as well as people in the organization, such as coworkers
Sharma & Jain (2014)	The scale incorporates reported variables governing OCB activities in business organizations covering all critical dimensions of pro social behavior. 36 attributes into 4 dimensions.

1.2 LITERATURE REVIEW ON PRESENTEEISM

Definition

Presenteeism has been defined in a number of ways. Therefore, a definitional consensus has yet to come. The definition “*attending work while ill*” (Johns, 2010:521) is the one employed by most organizational scholars and is also either explicit or implicit in all related scholarship published in the occupational health literature (Johns, 2010). Moreover, this definition does not ascribe motives or consequences to presenteeism (John, 2010) while many others do (see Table 3) - as critiqued by Johns (2012) (cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013), while various definitions of presenteeism all refer to physical presence at work, many have merged the cause and the effect, not separating the behaviour from the consequences.

Although the study of presenteeism is a relatively new field (John, 2010), the concept is not new in the workplace and has become an increasingly prevalent phenomenon in today’s work world. In recent years, presenteeism has begun to attract increased academic attention, reflecting a wider recognition of its adverse effects on employee well-being and its negative impact on organizational productivity (Caverley, Barton Cunningham, & Macgregor, 2007; Gustafsson & Marklund, 2011; Schultz & Edington, 2007 cited by Deery *et al.*, 2014). Which makes it curious to know that the first use of the term presenteeism documented presented it as a positive behaviour for individuals to move away from absenteeism towards presenteeism (Uris, 1955; Canfield & Soash, 1955).

Despite the significance of presenteeism as a fact of modern day work life has been established with large scale surveys in the developed economies such as the Scandinavia countries (e.g., Aronsson, Gustafsson, & Dallner, 2000; Demerouti, Le Blanc, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Hox, 2009 cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013), research in non-Western countries is non-existent. The majority of the existing work is done in the public health and nursing fields: it is prevalent in human service work where employees provide care or help to other people and have a strong professional commitment to the needs of their clients (Aronsson, Gustafsson & Dallner, 2000; Elstad & Vabø, 2008; McKeivitt, Morgan, Dundas, & Holland, 1997 cited by Deery, Walsh & Zatzick 2014).

Presenteeism has not often been studied with a view to relate it to personality, and there are not many studies relating it to both antecedents and consequences. In fact, nearly all of the existing studies have focused on either its damaging consequences or antecedents in the work context which might trigger the act of presenteeism (Johns, 2010) and not on

positive personal and work-related factors such as hardy personality and work support which might perform protective roles in the presenteeism process have been overlooked. In addition, longitudinal studies are rather rare in this field. In fact, most of the existing studies on presenteeism have approached it as merely an overt behaviour (Aronsson, Gustafson, & Dallner, 2000; Johns, 2010; Johns, 2011; cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013), not taking into account the underlying motives of such an act.

Table 3 - The many definitions of presenteeism

Source	Definition
Oxford dictionary (Broader definition)	“The practice of being present at one’s place of work for more hours than is required, especially as a manifestation of insecurity about one’s job: one of the general symptoms of employee insecurity is <i>presenteeism</i> ”; “The practice of spending more time at your work than you need to according to your contract”
Cooper (1996) (cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013)	“ <i>Presenteeism</i> occurs when people are physically present in the workplace but are functionally absent”; “...being at work when you should be at home either because you are ill or because you are working such long hours that you are no longer effective.”
Aronsson, Gustafson, & Dallner (2000) and Johns (2010) (cited by Johns, 2011)	“Going to work while ill.”; “Employees are physically present but they actually feel they should take sick leave”
Aronsson and Gustafsson’s (2000) (cited by Collins & Susan, 2012)	“People who despite complaints and ill health that should prompt rest and absence from work, are still turning up at their jobs.”
Hemp (2004) (cited by Martinez & Aristides, 2011)	“The problem of workers being on the job but, because of illness or other medical conditions, not fully functioning”
Sanderson & Andrews (2006)	“Absence of sick leave in persons with health conditions”
Various authors (cited by Johns, 2010) Note: “ <i>Presenteeism</i> is variously portrayed as good (definitions a and b), somewhat obsessive (definitions c, d, and e), at odds with one’s health status (definitions e, f, and g), and often less than fully productive (definitions h and i).”	a. Attending work, as opposed to being absent (Smith, 1970)
	b. Exhibiting excellent attendance (Canfield & Soash, 1955; Stolz, 1993)
	c. Working elevated hours, thus putting in “face time,” even when unfit (Simpson, 1998; Worrall <i>et al.</i> , 2000)
	d. Being reluctant to work part time rather than full time (Sheridan, 2004)
	e. Being unhealthy but exhibiting no sickness absenteeism (Kivimäki <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
	f. Going to work despite feeling unhealthy (Aronsson <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Dew <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
	g. Going to work despite feeling unhealthy or experiencing other events that might normally compel absence (e.g., child care problems) (Evans, 2004; Johansson & Lundberg, 2004)
	h. Reduced productivity at work due to health problems (Turpin <i>et al.</i> , 2004)
	i. Reduced productivity at work due to health problems or other events that distract one from full
Robertson & Cooper (2011) (cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013).	“Unhealthy and present.”

Antecedents of presenteeism

“Why or under what conditions would a person suffering from some acute, chronic, or episodic illness attend work rather than go absent?” Johns (2011) questioned himself about these and found out that “surprisingly little extant scholarship on presenteeism has concerned this issue”.

Although it remains an empirical question, some studies have already studied the correlates of presenteeism. However, the “why” still needs to be systematically explored. According to the transactional theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984 cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013), “people are constantly appraising, interpreting, and making sense of the situation, as well as evaluating their own personal resources to decide the best course of action in every encounter”. Therefore, it is crucial to understand people’s motives for committing the act of presenteeism for a more comprehensive representation of the underlying psychological process.

Hence, in order to better understand where we stand about this topic, the antecedents of presenteeism are enunciated through summary tables on the next pages. Table 4 concerns the work-related demands and pressures (job design), followed by organizational policies on Table 5 and personally related demands on Table 6.

One important note to have in mind is that according to Hansen and Anderson (2008) (cited by Collins & Cartwright, 2012) work-related factors may impact more on people’s decision to go to work whilst ill than personal factors.

Table 4 - Antecedents of presenteeism: work-related demands and pressures (job design)

	¹ Aronsson and Gustafsson’s (2005) ² Hansen and Andersen’s (2008) (cited by Collins & Cartwright, 2012)	Bockerman and Laukkanen (2009) (cited by Collins & Cartwright, 2012)	¹ Ramsey (2006) ² Wynne-Jones <i>et al.</i> (2011); Baker-McClearn <i>et al.</i> (2010) (cited by Collins & Cartwright, 2012)	Baker-McClearn, Greasley, Dale, and Griffith (2010) (cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2011)	Johns (2010) [(+) = positively associated with presenteeism; (-) = negatively associated with presenteeism]
WORK-RELATED DEMANDS AND PRESSURES (JOB DESIGN)	¹ Less control over the pace of work was associated with more presenteeism; control over pace of work; replaceability; sufficient resources, conflicting demands ² Time pressure at work contributes to <i>presenteeism</i> .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Working time arrangements (to a greater extent than absenteeism) – Long working hours – Long working weeks – Frequent overtime – Mismatch between the amount of hours wanted by the employee and actual hours worked 	¹ Managers management style ² Managers relationships with employees and how they implement sickness absence policies	“ <u>Workplace pressures</u> ” Management style and workplace culture.	<u>“Work context”</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Task significance (+) – Job interdependence (+) – Autonomy – Ease of replacement (+) <u>“Work Experiences”</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Equity (-) – Job security (-) – Family to work conflict – Work to family conflict (+)
	Caverley <i>et al.</i>, (2007)	¹ CCH, Wolters Kluwer Law and Business (2007) ² Gorovsky (2008) (cited by Lack, 2011)	Weinberg (2007) (cited by Lack, 2011)	¹ Hansen and Anderson (2008) ² Leinweber <i>et al.</i> (2011) ³ Aronsson <i>et al.</i> (2000) (cited by Collins & Cartwright, 2012)	
	Top reasons: (1) others depending on them, (2) workload, (3) deadlines, (4) work commitments/meetings, and (5) did not feel so bad that they could not do some work	¹ “Perception that they had too much work or too many deadlines” and no one to cover for them → ² fear of disciplinary action and thus arrive to work regardless of the extent of their illness”	<i>Fear of loss of Income or employment</i> : workers may fear managers or coworkers thinking less of them if they remain home sick.	¹ Job insecurity ² Support of colleagues (whereby a lack of support is associated with a greater risk of presenteeism) ³ Occupational group (professions in care, welfare and education having the highest levels)	
	¹ Punnett, Greenidge and Ramsey (2007) ² Hausknecht, Hiller and Vance (2008) (cited by Bierla, Huver & Richard, 2012) ³ Caverley <i>et al.</i> (2007)	¹ Grinyer and Singleton (2000) ² Baker-McClearn <i>et al.</i> (2010) ³ Ashby and Mahdon (2010) (cited by Collins & Cartwright, 2012)			
	¹ Increase in job satisfaction leads to a reduction in the level of absenteeism, whether for intrinsic satisfaction (responsibility, interesting tasks, flexible hours) or extrinsic satisfaction (relationship with colleagues, job security); ² both organizational commitment and job satisfaction are related to lower absenteeism (³ variables also associated with more presenteeism, leading to over-commitment)	<i>Teamwork</i> : ¹ individuals are reluctant to let colleagues down and ² take into consideration whether their absence will affect other (“being the member of a team instilled an obligation to fellow team members which resulted in a reluctance to take sick leave”). ³ However, people appear to experience a conflict with the decision as they do not want to pass on illness to colleagues.			

Table 5 - Antecedents of Presenteeism: organizational policies

		¹ Johns (1997) ² Aronsson <i>et al.</i> , (2000) (cited by Johns, 2010)	¹ Johns (1997) ² Chatterji & Tilley (2002) ³ Lovell (2004) (cited by John, 2010)	Baker <i>et al.</i> , (2010) (cited by Lu, Lin & Cooper, 2011)	Chatterji and Tilley (2002) (cited by Collins & Cartwright, 2012)	Grinyer and Singleton (2000) ¹ (cited by Collins & Cartwright, 2012) ² (cited by Johns, 2010)
ORGANIZATIONAL POLICIES	PAY, SICK PAY, AND ATTENDANCE CONTROL* ¹	¹ There is considerable evidence that those earning higher wages generally exhibit less absenteeism. ² Occupational groups exhibiting the most presenteeism were among the poorest paid (comparable data are lacking on presenteeism <i>per se</i>)	¹ Less liberal sick pay plans result in less absence. ² These could also stimulate presenteeism. ³ Lack of paid sick leave is a particular stimulus for presenteeism among female workers; ³ workers report going to work ill to “save” any sick leave they have for dealing with children’s health problems.	Organization’s attendance policy	Policies intended to reduce absenteeism such as reducing sick pay may ultimately increase presenteeism * ²	¹ Organizational policies introduced to reduce short-term sickness made employees resentful and stressed because staff were reluctant to take sick leave. ² Systems put in place to stimulate good attendance can contribute to presenteeism → fixed “trigger points” for a certain number of absence episodes that led to disciplinary action stimulated presenteeism, and they also converted potential presenteeism into absence since employees became concerned to return to work too soon (and thus risk going absent again and accruing two absence episodes instead of one).
	DOWNSIZING* ¹	¹ Kammeyer-Mueller, Liao, & Arvey (2001) Simpson (1998) (cited by Johns, 2010)		¹ Simpson (1998) ² Caverley <i>et al.</i> (2007) (cited by Lack, 2011) ³ Firns, Travaglione and O’Neill (2006) (cited by Bierla, Huver & Richard, 2012)		
		¹ On one hand, downsizing might be expected to stimulate absenteeism due to damaged job attitudes, perceptions of injustice, breached psychological contracts, and stress-related illness. ² On the other hand, it might reduce absenteeism due to fear of job loss, job design changes that make absence less viable, increased workload, or flatter organizational structures that increase competition for promotions and demand visible symbols of commitment.	<i>Organizational restructuring:</i> ¹ Employees tending to remain at work longer than needed to demonstrate their commitment (competitive presenteeism); ² Feeling insecure about their positions after the organizational changes and those remaining with the company not having fully recovered (“shell shocked”); ² Presenteeism directly or indirectly related to feelings of insecurity, poor communication, and lack of trust following organizational changes and restructuring; ³ The rate of sick leave is higher when employees anticipate lay-offs.			
	PERMANENCY OF EMPLOYMENT* ¹	¹ Benavides <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Gimeno, <i>et al.</i> , 2004 & others (cited by Johns, 2010)		Virtanen <i>et al.</i> (2003) (cited by Johns, 2010) (inferring presenteeism from patterns of absence)		
Contingent or non-permanent employees exhibit less sickness absence than their more permanent counterparts		¹ Employees who changed their employment from a fixed term contract to permanent status, it was observed that their recorded absence rate nearly doubled (along with their perceptions of job security) to approximate that of permanent employees. “The authors inferred <i>presenteeism</i> on the part of the fixed term employees prior to conversion to permanency.”				

*¹ Organizational policies divided according to Johns, 2010. | *² “Any attempt at reducing the potential productivity loss from absence has to be offset against the potential productivity loss from *presenteeism*” (Chatterji and Tilley, 2002). However, it is difficult to measure the effects of *presenteeism* because measures rely upon individuals’ self-reporting when they have attended work while sick, as well as their personal estimation of productivity, which could be subject to distortion (Johns, 2010). Different variety (and complexity) of measures also make it difficult to make comparisons across studies (Sanderson *et al.*, 2007, cited by Collins & Cartwright, 2012).

Table 6 - Antecedents of Presenteeism: Personally related demands

	¹ Aronsson and Gustafsson’s (2005); Hansen and Anderson (2008) ² Hansen and Anderson (2008) (cited by Collins & Cartwright, 2012)	Ashby and Mahdon (2010) Aronsson and Gustafsson’s (2005) (cited by Collins & Cartwright, 2012)	Johns (2010) [(+) = positively associated with <i>presenteeism</i> ; (-) = negatively associated with <i>presenteeism</i>]	Baker-McClearn, Greasley, Dale, and Griffith (2010) (cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013)
PERSONALLY RELATED DEMANDS	¹ Individual boundarylessness (difficulty in saying no) and over commitment ² Conservative attitudes towards absence	People with financial difficulties (financial pressure to attend work*)	“Personal characteristics” – Strong work ethic (+) – Affective and normative organizational commitment (+) – Workaholism (+) – Psychological hardness (+) – Conscientiousness (+) – Internal health locus of control (-) – Neuroticism (-)	” <u>Personal Motivations</u> ” Work values and beliefs such as: “no one else can do the job,” “loyalty to own professional image,” and “obligation and commitment to colleagues, clients, and organizations.”
	Löve <i>et al.</i> (2010) (cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013)	Lack (2011)	¹ Rogerson (2007) ² MacGregor, Cunningham, & Caverley (2008) (cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2011)	¹ Aronsson <i>et al.</i> (2000) ² Hansen and Andersen (2008) (cited by Bierla, Huver & Richard, 2012)
	Self-esteem	– Health concerns: physical and mental health concerns – Health risk concerns – Dependent care issues	<i>The stress factor:</i> ¹ Stress and sleep deprivation were the second and fourth most common reasons for <i>presenteeism</i> ; ² Stressful life events are significantly related to both <i>presenteeism</i> and absenteeism	¹ People with children at home are more often at work being sick. ² Family life could foster presenteeist behavior (yet, it seems unclear why having children should reinforce <i>presenteeism</i>)

* However, it is likely that organizational policies in terms of whether, and to what extent, sick pay is given to staff taking sickness absence will also influence the impact of financial pressure on an individual’s decision to go into work. “(Aronsson and Gustafsson, 2005). Moreover, when a ‘three-day rule’ is applied (three days of absence are fully compensated, without certificate), *presenteeism* decreases (Bockerman and Laukkanen, 2010).

Consequences of presenteeism

Although studies tend to agree that greater productivity loss is associated with presenteeism than absenteeism, there is a great deal of variation reported across studies in terms of both the effects and costs with respect to presenteeism (Johns, 2010). Since the time presenteeism was identified, epidemiological and medical researchers have investigated the impact of health on productivity loss which is allegedly attributable to the act of working while ill (e.g. Collins et al., 2005; Turpin et al., 2004 cited by Lu, Cooper & Lin, 2013). From an employee perspective, *“presenteeism is important in that it might exacerbate existing medical conditions, damage the quality of working life, and lead to impressions of ineffectiveness at work due to reduced productivity”* (Johns, 2010: 521). Moreover, various organizational practices and policies designed to curtail absenteeism could in fact stimulate attendance while sick (Johns, 2010).

There have been suggestions that the incidence of presenteeism may be rising due to the greater reluctance of employees to take time off work in times of economic uncertainty, downsizing, and staff shortages (Baker-McCleary, Greasley, Dale, & Griffith, 2010, cited by Deery, Walsh & Zatzick 2014). While absenteeism has long been seen a cost to employers, some scholars now claim that being excessively present could prove even costlier (Burton *et al.*, 2006; Hemp, 2004; Robertson and Cooper, 2011 cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013). While presenteeism might have seemed attractive at first glance, organizations are realizing now that it represents a “silent” but significant drain on productivity (Demerouti *et al.*, 2008).

Nonetheless, and although the numerous enunciated negative consequences of presenteeism, there is also a bright side: Johns (2010) voices that, under some circumstances, *“presenteeism might be viewed as an act of organizational citizenship and garner praise”* and that *“focusing narrowly on productivity loss, as opposed to productivity gain compared to absenteeism, is unduly restrictive”* (pp. 521). Likewise, Demerouti *et al.* (2008) revealed that although presenteeism is normally viewed as negative, *“it can also be viewed more positively, i.e. a type of organizational citizenship behavior”* (pp.52). Moreover, Çetin (2016) enunciates positive outcomes listed for presenteeism by respondents in his study “An Exploratory Study of Presenteeism in Turkish Context” (as we can see in the Table 7). Important to note the author mentions that *“there are positive outcomes that are about getting rid of negative outcomes of*

OCB and social capital: going the extra mile while ill? Presenteeism as a new dimension of OCB.

absenteeism and positive outcomes that are actually providing additional positive consequences directly related with act of presenteeism.” (Çetin, 2016: 31)

A summary table on presenteeism consequences is presented on the following page (Table 7).

Table 7 - Consequences of Presenteeism

¹ Meijman & Mulder (1998) ² Hansen & Andersen (2008) (cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013) (RECOVERY THEORY)	¹ Johns (2011) ² Aronsson & Gustafsson, 2005; Demerouti, Le Blanc, Bakker, Schaufeli & Hox, (2009) (cited by Deery <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	Bergström, Bodin, Hagberg, Aronsson, and Josephson (2009) (cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013)
¹ Continuous <i>presenteeism</i> might trigger a downward spiral of worsening health conditions ² whatever the causes/fear of consequences that lead to it	¹ <i>Presenteeism</i> was negatively associated with overall health.	<i>Presenteeism</i> is a significant risk factor for future sick leave of more than 30 days, indicative of serious health problems.
Stronger pressure to commit <i>presenteeism</i> in the long term	² <i>Presenteeism</i> is thought to raise the risk of longer-term ill health because individuals may fail to resolve minor illnesses, thus giving rise to work strain and a weakened state of health and mental well-being	
Detrimental effect of <i>presenteeism</i> on job satisfaction		
Demerouti <i>et al.</i> (2009) (cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013)	Aronsson <i>et al.</i>, 2000 (cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013)	Baker-McCleary <i>et al.</i>, 2010 (cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013)
Exhaustion had a reciprocal relation with <i>presenteeism</i>	Feeling pressured to work when sick may reduce job satisfaction (<i>presenteeism</i> is more common among medical staff with lower job satisfaction resulting from both the nature of their job and high attendance requirement)	Employees who had experienced frequent <i>presenteeism</i> had a tendency to describe their jobs as being stressful and unsatisfying.
Robertson & Cooper (2011) (cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013)	Yamashita and Arakida (2006) (cited by Lack, 2011)	Sonnentag (2005) (cited by Le Blanc <i>et al.</i> , 2008)
<i>Presenteeism</i> might have a critical impact on productivity via employees' performance.	(a) the aggravation of quality of life and health, (b) increases in health-related costs, (c) adverse effects on colleagues, (d) increases in occupational accidents, and (e) deterioration of the quality of services and products.	Because of inadequate recuperation, employees may develop negative attitudes towards their work (towards patients in the case of nurses) and thus develop depersonalization over time
Ferris <i>et al.</i> (2009)	¹ Hemp, 2004 ² Stewart <i>et al.</i> (2003) (cited by Lyons, L. & Blass, F., 2009)	Hobfoll and Freedy (1993) (cited by Blank <i>et al.</i> , 2008)
<i>Presenteeism</i> represents a hidden, yet impactful, cost to organizations.	<i>Presenteeism</i> accounted for 84% of an organization's lost productivity costs, with the remaining 16 percent attributed to absenteeism and disability claims; ² Approximately 77% of productivity losses attributed to <i>presenteeism</i>	Compensation through <i>presenteeism</i> for decrements in performance due to energy depletion may ultimately lead to a further deterioration in employees' mental and physical condition, confirming the notion of loss spirals, as well as to employees working less efficiently, making even more mistakes at work, and (depending on their symptoms) passing on their sickness to colleagues and/or clients
Hobfoll and Freedy (1993) (cited by Blank <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	Çetin (2016) (outcomes listed for presenteeism by respondents)	
Employees probably tend to invest the minimum efforts that are required to meet the expected targets and distance themselves emotionally from their patients (in the case of medical care)	<u>Positive outcomes</u> (e.g.): "I felt mentally relaxed (by getting free from the burden of absenteeism)"; "My work load wasn't cancelled to further increase the future work load"; "There was no extraction from my salary/pay". <u>Negative outcome</u> (e.g.): "My illness was cured later than it ought to be"; "My illness continued for a long time"; "My performance decreased"; "My illness affected other employees negatively"; "My illness defected other employees".	

Measuring presenteeism

The Stanford SPS-6 is selected as the most useful instrument to test for the characteristic of presenteeism as an intrinsic capacity for performing while distracted, i.e., it seeks to determine “the employee’s ability to focus on work without being distracted by health problems”. Consisting of six questions related to presenteeism, respondents reply on a five-point Likert-type response scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” (Ferreira & Martinez, 2012).

Table 8 displays some of the instruments used to measure presenteeism according to Despiégel *et al.* (2012).

Table 8 - Presenteeism instruments

	Instruments	Assessment and scoring: <i>presenteeism</i>
Instruments amenable to monetization	Health & Labour Questionnaire (HLQ)	[Employed] level of impediment while working on a 0–10 scale
	Health and Work Performance Questionnaire (HPQ)	Absolute <i>presenteeism</i> : actual performance on a 1–100 scale
		Relative <i>presenteeism</i> : ratio of actual performance to the performance of most workers at the same job, as reported by the respondent
	Health and Work Questionnaire (HWQ)	Efficiency, quality, and amount of work completed over the recall period on a 0–10 scale
		Indication of how a supervisor and a co-worker would respond to the same questions about the respondents’ productivity
	Work and Health Interview (WHI)	Concentration loss while unwell, repeated a job while unwell, worked more slowly while unwell, felt fatigue while unwell. % of effectiveness while ill (from categorical responses on <i>presenteeism</i>)
	Work Limitations Questionnaire (WLQ)	Average of the four domains to productivity-related questions and converting the average to an interval scale to achieve a 0–100 scale of productivity
Work Productivity and Activity Impairment (WPAI) questionnaire	Self-reported work performance is assessed with a 0–100 visual analogue scale	
Lam Employment Absence and Productivity Scale (LEAPS)	Total impairment score on a 0–28 scale (level of energy, concentration,	
Instruments not amenable to monetization	Endicott Work Productivity Scale (EWPS)	Frequency of productive behaviors during the previous 1 wk using a five-point Likert scale. A sum of scores is computed, ranging from 0 (best score) to 100 (worst score)
	Sheehan Disability Scale (SDS)	Rate (0–10 scale) on how symptoms have disrupted work or school work Number of days “underproductive” due to symptoms
	Stanford <i>Presenteeism</i> Scale (SPS)	Stress, focus, energy at work, no global score combining these attributes

Some thoughts on Presenteeism

Unlike absenteeism, presenteeism is not always apparent. It is visible when someone does not show up for work, but you often cannot tell when or how much illness or a medical condition deters someone's performance (Hemp, 2004).

Moreover, Hemp (2004) states that presenteeism, as defined by researchers, "is not about malingering (pretending to be ill to avoid work duties) or goofing off on the job". Instead, it refers to productivity loss resulting from real health problems. Underlying the research on presenteeism is the assumption that employees do not take their jobs lightly, that most of them need and want to continue working if they can. Additionally, Caverley et al. (2007) (cited by Lack, 2011) study results imply that presenteeism may be a more sensitive measure of employee health than absenteeism. Furthermore, wellness-related policies and programs to improve health and productivity may have a greater impact on presenteeism than on absenteeism.

CHAPTER 2 – THE RESEARCH PROBLEM | OCB LITERATURE GAP: “GOING THE EXTRA MILE WHILE ILL”

2.1 RESEARCH PROBLEM

Presenteeism and OCB: a possible linkage?

As we read through the literature review on Presenteeism and OCB some questions arise: could presenteeism be a dimension of OCB? Does it make sense for the construct of Organizational Citizenship Behavior to encompass the dimension of presenteeism beyond the five that it already comprises?

Although presenteeism is not identified as a possible dimension of OCB in any literature as far as we know, some authors have made a few comments about the relation between it and OCB. As we can see from the literature review on presenteeism, authors such as Le Blanc et al. (2008) stated that presenteeism “can also be viewed more positively, i.e. a type of organizational citizenship behavior”. More recently, and as mentioned before, Johns (2010) also mentioned that “under some circumstances, presenteeism might be viewed as an act of organizational citizenship and garner praise” (pp. 521). Moreover, it was recently revealed that the withdrawal of citizenship behaviors led to lateness and absenteeism and that similar dynamics might be applicable to some cases of presenteeism (Harrison et al., 2006 cited by Johns, 2010). Nonetheless these remarks, there were no attempts to study if presenteeism can be encompassed as an OCB dimension.

Therefore, a gap is found on the OCB literature, and a core question arises: can OCB “go the extra mile” with the introduction of presenteeism? If we review Organs’ five dimensions of OCB (altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship) it is possible to understand that neither of them relates to the construct of presenteeism (“*attending work while ill*”) (Johns,2010: 521), which could make this construct a new one to the OCB model, possibly bringing new meaning and enforcing its theory, carrying into something more that it is now.

Research questions

In that line of thought, the dissertation will evaluate if OCB can “go the extra mile” with the introduction of presenteeism as a new dimension – with this being the main research question/research purpose –, addressing the following (partial) research questions:

1. Is there space for a new construct in the OCB literature?
2. What is the weight of the presenteeism dimension in the OCB dimensions?
3. What are the outcomes of the presenteeism dimension?
4. What are the variables that will influence the outcomes of the presenteeism dimension?

2.2 OBJECTIVES

In order to answer the previous research questions, underlying objectives are as follows:

1. Develop a Presenteeism Citizenship Behaviour (PCB) scale.
2. Ascertain the contribution of the presenteeism construct to the OCB literature.
3. Confirm if the presenteeism construct has predictive validity in the OCB model.
4. Study the relationship between the helping organizational citizenship behaviour dimension and presenteeism.
5. Assess the impact of the presenteeism dimension on the social capital dimension.
6. Study the impact of perception of justice and organizational commitment in the conceptual model.

2.3 PRESENTEEISM (CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR) CLARIFIED

The first of the objectives states the development of a presenteeism citizenship behaviour scale in order to later on fulfil the other two objectives. Therefore, the next step comprehends the clarification of the “Presenteeism Citizenship Behaviour” construct that is going to be used in the next chapters of the dissertation.

PCB is a new construct developed from the SPS-6 scale and the OCB dimensions. More specifically, the initial sentences of the items of the SPS-6 scale (“Because of my health problem” and “Despite my health problem”) were used together with the OCB dimensions chosen to form the items. Therefore, the goal is to analyse if despite having a health problem, the employee still displayed citizenship behaviours at work or, on the other hand, because of the health problem, those citizenship behaviours were not so present or were even not displayed.

2.4 THEORETICAL OVERVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS

The relationship between helping behaviour and PCB

Different forms of OCB in varying combinations can be seen in the literature. Although numerous dimensions of OCB have been investigated and discussed, in the current study, the three factor model configuration was chosen, distinguishing between helping behaviour, sportsmanship and civic virtue, with items measuring helping behaviour grouped into the same single dimension. Thus, helping behaviour is considered and defined as a latent second-order construct comprising four first-order dimensions (altruism, courtesy, peacekeeping and cheerleading) and therefore aggregating Organ’s two additional dimensions introduced in 1990 (peacekeeping and cheerleading) and overcoming the difficulties that empirical research indicates, with managers often having difficulty making distinctions between the first order dimensions mentioned and considering them as part of an overall helping dimension (Bachrach *et al.*, 2001; MacKenzie *et al.*, 1991; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994 cited by Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009).

Defined as “*voluntarily helping others with or preventing the occurrence of work-related problems*” (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006: 308), helping behaviour is one of the three main forms of OCB studied by researchers (Paillé, 2010). Offering colleagues a helping hand when needed or assisting them when they have heavy workloads are two examples of helping behaviours that can happen at the workplace (Braun *et al.*, 2012).

In that line of thought, if an employee displays helping behaviours at work regardless of having a health problem – exhibiting PCB – in order to help or prevent work related problems, those helping behaviours can be considered even greater extra-role or beyond the job behaviours since they occur and are displayed when the employee is not feeling healthy, i.e., while feeling ill. Moreover, individuals taking into consideration whether their absence will affect others and the consequent reluctance to take sick leave because there is an instilled obligation to fellow team members (Baker-McClearn *et al.*, 2010) and, consequently, an unwillingness to let colleagues down (Grinyer & Singleton, 2000), are exhibiting altruism and courtesy behaviours, both dimensions of the helping behaviour construct. Therefore, we argue that an individual already displaying helping behaviours at work will more likely exhibit the same behaviour at work while sick, thus engaging in Presenteeism Citizenship Behaviours.

Hypothesis 1: Helping behaviour is positively related to PCB.

The relationship between PCB and social capital

Social Capital is “*the ability to find, utilize and combine the skills, knowledge and experience of others, inside and outside of the organization (...) and derived from employees’ professional and business networks*” (Krebs, 2008:38). Social capital is about “trust, relationship, and commitment” and “thrives on authenticity” (Prusak & Cohen, 2001). It refers to high-quality relations within social networks that, consequently, enable trust and foster cooperation, helping organizations to be more effective (Prusak & Cohen, 2001), making it an asset that resides in social relationships. Organizational Citizenship Behaviours such as altruism, courtesy or sportsmanship improve these relationships through the development of liking, trust, and identification among employees (Bolino, M., Turnley, W. & Bloodgood, M., 2002). Therefore, if OCBs motivate employees to like, trust, and identify with each other and taking into account that social capital has its foundation in high quality social relations that possess these characteristics, we can assume they are likely to be associated with social capital. Moreover, research already shows that OCB increases the social capital in organizations (Bolino *et al.*, 2002 cited by Braun *et al.*, 2012; Ariani, 2012).

Since PCB is an organizational citizenship behaviour, it is expected to have a positive impact on social capital, helping to create and maintain it. Hence:

Hypothesis 2: PCB is positively related to social capital.

The mediation effect of PCB

The hypothesis presented above predict a positive relationship between helping behaviour and PCB (Hypothesis 1) and between PCB and social capital (Hypothesis 2). Taking into account that helping behaviour is expected to elicit higher levels of PCB which in turn is expected to have a positive impact on social capital, increasing it, the combination of the two previous predictions suggest that PCB should mediate the relationship between helping behaviour and social capital.

When do people create social capital? The “*extra mile*” happens when we are sick. That is why PCB as such an influence

If an individual already displaying helping behaviours at work will more likely exhibit the same behaviour at work while sick, thus engaging in Presenteeism Citizenship Behaviours, and if research already shows that OCB increases the social capital in organizations (Bolino *et al.*, 2002 cited by Braun *et al.*, 2012; Ariani, 2012) – possibly making the act of PCB, which is also a citizenship behaviour, follow the same path – PCB is therefore expected to mediate the relationship between helping behaviour and social capital, clarifying it. The creation of social capital happens when we

Hypothesis 3: PCB mediates the relationship between helping behaviour and social capital.

The cross level moderation effect

The concept of "a job for life" in today's fast paced and dynamic business environment has become sparser, which has made the notion of organizational commitment even more relevant. Defined as an “*attachment to the organization, characterized by an intention to remain in it; an identification with the values and goals of the organization; and a willingness to exert extra effort on its behalf*” (Mowday *et al.*, 1979: 224), organizational

commitment related to lower absenteeism (Hausknecht *et al.*, 2008, cited by Bierla *et al.*, 2012) which in turn is associated with more presenteeism, leading to over-commitment (Caverley *et al.*, 2007).

Additionally, organizational commitment and perception of justice were revealed as a significant predictor of employee OCBs (Organ *et al.*, 2006 cited by Podsakoff *et al.*, 2013; Morrow, 1993). Evidence also shows that perceived fair and logical justice based behaviour throughout the organization increases organizational commitment by its employees and consequently leads to extra-role behaviour (Mollahosseini *et al.*, 2012), with results from meta-analytic studies also supporting the relationship between justice perceptions and key organizational outcomes such as citizenship behaviour and organizational commitment (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001 cited by Colquitt & Rodell, 2011). Johns (2010; pp.532) also mentions that it seems reasonable to expect that those with “*favorable justice perceptions would, on the margin, exhibit presenteeism, as would workaholics, the conscientious, and the psychological hardy*”. Moreover, it was proved there is a positive significant relationship between social capital and organizational commitment (Nikmaram *et al.*, 2012).

Thus, it is expected that perception of justice and organizational commitment will interact with PCB to increase its effect on social capital, so that the relationship between PCB and social capital becomes stronger when the mentioned moderators are at high levels, i.e., the positive relationship between PCB and social capital is conditioned upon perception of justice and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 4: The positive relationship between PCB and social capital is moderated by perception of justice and organizational commitment such that the relationship is stronger when perception of justice and organizational commitment are higher.

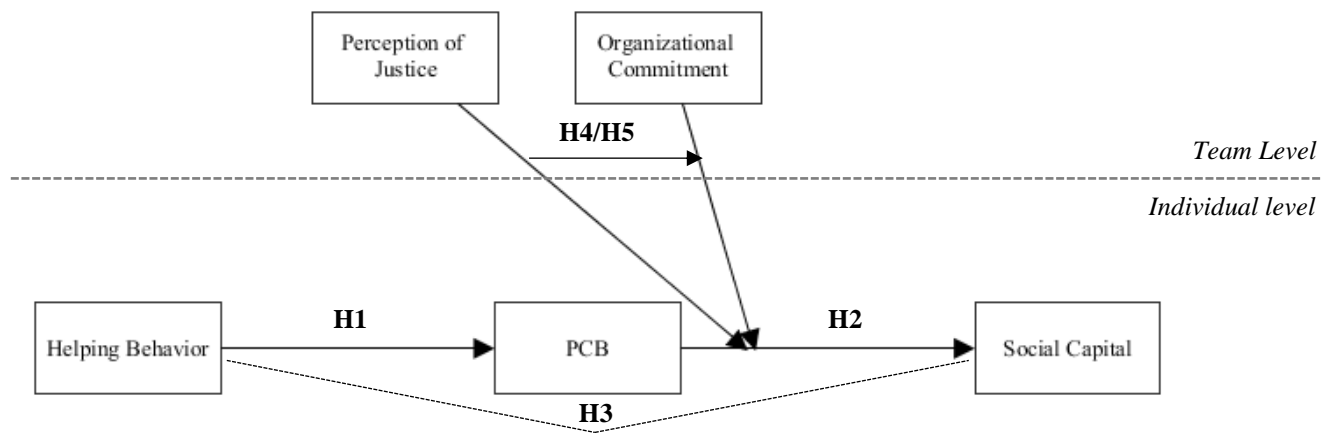
The cross-level moderated mediation effect

It is expected that the indirect relationship between helping behaviour and social capital through PCB to be conditioned upon perception of justice and organizational commitment, i.e., the indirect relation of helping behaviour on social capital through PCB is conditional on the degree of perceived justice and organizational commitment, in that the mediation effects are stronger under conditions of high perceived justice and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 5: The indirect effect of helping behaviour on social capital through PCB is stronger when perception of justice and organizational commitment are higher.

Figure 1 displays the proposed conceptual model, including the hypothesis.

Figure 1 - Proposed conceptual model



CHAPTER 3 – METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH | ROAD TO ANSWERS ON OCB AND PRESENTEEISM

3.1 SAMPLE AND PROCEDURES

The sample of the present study comprised employees (N=383) from both *startups* and companies (46.5% and 53.5% respectively) of various different areas of expertise, according to a non-probabilistic sample (i.e., does not involve random selection). Workers' age ranged from 18 to 65 years, with an average age tenure of employees of 32.68 years (SD = 11.61). The respondents gender was balanced (51% of the male gender). The majority of the participants holds a Bachelor's degree (Licenciatura) (52%), with 25.1% possessing a higher degree (Master's degree = 12.8%, Postgraduate degree = 12%, Doctorate degree = .3%). The seniority mean is 6.6 years (SD = 9.1), while the mean years of experience is 9.8 (SD = 10.6).

The administration of the instruments was collective and in the majority of times in a work context – the questionnaire was 79.9% of times applied at the place of work of the participants with the remaining 2.1% done online, within the period from April to June 2016. Furthermore, since the questionnaire had a peer-assessment evaluation, it had to be applied to groups of people working together on a daily basis in order for the peer evaluation to be possible within the group. More specifically, the questionnaire required the respondent to appraise three colleagues (with a minimum of at least 1 colleague assessment). A total of 69% (N = 262) respondents completed all three appraisals.

Thus, an overall 89 groups participated in the study. More precisely, 48 Portuguese *startups* agreed to participate, each one with a minimum of 2 to a maximum of 12 collaborators (Mean = 3.7; SD = 1.6). Regarding companies, 41 groups (either from restaurants, coffee shops, large and medium surface supermarkets or public institutions) contributed to the study with a minimum of 2 and a maximum of 30 people per group, averaging 4 people (Mean = 4.3; SD = 3.5) per group. An average of 2.3 peer assessments per subject was verified.

Institutional approval was always granted for the surveys applied at the place of work and, in some cases, an explanatory document on the objectives of the study and request authorization to their attainment was sent beforehand. Moreover, the objectives of the research were explained each time the questionnaire was applied and participants were able to decide if they wanted to take part of the study.

3.2 DEVELOPMENT OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The development of the questionnaire began by defining the constructs of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) and Presenteeism. Subsequently, a more extensive review of the literature was undertaken in order to build the questionnaire (e.g., Braun *et al.*, 2012; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Rego, 2002; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1990; Leventhal, 1976), which provided three self-report instruments in order to measure the social capital, organizational commitment and perception of justice constructs, and two peer-assessment ones to measure the constructs of helping behaviour and PCB.

Concerning the PCB construct, and given that it was developed from the OCB dimensions and is, therefore, a new construct, the items were subjected to reviewing by means of spoken reflection, with a group of 9 adults (between the ages of 20 and 54, of both genders and different levels of education). Participants were then asked to comment on the clarity of the items and to share the difficulties encountered in completing this section of the questionnaire and the remaining of it, if any. Participants were also asked to point out aspects that they thought were repeated or not contemplated. These inputs were either asked through a scale (with 1 – “I do not understand/am not able to interpret this item” being the lowest value and 3 the highest – “I completely understand/am perfectly able to interpret this item”) or through written comments/suggestions. As a result, the structure and some explanations for each group of items were slightly changed. Moreover, double negatives and complex items were avoided. Still regarding the PCB construct, and since all the items started with “Due to the health problem” or “Despite the health problem”, a clarification of “Health Problem” was provided using the definition present in the “Stanford Presenteeism Scale (SPS-6)”, which was appropriately translated to Portuguese.

All data, with the exception of the demographic variables, were collected using a 7-point *likert* scale. Following the example of Rego and Cunha (2010), only the term “Applicability” was replaced by the term “Agreement” (1 - “I Strongly Disagree”; 2 – “I Disagree”; 3 – “I Moderately Disagree”; 4 - Neither I Agree Nor Disagree; 5 - “I Moderately Agree”; 6 – “I Agree”; 7 – “I Strongly Agree”).

The questionnaire also included personal details such as: initials of name (first letter of first name and first letter of last name), age, gender, academic abilities, length of service, years of career, health status at the time of filling, number of missed days of work in the last 6 months and number of times that the participant went to work in the last month while suffering from a health problem. Confidentiality and anonymity was always granted.

3.3 INSTRUMENTS

Since the OCB dimensions are not independent of the national cultural context, the research for the items was performed having in mind that these would have to be already developed and validated in light of the national reality, and therefore, in the Portuguese language.

Our dependent variable, *social capital*, was measured by using the five items of Ng & Feldman (2010) scale including items such as: “Gasto muito tempo e esforço no trabalho em atividades de rede (networking) com outras pessoas” or “Desenvolvi uma grande rede de contactos no trabalho a quem posso telefonar a pedir apoio, quando realmente é necessário” with a total of 6 items.

Helping behaviour, our independent variable, was assessed employing the Portuguese adapted version of the scale by Braun *et al.* (2012). Items such as “Auxilia os seus colegas quando estão sobrecarregados, mesmo que isso exija mais trabalho da sua parte”, “Intervém e tenta equilibrar os interesses quando ocorrem disputas na equipa de trabalho” or “Incentiva os colegas quando estão stressados com o trabalho” were used gathering an total of six items.

As for the mediator, *Presenteeism Citizenship Behaviour* (PCB), and as mentioned before, the scale construction was developed from the OCB literature, taking into account the same Portuguese adapted version of the OCB questionnaire by Braun, Ferreira & Sydow (2012) and the SPS-6 scale, with a total of 10 items. Dimensions such as Helping Behaviour, Organizational Identification, Individual Initiative, Interpersonal Harmony and Organizational Obedience were considered in the creation of the PCB scale. Therefore, the initial sentences of the items of the SPS-6 scale (“Because of my health problem” and “Despite my health problem”) were used alongside the dimensions regarding the OCB literature to form the complete items, with the goal of analysing if despite having a health problem, the employee still displayed citizenship behaviours at work or, on the other hand, because of the health problem, those citizenship behaviours were not so present or were even not displayed.

Organizational commitment, one of the moderators, was assessed through three items according to O'Reilly & Chatman, J. (1986). In turn, moderator perception of justice was measured via four items based on Leventhal's scale (1976).

3.4 DATA ANALYSIS

Conduction of a Principal Components Analysis

Results from self-reported instruments

Concerning the results of the first group of items of the questionnaire (self-report instruments), a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was conducted on the 13 items with orthogonal rotation (*varimax*). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis with a KMO = .910 which is considered “great” according to Hutcheson & Sofroniou (1999). Furthermore, Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2(78) = 3701.067$, $p < .001$), indicates that correlations between items were sufficiently large for PCA and that factor analysis is appropriate.

An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each component in the data which resulted in three components with eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explain 76.07% of the variance, an acceptable value since values located between 60% and 80% are considered good (Pasquali, 1999). The scree plot was showed and inflexion that justifies retaining three components.

Given the large sample size ($N = 382$), and the convergence of the scree plot and Kaiser's criterion on three components, in the final analysis the same number of components were retained. Furthermore, this decision was also made having into account that Kaiser's criterion is accurate when there are less than 30 variables and communalities after extraction are greater than .7 or when the sample size exceed 250 and the average communality is greater than .6. In this case, we have less than 30 variables but three communalities are lower than .7 (with the lowest being .643). However, concerning the second ground, we do have a sample size that exceeds 250 and the average of the communalities is .76, which helps to confirm that Kaiser's rule may be accurate. Other alternative models were analysed with different numbers of factors before deciding on a final model and number of factors.

Concerning the Rotated Component Matrix, factors lower than .4 have not been displayed based on Stevens's (2002) suggestion that this cut-off point is appropriate for purposes of interpretation, i.e., loadings greater than .4 represent substantive values. Additionally, there were no items with high correlations in two or more factors or factors with only two items. Table 9 depicts the content of the items that load onto the same factor, which were then analysed to try to identify common themes, resulting in three factors: Social capital – *“the ability to find, utilize and combine the skills, knowledge and experience of others, inside and outside of the organization”* (Krebs, 2008: 38), Perception of justice – perception of *“fairness in protection of rights and punishment of wrongs”* (Business Dictionary, 2016), and organizational commitment – *“strength of the feeling of responsibility that an employee has towards the mission of the organization”* (Business Dictionary, 2016).

Cronbach's alpha measures were used to analyse the reliability of the factors and it was determined that the internal consistency of the measures seemed to be appropriate with values ranging from .85 to .91. (Kline, 2000).

Table 9 - Rotated Factor Matrix (self-report instruments)

	<i>Rotated Factor Loadings</i>			
	Social Capital	Perception of Justice	Organizational Commitment	Comm
11. Gasto muito tempo no trabalho a construir relações com outras pessoas.	.81			.69
9. Sou eficaz a construir relacionamentos no trabalho com pessoas influentes.	.83			.74
10. No trabalho, conheço muita gente importante e estou bem relacionado/a.	.82			.73
13. Desenvolvi uma grande rede de contactos no trabalho a quem posso telefonar a pedir apoio, quando realmente é necessário.	.80			.70
12. Sou eficaz a usar a minha rede de contactos para fazer as coisas acontecerem no trabalho.	.79			.70
8. Gasto muito tempo e esforço no trabalho em atividades de rede (networking) com outras pessoas.	.76			.64
7. O seu trabalho final é justificado, tendo em conta o seu desempenho?		.82		.83
5. É o seu desempenho apropriado para o trabalho que concluiu?		.84		.85
4. Será que o seu desempenho final reflete o esforço que você colocou no seu trabalho?		.80		.81
6. O seu desempenho reflete o seu contributo para a organização?		.87		.77
1. Tenho orgulho em dizer aos outros que faço parte desta organização.			.87	.84
2. Digo aos meus amigos que esta é uma boa organização para trabalhar.			.84	.85
3. Mais do que ser um mero empregado, sinto que esta organização de alguma forma me pertence.			.75	.74
Eigenvalue	6.70	2.07	1.12	
% Variance	51.54	15.94	8.59	
Cronbach's Alpha	.91	.91	.85	

Results from the helping behaviour peer-assessment instrument

As mentioned before, considering that helping behaviour is one of the three main dimensions of OCB studied by researchers (Paillé, 2010), it was chosen as the independent variable. Items such as “Auxilia os seus colegas quando estão sobrecarregados, mesmo que isso exija mais trabalho da sua parte”, “Incentiva os colegas quando estão stressados com o trabalho” and “Oferece apoio aos colegas, se precisarem de ajuda” were utilized to measure this dimension.

A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was conducted on the 6 items with orthogonal rotation (*varimax*). The final items to include in the analysis were chosen using the following criteria: items that have high loadings (.4) in two or more factors, items with no loadings in any factors and factors that have no items with loadings higher than .4. Moreover, items that presented no accounted availability, i.e., items which the content had no correspondence with the counted validity of the factor, were also removed. Thus, one item was dropped and the analysis redone until an interpretable matrix of this scale was reached. One of the items was not removed (although it presented with correlations over .4 in more than 2 factors) since it modified significantly the matrix if taken out. This extraction was done using the Unweighted Least Squares method.

With this solution, the KMO measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis with a KMO of .846 which is considered “good” according to Hutcheson & Sofroniou (1999). Moreover, correlations between items were sufficiently large for PCA and factor analysis is appropriate according to Bartlett’s test of sphericity ($\chi^2(10) = 1443.620, p < .001$).

Furthermore, and according to the table “Total Variance Explained”, the component explains 75.27% of the variance, which is a good value (Pasquali, 1999). The reliability of the factor was also analysed by means of Cronbach’s alpha measures and it was determined that the internal consistency seemed to be appropriate with a value of .91 (Kline, 2000).

Results from the PCB peer-assessment instrument

Regarding the third group of items of the questionnaire (PCB peer-assessment), it was opted to only maintain the positive items of PCB, i.e., the ones that are not reversed. Therefore, the PCB scale contemplated 10 items such as: “Devido ao problema de saúde...queixou-se mais frequentemente de assuntos triviais”, “Devido ao problema de saúde... desleixou-se”, “Apesar do problema de saúde...conseguiu fazer esforços-extra para beneficiar a organização, mesmo com prejuízos pessoais” and “Apesar do problema de saúde... auxilia os seus colegas quando estão sobrecarregados, mesmo que isso exija mais trabalho da sua parte”.

The KMO measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis (KMO = .830 which is considered “great” according to Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). Moreover, correlations between items were sufficiently large for PCA and factor analysis is appropriate according to Bartlett’s test of sphericity ($\chi^2 (15) = 1396.676, p < .001$).

Additionally, and according to the table “Total Variance Explained”, there is one component with eigenvalues over Kaiser’s criterion of 1, explaining 63.04% of the variance, which is a good value (Pasquali, 1999). The reliability of the factor also seemed to be appropriate with a .871 Cronbach’s alpha value (Kline, 2000).

CHAPTER 4 – RESULTS | WAS THE “EXTRA MILE” ACHIEVED?

4.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Means, standard deviations and correlations are presented in Table 10. As expected, at the individual level, PCB is positively related to social capital ($r = .40, p < .01$) and helping behaviour ($r = .78, p < .01$). Moreover, organizational commitment is positively related to social capital ($r = .46, p < .01$), helping behaviour ($r = .36, p < .01$) and PCB ($r = .46, p < .01$). At the team level, we found a positive correlation, with the variable perception of justice ($r = .35, p < 0.1$).

Table 10 - Descriptive statistics and correlations among studied variables

Variable	No. of items	Mean	SD	Correlations				
				1	2	3	4	5
1. Social Capital	6	4.86	1.32					
2. Helping Behaviour	5	5.65	0.95	.29**				
3. PCB	6	5.23	1.07	.40**	.78**			
4. Perception of Justice	4	5.98	1.03	.23**	.13**	.13*		.35**
5. Organizational Commitment	3	5.99	0.97	.49**	.33**	.40**	.37**	

Note. Correlations below diagonal are individual level correlations (N=377). Correlations above the diagonal are team-level correlations (N=89).

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

4.2 HYPOTHESIS TESTING

Since respondents in the dataset were nested in different groups and the study contains variables at different levels (both at the individual and team level), Hierarchical Linear Modelling (HLM) was applied to test the hypotheses, according to Heck *et al.* (2010). As a first step, either *grand mean* or *group mean centering* were selected as the appropriate form of centering (Heck *et al.*, 2010). The results of the hypothesized model are provided in Table 11.

Table 11 - Results of the HLM Analysis

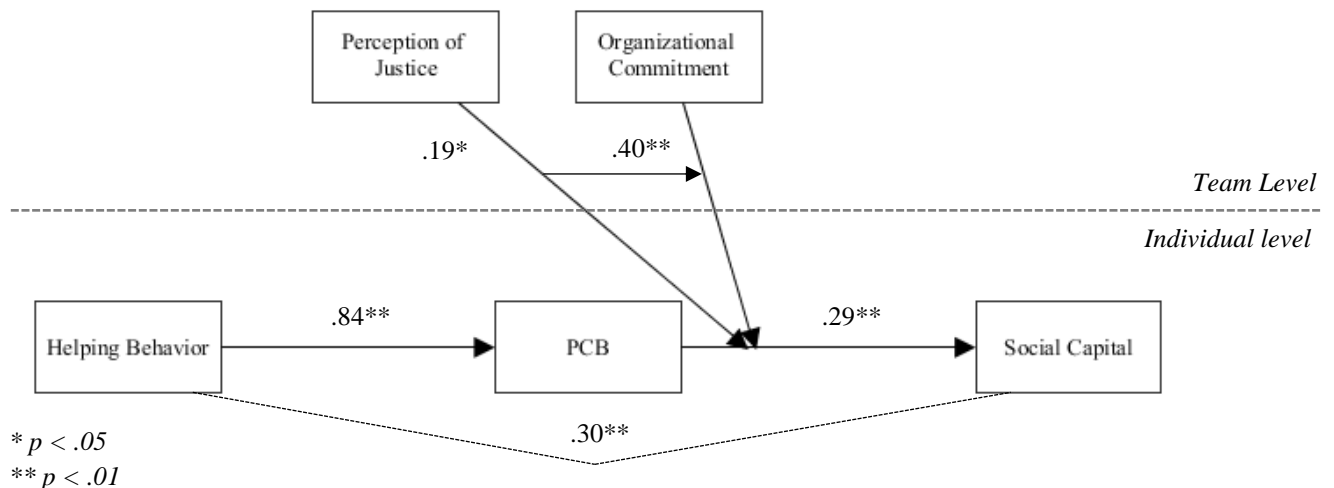
Variable	SOCIAL CAPITAL		PCB	SOCIAL CAPITAL		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
<i>Intercept</i>	5.12** (.10)	5.11** (.09)	5.26** (.04)	5.08** (.09)	5.07** (.08)	4.97** (.08)
<i>Level 1</i>						
Helping Behaviour		.21** (.06)	.84** (.04)	-.02 (.09)	-.05 (.08)	-.06 (.08)
<i>Mediator</i>						
PCB				.30** (.08)	.19* (.08)	.16* (.08)
<i>Level 2 Moderator</i>						
Perception of Justice					.19* (.07)	.19** (.07)
Organizational Commitment					.40** (.06)	.48** (.07)
<i>Cross-Level Moderation</i>						
PCB x Perception of Justice						-.06 (.07)
PCB x Organizational Commitment						.29** (.06)
PCB x Perception of Justice x Organizational Commitment						.11** (.04)
<i>Level 1 Intercept</i>	.95** (.08)	.96** (.08)	.40** (.03)	.96** (.08)	.80** (.07)	.75** (.06)
<i>Level 2 Intercept</i>	.61** (.13)	.48** (.11)	.06* (.02)	.38** (.10)	.33** (.08)	.33** (.08)
<i>Deviance</i>	1179.495	1153.247	766.096	1144.000	1082.998	1073.490
<i>Df</i>	3	4	4	5	7	10
<i>ICC</i>	.39	.96	.13	.28	.29	.31
<i>R²</i>		.21	.90	.38	.46	.46

* p < .05

** p < .01

Consistent with the expectation in Hypothesis 1, helping behaviour is positively related to PCB ($B = .84, p < .01$). Hypothesis 2 suggested that PCB is positively related to social capital, which results confirm ($B = .29, p < .01$). Concerning Hypothesis 3, which predicted that PCB mediates the relationship between helping behaviour and social capital, results support this proposition ($B = .30, p < .01$). In order to test the fourth hypothesis, level two moderators were added, resulting in model 4. This hypothesis predicted that perception of justice and organizational commitment moderate the positive relationship between PCB and social capital, such that this relationship becomes stronger when perception of justice and organizational commitment are higher. As we can see, HLM results yielded a significant result with both perception of justice ($B = .19, p < .05$) and organizational commitment ($B = .40, p < .01$). The last and fifth hypothesis predicted that the indirect effect of helping behaviour on social capital through PCB is stronger when perception of justice and organizational commitment are higher. As we can see in Model 5, results partially support this hypothesis. Although organizational commitment ($Y = .29, p < .01$) does exhibit significant moderating effects on the relationship between helping behaviour with social capital through PCB, perception of justice becomes non-significant ($Y = -.06, n.s.$). Nevertheless, when coupled, perception of justice and organizational commitment are significant ($Y = .11, p < 0.1$) providing good support for the cross-level moderated mediation effect predicted on hypothesis 5. Figure 2 illustrates the results of the proposed conceptual model.

Figure 2 – Proposed conceptual model results



To further inspect the moderating effect, Figure 3 and Figure 4 depict in more detail the nature of the moderation, showing the influence of PCB on social capital for different levels of organizational commitment, considering high and low values of perception of justice. Thus, a three-way interaction is presented. While the first figure takes into account when there is high perception of justice and low perception of justice.

As we can perceive, when perception of justice is low (Figure 3) between participants with both low and high organizational commitment, PCB influences capital social positively. Moreover, when there is high perception of justice (Figure 4), only when individuals have high organizational commitment does the relationship between PCB and social capital become positive. Furthermore, in both situations, only individuals with high commitment and PCB increase social capital

Figure 3 – Moderation of the effect of PCB on social capital by organizational commitment when perception of justice is low

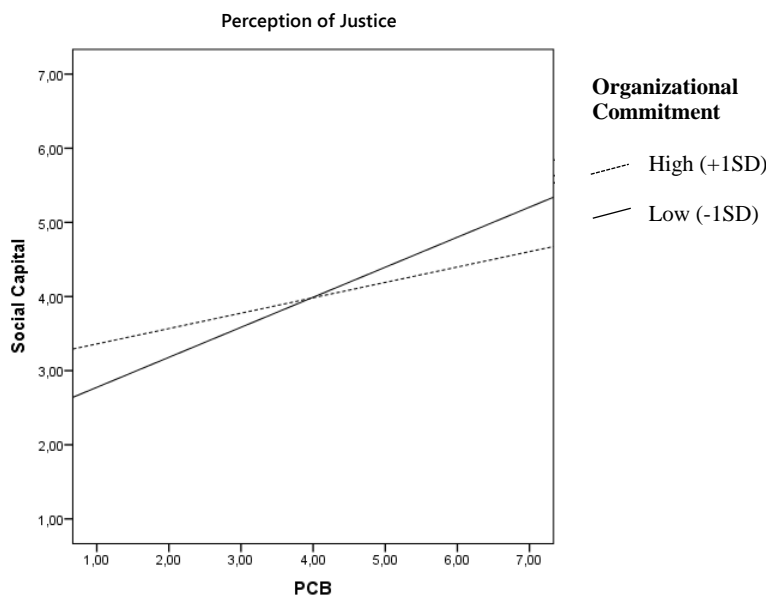
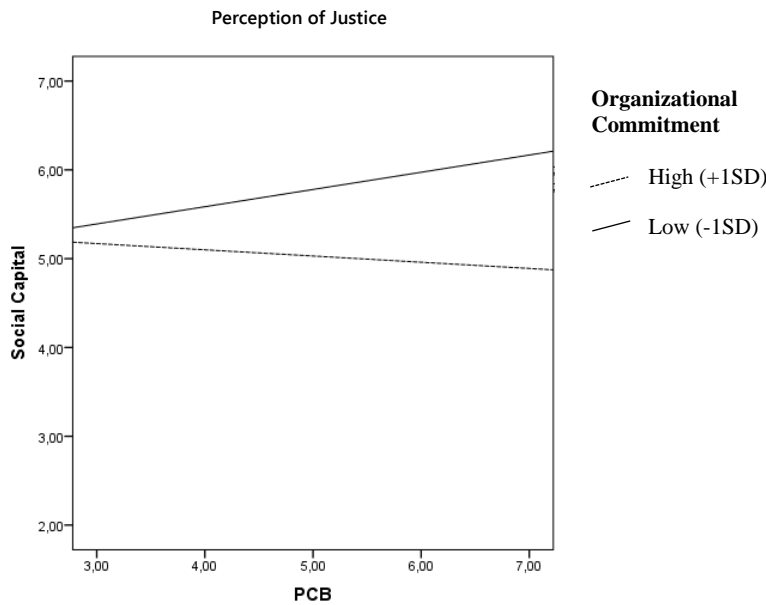


Figure 4 - Moderation of the effect of PCB on social capital by organizational commitment when perception of justice is high



CHAPTER 5 – DISCUSSION | WHAT NOW? IMPACT OF THE STUDY

5.1 LITERATURE IMPLICATIONS

This study examined the relationship between helping behaviour, Presenteeism Citizenship Behaviour (PCB) and social capital. The purpose of the research was to provide new insights into the dynamics of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), more specifically, the way it was related with the new PCB dimension and how this construct related with OCB dimension helping behaviour and affected social capital.

Therefore, a conceptual model was developed that explored both the relationship of OCB dimension helping behaviour with PCB and how this construct affected social capital, as well as the moderating effect of organizational commitment and perception of justice on the PCB – social capital relationship. It was expected that PCB would act as a mediator between helping behaviour and social capital and that organizational commitment and perception of justice would strengthen the direct relationship between PCB and social capital and the indirect one between helping behaviour and social capital.

We believe that the present study has extended the literature on Organizational Citizenship Behaviour by further exploring the questionings about its connection with presenteeism. “Could OCB go the extra mile with the introduction of presenteeism?” was the question that emerged and requested an answer. Therefore, hypotheses were risen and both the direct effect of PCB on social capital and its role as a mediating mechanism between helping behaviour and social capital as well as the way perceptions of justice and organizational commitment shaped its relationship on social capital were investigated.

The research findings broadly supported our hypotheses. Helping behaviour and social capital were both positively related to PCB, with PCB mediating the relationship between the two. Moreover, organizational commitment moderated both the direct relationship of PCB on social capital as well as the indirect influence of helping behaviour (through PCB) on social capital. Contrary to our expectations, perception of justice did not help to improve our understanding of the indirect relationship although it was significant regarding the direct one, moderating the relationship of PCB on social capital. Insights on the implications of these findings and directions for future research are also discussed in the last chapter of this study.

Regarding helping behaviour and its positive relationship with employees’ intentions to display citizenship behaviours despite having a health problem (PCB), it has been noted that presenteeism, i.e., the act of going to work while ill, can partake both personal and organizational benefits as well as consequences. Compared to going absent, “*attending work while experiencing minor discomfort, even when productivity is reduced, may be beneficial both to the employee and the employer*” (Johns, 2010, pp 536). On the other hand, prolonged presenteeism might trigger a downward spiral of deteriorating health conditions (Meijman & Mulder, 1998, cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013), create a stronger pressure to commit to presenteeism in the long term and have a detrimental effect on job satisfaction (Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013) with employees who had experienced frequent presenteeism often describing their jobs as being stressful and unsatisfying (Baker-McCleary *et al.*, 2010, cited by Lu and Lin & Cooper, 2013). Working less efficiently, making more mistakes at work,

and (depending on the symptoms) passing on the sickness to colleagues and/or clients are likewise consequences of presenteeism (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993, cited by Demerouti *et al.*, 2008). In terms of organizational costs, *presenteeism* represents a “silent” but significant drain on productivity (Demerouti *et al.* 2008), which could make managing presenteeism in an effective way a distinct source of competitive advantage (Hemp, 2004).

Consistent with our expectations, we found that PCB was related with social capital. Employees displaying citizenship behaviours help to create “high-quality relations within social networks” (Prusak & Cohen, 2001) through the development of liking, trust, and identification between them (Bolino *et al.* 2002). Results from the study also largely confirmed that the relationship between helping behaviour and social capital was mediated by PCB and that organizational commitment moderated the relationship between PCB and social capital such that high levels of organizational commitment heightened the effect of PCB on social capital.

The findings concerning organizational commitment also aided our understanding of the indirect relationship between helping behaviour (through PCB) on social capital. There was partial support for the hypothesized cross-level moderated mediation model which established that the extent of the indirect effect of helping behaviour (through PCB) on social capital was conditional upon perception of justice and organizational commitment, with the latter exhibiting significant moderating effects on the mentioned relationship and the former failing to do so. Organizations where employees displayed citizenship behaviours (as helping behaviour), despite having a health problem, appeared to create added social capital when commitment to the organization was also present. On the other hand, and contrary to our expectations, perception of justice dimension played no moderating role on the indirect relationship when not coupled with organizational commitment, although it was significant regarding the direct one, suggesting that this moderator when on his own does not influence the indirect relationship. Therefore, the organizational commitment moderator may act as a resource that encourages employees to exhibit citizenship behaviours, even when feeling ill, while also displaying high quality relationships grounded on “trust, commitment and authenticity” (Prusak & Cohen, 2001). This is consistent with Organ *et al.* (2006) who

revealed that organizational commitment is a significant predictor of employee OCBs, and with Caverley *et al.* (2007), who found that organizational commitment is associated with more presenteeism, leading to over-commitment. Moreover, social capital has also been found to have a positive significant relationship with organizational commitment (Nikmaram *et al.*, 2012).

5.2 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Regarding the managerial/policy implications, the study raises the question of conceivable “good” presenteeism and its effect on employees, their colleagues and the overall organization. When thinking of presenteeism, “focusing narrowly on productivity loss, as opposed to productivity gain compared to absenteeism, is unduly restrictive” (Johns, 2010:521), hence, management holds the key and should be aware of the fine line between the possible negative outcomes but also the positive ones that might occur from presenteeism.

With the concept of Presenteeism Citizenships Behaviour (PCB), we do not only think of (sickness) presenteeism, i.e., going to work while ill. We build on that by adding another layer – citizenship behaviour – which brings to the table not only the act of going to work although experiencing a health problem but the displaying of citizenship behaviours while there, i.e., the displaying of discretionary behaviours that are helpful but not absolutely required by employers (Dekas *et al.* 2013). Understandably, this added layer still results in both encouraging as well as undesirable results to the organization and to the employees’ well-being. Though, if an employee shows up at work while ill and still exhibits citizenship behaviours towards others and the organization, it shows preference of organizational and group interests over individual ones (Moorman & Blakely, 1995) and might be an indication of his high commitment and affection to his work and the organization.

On one hand, this PCB act can convey less damaging effects to both employee and organization (compared to presenteeism) as the act of citizenship behaviour, although not mentioned in the job description of the employees, is manifested by them while fulfilling their duties in order to help others (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Therefore, if employees are

still displaying citizenship behaviours while acting on presenteeism, conveying Presenteeism Citizenship Behaviours (PCB), it might not be a matter of external related demands such as work-related demands and pressures or organizational policies but instead stem from the personal sphere – personal related demands such as personal characteristics and personal motivations – and, therefore, the adverse effects of presenteeism might not be so severe and can even bring productivity gain. On the other hand, and particularly if we take into account that PCB behaviour might stem from personal characteristics and motivations, the already difficulty associated with its measure might increase as well as the understanding of which policies to implement if a change is required.

On the topic of actions that management can undertake in order to increase PCB, we can divide them into two facets since PCB might benefit from the implementation by management of positive and constructive actions from both presenteeism and OCBs. First, and regarding presenteeism, the literature review has found that research is limited. Nevertheless, flexible policies enforced with the objective of increasing the “good” presenteeism and, in consequence, decrease the not so good one, can be applied. Although managing presenteeism positively can be a challenge to employers, some actions can be taken to promote a healthy and productive organization, such as managers being mindful of presenteeism and guaranteeing that employees have a good understanding of health in the workplace and what actions they can take while ill. Employees will more likely go to work and exhibit citizenship behaviours while ill (PCB) and, consequently, still be productive, if they are fully acquainted with the organizational policies. Therefore, support and flexibility from management can go a long way towards good presenteeism and especially towards PCB.

Moreover, concerning organizational citizenship behaviours, the literature review shows that a number of actions can be undertaken to stimulate them in employees. With current studies evidencing that citizenship behaviours are strongly dependent on factors such as employees conduct (Cohen, 2006) and disposition (Gore *et al.*, 2012), management style (Organ *et al.*, 2006) and the way the organization functions (Britt *et al.*, 2012), management should focus on practices that help employees feel safe and well treated while making sure

all organizational structures support its most important asset, its people. Human Resources practices play here a critical role in enhancing organizational citizenship behaviours and organizational performance (Organ *et al.* 2006; Fu, 2013) through the creation of a good working environment.

5.3 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings of this study should be interpreted in the light of the following limitations. First, by including both companies and startups into the study, a wide range of different types of organizations is represented (several sectors, diverse ways of working, big hierarchical differences, etc.), and therefore, some explained variance might be affected by sample heterogeneity. Nevertheless, findings presented in the study still remain relevant for managers of both companies and startups from every economic sector. Second, the sample of the study covered Portuguese organizations, therefore generalizations to other cultures should be made with prudence. Third, and although when developing the new scale of PCB there was caution to use well-validated instruments for both constructs inherent to PCB, i.e., OCB and Presenteeism, literature warns us about the possible impairment of psychometric quality that the new developed scale might have (Furr, 2011). However, despite these limitation, a peer-assessment scale that measures PCB is an important first step that will help to empirically examine a construct that has so far existed mainly in the realm of theory. Fourth, self-assessment was used which can be associated with common method bias and, thus, further research could use other assessments to avoid it (Ariani, 2012). Fifth, and although data was collected from various different sources, it is cross-sectional. Thus, it may be prone to non-response bias if participants who consent to take part in the study differ from those who do not, resulting in a sample that is not representative of the population (Ambrose, Schminke & Mayer, 2013). Thus, and regarding the last argument, longitudinal studies should be undergone in order to learn more about the cause and effect relationships. Despite these limitations, the study provides renewed insights on presenteeism, by means of a new scale – the PCB scale –, shedding light on the positive outcomes of it and thus contrasting with the current literature on this subject that to this date remains mostly negative.

5.4 CONCLUSION

We believe that existing research has overlooked the important role of presenteeism and its association with OCBs as well as its effects on social capital. This study provides initial insight into this matter and puts forth the idea that presenteeism can be viewed as positive, adding a new perspective to the emerging literature on this phenomenon and, therefore, contributing to changing the negative interpretation of “*virtually 100 percent of the medical and organizational literature (...) either with regard to the organization or the employee*” (Johns, 2010: 536).

The main quest of the study involved answering one core question: “Can OCB ‘go the extra mile with the introduction of presenteeism?’” and so it did, improving our knowledge on presenteeism and OCBs in several ways. First, it challenges our mind to see presenteeism as positive by linking it to citizenship behaviours and social capital through the concept of PCB. Thus, and secondly, it introduced the concept of PCB which relates to a positive presenteeism, where employees display citizenship behaviours at work despite having a health problem. The research showed that helping behaviour and Social Capital are both positively related to PCB, with PCB mediating the relationship between the two. Third, it revealed that organizational commitment impacted the effects of PCB, moderating both the direct relationship of PCB on social capital as well as the indirect influence of helping behaviour (through PCB) on social capital, such that organizations where employees displayed citizenship behaviours (as helping behaviour), despite having a health problem, appeared to create added social capital when commitment to the organization was also present. Therefore, organizational commitment may act as a significant resource that encourages employees to exhibit citizenship behaviours, even when feeling ill, and, consequently, contribute to added social capital.

To sum up, OCB can go the extra mile with the introduction of presenteeism in its model and therefore managers should take a new and refreshed look at this concept and implement policies to increase the *good* side of presenteeism – and possibly even produce PCB – reducing what may cause concern. And because *going the extra mile* depends not only on the employees but on the overall organization, promoting PCB should be a joined task. Possibly then it can be fruitful and be the source of many benefits for all involved.

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