



**The Mediating Effect of Trust in Supervisor and Loyalty to Supervisor  
between Superior-subordinate *Guanxi* and OCB  
in the People's Republic of China**

**By  
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for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy**

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DECLARATION

I declare that my work entitled “The mediating effect of trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and OCB in the People’s Republic of China” for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, embodies the results of an original research programme and consists of an ordered and critical exposition of existing knowledge in the fields of comparative organisational and management studies.

I have included explicit references to the citation of the work of others or to my own work, which is not part of the submission for this degree.

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## **DEDICATIONS**

**To Professor Yochanan Altman and Dr. John Clark  
for their Invaluable Supervisions and Great Help**

**To My Parents, My Grandmother and My Fiancée  
for their Emotional, Unconditional and Financial Support**

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## ABSTRACT

In the People's Republic of China, I investigated the relationships among supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor, loyalty to supervisor and subordinates' organisational citizenship behaviour. This study applied a questionnaire survey as a data collection method based on a convenience sampling technique involving 303 employees and their immediate supervisors from six companies with different types of ownership (state-owned firms, private-owned firms and joint ventures) and representing different industrial sectors (finance, media, manufacturing, service, construction and high-tech). The findings of this study showed there was direct relationship of superior-subordinate *guanxi* on trust in supervisor, loyalty to supervisor and subordinates' organisational citizenship behaviour; it also demonstrated the mediating effect of trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' organisational citizenship behaviour. The findings were discussed in the theoretical context of – the norm of reciprocity, social identity theory and social cognitive theory and their effect on the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' organisational citizenship behaviour. Social exchange theory, social identity theory and the theory of reasoned action as the theoretical foundations on the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor were also examined. In addition, semiotic cluster analysis illustrated that the pattern of superior-subordinate *guanxi* was composed of positive aspects including perceived supervisor support, perceived supervisor care, perceived supervisor protection, outside work relationship, supervisor or subordinate positive attributes and negative aspects, including impression management and organisational injustice.

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# Chapter 1: Introduction

## 1.1 Research Background

The opening of the People's Republic of China (PRC) to the external world, in particular, China's entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO), with more than 25 percent of the world's population, promises fantastic opportunities for all multinational corporations as well as domestic enterprises (in this thesis, China refers to the PRC only, whereas Chinese context describes societies including the PRC, Hong Kong, Taiwan and Macau). In the past 20 years, China's GDP (gross domestic product) has increased more than tenfold (Ahlstrom, Bruton and Lui, 2000), and its economic growth has been sustained at 8 percent year on year. Most economists forecast that if China continues on its path transiting from a centrally-planned economy towards a market-based economy and adheres to its commitment to the WTO, it will be the second-largest economy in less than 15 years (Tsui et al., 2002; Lehman Brothers, 2005). Hence, it would be of great practical importance to understand its organisation and management. Also, it would be of great theoretical importance since the Chinese organizational milieu is starkly different from Western economies.

The need to contextualise organisational studies is neither novel nor surprising. Scholars have long paid attention to the context in studying phenomena within or about organizations (Tsui, 2006; Willmott, 2003; Rousseau and Fried, 2001). The reason is simple since organizations or units within them are open systems, which the context is a major source of influence must not be ignored or dismissed as scholars attempt to understand and explain the actions or behaviour of sub-units. Consequently, one important issue in contextualization is the consideration and understanding of organizations' diversity in its types of economic ownership in China.

There are several major types of firms in China, which are as follows:

### (i). State-owned enterprises

First, state-owned enterprises with relatively similar organizational structures and processes are very common in China (Peng, 2001 and 2003; Peng and Luo, 2000). Such

type of firm can be characterised as state-owned, relying primarily on the state as their principal banker, supplier, and distributor; and technocrats being the general managers; though these enterprises increasingly must become market-oriented (Freund, 2001) and introduce more and more Western management practices (Child and Warner, 2003).

#### (ii). Collectives

A second form of economic organisation in China is the collective enterprise. In theory, employees are the capital owners and management act on their behalf (e.g., Nee, 1992; Tan and Li, 1996; Tan, 1999). Practically speaking, organizational structures and processes are very similar to the state-owned firms. With the advent of privatisation in China, the numbers of collective enterprises tend to decrease significantly and most of them became private-owned firms.

#### (iii). Private-owned Enterprises

As a direct consequence of market reforms, private enterprise has flourished in China (Peng, 2001 and 2003; Peng and Luo, 2000). Such firms may result from the privatisation of existing state-owned and collective enterprises or as new ventures that have rapidly grown. The ownership of capital is usually tightly concentrated (i.e., with one person or a small group). Chinese economic organisations often engage in *guanxi* type transactions between different business (i.e., via a strong personal network of relationships) (Wank, 1996). Start-up firms in China usually adopt a simple, flexible structure, and choose aggressive strategies (Tan, 1996; Tan and Li, 1996). Their simple structure may allow them to react more quickly to opportunities or more proactively outmanoeuvre than established firms such as state-owned enterprises.

#### (iv). Joint ventures

Joint ventures are increasingly common in China. In joint ventures the ownership is shared by at least two different companies, one of which is usually foreign. Joint venture arrangements vary, but typically membership on the board is shared and the foreign enterprise will have personnel on site who provide technical support, but also serve a controlling function (i.e., to provide first-hand reports of any deviation from the agreement). Consequently, joint ventures are somewhat more exposed to external values



and pressures (Child, 2000; Shapiro, Behrman, Fischer, and Powell, 1991; Walker, Levett, and Flanagan, 1998).

Thus, the different types of ownership in China's organisations provide a good research setting for this study to explore the dynamics and complexities in organisation and management. The significance of the non-state sector has been viewed by far the most important source of income and employment growth for China [Asian Development Bank estimates that the non-state sector accounted for over two-thirds of GDP in China (Asian Development Bank, 2002)], though the majority of PRC's 3000 largest firms that are reported to be responsible for 60% of the country's industrial discharge (Sims, 1999) are state-owned (Broadman, 1995).

## 1.2 Research Questions and Objectives

White (2001) has criticised Asian management research as too focused on simplistic comparisons, often between Asia and the West. Studies rely on unrepresentative samples and on correlation analyses that show possible associations but do not document the dynamics by which variables are related. Consequently, Asian researchers have not contributed to theorising and practice such as developing their theoretical frameworks beyond an audience specifically interested in Asia. This study aims to bridge the research gaps not only between the West and China, but also critique the theoretical foundations of extant findings by identifying several issues that are emphasised in China and call upon a rethink of current organisation and management theory. These are outlined below.

### 1.2.1 Supervisor and Subordinate's *Guanxi*

In the West, the relational perspective in organisation and management has attracted increasing research interest. For example, Dukerich et al. (2002), Hosking and Morley (1991) and Kyriakidou and Ozbilgin (2004, p.7) call attention to the relational issues in human resource management, stating that:

Rapid changes in the composition and functioning of organizational life witnessed the emergence of new forms of organizations and ways of organizing. The creation of informal and network-like organizations, the shifting configurations of networks among groups of actors, the blurring of boundaries of formal organizations as well as the changing employment relationship, shift our attention to the conceptualization of

organizations as sets of dynamic relationships. Such an approach demands the emergence of a relational perspective overcoming the problems of reification so that organizing could be seen as it is – an individual and group sensemaking process taking place in a social context that is the product of constant and ongoing human production and interaction on organizational settings.

The relational issues or network issues between supervisors and subordinates in China [known as *guanxi* in Chinese which is defined as “a quality relationship that determines the appropriate behaviours and treatment of each other” (Chen and Tjosvold, 2006, p.1730)] and in collectivist Asia have been considered critical for effective supervision or leadership (Brower, Schoorman, and Tan, 2000; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995; House, Wright and Aditya, 1997; Hui and Law, 1999; Setton, Bennett, and Liden, 1996; Schriesheim, Neider, and Scandura, 1998; Uhl-Bien and Maslyn, 2000; Tjosvold, Wong, and Hui, 2004). Leadership or supervision cannot be discussed in disjunction from followers: A supervisor who leads alone is by implication not a leader.

Research on job performance commonly differentiates between task and non-task performance (Organ et al., 2005). Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) where employees complete useful tasks not prescribed by their own roles as a new framework for non-task performance has had profound implications for both organisational research and management practice (Organ et al., 2005). High levels of relationships (*guanxi*) have, for example, been found to predict OCB and trust in supervisor in joint ventures (Chen et al., 2006 and 2007; Wong, Wong and Ngo, 2003). In addition, Law et al. (2000) and Wong, Wong and Ngo (2003) have examined supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* and its related organizational outcome. High level of supervisor and subordinate *guanxi* would not undermine the fair human resource practice in China (Law et al., 2000). However, the extant literature fails to offer any theoretical foundation for the positive association between OCB and supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*, *guanxi* and trust in supervisor. In addition, it has been posited that a high level of interpersonal relationship can lead to a high level of interpersonal loyalty (Chen et al., 1998 and Cheng et al., 2002). However, there is no empirical research reporting these connections. Furthermore, most studies concerning superior-subordinate *guanxi* have been limited in joint ventures only.

Considering all the above, the research questions for this study are as follows: will *guanxi*

between superior-subordinate enhance a subordinate's trust in their supervisor as well as OCB in organisations with different types of ownership in China? What is the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and a subordinate's loyalty to their superior? Which theoretical explanations may account for such relationship?

### **1.2.2 Loyalty to Supervisor (Supervisory Commitment)**

In the past three decades, research on the antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment has received much attention in the field of organizational behaviour research (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Deriving from organizational commitment, the concept of supervisory commitment (commitment to supervisor) has been developed to clarify the linkage between employees and organizations (Becker, Billings, Eveleth, and Gilbert, 1996) and to differentiate six foci representing different aspects of employee commitment: organization, top management, sub-unit, unit manager, work team, and team leader (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Among these various commitment foci, the immediate supervisor is found to be the most important (Becker et al., 1996, Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe, 2003). Gregersen (1993, p.34-35) noted, "in organizational contexts, immediate supervisors are usually the most proximal representatives of management who have the capacity to exert significant control over the allocation of formal rewards, scheduling, etc." Moreover, nowadays fashion of decentralising and delayering, for example, the fierce pressure of rapid global competition, innovations, and major shifts in technology drive the role of supervisor in the organisation to become more critical than ever before by extending supervisors' traditional role of organizational agent for subordinates (Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe, 2003). Recent studies in both the West and Chinese societies have shown that supervisory commitment and organizational commitment are conceptually and empirically distinguishable concepts (Chen et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2003; Clugston, Howell, and Dorfman, 2000). Supervisory commitment may have independent influences on the effectiveness of the subordinate, regardless of the level of subordinates' organizational commitment (Becker et al., 1996; Cheng et al., 2003). In the extant literature, researchers have also found that supervisory commitment plays a crucial role in employee effectiveness (Becker, Billings, Eveleth, and Gilbert, 1996; Gregersen, 1993; Siders, George, and Dharwadkar, 2001). More recently, a number of studies have investigated the unique contribution of employees' supervisory commitment to various employee outcome variables, such as job performance and OCB (Chen, Tsui and Farh 2002; Cheng, Jiang, and Riley, 2003;

Wong, Wong and Ngo, 2002; 2003), turnover intention and job satisfaction (Chen, 2001). Since Chen, Farh and Tsui (1998) introduced the concept of loyalty to supervisor (which they argue is better to employ over the term supervisory commitment in the Chinese context), to the best of my knowledge, previous studies only concentrated on the relative strength of the relationship between supervisory commitment (loyalty to supervisor) and organizational commitment, rather than on how supervisory commitment (loyalty to supervisor) is actually attained. A small number of studies have shed some light on this topic in the Western supervisory commitment research, for example, Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe's longitudinal study (2003) found perceived supervisory support was a statistically significant antecedent of supervisory commitment. Also, past research has highlighted the importance of supervisor's personal integrity in developing subordinates' commitment to supervisor in the Western contexts (Elangovan and Shapiro, 1998; Kanungo and Mendonca, 1996). In line with Organ et al. (2005) who argue that it is timely and urgent to identify mediating factors between OCB and its antecedents, this study introduces the indigenous Chinese concept of superior and subordinate's *guanxi* in order to examine its contribution to the development of loyalty to supervisor. In contrast to supervisors in Western contexts who put less emphasis on subordinate-superior relationship and commitment, supervisors in Chinese business enterprises are particularly concerned about their subordinates' commitment or loyalty to themselves (Chen, et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2003). Unlike subordinates in Western context who usually have a somewhat distant relationship with their supervisors, subordinates in Chinese business enterprises have to maintain a close relationship with their supervisors (Redding, 1990; Farh and Tsui, 1997; Farh et al., 1997; Tsui et al., 2000, Hui and Graen, 1997). Therefore, this study also attempts to explore the potential mediating effect of loyalty to supervisor between supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* and OCB. Finally, there has not been a full examination of the reasons why employees who are committed to their supervisor display better OCB performance than others, though loyalty to supervisor may have a similar organisational function to trust in supervisor as posited by Wong, Wong and Ngo (2002).

Thus, the purpose of the present study is also to contribute a better understanding as to whether and why supervisor-subordinate's *guanxi* and subordinates' supervisory loyalty in China are associated; and whether there is a mediating effect of supervisory loyalty between supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' OCB.

### 1.2.3 Trust in Supervisor

The significance of trust in leadership has been highlighted by researchers for the past four decades. Trust that individuals have in their leaders has been an important concept in explicating job attitudes, teams, interpersonal and organisational communication, organisational justice, psychological contract, inter-organizational relationships, conflict management; and employed across the disciplines of organizational and applied psychology, management and public administration (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001; Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998). As Kramer (1999) observes, trust is moving from “bit player to centre stage in contemporary organizational theory and research (p. 594). According to a recent meta-analysis (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001), trust in one’s supervisor can enhance the employees’ job performance, OCB, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and reduce intent to quit. In China, trust in supervisor was found to contribute to developing subordinates’ OCB (in all types of firm ownership) (Wong et al., 2006). Although trust in supervisor has been identified as the best reliable mediator in the Western OCB research (Organ et al., 2005), there is no empirical research in examining this link in China.

This study aims to examine the way in which trust in supervisor can enhance OCB and how it mediates the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and OCB. This study thus attempts to bridge the research gap between the West and China as to whether trust in supervisor is a reliable mediator between OCB and its antecedent, i.e. supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*.

### 1.2.4 OCB

Katz (1964) and Werner (2000, p.4) propose that an effective organization requires three types of behaviour: “(1) people must be induced to enter and remain with the organization; (2) they must reliably carry out specific role or job requirements; and (3) there also needs to be innovative and spontaneous activity that goes beyond role prescriptions”. Otherwise, as Katz (1964, p. 132) notes, “an organization, which depends solely upon its blueprints of prescribed behaviour is a very fragile social system”. Task performance is synonymous in the literature with job performance, whereas OCB is concerned with employees’ performance of non-task aspects (Katz, 1964). Since OCB is a type of behaviour of an organization’s employee aimed at promoting the effective performance of the organization, regardless of the employee’s individual productivity objectives, it also means that the

behaviour 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 behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable (Organ, 1997; Podsakoff et al, 2000).

Over the past two decades, researchers have demonstrated the growing importance of OCB as both a hypothetical and an applied construct in organizational research for several reasons. First, since Organ (1988) posited that OCB was a major differentiator of organizational effectiveness, researchers have shown that OCB mediates in allocating scarce resources to achieve superior results (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ, 1988); in enhancing the ability of co-workers and managers to perform their jobs through more efficient planning, scheduling, and problem solving (MacKenzie et al., 1991; Organ, 1988); in attracting and retaining employees (Chen et al., 1999; Chen 2004; Podsakoff et al., 2000); and in improving service quality (Podsakoff et al, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Hui et al., 2001). Second, the changing nature of both organizations and jobs seems to question the breadth of the job performance domain (Werner, 2000). For example, Werner (2000, p.5) argues that “the nature of work in ‘virtual’ organizations has been debated, with the emphasis shifting from clearly defined jobs to broader skill portfolios and team requirements”. Last but not least, from the earliest studies (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Smith et al, 1983), OCB is in congruence with the way practicing managers actually perceive job performance (Werner, 2000). Empirical evidence supports the broad definition of OCB as recognized by practitioners (Smith et al, 1983; Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994). Despite increasing research evidence on OCB across a broad field including organizational behaviour, human resource management, psychology and industrial relations, those studies have been confined to the West predominately Anglo-Saxon environments. What has largely not been studied is the applicability of OCB in other cultural context?

It is suggested that future OCB research should study the effect of the same antecedent on the different forms of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Law et al. (2005) also claim that OCB has its indigenous meanings in China from the managers' perspective. Particularly, Chinese managers consider employees who perform one form of OCB exceptionally better than others as good citizens, whereas the Western managers are more likely to value employees who can perform all forms of OCB.

Therefore, it is relevant, timely and important to examine the effect of supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor on different forms of OCB; and the mediating effect of trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor between supervisor and subordinate's interpersonal *guanxi* and subordinates' OCB; as well as whether trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor can improve subordinates' OCB in a different cross-cultural context, i.e. China.

### 1.3 Outline of This Research

This thesis investigates the direct effect of supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* on subordinates' loyalty to supervisor, trust in supervisor and subordinates' OCB and the mediating effect of loyalty to supervisor and trust in supervisor between supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' OCB in China. I draw on three theoretical frameworks (i.e., norm of reciprocity, social identity theory and social cognitive theory) together with the indigenous constructs of superior-subordinate *guanxi* and employees' OCB to test the direct effect of subordinates' *guanxi* with their supervisor on different forms of OCB. Social exchange theory, social identity theory and theory of reasoned action are employed to examine the effect of supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* on supervisory trust and subordinates' loyalty to their supervisors. Psychological contract theory, covenantal relationship theory and cognitive dissonance theory are employed to explore the effect of supervisory loyalty and trust in supervisor on the different forms of OCB. Finally, social exchange theory and theory of transaction cost economy are employed to explicate the mediating effect of trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and various forms of OCB. A combined qualitative and quantitative research approach involving more than 300 employees and their immediate supervisors in six organizations with different types of ownership and different industrial sectors were used to investigate these research questions in China.

The objectives of this study are:

- (a) to assess the relative impact of superior-subordinate *guanxi* as determinant of various forms of employees' OCB;
- (b) to examine the relative influence of *guanxi* between superior and subordinate as determinant of trust in supervisor and supervisory loyalty;



(c) to investigate different forms of OCB as outcomes of supervisory loyalty and trust in supervisor;

(d) to study the mediating effect of supervisory loyalty and trust between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' OCB.

This study hopes to make several contributions to extant knowledge by providing evidence on the complicated relationships among superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor, loyalty to supervisor and subordinates' OCB in China, not covered hitherto by the extant literature. Second, it aims to help in filling in the research gaps between the West and China through examination of the mediating effect of trust in supervisor between OCB and its antecedents. Third, it highlights an important mediator, i.e., loyalty to supervisor, thereby hoping to help address the urgent research need to identify mediators to OCB; as well as, fourth, superior-subordinate *guanxi* as an antecedent to loyalty to supervisor.

## 1.4 Structure of This Thesis

**Chapter one** states the research framework and provides an overview of contextual background, research questions and objectives, and the structure of this thesis.

In **chapter two**, the extant literature about Chinese cultural characteristics, OCB, superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor including its definition, construct, antecedents and consequences, other related studies and the influence of Chinese culture on those behaviours are reviewed. In **chapter two**, a model about the relationships among OCB, superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor is presented as foundation for the empirical study.

The purpose of **Chapter three** is to describe the research methodology employed for collecting primary data to test the hypotheses, explicating the research framework, research strategy and data collection method and questionnaire design. It also reports the pilot test, demographics, validity and reliability. The data collection procedure is also presented.

**Chapter four** provides the findings of the primary data collected, through the utilisation of questionnaires from the employees of six organisations in different types of ownership. It



also tests the hypotheses concerning the relationships among *guanxi*, trust, loyalty and OCB between supervisors and subordinates through the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Tables show the frequencies and descriptive statistics of the demographic questions so as to present a general view of participants' profile at first. Additionally, issues, which determine what types of tests could be used in quantitative research and the analytical strategies for qualitative research are followed. The results of the tests are then revealed in terms of quantitative and qualitative research respectively.

**Chapter five** discusses the key results in this research, while **the final chapter** indicates implications for management based on the analyses of the findings in this research. The contribution and limitations of this study and recommendations for further research are indicated as well.

## Chapter 2: Literature Review

### 2.1 Introduction

Here, the following extant literature reviews characteristics of Chinese culture, OCB, superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor and supervisory loyalty. The chapter opens with the examination of Chinese cultural characteristics as the basis for the review of OCB, superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor. Following the definition, construct, antecedents and consequences of OCB research in the West are presented; and compared and contrasted with OCB studies in China, this chapter continues by examining the literature about trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor, the indigenous Chinese management practices of supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* research and its related issues including *guanxi*'s origin, meaning and characteristics. This chapter ends with proposing a new model of the relationships pertaining to OCB, superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor with reference to several extant theories.

### 2.2 Chinese Culture

The purpose of this section is to discuss characteristics of Chinese culture based on worldwide cultural values surveys. It begins with the presentation of the cultural theories of Hall (1976), Hofstede (1980), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1999), GLOBE (House et al., 2004; Fu et al, 2006), Schwartz (1994; 1999) and Smith, Peterson and Schwartz (2002) and then outlines the characteristics of Chinese culture.

#### 2.2.1 Cross-cultural Models

Culture is commonly defined as a set of “shared meanings” that help individuals understand and evaluate the world around them (Geertz, 1973, p.7). Cultural values can profoundly influence the attitudes, behaviour, and performance of individuals (Adler, 1983; Hofstede, 1983; Schwartz, 1994; House et al., 1999; Luque and Sommer, 2000). They are more stable and predictable in shaping behaviour (Schwartz, 1994; House et al., 1999; Triandis, 1996) and cannot be easily moderated or erased by organisational culture (Adler, 1997; Hofstede, 1983; Schwartz, 1994). Finally, national culture serves as the linking facet between values and behaviour. Rokeach (1968, p.160) notes that values are “standards or

yardsticks to guide actions, comparisons, evaluations, and justifications of self and others". Culture and behaviour find reciprocal relationships through values and their reflection on attitudes (Adler, 2002; Trompenaars, 1999). The influence of culture on behaviour is a cyclic and affirmative process. Adler (2002) points out that culture defines and determines the values individuals hold in the group and thus they establish what attitudes would be appropriate, reflecting their choice of attitudes through their behaviour. Behaviour, in turn, influences the culture, but values are acknowledged to be "the central tenets of a society's culture" and constitute the "cognitive building blocks of culture" (Nicholson and Stepina, 1998, p.34 and p. 46; Tse, 1998).

### **Hall's High vs. Low Context Cultures**

Hall (1976), based on detailed observation and case studies, differentiates between *high* and *low context* cultures (see Table 1). Context is defined as "the information that surrounds an event and is inextricably bound up with the meaning of the event" (Tan and Chee, 2005, p.201). China may be considered as *high context* culture (Sparrow and Wu, 1998). Hall (1976) argues that in *high context* cultures, members' in-group or out-group are treated differently, with in-group members receiving better treatment. The *high context* nature of Chinese society places great value on collective action, high commitment, maintaining harmony, the acceptance of the influence of the external environment, implicit exchanges and long-term relationships between colleagues within the in-group (Hall, 1976). *Low context* people, such as Anglo-Saxon cultures, recognise explicit, clear, written forms of communication, as provided by computers, books, reports and letters, whereas *high context* people, such as Chinese, are unlikely to reveal information officially in written forms. In perceiving the meaning of time, *low context* persons are generally 'monochronic', i.e., they like to concentrate upon one activity at a time and dislike interruptions, whereas *high context* persons are 'polychronic', i.e. more flexible or elastic in the management of work or that of others (Sparrow and Wu, 1998, p.37).

**Table 1 Hall's High vs Low Context Cultures**

High context culture	Low context culture
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Much covert and implicit message</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Much overt and explicit message</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Internalized messages</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Plainly coded messages</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Much non-verbal coding</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Verbalized details</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Reserved reactions</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Reactions on the surface</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Distinct in-groups/out-groups</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Flexible in-groups/out-groups</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Strong people bonds</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Fragile people bonds</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• High commitment</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Low commitment</li></ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Open and flexible time</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Highly organized time</li></ul>

**Source:** <http://www.zianet.com/gsaldridge/SLIDES/Set2/tsld011.htm>

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**Hofstede’s Model of Cultural Values**

Hofstede (1980) drew on data from Hong Kong to describe Chinese characteristics, but researchers should be wary of generalising from these societies, which have been exposed to Western ideas and practices for some time. However, Magnusson et al. (2006) consider that it is likely that such values dimensions as *collectivism-individualism*, *power distance*, *uncertainty avoidance* and *masculinity-femininity*, have some relevance in the mainland China context and can help researchers understand those aspects of organisational behaviour in relation to work values.

*Power distance* is how society deals with the fact that people are unequal. In organisations, it relates to the degree of centralisation of authority and the degree of autocratic leadership (Hofstede, 1983; Hofstede, 1991). *Power distance* is high in China, with the inapproachability of the top stratum, but with distances between middle management, supervisors and workers being somewhat smaller (Locket, 1987; Warner, 1993). The respect for hierarchy and authority may well be rooted in Confucianism, together with a regard for age as a source of authority, which is largely unknown for business in the West (Locket, 1987; Warner, 1993).

*Uncertainty avoidance* refers to how members of a society react to uncertain and ambiguous situations (Hofstede, 1983; Hofstede, 1991). There is a lack of need to avoid ambiguity in Chinese cultures, and this may reflect the fact that China itself (as could be argued of Hong Kong) is relatively free of a highly regulated legal code, and has traditionally been ruled by men (*power distance*) rather than by laws (*uncertainty avoidance*) (Hofstede, 1980). An empirical work (Chimezie et al., 1993) found a strong avoidance of uncertainty among Chinese, with a strong desire to maintain social order with a degree of predictability. Hofstede (1991) in his later work argues that *uncertainty avoidance* may be an irrelevant concept in the Chinese societies, which is linked to the question of "truth". Truth is not a relevant issue in Eastern thinking. The Chinese manager may well be motivated to save "face" and to tell the other person what they want to hear, rather than what might be regarded as the absolute truth in Western eyes (Hofstede, 1991).

*Masculinity-Femininity* are also value dimensions for which there is little direct information on China. Chinese culture in Hofstede's IBM studies has medium scores for those dimensions. The concept of *masculinity* represents an emphasis on competition and the centrality of work in one's life. It is the degree of importance of working which influences employees and this is an area of information, which is lacking in the context of China.

*Individualism-Collectivism* describes the relationship between an individual and others in the society. *Individualism* implies that everyone look after his own self-interest and that of his immediate family. *Collectivism* implies, however, that ties between individuals are very strong. People look after the interests of their in-group and have similar options and beliefs (Hofstede, 1983; Hofstede, 1991; Hofstede, 2001). *Collectivism* is high in Chinese cultures, with the main group of reference being the family (collectivism is target specific) (Chen, 1997). This is rooted in both Confucianism and the ancient land system, which ensured the farmer, and his families were immovable for economic reasons (Jacobs et al., 1995).

### **Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's Cultural Model**

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1999) posit seven areas in which cultural differences may influence aspects of organisational behaviour.

*Universalism vs. Particularism*

*Universalism* is about finding broad and general rules. When no rules fit, it finds the best rule, in which cases there is relative rigidity in respect of rule-based behaviour, whilst *particularism* is about finding exceptions (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1999). When no rules fit, it judges the case on its own merits, rather than trying to force-fit an existing rule, in which case the importance of relationships may lead to flexibility in the interpretation of the situations (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1999).

#### *Individualism vs. Communitarianism*

Societies may be more oriented to the individual or collective. *Individualistic* society seeks to let each person grow or fail on his or her own, and sees group-focus as depriving the individual of his or her undeniable rights, however, *Communitarian* society seeks to put the family, group, company and country before the individual (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1999).

#### *Neutral vs. Emotional*

It may also be true that societies differ to the extent it is thought appropriate for members to show emotion in public, whereas *neutral* societies favour the 'stiff upper lip' while overt displays of feeling is more likely in *emotional* societies (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1999).

#### *Diffuse vs. Specific*

In *diffuse* cultures, the whole person would be involved in a business relationship and it would take time to build such relationships (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1999). In a *specific* culture, such as the USA, the basic relationship would be limited to the contractual.

#### *Achievement vs. Ascription*

*Achievement*-based society's value recent success or an overall clear record of punishment. In contrast, in societies relying more on *ascription*, status would be bestowed on you through such factors as age, gender or educational record (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1999).

#### *Futurism vs. Reminiscence*

This is an issue about viewing time in the different ways, which in turn influence business

activities (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1999). For *futurism*, people prefer to start from zero and what matters is their present performance and their plan to make it in the future. For *reminiscence*, people have a preference for an enormous sense of the past.

### *Conquest vs. Surrender*

Finally, it is suggested that there are differences with regard to attitudes to the environment (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1999). In western societies, individual are typically matters of their fate, in other words, they are high in internal locus of control. In other part of the world, however, the world is more powerful than individuals, which people are high in external locus of control.

The USA and the Great Britain are countries with a high level of *universalism, individualism and achievement*; while China tends to be *particularistic, collectivistic and ascribed* (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1999). Furthermore, the American and UK people are more *affective and specific* to organisational behaviour, whereas the Chinese are more *neutral and diffuse* to their behaviour in the organisation. Finally, the Chinese are both *past-oriented* and *future-oriented* than the USA and UK counterparts; they tend to *surrender* to the world, whilst the Western people attempt to *conquer the world* (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1999).

### **House's GLOBE Project**

A major cultural study programme is the Global Research and Effectiveness Research Program (GLOBE) (House et al., 1999; 2004). The major constructs investigated in the GLOBE research programme are nine attributes of cultures, which are operationalised as quantitative dimensions, and its key findings from Fu and her colleagues' (2006) are summarised as follows:

(1) *Uncertainty avoidance*. It indicates the extent to which people "seek orderliness, consistency, and structure to cover situations in their daily lives and try to avoid uncertain and ambiguous situations by reliance on social norms and procedures and belief in absolute truths and the attainment of expertise" (House et al., 1999; Fu et al., 2006, p.26). Receiving the lowest rating, it appears that Chinese are high on *uncertainty avoidance* (Fu et al., 2006).

(2) *Power distance*. It shows the extent to which a culture accepts inequalities between various groups within a culture such as social classes and organisational hierarchy (House et al., 1999). However, the two Chinese scores on it “As is” (5.04) and “Should be” (3.10) showed the largest discrepancy among the nine pairs of scores, which implies two meaningful directions (Fu et al., 2006). One is that the traditional values are still highly respected. The other indicates that the open to the West and the reforms reduce the level of inequality in power. For example, in the early 1980's, it was "...dangerous and self-destructive to struggle openly against persons whose authority over one is broadly approved" (Bond, 1991, p. 35).

(3) *Institutional collectivism*. It measures the degree to which “individuals are encouraged by societal institutions to be integrated into broader entities, such as the extended family, the firm, or the village” (Fu et al., 2006, p.26). Although being challenged by the Western ideology, overall, people’s values in *collectivism* are still quite consistent with the traditional values (Fu et al., 2006).

(4) *In-group collectivism*. It refers to “the degree to which members of a society take pride in membership in small groups such as their family and circle of close friends, and the organisations and units in which they are employed (Fu et al., 2006, p.26).” Family collectivistic practices are also repeatedly demonstrated as high in all Chinese society.

(5) *Gender egalitarianism*. It refers to “the extent to which a society minimises gender role differences” (Fu et al., 2006, p.26). China is led by older men, with rare token women in positions of power.

(6) *Assertiveness*. It indicates the degree to which “individuals in a society are assertive, dominant, and aggressive in social relationships” (Fu et al., 2006, p.25). China has traditionally been a male-dominant society, and therefore, the factors of "Persuasiveness", "Initiation of structure", and "Role assumption", as components of Assertiveness, all of which receive relatively high scores. The ideal manager in China seems to be high in *assertiveness*.

(7) *Future orientation*. It measures “values and beliefs pertaining to long-term orientation (e.g., delaying gratification, planning, and investing in the future)” (Fu et al., 2006, p.24).



China is ranked around the middle (34) among the 61 countries. However, this dimension excludes items of thrift or saving by Hofstede (1991), which may need to be further explored (Fu et al., 2006).

(8) *Performance orientation*. It refers to the degree to which “a society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and achievement of excellence” (Fu et al., 2006, p.24). The Chinese score was among the higher-ranking countries (13 among 65 countries), which is supportive of the traditional Chinese culture in which hard work and diligence were highly praised and appreciated. However, in terms of performance itself, such score may not reflect the truth of Chinese opinion for several reasons: 1) Farh et al. (1991) state that the Chinese tend to give themselves a lower ranking of performance due to Confucianism emphasizing modest values. 2) “The Chinese people think good performance is already highly encouraged” (Fu et al., 2006, p.24); 3) “The Chinese, being more collectivistic, may not like extreme emphasis on encouraging individual performances” (Fu et al., 2006, p.24).

(9) *Humane orientation*. It pays attention to the degree to which a society supports and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others (House et al., 1999). Chinese managers show high scores in this direction than other countries (Fu et al., 2006)

### **Schwartz Theory of Cultural Dimensions of Values**

Based on an impressive number of comparative studies covering 75% of the world's population (Schwartz, 2004), Schwartz (1999) posited seven cultural dimensions that allows for comparison across cultures, on three key aspects (societal issues), i.e.; relationship between the individual and the group, socialization into responsible citizenship and relation to the surrounding natural world (Schwartz, 1999).

*Autonomy versus Embeddedness*. The first societal issue considers the nature of the relations between individual and group. The question posited is to what extent are people *autonomous* versus *embedded* in their context? In *embeddedness* cultures people are perceived as entities bounded by the collectivity, who finds meaning in life through their participating in the group and their identifying with its goals. In *autonomy* cultures, by contrast, individuals are perceived as autonomous, bounded entities, who find meaning in

life through their uniqueness (Schwartz, 1999). There are differences between two types of autonomy: *intellectual autonomy* (Individuals are encouraged to follow their own ideas and intellectual directions independently) and *affective autonomy* (People are encouraged to find positive experiences for themselves) (Schwartz, 1994; Schwartz, 1999; Schwartz et al., 2000). *Embedded* cultures emphasise maintaining the status quo and restraining actions that may disrupt in-group solidarity or the traditional order (Schwartz, 1994; Schwartz, 1999). Chinese focuses more on *embeddedness* and *intellectual autonomy* rather than *affective autonomy* (Schwartz et al, 1999).

*Hierarchy versus Egalitarianism.* The second societal issue that confronts all societies is how to guarantee responsible behaviour among their members. Such responsible behaviour is necessary to preserve the delicate social fabric in any society. One solution to this challenge is found in *hierarchical* cultures such as China, which rely on structural systems of ascribed roles; and accept the unequal distribution of power as legitimate. Individuals are socialised (indeed, sanctioned) to comply with the roles and obligations attached to their position in society. An opposing solution to this challenge of how to preserve the social fabric is found in *egalitarian* cultures, which encourage people to view each other as moral equals who share some basic interests as human beings. Individuals are socialized to internalize a voluntary commitment towards others (Schwartz, 1999).

*Mastery versus Harmony.* The third societal issue is how to regulate the relations between humankind and the surrounding natural world. One pole of this dimension is labelled *mastery*: in *mastery* cultures, such as China, people are encouraged to master, change and exploit the environment in order to attain personal and group goals. The opposing pole of this dimension is labelled *harmony* – in those cultures people are encouraged to deeply engage with the natural environment and try and integrate into it, rather than change or exploit it (Schwartz, 1999).

### **Smith, Peterson and Schwartz's (2002) Comparative Framework**

Smith et al.'s (2002) study of 'event management', which asked over 7,000 department managers in 47 countries how they handled each of eight common work events that normally occur in any work organisation. The eight sources of guidance were listed in turn, and described as follows: (1) 'Formal rules and procedures'; (2) 'Unwritten rules as to 'how things are usually done around here''; (3) 'My subordinates'; (4) 'Specialists outside my

department’; (5) ‘Other people at my level’; (6) ‘My superior’; (7) ‘Opinions based on my own experience and training’; and (8) ‘Beliefs which are widely accepted in my country as to what is right’. Response categories were anchored by phrases ranging from ‘To a very great extent’ to ‘Not at all’ (Smith et al., 2002, p.3). Their findings demonstrate that the nations in which the participatively-oriented guidance sources are most employed are those characterised not only by high *Individualism* but also equally by cultural *Autonomy*, *Egalitarianism*, *low Power Distance*, *Harmony* and *Femininity*. These are more typically the nations of Western Europe rather than North America. Conversely, reliance on superiors and rules is associated not only with *Collectivism*, but also with cultural *Embeddedness*, *Hierarchy*, *Power Distance*, *Mastery* and *Masculinity* (China is an exemplar of those values). Table 2 shows the survey results of China (they have not reported all of the findings related to the above eight dimensions).

**Table 2 Smith, Peterson and Schwartz (2002) Findings on China**

Country	Unwritten Rules	Specialists	Co-Workers	Beliefs that are Widespread in My Nation
China	Moderate	Moderate High	Moderate	Very High

**Source: Smith, Peterson and Schwartz (2002)**

**2.2.2 Discussion of Cross-culture Theories**

Commenting on Hofstede’s, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner’s, Schwartz’s and GLOBE’s models, Magnusson et al. (2006, p.7) note that Hofstede (1980), Schwartz (1994) and Trompenaars (1994) all consider that different cultures “have a shared set of values and norms that guide their behaviour”. However, “they differ in which values they believe capture these national differences” (Magnusson et al., 2006, p.8). “Both Schwartz and Trompenaars frameworks are based on seven dimensions of culture. Both Schwartz and Trompenaars’s frameworks have been lauded as more theoretically sound, using more sophisticated and systematic sampling techniques, and being more current than Hofstede’s work”(Magnusson et al., 2006, p.8). However, despite these advancements, researchers

have been hesitant to adopt Schwartz or Trompenaars's frameworks in international research. Smith et al.'s (2002) event management approach contributes to the country-level understanding of cultural values.

Nonetheless, some of their values need to be further explored since they have not reported the findings of some of dimensions. Although Hofstede's framework for understanding national differences has been one of the most influential and widely used frameworks in cross-cultural management studies, it has also become one of the most widely criticised in the past ten years or so.

First, regarding dynamic national culture changes over time (Dowling, Welch and Schuler, 1999), such a model is under challenge. During the past three decades, events such as the breakdown of former Communist countries, rapid industrialisation of developing countries, liberalisation of international trade, globalisation of numerous corporations, and the leap jump in information technology have all played major parts in reshaping modern national cultures (Dowling, Welch and Schuler, 1999; Harris, and Brewster, 2003). Second, Hofstede's unique sample (IBM workers) was well matched across countries but may have been biased (Schneider, and Barsoux, 2003). Three decades ago, IBM workers in developed countries represented a middle social class, whereas those in developing countries, equipped with advanced technology, good education, and global mindsets, must have belonged to their nations' elite classes (Schneider, and Barsoux, 2003). Furthermore, there are serious methodological problems with Hofstede's culture scale (Spector et al., 2001). Thus, they argue the scale's reliability is still unreported. Through a rigorous psychometric investigation, it should be demonstrated that strong associations exist among the items within each culture dimension, which is a fundamental requirement for multi-item scales. In addition, the factor analysis used to identify culture dimensions may have capitalised on statistical chance due to the small sample size, as the number of data points was equal to the number of countries surveyed (Spector et al., 2001; McSweeney, 2002). Hofstede extracted two dimensions of culture, *individualism* and *power distance*, from one factor, which explains why the two dimensions are highly correlated. The fifth cultural dimension, *short- versus long-term* orientation, was not surveyed and analysed simultaneously with the other four dimensions. Because the dimension was later adopted from a study conducted by different authors, it was analysed separately from the original four dimensions (McSweeney, 2002). The study from which the fifth dimension was

adopted surveyed 21 fewer countries than were surveyed in Hofstede's 1980 work. The work omits many countries from analysis simply because they lacked an IBM subsidiary three decades ago and were not surveyed. These countries include important countries such as Russia and other parts of the former Soviet Union, China, Cuba, North Korea, Poland, and Vietnam. Also, most Arabic and African countries are pooled in three regions and are not analysed individually (McSweeney, 2002). The more recent Chinese Cultural Connection (1987) brings Hofstede's work up to date, but only by adding a fifth dimension (Confucian dynamics) (Hofstede, 1991), which provides limited additional information to the current knowledge of China's work-related values.

On the other hand, the normally cited "classic" work on cultural values (Hofstede, 1980) remains the best available source of national culture ratings (Harris, and Brewster et al, 2003). Although the ratings of 40 countries have not been updated since the first study, the ratings of 10 more countries are reported, and long- versus short-term orientation scores are now available for selected countries. By providing five dimensions of culture ratings, it enables researchers to compare countries more comprehensively than before. Hofstede's study also provides an excellent review of cross-cultural studies for the past 20 years, which may facilitate further cross-cultural theory advancement (Schneider, and Barsoux, 2003). Finally, the study's focus on national cultures provides a good start to researchers who want to investigate the ecological relationships in individual people's behaviours (Dowling, Welch and Schuler, 1999). Therefore, despite the many critical weaknesses noted, the Hofstede's work is a valuable asset for researchers interested in the consequences of national cultures.

The strength of Schwartz's theory is best described by Sagiv (2002): 1) Relying on instruments validated for cross-cultural equivalence of meaning (more than 200 samples, in over 65 nations completed a questionnaire containing 56 values items and the validation of the meaning of each item within each culture); 2) Comprehensiveness of cultural dimensions of values (Schwartz's study both incorporates cultural dimensions that are accessible to researchers and societal issues which are less accessible – but not less influential); 3) Considering the dynamic relations among cultural dimensions (not only listing the main cultural dimensions, but also postulate a circular structure of inter-relations among the cultural dimensions); 4) World-wide sample (samples from most geographical regions in the world Africa, Asia, Australia, East and West Europe, Latin and North

America, Middle East); 5) Multiple data sources (Data from both teachers and students). In addition to this, Sagiv (2002) and Schwartz (1999) correlation analysis revealed Schwartz's dimensions significantly correlated with and have convergent validity with GLOBE and Hofstede's work. For example, Sagiv (2002) and Schwartz (1999) also propose that the dimension of *autonomy/embeddedness* to some degree correlated with *individualism/collectivism* in Hofstede. Both concern the relationship between the individual and the collective and both contrast an autonomous with an interdependent view of people. However, the dimensions also differ. *Autonomy/embeddedness* strongly contrasts openness to change with maintaining the status quo, whereas *individualism/collectivism* does not and *individualism* is commonly associated with the self-interested pursuit of personal goals (Triandis, 1995), while Schwartz rejects selfishness as an inherent quality of *autonomy*.

The GLOBE research program (House et al., 2004) expanded on Hofstede's original framework and created nine independent dimensions of culture and "the additional advancement in the GLOBE study is the attempt to capture both a culture's values (how members of a society believe that it Should Be) and current behaviour in their society (As Is)" (Magnusson et al., 2006, p.9). In a special issue of the *Journal of International Business Studies* (2006), four major aspects of the debate between Hofstede (2006) and Javidan et al. (2006) as to the merits of the GLOBE project and the Hofstede work are pointed out as follows by Smith (2006). First, it is shown that characterising cultures either on the basis of aggregated self-perceptions or on the basis of aggregated perceptions of others in one's society are not equivalent procedures. Each has inherent errors, and neither can be considered as providing the one best way to denote national cultures. Furthermore, the number of dimensions of national culture that can be usefully studied must be proportional to the limited number of nations available for comparative analyses. Third, although Hofstede and Javidan et al. appear to differ on optimal ways of aggregating individual-level data to the nation level, both appear to have done so in a way that does not prevent detection of differing relations between items at different levels of analysis. Finally, scholars need greater clarity as to the ways in which national wealth relates to other aspects of culture. It is a major component of contemporary national cultures, and must be retained as an element within nation-level analyses.

### 2.2.3 The Characteristics of Chinese Culture

Following from the above description and discussion of cross-cultural values models, I aim here to differentiate six aspects of Chinese values: (a) hierarchy (b) harmony and *mianzi* and /or face, (c) *guanxi* networks (relationships), (d) group orientation, (e) time orientation, (f) *Jie*-thrift, which are essential in comparing and contrasting organisation and management practices between the West and China. This approach is predicated on a number of key scholars: Lockett, 1988 and Björkman and Lu, 1999, (for HRM practice); Child and Warner, 2002, (for organisational culture); Zhang et al., 2006, (for management performance); Wang et al., 2005, (for HRD practice).

#### **Hierarchy**

Wang et al. (2005) state that the Confucian principle of *li* (propriety) and *wu lun* (five hierarchical relationships) are the fundamental bases for Chinese respect for authority. Hofstede (1980, 1991), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1999), Schwartz (1992, 1994, and 1999) and Fu et al., (2006) propose that Chinese are more sensitive to authority than their Western counterparts. Confucius guides that everyone has an assigned position in society, providing a set of norm according to rank. Application of the five cardinal relationships of *wu lun* to organisations requires that workers and managers behave in accordance with the distinctive roles they hold respectively (Liu, 2003; Fu and Tsui, 2003). Both subordinates and superiors are required to perform their respective roles and abide by the explicit and implicit norms of proper behaviour; order and stability are thus assured in this hierarchical structure (Chen and Chung, 1994; Liu, 2003). However, hierarchy often frustrates and discourages the willingness to participate and engage, essential to the conduct of any organisation (Jacobs et al., 1995).

#### **Harmony, *Mianzi* and Face**

Chinese culture focuses upon the importance of interpersonal harmony. Harmony is a leading principle of Confucianism, whereby Chinese believe that only harmony among group members can produce 'fortune' (Chen and Chung, 1994). Meng-Zi (Mencius, 371 to 289 BC.), who is the only other person in China to have his name commonly Latinized besides Confucius has a famous saying: "Climate is less favourable than geographical position, while the latter is less favourable than harmony and support of people". To be more specific, several Chinese phrases emphasise the value of the importance of harmony



(Leng, 2005). At the national level, *guo tai min an* (the country being prosperous and the people living in peace), *tai ping sheng shi* (times of peace and prosperity); at the interpersonal level, *an ju le ye* (people living and working in peace and contentment), *he zhong gong ji* (work together with harmony and faithfulness in a time of difficulty); at the family level, *jia he wen shi xing* (harmony between family members brings prosperity to everything) clearly highlight the social importance of harmony.

In the organisation, interpersonal harmony implies the mutual obligation between the authority and subordinates maintained by the hierarchical culture. Westwood, Chan and Linstead (2004) argue that:

Such relationships [superior-subordinate relationship] ineluctably characterised by obvious power inequalities, but also very clearly by mutual rights and obligations. The last point is of the utmost significance since, whilst the authority of the super-ordinate person is absolute and must be respected and deferred to by the subordinate, the superior has a moral imperative to take care of, nurture and protect the subordinate. To behave otherwise is an abuse of power and a violation of the spirit of benevolence and the essential qualities of the moral person. This is in essence a form of reciprocity (Westwood, Chan and Linstead, 2004, p.373).

Consequently, Chinese have the tendency to build and maintain good relationship with their supervisors as well as with co-workers (Liu, 2003). In addition, conflict is avoided and cooperation is stressed in Chinese society based upon the guiding principle of social harmony (Liu, 2003).

However, interpersonal harmony depends not only on the building and maintaining good relationships among individuals, but also on the protection of an individual's *mianzi* and/or face (Lockett, 1988; Liu, 2003; Björkman and Lu, 1999; Wang et al., 2005). The literature tends to view face and *mianzi* as the same meaning. I prefer to differentiate between the two. *Mianzi* represents a more Western conception of "face", "a reputation achieved frequently through ostentatious display of wealth (automobile brands, conspicuous consumption, wanton waste)" (Romie, 2002, p.27). On the one hand, face means a reputation achieved through success in life, respect from others, dignity of oneself and integrity of oneself by demonstrating moral character or some other desirable trait (education, position) (Romie, 2002; Wang et al., 2005). The differences between face and



*mianzi* would be illustrated by the following example. When a subordinate makes an honest mistake, the supervisor would seek to maintain his 'face' as praise for his honesty. Maintaining the 'face' of others may be more essential than protecting one's own (Buttery and Leung, 1998). On the other hand, when a subordinate makes an unacceptable mistake, the supervisor would criticise them indirectly and alone to enable them to understand what is wrong without others' being present. "To maintain face [and/or *mianzi*] means to stay trustworthy and to honour obligations in one's social interactions" (Wang, 2005, p.318). The Chinese communication style is indirect, as individuals try to minimize the loss of face and preserve harmonious relationships (Gao, Ting-Toomey and Gudykunst, 1996).

### **Group Orientation**

Hofstede (1980, 1991), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1999), House et al. (1999, 2004), Schwartz (1992, 1994, and 1999) and Fu et al. (2006) contend Chinese are group oriented. According to Romie (2002), group orientation in China refers to the family, extended family, clan, organisation, or a self-identified subculture, up to and including the Chinese culture. Such a collectivistic culture shows that "societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout their lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (Hofstede, 1997, p.51). Bond (1991) describes it as "Chinese think of themselves using more group-related concepts (such as attentive to others) than Americans do; and they see their ideal 'self' as being closer to their social (or interpersonal) self than Westerners do" (p. 34).

The group orientation develops the tendency that the workers would view their organisation or work group as a symbolic family (Liu, 2003). The Chinese word for family is *jia*. A group is big family (*da jia*). The country is referred to as national family (*guo jia*). Confucianism maintains that a human being is not primarily an individual, but rather a member of a family, which implies that Chinese are interdependent. Being a member of a family, one is expected to contribute one's share to the betterment of the family (Liu, 2003). Therefore, in China, altruism and loyalty to parents at home and to supervisor at work, are values that the society tries very hard to instil in children (Chao, 1983; Fu et al., 2006).

### **Guanxi Networks**

Chinese are more particularistic than Westerners in according preference to people having particular relationships with them over others (Trompenaars, 1994). Redding (1990, p. 135)

states: “personalism is the tendency to allow personal relationships to enter into decision making”. Such a relationship orientation refers to *guanxi* i.e. a network of personal favours and obligations stemming from various social ties. This emphasis also highlights treasuring interpersonal relationships (e.g., particularistic ties; Tsui and Farh, 1997). Employees like to be treated as a member of the family by their superiors (Liu, 2003). “They seek high-quality relationships with peers and with their direct supervisor” (Zhang et al., 2006, p. 281). These social contextual factors motivate and support the workplace contributions of traditionalist Chinese. Since *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate is an important part of this thesis, it will be elaborated later.

### **Time Orientation**

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1999), House et al. (1999, 2004) and Fu et al. (2006) argue that Chinese tend to be long-term time oriented. It indicates a society’s time perspective and an attitude of perseverance; that is, of overcoming obstacles over time, if not with will and strength (Hofstede and Bond, 1988). Therefore, Chinese focus upon long-term relationship with one’s supervisor and one’s co-workers. “Traditionalist Chinese will tend to make regular workplace contributions and exemplify patience with respect to achieving personal development and a prosperous future”(Zhang et al., 2006, p.281), where “their intrinsic motivation is anchored more in their long-term personal development than in short-term workplace gratifications” (Zhang et al., 2006, p.281).

### **Jian – Thrift**

Adler (2002), Fang (2003), Wang et al. (2005), Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) and Fan (2000) state that Chinese take their traditions seriously. Thrift (*jian*)- an old Chinese tradition is viewed as one of the most important characteristics of Confucian work ethics (Lim, 2003; Oh, 1992).

Hofstede and Bond (1988, p. 18) and Hofstede (1991, p. 168) explain this as follows: “The values of ‘thrift’ leads to savings, which means availability of capital for reinvestment, an obvious asset to economic growth”. In China, it is generally honourable to be thrifty and dislike waste. Hence, individuals have preference for savings rather than borrowings. In the workplace, employees are concerned with protecting and saving their organisational resources.

## 2.2.4 Economic Reforms and Chinese Culture

I have already commented on the various ownership structures of organisations in China in **chapter one** consequently to the economic reforms that started in 1980. In order to contextualise the discussion on cultural values change and organisational practice transformation, this part highlights some important relevant information.

The economic reforms and open-door policy are generally viewed as likely to alter Chinese personal philosophy on affluence, quite possibly leading to cultural values change. Opportunities for leisure activities, particularly commercial and consumerist ones are expanding rapidly in China with a relative huge increase in televisions, cinemas, videos and other leisure devices and services (Atkinson, 1994). Moreover, the rapid economic progress together with the one-child birth control policy in China may well have consequences to the work ethic. Evans (2005) reported that an only child in China was frequently regarded as "a little emperor" or "a little sun", namely, a spoiled child, who may lead to the growth of selfishness as the younger generation, most notably women acquiring increasing autonomy and authority accompanied by the emergence of individual identity-compared to previous generations. Burkholder et al. (2005) found that because material conditions had improved for much of the country's population in recent years, more and more Chinese focused on non-material self-expression. A sample of urban residents in some major cities in China (they have not specified which cities have been investigated), for example, in answering questions about their personal values and philosophies, the percentage of respondents answering "work hard and get rich" has declined, from 68% in 1994 to 53% in 2005, whereas the percentage describing their personal philosophy as "don't think about money or fame, just live a life, that suits your own tastes" has more than doubled, from 11% in 1994 to 26% in 2005. Another example is the preoccupation with money (Fisher and Yuan, 1998), and the surfacing of numerous cases of dishonesty in business (Harvey, 1999). Additionally, an increasing number of multinational subsidiaries and joint ventures that have entered the China's market where these companies and managers (expatriate or overseas-educated) act unconsciously as agents for change in work values (Ralston, et al., 1997), which are potential generators of the cultural values changes. The general consequence is that *individualism* tends to be

increasing in China and the decline of hierarchical values is evident. For example, Fu (et al., 2006, p.35) argue:

they [young Chinese] break away from the traditional norms that restricted their behaviours, such as absolute respect for the senior and obedience. The reformed system has also made it possible for them to do many things they could not, or dared not, do before. For example, they can quit their jobs for better opportunities now. They can look for jobs themselves instead of having to be assigned by the government. They no longer have to work in places where they were born, but can work thousand of miles away from home without being punished.

In addition to cultural values change, organisational practices influenced by Western human resource management configuration drive structural changes in a number of ways. China's active participation in the global economy, especially her participation in the World Trade Organisation, has aroused a nationwide movement to study and selectively adopt Western technology and philosophy of modern management. During this learning process China has significantly reformed almost every aspect of management, ranging from national laws and policies for international trade and taxation to various management practices within organisations, leading to Chinese managerial practices and philosophies becoming closer to those of the industrialised West than ever before (Child, 1996; Chow, 2004). For example, prior to the economic reforms, performance management in China's organisations had focused on political ideologies but not on task performance due to the "Iron Bowl System" (i.e., a system based on life-time employment and the norm of equality in resource allocation) (Walder, 1983). Over the past two decades, organisations in China have massively redesigned their human resource management systems to facilitate competition, enhance effectiveness, and drive efficiency. In particular, they reformed the performance management systems to reinforce behaviours that directly facilitate organisational effectiveness and efficiency (Chen, 2001). This tendency is likely to have increased the similarities between Chinese and Western management practices and have motivated Chinese managers to endorse values on all categories of behaviour in evaluating employee performance. First, more mobility in the labour market enables the development of individual freedom in selection and recruitment, i.e., market-driven and merit-oriented system. Before the economic reforms, job mobility was low in China. Employees were assigned to organisations by the government with less freedom in choosing other jobs and career moves (Walder, 1983). One consequence of the reforms has

been the emergence of new forms of employment opportunity. In particular, the growth of the private and collective sectors and the increased levels of foreign investment most notably in the form of joint ventures offer an attractive employment option for an increasing number of Chinese workers – especially younger ones (Westwood and Lok, 2003; Chow, 2004).

Second, organisational justice practice has been increasingly emphasised by Chinese workers. Before the economic and enterprise reforms in 1982, employees were promised welfare and subsistence benefits in return for pledging allegiance to official causes and generally for service to the nation. For example, before the economic reforms, deriving from Soviet styles work ethic and patterns, organisations attempted to build communities devoted to so-called selfless endeavour, setting labour models titled ‘labour hero’, personifying enterprise values (Tung, 1991; Jackson and Bak, 1998). Since the mid 1990s, employees in state-owned or largely state-invested enterprises have endured *xiagang* (layoff on minimum wage) and layoffs (Snell and Tseng, 2003). Hence, since organisations increasingly value individual merit and performance, fair treatment could thus be a strong indicator to embody the employees’ objective preference (Huo et al., 1999; Law et al., 2000; Zhang, Farh and Wang, 2006; Tsui et al., 2002; Chow, 2004). Through fair policies and procedures, employees could recognise the consistent and general support from the organisation (Zhang, Farh and Wang, 2006; Tsui et al., 2002). Furthermore, organisations were recommended to incorporate more human management practices that emphasise more transparency, open and fair procedures for communicating with employees and the allocation of material rewards (Law et al., 2000; Child and Warner, 2002; Chow, 2004).

Third, benefits, high pay, as well as distributive justice (i.e. fair reward against one’s responsibilities) are valued by Chinese employees (Huo et al., 1999; Zhang, Farh and Wang, 2006; Child and Warner, 2002). The salience of these factors may be due to two reasons: economic development and previous management practices in Chinese enterprises before reforms. Being at the earlier stage of economic development, China does not have a well-established social insurance system (Chow, 2004; Zhang, Farh and Wang, 2006). Many laid-off employees cannot survive only on the subsidies that the government offers. Employees have to depend on their affiliations for their well-being. Furthermore, before economic reforms, state-owned enterprises enforced “Iron Bowl System”, offered almost all benefits from whole life insurance, housing, baby care and family medical

insurance (Becker, 1992; Bishop, 1998; Bishop and Scott, 1997; Chen et al., 2000). Although many of these benefits have been cancelled during the reforms, state-owned enterprises are still maintaining some of those benefits; even foreign-directly invested organisations follow some programs that state-owned enterprises take, such as housing allowances. Employees tend to view welfare as “proxy” to organisations’ attitudes and conduct (Chow, 2004; Zhang, Farh and Wang, 2006). Thus employees pay much attention to the benefits that organisations can cover.

Fourth, current Chinese workers are concerned with individual development (Huo et al., 1999; Zhang, Farh and Wang, 2006; Child and Warner, 2002). An increasing number of people seek training opportunities and expect to utilise their skills and capabilities. Training programmes and career plans were formally introduced by international companies (Huo et al., 1999; Zhang, Farh and Wang, 2006; Child and Warner, 2002). These triggered employees’ wish for self-fulfilment, compared to the historic “Iron Bowl System” and equality system that may have impeded these growth needs. Before the reforms, the social norm emphasised aggregate contribution and equivalence instead of individual differences. The aim of working was to contribute to the state and the collective. Individual interests were not taken into consideration at all. Up to the early 1990s, workers were not responsible for their self-development. This is all changing as the economy transits from planned to market. People regard job-fit and individual potential development as more and more important. Educational credentials have become more pronounced in promotion than in the pre-reform era (Zhang, Farh and Wang, 2006).

However, some norms for state-owned enterprises’ performance are still the dominant practices in China (Farh et al., 2004). For example, one performance measure for state-owned enterprises is responsibility for the common welfare of their community. Also, both state-owned enterprises and non-state owned enterprises must build a good reputation in the community (Farh et al., 2004). One way this reputation can be maintained and enhanced is by visible involvement of the firm’s employees in both formal and informal activities benefiting the community, which can generate a sense in the community that it is a positive contributor to the welfare of the locality (Farh et al., 2004). Furthermore, Chen (2001) argues that Chinese have a holistic perspective on management. They tend to believe that all things in the universe (the self, the family, a business unit, or a nation) contain competing tendencies that must be balanced and harmonised. Chinese tend to focus

on group harmony and shared accomplishment, qualitative and subjective measures, a people orientation, and economic and social concerns in performance management (Chen, 2001). Hence, historically, the social needs of people in the workplace tend to be more significant than intrinsic needs such as work autonomy and self-actualisation needs (Björkman and Lu, 1999). Additionally, higher levels of commitment to work group, personal industry in job performance, higher levels of engagement in OCB and intention to remain in the organisation are fostered (Becker, 1992; Bishop, 1998; Bishop and Scott, 1997; Chen et al., 2000). Moreover, Chinese organisations are in charge of both work-related activities and non-work areas such as housing allocation, medical care, education, the implementation of birth control policy and so forth (Lockett, 1988).

To sum up, the economic reforms in China have brought about the advance of western human resource management policy and practice; however, their indigenous Chinese conduct is still widely practised.

## **2.3 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)**

The objectives of this section are to report current understanding of the concept, construct, antecedents and consequence of OCB as a universal (but divergent) organisational practice by recourse to a cultural explanation; and highlight consistencies and inconsistencies in the extant literature between the West and China. This section begins with examining the definition of OCB, which is followed by the review of the OCB construct both in West and China and ending with a comparison and contrast of the extant literature on the antecedents and consequences of OCB between the West and China.

### **2.3.1 Definition of OCB**

This section reviews the early work of defining OCB (Organ, 1988), the recent development of its definition and various conceptualisations similar to OCB including prosocial organisational behaviour (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986), organisational spontaneity (George and Brief, 1992), extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne et al., 1995) and contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). It also summaries the indigenous Chinese meanings of OCB from the extant literature.

This research adopts the recent definition of OCB by Organ (1997) and Podsakoff et al.



(2000), who defined OCB as behaviour that “supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place” (Organ, 1997, p.95), which are “relatively more likely to be discretionary, and relatively less likely to be formally or explicitly rewarded in the organisation” (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p.549), in the aggregate contributing to the effective functioning of an organisation.

Organ (1988), as well as other early researchers, considers OCB to be an "extra-role" behaviour - individual contributions in the workplace that go beyond the specified role requirements and are not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system. However, the definition has been under challenge for three reasons. First, it is empirically difficult to differentiate OCB from in-role job duties (e.g., Morrison, 1994; Tepper et al., 2001 and Vey et al., 2004; Lam et al., 1999 and Blakely et al., 2005). In the North American OCB literature, Morrison (1994) discovered that American workers perceived many of the specific behaviours as part of their role requirements, which was neither discretionary nor informally rewarded by the organisational reward system. Vey et al (2004) found that in their examination of the differences between OCB and in-role behaviour, the majority of participants viewed more than half of the OCB items as their in-role work behaviours. In a cross national survey in the United States, Australia, Japan, and Hong Kong, Lam et al (1999) reported (1) supervisors had broader definitions of job roles than subordinates; (2) participants from Hong Kong and Japan were more likely to consider some categories of OCB as an expected part of the job than were participants from the United States and Australia. In examining the perceptions of OCB between Chinese and American people, Blakely et al. (2005) demonstrated the Chinese were more likely to view OCB as in-role performance than their American counterparts. The study by Li and Wan (2007) revealed that in China, the older the employees were, the more they perceived OCB as in-role performance, and the higher the position one held in the organisation, the higher OCB in-role ratings he or she counted. Female employees tended to show higher in-role perception than men on some OCB dimensions (but they did not explicitly state which dimensions these were).

Second, OCB has a positive influence upon employees' performance evaluation and other managerial reward decisions (Podsakoff et al., 1993; Werner, 1994; Allen and Rush, 1998). For example, empirical studies by Podsakoff et al. (1993), Werner (1994) and Allen and Rush (1998) showed the contribution of OCB on performance evaluations and related



managerial decisions such as rewards, which casts doubt on the original OCB definition as to whether OCB is less formally rewarded by the organisation.

Third, certain alternative formulations of OCB are less clear-cut (Bolino, Turnley and Niehoff, 2004; Organ, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Some scholarly work asserts prosocial organisational behaviour, organisational spontaneity, extra-role behaviour and contextual performance are the same as OCB in essence though the way differ (Organ, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Farh et al., 2004). Nonetheless, others view OCB differently from its alternative formulations (Bolino, Turnley and Niehoff, 2004; Van Dyne et al., 1995; Morrison, 1994). Prosocial organisational behaviour (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986) is employee behaviour aiming at benefiting other individuals, groups, or organisations, whilst OCB is defined as extra-role and organisationally functional behaviour. Prosocial organisational behaviours may be either role-prescribed or extra-role behaviours and may either promote or inhibit the effective functioning of organisations. Organisational spontaneity (George and Brief, 1992), like OCB, is defined as voluntary behaviour that contributes to organisational effectiveness; however, unlike OCB, organisational spontaneity can be directly and explicitly recognised by the formal reward system. Organ et al. (2005) also point out differences between extra-role behaviour and OCB. Extra-role behaviour is employee behaviour that goes beyond role expectations in a way that is organisationally functional. However, as a type of OCB, compliance or individual initiative is excluded from the general discussion of extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Contextual performance has been defined as "behaviours that support the broader organisational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function" (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993, p.73). The commonalties between OCB and contextual performance, both of them concern organisational effectiveness (Motowidlo, 2000), whereas their differences are highlighted by Organ (1997, p. 90) who states that "what is different from OCB is that contextual performance as defined does not require that the behaviour be extra-role (discretionary) nor that it be nonrewarded. The defining quality is that it is 'non-task', or more to the point, that it contributes to the maintenance and/or enhancement of the context of work."

Previous review and/or meta-analyses (Organ and Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ et al., 2006; Farh et al., 2004) seem to use the general term OCB to describe various from of OCB, prosocial organisational behaviour, organisational spontaneity, extra-role

behaviour and contextual performance. Nevertheless, some of the previous work used the early definition of OCB (Organ, 1988), but considered alternative formulations of OCB as OCB as well. Therefore, from the above discussion, here I follow Borman and Motowidlo (1993), Motowidlo (2000), Organ (1997), Podsakoff et al. (2000) argument that it may not be appropriate to define OCB as behaviours that are discretionary and “not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system (Organ, 1988, p. 4).” This definition allows us to compare and contrast the OCB construct in a broad spectrum including OCB (generic), prosocial organisational behaviour, organisational spontaneity, extra-role behaviour and contextual performance, thereby enriching the OCB literature in exploring its role boundary<sup>1</sup>.

In addition, the extant OCB literature in China indicates that OCB has indigenous meanings. First, OCB can be exceptional performance. For example, Law, Wong and Chen (2004) posited that compared with Western managers, Chinese managers would view even those who exhibit one type of OCB exceptionally, as good organizational citizens. Second, OCB is more likely to be in-role performance. For instance, compared with American managers, Chinese considered OCB more as in-role behaviour (Blakely, Srivastava and Moorman, 2005; Li and Wan, 2006; Chang et al., 2007). Finally, OCB arises from managers' and co-workers' expectations. Blakely et al. (2005) suggest that in China, employees tend to perform more OCB since they are expected to exhibit more OCB by their employers. Considering the collectivist nature in China, it may be appropriate to argue that OCB is derived from an individual's obligation to meet their employers' and co-workers' expectations<sup>2</sup>.

### **2.3.2 The Construct of OCB in the West**

Bateman and Organ (1983) firstly developed a construct measurement of qualitative performance, i.e. OCB, which differentiates from traditional job performance (quantitative performance). Smith, Organ and Neal (1983) interviewed some line managers in manufacturing plants to explore behaviours which they expected their employees to perform, but all of those behaviours were neither required by supervisors explicitly, nor were expected to be rewarded from employees' viewpoint. In their later construction of the

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<sup>1</sup> Dr. Elizabeth Morrison (2006) is in agreement with this definition (Correspondence, May 2006)

<sup>2</sup> See for example: Meek (2004) for a study on a collectivist society (Japan).

scale, Smith et al. (1983) further categorized it into altruism and generalized compliance in Table 3.

**Table 3 Smith, Organ and Neal (1983) OCB’s Definitions**

OCB Forms	Definitions
Altruism	Altruism is “regarding work related factors; individual would directly and intentionally help one’s specific colleague in face-to-face situation” (Smith, Organ and Neal, 1983, p.41).
Generalized compliance	Generalized compliance (later called conscientiousness) “that individual behaviour would be indirectly helpful to others involved in the system such as following company and administrative policies about time, management and attendance, etc. Compliance implies both the general adherence to the order of the organisation as well as the letters of the law or that defines a cooperative system” (Smith, Organ and Neal, 1983, p.41).

**Source: Smith, Organ and Neal (1983)**

Conceptually, prosocial organisational behaviour was categorized into 13 types (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986, p.83).

1. Assisting co-workers with job-related matters.
2. Assisting co-workers with personal matters.
3. Showing leniency in personnel decisions.
4. Providing services or products to consumers in organisationally consistent ways.
5. Providing services or products to consumers in organisationally inconsistent ways.
6. Helping consumers with personal matters unrelated to organisational services or products.
7. Complying with organisational values, policies and regulations.
8. Suggesting procedural, administrative, or organisational improvements.
9. Objecting to improper directives, procedures or policies.
10. Putting forth extra effort on the job.
11. Volunteering for additional assignments.
12. Staying with the organisation despite temporary hardships.
13. Representing the organisation favourably to outsiders.

Based on early work by Bateman and Organ (1983) and Smith, Organ and Neal (1983), Organ (1988) posited that the OCB framework in previous studies could not fully explain the core meaning of OCB. Therefore, theoretically, he amended the previous OCB framework with sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue as a five-dimensional construct. Two years later, in accordance with Organ (1988), Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) developed empirical measures for each of the five dimensions of OCB. Thus, the most popular formulation of OCB in the literature has been produced (Table 4):

**Table 4 Organ (1988) and Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) OCB’s Definitions**

OCB Forms	Definitions
Altruism	“Voluntary actions that help another person with a work problem--instructing a new hire on how to use equipment, helping a co-worker catch up with a backlog of work, fetching materials that a colleague needs and cannot procure on his own (Organ, 1988, p.96).” Podsakoff et al. (2000) stated what Organ in 1988 termed as “Peacemaking--actions that help to prevent, resolve or mitigate unconstructive interpersonal conflict (Organ, 1988, p.96), and “Cheerleading--the words and gestures of encouragement and reinforcement of co-workers' accomplishments and professional development” (Organ, 1988, p. 96), were important components of helping behaviour as well.
Courtesy	“Courtesy subsumes all of those foresightful gestures that help someone else prevent a problem--touching base with people before committing to actions that will affect them, providing advance notice to someone who needs to know to schedule work (Organ, 1988, p. 96).”
Sportsmanship	“A citizen-like posture of tolerating the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without whining and grievances (Organ, 1988, p. 96).”
Conscientiousness	“Conscientiousness is a pattern of going well beyond minimally required levels of attendance, punctuality, housekeeping, conserving resources, and related matters of internal maintenance (Organ, 1988, p. 96).”
Civic Virtue	“Civic Virtue is responsible, constructive involvement in the political process of the organisation, including not just expressing opinions but reading one's mail, attending meetings, and keeping abreast of larger issues involving the organisation (Organ, 1988, p. 96).”

**Source: Organ (1988) and Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990)**

On the basis of findings from political science, Graham (1991) developed an alternative conceptualization of OCB, called civic citizenship, which was defined as a global concept that includes all positive, organisationally relevant behaviours of individual organisation members. Conceptually, Graham (1991) and Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch (1994) developed three dimensions of OCB (see Table 5).

**Table 5 Graham (1991) and Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch (1994) Civic Citizenship’s Definitions**

Forms	Definitions
Organisational Loyalty	Identification with and allegiance to organisational leaders and the organisation as a whole, transcending the parochial interests of individuals, work groups, and departments. It involves respect for orderly structures and processes. Responsible citizens recognise rational-legal authority and obey the law
Organisational Obedience	An orientation toward organisational structure, job descriptions, and personnel policies that recognise and accepts the necessity and desirability of a rational structure of rules and regulations. It expands parochial welfare functions to include serving the interests of the community as a whole and the values it embodies. Loyal citizens promote and protect their communities and volunteer extra effort for the common good.
Organisational Participation	Interest in organisational affairs guided by ideal standards of virtue, validated by keeping informed and expressed through full and responsible involvement in organisational governance. It entails active and responsible involvement in community self-governance in whatever ways are possible under the law. Responsible citizens keep themselves well informed about issues affecting the community, exchange information and ideas with other citizens, contribute to the process of community self-governance, and encourage others to do like.

**Source: Graham (1991) and Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch (1994)**

Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994) further validated this conceptualization of OCB and organisational participation was broken down into social participation, advocacy participation, and functional participation. Therefore, the five dimensions of OCB are functional participation, advocacy participation, social participation, obedience and loyalty.

Williams and Anderson (1991) categorized OCB into OCB-Organisation and OCB-Individual. Based on their findings about what OCB could influence, they thought that OCB-O included behaviours that benefit the organisation in general when unable to come to work, adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order. Also, OCB-I could be recognised as behaviours that immediately benefit specific individuals and indirectly contribute to the organisation that which may benefit the company indirectly such as cooperating with supervision or colleagues.

In their discussion of Organisational Spontaneity, George and Brief (1992) and George and Jones (1997) developed five forms of such behaviour, but did not validate it empirically (Table 6).

**Table 6 George and Jones (1997) Organisational Spontaneity’s Definitions**

Forms	Definitions
Helping Co-workers	It “includes all voluntary forms of assistance that organisational members provide each other to facilitate the accomplishment of tasks and attainment of goals. Helping co-workers includes behaviours ranging from helping a co-worker with a heavy workload and sharing resources, to calling attention to errors and omissions and providing instruction in the use of new technology when one is not required to do so (George and Jones, p. 154).”
Spreading Goodwill	It “is the means by which organisational members voluntarily contribute to organisational effectiveness through efforts to represent their organisations to wider communities in a beneficial light, whether it be describing one's organisation as supportive and caring or describing an organisation's goods and services as being high-quality and responsive to customers' needs; instances of spreading goodwill contribute to organisational effectiveness by insuring that organisations obtain needed resources from various stakeholder groups (George and Jones, p. 155).”
Making Constructive Suggestions	It “includes all voluntary acts of creativity and innovation in organisations. Such suggestions can range from the relatively mundane (a more efficient way to handle paperwork) to the more monumental (reorganisation of an entire unit to better serve a changing customer base)... workerswho engage in this form of organisational spontaneity ... Actively try to find ways to improve individual, group, or organisational functioning (George and Jones, p. 155).”
Developing Oneself	It “includes all the steps that workers take to voluntarily improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities so as to be better able to contribute to their organisations. Seeking out and taking advantage of advanced training courses, keeping abreast of the latest developments in one's field and area, or even learning a new set of skills so as to expand the range of one's contributions to an organisation... (George and Jones, p.155).”
Protecting the Organisation	It “includes those voluntary acts organisational members engage in to protect or save life and property ranging from reporting fire hazards, securely locking doors, reporting suspicious or dangerous activities, to taking the initiative to halt a production process when there is the potential for human injury (George and Jones, p. 155).”

**Source: George and Jones (1997)**

In their study of contextual performance, Borman and Motowidlo (1993; 1997) described and developed the measurement of five aspects of contextual performance:

- 1. Volunteering for extra activities.
- 2. Persisting with enthusiasm when needed to complete important job requirements.
- 3. Helping and cooperating with others.
- 4. Following rules and prescribed procedures even when personally inconvenient.
- 5. Openly endorsing, defending, and supporting organisational objectives.

In the subsequent study of contextual performance, Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) contributed to the new construct development (see Table 7).

**Table 7 Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) Contextual Performance’s Definitions**

Forms	Definitions
Interpersonal Facilitation	It “consists of interpersonally oriented behaviours that contribute to organisational goal accomplishment... In addition to the spontaneous helping behaviours that Smith et al. (1983) called altruism, and George and Brief (1992) labelled helping co-workers, interpersonal facilitation encompasses deliberate acts that improve morale, encourage cooperation, remove barriers to performance, or facilitation encompasses help co-workers perform their task-oriented job activities. Thus, interpersonal a range of interpersonal acts that help maintain the interpersonal and social context needed to support effective task performance in an organisational setting (p.526)”.
Job Dedication	It “centres on self-disciplined behaviours such as...working hard, and taking the initiative to solve a problem at work. It encompasses...the will do factors identified in. Job dedication is the motivational foundation for job performance that drives people to act with the deliberate intention of promoting the organisation's best interest (p. 526)”.

**Source: Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996)**



Graham (1989) and Moorman and Blakely (1995) developed a scale, which measured four dimensions of OCB: loyal boosterism, interpersonal helping, individual initiative, and personal industry (Table 8).

**Table 8 Graham (1989) and Moorman and Blakely (1995) OCB’s Definitions**

OCB Forms	Definitions
Loyal boosterism	Loyal boosterism refers to behaviours promote the company to others outside the organisation.
Interpersonal helping	Interpersonal helping reflects behaviours geared toward helping co-workers when they need it.
Individual initiative	Individual initiative is based on behaviours, which are designed to improve either individual or group performance in the organisation.
Personal industry	Personal industry is comprised of behaviours that go beyond expectations of an employee.

**Source: Graham (1989) and Moorman and Blakely (1995)**

Without empirical measurement, Van Dyne, Cummings, and McLean Parks (1995) developed an extra-role model of OCB. The typology contrasted promotive and prohibitive behaviour as well as affiliative and challenging behaviour. Promotive behaviours are proactive; they promote, encourage, or cause things to happen. Prohibitive behaviours are protective and preventative; they include interceding to protect those with less power as well as speaking out to stop inappropriate or unethical behaviour. Affiliative behaviour is interpersonal and cooperative. It strengthens relationships and is other-oriented. Challenging behaviour emphasises ideas and issues. It is change-oriented and can damage relationships. Combining these characteristics yields a typology with four general types of extra-role behaviour.

1. Helping is an example of affiliative promotive behaviour.
2. Voice is an example of challenging promotive behaviour.
3. Stewardship is an example of affiliative prohibitive behaviour.
4. Whistle-blowing is an example of challenging prohibitive behaviour.

In a subsequent field study of 597 employees, Van Dyne and LePine (1998) validated two types of extra-role behaviour: voice and helping. Helping is similar to altruism. Voice, which is defined as promotive behaviour that emphasises expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticise, can be considered another distinct dimension of OCB.

Morrison and Phelps (1999) developed a new empirical measurement of extra role behaviour: taking charge. Taking charge is “discretionary behaviour intended to effect organisationally functional change” (Morrison and Phelps, 1999, p. 403). I adopt here in consultant with Dr. Morrison in this study<sup>3</sup>.

Despite of the growing number of studies exploring the topic of OCB, there is still a lack of consensus regarding the dimensionality of the OCB construct (LePine et al., 2002). Podsakoff and MacKenzie et al. (2000) organised OCB into seven common themes or dimensions (Table 9):

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<sup>3</sup> Correspondence with Dr. Morrison (May, 2006).

**Table 9 Podsakoff and MacKenzie et al. (2000) OCB's Definitions**

OCB Forms	Definitions
Helping Behaviour	It refers to “voluntarily helping others with, or preventing the occurrence of, work related problem and helping others by taking steps to prevent the creation of problems for co-workers (p.516)”.
Sportsmanship.	“A citizen-like posture of tolerating the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without whining and grievances (p.517)”.
Organisational Loyalty.	It shows “promoting the organisation to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats, and remaining committed to it even under adverse conditions promoting the organisation to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats, and remaining committed to it even under adverse conditions (p.517)”.
Organisational Compliance.	“It captures a person's internalization and acceptance of the organisation's rules, regulations, and procedures, which results in a scrupulous adherence to them, even when no one observes or monitors compliance (p.517)”.
Individual Initiative.	“Such behaviours include voluntary acts of creativity and innovation designed to improve one's task or the organisation's performance, persisting with extra enthusiasm and effort to accomplish one's job, volunteering to take on extra responsibilities, and encouraging others in the organisation to do the same (p.524)”. All of these behaviours share the idea that the employee is going "above and beyond" the call of duty.
Civic Virtue.	“Civic virtue represents a macro-level interest in, or commitment to, the organisation as a whole. This is shown by a willingness to participate actively in its governance (e.g., attend meetings, engage in policy debates, express one's opinion about what strategy the organisation ought to follow, etc.); to monitor its environment for threats and opportunities (e.g., keep up with changes in the industry that may affect the organisation); and to look out for its best interests (e.g., reporting fire hazards or suspicious activities, locking doors, etc.), even at great personal cost (p.525)”.
Self Development.	Self-development “includes voluntary behaviours employees engage in to improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities (p.525)”.

**Source: Podsakoff and MacKenzie et al. (2000)**

However, such framework of OCB has not been empirically validated, and therefore, it is in need of further empirical support.

Soon, Ng and Goh (2005) based on George and Brief (1992) conceptual development validated a self-development scale in Singapore. Although it is validated in an Asian country, this scale is in-fect based on a Western viewpoint. Self-development “includes voluntary employees engaged behaviours to improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities (Podsakoff, 2000, p.525)”.

Based on early work of Peterson (2004), Peloza and Hassay (2006) introduced three new definitions to the OCB literature, which they found existed in the real world (Table 10).

**Table 10 Peloza and Hassay (2006) OCB’s Definitions**

OCB Forms	Definitions
Extra-organisational volunteerism	It is “used here to describe this form of volunteerism because it is performed outside of one’s role as an employee and, as a result, provides only minimal, indirect benefit to the firm (e.g., employee skill development) (p.360) ”
Inter-organisational volunteerism	Inter-organisational volunteerism is “introduced here to describe volunteer initiatives that are supported by, but not strategically-aligned with the firm and therefore, in this form of volunteerism the goals and strategy of the corporation are secondary to the philanthropic interests of its employees (p.359)”.
Intra-organisational volunteerism	Intra-organisational volunteerism is “to describe volunteer efforts made by employees within company-sanctioned programs on behalf of causes/organisations selected by their employer. The use of the term intra-organisational is consistent with terms such as intrapreneurship which suggest that a given behaviour is performed within and for the benefit of the organisation (p.360)”.

**Source: Peloza and Hassay (2006)**

Therefore, according to Pelozo and Hassay (2006), “extra, inter and intra organisational volunteerism are largely distinguished by the capacity or role in which the individual commits his/her time as an after hours, personal activity (extra-organisational volunteerism); as part of a self-directed, employer-supported program (inter-organisational); or as part of an employer-sanctioned program in support of an employer-selected cause or charitable organisation” (Pelozo and Hassay, 2006, p. 360). However, those new forms of OCB also need to be further validated. Especially, helping behaviour may to some extent be overlapping with inter-organisational volunteerism, as those behaviours are all aimed to provide direct help to a person within the organisation. However, extra and intra organisational volunteerism have great needs to be explored since it is not clear as to what concrete behaviours constitute them.

Based on quantitative validation and qualitative evidence of various OCB forms in the literature, here I provide a summary for definitions of different types of OCB (Table 11). In addition to Farh, Zhong and Organ’s (2004, p.230) identification of nine types of OCB in the Western literature: **1) Altruism; 2) Conscientiousness; 3) Courtesy; 4) Sportsmanship; 5) Civic Virtue; 6) Functional Participation; 7) Advocacy Participation; 8) Loyalty; 9) Voice**, in this research, three new dimensions of OCB are explored: **Self-development** (Soon, Ng and Goh, 2005) (quantitative measure), **Taking Charge** (Morrison and Phelps, 1999) (quantitative measure) and **Intra-organisational volunteerism** (qualitative measure) (Pelozo and Hassay, 2006).

**Table 11 OCB Dimensions in the Western Literature**

<b>Dimension</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Source</b>
<b>Altruism</b>	Discretionary behaviour that has the effect of helping a specific other person with an organisationally relevant task or problem.	Smith et al. 1983, Organ 1988, Podsakoff et al. 1990. Similar dimensions also include helping (Van Dyne and Le Pine, 1998) and interpersonal helping (Graham 1989, Moorman and Blakely, 1995).
<b>Conscientiousness</b>	Discretionary behaviour on the part of an employee that goes well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organisation, in the areas of attendance, obeying rules and regulations, breaks, and so forth.	Smith et al. 1983, Organ 1988, Podsakoff et al. 1990. Similar dimensions also include obedience (Graham 1989, Van Dyne et al. 1994) and personal industry (Graham 1989, Moorman and Blakely 1995).
<b>Sportsmanship</b>	Willingness of employees to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining—to avoid complaining, petty grievances, railing against real or imagined slights, and making federal cases out of small potatoes.	Organ 1988, Podsakoff et al. 1990.
<b>Advocacy participation</b>	Behaviour targeted at others in an organisation and reflecting a willingness to be controversial, such as encouraging quiet people to speak up in meetings and helping co-workers think for themselves.	Van Dyne et al. 1994. Similar dimension is individual initiative (Graham 1989, Moorman and Blakely 1995).
<b>Courtesy</b>	Discretionary behaviour on the part of an individual aimed at preventing work-related problems with others.	Organ 1988, Podsakoff et al. 1990.
<b>Functional participation</b>	Participatory contribution in which individuals focus on themselves rather than others in their organisations (e.g., performing additional work activities, volunteering for special assignments).	Van Dyne et al. 1994.
<b>Civic virtue</b>	Behaviour on the part of individuals indicating that they responsibly participate in, are involved in, or are concerned about the life of the organisation.	Organ 1988, Podsakoff et al. 1990.

<b>Loyalty</b>	Allegiance to an organisation and promotion of its interests.	Graham 1989, Van Dyne et al. 1994. Similar dimension is loyal boosterism (Graham 1989, Moorman and Blakely 1995).
<b>Voice</b>	Promotive behaviour that emphasises the expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticise.	Van Dyne et al. 1995, Van Dyne and LePine 1998.
<b>Taking charge</b>	Taking charge is discretionary behaviour intended to effect organisationally functional change	Morrison and Phelps, 1999.
<b>Self-development</b>	It includes voluntary behaviours employees engage in to improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities	Soon, Ng, and Goh, 2005
<b>Intra-organisational volunteerism</b>	Intra-organisational volunteerism is “to describe volunteer efforts made by employees within company-sanctioned programs on behalf of causes/organisations selected by their employer. The use of the term intra-organisational is consistent with terms such as intrapreneurship which suggest that a given behaviour is performed within and for the benefit of the organisation (p.360)”.	Peloza and Hassay, 2006

### 2.3.3 The OCB Construct in China

In China, managers consider employees who display only one form of OCB far better than others, as good citizens; and therefore, of both theoretical and practical importance in understanding the various forms of OCB (Law et al., 2004).

Hui, Law and Chen (1999) developed five dimensions of OCB in China: altruism, conscientiousness, identification with the company, interpersonal harmony, and protecting company resources (Table 12). They argue that interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources appeared to be specific to the Taiwanese and Chinese culture. In subsequent empirical research, Chen, Tsui and Farh (2002), Chen, Aryee and

Lee (2005), Chen and Francesco (2003, and 2005), Tjosvol, Hui, Ding and Hu (2003), Wong, Ngo and Wong (2002 and 2003), Wong, Wong, Ngo and Lui (2005) and Snap et al. (2006) consistently reported this scale to be valid in China.

**Table 12 Hui, Law and Chen (1999) OCB’s Definitions**

OCB Forms	Definitions
Altruism	It is discretionary behaviours that have the effect of helping a specific other person with an organisationally relevant task or problem.
Conscientiousness	It is discretionary behaviours on the part of the employee in the areas of attendance, obeying rules and regulations, taking breaks, and so forth;
Identification with company (or Civic virtue)	It is discretionary behaviour that indicates the one responsibly participates in, is involved in, or is concerned about the life of the organisation;
Interpersonal harmony	It is discretionary behaviour by an employee to avoid pursuing personal power and gain with detrimental effects on others and the organisation.
Protecting company resources	It is discretionary behaviour by an employee to avoid negative behaviours that abuse company policies and resources for personal use.

**Source: Hui, Law and Chen (1999)**

On the basis of their sample in Hong Kong, Lam et al. (1999) developed a five dimensional version of Chinese OCB measures from measures originally developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990). This scale is based on Organ's (1988) five dimensions of OCB (Table 13).



**Table 13 Lam et al. (1999) OCB's Definitions**

OCB Forms	Definitions
Altruism	It is discretionary behaviours that have the effect of helping a specific other person with an organisationally relevant task or problem.
Conscientiousness	It is discretionary behaviours on the part of the employee in the areas of attendance, obeying rules and regulations, taking breaks, and so forth.
Courtesy	It is discretionary behaviours aimed at preventing work-related problems from occurring;
Civic virtue	It is discretionary behaviours that indicate an employee's participation in or concern about the governance of the organisation.
Sportsmanship	It is employee behaviours that indicate a willingness to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining.

**Source: Lam et al. (1999)**

Begley, Lee and Hui (2006), Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang and Chen (2005) and Hui, Rousseau and Lee (2004a and b) used all five dimensions of this scale; Tjosvold, Hui and Yu (2003) used three of the dimensions of this scale (altruism, conscientiousness and courtesy); Chen, Hui and Sego (1999) used three dimensions of this scale (altruism, conscientiousness and sportsmanship); Begley et al. (2002) used two dimensions of this scale (altruism and civic virtue) in China, leading to the acceptance of the validity of this scale.

Blakely, Srivastava and Moorman (2005, Table 14) also validated their empirical measurement of OCB with the 21-item scale developed by Moorman and Blakely (1992, 1995) based on Graham's (1989) dimensions of OCB, but also included items that referred to Organ's (1988) dimensions. The four dimensions included interpersonal helping, individual initiative, loyal boosterism, and personal industry.

**Table 14 Blakely, Srivastava and Moorman (2005) OCB’s Definitions**

OCB Forms	Definitions
Individual initiative	Individual initiative focuses on communications to others in the work place to improve individual and group performance.
Loyal boosterism	Loyal boosterism focuses on promoting the organisation's image.
Personal industry	Personal industry focuses on task performance above and beyond normal role expectations.
Interpersonal helping	Interpersonal helping focuses on helping co-workers when such help is needed

**Source: Blakely, Srivastava and Moorman (2005)**

Farh, Zhong and Organ (2002; 2004) applied an inductive approach in mainland China, developing an applicable OCB framework for future research. They identified: taking initiative, helping co-workers, voice, group activity participation and promoting company image, as OCB forms common to China and the West. Also, they considered self-development, social welfare participation, protecting and saving company resources, interpersonal harmony and keeping the workplace clean as extended Chinese forms of OCB.

Shi, Fan, Xu, Chen and Wang (2004) in their inductive study about the construct of OCB in China illustrated that taking initiative, altruism, voice, group activity participation and promoting company image as similar subtypes of OCB in the West, which is consistent with Farh et al. (2004). The extended OCB forms in China, according to Shi et al. (2004), includes self-development, protecting company interests, interpersonal harmony, social welfare participation, which, broadly speaking, are similar to Farh et al.’s (2004) study. However, their contribution shows new extended forms of OCB: keeping the departmental harmony and coexistence in adversity (Shi et al., 2005).

Based on their findings in China, Farh, Zhong and Organ (2004, Figure 1) and Shi et al. (2004, Figure 2) both proposed a concentric model of OCB. According to foci of action, all forms of OCB can be classified into four domains, which transcend from self to

group to organisation and then finally to outsiders and society.

**Figure 1 A Concentric Model of OCB Aspects One**



**Source: Farh, Zhong and Organ (2004, p. 259)**

**Figure 2 A Concentric Model of OCB Aspects Two**

A Concentric Model of OCB Aspects
<b>Society</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Social welfare participation</li><li>• Promoting company image</li></ul>
<b>Organisation</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Protecting company interests<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Voice</li></ul></li><li>• Coexistence in adversity</li><li>• Group activity participation</li><li>• Keeping departmental harmony</li></ul>
<b>Group</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Interpersonal harmony</li><li>• Helping co-workers</li></ul>
<b>Self</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Self-Development</li><li>• Taking initiative</li></ul>

**Source: (Shi, Fan, Xu, Chen and Wang, 2004, p.13)**

**2.3.4 A Comparison of OCB Constructs -The West and China**

I firstly summarised the etic and emic OCB construct (Table 15) before elaborating their definitions.

**Table 15 A Comparison of OCB Forms between the West and China**

	<b>Western OCB Construct</b>	<b>OCB Construct in China</b>
	Farh Zhong and Organ (2004), Soon, Ng, and Goh (2005) and Peloza and Hassay (2006)	Farh Zhong and Organ (2004), Shi et al. (2004)
<b>Etic</b>	Altruism	Helping Co-workers
	Civic Virtue	Group Activity Participation
	Conscientiousness Functional Participation	Taking Initiative
	Loyalty	Promoting Company Image
	Voice	Voice
	Self-development	Self-development
	Intra-organisational Volunteerism	Social Welfare Participation
<b>Emic</b>	Courtesy	
	Sportsmanship	
	Advocacy Participation	
	Taking Charge	
		Keeping Departmental Harmony
		Protecting Company Interests
		Coexistence in Adversity
		Protecting and Saving Company Resources
		Interpersonal Harmony
		Keeping the Workplace Clean.

## **Common OCB Patterns between the West and China**

Taking (individual) initiative. It indicates an employee's willingness to take on "additional responsibilities such as voluntarily working overtime, performing extra duties, and sharing useful work-related information" (Farh et al., 2004, p.246).

Helping behaviour. Helping behaviour in China is broader in scope than its Western counterparts in that it includes helping with work-related matters as well as caring about their personal difficulties (Farh, Zhong and Organ, 2004 and Shi et al., 2004). Actually, although it is not empirically tested in the West, Brief and Motowidlo (1986) propose that helping co-workers with personal matter is inclusive in the helping behaviour in the West.

Voice. "Making constructive suggestions or speaking up to prohibit harmful behaviour to the firm" (Shi et al., 2004; Farh, Zhong and Organ, 2004, p.246).

The fourth common dimension is group activity participation, which refers to "participating in activity organized by the firm or by special groups of employees" (Shi et al., 2004; Farh, Zhong and Organ, 2004, p.246-247).

The fifth common dimension is promoting company image (Shi et al., 2004; Farh, Zhong and Organ, 2004), which is similar to loyalty (Van Dyne et al. 1994) and loyal boosterism (refers to behaviours which promote the company to others outside the organisation) (Graham, 1991 and Moorman and Blakely, 1995).

However, the up-to-date research on OCB indicates self-development and social welfare participation are no longer extended OCB forms in China.

Self-development. It refers to acquiring knowledge and skills though utilizing one's own time and finance (Shi et al., 2004; Farh, Zhong and Organ, 2004) and enriching oneself by doing physical exercises (Shi et al., 2004). Self-development was identified by Katz and Kahn (1964) as one of those important areas of discretionary behaviours that go beyond narrow role requirements, and others have discussed it as well. Self-development has already been discussed by George and Brief (1992) and Podsakoff et al. (2000). According to George and Brief (1992, p.155) it may include "seeking out and taking advantage of advanced training courses, keeping abreast of the latest developments in one's field and area, or even learning a new set of skills so as to expand the range of one's contributions to an organisation." Recently,

Soon et al. (2004) validated such form of OCB, which allows for the contrast and compare between the Chinese OCB form and the Western OCB form.

Social welfare participation: It refers to “employees’ participation in activities of public welfare or community service” (Shi, et al. 2004; Farh, Zhong and Organ, 2004, p.247). Although it is considered as an extended form of OCB in China by previous research, to some extent, such phenomena exists in the West as well. For example, Pelozo and Hassay (2006) developed a concept of intra-organisational volunteerism, which is “to describe volunteer efforts made by employees within company-sanctioned programs on behalf of causes/organisations selected by their employer. The use of the term intra-organisational is consistent with terms such as intrapreneurship, which suggests that a given behaviour (Table 11) is performed within and for the benefit of the organisation” (p.360). Their qualitative study also supports the existence of such dimension of OCB in the West. However, it is important to note the nature of social welfare participation in China and intra-organisational volunteerism in the West are quite different, the former is developed by the central planned economy in China, which is only shifting to a market based economy recently, and the latter is fully based on the free market economy context.

### **Extended OCB Forms between the West and China**

Keeping the workplace clean (Farh et al., 2004). Organ (1988) suggests that cleanliness at the workplace is considered a form of conscientiousness in many organisations, and Van Dyne et al. (1994) include it in their measure of obedience, but it has not been investigated as a separate OCB dimension in the Western literature (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Protecting and saving company resources (Farh et al., 2004): It includes “actions that save company resources, use personal resources (e.g., money, information, social capital) to aid the company, and protect the company from disasters (e.g., fire or flood)” (Farh et al., 2004, p.247).

Compared with the study by Farh et al. (2004), an empirical research by Shi et al.(2004) indicated an integration of keeping the workplace clean and protecting and saving company resources into one broader dimension protecting company interests.

Another extended dimension is interpersonal harmony, which refers to “employee actions aimed at facilitating and preserving harmonious relations in the workplace” (Shi, et al. 2004;

Farh, Zhong and Organ, 2004, p.247). Organ (1988) once suggested “peace-making” as a form of OCB, but this dimension has been neglected in the Western OCB literature (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

One extended dimension about OCB by Shi et al. (2004) is keeping departmental harmony, which includes providing advice to facilitate the communication and cooperation among different departments in the organisation, helping solve conflicts and maintaining harmony among different departments, initiating help to other departments, regardless whether it is a part of one’s job description or not (Shi et al., 2004).

The other extended dimension by Shi et al. (2004) is coexistence in adversity, I define it as remaining committed to the organisation even under adverse conditions, where employees pull together with their organisation in times of hardship and adversities and go through them. Although it has never been empirically tested in the West, Podsakoff et al. (2000) view it as organisational loyalty and Brief and Motowidlo (1986) propose it as staying with the organisation despite temporary hardships.

### **Latent versus Aggregate Construct in OCB Research**

However, the importance of OCB forms or dimensions has led to confusion about its construct domain. Recently, researchers have begun to investigate the dimensionality of the various OCB forms for the purpose of exploring its higher order structure (e.g., Coleman and Borman, 2000; LePine, Erez, and Johnson, 2002; Zhong and Farh, 2003). According to their recent review (Zhong and Farh, 2003), there are four competing models in the extant literature: a) one factor model (LePine, et al., 2002); b) two factor model (Williams and Anderson, 1991); c) three factor model (Coleman and Borman, 2000); and d) four factor model (Farh, Zhong, and Organ, 2004).

The first classification scheme considers OCB as a uni-dimensional construct, i.e., the multiple OCB dimensions they came up with are all under the same OCB construct. LePine, Erez, and Johnson (2002) assert in their meta-analysis, that “they demonstrate that there are strong relationships among most of the dimensions and that the dimensions have equivalent relationships with the predictors (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, fairness, trait conscientiousness, and leader support) most often considered by OCB scholars” (Zhong and



Farh, 2003, p.4).

The second school is the two-category taxonomy proposed by Williams and Anderson (1991). They believed that OCB could be categorized into OCB-Organization and OCB-Individual. Based on their findings about what OCB could influence, they thought that OCB-O related to behaviour that benefits the organization in general when covering for someone unable to come to work, or adhering to informal rules devised to maintain order. Also, OCB-I could be recognized as behaviours that immediately benefit specific individuals and indirectly through these means contribute to the organization what may benefit the company indirectly such as cooperating with supervision or colleagues.

Coleman and Borman (2000) posited the third classification scheme. Through factor analysis, multidimensional scaling, and cluster analysis, Coleman and Borman (2000 in Zhong and Farh, 2003, p.5) reported the three-factor integrated model:

interpersonal citizenship behaviour—behaviours that assist, support, and develop organization members through cooperative and facilitative efforts that go beyond expectations; OCB—citizenship behaviours that demonstrate commitment to the organization through allegiance and loyalty to the organization and organization objectives, and compliance with organizational rules, policies, and procedures; and job/task citizenship behaviour—extra efforts that go beyond role requirements, demonstrating dedication to the job, persistence, and the desire to maximize one's own job performance.

This classification scheme differentiates job/task OCB from the OCB-O and OCB-I format.

The fourth classification system is adapted from Farh, Zhong and Organ (2004) and Shi et al. (2004). Based on their 11 OCB factors, Farh, Zhong and Organ (2004) further developed a concentric OCB model—an OCB classification system that is based on the foci of action, which ranges from self to interpersonal interaction to organization and finally to society. According to this classification scheme, OCB could be categorized into one of the four following domains: “The self domain includes OCB that are relatively independent from external influences: they are free from interpersonal interaction; these behaviours may not be visible to others in the organization and mostly occur in personal spheres (e.g. learning in private time); and few societal or institutional norms can restrict those behaviours” (Zhong and Farh, 2003, p.5). Self-improvement, conscientiousness, and keeping the workplace clean

are examples of this category. The interpersonal domain includes “OCB that are developed based on interpersonal interaction. It includes behaviours such as offering help to co-workers. In general, it overlaps with the OCB-I in previous studies (Williams and Anderson, 1991). Behaviours in this category are influenced by group norms and expectations” (Zhong and Farh, 2003, p.5). Interpersonal harmony and helping co-workers are OCB in the interpersonal domain. The third domain is the organization:

It includes behaviours that are salient organizationally wide. Because of the “publicity”, organizations often have strong expectations or norms about this category of behaviours. For instance, some organizations are open to suggestions or critics from their subordinates, whereas others expect their subordinates to remain silent. Thus, the extent to which subordinates would display citizenship behaviours that belong to the organization domain is strongly influenced by norms that prevail in the organization” (Zhong and Farh, 2003, p.5).

This category of OCB includes three OCB dimensions: Participating in Organizational Activity, Protecting and Saving Company resources, and Voice.

The last domain includes OCB that “occur outside of the organization or involve interactions with outsiders. These behaviours are especially susceptible to institutional norms and expectations because subordinates who engage in this form of OCB are in the position of boundary spanning” (Zhong and Farh, 2003, p.5). Social welfare participation and promoting company image are examples of this form of OCB. Their subsequent empirical tests support their concentric OCB model. Similar to Farh, Zhong, and Organ (2004), Shi et al. (2004) used the same classification to develop another 11 forms of the OCB model, in which there is much commonality with Farh’s OCB model; and two extended forms of OCB, namely, Coexistence in Adversity and Keeping Departmental Harmony.

From the above description, it can be concluded that OCB may be viewed as a multidimensional construct in China. However, Zhong, Farh and Organ’s (2003) and Shi et al.’s (2004) classification of OCB’s foci of action model (as stated by Farh, 2003) seems to be less relevant in the current debate about the latent model (OCB is composed of correlated dimensions and there are no differences in the antecedents of different types of OCB; Law, Wong, and Mobley, 1998; Law, Wong, and Chen, 2004) vs. the aggregate model (OCB is composed of multiple dimensions that are not necessarily correlated and there are differences in the antecedents of different types of OCB; Law, Wong, and Mobley, 1998; Law, Wong, and

Chen, 2004) in the extant OCB literature as to a unidimensional versus a multidimensional construct as re-emphasized by Farh (2003).

OCB has been considered as a multidimensional construct since its early introduction (Organ, 1998; Podsakoff et al., 2000). According to Law, Wong, and Mobley (1998), there are two alternative ways of defining the relationship between the OCB construct and its dimensions. Under the latent model, OCB exists as a latent construct at a deeper level than its dimensions and is defined as the commonality of its dimensions. Theoretically, OCB is defined as a psychological construct that represents the subordinates overall willingness to cooperate for the organization (e.g., Barnard, 1938; Katz and Kahn, 1966). Thus, various types of OCB are simply the manifestations of subordinates' willingness to exert extra efforts for the organization (Organ, 1999). "The common factor underlying these dimensions would, therefore, be a good way to represent this psychological state of the subordinates" (Law, Wong, and Mobley, 1998; Law, Wong, and Chen, 2004, p.16). Empirical evidence shows support for this contention (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Organ, 1997; Law, Wong, and Chen, 2004). For example, Organ (1990) contends that "most of the common variance, and several additional factors had no distinctive meaning common to their respective groups of items" (p.47). Additionally, even when different well-defined dimensions of OCB were identified in subsequent studies, the inter-correlations among these dimensions and their correlations with the overall performance rating of the supervisors were quite high (Mackenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1991; Law, Wong, and Chen, 2004). Therefore, Law, Wong, and Mobley (1998) conclude that supervisors do not view the individual OCB dimensions as independent since the various forms of OCB are part of an integrated evaluation of the extra-role performance for the subordinates and OCB may be conceptualized as the general willingness of a subordinate to contribute to an organization (Law, Wong, and Chen, 2004).

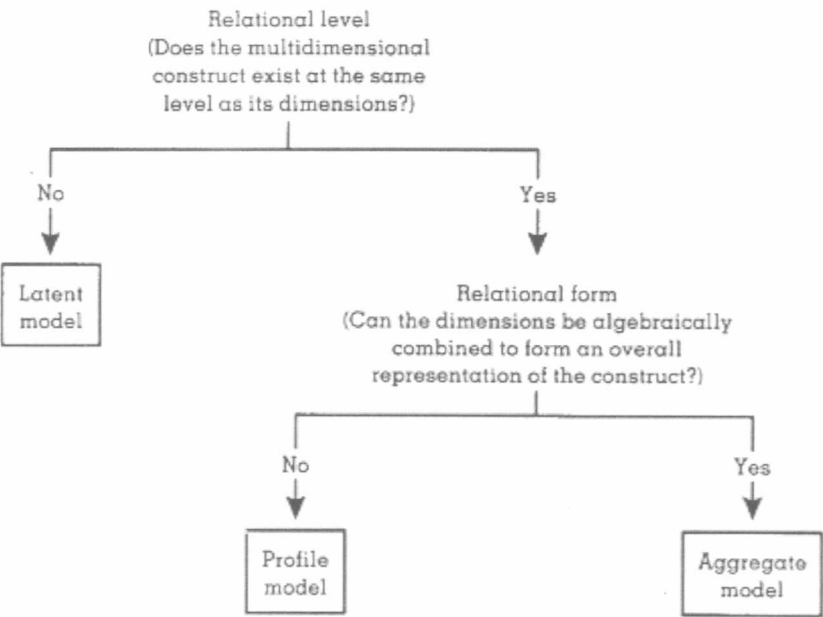
Under the aggregate model, OCB is defined as "an algebraic composite of its dimensions and is a unified set of extra-role behaviours on top of in-role performance" (Law, Wong, and Mobley, 1998; Law, Wong, and Chen, 2004, p.13). It is not a reflection of any psychological constructs but is in addition to task performance (Law, Wong, and Mobley, 1998; Law, Wong, and Chen, 2004). Theoretically, Organ (1988) states that "most OCB actions, taken singly, would not make a dent in the overall performance of an organization...that is in the nature of OCB -- any single occurrence of it usually is modest or trivial" (p. 6). From the definition of

OCB, one would make clear that OCB in the aggregate, “promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 4). For example, Law, Wong and Chen (2004, p.13) argue that

OCB defined under the aggregate model assumes that, in the eyes of the supervisors, the OCB dimensions are compensatory. For example, certain subordinates may be more task-oriented and therefore may make more effort in taking initiative. However, they may not exhibit civic virtue since the limited time at work. Thus, some subordinates may still be considered as good citizens of the organization by the supervisor when s/he performs exceptionally well in other OCB dimensions because it is the aggregate amount of all OCB behaviours exhibited by subordinates that is of interest to supervisors.

Given the above discussion, what are the implications for Chinese OCB research? Empirical studies support conceptualizing OCB under the aggregate model in China (Law, Wong, and Chen, 2004; Farh, 2003, Figure 3).

**Figure 3 OCB Construct Issues in China**



Source: Farh (2003, p.20)

Hence, it can be concluded that when analyzing OCB in China, it is better to view it as an aggregate model since Chinese managers may view the idea of OCB quite differently as compared with managers in the West and since the indigenous Chinese OCB forms are salient in functioning organizational effectiveness (Law, Wong, and Chen, 2004). Chinese supervisors may value subordinates who perform even one single form of OCB exceptionally

and therefore, after collecting data, it is better to analyze the different effects of antecedents on various forms of OCB (Law, Wong, and Chen, 2004; Farh, 2003).

In summary, in this review of OCB in the West and China, it can be concluded that the indigenous OCB in China is somewhat different from the way OCB is perceived in the West. A cultural explanation for this is attempted in the next section.

### 2.3.5 Chinese Culture and OCB

Cultural context can profoundly affect the attitudes, behaviour, and performance of individuals (Adler, 1983; Hofstede, 1983; Schwartz, 1994; House et al., 1999; Luque and Sommer, 2000), thereby encouraging or dissuading OCB-type performance (Paine and Organ, 2000).

A notable finding from Farh et al. (2004) and Shi et al. (2004) are that taking charge, advocacy participation, sportsmanship and courtesy can not be identified in China as OCB subtypes due to cultural differences. Here, I adopt a cultural lens to explicate the reasons why taking charge, advocacy participation, sportsmanship and courtesy are not reported by previous Chinese studies. Lam et al. (1999) found that in comparison with employees from Australia and the U.S., employees from Hong Kong and Japan were more likely to consider sportsmanship and courtesy as in-role behaviours. Hence, it is reasonable to argue that sportsmanship and courtesy exist in China, but they are more appropriate to be viewed as in-role behaviours. Farh et al. (2004) referred the findings to the work of Hofstede's (1991) cultural dimensions of *uncertainty avoidance* as well as *power distance*. Therefore, it is possible that sportsmanship matters more in a low *uncertainty avoidance*, low *power distance* culture, in which individuals may reasonably challenge decisions and actions by managers as extra-role behaviours. On the other hand, in a cultural context of higher *power distance* and risk-aversion, employees are more likely to be obedient to their leaders and view sportsmanship as part of their job. Courtesy involves the concept of *li*, which implies widespread standards of proper conduct and orderly relationships (Snell and Tseng, 2003). The failure to adopt *li* "would result in interpersonal and social sanctions with far graver consequences than any embodied in a penal code" (Steidlmeier, 1997, p.135). Thus, Chinese workers seem to view courtesy as part of their job. For the same reasons, I view taking charge as less likely to happen in China. In a high *power distance culture*, employees are less likely to take initiative on their own to play a leading role in directing company's change. Also, advocacy participation refers to behaviours targeted at other members of an organisation and reflecting a willingness to be controversial (Van Dyne et al., 1994). According to Farh et al. (2002), such type of behaviour indicates an

individual’s intention and potency of being controversial, while Chinese culture focuses upon the importance of harmony, and therefore, they are less likely to display such behaviour.

In Table 16, it is asserted that except for voice and self-development, other forms of OCB are derived from Chinese cultural values. Although high *power distance* culture does not encourage voice among workplace, Farh et al. (2004) and Shi et al. (2004) studies suggest that voice is a type of OCB in China, and therefore, it may be explained by China’s opening up to the West.

**Table 16 Chinese Cultural Characteristics and OCB**

Chinese Cultural Characteristics	OCB
Hierarchy and Group orientation	Taking initiatives;
<i>Guanxi</i>	Helping behaviour, Social welfare participation
Group orientation	Protecting company image
	Group activity participation,
Harmony	Interpersonal harmony, Keeping departmental harmony
Thrift	Protecting and saving company resources
	Keeping workplace cleaning, Protecting company interests
Group orientation and Harmony	Coexistence in adversity

The match between OCB and Chinese cultural characteristics are discussed below.

1. Hierarchy, Group Orientation and Taking Initiative

Blakely et al. (2005) argue that in China being high on hierarchy (like *power distance*), employers may expect more from employees and define their work roles more broadly. Hence, in order to complete their task and meet expectations, Chinese are more likely to exert every effort because they feel that they are obligated to satisfy leaders’ requirements (Wang et al, 2005). Furthermore, it is possible for Chinese to develop a strong sense of duty to their subordinates, co-workers and superiors because within a group orientation culture, Chinese would consider the group’s interest more important than individual interests; and support the common goals as well as protect the group’s welfare (Blakely et al. 2005). Thus, everyone

needs to work hard and to look after the whole work team and the organisation's interests. In Chinese culture, diligence is honourable and respectable, and workers therefore are more likely to work longer hours in order to complete their work.

## 2. Guanxi, Helping Behaviour and Social Welfare Participation

It may be surmised (Farh et al., 2004) that *guanxi* is in accordance with helping behaviours in China including helping with non-work related personal problems. In a particularistic culture, helping others is one way to build one's social capital. Non-work related helping may contribute a favour being returned in the workplace, and therefore, it may enhance individual efficacy.

Farh et al. (2004) argue that social welfare participation is an explicit requirement by governmental authority to meet quotas for state sanctioned social activities (such as blood donating, tree planting). They also state that firms taking part in such social activities aim to build good relationship with the government. Therefore, I view such relationship as *guanxi* between the public and organisation. For example, in addition to the active participation of state-owned companies, firms like Motorola China have developed a good relationship with the public, the government and local government based upon their active social welfare participation in exchange for business privileges (Shaw, 2005).

## 3. Group Orientation, Group Activity Participation and Promoting Company Image.

As mentioned earlier, Chinese individuals are likely to identify themselves as part of a specific group, team, or unit (Bond, 1996). Hence, after becoming a member of a specific non-work or work team, Chinese employees would become involved in the activities organised by such a group to build a strong, cohesive in-group for the purpose of gaining identity, protection, loyalty, trust and interdependent relationships. Hence, group orientation is the source of group activity participation.

Collectivist or group orientation creates a big sense of family (Liu, 2003). Thus, an organisation may be viewed as an extended family. Consequently, employees may well have personal attachment to their organisation. Hence, they are loyal throughout their lifetime to their "family" (organisation) keen to protect its reputation and strength.

## 4. Harmony, Interpersonal Harmony and Keeping Departmental Harmony

It is evident that the Chinese have a strong desire to build and maintain good relationship with

their superiors as well as with co-workers; they avoid conflicts and stress the importance of cooperation (Liu, 2003). Interpersonal harmony and keeping departmental harmony are most likely to mirror this Confucian ideology.

#### 5. Thrift, Protecting and Saving Company Resources, Keeping Workplace Clean and Protecting Company Interests

In the West, "cleanliness is next to the Godliness", is rather important in the West, and therefore, may not be an extended form of OCB. In Western research, "keeps workplace clean" has often appeared as just one item in the larger "compliance," or "conscientiousness" factor. Perhaps it has not emerged as a factor unto itself because offices and factories in North American have been placing much emphasis on how the workplace looks to visitors. And perhaps, many workplaces in China have historically not had as much resources to devote to maintenance and cleaning, so it is appreciated when workers do this on their own. Increasingly in the West, cleaning is outsourced so it is not considered as an in-role expectation. The viewpoint of Farh et al. (2004) is that it relates to the early economic stage of development of China. Together with keeping the workplace clean, protecting and saving the company resources is incorporated as by Shi et al. (2004) as one dimension of protecting company interests. My opinion is that the thrift characteristic of the Chinese may drive an extra effort in minimising the damage, and waste to their company resources (and Confucius taught the Chinese to value the products and working efforts of others).

#### 6. Group Orientation, Harmony and Coexistence in Adversity

Collectivistic culture demands Chinese employees to go through thick and thin with their organisation. Otherwise, if they left their organisations in times of trouble, they would be viewed as selfish. The Chinese saying, *he zhong gong ji* (work together with harmony and faithfulness in time of difficulty) (Leng, 2005) or bearing hardship (Chinese Cultural Connection, 1987) requires Chinese workers to pull together and maintain harmony when encountering organisational hardship and adversity (the Chinese believe that harmony creates unity in resolving problems).

From the above discussion, it can be concluded that the institutional change in China leads to the development of voice and self-improvement as new forms of OCB, which may be the consequences of China's exposure to the West. For example, Osigweh et al. (1993) found that among state-owned firms, experienced workers would share their skills with young workers in the early 1990s. However, Huo et al. (2002) reported that after the economic reforms, Chinese



employees felt that it was their responsibility to develop their own skills and knowledge. Such phenomena may be explained by the fear of being replaced by younger skilled workers as organisations no longer guarantee lifelong employment. In addition, due to the increasing importance of employees' emphasis on organisational justice, voice-as the result of opening to the West and the introduction of Western management practices becomes a new type of OCB.

**2.3.6 The Antecedents and Consequences of OCB in the West and China**

According to Paine and Organ (2000, p45-46), “it is possible that the cultural context itself may encourage or dissuade OCB-type performance, thus attenuating the effect of established antecedents of OCB as found in North American studies. It is likewise conceivable that national culture may influence those conditions (e.g., organisational commitment) that relate to OCB”. Hence, it is necessary to compare and contrast the antecedents and consequences of OCB between the West and China.

Nevertheless, some recent studies reported that workers exhibited OCB due to virtue. Nur and Organ (2006) reported that in their study of Management-by-Virtues as practiced in Christian firms, a management philosophy and practice based on virtues derived from religious beliefs, the Management-by-Virtues firms were characterized by more committed, more satisfied employees, and employees' reports of higher incidence of OCB than the comparison firms.

Snell and Tseng (2003) also argue that the Chinese engage in OCB since OCB and Chinese virtues are more likely to be overlapping. In Table17, Snell and Tseng (2003) provided a direct association between OCB and Chinese virtue. The left column in the table below reflects what is named “Chinese spiritual civilization programs” (adopted from Dirlik, 1989, p.36 in Snell and Tseng, 2003) aiming to “instil straight and clean thinking, cultural participation, orderliness, tidiness, and good manners”, and the right column of the table shows the different forms of OCB. I added two extended OCB dimensions: ‘keeping departmental harmony’; and ‘coexistence in adversity’ (Shi et al., 2004) to the table.

Table 17 OCB and Chinese Virtue

Spiritual Civilization	Dimensions of OCB
The cultural life of the organisation	Group activity participation
Good deeds	Helping behaviour
Hard work	Taking initiative
Warm, harmonious, co-operative relationships; Harmony (with leaders); Acts of heroism during fires, floods	Interpersonal harmony; Keeping departmental harmony; Coexistence in adversity; Group activity participation; Protecting and saving company resources
Self-cultivation	Self-Development
Devotion to service	Welfare participation
Clean environment; Honest relationships, no corruption; Creativity; Technological knowledge; Neighbourhood culture; No superstition	Protecting company interests; Keeping the workplace clean

Source: Snell and Tseng (2003, p.325)

The Antecedents of OCB

The extant literature and meta-analyses reported that empirical research on the antecedents of OCB has focused on several major categories including individual (or employee) characteristics (job attitudes and personality), leadership behaviors, task characteristics, team/group characteristics and organisational characteristics (Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000; LePine et al., 2002) in both the West and in China. Particularly, the effects of task and organisational characteristics are found primarily in leadership literature (Podsakoff et al., 1996b; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 1996b; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer, 1996a; Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie and Williams, 1993). The following discussion compares and contrasts the literature on the antecedents of OCB between China and the West.

Individual Characteristics

Following from Organ et al.'s (2005) review and meta-analyses and adding new research findings from job mobility (Thau et al., 2004), belongingness (Den Hartog, De Hoogh, and Keegan, 2007), job burnout (Taris, 2006) and organizational identity (van Dick, Grojean, Christ and Wieseke, 2006), the overall 'map' of individual OCB antecedents in the West is as

follows: Perceived Job Mobility; Supervisory Commitment; Organizational Commitment; Demographics; Personality; Trust in Supervisor; Perceived Fairness; Role Perceptions; Job Satisfaction; Trust in Organization; Belongingness; Job Burnout and Organizational Identity.

In comparison, the picture in China is the following:

### Perceived Job Mobility

There is a negative relationship between perceived job mobility and OCB in China. Hui, Law and Chen (1999) demonstrated that perceived job mobility predicted OCB well. Perceived job mobility refers to “an individual’s perceived ease of movement between organizations: the more perceived job alternatives and better market opportunities, the higher the perceived job mobility” (Hui, Law and Chen, 1999, p.6). Based on Becker’s (1960) “side-bet” theory (investments already made by employees in the organization, which would be lost if they were to leave). Hui, Law and Chen (1999) argue that OCB could be construed as employees’ investment in the organization, continuously reassessed as to their cost-benefit in continuing the investment. Therefore, “when employees perceive little job mobility, they are more likely to perform OCB. Conversely, when employees perceive more job mobility they are less likely to perform OCB” (Hui, Law and Chen, 1999, p.7).

### Job (In)security

The effects of job (in)security on OCB depend on both organizational types and employees’ trust in their organization (Wong, Wong, Ngo and Liu, 2005). Based on psychological contract theory, their study showed that, when transactional exchange was not salient, then job insecurity effected negatively on employees’ trust in their organization and consequently their OCB (Wong et al., 2005). On the other hand, when transactional exchange was salient, employees tended to increase their OCB (Wong et al., 2005). The first study concerned joint ventures. The second study was conducted in state-owned companies. It is appropriate to argue that employees’ reaction to job insecurity is more complicated if considering both relational and transactional exchange. Specially, “when job security has been reduced, the employer may offer some short-term transactional benefits that are contingent on individual’s performance and OCB” (Wong et al., 2005, p.1411). If such economic benefits are desirable, employees are more likely to perform OCB.

### Organizational Commitment and Supervisory Commitment

Affective commitment (the emotional attachment to the organization and the desire to be a

member of the organization: Allen and Meyer, 1990) has been reported to be an antecedent of OCB (Chen and Francesco, 2003, Snap, Chan and Redma, 2006). Supervisory commitment (loyalty to supervisor) is positively related to OCB and even better in predicting OCB than organizational commitment (Wong, Wong and Ngo. 2002; Chen, Farh and Tsui, 1998, 2002).

Chen and Francesco (2003) and Allen and Meyer (1996) explicate that since affective commitment is less likely to be formally and explicitly rewarded by the organization, it would seem logical that affective commitment may act as the motivational base for behaviours that do not rely primarily on reinforcement or formal and explicit rewards.

Supervisory commitment (loyalty to supervisor) is positively related to OCB and it is even better in predicting OCB than organizational commitment. Loyalty to supervisor is defined as “the relative strength of a subordinate’s identification with, attachment, and dedication to a particular supervisor” (Chen et al., 2002, p.341). Following Reichers (1985), Becker (1992) using the multi-foci commitment approach demonstrated that employees’ foci of commitment (e.g., commitment to top management, supervisor, and workgroups) accounted for unique variances in job satisfaction, intention to quit, and prosocial organizational behaviours above and beyond the variance of commitment to organization. Becker et al. (1996) argue that acting as an agent of the organization, supervisory commitment is most likely to have a strong impact on employee behaviour. Likewise, an empirical study in Taiwan supports this assumption since supervisors often interact with employees on a daily basis, enacting the formal and informal procedures of organized activities and, most importantly, serving as an administrator of rewards to subordinates (Farh, Podsakoff and Organ, 1990). In their research, Chen, Farh and Tsui (2002) investigated the relationship between loyalty to supervisor and employee's in-role and extra-role performance in comparison with that of organizational commitment in China. They found that loyalty to supervisor was better than organizational commitment in predicting in role and extra role performance. Subsequent research (Wong et al., 2002) also reported that subordinates’ loyalty to supervisor was positively associated with OCB. The only exception is that Chen, Zhang and Sego (2003) found that loyalty to supervisor was negatively related to OCB.

### Demographics

Farh, Zhong and Organ (2001) reported that age, gender, job function and managerial level were differential antecedents of OCB. Age was negatively related to protecting company image, interpersonal harmony, and self-development (Farh, Zhong and Organ, 2001). Younger

workers performed better than older ones in those three types of behaviours (Farh et al., 2001). Gender was found to differentiate on some forms of OCB – i.e., voice and keeping the work environment clean. Men were more likely to speak up, but less likely to keep the work environment clean (Farh et al., 2001). Managerial and non-managerial staff appeared to differentiate on some types of OCB, namely, voice and promoting company image (Farh et al., 2001). Managerial staff was more likely to exhibit those behaviours than non-managerial staff. Finally, employees in different job functions appeared to engage in different forms of OCB (Farh et al., 2001). Administrative staff seemed to display a higher level of self-development than employees in production and marketing, and a higher level of social welfare participation than marketing staff; whilst marketing staff were more likely to engage in promoting the company image to outsiders, compared to administrative staff (Farh et al., 2001).

### Personality

Personality variables including conscientiousness and agreeableness have been found to predispose likelihood to engage in OCB (Xian, 2005). Agreeableness correlated significantly with OCB toward individuals; whilst hierarchy moderated the relationship between conscientiousness and OCB toward the organization. In other words, it seems that for agreeable individuals, whether they hold hierarchical or egalitarian values may not have much impact on their OCB. For conscientious employees however, having higher respect for hierarchy increases their OCB toward the organization, compared to those with lower hierarchical values.

### Trust in Supervisor

Trust in supervisor was found to be a good predictor of OCB in China (Wong, Wong and Ngo, 2003). Trust in supervisor refers to “an employee's positive expectations regarding their supervisor's conduct and intentions, and is a form of dyadic or interpersonal trust” (Wong et al., 2003, p.483). On the basis of social exchange theory, the relationship between trust and OCB, as Konovsky et al. (1994) noted, trust is the basis for relational contracts and social exchange. Relational exchange between supervisors and subordinates leads employees to expend much time and energy on tasks, to be innovative in completing tasks, and to accept responsibilities in addition to those specified in their employment contracts (Konovsky et al., 1994). Relational contracts therefore encourage employees to behave in ways that are not strictly mandated by their employers and are directed toward serving the collectivity (Graham, 1991). Hence, trust is a manifestation of social exchange and social exchange accounts for OCB (Wong et al., 2003).

### Trust in Organization

Trust in organization was reported to influence OCB in both Chinese state-owned enterprises and joint ventures (Wong, Wong and Ngo, 2006). Despite numerous studies about trust and OCB, the relationship between trust in organization and OCB is as yet not established since most research on trust and OCB focuses on OCB and trust in supervisor and/or trust in management (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Wong et al.'s (2006) study filled in such gap and provided a deeper insight into the ways which trust in the organization can foster the development of employees' OCB.

### Perceived Fairness

Begley, Lee, Fang and Li (2002) examined the interaction of power distance and perceived fairness on OCB in China. They found that procedural justice (whether or not employees perceived organizational decisions are made equitably and with the necessary employee input) was positively related to OCB for employees high on power distance; however, distributive justice (whether or not employees perceive that they are fairly rewarded given their level of training, tenure, responsibility or workload) was what matters for those low on power distance.

From the above discussion, role perception, job burnout, belongingness and identification and job satisfaction have not been explored in China. Podsakoff et al. (2000) reported that role perceptions (or role stressors as they are sometimes called) including perceptions such as role conflict (incompatibility between the expectations of multiple role partners or between aspects of a single role) and role ambiguity (uncertainty about what is required to fulfil a role) have been found to be negatively related to OCB, since role stressors reduce employees discretionary time to engage in OCB. It also causes employees less concern about the work group welfare (Jex and Thomas 2003). Likewise, it is suggested "role overload [the extent to which employees perceive the pace and amount of their work to be consistently demanding] is negatively related to OCB because it reduces the amount of discretionary time available for engaging in OCB and because it reduces the employee's commitment to the group" (Organ et al., 2005, p.171). Three meta-analyses by Organ et al. (1995), Podsakoff et al. (2000) and LePine et al. (2002) and previous empirical studies (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Graham, 1986; Kemery et al., 1996; Moorman, 1993; Motowidlo, 1984; Motowidlo et al., 1986; Organ and Konovsky, 1989; Puffer, 1987; Scholl et al., 1987; Smith et al., 1983; Wagner and Rush, 2000) and the conceptual rationale proposed by Organ (1988, 1990) provided support for a hypothesized positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCB based on the US samples

since employees need to reciprocate the organisation or their organisational officials make their efforts to create a satisfied working condition for them or job satisfaction represents positive affect, according to Rosenhan et al. (1974), leading to prosocial gestures such as OCB (Bateman and Organ, 1983). Job burnout can reduce OCB engagement since it may (a) lose resources, (b) threat to current resources, and (c) make inadequate return on investments made to maximize resources (Hobfoll, 1988). Belongingness and identification elicit a sense of oneness with the organization, which makes the individual take the organizations perspective and goals as his or her own (Van Knippenberg, 2000)

## **Leader Behaviours**

Whilst the extant literature as to OCB antecedents of leadership in the West is presented based on Organ et al.'s (2005) review and meta-analyses, they are: Transformational Leadership; Transactional Leadership Behaviour; Leader-Member-Exchange; Abusive Leadership; Servant Leadership and Instrumental and Supportive Leader Behaviours. Transformational Leadership (Chen and Farh, 2001; Wang et al., 2005), Transactional Leadership (Chen and Farh, 2001), Leader-Member-Exchange (Hui, Law and Chen1999; and Hui et al., 2004) as well as the *Guanxi* between Leaders and Their Immediate Subordinates (Wong et al., 2003) were all found to be reliable predictors of OCB in China.

### Transformational Leadership

Chen and Farh (2001) found that data from 410 subordinate-supervisor dyads (287 in Taiwan and 123 in China) suggested that, among the six types of transformational behaviours, “providing an appropriate model” and “demonstrating high expectation of performance” significantly affected the performance of OCB in China. Likewise, Wang et al. (2005) also showed transformational leadership was associated positively with OCB in China. Transformational leader behaviours are defined as those behaviours that make followers more aware of the importance and values of task outcomes, activate their higher-order needs and induce them to transcend self-interests for the sake of the organization (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders motivate employees to give priority to larger collective interests rather than individual interests (Podsakoff et al., 1990) and therefore, it increases employees’ OCB (Wang et al., 2005).

### Leader-Member-Exchange



Hui, Law and Chen (1999), Hackett, Farh, Song and Lapierre (2003), Chang et al. (2007) and Wang et al. (2005) reported that leader-member-exchange (LMX) and OCB were strongly and positively related with each other. "In high-quality LMX relationships, obligations are often diffuse and unspecified, and no standard or values against which gifts, favours, or contributions can be measured is present" (Blau, 1964, cited in Wang et al., 2005, p.421). Employees can reciprocate the diffuse, unspecified, and weakly time-bound exchange through their engagement in OCB. Moreover, "in high-quality exchange, leaders appeal to the higher-order social needs of followers by getting them to place collective interests over short-term personal gratification" (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995, cited in Wang et al., 2005, p.421). Furthermore, Wang et al. (2005) showed that LMX mediated between transformational leadership and OCB.

### Transactional Leadership

Transactional leaders clarify to their followers their responsibilities, the tasks that must be accomplished, performance objectives, and the benefits to the self-interests of the followers in compliance (Bass, 1985). Chen and Farh (2001) illustrated that among four types of transactional behaviours, inappropriate punishment had negative effects on OCB performance in China. Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2005, p.97) state that "when leaders administer punishments on a noncontingent basis, employees are likely to perceive that as unfair, causing their liking for and trust in the leader to diminish."

### The *Guanxi* between Leaders and Their Immediate Subordinates

Wong, Ngo and Wong (2003, p.484) defined subordinate-supervisor *guanxi* as "the relationship between a subordinate and their immediate supervisor, and this definition has the sense of 'social connections' based on mutual interest and benefit". There is only one empirical study conducted by Wong et al. (2003) concerning subordinate-supervisor *guanxi* and OCB, which revealed that the *guanxi* between subordinate and one's immediate supervisor may be a good predictor of OCB. Such a social exchange is best illustrated by the Chinese saying: "One person honours some other person a linear foot, the other person should in return honour him ten feet" (*ren jing ni yi chi, ni jing ren yi zhang*) and "Receive a droplet of generosity; repay like a gushing spring" (*di shui zhi en dang yi yong quan xiang bao*) (Chen and Chen, 2004, p.371).

### Abusive Leadership



Abusive leadership was demonstrated to be negatively related to OCB in China (Aryee, Chen, Sun and Debrah, 2007). Abusive supervision refers to “subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in sustained display of hostile, verbal and non-verbal behaviours excluding physical contact” (Tepper, 2000, p.178). Aryee et al.’s research (2007) showed that the social exchange perspective (Blau, 1964) explicated that as a form of negative reciprocity, abused subordinates displayed reduced levels of OCB.

From the above review, it seems that servant leadership (setting examples for subordinates and inspiring subordinates by serving them to engage in OCB, Organ et al., 2005) and instrumental and supportive leader behaviours (employees perceived those leader behaviours as helping behaviours so that they need to reciprocate, Organ et al., 2005) have not been explored in China, whilst *guanxi* has not been studied in the West.

### The Effects of Team/Task Characteristics on OCB

The extant literature as to OCB antecedents of team/task characteristics in the West is presented in Table 18 based on Organ et al.’s (2005) review and meta-analyses.

**Table 18 Group/Task Characteristics and OCB in the West**

Group Characteristics	Reasons for Antecedents
Group Cohesiveness	Having stronger feelings of attraction, a stronger desire to be the members of the team, group identity and satisfaction and trust (Organ et al., 2005).
Team-Member-Exchange	Increasing team members’ relationship quality, satisfaction, trust, group cohesiveness, group commitment, and team identity and team norms of OCB (Organ et al., 2005).
Group Potency	Enhancing group collective interests (Organ et al., 2005).
Perceived Team Support	Teams support improves team members’ commitment (Organ et al., 2005).
Cooperative Work Environment and Open Discussion of Conflict	Though there are no empirical studies in the North America, there are many studies relating cooperative goals to outcomes that would seem to be highly related to OCB.
<b>Task Characteristics</b>	
Task Interdependence	Increased cooperation.
Task Feedback	All of those task characteristics enhance employees’ job satisfaction (Organ et al., 2005).
Task Routinization	
Intrinsically Satisfying Tasks	

Source: Organ et al. (2005)

The OCB research in China is reported as follows. Tjosvold, Hui and Yu (2003) and Tjosvold, Hui, Ding and Hu (2003) found that a team's cooperative work environment and open discussion were the antecedents of a team's extra-role performance. Tjosvold, Hui and Yu (2003) and Tjosvold, Hui, Ding and Hu (2003) studied the team's cooperative, competitive, and avoiding approach to conflict management; and the team's in-role and extra-role performance in China. They found that cooperative approaches to conflict and task reflexivity, and cooperative team goals were complementary foundations for effective teamwork and promote a team's OCB.

In a cross-cultural experiment using a sample from graduate students in China and the USA, Bachrach et al. (2007, p.3) found that task interdependence ("the extent to which employees depend on other members of their team to carry out their work effectively") could serve as the predictor of OCB since task interdependence increased employees' cooperative effort in their work.

From the above discussion, it seems that except cooperative work environment and open discussion of conflict and task interdependence, other antecedents of OCB, need to be further explored in China.

### **The Effects of Organisational Characteristics on OCB**

Perceived organisational support predicts employees' display of OCB in both China and in the West (Hui et al., 2004). In a sample of 605 dyads of employees and their immediate supervisors from a large, reformed state-owned company, organisational support was found to relate to affective commitment more strongly than to OCB (Hui et al. 2004). Perceived organisational support (POS) theory assumes that the "organisation's readiness to provide employees with the necessary aid to perform their jobs effectively, reward and recognise increased work effort, and provide for their socioemotional needs in times of stress determines employees' beliefs about the extent to which their organisation values their contributions and is concerned about their well-being" (Organ et al., 2005. p.124). Organisational support theory also addresses the psychological processes underlying consequences of POS. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002, p. 699) state that:

First, on the basis of the reciprocity norm, POS should produce a felt obligation to care about the organisation's welfare and to help the organisation reach its objectives. Second, the caring, approval, and respect connoted by POS should fulfil socioemotional needs, leading workers to incorporate organisational membership and role status into their social

identity. Third, POS should strengthen employees’ beliefs that the organisation recognises and rewards increased performance (i.e., performance-reward expectancies). These processes should have favourable outcomes for both employees (e.g., increased job satisfaction and heightened positive mood) and for the organisation (e.g., increased affective commitment and performance, and reduced turnover).

In addition, other literature on OCB antecedents of organisational characteristics in the West is presented in Table 19 based on Organ et al.’s (2005) review and meta-analyses, which have not been examined in China.

**Table 19 Organisational Characteristics and OCB in the West**

Organisational characteristics	Reasons for Antecedents
Distance Between Employee and Others in the Organisation	Reducing the levels of the affective and relationship quality with others (Organ et al., 2005).
Organisational Constraints	Organisational constraint limits employees’ ability to perform OCB (Organ et al., 2005).
Organisational Formalization and Inflexibility	Organ et al. (2005, p.124) illustrated “both organisational formalization and organisational inflexibility were positively related to employee job satisfaction, commitment, and trust, and they had positive indirect effects on all five types of OCB (altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue) through job satisfaction and trust. In addition, organisational inflexibility was also found to have a direct negative effect on employee altruism, and organisational formalization was found to have a direct negative effect on employee civic virtue.”

**Source: Organ et al. (2005).**

To sum up, this part reviewed here the individual characteristics, leadership behaviours, team characteristics and organisational characteristics for the antecedents of OCB identified in China.

## **The Consequences of OCB**

The consequences of OCB in the West and China focus on both managerial decision-making and organisational effectiveness.

### Managerial Decision

Podsakoff et al. (2000) reported that (a) OCB/contextual performance had a positive impact on several important personnel decisions made by managers; (b) the weight of this evidence suggested that the effect of this form of performance is at least as great as the effect of in-role performance; (c) there was evidence to suggest that in-role and extra-role performance may interact when influencing managerial judgments and decisions; and (d) common method variance had a substantial impact on the relationships between OCB/contextual performance and managerial judgments; although this bias generally weakens these relationships, it does not eliminate them. Farh et al. (2001) also reported that in China supervisors' rating of subordinates' engagement in OCB were positively related to their supervisors' subjective rating of their performance.

### Organisational Effectiveness

Bateman and Organ (1983) conceptualised the idea of "innovative and spontaneous behaviour" (Katz and Kahn, 1966, p. 337) as an OCB consequence. Later, empirical studies by Podsakoff et al. (1993), Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) and Walz and Niehoff (1996) supported this contention. Podsakoff et al.'s (2000) in a meta-analysis (3 samples, 462 work teams) demonstrated that OCB may be responsible for about 19% of the variance in performance quantity and 18% in performance quality, respectively; about 25% of the variance in financial efficiency indicators; and about 38% of the variance in customer service indicators. Podsakoff et al.'s (2000, p.543-546) summarized that OCB may contribute to organisational success by:

- (a) enhancing co-worker and managerial productivity;
- (b) freeing up resources so they can be used for more productive purposes;
- (c) reducing the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions;
- (d) helping to coordinate activities both within and across work groups;
- (e) strengthening the organisation's ability to attract and

retain the best employees; (f) increasing the stability of the organisation's performance; and (g) enabling the organisation to adapt more effectively to environmental changes.

In China, given the construct of Chinese OCB discussed in the previous section, one should take note of cultural values. The collectivistic nature of the Chinese culture (Hofstede, 1991) suggests that workers will seek ways to help each other. One's co-workers are part of the organizational family, and traditional values place great emphasis on such relationships. Similarly, employees who strongly identify with the organization (i.e., high civic virtue) and seek to protect company resources from abuse and protecting company benefits will do what it takes to improve organizational performance (Yen et al. 2004). It has been suggested that to work in a culture that promotes citizenship creates a positive working environment for employees (Organ, 1988). Similarly, Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 545) argue that "OCB may enhance the organization's ability to attract and retain the best people by making it a more attractive place to work." In China, OCB is likely to be a behavioural predictor of employee turnover. Chen, Hui and Sego (1999) empirically examined the strength of the relationship between OCB and turnover. Specially, good citizens stay longer in the organization. Chen (2004) further conducted three studies collecting data from a total of 583 supervisor-subordinate dyads across 23 organizations in China. The results indicated that OCB was a significant predictor of employees' intent to leave and voluntary turnover. Specifically, OCB explains incremental significant variance above and beyond job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Furthermore, OCB explains significantly more unique variances in voluntary turnover than in turnover intention.

Chen et al.'s (1998) and Chen's (2004) explanation is that levels of OCB reflect the degree of attachment to and involvement in the organization. Firstly, displaying lower levels of OCB do not directly impact employees' monetary payoffs, since OCB are "behaviours of a discretionary nature that are not part of employees' formal requirements" (Organ, 1988, p.4; Chen et al., 1998 and Chen, 2004). Moreover, consistent with Borman and Motowidlo (1993) and Chen et al. (1998), Chen (2004, p.357) argues that at "the lower the levels of OCB, the stronger the indication of the unwillingness of the employee to be part of the organization, the higher the possibility that the employee would have the intent to leave and would leave the organization." Finally, Chen (2004) explained why OCB predicted employee turnover from the cognitive dissonance theoretical perspective (Festinger, 1957). Chen (2004, p.357) states "the essence of the cognitive dissonance theory is that people will feel disturbed when there are inconsistencies between their attitudes, or between their attitude and behaviour, or between

their behaviours.” Therefore, the intent to leave and high levels of OCB are inconsistent attitude and behaviour, and high levels of OCB and voluntary turnover are two inconsistent behaviours. The result of this may be that employees have to either reduce the level of OCB or change one’s mind about quitting.

However, what is unknown in the Chinese society is whether OCB can enhance service quality or not. In the survey of OCB and service quality in Taiwan (Yen and Niehoff, 2004), it was found that OCB might not enhance service quality. They offered three reasons for why OCB may not relate to the quality of service in Taiwan. Firstly, they suggested this may be due to industry differences in the studies’ samples banks in Taiwan vs. fast-food restaurant in the USA. Secondly, in Taiwan, employers and co-workers are valued and viewed as part of one’s family. There is strong devotion to one’s family, relatives, friends, and close relationships. Hence, customers may be viewed as outsiders. Thirdly, the differential effects of customer-oriented citizenship behaviours (COCB) and OCB may be held accountable for this.

From the above examination, based on Organ et al.’s (2005) thorough review, I indicate: Individual Performance Evaluation; Turnover; Managerial Decisions and Quality of Performance as the consequences of OCB research in the West, however, only Individual Performance Evaluation and Turnover have been explored in China (Farh et al., 2002; Chen et al., 1999; Chen, 2004).

### **2.3.7 The Antecedents and Consequences of OCB in the West and China: Common Cases and Research Gaps**

In addition to the comprehensive literature review by Podsakoff et al. (2000) and Organ et al. (2005), and summarising recent new empirical research on OCB’s antecedents by myself: abusive leadership (Tepper, 2000), job mobility (Thau et al., 2004), belongingness and charismatic leadership (Den Hartog, De Hoogh, and Keegan, 2007); job burnout (Taris, 2006) and organizational identity (van Dick, Grojean, Christ and Wieseke, 2006). In the following table (Table 20), the extant empirical studies of the antecedents and consequences of OCB (to date) in the West and in China are reported; and the existing research gaps between China and the West are outlined.

**Table 20 The Antecedents and Consequences of OCB in the West and China: Common Cases and Research Gaps**

	Common Cases	Research Gaps
<b>Job Attitude and Personality</b>		
The West	Perceived Job Mobility Supervisory Commitment	<i>Trust in Organization</i> <i>Job (In)security</i>
China	Demographics Personality Trust in Supervisor Organizational Commitment Perceived Fairness	<i>Role Perceptions</i> <i>Job Satisfaction</i> <i>Job Burnout</i> <i>Organizational Identity</i> <i>Belongingness</i>
<b>Leader Behaviour</b>		
The West	Transformational Leadership	<i>Guanxi or Equivalent</i>
China	Leader-Member-Exchange Abusive Leadership Transactional Leadership	<i>Servant Leadership</i> <i>Instrumental and Supportive Leader</i> <i>Charismatic Leadership</i>
<b>Task Characteristics</b>		
The West	Task Interdependence	
China		<i>Task Feedback</i> <i>Task Routinization</i> <i>Intrinsically Satisfying Tasks</i>
<b>Group Characteristics</b>		
The West	Cooperative Work Environment Avoiding Conflict	
China		<i>Group Cohesiveness</i> <i>Team-Member-Exchange</i> <i>Group Potency</i> <i>Perceived Team Support</i>
<b>Organizational characteristics</b>		
The West	Perceived Organizational Support	
China		<i>Organizational Formalization and Inflexibility</i> <i>Distance Between Employee and Others in the Organization</i> <i>Organizational Constraints</i>
<b>Consequences of OCB</b>		
The West	Individual Performance Evaluation	
China	Turnover	<i>Managerial Decisions</i> <i>The Quality of Performance</i>

## **2.4 Trust in Supervisor and Loyalty to Supervisor**

### **2.4.1 Trust in Supervisor**

In their meta-analysis of previous research for at least four decades, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) reported that trust in leaders played an important role in several leadership theories: Transformational and charismatic leaders build trust in their subordinates for leader effectiveness; trust as an element of leader–member exchange theory; topics in the current discussion of management and psychological study about job attitudes, teams, communication, justice, psychological contracts, organisational relationships, and conflict management; and across the disciplines of organisational psychology, management, public administration, and education.

#### **Definition of Trust in Supervisor**

Various definitions of trust have been developed. Zand (1972) views trust as the conscious regulation of one's dependence on another. Cook and Wall (1980) claim that trust is the extent to which one is willing to ascribe good intentions to and have confidence in the words and actions of other people. Trust refers to state involving confident positive expectations about another's motives with respect to oneself in situations entailing risk (Boon and Holmes, 1991). Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman define trust as "the willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party's behaviours" (1995, p. 712). A widely accepted definition is provided by Rousseau et al. (1998, p. 395) defining trust as "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon expectations of positive intentions or behaviour of another."

As pointed out by Dirks and Ferrin (2001), different researchers tend to use slight variations on this definition and operationalise trust as an expectation or belief that one can rely on another person's actions and words, and/or that the person has good intentions toward oneself. In China, trust in supervisor refers to "an employee's positive expectations regarding their supervisor's conduct and intentions, and is a form of dyadic or interpersonal trust" (Wong et al., 2003, p.483), which "can be viewed as a psychological state comprising an employee's intention to accept vulnerability based upon expectations of positive intentions or behaviour of their supervisor (Wong et al., 2003, p.483).



Additionally, Costigan, Itler and Berman (1998) also argue for a multi-dimensional perspective of trust in workplace, including both dyadic and institutional trust. Dyadic or interpersonal trust (e.g., trust between a focal employee and their co-workers, and trust between a focal employee and their supervisor) has both a cognitive and an affective component (Lewis and Weigert, 1985; McAllister, 1995). The former pertains to the rational decision to trust, which is based on good reasons such as responsibility and dependability; while the latter involves a deep emotional investment in a relationship.

## **Types of Trust**

Trust can be conceptualised as a complex, multidimensional psychological state that includes cognitive-based and affective-based trust (McAllister, 1995; Lewis and Weigert, 1985).

Trust is cognitive-based which can be described as “we choose whom we will trust in which respects and under what circumstances, and we base the choice on what we take to be ‘good reasons’, constituting evidence of trustworthiness”(Lewis and Weigert, 1985, p. 970). It hinges on an appraisal of the other's track record – the competence and reliability this person has demonstrated in the past.

On the other hand, the affective foundation for trust is composed of the emotional bonds between individuals (Lewis and Weigert, 1985). It arises from social interactions with others, and reflects confidence in others that develops along with concern for their welfare (Lewis and Weigert, 1985; Rempel, Holmes, and Zanna, 1985).

Cognitive forms of trust reflect issues such as the reliability, integrity, honesty, and fairness of a referent. Affective forms of trust reflect a special relationship with the referent that may cause the referent to demonstrate concern about one's welfare. Other definitions have implicitly combined these two dimensions into an overall measure of trust—which scholars consider to be a combination of affective and cognitive forms—or have implicitly or explicitly focused on one of them (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001; 2002ab).

Dietz and Hartog (2006, p.558-560) also believe trust can be broken down into three constituent parts: trust as a belief (“a subjective, aggregated, and confident set of beliefs about the other party and one's relationship with her/him, which lead one to assume that the other party's likely actions will have positive consequences for oneself”), as a decision (“the decision to actually trust the other party”), and as an action (“engaging in any of the

trust-informed risk-taking behaviours”).

As described earlier, trust could be built on either a socio-emotional basis (affect-based trust) or an instrumental basis (cognition-based trust), which are distinct from each other (McAllister, 1995; Lewis and Weigert, 1985). The distinction between cognition and affect-based trust is not restricted to the Western conceptualization of the trust construct. Chinese scholars have also highlighted this distinction, one marked in the Chinese term for trust, the compound word “*xing-ren*”. The first part, “*xing*”, refers to trustworthiness in the sense of a person’s sincerity and concerns for one’s welfare (Chen and Chen, 2004). The second part, “*ren*”, refers to a person’s trustworthiness in the sense of dependability, usability, and employability, which suggests that competence and reliability are also important components of the Chinese concept of trust. This sincerity-ability distinction of trust in the Chinese context corresponds well with the Western conceptualization of cognitive and affective trust (Chen and Chen, 2004). Past research in China (Wong et al., 2003; Farh, Tsui and Xin, 1997) used both affective and cognitive-based trust to test trust and superior-subordinate *guanxi* relationship. Although they did not provide an explanation for this, the following reason (Farh, Tsui, Xin and Cheng, 1997) may account for it, as Farh et al. (1997, p.486) state that in the supervisor-subordinate dyad, “subordinates may be assigned to the supervisor (or supervisors may be restricted in which subordinate they can hire).” Hence, in measuring trust in supervisor, both affective and cognitive-based trust are required. Some writers maintain that workplace trust is developed primarily through an organisation’s leaders (Connell, Ferres and Travaglione, 2003). For this to occur Whitener et al. (1998) advise that managers must be encouraged to make the first move and that the initiation of this process, is the challenge (and arguably the responsibility) of management.

## Trust Foci

To date, most of the trust studies have focused on trust in direct leaders; that is, supervisor, manager, and work group leader (e.g. Aryee et al., 2002; Davis et al., 2000; Deluga, 1995; Dirks and Ferrin, 2001; 2002ab; Tan and Tan, 2000), while some research focuses on trust in organisation (Aryee et al., 2002; Tan and Tan, 2000) and trust in management (Mayer and Davis, 1999; McCauley and Kuhnert, 1992). Trust directed towards horizontal relationships involving peers and co-workers has largely been geared towards studying of teams comprising between three and six members (e.g. Dirks, 2000; Langfred, 2004). The trust that develops between subordinates and their supervisors is likely to differ in dynamics from that between peers due to the positional bases of influence inherent in subordinate–supervisor relationships.

Institutional trust is the employee's trust in the organisation's CEO and top management (Fox, 1974). McCauley and Kuhnert (1992) contend that an employee's trust in the senior management is associated with the organisation-wide system and effectiveness of the reward system. Hence, institutional or senior management trust is more impersonal than dyadic trust. Wong et al. (2003) pointed out the differences between two major types of trust, trust in organisation and trust in supervisor, both of which are vertical types of trust. Trust in organisation is a form of institutional trust, which includes an employee's trust in both the employing organisation and the organisation's senior management (Ashford, Lee and Bobko, 1989; Fox, 1974). Trust in supervisor refers to an employee's positive expectations regarding their supervisor's conduct and intentions, and is a form of dyadic or interpersonal trust (Wong et al., 2003).

Some empirical research has explored trust in organisation and trust in senior management. For example, McCauley and Kuhnert (1992) found that system-wide variables (such as the fairness of the organisation's performance appraisal system and job security) explained additional and unique variance in trust in management over and above job and relational variables (such as job autonomy and supervisory support). Costigan, Itler and Berman (1998) reported that the focal employee's trust of the CEO and senior management was highly and negatively correlated with the employee's desire to leave the organisation.

## **Theoretical Perspectives of Trust in Leader**

The extant literature can be viewed in terms of two qualitatively different theoretical perspectives of trust in leadership in the literature: a relationship-based perspective and a character-based perspective (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002ab; Dietz and Hartog, 2006).

The relationship-based perspective is concerned about the nature of the leader-subordinate relationship, and more precisely, how the subordinate understands the nature of the relationship. Evidence of this perspective shows that a social exchange process “denotes a high-quality relationship on the basis of trust, goodwill, and the perception of mutual obligations, and issues of care and consideration in the relationship” (e.g., Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Blau, 1964; Dirks and Ferrin, 2002a; Dirks and Ferrin, 2002ab, p.4; Dietz and Hartog, 2006). It deals with employees’ understanding about the leader-subordinate relationship. That is, individuals who feel that their leader has, or will, demonstrate support, goodwill, kindness,

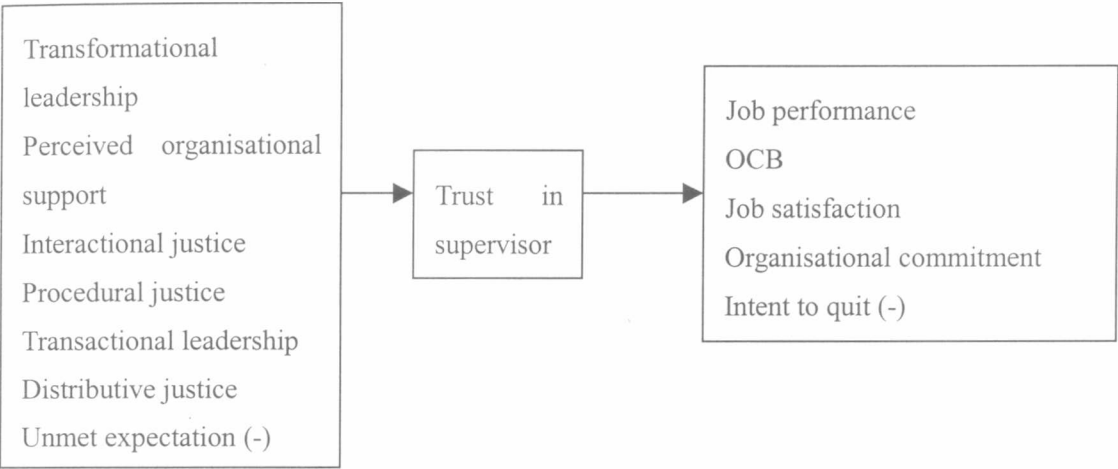
care and consideration tend to reciprocate this sentiment in the form of desirable behaviours (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002ab). Konovsky and Pugh (1994) detail that a social exchange relationship encourages individuals to spend more time and extra effort on required tasks and be willing to exhibit OCB.

The character-based perspective, in contrast, is concerned about the perception of the leader's character and how it impacts a subordinate's vulnerability in a hierarchical relationship (e.g., Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, 1995; Dirks and Ferrin, 2002ab). According to this perspective, trust-related concerns about a leader's character are important because the leader is decision-maker that have a significant impact on a subordinate and the subordinate's ability to achieve his or her goals (e.g., promotions, pay, work assignments, layoffs) (e.g., Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, 1995; Dirks and Ferrin, 2002ab). This perspective implies that "subordinates make inferences about the leader's characteristics such as integrity, dependability, fairness, and ability and that these inferences have consequences for work behaviour and attitudes" (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002b, p.4). Drawing on this idea, Mayer et al. (1995) develop a model proposing that when subordinates believe their leaders have integrity, capability or benevolence, they should be more comfortable engaging in behaviours that put them at risk (e.g., sharing sensitive information). For example, Mayer and Gavin (1999) suggest that "when employees believe their leader cannot be trusted (e.g., because the leader is perceived not to have integrity) they will divert energy toward 'covering their back', which can detract from employees' work performance" (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002b, p.4). Empirical research applying this perspective includes models of trust based on characteristics of the trustee (Mayer et al., 1995), research on perceptions of supervisor characteristics (e.g., Cunningham and MacGregor, 2000; Oldham, 1975; Dietz and Hartog, 2006). Both theoretical perspectives suggest that trust may result in higher performance and OCB-- but reach this end by distinct, and potentially complementary, routes.

## **The Antecedents and Consequences of Trust in Supervisor**

Dirks and Ferrin (2002) provide a comprehensive review of the antecedents and consequences of trust in leader (supervisor), which is reported in the table below.

**Table 21 The Antecedents and Consequences of Trust in Leaders**



**Source: Dirks and Ferrin (2002)**

A recently published review of the antecedents and consequences of trust in leadership resulted in the following consequences: belief of information; organisational commitment; decision commitment; OCB; job satisfaction; satisfaction with leaders; leader-member exchange; and intention to stay; acceptance of influence; absence of monitoring; attribution of positive motives, mutual learning, and to positive outcomes such as high levels of co-operation and performance (Bijlsma and van de Bunt, 2003).

Moreover, *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate and job security were found to be the predictors of trust in supervisor in China (Wong et al., 2003). Recently, Huang and Iun (2006) reported subordinate-supervisor similarity in their self-reported growth-need strength (GNS) (a worker's need to obtain "growth" satisfaction from his supervisor) had a positive effect on subordinate-perceived and supervisor-perceived global similarity. The findings also suggested that subordinate-perceived global similarity mediated the link between similarity in GNS and subordinate's trust in and loyalty to supervisor.

**2.4.2 Loyalty to Supervisor**

**Definition and Construct**

Before discussing loyalty to supervisor, several concepts must be made clear. That is supervisory commitment or commitment to supervisor and loyalty to supervisor. Supervisory commitment is defined as the psychological attachment of workers to their supervisor (Benkhoff, 1997). Becker et al. (1996) reported commitment to supervisor as two dimensions: identification with supervisor and internalisation of supervisor's values. They define

identification as “a subordinate’s respect for the values and accomplishments of the supervisor, and a feeling of pride of being a subordinate of the supervisor”, and internalization as occurring when “the values of the individual and the supervisor are identical” (Chen et al., 1998, p. 1).

Supervisory loyalty (loyalty to supervisor) has been reported to be the most significant character in the dyadic relationship between subordinates and supervisors in Chinese business enterprises. Based on several Chinese indigenous studies including case studies and large-scale questionnaire administrations, researchers have built the constructs and measurement of Chinese supervisory loyalty. Loyalty to supervisor is defined as the “relative strength of a subordinate’s identification with, attachment, and dedication to a particular supervisor” (Chen et al., 1998, p.341). Studies by Chen et al.’s (1998), Chen, Farh and Tsui (2001) and Chen (2002) in China found that loyalty to supervisor was more appropriate to take over the term commitment to supervisor to represent subordinate’s attachment to supervisor because personal loyalty is better described as personal attachment rather than as an impersonal form of commitment.

Based on an empirical study conducted in a Chinese setting, Chen et al. (1998, p.650) validated that loyalty to supervisor had five dimensions:

- (1) dedication (willingness to dedicate to the supervisor or seek and promote the supervisor's welfare at the expense of personal interests);
- (2) effort (willingness to exert extra effort on behalf of the supervisor);
- (3) following supervisor (desire to be attached to and follow the supervisor);
- (4) identification with supervisor (feeling of pride being a subordinate of the supervisor);
- (5) internalisation (congruence with the supervisor’s values).

A recent study (Jiang, Cheng and Jen, 2005) indicated that in comparison with Western concept, Chinese supervisory loyalty not only had commonality with the Western construct of identification and internalisation, but also had Chinese indigenous constructs, such as sacrifice and dedication, task assistance, obedience and compliance, and initiative supportiveness. Obviously, the concept of supervisory loyalty is much more comprehensive in Chinese than in Western contexts. One would explain these differences as social culture influences; however, the concept of supervisory commitment, which derived from organisational commitment in Western context, would limit the scope of the concept. As a result, it is believed that constructs developed in a Chinese context would be also applicable in a Western context and

may compensate the gap in comparative literatures (Jiang, Cheng and Jen, 2005). Using 160 dyadic samples from the United States and 400 dyadic samples from Taiwan, the results showed that those indigenous supervisory loyalty constructs developed in a Chinese context were also valid in the United States, and the relationships between the two constructs of supervisory loyalty and employee outcomes in both the Western and the Chinese samples, were similar in most cases in the two locations (Jiang, Cheng and Jen, 2005).

### **Loyalty to Supervisor: Antecedents, Consequences and Correlations**

Compared with Westerners, Chinese have a stronger sense of responsibility and obligation towards those who have closer relationships with them. The traditional Chinese culture also emphasises conformity and respect for authority. Thus, commitment to supervisor may be of particular relevance for understanding the work behaviour of Chinese employees (Wong and Kung, 1999; Chen, Farh and Tsui, 1998, 2002).

The studies of loyalty to supervisor generate rich meaning in China. Initially, some researchers have studied loyalty to boss (boss, in the Chinese setting, refers to the person who is both the top manager and the owner of a company) or CEO (Cheng, 1995; Zhou, 1983), and loyalty to organisation and boss (Lee, 1992). Although Lee (1992) has developed a scale for measuring employee loyalty to organisation/boss, all items in her scale measure loyalty behaviour rather than loyalty per se, which is an attitude (Chen, Farh and Tsui, 1998). In the West, following Reichers (1985), Becker (1992) using the multi-foci commitment approach demonstrated employees' foci of commitment (e.g., commitment to top management, supervisor, and workgroups) accounted for unique variances in job satisfaction, intention to quit, and prosocial organisational behaviour above and beyond the variance of commitment to organisation. Becker et al. (1996) argue that as an agent of the organisation, supervisory commitment is most likely to have a strong impact on employees' behaviour. Empirical evidence in Taiwan supports this assumption because the supervisor often interacts with employees on a daily basis, enacting the formal and informal procedures of organized activities and, most importantly, serving as an administrator of rewards to subordinates (Farh, Podsakoff and Organ, 1990).

There are a few studies concerning the antecedents of supervisory commitment. Using the framework of social exchange theory, Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe's longitudinal study (2003) found perceived supervisory support was a statistically significant antecedent of



supervisory commitment. Interestingly, the close relationship between supervisors and subordinates where subordinates are highly identified with their supervisors may not always benefit the organisation (Elangovan and Shapiro, 1998). For example, Elangovan and Shapiro found that when employees strongly identified with an unethical supervisor, the likelihood of them conducting betrayal behaviours increased. Kanungo and Mendonca (1996) also indicated in the case of a close supervisor-subordinate relationship, the relevance of the supervisor's personal integrity became salient. Empirical study in China showed that there was a direct effect of employees' perception of interactional justice and of trust in supervisor on their loyalty to supervisor, while the mediation effect supported trust in supervisor as a mediating variable between interactional justice and loyalty to supervisor (Wong, Wong and Ngo, 2002). Recently, Huang and Iun (2006) reported that subordinate-perceived global similarity mediated the link between similarity in growth-need strength and subordinate's trust in and loyalty to supervisor.

As to the extant literature on the consequences of supervisory commitment in the West and China, it has been found to be an important predictor of workers' job performance (e.g. Becker, 1992; Becker et al., 1996), OCB (Gregersen, 1993), satisfaction with supervision (Wong and Kung, 1999; Chen, 2001) and intention to stay within the organisation (Chen, 2001). A recent study illustrated that after controlling for other forms of commitment, affective commitment to supervisors explained unique variance in in-role performance and courtesy. Affective commitment to organisations did not. After controlling for other forms of commitment, affective commitment to organisations explained unique variance in loyal boosterism. Affective commitment to supervisors did not. Continuance commitment to supervisors and organisations was unrelated to performance (Becker et al., 2003). Research findings also indicated that supervisory commitment was more positively related to job performance (Chen, et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2003; Siders, George, and Dharwadkar, 2001) and OCB (Gregersen, 1993; Chen, et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2003) than was organisational commitment. However, Chen, Zhang and Sego (2003) found that loyalty to supervisor might have a negative impact upon employee's OCB.

Cheng (1995) suggests some potential consequences of loyalty to CEO, including unconditional compliance to boss, being regarded as an "insider", obtaining an increased chance for promotion, and being trusted by the boss. Lee (1992) proposes the following outcomes for loyalty to boss/organisation: becoming an insider, getting a promotion, being praised, getting more benefits, and willingness to remain in an organisation. It is stated that



some assumptions about the relationship between employee and boss or CEO may also be generalized to the relationship between subordinate and supervisor (Chen, Farh and Tsui, 1998). Furthermore, loyalty to supervisor may have a profound effect on organisational commitment (Wong and Kung, 1999; Wong, Wong, Hui and Law, 2001). “As common moral standards, these concepts are not limited to the subordinates’ loyalty to their superiors. They represent appropriate attitudes and behaviours towards other people and organisations” (Wong and Kung, 1999; Wong, Wong, Hui and Law, 2001, p.334).

Balance theory may explain the consistency between supervisory loyalty and organisational commitment. Heider’s (1958) balance theory suggests that in order to sustain positive social relationships, the individuals and the relevant other’s attitudes toward a third entity should be consistent. Hence, subordinates who have high levels of loyalty to their supervisors should have high levels of commitment to their organisations since their supervisors are representatives of their organisations.

In terms of its correlations, research by Chen (2001) demonstrated that loyalty to supervisor was positively associated with job satisfaction and was a good predictor of employee’s turnover intention. Luia and Wong (2005) demonstrated that Chinese mainland managers in examining a subordinate’s loyalty to supervisor, namely identification, internalization, dedication, effort and following supervisor, showed that the ‘effort’ dimension had a positive effect on wage whereas the ‘following supervisor’ dimension had a negative effect on wage, which was contrary to common perception, that is, loyal subordinates may not get higher wages.

### **2.4.3 The Differences between Trust in Supervisor and Loyalty to Supervisor**

Although researchers (e.g. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter, 1990) developed a measurement about trust / loyalty to supervisor, in which they view trust and loyalty as similar concepts and constructs, recent studies show that trust and loyalty are quite different. Comparing the definitions of both trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor mentioned in the previous section, it can be said that both of them have a common point that the subordinate is willing to act or exert effort for the supervisor. However, a subordinate will trust his/her supervisor only if s/he believes that the supervisor is benevolent, has integrity, and is capable. The subordinate will not necessarily hold the following attitudes: respect for the values of the

supervisor and pride in being his/her subordinate; a strong desire to follow the supervisor; and a willingness to be dedicated to the supervisor (Chen, Farh and Tsui, 1998). Empirical evidence strongly supports the contention that trust and loyalty are different in terms of concept and construct (Chen, Farh and Tsui, 1998, Wong et al., 2002; Wong et al., 2003).

Trust may act as the antecedent of supervisory loyalty. Based on the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980), I suggest that loyalty to supervisor can be developed for two reasons. According to the theory of reasoned action, the most important determinant of employees' loyalty to supervisor is behaviour intent (Montano et al., 1997). The individual's intention (to display loyalty) is a combination of attitude (toward trust in supervisor) and subjective norm (Montano et al., 1997). Subjective norm refers to the perception of how others would evaluate a particular behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Loyalty to supervisor as the outcome of trust in supervisor is derived from the individual reasoning process since in describing the commitment-trust theory in the West, Morgan and Hunt (1994) found that work relationships characterised by trust engendered co-operation, reduced conflicts, increased the commitment and diminished the tendency to quit (Costa, 2003). Likewise, the Chinese societal norms indicate that Chinese leaders are concerned more about subordinates' loyalty than any other criteria (House et al., 1999; 2004; Fu et al., 2006; Cheng et al., 2002). For example, Cheng et al. (2002) reported that Chinese leaders valued subordinates loyalty more than factors such as social ties and affective exchange and competence, and loyal employees received better treatment. The societal norms in China with the emphasis on loyalty (Earley, 1989; Warner, 1993) are likely to reinforce employees' loyalty to supervisor since social duty and obligation values conformity and respect for legitimate authority at work based on leaders' integrity, benevolence, ability and reliability, which is conducive to the development of employees' loyalty to supervisor.

In addition, lying on the foundation of social exchange theory, supervisory loyalty can be fostered by trust in supervisor. McAllister (1995) notes that frequent and long-term interaction between individuals (e.g. subordinate and supervisor) result in the formation of emotional attachment based on reciprocated interpersonal care and concern. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) assumes that trust emerges through the repeated exchange of benefits between two individuals. In a social exchange, one individual provides a benefit to another, invoking an obligation on the other party to reciprocate by providing some benefits in return. It is therefore expected that, in the long run, subordinates who have a higher level of trust in supervisor will also develop a higher level of loyalty to supervisor. Since an employee's trust

in supervisor is dyadic and interpersonal, and is derived from repeated interactions over time between subordinate and supervisor, it is reasonable to expect that the employees' trust in supervisor will have a positive impact on the development of the employees' loyalty to supervisor (Wong et al., 2002). There is only one empirical study to support that trust in supervisor is a predictor of loyalty to supervisor (Wong et al., 2002).

## **2.5 Supervisor and Subordinate *Guanxi***

### **2.5.1 *Guanxi* Origin and Meaning**

In Confucian society, the word *guanxi* "is not found in the Confucian classics; instead, the word *lun* is used" (King, 1991, p. 67). "*Lun* refers to moral principles regarding interactive behaviours of related parties" (Chen and Chen, 2004, p.308). In their review of the meaning and origin of *guanxi*, Ordóñez de Pablos (2005) and Chen and Chen (2004) state that "*Guan*" means door or gate. "*Xi*" means tie up. It generally refers to relationships or social connections based on mutual interests and benefits according to norms of reciprocity (Bian, 1994; Gold et al., 2002; Yang, 1994).

### **2.5.2 *Guanxi* Base**

A *guanxi* base (relationship) can be classified into the following three categories (Jacobs, 1979): (1) Relationship by birth or blood: family kinships and in-laws; (2) Relationship by nature: locality (from the same town or province), classmate or alumni, teacher-student, co-worker, colleague or superior-subordinate, neighbour and in the same profession; (3) Relationship acquired: acquaintance: knowing the same person (intermediary), friend and sworn brotherhood.

The first group is blood bases and largely predetermined. The second and third categories are socially based (Tsang, 1998).

### **2.5.3 Concepts Related to *Guanxi*: *Renqing* or Favour; *Xinyong* or Trust**

To fully understand *guanxi* and its managerial implications, it is also necessary to analyse the concepts of *renqing* or favour and *xinyong*. The basic logic of *guanxi* is reciprocity (*renqing* or favour). *Renqing* is a set of social norms "by which one has to abide in order to get along well with other people in Chinese society" (Hwang, 1987, p. 954; Ordóñez de Pablos, 2005). This

term emphasises “the values of maintaining personal harmony and social order among persons situated in a hierarchically structured relationships” (Hwang, 1987, p. 946). Others believe “the principle of *renqing* implies not only a normative standard for regulating social exchange but also a social mechanism that an individual can use to strive for desirable resources within a stable and structured social fabric” (Hwang, 1987, p. 946; Ordóñez de Pablos, 2005).

The Chinese word *xinyong* literally means the use or usefulness of trust. At a general level, *xinyong* “refers to integrity, credibility, trustworthiness, or the reputation and character of a person. In business circles, *xinyong* refers to a person's credit rating” (Yang, 1994, p. 84; Ordóñez de Pablos, 2005). There is a link between *guanxi* and *xinyong*. Good *guanxi* fosters the development of reliable *xinyong*. In China “the actions of government are more unpredictable and the outcomes of any legal action uncertain. The arbitrary nature of formal law and government leads to the development of informal rules” (Yang, 1994, p. 70; Ordóñez de Pablos, 2005). Thus, the importance of personal trust emerged as a result of the lack of confidence in the legal system. On the other hand, trust or *xinyong* is not a static concept (Ordóñez de Pablos, 2005). After the establishment of trust, its development and maintenance are dependent on the performance and the continuous perseverance. The time taken to build trust depends on the quality of the *guanxi* already developed (Ordóñez de Pablos, 2005).

#### **2.5.4 The Principles of Norm of Reciprocity for *Guanxi***

Yang (1995) stipulated the reciprocity principles within a Chinese social ethic as applied to *guanxi*:

- (i) when a person offers a favour it should be accepted,
- (ii) when a favour is given one is obligated to return it,
- (iii) one should attempt to return the favour promptly,
- (iv) when asked for a favour, one should comply (at least in part),
- (v) one should wait for the favour to be returned, not request its return.

#### **2.5.5 Key Characteristics of *Guanxi***

At an interpersonal level, the logic of reciprocity is far from being predetermined. Chung and Hamilton (2002) make the following statement: First, “there is no specification on when a person should return a received favour” (p.9). Second, “the amount of exchange can be flexible. However, both persons need to perceive them more or less equal” (p.9). Third, “intentionally the particular type of returned favour is not explicitly determined” (p.9). Chung

and Hamilton (2002) state “there is, literally no way to quantify the favour in order to find out whether they are of equal values. Indeed, the whole point of *renqing* is its indeterminate nature: open-needed, flexible, oriented towards a future that is unknown and unknowable” (p. 9). Four, “there is no well-defined norm on how much a person should give in return for a previous favour” (p. 9).

Likewise, Luo (1997) points out five key characteristics of *guanxi*. First, *guanxi* is transferable. If A has *guanxi* with B and B is a friend of C, then B can introduce A to C or vice versa. The success of transferability depends on how satisfied B feels about his *guanxi* with A and C, respectively. Second, *guanxi* is reciprocal. A person who does not follow a rule of equity and reciprocity and refuses to return favour for favour will lose his face (*mianzi*) and be perceived as untrustworthy. Third, *guanxi* is intangible. It is established with overtones of unlimited exchange of favours and maintained in the long run by unspoken commitment to others in the web. Four, *guanxi* is essentially utilitarian rather than emotional. It bonds two persons through the exchange of favours rather than through sentiment. Lastly, *guanxi* is personal. *Guanxi* among organisations is initially established by, and continues to build upon, personal relationship.

### 2.5.6 The Supervisor-Subordinate *Guanxi*

Wong, Ngo and Wong (2003, p.484) define subordinate-supervisor *guanxi* as “the relationship between a subordinate and their immediate supervisor, and this definition has the sense of ‘social connections’ based on mutual interest and benefit”. *Guanxi* is also conceptualised as “a quality relationship that determines the appropriate behaviours and treatment of each other” (Chen and Tjosvold, 2006, p.1730).

To some extent, *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate may be a fusion with the Western concept of leader-member-exchange. There are both similarities and differences between LMX and *guanxi*. The differences are as follows: 1) *guanxi* is informal and unofficial, but it exerts certain influence on the formal and official leader and member relations. 2) unlike LMX in the West, the level of leader and members are negotiated, in the Chinese society, the expectation of instant returns and the bargaining of interests should be discouraged, but returning another person’s favours is an obligation expected within the whole of Chinese society (Hwang, 1987). For example, Law et al. (2000) conducted an empirical investigation in China about *guanxi* and other organisationally relevant concepts. Results illustrate that (1) supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* concept is different and unique when compared to other similar

concepts in the Western literature such as leader–member exchange (LMX) and commitment to supervisor; (2) supervisor–subordinate *guanxi* will affect the Chinese supervisor’s administrative decisions on promotion and bonus allocation after controlling for performance.; (3) *guanxi* can be measured by concrete behaviour/activities.

The similarities between *guanxi* and LMX are that they are both developed through the repeated social exchange and represent high quality of relationship. LMX is argued to develop through three sequential stages, "stranger," "acquaintance," and "partner," each of which relies successively less on instrumental transactional exchange and more on social exchanges of a "transformational" kind (Liden and Maslyn, 1998; Dienesch and Liden, 1986; Graen and Cashman, 1975; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995) and view each other as in-group member (e.g., Liden and Maslyn, 1998; Dienesch and Liden, 1986), which is consistent with the development of *guanxi* stage (Chen and Chen, 2004).

In terms of employer-employee relationship in the West, Kanter (1972) posits two types of relational ties. One type is nonrational, affective, emotional, traditional and expressive; the other is rational, contractual, instrumental, and task-oriented. Likewise, in the Western network resources literature, relational ties have been conceptually differentiated into instrumental (the advancement of the interests of the individual) and expressive (socio-emotional support) (Fombrun, 1982; Fombrun, 1983; Ibarra, 1993; Bozionelos, 2003). In Confucianism, the *guanxi* ideal is posited as “the moral principles regarding interactive behaviours of related parties” (Chen and Chen, 2004, p.308). It should be affectively and emotionally oriented rather than cognitively and instrumentally. Nevertheless, in the reality of contemporary Chinese societies, the *guanxi* ties as suggested by empirical evidence have been viewed as both instrumentally and expressively oriented (Bozionelos and Wang, 2006; Chen and Chen, 2004), and thereby, rendering the research of *guanxi* ethical status more complex. Particularly, in the business-to-business relationship, Luo (1997) proposes that *guanxi* is essentially utilitarian rather than affective. However, Fan (2002) proposes that from a Chinese perspective it does not justify to count certain *guanxi* practices as ethical if they are unacceptable in the West though seem to be ‘acceptable’ in China. On the one hand, *guanxi* is considered as an important and salient contributor to effective management of human resources. Table 22 provides a summary about the extant literature including superiors and subordinate *guanxi* research.

**Table 22 Summary of Extant Empirical Studies on *Guanxi* in Organisational Behaviour and Human Resource Management**

Authors	Findings
Tsui and Farh, (1997)	Relational Demography and <i>guanxi</i> in the Chinese setting would have both similarities and differences such as age, gender, and race in vertical dyads on various work outcomes, which would improve trust and performance.
Farh, Tsui, Xin and Cheng (1998)	<i>Guanxi</i> may play an important role in the choice of a relationship, and that the choice may subsequently affect the dynamic (i.e., mutual trust) in a relationship. Subordinates may trust their <i>guanxi</i> -based bosses more because those bosses may have gotten them their jobs. Executives may trust their <i>guanxi</i> -based associates more because those associates have provided them valuable help. In both cases <i>guanxi</i> generates expressions of trust because the subordinates "owe" their bosses their jobs or because the executives "owe" their associates their success, not necessarily because of friendship or role obligation due to particularistic ties between the two individuals
Tsui et al. (2000)	Relational Demography and <i>Guanxi</i> in the Chinese setting would have both similarities and differences in demographic characteristics, such as age, gender, and race in vertical dyads on various work outcomes, which would improve trust and performance.
Law et al. (2000)	<i>Guanxi</i> would not undermine supervisor's performance rating and is distinct from the Western concept of leader-member exchange.
Cheng et al. (2002)	Loyalty is more important than <i>guanxi</i> from the supervisor's perspective.
Wong, Wong and Ngo (2003)	Supervisor-subordinate's <i>guanxi</i> would enhance subordinates' OCB and trust in supervisor.
Chen et al.(2004)	Procedural justice would mediate the negative practice of <i>guanxi</i> , which would undermine the trust in organisation.
Chen and Tjosvold (2006)	It was reported that cooperative, but not competitive or independent goals helped Chinese employees and their foreign and Chinese managers strengthen their quality relationships as measured by supervisor–subordinate <i>guanxi</i> and leader–membership exchange; quality relationships in turn enhanced effective participative leadership as measured by the opportunity for joint decision-making and the open-minded discussion of opposing views (constructive controversy).
Song and Werbel (2007)	<i>Guaxi</i> is important in job search.
Chen and Tjosvold (2007)	It was found that high quality leader–member relationship and personal <i>guanxi</i> promoted constructive controversy between Chinese employees and their American managers, which in turn facilitated employees receiving challenging jobs and promotions.



First, as an organisational agent, the supervisor interacts with subordinates often on a daily basis, enacting the formal and informal procedures of organisational activities, and such work relationships with their subordinates form an integral part of any work reality. Second, the creation of a social network (*guanxi*) is driven by human needs to belong, which motivates the establishment of significant interpersonal relationships and frequent contacts with other people (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Burroughs and Eby, 1998; Zemke, 1996; Osigweh and Huo, 1993). The one-child policy in China (in place since 1978) forces the new generation to seek brotherhood and/or sisterhood with people they interact with. Thereby, the development of interpersonal relationship is fostered. Third, informal, unofficial relations of *guanxi* between superior and subordinates are not easily separable from formal, official work relations. Trompenaars et al. (1997) observe that in 'specific' cultures in the West, both superior and subordinates work relations may not assume the right to intervene in each other personal life. However, in 'diffuse' cultures like China, there is no clear demarcation between personal and organisational life. The whole person would be involved in a business relationship and it would take time to build such relationships. Fourth, Chinese employees are more likely to develop relationship with their organisations through daily interaction with their supervisors: this rather specific characteristic of Chinese work culture has been referred to as particularism (Farh, Earley, and Lin, 1997; Trompenaars and Hampton-Turner, 1997) or personalism (Redding, 1990) or lateral relationship (Smith et al., 2002).

Lastly, *guanxi* between supervisors and subordinates would facilitate effective organisational outcomes. For example, a high level of supervisor and subordinate's *guanxi* was found to be the generator of a high level of subordinates trust in leaders (Wong et al., 2003; Tsui and Farh, 1997; Farh, Tsui, Xin and Cheng, 1998; and Tsui et al., 2000); a high level of OCB and reduced turnover (Wong et al., 2003); a high level of in-role performance (Tsui and Farh, 1997; Farh, Tsui, Xin and Cheng, 1998; Tsui et al., 2000); and employees joint decision-making and open-minded discussion of opposing views between managers and employees in joint ventures (Chen and Tjosvold, 2006; 2007). Empirical research also reported that high quality of *guanxi* between supervisors and subordinates facilitated their concern about and consideration of each other after work (Law et al., 2000). Others also observe that *guanxi* is useful in daily problem solving at the workplace and to one's long-term career prospects (Xin and Pearce, 1996; Bu, 2005); and in successful job seeking (Song et al., 2007). In addition, *guanxi* communicates warm-heartedness to others. Warm-heartedness involves the direct expression of personal support and openness to another. It is thought to communicate that the other is accepted and their relationship is valued. Indifference, on the



other hand, expresses a disinterest in the relationship and little openness to the other person. Considering this rationale, Chen (2006, p.3) defines warm-heartedness as “communication of genuine warmth to others”, which looks similar to consideration and benevolence; it is originally from Chinese culture. Results of her experiment indicated that communicating warm-heartedness rather than indifference, and structuring mutual rather than independent or comparative rewards, helped foreign managers develop cooperative goals, strong leader-member relationships with their Chinese employees and facilitated their leadership.

In terms of *guanxi*'s antecedents, job security (Wong et al., 2003); cooperative goals between supervisor and their subordinates (Chen and Tjosvold, 2006) and demographic similarities (Tsui and Farh, 1997; Farh, Tsui, Xin and Cheng, 1998; and Tsui et al., 2000) were found to strengthen manager and employees quality of *guanxi*.

### **2.5.7 *Guanxi* and Organisational Injustice**

On the other hand, *guanxi* may have some negative outcomes. First, *guanxi* can encourage organisational injustice. For example, Chen, Chen and Xin (2004) found a negative relationship between unethical *guanxi* practices in human resources management and employees' trust in management including *guanxi* negative influence on employees' promotion, bonuses and salary, task allocations and performance appraisals. Bozionelos and Wang (2007) illustrated that employees' *guanxi* with their boss, top level managers or even important outsiders was instrumental in extending performance related pay and positive evaluations.

However, from the Chinese perspective, those negative consequences are also considered ethically unacceptable. With the change of emphasis on human resource management practices towards individualisation (e.g., employment contract) and furthering individuals' autonomy, accompanied by the inflow of vast foreign investment (Child and Warner, 2002; Child, 1994; Warner, 1997; Gold et al., 2002), organisational justice is increasingly emphasised by Chinese workers (Zhang, Farh and Wang, 2006) and it is believed there is a shift of cultural values from 'particularistic' to 'universalistic' ones (Chen, Chen, and Xin, 2004). For example, Guthrie (1998) found that Chinese executive managers were increasingly distancing themselves from negative *guanxi* practices. Hui and Tan (1996) showed that Chinese employees expected their supervisors to exercise sound moral judgement, self-restrain, honesty toward fellow colleagues and subordinates, trustworthiness, and

impartiality. Bond (1991) demonstrated that Chinese subordinates anticipated their supervisors' commitment to abide by the law and avoid corrupt practices and fairness to all employees. There is also some research demonstrating the acceptance of merit and performance as the primary principles of allocating organisational rewards (Chen 1995; Chen et al. 1997; Child, 1994; Bozionelos and Wang, 2007).

### **2.5.8 *Guanxi* and Impression Management**

The importance of personal *guanxi* between superiors and subordinates in effecting key organisational outcomes is further underscored in examining the literature on impression management. Impression management is the process through which people try to control the impressions other people form of them (Jones and Pittman, 1982). Jones and Pittman (1982 cited in Bolino, 1999, p.83) summarise impression management tactics in the West as falling into five categories: “(1) ingratiation, where individuals seek to be viewed as likable; (2) exemplification, in which people seek to be viewed as dedicated; (3) intimidation, where individuals seek to appear dangerous or threatening, (4) self-promotion, in which individuals hope to be seen as competent; and (5) supplication, where people seek to be viewed as needy or in need of assistance”. However, due to Chinese cultural characteristics of power distance, relationship-orientation and group harmony, it is proposed that Chinese employees' impression management is more likely to involve attempts to underscore loyalty, selflessness, respect for authority, a strong work ethic, and concern for the common good (Zhang et al., 2006; Bailey et al., 1997; Hwang, 1987). For example, Walder (1986) illustrated that some employees' loyalty to superiors as the “on-going exchange of loyalty for advantage” (p.165) in work units; and their relationship with superiors as “target cultivation,” in which “someone purposely cultivates a relationship with someone in a [superior] position” through “the giving of small gifts and the performance of favours,” and “the purpose is to cultivate personal familiarity and feeling, but this is for the purpose of future advantage” (Walder 1986, p.180). Likewise, some employees who have less power and are in a vulnerable position relative to those in authority may engage in flattering, exaggerating or condescending behaviours to feed those superiors whatever they want to hear or see so as to put them in a favourable position (Liang, 1998). Also, the extant literature suggests that in order to establish good rapport with supervisors, employees tend to use OCB as impression management strategies hoping it would be favourably interpreted by their supervisors (Bolino, 1999; Ferris et al., 1994; Hui, Lam, and Law, 2000; Rioux and Penner, 2001; Bolino et al., 2006). Such phenomena can be explicated by the Chinese culture of ‘rule by man rather than rule by law’. Walder (1983) for example,

observed a distinctive reward system in state-owned enterprises in China, where supervisors had flexibility and subjectivity in deciding their subordinates' reward and punishment. Thus, though the economic reforms in China attempted to "construct a rational legal system at the state level and formal rational bureaucracies at the firm level" (Guthrie, 1998; p. 264), this may not as yet have taken hold in everyday practice nor in people's mind. "Another reason that leader behaviours will have a strong effect on employee behaviour in a Chinese organisational context is its lack of a grievance system in which employees are allowed to go over the heads of their direct supervisors and voice their concerns to top management if they feel that they were unfairly treated by their direct supervisors" (Chen, 2002, p.328).

The extant literature on superior-subordinate *guanxi* has been described above. Less is known, however, about what individual workers and their managers' perceptions are as to what constitutes superior-subordinate *guanxi*. One conclusion that can be drawn from previous research as to the features of *guanxi* is that it depends on its measure. Specially, positive features of *guanxi* may be contributors, while negative practice of *guanxi* may be deviators. However, it is evident that such negative practice is unacceptable in China now due to the inflow of Western management practices and ideology. "As the organisation increasingly values individual merit and performance in the reform era, "*guanxi*" is not as important as that in pre-reform era, especially in those foreign invested companies (Zhang, Farh and Wang, 2006, p.15). "Fair treatment thus could be a strong indicator to embody the organisation's objective preference when valuing employees' contribution (Law et al, 2000; Zhang, Farh and Wang, 2006, p.15). It is through fair policies and procedures employees could recognise the consistent and general support from the organisation and make more efforts to reciprocate their organisations by exhibiting high level of both OCB and task performance.

### **2.5.9 *Guanxi* in Business: The Double-Edged Word**

The *guanxi* literature in business studies suggests that conflicting arguments and findings prevail. Table 23 provides a summary of these. On the one hand, *guanxi* is posited as ethical and also instrumental in providing a competitive advantage to business (Luo, 1997; Tsang, 1998, etc.): marketing and sourcing (Luo, 1997); acquiring power, status, and resources (Bian, 1994; Yang, 1986); cost advantages and overcoming competitive disadvantage and resource disadvantages (Park and Luo, 2001); reducing transaction cost (Ambler, 1994); securing information and resources (Davies et al., 1995); small and medium enterprises survival and

international firms entry (Yeung and Tung, 1996); and firms’ financial success (Zhang and Zhang, 2006; Su, Mitchell and Sirgy, 2007).

On the other hand, *guanxi* is linked to unethical behaviour, i.e., business corruption and bribery, which in addition may lead to business ineffectiveness (Dunfee and Warren, 2001; Fan, 2002; Chan, Cheng and Szeto, 2002; Su, Sirgy and Littlefield, 2003; Millington, Eberhardt and Wilkinson 2005; Tan and Snell, 2002).

**Table 23 Summary of Extant Studies on *Guanxi* in Chinese Business**

<b>Earlier studies</b>	
Brunner and Taoka (1977)	<i>Guanxi</i> ’s role in business negotiation.
Alston (1989)	<i>Guanxi</i> is basically utilitarian rather than emotional.
Brunner and Koh (1989)	A model on how to establish and maintain <i>guanxi</i> .
<b>Non-business studies</b>	
Jacobs (1979)	Detailed analysis of <i>guanxi</i> base.
Gold (1985)	<i>Guanxi</i> used as instrumental tool to get things done.
Yang (1986, 1994)	A comprehensive study on <i>guanxi</i> and its role in social relationships.
Hwang (1987)	<i>Guanxi</i> , face and power game.
Bian (1994)	<i>Guanxi</i> ’s essential role in the allocation of urban jobs.
Kipins (1997)	Examining the roots of <i>guanxi</i> in rural kinship and ethics.
<b>Business studies</b>	
Ambler (1994)	Transactions follow the building of successful <i>guanxi</i> .
Davies et al. (1995)	The benefits of <i>guanxi</i> : the smooth operations securing information and resources.
Simmons and Munch (1996)	<i>Guanxi</i> is the Chinese version of relationship marketing.
Yeung and Tung (1996)	<i>Guanxi</i> is more important in the initial stages of entering the
	Chinese market and <i>guanxi</i> is emphasised by small firms.
Xin and Pearce (1996)	Under the weak legal system, private firms are more dependent on
	<i>guanxi</i> as protection.
Luo (1997)	<i>Guanxi</i> variables were positively related to the performance of
	foreign funded enterprises.
Arias (1998)	<i>Guanxi</i> is a prerequisite to a business relationship.
Fock and Woo (1998)	Absence of commitment distinguishes <i>guanxi</i> from relationship
	Marketing.
Tsang (1998)	A good <i>guanxi</i> network is a necessary but not sufficient condition
	for business success in China.
Wong (1998)	A <i>guanxi</i> model helping firms key account management.

Ambramson and Ai (1999)	<i>Guanxi</i> was identified as a key success factor for Canadian companies in China.
Ambler et al. (1999)	The impact of <i>guanxi</i> on the inter-provincial export.
Lovett, Simmons and Kali (1999)	<i>Guanxi</i> is evaluated from ethical and efficiency perspectives.
Wong and Chen (1999)	<i>Guanxi</i> is the foundation of relationship marketing.
Standifird and Marshall (2000)	<i>Guanxi</i> based business practices offer cost advantages.
Yi and Ellis (2000)	The benefits and costs of <i>guanxi</i> activities.
Pearce and Robinson (2000)	Cultivating <i>guanxi</i> is essential for western firms in China.
Fan (2000a)	<i>Guanxi</i> and relationship marketing are two totally different constructs with no links.
Au and Wong (2000)	<i>Guanxi</i> and auditors' moral reasoning.
Swee and Siew (2000)	<i>Guanxi</i> (interpersonal connections) and <i>mianzi</i> (face) are negatively related to corporate ethics and social responsibility.
Dunfee and Warren (2001)	They identify the potentially problematic aspects of certain forms of <i>guanxi</i> from a normative perspective, noting among other things, the close association of particular types of <i>guanxi</i> with corruption and bribery. They conclude that there are many different forms of <i>guanxi</i> that may have distinct impacts on economic efficiency and the well-being of ordinary Chinese citizens
Park and Luo (2001)	Although <i>guanxi</i> is embedded in every aspect of Chinese social life, companies demonstrate different needs and capacity for <i>guanxi</i> cultivation. Chinese firms develop <i>guanxi</i> as a strategic mechanism to overcome competitive and resource disadvantages by cooperating and exchanging favours with competitive forces and government authorities.
Su and Littlefield (2001)	Favour-seeking <i>guanxi</i> that is culturally rooted and rent-seeking <i>guanxi</i> that is institutionally defined
Fan (2002b)	<i>Guanxi</i> may bring benefits to individuals as well as the organisations they represent but these benefits are obtained at the expenses of other individuals or firms and thus detrimental to the society
Fan (2002c)	(1) The potential benefits of <i>guanxi</i> are mainly tactical rather than strategic. (2) <i>Guanxi</i> , as a personal asset, cannot be a source of long-term competitive advantage. (3) The <i>guanxi</i> between a business person and a government official is inherently corrupt and ethically questionable. (4) As <i>guanxi</i> has an impact on the wider public, it should be studied in the context of all stakeholders. (5) It is more than likely that <i>guanxi</i> 's role in business will eventually diminish as China moves towards an open market system
Fang (2002).	A comprehensive review of <i>guanxi</i> in the business setting.
Tan and Snell (2002)	The use of traditional <i>guanxi</i> -linked morality as a moral resource played only a minor role in moral reasoning, and was largely overshadowed by modernist morality
Chan, Cheng and	Younger Chinese executives and those working for privately-owned

Szeto (2002)	firms and joint ventures are more inclined to engage in unethical activities for profits in business operation
Wright, Szeto and Cheng (2002)	It was found that <i>guanxi</i> exerted a strong influence on people's daily behaviours, with the exception of the necessity to lend money. As well, there appeared to be a significant cant minority of respondents who would behave unethically to preserve group solidarity.
Su, Sirgy and Littlefield (2003)	<i>Guanxi</i> orientation has very little to do with ethical reasoning among business partners.
Warren, Dunfee and Li (2004)	<i>Guanxi</i> may result in positive as well as negative outcomes for focal actors.
Millington, Eberhardt and Wilkinson (2005)	<i>Guanxi</i> is unethical at horizontal level of business partner as gift giving leading to corruption
Wong (2005)	<i>Guanxi</i> is different from relationship marketing in nature.
Ordóñez de Pablos (2005)	<i>Guanxi</i> is social capital and relational capital.
Millington, Eberhardt and Wilkinson (2005)	<i>Guanxi</i> can lead to gift giving and corruption
Zhang and Zhang (2006)	The individual level of <i>guanxi</i> can contribute to the firms' financial success.
Su, Mitchell and Sirgy (2007)	<i>Guanxi</i> is essential in meeting stakeholders' interests and leading to success.

The economic reforms in China may discourage the salience of network (*guanxi*) capitalism. Some scholars think that, "as the state has loosened its grip on the economy, the role of *guanxi* has expanded in Chinese society. They argue that its role will continue to expand, leading to an economic system that is substantially different from the rational-legal system that defines Western market economies. Others believe that the role of *guanxi* is declining in the era of economic reforms, and that eventually formal rational law will supplant the norms of the personal economy" (Gold et al., 2002, p. 3-4).

*Guanxi* in the business operation may well decline as China is shifting from traditional central-planned economy towards market-based economy. For example, a recent survey of 28 international joint ventures in Eastern China found that respondents named branding, quality and distribution channels rather than *guanxi* as the most important factors in achieving business success in China (Fan, 2002).

Furthermore, *guanxi* alone would not be sufficient to help develop a successful business in China. The ethical standards for doing business in China are not dissimilar to the West. Thus, Fang (2002, p.558) has the following argument:

For international companies doing business in China, *guanxi* is an important

consideration mainly at the initial stage: introduction, negotiation and set-up of operation. As soon as the business is up to running, other factors will take up their importance. The *guanxi* relationship established during the early stage needs to be reassessed of its equity values to decide whether to maintain it over time. This is because the *guanxi* stock and the role it plays will be changed or diminished while foreign firms move down the learning curve in the Chinese market. Ultimately it is not *guanxi*, but high quality products and good marketing strategy that make business success in the Chinese market just as it is true anywhere else.

Moreover, current *guanxi* or network capitalism may be construed as the product of a distinctive institutional form. According to Boisot and Child (1996, p. 600), “decentralization from the former state command system [in China] is giving rise to a distinctive institutional form – network capitalism.” *Guanxi* develops individualised cognitive type of institutional in order to substitute for formal rules (Boisot and Child, 1996; Peng, 2003). According to Boisot and Child, clans or *guanxi* arise from less developed legal systems and the absence in transactionally useful information. The information conditions in particular that forces business to make full use of networks, rather than rule-based mechanisms, to achieve business objectives. “These networks are characterized by reliance on personal relationships, goal setting by negotiation, and coordination by mutual adjustment (i.e., informally without formal rules), all conducted among a moderate number of participants in an atmosphere of high uncertainty” (Peng and Heath, 1996; Peng, 2003, p.276). However, a market-centred strategy would emerge during a late stage with the characterises of more formal, market-supporting institutions (Peng, 2003). Peng emphasised the necessity for a time-based view for transition economies: it “focus on the longitudinal process to move from a relationship-based, personalized transaction structure calling for a network-centred strategy to a rule-based, impersonal exchange regime suggesting a market-centred strategy” (Peng, 2003, p.276). Therefore, *guanxi* is critical in the short-term business success particularly in the initial stage of setting up business, but it cannot lead to long-term business achievement.

## **2.6 Superior-subordinate *Guanxi*, Trust in Supervisor, Loyalty to Supervisor and OCB: Hypotheses Development**

Following the review of the literature about superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor, loyalty to supervisor and subordinates’ OCB, the next section addresses the relevant relationships among those four areas (superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor, loyalty



to supervisor and subordinates' OCB).

### 2.6.1 Superior-subordinate *Guanxi* and OCB

#### Social Identity Theory

Social identity theory offers predictions on subordinates' OCB as response to high levels of *guanxi* with their supervisor. In Chinese society, high levels of *guanxi* with supervisor facilitate the development of subordinates' group (team) identity, family membership identity and perceived insider status (in-group membership). First, supervisor-subordinates' *guanxi* enables the development of social group identities based on their work group or team. The formulation of such identities as an individual's extension of themselves is the evaluative and affective understanding about themselves by both supervisor and their subordinates (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Tajfel, 1978) reflecting the quality of their interaction (Li, 2006). Social identity theory explicates that there is a relational issue for a subordinate to accept a superior, which is also linked to one's identification with the superior's in-group (Lind and Tyler, 1988; Tyler, 1989; Tyler and Lind, 1992). If the supervisor is viewed as representing a group with which the individual feels great levels of attachment, then relational issues may become significantly important (Huo et al., 1996; Tyler and Lind, 1990). In this case, subordinates are more likely to perform OCB willingly since they identify with the group represented by the authority and emphasise actions such as OCB in achieving the supervisor's values and goals, e.g., organisational effectiveness (Huo et al., 1996). In addition, superior-subordinate *guanxi* can enhance employees' collective identity, which may also increase group potency, and ultimately group performance. Potency has been defined as "the collective belief in a group that it can be effective" (Guzzo, Yost, Campbell and Shea, 1993, p. 87; Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Tajfel, 1978). Group potency was shown to require members to achieve their joint objectives through display of OCB (Organ et al., 2005) since supervisors are the leaders of work team, it involves subordinate's motivation that cares about "the welfare of one's group, which serves to promote social systems and collective interests" and the transform from 'I' to 'we' due to the fact that the self is defined in terms of group membership (Johnson and Chang, 2006, p.551). Triandis (1994) also delineated that in collectivist cultures, the collective self is assessed in terms of membership and role fulfillment within groups, and therefore, a sense of belonging within one's work group may be core to their sense of worth since within collectivist settings, people view themselves more in terms of the collective-interdependent self. As such, individuals tend to internalize the goals and norms of their group and derive satisfaction when they successfully fulfill their social roles and obligations (Meyer, Becker,



and Van Dick, 2006; Johnson and Chang, 2006).

Second, supervisor-subordinate's *guanxi* fosters both parties to develop their perceived insider status so that subordinates can maximise their efforts to display OCB. Stamper and Masterson (2002) define perceived insider status as the extent to which an employee perceives him/herself as an insider in a particular organization or a supervisor's group and connotes a perception of social inclusion in the organization or a particular group led by the supervisor (such differentiation is similar to in-group and out-group distinction in leader member exchange theory, Stamper & Masterson, 2002). Highly perceived insider status between supervisor and subordinates assumes a strong shared responsibility for each other (Burroughs and Eby, 1998; Zemke, 1996). Such perceived insider status identity by superior and subordinate emphasises collective action, maintaining harmony, mutual responsibilities and support to one another, implicit exchanges and long-term relationships between supervisor and their immediate subordinates (House et al, 1999). Hall's (1976) cultural theory would suggest that in *high context* culture like China members' in-group or out-group are treated differently. The pull formed in-group membership would make a compelling driver for the build-up and continuance of *guanxi*. Alternatively, collectivism can also account for why an in-group differ from an out-group in their relationship quality, which in-group members care about each other's welfare, are willing to cooperate regardless of potential return, and feel anxious on separation from the group (Triandis, 1995). In collectivistic contexts in-group membership defines a person's self-identity (Markus and Kitayama, 1991). Feelings of social interconnectedness and mutual dependence among members of the in-group (Traindis, 1995), make members perceive themselves to be bound to one another by common goals, interests, and mutual commitment (Traindis, 1995; Earley, 1989). Hence, making a subordinate's inclusion in their supervisor's in-group entitles the subordinates to enjoy the patronage of their supervisor. At the same time, as subordinates perceive themselves to be an insider of their supervisor's in-group, they are obligated to contribute to the welfare of their fellow "insiders" and by extending to the work unit and to the organisation as a whole.

Lastly, in China, having *guanxi* with others means that one is viewed as family member (Yang, 1993; Hwang, 1999; House et al., 1999). This social orientation prescribes the member's role expectations in the social structure (family, organisation, society) (Yang, 1993; Hwang, 1999; House et al., 1999). For Chinese employees, this may lead them to regard the people in the *guanxi* network as members of a family (Chen and Francesco, 2000) for which they may be willing to exert effort that will be manifested in improved OCB outcomes. Bond (1991)

describes that Chinese think of themselves by employing more group-related concepts such as family than Americans do. Confucianism maintains that a human being is not primarily an individual, but rather a member of a family, which implies that the Chinese are interdependent. Being a member of a family, one is expected to contribute one's share to the betterment of the family (Liu, 2003). Hence, the higher the level of *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate, the higher the level of subordinate's identification with the supervisor-led group or their organisation can be surmised since supervisors are the agents of the organisation, and subordinates' effort is eventually likely to lead to high levels of OCB.

Therefore, when people identify with a supervisor, they may also identify with the group-led by the supervisor to build up a group or team identity, a family membership identity and perceived insider status. Consequently, they take the group's or organisation's interests to heart and care about its well-being. This not only increases motivation to exert extra effort on behalf of the collective, but also places a premium on being able to trust others to have the group's best interest at heart (van Knippenberg and Hogg, 2003). Furthermore, it has been suggested that performing OCB may further influence one's identity, making the relationship reciprocal and enduring (Penner, Midili, and Kegelmeyer, 1997).

### **Norm of Reciprocity**

The nature of supervisor-subordinates *guanxi* results in the display of subordinates' OCB, which can be supported by the social exchange framework, particularly the norm of reciprocity (refers to a set of socially accepted rules regarding a transaction in which a party extending a resource to another party obligates the latter to return the favour, Gouldner, 1960). The literature review about OCB and *guanxi* reveals that it appears that OCB plays an important role in the reciprocal social exchange process hypothesised by Graen and Scandura (1987); Settoon, Bennett, and Liden (1996); and Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997); Bateman and Organ (1983); Moorman (1991); Moorman, Niehoff, and Organ, (1993); Organ, (1988, 1990a); Smith et al. (1983) and/or intrinsic motivation as to people's engagement in social exchange (Farh et al., 1990, and Pearce and Gregersen, 1991; Bass, 1985; Bums, 1978; Kouzes and Posner, 1987).

Previously, it was assumed that authority relations in the Chinese society were hierarchical based. However, recent work showed that it was important to note that although Chinese were more sensitive to hierarchy (Hofstede and Bond, 1988), the superior-subordinate relation was a reciprocal exchange process (Chen, 1995; Child and Warner, 2004; Liu, 2003; Westwood,

Chan and Linstead, 2004; Begley, Lee and Hui, 2006; Wong, Wong and Ngo, 2004; Chen and Chen, 2004; Tjosvold, Wong and Hui, 2004). Walder also noted that the Chinese superior-subordinate relations “about human nature and how to foster good citizenship – ideas reflected directly in patterns of leadership and reward – have a long history in Chinese thinking about statecraft” (Walder, 1986, p.122).

The norm of reciprocity offers a theoretical grounding to the dynamics of supervisor-subordinates *guanxi* and subordinates’ display of OCB. Yang (1957, p. 291 cited in Westwood, Chan and Linstead, 2004, p.374) state that the Chinese believe that “‘the reciprocity of actions . . . should be as certain as a cause-effect relationship, and, therefore, when a Chinese acts, he normally anticipates a response or return.’ He also notes that whilst the notion of reciprocity is evident in all societies, in Chinese society it has particularly ‘wide application and tremendous influence in social institutions’.” The Chinese rules of the norm of reciprocity (*bao* in Chinese or *pao* in Cantonese) imply favour, obligation and return of favour in the organisations (Yang, 1995). Hence, although Chinese social and organisational systems are hierarchical due to a large power distance, there are reciprocal obligations on both superior and subordinate, and both are required to act appropriately within their respective role positions so as to maintain social harmony (Chen, 1995; Child and Warner, 2004; Liu, 2003; Westwood, Chan and Linstead, 2004; Begley, Lee and Hui, 2006; Wong, Wong and Ngo, 2004; Chen and Chen, 2004; Tjosvold, Wong and Hui, 2004). If the superiors do not behave within the framework of such obligations, and do not reciprocate the mutual obligations inherent in the role, “the subtle balance of harmony is destabilised” (Westwood, Chan and Linstead, 2004, p.374). “In China, an emphasis on *guanxi*, that is, connections that bind people together, requires the exchange partner with higher rank to provide resources to the one with lower rank without expecting equal return” (Chen, 1995; Begley, Lee and Hui, 2006, p.708). Meanwhile, “superiors who provide valued resources to subordinates can expect demonstrations of respect, deference, and loyalty in return” (Begley, Lee and Hui, 2006, p.708). Also, the Chinese cultural character of paternalism leads to the fact that power is associated with benevolence and moral standing in an organisation (Tjosvold, Wong and Hui, 2004).

It requires the closeness, tightness and significance of *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate to not only have rights to receive, but also obligations to contribute to the welfare of the other party (Westwood, Chan, and Linstead, 2004). High level of *guanxi* where obligations are often diffuse and unspecified, and no standard or values against which gifts,

favours, or contributions can be measured is present (Blau, 1964), subordinates can reciprocate the diffuse, unspecified, and weakly time-bound obligation through their engagement in OCB. Hence, OCB is the subordinate's positive regard toward their supervisor, in turn; they believe that OCB is likely to provide a basis for subsequent benefits directed toward them and offered by their supervisor (Hui, Lee and Rousseau, 2004b). According to the concept of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), when a subordinate offers such a contribution to the workplace, it establishes an obligation for the receiving supervisor to reciprocate with a resource of comparable value at some future point in time. In the Chinese society, the legal system has not been well developed, and therefore, as Walder (1983; 1986, p.13) states "workers are dependent ... personally on supervisors." Thus, if a supervisor is able to offer a valuable inducement such as support, protection and recognition, based on the norm of reciprocity, subordinates are motivated to compensate beneficial treatment by acting in ways that support the superior in demonstrating contributions (OCB) to match with the inducements provided by the superior. A Chinese proverb posits 'courtesy demands reciprocity' (*li shang wang lai*). For example, a supervisor's request to perform a task that falls outside of the member's formally defined job may be interpreted by the member as consistent with an on-going social exchange relationship – a relationship in which the supervisor's request obligates him or her to reciprocate with something of value to the member. At some future time, the supervisor would reward them. Moreover, OCB reflects the employee's effort of placing collective interest in the workplace, which could uphold their level of *guanxi* with their supervisors, and thereby, high level of superior-subordinate relationship is developed as open-ended, potentially long-term relationship and any difficulty that arises is worked out to the long-term benefit of both parties (Hui, Lee and Rousseau, 2004b). Therefore, it can be surmised that superior-subordinate relationship is developed based on a subordinate's effort (OCB) in exchange for supervisor's inducements. Last but not least, high level of *guanxi* can facilitate OCB due to the development of group solidarity in interpersonal relationships within organisations (Koster and Sanders, 2006). For example, Wu (1996) reported that a Chinese supervisor's main function was to unite in-group solidarity among team members. Likewise, Koster and Sanders (2006) also showed supervisors played a key role in eliciting OCB from their subordinates. They can do this directly because they can increase the OCB of the team members by showing OCB towards them. Since cooperation is reciprocal, it is expected that a good move from the supervisor will be answered by a corresponding cooperative move from the subordinates.

Therefore, the norm of reciprocity supports the notion of subordinates' OCB as a consequence

of superior-subordinate *guanxi*, where the outcome for both is contingent upon their joint rather than their independent actions. Such a reciprocal emphasis is also illustrated by Foa and Foa (1984), Coyle-Shapiro and Conway (2004) and Emerson (1981) argument that both supervisor and subordinates can provide benefits to one another that they could not acquire on their own.

### **Social Cognitive Theory**

Social cognitive theory can support the prediction of high level of supervisor and subordinates' *guanxi* on subordinates' OCB. The relationship between employees' perceptions and their OCB is derived from the exercise of moral agency shaped by the high level of *guanxi*. Social cognitive theory describes learning in terms of the interrelationship between behaviour, environmental factors, and personal factors. According to social cognitive theory, social and moral standards regulate people behaviour, i.e., they are self-regulatory systems (Bandura, 1986; 1989). It can be argued that the higher the level of superior-subordinates *guanxi*, the higher the level of moral obligations. Since social and moral standards are more likely to be essential in regulating superior-subordinate behaviour in collectivistic cultures like China where particularistic relationship exists (Redding, 1990; Liu, 2003; Westwood, 1992; Chen, 1995; Liu, 2003; Westwood, Chan and Linstead, 2004; Begley, Lee and Hui, 2006; Chen and Chen, 2004; Sue, Diener, Oishi, and Triandis, 1998; Triandis, 1995). When two parties enter the *guanxi* web, there is mutually moral obligation for both subordinates and supervisor to comply.

Chen and Chen (2004, p.308) argue that "in a relation-oriented society, one was a socially dependent being, which made it imperative to know one's social position, to fulfill one's duties and obligations, and to observe the appropriate moral standards." Superior-subordinate *guanxi* has the characteristics of a very strong mutual obligation which Fei (1892/1947) called 'moral obligation' and Tsui and Farh (1997) called 'unconditional protection'. It is through the process of self-regulation that prosocial behaviour (of which OCB is an example) can be internally maintained (Bandura, 1989; 1991). Through employees evaluative self-reactions, such as self-approval of the values of OCB, internalized morals and standards can regulate conduct (Bandura, 1986; 1991). For example, if a person internalizes the notion that high level of *guanxi* should be manifested in display of OCB and as well as forming the basis for the subsequent OCB, and then they will impose self-sanctions in order to keep their conduct in line with this internal standard. High level of *guanxi* drives the employees' moral perception that it is their duty and obligation to exhibit OCB for their supervisor because the superiors

have been good to them. In these circumstances, Chinese employees are more likely to view OCB as their obligation to contribute to the workplace. Self-regulation is an internal control mechanism that governs what behaviour is performed, and the self-imposed consequences for that behaviour. Self-regulation is highly relevant because it allows the gradual substitution of internal controls for external controls of behaviour due to the increasing amount of moral obligation accelerated by high level of *guanxi*. For example, Law et al. (1999) and Blakely, Srivastava and Moorman (2005) showed that compared with American counterparts, Chinese workers viewed OCB as part of their job. Therefore, if a person is faced with the option of not displaying OCB, they are likely to perceive this as violating their internal standards. Since Chinese managers are more likely to value the importance of OCB, their subordinates through self-regulation will exhibit OCB.

Subordinates are expected to display extra effort, respect and obedience to the authority of the superior and tend to be conforming, dependent and deferential to their superiors; gain a sense of high loyalty and commitment to their superiors and hence to the organisations (Redding, 1990; Liu, 2003; Westwood, 1992). They are also expected to exceed the formal job description to perform OCB to fulfil the expectations from their superiors (Zhang et al., 2006; Blakely, Srivastava and Moorman, 2005). Thus, it can be concluded that in the *guanxi* web, subordinates are strongly influenced by societal norm of complying with moral obligation. Hence, employees' self-regulatory systems effect external influences and provide a basis for purposeful action, allowing people to exercise personal control over their own thoughts, feelings, motivations, and actions (Bandura, 1989).

**Hypothesis 1: High level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of display of a subordinate's OCB.**

### **2.6.2 *Guanxi*, Loyalty and Trust between Subordinate and Supervisor**

High level of *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate can result in high degree of trust in and commitment (loyalty) to supervisor.

#### **Social Identity Theory**

In the Chinese society, as previously discussed, high levels of *guanxi* with supervisor develop group or team identity, family membership identity and perceived insider status. Such group or team identity, family membership identity and perceived insider status are the sources of trust and loyalty (Yang, 1993; Hwang, 1999; House et al., 1999). People are integrated into strong,

cohesive groups who protect them and demand loyalty and trust in turn (Yang, 1995; Luo, 1997).

Supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* in the context of family membership, in-group relationship and team identity or group identity emphasises their in-group loyalty. *Guanxi* manifests the relational issue which involves defining oneself in terms of specific others e.g., commitment to one's supervisor (Markus and Kitayama, 1998; Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Johnson and Chang, 2006). *Guanxi* thus translated to superior-subordinates' interdependence, which focuses on "relationality" or "being a part, belonging, and improving the fit between how one is doing and what is expected" (Markus and Kitayama, 1998, p. 71). The superior-subordinates relationship in a *guanxi* network "entails seeing oneself as part of an encompassing social relationship and recognising that one's behaviour is determined, contingent on, and ...organised what the actor perceives to be the thoughts, feeling, and actions of others in the relationship" (Markus and Kitayama, 1991, p. 227). The *guanxi* web would create a positive influence upon subordinates' loyalty to their leaders since "loyalty to the leader is usually tied to the need of belonging and of finding group identity..." (Pye, 1985, p.332).

Superior-subordinate *guanxi* plays an important role in forming and developing trust in one's supervisor based on their identity of family membership, in-group relationship, and work team or group identity building. After all, supervisors typically have more power in the group and over group resources than other group members, and have the important job of representing the group and making decisions on behalf of the group. As a result, supervisors who are trusted to have the group's best interest at heart will be liked more and endorsed more strongly than others who are perceived to be less group-oriented since people trust in-group members more than out-group members (Brewer, 1979; Kramer, 1999). In a similar vein, people may place greater trust in prototypical leaders to represent the group well and to have the group's best interest at heart than less prototypical leaders (Giessner, Sleebos and van Knippenberg, 2003), thus further contributing to prototypical leaders' greater effectiveness (cf. Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). According to Wu (1996), in Chinese culture, a supervisor's main function is to create an 'in-group' identity among team members, thereby eliciting from subordinates to form the selflessness, personalized trust owed to in-groups (Chemers, 1997). Other studies (Farh et al., 1998; Gabrenya and Hwang, 1996) also reported that the level of trust of the subordinates towards their supervisors was influenced by their *guanxi*.

### Social Exchange Theory



High level of *guanxi* reflects a continued exchange process, where the level of trust and loyalty are key indices of both parties' willingness to repeat such exchange. Kramer (1999) claims that one's hierarchical or power position strongly establishes the nature, origins and level of trust. His empirical study showed that trust mattered more to those lower in power than to those higher in power positions: persons in a low power position (subordinates) considered more issues as relevant to trust and remembered more trust related incidents than those high in power (supervisors).

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) helps to explain trust in the formulation of the dynamics of *guanxi* exchanges. In a *guanxi* web, one individual (subordinate) voluntarily provides a benefit to the supervisor, invoking an obligation of the other party (superior) to reciprocate by providing some benefit in return, and therefore, trust is important in forming such social exchange relationships. Blau (1968) argues, that trust may be generated through two means: "(1) through the regular discharge of obligations (i.e., by reciprocating for benefits received from others) and (2) through the gradual expansion of exchanges over time" (Whitener et al., 1998, p.516). Because behaviour in the exchange process is voluntary, there is therefore no guarantee that those benefits will be reciprocated or that reciprocation will result in receipt of future benefits (Whitener et al., 1998). The future exchange of benefits evolves in uncertainty, particularly in the early stages of the relationship, when the risk of nonreciprocation is relatively high (Whitener et al., 1998). Consequently, trust in supervisor demonstrates the subordinates' willingness for carrying on the future exchange. Organ and Konovsky (1989) note the importance of supervisory trust in building a social exchange relationship. They theorize trust as the glue that holds the social exchange between employee and organisation or its agent-supervisor together. Additionally, there is a relational issue in supervisory trust building. Tyler and Lind's (1992, p.77) group values model of authority advocates that "people are concerned about their status in the group, and the way they are treated by others [which] provides them with information about how they are valued [in line with *guanxi* meaning in the Chinese context, which people perceive high level of interpersonal relationship receive better treatment (Chen et al., 2007)]". Trust is enhanced "when people are treated in a respectful manner that communicates to them that they are important and valued members of the group" (Kerkhof, Annemieke and Klandermans, 2003; p.573) [in line with *guanxi* definition in the Chinese context, which high quality of relationship enables people to treat each in a respectful manner (Chen et al., 2007) and the communication of warm-heartedness to the other party (Chen, 2006)].



Likewise, high level of loyalty to supervisor reflecting high level of *guanxi* can be interpreted by social exchange theory as well (Robin, et al, 1994; Scholl, 1981; Eisenberger, et al., 1986). Loyalty to supervisor can be construed as an array of obligations that subordinates incur as a result of the inducements they accept from their supervisor; or as a member's investment in that person for future benefits. In addition to this, commitment to supervisor indicates maintaining a relationship of consistency and good faith to that person based on repeated exchange. Loyalty to supervisor reflects the stability of the development of *guanxi*. Stability describes their open-ended commitment to the future (Rousseau, 2004), in which a supervisor is committed to provide stable or steadily increasing long-term support and care, whilst workers are obligated to commit and trust the superior. For example, an empirical study of Confucian work values has revealed that loyal employees can expect loyalty from their superiors (Ihara, 1992). Tjosvold and his colleagues (2004) found that although it was often assumed that Chinese supervisors (including foreign managers) are autocratic and unilateral, their research has emphasised that Chinese supervisors (including foreign managers) are expected to reciprocate employee loyalty, otherwise, they risk losing their employees' support.

Therefore, trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor are important in maintaining and supporting the level of *guanxi* between superior and subordinate. The level of *guanxi* develops over time, and stabilizes the level of the exchange. High levels of trust and loyalty would enable the subordinates to enjoy high levels of exchange relationships with their superiors in terms of social exchange (Blau, 1964), with an open-ended scope of the obligations and reciprocation. Although the timing of the leader's reciprocation is sometimes in the indefinite future, the member trusts that the leader will eventually fulfill the obligation and the member is loyal in maintaining the on-going exchange process built by *guanxi*.

### **Theory of Reasoned Action**

This theory provides a framework to study subordinates' attitudes including trust and loyalty toward *guanxi*. The theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980) posits that any volitional behaviour is a function of two main forces: individual attitudes toward the behaviour and the subjective norm. This theory works most successfully when applied to behaviours that are under a person's volitional control. If behaviours are not fully under volitional control, even though a person may be highly motivated by his or her own attitudes and subjective norm, one may not actually perform the behaviour due to intervening environmental conditions. Subjective norm is defined as the perception of how others would evaluate a particular behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

According to the theory, the most important determinant of a person's behaviour is behaviour intent (Montano et al., 1997). The individual's intention to perform behaviour (building up and maintaining *guanxi* in this thesis) is a combination of attitude (displayed trust and loyalty in this thesis) toward performing the behaviour and subjective norm (Montano et al., 1997). Developing high level of *guanxi* can lead to high level of trust in and loyalty to supervisor are heavily dependent on the subjective norm in China (Chen et al., 2004) owing to the fact that social norm is more likely to be the driving force of behaviour in collectivistic cultures (Bontempo and Rivero, 1992; Sue, 2002; Sue, Diener, Oishi, and Triandis, 1998; Triandis, 1995). The Chinese societal norm indicates that trust and loyalty are outcomes of particular ties (*guanxi*) [Redding (1990) refers to *guanxi* as personalism, which “is the tendency to allow personal relationships to enter into decision making” (p. 135)] (Chen et al., 2003; Triandis, 1995). Also, the interpersonal trust and loyalty (high commitment in Hall, 1976) in *high context* cultures are based on particular relationship. Therefore, trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor as aspects of building up *guanxi* depend on self-evaluation as to whether trust and loyalty have a positive valence and subjective norm -whether the societal norm views trust and loyalty as positive.

**Hypothesis 2: High level of *guanxi* between subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of trust in one's supervisor.**

**Hypothesis 3: High level of *guanxi* between subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of loyalty to one's supervisor.**

### **2.6.3 Loyalty to Supervisor, Trust in Supervisor and OCB**

In this part, I use both theoretical foundations and empirical evidence to support the hypothesised links among loyalty to supervisor, trust in supervisor and OCB.

#### **Cognitive Dissonance**

Cognitive dissonance theoretical perspective (Festinger, 1957) can explain why high levels of subordinates' trust and loyalty towards their supervisor predict subordinate's OCB. The essence of cognitive dissonance theory is that people will feel disturbed when there are inconsistencies between their attitudes, or between their attitude and behaviour, or between their behaviours. Furthermore, cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) posits that both indebtedness and guilt are likely to cause dissonance or a sense of inconsistency of oneself (e.g., being a fair person).

Collectivist cultures may differentiate from individualist societies with respect to cognitive dissonance (Kitayama, Snibbe, Markus and Suzuki, in press). For example, Kitayama, Snibbe, Markus and Suzuki (in press) reported that individuals justify their choice in order to eliminate cognitive dissonance about culturally sanctioned aspects of the self, namely, competence and efficacy in North American and positive appraisal by other people in Japan due to the differentiation between independent and interdependent perceptions in the USA and Japan. House et al. also (1999; 2004) propose that the meaning of collectivism may be extended from the individual to the sub-group, to the organisation and to the entire country as whole. In Chinese societies, positive attitudes towards one's supervisor (such as trust and loyalty in this study) may therefore have a profound effect on subordinates attitudes and behaviours towards both their co-workers and the organisation as a whole, exemplified by a positive stance (such as OCB in this research) which are all encompassing (Wong and Kung, 1999; Wong, Wong, Hui and Law, 2001). Thus, when an employee has high levels of trust and loyalty to their supervisor, it will then be awkward (and thus unlikely) for this person to withdraw effort by not performing OCB due to the implication of this (mis) behaviour may hold not only for him or her; but also to significant others in their work and wider (no-work) environment. It is also evident that the high level of trust and loyalty and high levels of OCB are consistent in terms of attitude and behaviour, therefore, if subordinates have a high level of trust in their supervisor and loyalty to their supervisor, yet display a low level of OCB, we would anticipate cognitive dissonance and expect that the employee either changes their level of trust and loyalty or their level of OCB engagement to make them consistent.

### **Covenantal Relationship**

From the affective perspective, the covenantal relationship ("covenants describe relationships of mutual commitment in which specific behaviours required to maintain the relationship or pursue common ends are not specifiable in advance", McLean Parks, 1992; Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch, 1994, p.771) may act as the foundation between the relationship of trust/loyalty and OCB. Loyalty and trust are important characteristics of covenantal relationship, leading to positive outcome in organisational contexts "because it goes beyond influencing traditional affective states, such as satisfaction and commitment, and also influences behaviours that have long-run positive consequences for organisations" (Van Dyne et al., 1994, p.769). When high level of supervisory trust and loyalty have been developed, both parties are regarded as a covenant, where the covenantal characteristics are mutual trust and mutual loyalty (Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch, 1994). According to covenantal

relationship, trust (McLean Parks, 1992) and long-term open-ended commitment (loyalty) (Van Dyne et al., 1994) in covenants will lead to high levels of OCB, “perhaps because their open-endedness and lack of specificity raise motivation and encourage internally driven (intrinsic) motivation” (Van Dyne et al., 1994, p.769) and having high level of trust and loyalty with the other covenant can intrinsically motivate the employees to exhibit OCB (Organ et al., 2005).

### **Psychological Contract**

Psychological contract refers to “an individual’s beliefs regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between that focal person and another party” (Rousseau, 1989, p.123). “Individuals have psychological contracts, organisations do not. The organisation, as the other party in the relationship, provides the context for the creation of a psychological contract, but cannot in turn have a psychological contract with its members. Organisations can not ‘perceive’, though their individual managers can themselves personally perceive a psychological contract with employees and respond accordingly” (Rousseau, 1989, p.126; Shore and Tetrick, 1994). Hence, it is appropriate to discuss the psychological contract in terms of supervisor-subordinate dyad.

To be specific, on the basis of psychological contract, the relationship between trust and/or loyalty and OCB, as Konovsky et al. (1994) and Robin et al. (1994) note, forms the basis for relational contracts and social exchange. Relational exchange between supervisors and subordinates leads employees to expend much time and energy on tasks, to be innovative in completing tasks, and to accept responsibilities in addition to those specified in their employment contracts (Konovsky et al., 1994). Relational contracts therefore encourage employees to behave in ways that are not strictly mandated by their employers and are directed toward serving the collectivity (Graham, 1991; Robinson and Morrison, 1995). Organ and Konovsky (1989) posit that if trust in the supervisor is violated, employees will recast their relationship in terms of a more rigidly defined economic exchange. Therefore, how the supervisor upholds the psychological employee-employer contract significantly influences the elicitation and maintenance of subordinate’s OCB.

Similarly, the relationship between loyalty and OCB would be supported by a psychological contract between supervisor and subordinate. Chen, Farh and Tsui (1998) contended that due to daily close interaction with employees, supervisors can validate the employees’ behaviour time after time and respond accordingly, while an organisation can not do so. Thus, the

psychological contracts emerge and are maintained. Relational contracts are more consistent with the goal orientations of collectivists (Thomas et al, 2003) since individuals from collectivist cultures are motivated to create long-term moral obligations by keeping relationships open and reciprocal (Yang 1995) and they tend to identify themselves as a large in-group that affects many areas of their lives, and tend to extend their definition of in-group to a network of interdependency (Triandis, 1988). Psychological contract is thus personified in collectivist cultures: loyalty and trust are aspects of the relational foundations of that psychological contract, and therefore, OCB is manifested. Consequently, an employee with a stronger loyalty to supervisor may be more willing to display OCB since such person identifies their supervisor with the organisation's collective interests (since supervisors are agents of organisations) therefore, displaying OCB.

### **Empirical Evidence**

Gregersen (1993) found that commitment to supervisor was more strongly correlated with extra-role behaviour than was organisational commitment. In Greater China, Cheng et al. (2003) in Taiwan reported that commitment to supervisor was related to altruism, conscientiousness and civic virtue. Chen, Farh and Tsui (1998; 2002) and Wong et al.'s (2003) investigated the relationship between loyalty to supervisor and employee's in-role and extra-role performance in comparison with that of organisational commitment in China. They found loyalty to supervisor was better than organisational commitment in predicting in role and extra role performance.

Likewise, trust in supervisor is a reliable predictor of OCB as well. Several empirical studies (Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 1990 etc) have examined the linkage between trust in supervisor and OCB. For example, trust in supervisor has also been shown to be related to the supervisor-directed OCB dimensions of altruism, courtesy, and conscientiousness (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter, 1990) and a global measure of OCB (Konovsky and Pugh, 1994). Deluga (1994) found that a supervisor's trust building behaviour was closely associated with their OCB. In studying the OCB of residents in a housing cooperative, Van Dyne et al. (2000) also showed that the individual's propensity to trust had a positive relationship with subsequent OCB. Wat et al. (2005) tested an expanded social exchange model of OCB that includes employees' psychological capacity (i.e. trust in the supervisor and psychological empowerment) to engage in OCB. Results from 183 Hong Kong investment-banking personnel and their supervisors provide strong support for the direct effects of trust on all dimensions of OCB. Wong et al. (2003) in their investigation of the

relationship between trust in supervisor and subordinates' OCB in joint ventures also reported a positive association.

**Hypothesis 4: High level of subordinate's loyalty to supervisor is positively related to high level of display of subordinate's OCB.**

**Hypothesis 5: High level of subordinate's trust in supervisor is positively related to high level of display of subordinate's OCB.**

#### **2.6.4 The Mediating Effect of Trust in Supervisor and Loyalty to Supervisor**

Previous research indicates that supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* enhances OCB (Wong et al, 2003). Likewise, trust and loyalty are also thought to facilitate the effective functioning of organisations through the performance of OCB (Wong et al, 2002). In this section, I will explore the possible relationships between these two: the mediating effect of trust and loyalty between OCB and superior-subordinate *guanxi*.

##### **Social Exchange Theory**

At an interpersonal level, *guanxi* exchange is a contingent process in terms of values and time. There is neither a fixed rule nor specific values of what is being exchanged or when the exchange will be completed (Fan, 2002; Chung and Hamilton, 2002). Therefore, the level of *guanxi* between supervisor-subordinate would depend upon subordinates' trust in their supervisor and loyalty to their supervisor since the whole *guanxi* building process is "informal, complicated and non-transparent, which may create uncertainty" (Fan, 2002, p.33)

Loyalty to and trust in their supervisor would arise from the interrelated manifestation of care and mutual interests embedded in repeated social exchanges of *guanxi*. Each party in a *guanxi* web pays attention to long-term interests, by behaving in loyal and trustworthy ways, so the other party builds up loyalty and trust to them as well (Hwang, 1987). Exchanging favours is actually one of the best ways to build up strong *guanxi*. Consequently, superior and subordinates are in keeping with the principle of reciprocity in long-term favour-exchanging processes that enhance the probability that all parties to the *guanxi*, which will continue it.

Trust and loyalty underpin *guanxi* exchange and are manifested in OCB. Trust and loyalty

relationships not only enable a subordinate to make investments (OCB), believing in the intrinsic virtue of such relationships but also that their contribution will be reciprocated. On the other hand, a supervisor's failure to fulfil their obligation towards their subordinates (as perceived by the subordinates) will undermine the subordinate's trust and loyalty to their supervisor, which would result in their perceiving a violation of the norm of reciprocity, and consequently a decline of their level of *guanxi*.

Thus, over time, these exchanges (*guanxi*) constitute a global schema of history of reciprocity reinforcing the trustworthiness and commitment of the exchange partner. To equalize or ensure a balance in their exchange, subordinates will feel obligated to reciprocate the good deeds of the focal exchange partner, i.e., supervisor. OCB therefore, reinforces and stabilizes trust and loyalty, the axis upon which social exchange revolves. But the obligations that partners incur in social exchange are generally diffuse and are valued as symbols of mutual loyalty, trust, goodwill and broad support (Aryee et al., 2003).

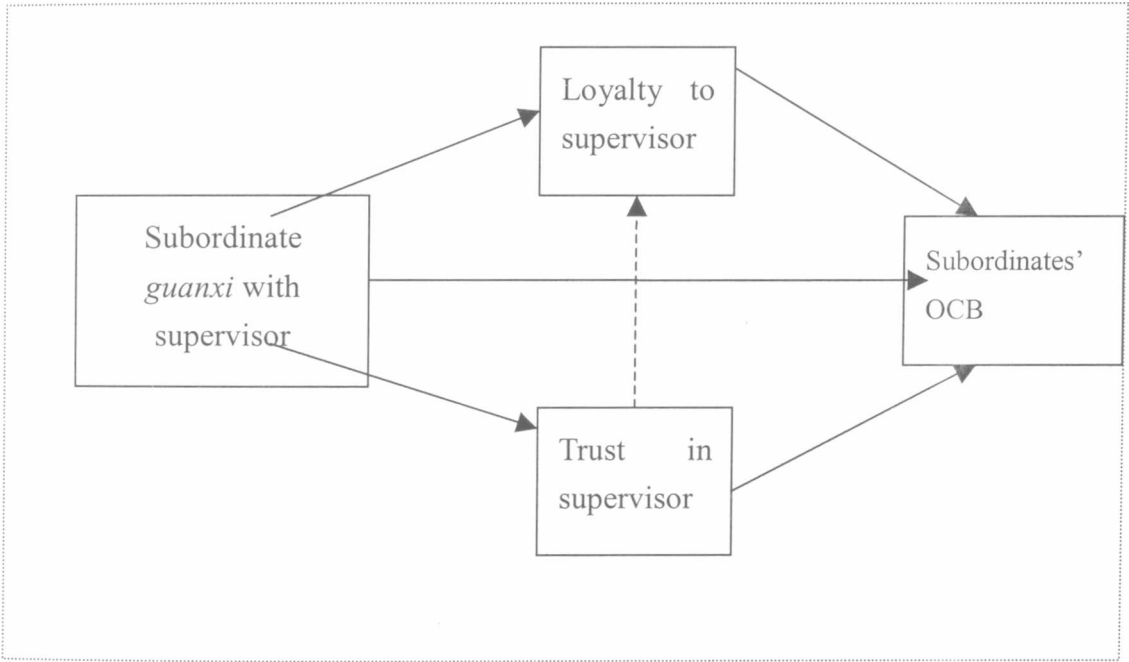
### **Transaction Cost Economy**

In Asian countries, trust and loyalty are powerful assessments of an individual's behaviour (Chen and Chen, 2004; Westwood, Chan and Linstead, 2004; Wong, Wong and Ngo, 2004) also due to a lack of confidence in their legal systems. For example, Richter (2002) argues that in Asia, trust is important for both business and people because those cultures are characterised by 'rule by man' rather than 'rule by law'. In Western Europe and North America, the employment relation is based on 'social contracts' and legal contracts, which depend on the regulated and legal environment of a society and the organisation as well. However, legal systems are not well established in both the organisation and society in China, and therefore, superior and subordinate relationships are based upon both parties' unspecified and open-ended mutual obligations. Hence, trust and loyalty mediate *guanxi* and OCB due to the fact that trust and loyalty result in a lower 'transaction cost' derived from high level of *guanxi*, particularly monitoring or metering cost in William's (1975) terms. According to transaction cost economy (William, 1975), metering has adverse effect on people's contribution that cannot be feasibly metered and has side effect on people's sentiments and attitudes (Organ et al., 2006). Therefore, trust and loyalty reduce the transaction cost in both parties of the *guanxi* web. From the subordinate's perspective, the *guanxi* and OCB relationship is metered by the level of trust and loyalty toward their supervisor. High level of trust and loyalty would reduce the metering cost as subordinates would be willingly to suspend judgement as to their receiving of future benefits.



Based on the above discussion, I explored the literature about the relationships among superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor, loyalty to supervisor, and subordinates' OCB and summarised a model in Figure 4, which would be utilised as theoretical foundations for my empirical research.

**Figure 4 Hypothesised Relationships between Superior-subordinate *Guanxi*, Supervisory Trust, Supervisory Loyalty and OCB**



NOTE: The dotted line from trust in supervisor to loyalty to supervisor indicates its relationship between the two constructs (trust is construed as an antecedent of loyalty) (Wong et al., 2002) (for elaboration on section 2.4.3).

**Hypothesis 6: Trust in supervisor mediates between supervisor-subordinate’s *guanxi* and a subordinate’s OCB.**

**Hypothesis 7: Loyalty to supervisor mediates between supervisor-subordinate’s *guanxi* and a subordinate’s OCB.**

**2.7 Summary**

In this chapter, I provided a literature review in respect of Chinese cultural characteristics, OCB, supervisory trust, loyalty to supervisor and superior-subordinate *guanxi*. After examining Chinese cultural characteristics, I discussed the definition of OCB, OCB’s dimensions, its antecedents and consequences identified in both the West and China. The



definition, antecedents and consequences of trust in supervisor and supervisory loyalty are then reported as well as the literature concerning superior-subordinate *guanxi*. Finally, I proposed a theoretical model pertaining to the relationships between the relevant constructs of supervisor and subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor, supervisory loyalty and subordinates' OCB, which will be utilised as theoretical foundations for my empirical research.

## **Chapter 3: Methodology**

### **3.1 Introduction**

The aim of this chapter is to state the research methodology employed for this research, including the literature concerning research approach, research framework, research strategy, questionnaire design (and sources) and data collection method. This chapter also reports the pilot tests, the sample size, measures, validity and reliability, and describes the data collection procedure.

### **3.2 Research Approach**

Overall, there are two primary research methods in the social sciences, namely, quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative research method is guided by positivism in particular (a philosophy that proposes that the only authentic knowledge is scientific knowledge, and that such knowledge may only come from positive affirmation of theories through application of scientific methods) and objectivism (social phenomena and their meanings as external facts are independent or separate from social actors) (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Ghauri et al., 1995; Trochim, 2001; Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2002). Interpretivism (the position that the world may be understood by studying what people think about, their ideas, and the meanings they accord to events) and constructionism (“realities are social constructions of the mind, and that there exist as many such constructions as there are individuals”, Guba and Lincoln, 1989, p. 43) serve as the philosophical foundations for qualitative research methods (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Ghauri et al., 1995; Trochim, 2001; Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2002).

Quantitative data is numeric and is characterised by Ghauri et al. (1995, p. 84) as follows:

- Emphasis on testing and verification
- Focus on facts and/or reasons of social events
- Logical and critical approach
- Hypothetical-deductive; focus on hypothesis testing
- Objective, outsider view distant from data
- Controlled measurement
- Results orientated
- Particularistic and analytical

- Generalization (by extension to similar populations)

The advantages for this approach are as follows (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Ghauri et al., 1995; Trochim, 2001; Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2002): 1) The results are statistically testable, that is, quantitative research may reliably determine if one idea or concept is better suited (to the hypotheses) than the alternatives. 2) The results are able to be projected to the wider population. That is, the proportion of respondents answering in a certain way is similar to the proportion of the total population that would have answered that way if they all had been asked.

On the other hand, qualitative research has the following characteristics (Ghauri et al., 1995, p.84; Bryman and Bell, 2003; Trochim, 2001; Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2002):

- Emphasis on understanding
- Focus on understanding from respondent's/informant's point of view
- Interpretation
- Explorative orientation
- Subjective, insider view and closeness to data
- Observations and measurements in natural settings
- Process orientated
- Holistic perspective
- Generalization by comparison of properties and contexts

Qualitative research involves the collection of data open to interpretation, for example people's opinions, where the intention of establishing statistical validity is less emphasised (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Ghauri et al., 1995; Trochim, 2001; Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2002). With this approach, many of the methods used are often based on small-scale samples. Although the results tend to be "subjective, tentative and impressionistic" (Bryman and Bell, 2003, p.65), they may reflect the complexity that underlies individual, group or organizational positions, capturing the richness and depth of how and why individuals, groups or organizations act in the way they do. Furthermore, qualitative research is also particularly useful when the research problem involves uncovering and understanding a phenomenon about which little is known (Ghauri et al., 1995).

The differences between qualitative research and quantitative research can be further

summarised as follows (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Ghauri et al., 1995; Trochim, 2001; Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2002). First, quantitative analysis builds on applied mathematics. By contrast, qualitative data is less standardized. The wide variety in possible approaches to qualitative research is matched by the many approaches to data analysis. Qualitative research is often inductive. Second, quantitative researchers do not begin data analysis until they have collected all of the data and ‘translated’ them into comparable numbers. They then analyse the numbers in order to detect patterns or relationships. Qualitative researchers may look for patterns of relationships, but they begin analysis early in a research project, while they are still collecting data. The results of early data analysis guide subsequent data collection. Thus, analysis is less a distinct final stage of research than a dimension of research that stretches across all stages. Third, quantitative researchers analyse numbers that represent empirical facts in order to test an abstract hypothesis with variable constructs. By contrast, qualitative researchers often blend together empirical evidence and abstract concepts to show that a theory, generalization, or interpretation is plausible. Fourth, in all data analysis, the researcher places raw data into categories that she or he analyses in order to identify patterns and arrive at generalizations. Quantitative researchers use the symbolic language of statistical relationships between variables to discern (causal) relationships. Qualitative analysis tends to be less abstract than statistical analysis though it may use hypothetical constructs as abstractions.

### **3.3 Combining Quantitative and Qualitative Research**

The combination of quantitative method and qualitative method in organisational and business studies has become popular in the West in general (Saunders et al., 2003, p.84; Parkes, 1985; Bryman, 1988) and in Chinese research in particular (Liu, Spector and Shi, 2007; Farh et al., 1997; Farh et al., 2004). Bryman (1988) identified and formalised different ways in which quantitative and qualitative research have been combined in published research. They are summarised in Table 24.

**Table 24 Combination of Quantitative and Qualitative Research**

RELATIONSHIP	EXPLANATION
Qualitative research facilitates quantitative research	Qualitative research may: help to provide background information on context and subjects; act as a source of hypotheses; and aid scale construction.
Quantitative research facilitates qualitative research	Usually, this signifies quantitative research helping with the choice of subjects for a qualitative investigation.
Quantitative and qualitative research are combined in order to give a general picture	Quantitative research may be employed to plug the gaps in a qualitative study, which arise because, for example, the researcher cannot be in more than one place at any one time. Alternatively, it may be that not all issues are amenable solely to a quantitative investigation or solely to a qualitative one.
Structure and process	Quantitative research is especially efficient at getting to the structural features of social life, while qualitative studies are usually stronger in terms of process aspects. These strengths can be brought together in a single study.
The issue of generalisation	The addition of some quantitative evidence may help to mitigate the fact that it is often not possible to generalize (in a statistical sense) the findings deriving from qualitative research.
The relationship between macro and micro levels	Employing both quantitative and qualitative research may provide a means of bridging the macro-micro gulf. Quantitative research can often tap large scale, structural features of social life, while qualitative research tends to address small-scale, behavioural aspects. When research seeks to explore both levels, integrating quantitative and qualitative research may be necessary.
Qualitative research may facilitate the interpretation of relationships between variables	Quantitative research readily allows the researcher to establish relationships among variables, but is often weak when it comes to exploring the reasons for those relationships. A qualitative study can be used to help explain the factors underlying the broad relationships that are established.
Phases in the research process	Qualitative and quantitative research may be appropriate to different stages of a longitudinal study.

**Source: Bryman (1988)**

Based on the summary (Table 24) above, I use a quantitative approach supplemented by a qualitative enquiry to test the relationships among the constructs of loyalty to supervisor, trust in supervisor, supervisor and subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' OCB.

Several reasons may account for the application of this combined approach. First, it is argued that the utilisation of such a research method is determined by the nature of the research (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Saunders et al., 2003; Tsui, 2006; Rousseau and Fried, 2001; Tsang and Kwan, 1999; Luo and Peng, 1999; Yan and Gray, 1994). Since this research is theory-based and follows hypotheses-testing, it would be reasonable to use the quantitative research method as the main research method. Simons (1987) argues that theories may be preferably tested by analytical surveys. Here the relationships between independent, dependent and extraneous variables need to be emphasised. In this form of survey the literature needs to be reviewed thoroughly to establish the nature of the relationships. Thus, the important consideration in following such a research strategy is to formulate and refine it after a comprehensive review of relevant literature relating to the hypotheses.

Second, the qualitative data may help understand the rationale of the theoretical foundation for the underlying relationships between the variables in this research (Pandit, 2004; Saunders et al., 2003). Thus, in this study, the qualitative approach may help explicate the theoretical associations among *guanxi*, trust, loyalty and OCB between supervisors and subordinates, which would be difficult to discern based on quantitative research alone. Miles and Huberman (1994) cited in Bartunek and Seo (2002, p.238) have criticised that many quantitative approaches, "implicitly assume that predefined variables have the same meaning across multiple settings"; whereas "qualitative approaches attempt to increase understanding of local perceptions, to explicate the ways people in particular settings come to understand, account for, take action, and otherwise manage their day-to-day situations ". Thus, Bartunek and Seo (2002) suggest that qualitative research may add new meanings and understanding to the current body of knowledge particularly in a cross-cultural setting and would serve as the guideline for future quantitative research. Hence, the qualitative research method is applied to overcome the criticism of the quantitative approach unable to interpret why and how the

statistical relationships exist in the researcher's predefined hypotheses. Whilst the quantitative method may avoid the drawbacks of qualitative studies, which Chapman (1967) and Chapman and Chapman (1967) have termed 'illusory correlation', where people see two things or events as occurring together more often than they actually do. Hence, research findings may be corroborated by the combined qualitative and quantitative research (Saunders et al., 2003).

Third, the extant empirical studies on OCB, trust in supervisor, supervisory loyalty, and superior-subordinate *guanxi* in both China and the West employ the quantitative research approach as the main methods (see the Western review by Organ et al., 2005; see chapter two in this thesis for a review on China). For example, the measures in this research (the indigenous OCB scale, the indigenous loyalty to supervisor scale, the indigenous superior-subordinate *guanxi* scale and trust in supervisor scale) have been developed and validated in China, and therefore, they are reliable and valid for quantitative research (Shi et al., 2004; Chen, Farh and Tsui, 1998; 2002; Wong et al, 2003; Wong et al., 2002 and Farh et al., 1998).

Fourth, as construed in cultural (social) Anthropology, cultures may be understood by studying what people think about, their ideas, and the meanings they attach to them by recourse to qualitative data (Yauch and Steudel, 2003; Van de Vijver and Leung, 1997; Liu, Spector and Shi, 2007; Jankowicz, 1995). "Using qualitative and quantitative data allowed for triangulation of cultural factors, thereby reducing the bias and increasing validity", helping "analysis of the values and assumptions driving behaviours within the organisation", and providing more fully an explanation for the results (Yauch and Steudel, 2003, p.465-466).

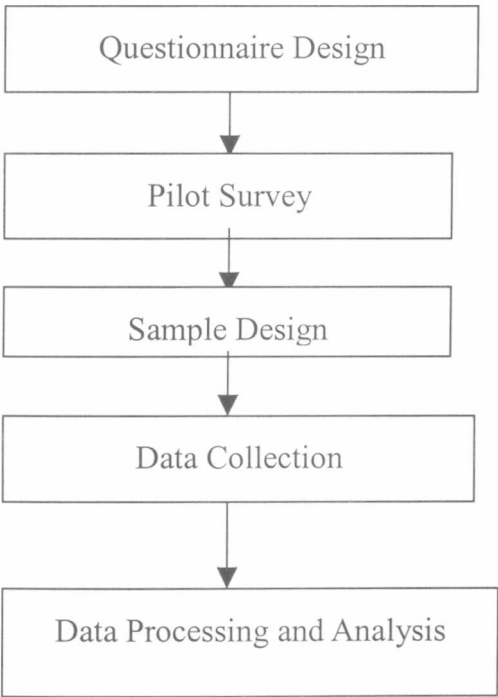
Fifth, previous research on OCB in China only employed a quantitative research (Farh et al, 2004 and Shi et al., 2004 are the exceptions) and there may well be factors that would be important to understand behaviour in China that have been overlooked in previous research (Liu, Spector and Shi, 2007). Therefore, the examination of culture-specific practices by a

qualitative approach may uncover phenomena that have not been previously studied. Finally, a combined research method may enhance the overall reliability and validity of this research (Trochim, 2001; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Bryman and Bell, 2003) (see following section 3.12 as to validity and reliability).

### 3.4 Research Framework, Research Strategy and Data Collection Method

This study follows the research framework proposed by Kinnear and Taylor (1996) (Figure 5).

**Figure 5 Research Design**



**Source: Kinnear and Taylor (1996, p.30)**

This study utilised the self-administrated questionnaire strategy to collect primary data. This is based on the following reasons. First, among the quantitative research strategies i.e. experiment vs. non-experiment such as survey and case studies involving questionnaires, Saunders et al. (2003) and Stone-Romero et al. (1995) argue that from a practical point, non-experiment studies such as surveys employing questionnaire measures are often more successful than experiment studies, whereas experiment studies are often difficult to conduct



in an organizational context. Second, the low level of the external validity of experimental research in a laboratory context appears to be the most important barrier (Stone-Romero et al., 1995). Considerations such as low cost, convenience, greater anonymity would favour a survey methodology (Chisnall, 1992; Aaker and Day, 1990; Bryman and Bell, 2003).

Whilst the qualitative part of this study was confined to an open-ended questionnaire survey, it may be viewed as qualitative research nevertheless. First, compared with interviews or focus group or observations (typical qualitative methods), open-ended questionnaire surveys may “offer greater anonymity to respondents and often elicit more honest response” and they may “capture diversity in responses and provide alternative explanations to those that closed-ended survey questions are able to capture” (Jackson and Trochim, 2002, p.307). They “force respondents to express themselves in more of a concise list format while at the same time giving them opportunity to vent or explain themselves in a shorter narrative form”, and the answers may “ vary from a few phrases to a couple of paragraphs and represent a wide variety of concepts with varying frequency and detail a ‘free list in context type of text’” (Jackson and Trochim, 2002, p.308). Thus, using self-administrated (Parkes, 1985; Liu, Spector and Shi, 2007) or self-administrated structured assessment (such as Yes, Maybe and No in this research) with open-ended questions (Rousseau, 1995) are considered as qualitative research in the extant literature. In a Chinese organisational research context, I consider this approach more appropriate than other qualitative data collection methods such as interview and observation due to the cultural-social-political context of contemporary China, whereby identifying the respondents for interview or the lack of external behavioural clues for observation may jeopardise the collection of the high quality data. Of course, this approach may yield incomplete answers and raise concerns on the issue of the reliability of coding decisions, but no methodology is immune from deficiencies.

### 3.5 Source of Rating

One issue of methodological relevance in this research is common method variance

(Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ et al., 2005). “Common methods of variance is defined as the overlap in variance between two variables attributable to the types of measure instrument used rather than due to a relationship between the underlying constructs” (Campbell and Fiske, 1959 cited in Avolio, Yammarino and Bass, 1991, p.572). It has a substantial impact on the relationships between OCB and its antecedents and consequences (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ et al., 2005). Using a single source rating may lead to some degree of the deviance of the relationship between two variables from the “true score correlation” (Avolio, Yammarino and Bass, 1991, p.572, Organ et al., 2005) because “when ratings of two constructs are generated by a single source, the artificial covariance is said to be due to single-source bias” (Avolio, Yammarino and Bass, 1991, p.572). Organ et al. (2005) suggest that firstly, future research needs to consider more carefully the source of OCB rating, minimising the motivational bias in reporting OCB. One way to do that is the application of 360-degree OCB rating process. In other words, the researcher may get OCB rating from supervisors, peers, and the employee themselves.

However, the majority of researchers apply supervisors’ rating of OCB since supervisors are more able than anyone else in the organisation to provide relatively accurate and complete picture of subordinates’ OCB (Chen et al., 1998, 2002; Wong et al., 2002, 2003; Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ, 1990; Moorman, 1991; Niehoff and Moorman, 1993). Others employ subordinates’ rating when investigating subordinates related behaviours despite the risk of common method variance due to the bias of self-rating of OCB (Conway, 1999). Also some researchers use both supervisors’ rating of OCB and subordinates’ rating of OCB (Hui, Lam, and Law, 2000). It is rare to use peer ratings of OCB (Conway, 1999).

I chose supervisors’ rating of subordinate’s OCB in this research for several reasons. First, self-rating of OCB is not reliable in China. Research on self-rating has revealed a leniency bias (e.g., Nilsen and Campbell, 1993). That is, individuals generally rate themselves more favourably than they are rated by comparison groups (i.e., subordinates, peers, or supervisors). Farh, Dobbins, and Cheng (1991) challenged the cross-cultural generalisability of leniency bias in self-rating. They propose the cultural relativity hypothesis, which suggests

that the relative emphasis placed on *individualism* versus *collectivism* influences the extent to which a self-rater overrates or underrates his or her performance and ability. According to Farh et al. (1991), it is the *individualist* orientation that determines the leniency bias held by American respondents. The *collectivist* orientation, however, leads to a 'modesty bias' among Chinese. Using a sample of 982 leader-subordinate dyads drawn from nine organizations in Taiwan, Farh et al. (1991) found that Chinese employees rated their job performance less favourably than did their supervisors. On the contrary, Furnham and Stringfield (1993), applying an overlapping dataset that was used by Goodstein et al. (1991), did not find differences between Chinese and European managers' performance ratings. Yu and Murphy (1993) compared self, peer, and supervisor ratings of job performance of 367 workers from three plants in mainland China. The self-ratings of the respondents from China were significantly higher than that of the supervisor or peer ratings.

Secondly, peer rating may not be a reliable rating source. Conway (1999) found that through the influence of interpersonal facilitation, one type in contextual performance may be more likely to affect peer rating of others performance ratings, and therefore, it seems reasonable that peer rating of OCB may not be very suitable in this research.

### **3.6 Questionnaire Design**

Basically, there were two types of questions in a questionnaire, namely, open-ended questions and close-ended questions (Oppenheim, 2000; Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994). The open-ended format is a question that is structured in a way that invites an unstructured response. In contrast, the close-ended format is a question that could be answered by ticking a box or circling the proper response from a predetermined set provided by the researcher.

Open-format questions are those that have no prearranged set of responses, and the participants have freedom to answer whatever they choose. Open-format questions are better for soliciting subjective data or when the range of responses is not tightly defined (Oppenheim, 2000) thereby more truly mirroring the opinions of respondents (Schiffman and

Kanuk, 1994; Oppenheim, 2000). This increases the likelihood of researchers receiving unexpected and insightful opinions since it is impossible to predict the full range of opinions (Oppenheim, 2000).

Open-format questions have several disadvantages. First, the nature of open-format questions requires them to be read individually (Oppenheim, 2000). Researchers are unable to automatically tabulate or perform statistical analysis on them. This is obviously more costly in terms of resource and also open to the influence of the reader since no two people will infer an answer in precisely the same way (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994; Oppenheim, 2000). Finally, open-format questions require more of the respondents' thought and time in answering the questions. Hence, the chance of tiring or boring the respondent increases (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994; Oppenheim, 2000).

Close-format questions offer many advantages in time and research cost (Oppenheim, 2000). By controlling the answer set, it is easy to work out percentages and other hard statistical data over the whole group or over any subgroup of participants (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994; Oppenheim, 2000). Close-format questions also make it possible to track opinion over time by administering the same questionnaire to different but similar participant groups at regular intervals (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994). Finally, useless or extreme answers that may occur in an open-format question will be filtered out in close-format questions by restricting the answer set (Oppenheim, 2000).

Since there are both pros and cons in each format of questionnaires, this research is composed of both open-ended questions and close-ended questions.

### 3.6.1 Close-ended Questions

The two questionnaires contain various measures used in the present study. First, the subordinates' questionnaires include measures of demographic variables, loyalty to supervisor, trust in supervisor and supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*. Second, the supervisory

questionnaire is composed of OCB measure, in which supervisors were asked to evaluate the OCB of their immediate subordinates. All items used in the present study are in Mandarin. In all sections, the Likert five point scales were utilised in this research. The Likert scale where the scale ranges from 1=strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree is simple and easy for respondents to answer due to the clarity of the neutral position 3=neither agree nor disagree (Ghauri et al, 2002). The reasons for using such scale is mainly since past research in China mostly employed the Likert five point scale in the study of OCB and its related antecedents (e.g., Wong et al., 2002 and 2003; Wang et al., 2003; Hui et al., 2004; Tjosvold, Hui and Ding, 2003; Tjosvold, Hui and Yu, 2003).

Positions on the Likert scale vary. In general, researchers agree that at least three points should be used, with up to ten points may be applied by respondents, but there is not one perfect scale (Pallant, 2004; Cohen, 1983; Bass, Cascio, and O'Connor, 1974). The debate here is whether it is necessary to include a neutral point or not, and it is reasonable to ask what effect adding a neutral point has on people's response. Some research has suggested including a neutral point has the effect of reducing the percentage of positive responses. As a result, those researchers suggest that using 5-point scales with a neutral point would result in lower scores than similar 4-point scales without the neutral. However, empirical evidence shows using 5-point scales is easier for researchers to interpret and prepare, and therefore, it appears to be the most popular format for attitude scales (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1991). However, because Chinese people tend to choose the mid-point of the scale regardless of their true feelings or attitudes (Chiu and Yang, 1987), and therefore, a possible solution for this is to use a six-point Likert-like scales (1=strongly disagree and 6=strongly agree), which does not include a mid-point to prevent this response bias (Cheng et al., 2003). Nevertheless, the neutral point of the Likert five point scales in China has been evident in past empirical research (Wong et al., 2002 and 2003; Wang et al., 2003; Hui et al., 2004; Tjosvold, Hui and Ding, 2003; Tjosvold, Hui and Yu, 2003). More recently, Begley, Lee and Hui (2006) found that workers in mainland China showed no systematic 'response bias' in Cheng et al.'s (2003) term. Hence, the Likert five point scale was used in this research.

## Section 1 for Subordinate (see Appendix 1)

This section contains questions in relation to personal details like gender, age, position, company's economic ownership, educational level, and employment duration. This section excluded the name of respondents, which could enable the respondents to answer these questions faithfully and ensure confidentiality dismissing any fear of reprisal from their superiors. The quantitative measures are as follows:

Loyalty to supervisor. Seventeen items from the loyalty to supervisor (LS) scale in the original Chinese version (Chen et al., 1998) were used to measure the employees' loyalty to supervisor (i.e. commitment to supervisor) in this study. The LS scale has two Western dimensions as developed by Becker et al. (1996), namely, *identification* (three items) and *internalization* (three items) and has three Chinese indigenous dimensions, namely, *dedication* (i.e. dedicating oneself to a supervisor, four items), *effort* (i.e. exerting effort on behalf of a supervisor, three items) and *following supervisor* (i.e. a subordinate's desire to be attached to the supervisor, four items). Example items for each dimension are: 'My supervisor's successes are my successes' (*identification*); 'Since starting this job, my personal values and those of my supervisor have become more similar' (*internalization*); 'I would support my supervisor in almost any emergency' (*dedication*); 'I will try my best to accomplish the job assigned by my supervisor' (*effort*) and 'I would feel satisfied as long as I may work under my supervisor' (*following supervisor*).

Trust in supervisor. Three original items from trust in/loyalty to the leader scale (Podsakoff et al., 1990) that were validated in China by Wong et al. (2002) in its original Chinese version were selected for this study. The original four items are 'I have complete faith in the integrity of my supervisor', 'My supervisors would not try to gain an advantage by deceiving employees', 'I feel a strong loyalty to my supervisor' and 'I would support my supervisor in almost any emergency'. The fourth item is excluded because it is too similar to one of the items in the scale of loyalty to supervisor as commented by Wong et al. (2002).

However, such a scale only has three items, which raises a question whether it would be appropriate to measure both cognitive and affective based trust in China. My contact with Dr. Denise M. Rousseau seems to help solve such problem; she comments that “I would try to use established scales that have good alpha reliabilities. So the Wong scale seems quite appropriate”<sup>4</sup>.

Subordinate-supervisor *guanxi*. I used eight items based on the frequencies of the interactions, and the degree of mutual interests and benefits between a subordinate and a supervisor to measure subordinate-supervisor *guanxi* in its original Chinese version developed by Wong et al (2003).

**Section 2 for Supervisor (see Appendix 2)**

The inductive OCB scale in its original Chinese version developed by Shi et al. (2004) was used. The scale consists of 47 items and 11 dimensions including *taking initiative, helping behaviour, voice, activity participation, promoting company image, self-development, social welfare participation, protecting company interests, interpersonal harmony, keeping departmental harmony* and *coexist in adversity*. This scale covers most of the OCB dimensions prevalent in the Western literature (Podsakoff et al., 2000). It also includes emic OCB dimensions that are not common in the West. In the two indigenous questionnaires of OCB developed in China (Farh, Zhong and Organ, 2004; and Shi et al., 2004), I chose Shi et al.’s (2004) OCB scale for the simple reason that it is larger than Farh, Zhong and Organ’s (2004) OCB scale, 11 dimensions with 47 items versus 11 dimensions with 33 items.

**3.6.2 Open-ended Questions for Both Supervisor and Subordinate**

Four open-ended questions are concerned with respondents’ opinions as to the relationships among *guanxi* between supervisor and their immediate subordinate, trust in supervisor,

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<sup>4</sup> Correspondence with Dr. Denise M. Rousseau (May, 2006).

loyalty to supervisor, and OCB. Participants were invited to answer some open-ended questions. First, participants were asked to describe one or more concrete events they viewed as *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate according to their past work experience and knowledge. To avoid biasing their responses, I did not provide respondents with examples. Data were obtained by applying the critical incident technique developed by Flanagan (1954), which is defined as any observable human activity that is “sufficiently complete in itself to permit inferences and prediction to be made about the person performing the act” (p. 327). Such a single qualitative question approach aims to collect the descriptions of concrete incidents of *guanxi* from respondents, which is significantly important and has recently become popular in cross-cultural research (Van de Vijver and Leung, 1997; Farh, Earley and Lin, 1997; Farh, Zhong and Organ, 2004). Second, participants were instructed to answer specific questions whether they believe that *guanxi* may lead to trust, loyalty and OCB, in selecting one of the answers from ‘yes’, ‘maybe<sup>5</sup>’, ‘no’ (in line with Rousseau, 1995) structured assessed survey by constructing survey questions that attempt to measure on an interval level). Finally, the informants were also asked about why or why not *guanxi* may foster trust, loyalty and OCB. All four questions were also designed to help avoid common method variance in this research for the single source of rating of variables from either subordinates or supervisors, and avoid the quantitative research problems of predefining hypotheses.

I was mindful when designing the open-ended questions to avoid long ambiguous questions. The following rules are set as guideline for wording questions in this research (De Vaus, 2002, p. 97):

1. Is the language simple?
2. May the question be shortened?
3. Is the question double-barrelled?
4. Is the question leading?
5. Is the question negative?

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<sup>5</sup> The translation of the word ‘maybe’ in the Chinese context means that *guanxi* may or may not enhance trust, loyalty and OCB.



6. Is the respondent likely to have necessary knowledge?
7. Will the words have the same meaning for everyone?
8. Is there a prestige bias?
9. Is the question ambiguous?
10. Is the question too precise?
11. Is the frame of reference for the question sufficiently clear?
12. Does the question artificially create opinions?
13. Is personal or impersonal wording preferable?
14. Is the question wording unnecessary detailed or objectionable?
15. Does the question have dangling alternatives?
16. Does the question contain gratuitous qualifiers?
17. Is the question a 'dead giveaway'?

### **3.7 Pilot Survey One**

A pilot test prior to the questionnaire survey was employed in this research. According to Saunders et al. (2003, p.308), "the purpose of the pilot test is to refine the questionnaire so that the respondents will have no problem in answering the questions and there will be no problems in recording the data." In addition, he states that the pilot test data could help researchers guarantee that the questions about the objectives of the research would be answered. Moreover, the pilot test would allow me to reassess the questionnaire, evaluate the questions' validity and reliability of the data collected and calculate the suitable sample size.

The pilot test had a sample size of 15 respondents and their 3 immediate supervisors in the headquarter of company A (a private-owned real estate company) that was conducted between 15th May 2006 and 19th May 2006. All the questionnaires were distributed and collected by the personnel manager (who holds an MA degree in HRM and has experience in conducting empirical research).

In writing the covering letter and designing the instructions of the questionnaires in its Chinese version, I referred to various sources of previous empirical studies. Firstly, in writing the covering letter, the Chinese format used in previous China's empirical studies by Wong, Wong and Ngo (2002; 2003) and Chen, Farh and Tsui (1998, 2002) was replicated in this study. Secondly, the instruction of the questionnaire in the Chinese version was replicated by applying the format of numerous empirical studies from Wong, Wong and Ngo (2002; 2003) and Chen, Farh and Tsui (1998, 2002).

I ensured the exact meaning of the purpose of this study was translated into Chinese language appropriately. This was tested in a pilot survey with 5 students from China (one female in BA Business Administration, one male in Computer Technology, two females in MA International Management at London Metropolitan University and one female in MSc Law and Accounting at another university in London). All of the respondents reported that they understood the statement of the covering letter, instructions of the questionnaires and every question of the questionnaire.

Given concern about the application of Likert-Five-Point Scale due to Chinese people's tendency to choose the mid-point of the scale regardless of their true feelings or attitudes (Chiu and Yang, 1987), the pilot survey revealed that only three items (out of 75 items) reported the middle-point response, they were "I will put myself in my supervisor's position to consider his/her interests", "When my supervisor is treated unfairly, I will defend him/her", and "When someone praises my supervisor, I feel like a personal compliment" in the Loyalty Scale.

According to the feedback from the personnel managers, the last question in the open-ended question, "in this example, does *guanxi* show the subordinate's display of OCB?" 14 out of 15 respondents did not know what OCB was even if I inserted a footnote to explain that OCB are behaviour that "supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place"(Organ, 1997, p.95), which are "relatively more likely to be discretionary, and relatively less likely to be formally or explicitly rewarded in the

organization “(Podsakoff et al. , 2000, p.549), but in the aggregate, it contributes to the effective functioning of an organization. Therefore, I used Lei Feng<sup>6</sup>, who is the most well-known model of OCB in China to substitute for OCB (Snell and Tseng, 2003; International Organization of Innovation in Civic Participation, 2005). According to Snell and Tseng (2003), Lei Feng exemplifies most forms of OCB such as helping behaviour, taking initiative, etc. Lei Feng has also come to people’s attention in China through the official media. For example, on 5th March each year, the people ‘study Lei Feng’ through donations and charitable service. The official media urged: “‘*Xue Lei Feng, shu xin feng*’ (Emulate Lei Feng, establish a new practice)...and ‘*Xuexi Lei Feng haobangyang—fayang jianku fendoude jingsheng*’ (Study Lei Feng’s fine example—develop the spirit for better struggle)” (Snell and Tseng, 2003, p.308). According to International Organization of Innovation in Civic Participation (2005), in their report, “The Culture of Service and Volunteering in Chinese Society Today” it would be easily to find that in China, Lei Feng is a symbol representative of voluntary work, and thereby, I posited that Lei Behaviour in the workplace would be appropriate to describe the voluntary nature of OCB.

In the first supervisor’s open-ended question, “please give example(s) of *guanxi* between superior and one’s immediate subordinate.” The supervisors tended to describe their *guanxi* with their immediate superior, and therefore, it has been changed into “please give example(s) of *guanxi* between superior and one’s immediate subordinate (like yourself and your subordinates).”

### 3.8 Pilot Survey Two for the Qualitative Study

Paine and Organ (2000) raised one important question pertaining to OCB and culture, which is listed as follows: does the term OCB have the same meaning in other cultures? This is a problem reflected in the open-ended question section. And therefore, I used Lei Feng to substitute for OCB, who is the most well-known model of OCB in China (Snell and

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<sup>6</sup> Lei Feng (December 18, 1940 - August 15, 1962) was a soldier of the People's Liberation Army of the PRC, who was characterized as a selfless and modest person after his death.

Tseng, 2003). In China, high standards of performance, good employee, loyalty, working hard and/or diligence are alternative words used in the description of employee's performance in their organization. However, high standards of performance and/or good employee are the titles used to reward employees who have a very good task performance in the state-owned firm; it is improper to use them to substitute for OCB as those words mainly comment on task performance. It does not actually reflect the non-reward and discretionary nature of OCB. The same reasons apply to the terms of loyalty, working hard and/or diligence. In pilot survey two, the purpose was to redefine the open-ended questions, to ensure their validity and reliability. In order to test the validity as to using Lei Feng to substitute for OCB, I held three meetings with 10 staff from the sampled companies with different types of ownership (three employees from Department of Administration in A, C respectively and three employees from Department of Legal Consultancy in E). I presented both the OCB definition and 11 subtypes of OCB definitions in Table 25 to facilitate their understanding as to the substitution of OCB by Lei Feng behaviour in the workplace, which is similar to Snell's (2005) approach.

Following their feedbacks, I decided to substitute Lei Feng behaviour for OCB as a presentation of the 11 subtypes' definitions guide of OCB (Table 25 see overleaf). The pilot participants also expressed the view that the nature of OCB as voluntary activity rather than discretionary in the Chinese language as the word 'discretionary' tended to have same meaning of the word 'arbitrary' in the Chinese language.

**Table 25 Indicative Definitions of OCB Subtypes Provided in the Pilot Survey 2**

OCB Subtype Label	Definition Provided in the Interview Guide
Taking Initiative	Work with steadiness and sense of responsibility, work overtime or complete one's tasks without extra reward, punctual, arrive and start to work earlier, etc.
Helping behaviour	Is other-centred, cares about colleagues including their daily life difficulties, financial problems, sickness, etc, and is helpful to them if they have problems with their work, helps to solve the problems of new- comers
Voice	Raise suggestions to improve procedures or processes of one's job and the development of the organization, etc.
Activity participation	Actively participate in contests organized by employees, such as labour contest and various ball games and activities organized by the organization, such as various kinds of meetings, and voluntary labour.
Promoting company image	Promote strengths of the organization, and/or company products or services to outsiders
Harmonious	Is fair and respectful to other colleagues; does not cause them any harm such as conflicts and misunderstandings, and does not cheat, trick, slander or deceive them.
Welfare participation	Contribute to commonwealth money donations, attend commonwealth activities and community services, and participate in social activities that help the poor.
Self-development	Actively attend training programs, conduct self-training, enrich oneself in spare time such as professional or work related reading in order to improve job quality, doing physical exercise
Protecting company interests	Clean and maintain one's immediate work environment, Use company time, resources and benefits in a disciplined, economical, and honest manner that demonstrate high integrity and trustworthiness in utilising/protecting company resources.
Coexist in adversity	Standing out boldly, when organization meets with difficulties, and providing suggestions to help organization work out some trouble situations, work as usual even if being treated unfairly, in order to achieve organizational interests, sacrifice one's own interests.
Keeping departmental harmony	Providing advice to facilitate the communication and cooperation among different departments in the organization, helping solve conflicts and maintaining harmony among different departments, initiate help to other department regardless whether it is not a part of job description in one's own department, work as usual regardless of misunderstanding and conflicts, help one's organization to build relationship with outsider organization, provide other department with information that could help facilitate their development, help build good relationship between one's own department and other department.

### 3.9 Translation

The primary language in China is Mandarin. Since all measures in the closed-ended questions were originally developed in Chinese, none of the four translation techniques below were used in the closed-ended questions (Dhitiporn and Derr, 2004, p.413):

1. Back translation (one bilingual translates from the source to target language; then the second blindly translates back from target to the source and the investigators compare the two versions).
2. Bilingual technique (bilinguals take a test in both known languages).
3. Committee approach (a group of bilinguals translate from the source to the target language).
4. Pretest procedure (after a translation is completed, it is field tested) (Brislin, 1970).

In the open-ended questions, due to using Lei Feng to substitute for OCB in the Chinese language, a pretest procedure (after a translation is completed, it is field tested) (Brislin, 1970) was employed in pilot survey two as discussed.

### 3.10 Calculation of Sample Size

According to Saunders et al. (2003), the larger the sample, the higher the confidence in interpreting research results. The determination of sample size is important because it depends upon the variance in the population. It is vital that the variance is measured through the utilisation of the standard deviation calculated from the pilot study (Anderson, et al, 2002).

Commonly, samples are taken from very large populations where the distribution of an occurrence may be expected to be normal. Based on the pilot study, the sample size of the main study may be determined, because the population variance is assumed to equal the variance from the pilot study. Under these conditions, the minimum sample size may be

calculated from the formula below (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2002; Aaker and Day, 1990; Wright and Crimp, 2000):

$$N = \frac{(Z * SD)^2}{E^2}$$

- Where N = the minimum sample size
- Z = the degree of confidence required
- SD = the standard deviation of the population (or an estimate of the SD)
- E = plus or minus error factor allowed

The degree of confidence used is 95%, which gives a z-value of 1.96. From the pilot (see Table 26), standard deviation (69.574) and mean (232.80) were calculated. The error factor used is 5% of mean as “...with most business and management research, researchers are content to estimate the population’s characteristics within plus or minus 3-5 per cent of its true values” (Saunders et al, 2000, p155).

**Table 26 Total Mean and Standard Deviation in the Pilot Survey One**

N (Number of Participants)	Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
15	232.80	4840.600	69.574	75

Based on these values, the minimum total sample size would then be 138.

- Z = the degree of confidence required=1.96
- SD = the standard deviation of the population =69.574
- E = plus or minus error factor allowed=232.80\*0.05=11.64
- Z\*SD=1.96\*69.574=136.36504

As to the minimum total sample size:

$N = 18595.42413 / 135.4896 = 137.24$

At the 95 percent confident level, sample size should be more than 138 persons.

### 3.11 Sampling

Tsui (2006) states that in doing empirical research in China, one important issue is the consideration of contextualization, and therefore, organizational economic ownership seems to be major concern in the sampling procedure. First, organizations in different types of ownership have different ways in defining the roles and responsibilities entailed in a job, which in turn influence employee's OCB (Farh, Zhong and Organ, 2001). Second, organisations with different types of ownership may provide or constrain opportunities for employees to perform certain forms of OCB (Farh, Zhong and Organ, 2001). For example, research by Farh, Zhong and Organ (2001) illustrated that respondents from state-owned enterprises were significantly different from those in non-state owned enterprises. Specifically, respondents from state-owned enterprises tended to report a higher level of OCB on participation in group activities, self-development, and social welfare participation. Respondents from state-owned enterprises tended to report lower OCB on protecting and saving company resources and taking initiative (Farh, Zhong and Organ, 2001). Besides this, choosing companies from different types of ownership and different sectors enables the current study to avoid sampling errors (Bryman et al., 2003) and arguably would be generalisable to the majority of employees in China with different types of economic ownership. Hence, the most common ownership types: state-owned enterprises, private-owned companies and joint ventures were sourced for this research.

#### 3.11.1 Description of the Sampled Companies

Six companies: A, B, C, D, E and F<sup>7</sup> were studied. Company A is a private-owned real estate and construction company, B is a private-owned game and magic tool company, C is a Sino-US joint venture in Science and Technology Development specialising in telecommunication, D is a Sino-South Korean joint venture fire alarm equipment company, E is a branch of a state-owned bank, F is a state-owned publisher. In company E, only six

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<sup>7</sup> I use A, B, C, D, E and F instead of the true names of the researched organisations for business and personal confidentiality.



departments were accessible and in company F, only one department was accessible. In companies A, B, C and D, all employees were accessible. In both E and F, a convenience sample was employed. Several types of workers were excluded from the sample selection: (1) *Xia gang* (layoff) in state-owned enterprises: workers who had been dismissed but were on the formal register receiving a minimal income and welfare from the firm; (2) workers on business trips at the time of survey; (3) workers on sick leave or personal leave at the time of survey; (4) workers no longer in service because of health problems, though maintaining an formal affiliation to the company.

### 3.11.2 Sampling in This Studies

After a brief review of sampling techniques in the table below, a convenience sampling technique was applied.

Table 27 Sampling

A. Probability Sample	
Simple random sampling	Every member of the population has an equal chance of selection
Stratified random sampling	The population is divided into mutually exclusive groups (such as age groups), and random samples are drawn from each group
Systematic Sampling	Systematic sampling works equally with a small or large number of cases.
B. Nonprobability Sample	
Convenience sampling	The researcher selects the most accessible population members
Judgement sampling	The researcher selects population members who are good prospects for accurate information
Quota sampling	The researcher finds and interviews a prescribed number of people in each of several categories

Source: Saunders et al. (2003)

The following reasons may account for the application of such sampling technique. First, due to the diversity mix and large size of enterprises in China, in a population of 1.3 billion with 56 official minorities, any research in China could not be truly random, but is by default a convenience sampling (Tsui, 2006; Boisot and Child, 1996; Park and Luo, 2001, etc). It is argued that this method is the most widely used in China and the only feasible one in the

Chinese context, and may legitimately be used provided its limitations are clearly understood and stated (Tsui, 2006; Boisot and Child, 1996; Park and Luo, 2001).

Second, in most cases, the reason for obtaining a random sample is to avoid the skewing of representativeness of data, but in any research it is also important to be pragmatic about ensuring an adequate response rate. The convenience sampling technique allows me to use a properly designed procedure to ensure completion rates (discussed later in data collection section).

Third, access to Chinese companies for the purpose of data collection has shown an idiosyncratic characteristic of the heavy reliance on *guanxi* (personal network of relationships) as most explicitly or implicitly stated in previous research (e.g., Boisot and Child, 1996; Park and Luo, 2001). Gaining access for research purpose in this study proved to be no exemption. Moreover, the heavy reliance on *guanxi* for access is not purely a consequence of a particularistic social phenomenon; but it is also determined by the nature of the research topic and the methodology that follows. This study's intent to study the dynamics of *guanxi* perceptions between superior and subordinate has triggered a sensitive nerve among the Chinese ever sensitive to the hierarchical order, with the result that without my own *guanxi* network I would have not been able to find real collaboration. Thus, I got support from my previous employer, my father's friend, my acquaintance and my former high schoolmate, who allowed me to conduct the survey in their organisations. Consequently, a high degree of trust and good relationship between the researched enterprises and myself would be a premise for successfully gaining access and collecting rich data based on a convenience sampling.

Fourth, whilst the resulting sample is not random, I made a number of efforts to ensure the research findings would be generalisable to other research settings. These sampled firms are cross-sectorial types of ownership (three) and business (six: manufacturing, construction, finance, service, media and high tech) thereby covering all main economic sectors of China (excluding defence and agriculture, which are highly specific sectors). The sampled

population belongs to the Han majority who comprises 92% of China, thereby making this study generalisable to the majority population in China.

Finally, previous business and management research focused on Shanghai, Guangzhou and Beijing the main economic hubs of China, less is known about other economic areas in China (such critique has emerged in the GLOBE project by Chinese research teams) (Fu et al. 2006). Consequently, an additional aim of this research is to study a less represented (though not less economically developed) region of China.

All firms in this study are located in one modern coastal city in northern China (nicknamed “northern Hong Kong”). Altogether the estimated numbers of employees in the sampled companies is over 400.

### **3.12 Validity and Reliability**

#### **3.12.1 Face Validity of Quantitative Research**

Overall, the combined use of both qualitative and quantitative research methods from the multiple data sources of both supervisors and subordinates are appropriate in ensuring the face validity of the overall research (Trochim, 2001; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Bryman and Bell, 2003). Face validity determines whether the research items are representative of the objective that the researcher would like to measure (Saunders et al., 2003).

#### **3.12.2 Validity and Reliability of Quantitative Research**

Validity concerns the extent to which the research actually reflects those features the investigator wished to study, and whether provided information is relevant to the questions being asked (Baker, 2002). Construct validity refers to the degree to which inferences may legitimately be made from the operationalisation in an empirical study to the theoretical constructs on which that operationalisation was based. It is an assessment of how well the researcher translated the ideas or theories into actual measures. The measures of OCB,

loyalty to supervisor and *guanxi* between supervisor and their immediate subordinate are indigenous Chinese scales developed by an inductive approach and published in good quality journals. For example, Shi et al. (2004) of the Institute of Psychology, Chinese Academy of Sciences developed an OCB scale and discussed it in the annual conference of the International Association for Chinese Management Research. The loyalty to supervisor scale was developed by Chen et al. (1998) and subsequent research by Chen et al. (2002, paper was published in Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology), Chen (2003, paper was published in Journal of Managerial Psychology) and Wong et al. (2002, paper was published in International Journal of Human Resource Management). The trust in supervisor scale was developed and used by Wong et al. (2002, paper was published in International Journal of Human Resource Management) and was found that such scale was valid in China. The *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate scale was developed by Wong et al. (2003) and was published in Asia Pacific Journal of Management. All these support construct validity.

According to Martin and Bateson (1986) and McDaniel and Gates (2000), reliability concerns the extent to which measures were repeatable and consistent; that is, free from random errors. The reliability of the questionnaire used may be tested statistically by using Cronbach's Alpha, which examined the correlation between the measured variables through the application of SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). In order to measure reliability, a Cronbach coefficient alpha test was run on the pilot study. The purpose of this test was to measure the scales' internal consistency. Pallant (2001, p 85) proposes that "ideally the Cronbach alpha coefficient of a scale should be above 0.7". All measures in this study are above 0.7 (Table 28). Consequently, the scales used in the questionnaire may be considered reliable with our sample.

Table 28 Reliability Test of Different Measures

	Scale	Cronbach's Alpha
Loyalty to Supervisor	Dedication	0.975
	Effort	0.947
	Following Supervisor	0.967
	Identification with Supervisor	0.930
	Internalization	0.847
Trust	Trust in Supervisor	0.969
Guanxi	The <i>Guanxi</i> Between Supervisor and Subordinate	0.977
OCB	Helping Behaviour	0.979
	Taking Initiative	0.982
	Self-Development	0.917
	Interpersonal Harmony	0.980
	Keeping Departmental Harmony	0.874
	Voice	0.811
	Group Activity Participation	0.982
	Protecting Company Benefits	0.971
	Promoting Company Image	0.944
	Social Welfare Participation	0.905
	Coexistence in Adversity	0.984

3.12.3 Validity and Reliability of Qualitative Research

Golafshani (2003) argues the term ‘reliability’ is not easily applicable in the qualitative study as he examines the differences in reliability in quantitative and quantitative research. According to Stenbacka, reliability in quantitative research focuses on “purpose of explaining”, whilst the concept in qualitative research has the purpose of “generating understanding” (Stenbacka, 2001, p. 551).

Lincoln and Guba (1985), Bryman and Bell (2003), Ghauri et al. (1995) and Ghauri and Gronhaug (2002), all argue that validity and reliability are essential criteria for quality in qualitative paradigms and the following criteria of validity and reliability for qualitative research are adopted according to their proposition (Table 29).

**Table 29 Validity and Reliability Criteria**

<b>Traditional Criteria for Judging Quantitative Research</b>	<b>Alternative Criteria for Judging Qualitative Research</b>
Internal validity	Credibility
External validity	Transferability
Reliability	Dependability
Objectivity	Confirmability

**Source:** Trochim (2001, <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/qualval.htm>)

**Credibility**

It refers to the establishment of the results of qualitative research are “credible or believable” from the perspective of the participants in the research (Trochim, 2001, p.91). Lincoln and Guba (1985), Bryman and Bell (2003), Golafshani (2003) all advocate the use of triangulation in ensuring the credibility of the qualitative research. Hence, I applied both qualitative research and quantitative research methods in testing the hypotheses. In addition, I collected the questionnaires from multiple sources: both supervisors and subordinates.

**Transferability**

The transferability criteria involve the extent to which the results of qualitative research may be generalised or transferred to other contexts or settings (Trochim, 2001; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Bryman and Bell, 2003). From a qualitative perspective transferability is primarily the responsibility of the one doing the generalising (Trochim, 2001). The qualitative researcher may enhance transferability by doing a thorough job of describing the research context, i.e., the culture, and the assumptions that were central to the research (Bryman and Bell, 2003). The person who wishes to "transfer" the results to a different context is then responsible for making the judgment of how sensible the transfer is (Trochim, 2001). I argue that the research questions designed in this study are transferable

to China in general and even to other Chinese societies. This research was carried out in companies with different types of ownership and different industrial sectors. Two pilot tests were also applied as pretest for the use of Lei Feng behaviour in the workplace to substitute for OCB. However, it is proposed that Lei Feng behaviour in the workplace may not be appropriate to describe OCB in other Chinese societies including Hong Kong, Taiwan and Singapore. But in such societies, researchers may try to find the relevant notion of good citizens to substitute for OCB. I suggest that those scholars should pay attention to the differences between OCB and task performance in looking for a substitution for OCB.

**Dependability**

The idea of dependability emphasises the need for the researcher to account for the ever-changing context within which research occurs (Trochim, 2001). The researcher is responsible for describing the changes that occur in the setting and how these changes affected the way the research approached the study (Trochim, 2001). One possible solution for this is the auditing by peers. In order to improve dependability, data auditors were employed in this research, which is discussed later in Chapter Four.

**Confirmability**

Qualitative research tends to assume that each researcher brings a unique perspective to the study (Trochim, 2001). Confirmability refers to the degree to which the results could be confirmed or corroborated by others. There are a number of strategies for enhancing confirmability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Again, in order to ensure confirmability, data auditors are required by Bryman and Bell (2003). However, they add that such method is not popular and insufficient in itself in business and management research. Golafshani (2003) proposes that triangulation is the best way to ensure the validity of qualitative research. Mathison (1988) elaborates this by saying: “Triangulation has risen as an important methodological issue in naturalistic and qualitative approaches to evaluation [in order to] control bias and establishing valid propositions because traditional scientific techniques are incompatible with this alternate epistemology”(p. 13). Healy and Perry

(2000) further argue that triangulation and respondents from several data sources are the best way in doing research. Therefore, the use of the combination of both qualitative and quantitative research methods (triangulation) from the data source of both supervisors and subordinates plus the employment of data auditors are appropriate in ensuring the confirmability of the qualitative research.

### **3.13 Data Collection**

The supervisor questionnaires were distributed to supervisors; the subordinate questionnaires were distributed to immediate subordinates of these supervisors. In the joint ventures and private-owned firms (A, C and D), questionnaires were distributed to all subordinates through their organisational internal mail service (with payroll) and were collected upon their completion by myself. In the state-owned firms and one private-owned firm, questionnaires were distributed and collected by myself directly. To protect the confidentiality of responses from all respondents, informants were asked on the instruction sheet to seal the completed questionnaires into the provided envelopes.

I assigned an Identification Number (ID) to all participated subordinates (Hui et al., 2000; Hui, et al., 2004). Specially, I matched subordinates' ID number with employee number. In the covering letter, I explained the purpose of ID was to match subordinate respondents and those of their supervisors and guarantee anonymity. I also promised after building the research data profile, to eliminate all questionnaires. The covering letter also informed the respondents that their companies would not have access to the data and that while I have the data, I do not have their name list. Respondents who completed a supervisor questionnaire were asked to eradicate their subordinates' names and only leave the subordinates' ID after filling in the questionnaires.

In collecting the sample data, there was a slight difference between A, C, D and B, E, F. In A, C, D, subordinates' respondents were selected based on the availability of their



supervisors, after contacting Personnel and getting confirmation that the supervisors were available for doing the research. After assigning the ID number, the subordinates' questionnaires were distributed via the internal mail service. Then, 313 participants had three days to respond prior to the final collection by myself accompanied by a personnel staff or one assistant manager.

In order to guarantee the return rate of supervisors, with the generous help and support from A, C and D, I had the opportunities to give a public lecture about OCB and strategic human resource development for supervisors. Before starting and within the lecture, all supervisors (41 supervisors) from the three firms were required to complete their subordinates OCB rating questionnaires. Then, at the end of lecture, I asked the supervisors to hand in those questionnaires before they left.

Subordinates (71) and supervisors (7) respondents from E and F were distributed the questionnaires by myself accompanied by a senior person who initiatively helped me to contact departmental managers (in E, the senior person involved was responsible for legal training and editing the in-house training journal not a managerial position; in F, the person was the chief-editor of the publishing company. These two people have good personal reputation in their respective firms since they were elected as best employees by nomination of all employees and they did not assume any managerial responsibility in their own organisations at the time of this research). It was 5 days before the completed questionnaires could be collected from respondents due to one weekend and then, I accompanied a senior person (my acquaintance) to collect the entire questionnaires. In B, a very small firm with 10 employees and one manager who is the owner as well, I spent one day there in distributing and collecting the questionnaires from all of 11 people in the firm.

Two relevant issues were addressed: The social desirability problem (the inclination to portray oneself in the way which one will be viewed favourably by others, which can cause

the respondents unwillingly to give a biased response) (Arnold and Feldman, 1981) and the response rate (the ratio of number of people who answered the survey divided by the number of people in the sample also known as completion rate or return rate, Baruch, 1999) (lower response rate can “decrease statistical power, increase the size of confidence intervals around sample statistics, limit the types of statistical techniques that can effectively be applied to the collected data”, and “may undermine the actual generalizability of the collected data” and can “produce misleading conclusions”, Rogelberg and Stanton, 2007, p195-196). These issues were dealt with in the following ways: (a) I either distributed the questionnaires by myself or through the firms’ internal mail service to all subordinates and stated in the covering letter that this study was for academic purposes only (Xiao and Bjorkman, 2006; Baruch, 1999); (b) all completed questionnaires were collected directly by myself instead of being routed through the companies (Baruch, 1999); (c) I promised that all responses would be completely confidential and even after building up the database, the questionnaires would be destroyed; (d) except for B firm, in order to get the completed questionnaires, I sent two rounds of reminders by placing a message on the notice board or distributing leaflets or posters to the employees stressing the difficulties in interpreting missing data and demographic information, approximately two days after the first invitation and one day before collection (Xiao and Bjorkman, 2006; Baruch, 1999); (e) when collecting their completed response, the subordinates were reminded again to fill in all missing data and were informed of the difficulties I would encounter for such missing data (Xiao and Bjorkman, 2006; Baruch, 1999); (f) in A, C and D firms, the supervisors’ questionnaires were checked through for missing data points (but not the qualitative questions). Then, following Xiao and Bjorkman (2006), I called or met the relevant supervisor respondents to fill in the missing data again. In B, E and F, after collecting the supervisors’ questionnaires, I went through their questionnaires and asked their help to fill in the missing data again. It took about 10-20 minutes to wait for entire completion in each department (when data was missing). However, I did not ask either supervisors or subordinates to complete their qualitative answers (superior-subordinate *guanxi* is sensitive in hierarchical cultures) and demographic information. The missing data for demographic information was re-obtained either from supervisors (B, E and F) or from Personnel (A, C and D). In addition, those subordinates who

had been distributed questionnaires and were not available due to their personal or business reasons, had their questionnaires collected on a second visit; (g) I also followed the suggestions recommended by Rogelberg and Stanton (2007, p.197) through “personally notifying them [participants] that they will be receiving a survey”(covering letter); actively publicizing the survey to respondents (e.g., posters, notice board); informing “survey respondents about the purpose of the survey and how survey results will be used” (e.g., covering letter) and considering “the physical design of survey: Is it pleasing to the eye? Easy to read? Uncluttered? Are questions evenly spaced?” [e.g., using the physical design from previous successful surveys by Wong, Wong and Ngo (2003) and Chen et al. (2002)].

Altogether, 352 supervisor-subordinate dyads finally responded to this survey (310 subordinates and 49 supervisors), which represents a response rate of 79% (out of 394 distributed) and a further 97% usable responses from subordinates (out of 310 subordinates returned), which is a good return rate for organisational surveys (Baruch, 1999). Response rate of supervisors was 100%. The attainment of such a high response rate may require further explanation. I consider two issues are significantly important. One is the high level of interpersonal *guanxi* (the people who help me gain data access) with some of the supervisors, which puts supervisors under obligation to complete their questionnaires since *guanxi* is transferable. The other reason is that the people who supported me to gain data access have good personal reputation in their organisation. To be specific, their salient personal attributes win both supervisors and subordinates’ respect and trust, which in turn put respondents under moral obligation to respond favourably to the survey.

### 3.14 Summary

This chapter has outlined the methodology utilised for collecting the primary data. Following the proposed research procedure and the review of the extant literature concerning the definition of research approach, research framework, research strategy and source of ratings, self-administered questionnaires were used to conduct this research. After the explanation of the design of questionnaires, two pilot tests were conducted prior to the

actual research and amendments made in response to feedback. After exploring sampling techniques, this chapter has discussed the literature on the validity and reliability as well as the literature for estimation of the sample size. Finally, the data collection procedures were described.

## Chapter 4: Analysis of Findings

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the findings of the primary data collected, through the employment of questionnaires from six enterprises with different types of economic ownership: joint ventures (Dalian C Science and Technology Development Co. Ltd and Dalian D Fire Alarm Equipment Co, Ltd); state-owned companies (The Branch of E Bank of China in Dalian and Dalian F Press); and private-owned companies (Dalian A Real Estate Developing Co. Ltd and a small private-owned firm- Dalian B Magic Tool Company); and representing six different economic sectors: manufacturing, construction, finance, service, media and high-tech respectively.

In the quantitative study, I tested the hypotheses concerning the relationships among superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor, loyalty to supervisor and subordinates' OCB through the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 14.0 (SPSS). In the qualitative part, the analyses of qualitative data through content analyses and grounded analysis are also accomplished. Finally, several additional issues related to either qualitative or quantitative research are discussed in this chapter.

### 4.2 Respondents' Profile

The respondents' profiles present an overall picture of the entire sample of 303 participants, i.e. subordinates from six companies in China. Subordinates' demographics (six demographic attributes) were measured and used to test sub-group differences in display of OCB. Age was measured by number of years and tenure was measured by number of months. They were recoded so as to enable the ANOVA tests to be used. Respondents in 22-30 years group was recoded as 1; 31-40 years group as 2; 41-50 years group as 3 and 51-60 as 4. Subordinates with 0-3 years working experience was recoded as 1; 3-5 years as

2; 5-8 years as 3 and above 8 years as 4. Gender was coded with 0 designating men and 1 representing women. Organisational position was coded with 0 for managerial staff, 1 for non-managerial staff. Types of economic ownership were coded with 0 for stated-owned firms, 1 for joint venture and 2 for private-owned firms. Levels of education were coded as 1 for high school leavers, 2 for diploma's holders, 3 for bachelor degree's graduates and 4 for postgraduates (above bachelor's degree). The tables below are expressed in percentage.

4.2.1 Gender Distribution

It can be seen from Table 30, in the collected data of the 303 subordinates, 36% of respondents were females and 64% were males. Specifically, it could be observed that the number of men (195) was larger than the number of women (108).

Table 30 Gender Distribution of Subordinates in Six Researched Firms

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	195	64	64	64
	Female	108	36	36	100.0
	Total	303	100.0	100.0	

4.2.2 Age Distribution

It is apparent that Table 31 illustrates that the majority of the respondents were in the age group of 31-40 years comprising the percentage of 56.8%. Also, 23.8% of respondents were in the group of 22-30 years and 14.2% of respondents were in the group of 41-50 years. The smallest percentage of 5.3% was people who were over 50 years. Therefore, it appears that the majority of subordinates in this research were above 30 years old.

**Table 31 Age Distribution of Subordinates in Six Researched Firms**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	22-30	72	23.8	23.8	23.8
	31-40	172	56.8	56.8	80.5
	41-50	43	14.2	14.2	94.7
	51-60	16	5.3	5.3	100.0
	Total	303	100.0	100.0	

**4.2.3 Education Distribution**

According to Table 32, the majority of the respondents were holders of Bachelor degree and diploma holders, 72 % of the total sample. This was followed by high school leavers (20.1%); postgraduates and people with Doctorate degree were 7.9%. Therefore, since the majority of the respondents were diploma holders or above, it is reasonable to assume that subordinates had a high level of understanding for the importance and the purpose of this research.

**Table 32 Educational Levels Distribution of Subordinates in Six Researched Firms**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High School Leavers	61	20.1	20.1	20.1
	Diploma Holders	112	37.0	37.0	57.1
	Graduates	106	35.0	35.0	92.1
	Postgraduates	24	7.9	7.9	100.0
	Total	303	100.0	100.0	

4.2.4 Job Position Distribution

According to the collected data of 303 participates (Table 33), 80% were non-managerial staff while 20 % were managerial staff.

Table 33 Job Position Distribution of Subordinates in Six Researched Firms

		Frequency	Perce nt	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Managerial	59	20	20	20
	Non-manag erial	244	80	80	100.0
	Total	303	100.	100.0	

4.2.5 Work Period Distribution

Table 34 showed that most of the respondents (38.3%) had more than 8 years of work experience in their respective companies, which was followed by the group of 3-5 years (28.1%) and the group of 5-8 years (28.1%) respectively. The minority of the respondents fell into the group of 0-3 years (5.6%).

Table 34 Work Period Distribution of Subordinates in Six Researched Firms

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0-3 years	17	5.6	5.6	5.6
	3-5 years	85	28.1	28.1	33.7
	5-8years	85	28.1	28.1	61.7
	Above 8 years	116	38.3	38.3	100.0
	Total	303	100.0	100.0	



### 4.2.6 Types of Ownership Distribution

In Table 35, the percentage of the respondents in different types of ownership for this research is demonstrated. Most respondents who account for 39.9% of total sample were from private-owned enterprises; whereas the minority of respondents (22.4%) worked in the stated-owned enterprises. Other respondents (114 among 303 representing 37.6%) were from joint ventures.

**Table 35 Ownership Types Distribution of Subordinates in Six Researched Firms**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	State-owned	68	22.4	22.4	22.4
	Joint venture	114	37.6	37.6	60.1
	Private-owned	121	39.9	39.9	100.0
	Total	303	100.0	100.0	

### 4.3 Intercorrelations of the Variables

The means, standard deviations, reliabilities and intercorrelations (zero-order correlation) of all variables are reported in Table 36. The examination of the table shows that the Cronbach Alpha (reliability) for all of the multi-item scales including supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*, loyalty to supervisor, trust in supervisor and various OCB forms are above 0.7 (the lowest is 0.80). Therefore, those measures are considered reliable.

Regarding multicollinearity of the data (a statistical difficulty for the existence of a high degree of linear correlation amongst two or more variables in a regression model, which makes it difficult to analyse the effects of them on the dependent variable) (Tsui, Ashford, StClair, and Xin, 1995), there is no definitive criterion for the level of correlation that

constitutes a serious problem. The general rule of thumb is that it should not exceed 0.75 (Tsui, Ashford, StClair, and Xin, 1995). In the current sample, the highest correlation was between *guanxi* and interpersonal harmony at  $r = 0.71$ . This level of correlation does not suggest a problem of multicollinearity. Because the independent variable (*guanxi*) and the dependent variables (OCB) were obtained from different sources, there is no common method variance problem in this study (Chen, 2004).

The intercorrelations (zero-order correlation) in Table 36 also illustrate several findings at the 95% of confidence level by using Pearson product-moment correlation:

- (1) Superior-subordinate *guanxi* was significantly and positively related to two dimensions of loyalty to supervisor, i.e., dedication to supervisor ( $r = .22$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and making effort ( $r = .45$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ).
- (2) Superior-subordinate *guanxi* was significantly related to eight dimensions of OCB i.e., helping behaviour ( $r = .60$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ), taking initiative ( $r = .69$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ), interpersonal harmony ( $r = .71$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ), keeping departmental harmony ( $r = .28$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ), group activity participation ( $r = .38$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ), promoting company image ( $r = .55$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ), protecting company interests ( $r = .63$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and coexistence in adversity ( $r = .60$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ); whereas *guanxi* between superior and subordinate did not correlate with self-development, social welfare participation and voice.
- (3) Superior-subordinate *guanxi* was significantly and positively related to trust in supervisor ( $r = .55$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ).
- (4) Trust in supervisor was significantly related to seven dimensions of OCB i.e., helping behaviour ( $r = .66$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ), taking initiative ( $r = .48$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ), interpersonal harmony ( $r = .44$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ), keeping departmental harmony ( $r = .42$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ), group activity participation ( $r = .14$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .05$ ), promoting company image ( $r = .44$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and coexistence in adversity ( $r = .41$ ,  $n = 303$ ,  $p < .01$ ); whereas trust in supervisor did not correlate with self-development, protecting company interests, social welfare participation and voice.
- (5) Only two dimensions of loyalty to supervisor, i.e., dedication and effort were highly

related to certain forms of OCB. Specifically, both dedication and effort were positively related to seven dimensions of OCB i.e., helping behaviour ( $r=.58$ ,  $n=303$ ,  $p<.01$ ), taking initiative ( $r=.13$ ,  $n=303$ ,  $p<.05$ ), interpersonal harmony ( $r=.59$ ,  $n=303$ ,  $p<.01$ ), keeping departmental harmony ( $r=.51$ ,  $n=303$ ,  $p<.01$ ), group activity participation ( $r=.29$ ,  $n=303$ ,  $p<.01$ ), promoting company image ( $r=.32$ ,  $n=303$ ,  $p<.01$ ), and coexistence in adversity ( $r=.52$ ,  $n=303$ ,  $p<.01$ ); whereas both dedication and effort did not correlate with social welfare participation and protecting company interests. However, both self-development ( $r= -.14$ ,  $n=303$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and voice ( $r= -.21$ ,  $n=303$ ,  $p<.01$ ) were found to be negatively related to dedication and did not relate to effort.

- (6) Trust in supervisor was significantly and positively related to two dimensions of loyalty to supervisor, i.e., dedication ( $r=.42$ ,  $n=303$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and effort ( $r=.54$ ,  $n=303$ ,  $p<.01$ ).

Table 36 Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability Coefficients and Zero-Order Correlations of Measures

	Mean	SD	<i>guanxi</i>	dedication	effort	following	identification	internalization	trust	helping	initiative
<b><i>Guanxi</i></b>	3.32	1.40	<b>.98</b>								
Dedication	3.10	.92	.22(**)	<b>.89</b>							
Effort	3.03	1.12	.45(**)	.53(**)	<b>.91</b>						
Following	3.38	1.09	-.06	-.09	-.04	<b>.97</b>					
Identification	1.65	.70	-.01	-.12(*)	-.09	.65(**)	<b>.90</b>				
Internalization	1.69	.61	.02	-.05	-.01	-.17(**)	.27(**)	<b>.80</b>			
Trust	2.99	1.29	.55(**)	.42(**)	.54(**)	-.06	-.07	-.05	<b>.96</b>		
Helping	2.98	1.08	.60(**)	.58(**)	.60(**)	-.08	-.08	-.01	.66(**)	<b>.93</b>	
Initiative	3.52	1.36	.69(**)	.13(*)	.39(**)	-.04	.02	-.01	.48(**)	.47(**)	<b>.96</b>
Development	3.32	1.25	.04	-.14(*)	-.04	.01	-.02	.00	-.02	.02	-.36(**)
Interpersonal	2.99	1.06	.71(**)	.59(**)	.40(**)	-.05	-.03	.00	.44(**)	.55(**)	.47(**)
Departmental	3.48	.94	.28(**)	.51(**)	.47(**)	-.02	-.06	.00	.42(**)	.52(**)	.04
Voice	3.40	.99	-.07	-.21(**)	.03	-.04	-.03	.02	.10	.03	-.05
Group	3.86	1.13	.38(**)	.29(**)	.45(**)	.03	-.07	-.05	.14(*)	.34(**)	.10
Interests	3.35	1.09	.55(**)	.20	.12	.02	.10	.07	.07	.12(*)	.37(**)
Image	3.21	1.16	.63(**)	.32(**)	.53(**)	-.04	-.06	-.01	.44(**)	.51(**)	.57(**)
Welfare	2.56	.78	.04	-.10	-.04	-.01	-.03	.10	-.11	-.06	.05
Coexistence	3.23	1.29	.60(**)	.52(**)	.49(**)	-.03	.00	-.04	.41(**)	.56(**)	.64(**)
Gender	.36	.48	.02	-.08	-.15(*)	.15(**)	.12(*)	-.01	-.12(*)	-.10	.09
Education	1.31	.88	-.03	-.10	-.05	.08	.02	-.02	-.04	-.10	-.02
Position	.81	.34	-.08	-.00	-.03	.06	.02	-.06	-.07	-.05	-.03
Ownership	1.17	.77	.06	.17(**)	.14(*)	.03	.06	-.02	.19(**)	.18(**)	.04
Tenure	34.84	8.00	.05	-.15(*)	-.06	-.03	.02	.12(*)	-.07	-.06	.04
AGE	4.85	2.08	-.07	-.08	-.06	.08	.05	.00	-.11	-.19(**)	-.08

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

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

#### **4.4. Demographic Variables and OCB (T-Tests)**

T-TEST is commonly used to examine whether the means of two groups of data are significantly different from each other or not (Pallant, 2004). It can tell the researcher the probability that the difference between the two variables is genuine. Scholars will consider the difference as significant only if the probability that there is a difference is higher than 95% (Pallant, 2004). However, though the basic assumption for t-test is that the samples are normally distributed, Stevens (1996) states that a large sample size, which is above 30, would not cause any major problems for t-test, even if the data collected are not distributed normally. Consequently, independent t-test is applied to test the relationships between OCB, gender and job position. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is an extension of the t-test, which tests whether there is a significant difference of means between more than two groups (Pallant, 2004). Thus, it is employed to examine the differences between OCB, tenure, age and ownership.

##### **4.4.1 Gender, Position and OCB**

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare all forms of OCB scores for male and female respondents, managerial and non-managerial respondents. There was no significant difference in means scores of OCB's various forms for males and females and managerial and non-managerial respondents.

##### **4.4.2 Ownership and OCB**

A one-way between-group analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of ownership types on the levels of employees' OCB. Subjects were divided into three groups according to their ownership types (group 1: state-owned enterprises; group 2: joint ventures; group 3: private-owned enterprises). The analysis reveals that at the 95% of confidence level, the respondents displayed OCB differently according to different types of economic ownership. The analysis of variance shows significant difference (see Appendix 4) in staff's exhibition of helping behaviour ( $p = .005$ ,  $F =$

5.315), interpersonal harmony ( $p = .008$ ,  $F = 4.887$ ), promoting company's image ( $p = .031$ ,  $F = 3.513$ ) and social welfare participation ( $p = .000$ ,  $F = 217.278$ ) in firms with different types of economic ownership. The effect size, calculated using eta squared in the formula below, was .034 ( $12.076/352.917$ ) for helping behaviour; .031 ( $10.662/337.947$ ) for interpersonal harmony; .022 ( $9.242/403.901$ ) for promoting company's image; .592 ( $109.220/184.620$ ) for social welfare participation. According to Cohen (1988), the criteria for eta squared are small = .01; medium=.06; large=.14. Hence, the effect size for helping behaviour, promoting company image and interpersonal harmony is small (.01< eta squared <.06) and social welfare participation is large (.14< eta squared).

$$\text{Eta squared} = \frac{\text{Sum of squares between-groups}}{\text{Total sum of squares}}$$

In terms of helping behaviour, Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for state-owned firms (mean=2.72; Std. Deviation=1.077) was not significantly different from joint ventures (mean=2.89; Std. Deviation=1.042) but was from private-owned firms (mean=3.21; Std. Deviation=1.082). Joint ventures did not differ significantly from private-owned firms. Respondents from private-owned firms were more likely to help than staff in state-owned firms.

In displaying interpersonal harmony, Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for state-owned firms (mean=2.79; Std. Deviation=1.00) was not significantly different from joint ventures (mean=2.86; Std. Deviation=1.055) but was from private-owned firms (mean=3.21; Std. Deviation=1.058). Joint ventures did differ significantly from private-owned firms. Staff in private-owned firms seemed to engage in interpersonal harmony better than staff in state-owned firms and joint ventures.

In terms of promoting company image, Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD

test indicated that state-owned firms did not differ significantly from both joint ventures and private-owned firms. Joint ventures (mean=3.05; Std. Deviation=1.143) did differ significantly from private-owned firms (mean=3.42; Std. Deviation=1.146). Staff in private-owned firms performed better than those in joint ventures.

Regarding contribution to the social welfare, Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for state-owned firms was significantly different from both joint ventures and private-owned companies (mean=3.68 compared to 2.26 and 2.21; Std. Deviation= .558 compared to .442 and .520). Staff in state-owned firms performed better than their counterparts in joint ventures and private-owned firms. Joint ventures did not differ significantly from private-owned firms.

#### **4.4.3 Education and OCB**

A one-way between-group analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of education on the levels of employees' OCB. Subjects were divided into four groups according to their education (group 1: high school leavers; group 2: diploma holders; group 3: graduates; group 4: postgraduates). The analysis of variance shows significant differences (see Appendix 5) in staff's exhibition of helping behaviour ( $p = .004$ ,  $F = 4.539$ ), interpersonal harmony ( $p = .002$ ,  $F = 5.006$ ), protecting company image ( $p = .004$ ,  $F = 3.181$ ) and social welfare participation ( $p = .000$ ,  $F = 23.496$ ) at the 95% of confidence level. The effect size, calculated using eta squared in the formula below, was .044 (15.372/352.917) for helping behaviour; .048 (16.161/337.947) for interpersonal harmony; .030 (12.492/403.901) for promoting company's image; .191 (35.220/184.620) for social welfare participation. According to Cohen (1988), the criteria for eta squared are small = .01; medium=.06; large=.14. Hence, the effect size for helping behaviour, promoting company's image and interpersonal harmony is small (.01 < eta squared < .06) and social welfare participation is large (.14 < eta squared).

$$\text{Eta squared} = \frac{\text{Sum of squares between-groups}}{\text{Total sum of squares}}$$

As to interpersonal helping, Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the group of high school leavers (mean=3.30; Std. Deviation=1.070) was not significantly different from the group of diploma holders (mean= 2.97; Std. Deviation=1.086) and the group of postgraduates (mean=3.33; Std. Deviation=.917) but differed from the group of graduates (mean=2.74; Std. Deviation=1.063). High school leavers performed better than the group of graduates. Overall, there were no significant differences among diploma holders, postgraduates and graduates.

In terms of interpersonal harmony, Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the group of high school leavers (mean=3.34; Std. Deviation=.998) was not significantly different from the group of diploma holders (mean=2.99; Std. Deviation=1.095) and postgraduates (mean=3.21; Std. Deviation=1.103) but there was a significant difference with the group of graduates (mean=2.73; Std. Deviation=.981). High school leavers performed better than the group of graduates. There were no significant differences among diploma holders, postgraduates and graduates

With respect to promoting company image, Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the group of high school leavers (mean=3.54; Std. Deviation=1.119) was not significant different from the group of diploma holders (mean=3.18; Std. Deviation=1.084) and postgraduates (mean=3.42; Std. Deviation=1.227) but there was a significant difference with the group of graduates (mean=3.00; Std. Deviation=1.100). High school leavers performed better than the group of graduates. There were no significant differences among diploma holders, postgraduates and graduates.



Regarding social welfare participation, Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the group of graduates (mean=3.02; Std. Deviation=.915) was significantly different from the group of high school leavers (mean=2.21; Std. Deviation=.451), diploma holders (mean=2.38; Std. Deviation=.617) and postgraduates (mean= 2.29; Std. Deviation=.550). The group of graduates performed better than the groups of high school leavers, graduates and postgraduates. There were no significant differences among diploma holders, postgraduates and graduates.

#### 4.4.4 Age, Tenure and OCB

A one-way between-group analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of age and tenure on the levels of employees' OCB. Subjects were divided into four groups according to their age (group 1: 22-30 years old; group 2: 31-40 years old; group 3: 41-50 years old; group 4: 51-60 years old). Subjects were divided into four groups according to their employment history (group 1: 0-3 years; group 2: 3-5 years; group 3: 5-8 years; group 4: more than 8 years). The analysis of variance shows no differences in the display of all forms of OCB among different tenure groups. The analysis of variance shows significant differences ( $p = .009$ ,  $F= 3.960$ ;  $p = .004$ ,  $F= 4.505$ ) in two types of OCB - helping behaviour and keeping departmental harmony (see Appendix 6) at the 95% of confidence level. The effect size, calculated using eta squared in the formula below, was .044 (15.372/352.917) for helping behaviour; .038 (10.151/265.611) for keeping departmental harmony. According to Cohen (1998), the criteria for eta squared are small = .01; medium=.06; large=.14. Hence, the effect size for helping behaviour and keeping departmental harmony is small (.01< eta squared eta squared<.06).

$$\text{Eta squared} = \frac{\text{Sum of squares between-groups}}{\text{Total sum of squares}}$$

Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for 22-30 group (mean=3.28; Std. Deviation=.996) was not significantly different from 31-40 group (mean=2.99; Std. Deviation=1.116) and 51-60 group (mean=2.56; Std. Deviation=1.031) but there was a significant difference with 41-50 group (means=2.60; Std. Deviation=.955). The younger workers performed better than the older. There were no significant differences among 31-40 group, 41-50 group and 51-60 group.

In maintaining departmental harmony, Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for 22-30 (mean=3.78; Std. Deviation=.856) group was not significantly different from 31-40 group and 51-60 group (means=2.94 and 2.75 respectively; Std. Deviation=.927 and 1.211 respectively) but was for the 41-50 group (mean=3.19; Std. Deviation=.906). The younger workers performed better than the older. There were no significant differences among 31-40 group, 41-50 group and 51-60 group.

#### **4.5 Testing of Hypotheses (Quantitative Research)**

To test the hypotheses, hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used, entering the hypothesized independent variable into the equations for each dependent variable. Baron and Kenny (1986) and Judd and Kenny (1981) have proposed four steps in establishing mediation:

Step 1: Show that the initial variable is correlated with the outcome. Use dependent variable as the criterion variable in a regression equation and independent variable as a predictor. This step establishes that there is an effect that may be mediated.

Step 2: Show that the initial variable is correlated with the mediator. Use mediating variables as the criterion variable in the regression equation and independent variable as a predictor. This step essentially involves treating the mediator as if it were an outcome variable.

Step 3: Show that the mediator affects the outcome variable. Use dependent variables as the criterion variable in a regression equation and independent variables and the mediating variables as predictors. It is not sufficient just to correlate the mediator with the outcome; the mediator and the outcome may be correlated because they are both caused by the independent variable. Thus, the independent variable must be controlled in establishing the effect of the mediator on the outcome.

Step 4: To establish that the mediating variables completely mediates the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable controlling for the mediating variable should be zero (full mediation) or become smaller (partial mediation).

Baron and Kenny (1986) also propose that rules of multiple mediators are: if there are multiple mediators, they can be tested simultaneously or separately. The advantage of doing them simultaneously is that one learns if the mediation is independent of the effect of the other mediators. Hence, the multiple mediators are tested simultaneously.

#### **4.5.1 Results of Analyses: Hypothesis One (*Guanxi* and OCB)**

Hypothesis 1 predicted that high level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of display of a subordinate's OCB.

Step 1: Hierarchical multiple regression was used to assess the ability of the control

measure (i.e. superior-subordinate *guanxi*) to predict the various OCB dimensions (model 2 in Table 37) after controlling for the influence of six demographic variables (model 1). Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity (please refer to the intercorrelations analysis in Table 36). Superior-subordinate *guanxi* had a significant influence only on the following at the 95% of confidence level:

- (1) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 9% of the variance in helping behaviour. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 42%,  $F = 30.91$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables, superior-subordinate *guanxi* explained an additional 33% of the variance in helping behaviour,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .33$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 170.33$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 2, the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' helping behaviour was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = 0.58^{***}$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).
- (2) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 2% of the variance in individual initiative. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 48%,  $F = 39.13$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables, superior-subordinate *guanxi* explained an additional 46% of the variance in individual initiative,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .02$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 260.04$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 2, the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' individual initiative was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = 0.68^{***}$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).
- (3) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 6% of the variance in interpersonal harmony. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 53%,  $F = 46.67$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables, superior-subordinate *guanxi* explained an additional 47% of the variance in interpersonal harmony,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .47$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 288.51$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 2, the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' interpersonal harmony was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = 0.69^{***}$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

- (4) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 6% of the variance in keeping departmental harmony. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 13%,  $F = 6.14$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables, superior-subordinate *guanxi* explained an additional 7% of the variance in keeping departmental harmony,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .07$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 22.23$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 2, the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' keeping departmental harmony was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = 0.26^{***}$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).
- (5) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 4% of the variance in group activity participation. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 13%,  $F = 8.89$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables, superior-subordinate *guanxi* explained an additional 11% of the variance in group activity participation,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .11$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 48.68$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 2, the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' group activity participation was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = 0.26^{***}$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).
- (6) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 2% of the variance in protecting company interests. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 33%,  $F = 20.77$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables, superior-subordinate *guanxi* explained an additional 31% of the variance in protecting company interests,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .31$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 136.19$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 2, the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' protecting company interests was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = 0.56^{***}$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).
- (7) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 4% of the variance in promoting company image. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 42%,  $F = 31.01$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables, superior-subordinate *guanxi* explained an additional 38% of the variance in promoting company image,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .38$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 195.37$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 2, the relationship

between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' promoting company image was statistically significant (Beta= 0.62\*\*\*,  $p<0.001$ ).

- (8) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 5% of the variance in coexistence in adversity. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 39%,  $F= 26.46$ ,  $p<0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables, superior-subordinate *guanxi* explained an additional 34% of the variance in coexistence in adversity,  $R$  square change=.34,  $F$  change=160.77,  $p<0.001$ . In the model 2, the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' coexistence in adversity was statistically significant (Beta= 0.59\*\*\*,  $p<0.001$ ).

Hence, the higher level of superior-subordinate *guanxi*, the higher level of subordinates' display of those various forms of OCB.

Table 37 Regression Results for *Guanxi* on OCB

							OCB			
	Helping		Initiative		Development		Harmony		Departharmony	
	Model1	Model2	Model1	Model2	Model1	Model2	Model1	Model2	Model1	Model2
Control Variables										
Gender	-0.09	-0.11*	0.10	0.08	-0.05	-0.05	0.06	0.03	-0.09	-0.10
Education	-0.04	-0.03	-0.01	-0.01	-0.13*	-0.13*	-0.08	-0.07	0.02	0.02
Position	-0.03	0.02	-0.04	0.02	-0.04	-0.04	-0.09	-0.03	-0.02	0.00
Ownership	0.17*	0.14**	0.03	-0.01	-0.12	-0.12	-0.13	0.09	0.08	0.07
Age	-0.19**	-0.14**	-0.12*	-0.06	-0.02	-0.02	-0.09	-0.02	-0.17*	-0.15**
Tenure	0.08	0.05	-0.01	-0.04	0.05	0.05	0.11	0.07	0.11**	0.10
<i>Guanxi</i>		0.58***		0.68***		0.04		0.69***		0.26***
R Square	0.09	0.42	0.02	0.48	0.02	0.02	0.06	0.53	0.06	0.13
R Square Change	0.09	0.33***	0.02	0.46***	0.02	0.01	0.06	0.47***	0.06	0.07***
Adjusted R Square	0.07	0.41	0.01	0.47	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.51	0.04	0.11
Overall F	4.88	30.91***	1.24	39.13***	1.15	1.04	3.23**	46.67***	3.23*	6.14
F Change	4.88	170.33	1.24	260.04	1.15	0.38	3.23	288.51	3.23*	22.23
Degree of Freedom	6,296	7, 295	6,296	7, 295	6,296	7, 295	6,296	7, 295	6,296	7, 295

Voice		Group		Interests		Image		Welfare		Coexistence	
Model1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
-0.03	-0.03	-0.07	-0.08	0.07	0.05	-0.04	-0.07	-0.04	-0.04	0.04	0.01
-0.10	-0.10	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	-0.06	-0.06	-0.05	-0.05	0.06	0.07
-0.05	-0.05	-0.05	-0.02	-0.09	-0.05	-0.05	0.00	0.03	0.04	-0.05	0.00
0.02	0.02	-0.08	-0.10	-0.09	-0.12*	0.10	0.07	-0.67***	-0.68***	0.17*	0.14**
-0.02	-0.03	-0.13*	-0.09	-0.02	0.03	-0.05	0.01	0.01	0.02	-0.11	-0.06
0.02	0.03	0.08	0.06	-0.04	-0.07	0.13***	0.10*	-0.03	-0.03	0.12*	0.09
	-0.08		0.37***		0.56***		0.62***		0.09		0.59***
0.02	0.02	0.04	0.17	0.02	0.33	0.04	0.42	0.42	0.43	0.05	0.39
0.02	0.01	0.04	0.14	0.02	0.31	0.42	0.38	0.42	0.01	0.05	0.34***
0.04	0.00	0.02	0.16	0.00	0.33	0.02	0.41	0.41	0.42	0.03	0.37
0.82	0.99	1.95	8.89	1.05	20.77	2.18	31.01	36.14	31.82	2.65	26.46
0.82	2.03	1.95	48.68	1.05	136.19	2.18*	195.37	36.14	3.82	2.65	160.77
6,296	7, 295	6,296	7, 295	6,296	7, 295	6,296	7, 295	6,296	7, 295	6,296	7, 295

Notes: \*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$



## 4.5.2 Results of Analyses: Hypotheses Two and Three (*Guanxi*, Trust and Loyalty)

Hypothesis 2 predicted that high level of *guanxi* between subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of trust in one's supervisor.  
Hypothesis 3 predicted that high level of *guanxi* between subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of loyalty to one's supervisor.

Next, hierarchical multiple regression was used to assess the ability of the control measure (i.e. superior-subordinate *guanxi*) to predict trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor (model 2 in Table 38) after controlling for the influence of six demographic variables (model 1). Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity (please refer to the intercorrelations analysis in Table 36). Supporting H2 and partially supporting H3, at the 95% of confidence level, *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate was a significant predictor of trust in supervisor and two dimension of loyalty to supervisor, i.e., dedication to supervisor and making effort on behalf of supervisor respectively:

(a) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 7% of the variance in trust in supervisor. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 35%,  $F = 4.80$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables, superior-subordinate *guanxi* explained an additional 28% of the variance in trust in supervisor,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .28$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 125.64$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 2, the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' trust in supervisor was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = .53$  and  $p < .001$ ).

(b) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 6% of the variance in dedication to supervisor. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 10%,  $F = 4.80$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables, superior-subordinate *guanxi* explained an additional 4% of the variance in dedication to supervisor,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .4$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 12.64$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 2, the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' dedication to supervisor was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = .20$  and  $p < .001$ ).

(c) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 6% of the variance in making effort on behalf of supervisor. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 25%,  $F = 13.97$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables, superior-subordinate *guanxi* explained an additional 19% of the variance in making effort on behalf of supervisor,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .19$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 75.24$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 2, the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' making effort on behalf of supervisor was statistically significant ( $Beta = .44$  and  $p < .001$ ).



### 4.5.3 Results of Analyses: Hypotheses Four and Five (The effects of trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor on OCB)

Hypothesis 4 predicted that high level of subordinate's loyalty to supervisor is positively related to high level of display of subordinate's OCB. Hypothesis 5 predicted that high level of subordinate's trust in supervisor is positively related to high level of display of subordinate's OCB.

**Step 3:** Hierarchical multiple regression was used to assess the ability of the control measures (i.e. trust and loyalty) to predict various forms of OCB simultaneously (model 3 in Table 39) after controlling for the influence of six demographic variables (model 1) and the independent variable- *guanxi* (model 2). Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity (please refer to the intercorrelations analysis in Table 36). The following findings were found:

(1) Dedication with helping behaviour; individual initiative; self-development; interpersonal harmony; keeping departmental harmony; voice; group activity participation; and coexistence in adversity:

(a) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 9% of the variance in helping behaviour. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 42%. After entry of dedication to supervisor at Step 3, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 66%,  $F = 42.42$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, dedication to supervisor explained an additional 24% of the variance in helping behaviour,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .24$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 32.85$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between dedication to supervisor and helping behaviour was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = 0.31$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

(b) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 2% of the variance in individual initiative. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 48%. After entry of dedication to supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 52%,  $F = 23.66$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, dedication to supervisor explained an additional 4% of the variance in individual initiative,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .04$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 3.62$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . In the model 3, the relationship between dedication to supervisor and individual initiative was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = -0.12$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).

(c) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 2% of the variance in self-development. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 2%. After entry of dedication to supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 5%,  $F = 1.20$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, dedication to supervisor explained an additional 1% of the variance in self-development,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .03$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 1.40$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . In the model 3, the relationship between dedication to supervisor and self-development was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = -0.17$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).

(d) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 6 % of the variance in interpersonal harmony. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 53%. After entry of dedication to supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 74%,  $F = 62.72$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, dedication to supervisor explained an additional 21% of the variance in helping behaviour,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .21$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 39.44$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between dedication to supervisor and interpersonal harmony was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = 0.56$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

(e) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 6% of the variance in keeping departmental harmony. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 13%. After entry of dedication to supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 36%,  $F=12.58$ ,  $p<0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, dedication to supervisor explained an additional 23% of the variance in keeping departmental harmony,  $R\text{ square change}=.23$ ,  $F\text{ change}=17.72$ ,  $p<0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between dedication to supervisor and keeping departmental harmony was statistically significant ( $Beta=0.34$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).

(f) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 2% of the variance in voice. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 2%. After entry of dedication to supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 16%,  $F=4.03$ ,  $p<0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, dedication to supervisor explained an additional 14% of the variance in voice,  $R\text{ square change}=.14$ ,  $F\text{ change}=7.43$ ,  $p<0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between dedication to supervisor and voice was statistically significant ( $Beta=0.40$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).

(g) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 4% of the variance in group activity participation. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 17%. After entry of dedication to supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 35%,  $F=11.63$ ,  $p<0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, dedication to supervisor explained an additional 18% of the variance in group activity participation,  $R\text{ square change}=.18$ ,  $F\text{ change}=12.51$ ,  $p<0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between dedication to supervisor and group activity participation was statistically significant ( $Beta=0.16$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).

(h) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 5% of the variance in coexistence in adversity. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 39%. After entry of dedication to supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 55%,  $F=26.71$ ,  $p<0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, dedication to supervisor explained an additional 16% of the variance in coexistence in adversity,  $R^2 \text{ change}=.16$ ,  $F \text{ change}=17.16$ ,  $p<0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between dedication to supervisor and coexistence in adversity was statistically significant ( $Beta=0.31$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).

(2) Effort with helping behaviour; individual initiative; interpersonal harmony; keeping departmental harmony; voice; group activity participation; and protecting company image:

(a) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 9% of the variance in helping behaviour. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 42%. After entry of making effort on behalf of supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 66%,  $F=42.42$ ,  $p<0.05$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, making effort on behalf of supervisor explained an additional 24% of the variance in helping behaviour,  $R^2 \text{ change}=.24$ ,  $F \text{ change}=32.85$ ,  $p<0.05$ . In the model 3, the relationship between making effort on behalf of supervisor and helping behaviour was statistically significant ( $Beta=0.12$ ,  $p<0.05$ ).

(b) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 2% of the variance in individual initiative. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 48%. After entry of making effort on behalf of supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 52%,  $F = 23.66$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, making effort on behalf of supervisor explained an additional 4% of the variance in individual initiative,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .04$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 3.62$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between making effort on behalf of supervisor and individual initiative was statistically significant ( $Beta = -0.17$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

(c) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 6 % of the variance in interpersonal harmony. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 53%. After entry of making effort on behalf of supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 74%,  $F = 62.72$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, making effort on behalf of supervisor explained an additional 21% of the variance in helping behaviour,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .21$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 39.44$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between making effort on behalf of supervisor and interpersonal harmony was statistically significant ( $Beta = 0.56$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

(d) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 6% of the variance in keeping departmental harmony. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 13%. After entry of making effort on behalf of supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 36%,  $F = 12.58$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, making effort on behalf of supervisor explained an additional 23% of the variance in keeping departmental harmony,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .23$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 17.72$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . In the model 3, the relationship between making effort on behalf of supervisor and keeping departmental harmony was statistically significant ( $Beta = 0.19$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).



(e) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 2% of the variance in voice. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 2%. After entry of making effort on behalf of supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 16%,  $F = 4.03$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, making effort on behalf of supervisor explained an additional 14% of the variance in voice,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .14$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 7.43$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . In the model 3, the relationship between making effort on behalf of supervisor and voice was statistically significant ( $Beta = 0.16$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

(f) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 4% of the variance in group activity participation. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 17%. After entry of making effort on behalf of supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 35%,  $F = 11.63$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, making effort on behalf of supervisor explained an additional 18% of the variance in group activity participation,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .18$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 12.51$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . In the model 3, the relationship between making effort on behalf of supervisor and group activity participation was statistically significant ( $Beta = 0.38$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

(g) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 4% of the variance in protecting company image. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 42%. After entry of making effort on behalf of supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 49%,  $F = 21.15$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, making effort on behalf of supervisor explained an additional 7% of the variance in coexistence in adversity,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .07$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 6.19$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . In the model 3, the relationship between making effort on behalf of supervisor and coexistence in adversity was statistically significant ( $Beta = 0.25$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

(3) Internalisation with supervisor and social welfare participation:

(a) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 42% of the variance in helping behaviour. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 43%. After entry of internalisation with supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 44%,  $F = 17.40$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, internalisation with supervisor explained an additional 24% of the variance in helping behaviour,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .24$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 0.98$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . In the model 3, the relationship between internalisation with supervisor and social welfare participation was statistically significant ( $Beta = 0.11$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).

(4) Trust with helping behaviour; individual initiative; interpersonal harmony; keeping departmental harmony; group activity participation; protecting company interests; and coexistence in adversity:

(a) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 9% of the variance in helping behaviour. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 42%. After entry of trust in supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 66%,  $F = 42.42$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor explained an additional 24% of the variance in helping behaviour,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .24$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 32.85$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between trust in supervisor and helping behaviour was statistically significant ( $Beta = 0.27$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

(b) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 2% of the variance in individual initiative. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 48%. After entry of trust in supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 52%,  $F = 23.66$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor explained an additional 4% of the variance in individual initiative,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .04$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 3.62$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . In the model 3, the relationship between trust in supervisor and individual initiative was statistically significant ( $Beta = 0.17$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

(c) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 6 % of the variance in interpersonal harmony. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 53%. After entry of trust in supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 74%,  $F = 62.72$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor explained an additional 21% of the variance in helping behaviour,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .21$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 39.44$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . In the model 3, the relationship between trust in supervisor and interpersonal harmony was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = -0.10$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

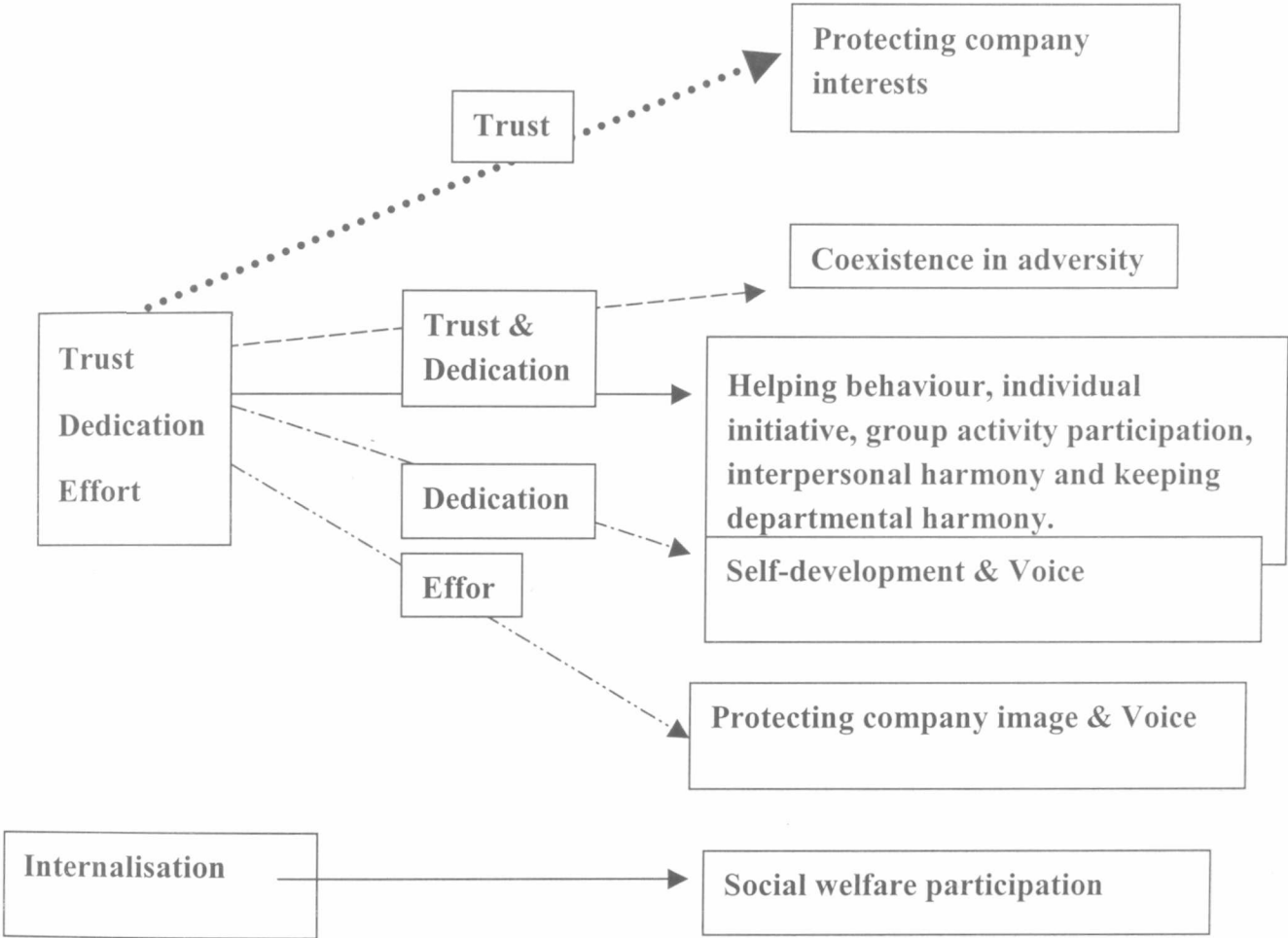
(d) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 6% of the variance in keeping departmental harmony. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 13%. After entry of trust in supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 36%,  $F = 12.58$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor explained an additional 23% of the variance in keeping departmental harmony,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .23$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 17.72$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . In the model 3, the relationship between trust in supervisor and keeping departmental harmony was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = 0.16$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).

(e) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 4% of the variance in group activity participation. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 17%. After entry of trust in supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 35%,  $F = 11.63$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor explained an additional 18% of the variance in group activity participation,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .18$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 12.51$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between trust in supervisor and group activity participation was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = -0.33$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

(f) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 2% of the variance in protecting company interests. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 33%. After entry of trust in supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 41%,  $F = 15.03$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor explained an additional 8% of the variance in protecting company interests,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .08$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 6.07$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between trust in supervisor and protecting company interests was statistically significant ( $Beta = -0.30$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

(g) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 5% of the variance in coexistence in adversity. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 39%. After entry of trust in supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 55%,  $F = 26.71$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor explained an additional 16% of the variance in coexistence in adversity,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .16$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 17.16$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between trust in supervisor and coexistence in adversity was statistically significant ( $Beta = -0.11$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).

**Figure 6 Summary Scheme of the Effects of Loyalty to Supervisor and Trust in Supervisor on Various Forms of OCB**



In addition, from the Figure above, I found that both supervisory loyalty, i.e., dedication and effort and trust in supervisor have effects on predicting various OCB forms including helping behaviour, individual initiative, interpersonal harmony, keeping departmental harmony, and group activity participation (i.e., third from top line in Figure 6). In Figure 6, the long-dash line (second from top) showed the common effects of trust and dedication on coexistence in adversity.

The dash-dot line (third from bottom) in Figure 6 illustrated that dedication was correlated with self-development and voice only. Effort was reported to be correlated with voice and protecting company image only (the dash-dot-dot line second from bottom in Figure 6). Internalisation with supervisor and social welfare participation were also found to be related to each other only (bottom line in Figure 6). Supervisory trust was correlated with protecting company interests only (top line in Figure 6).

Table 39 Regression Results for Loyalty and Trust on OCB (Step3) Notes: \* p < 0.05; \*\* p < 0.01, \*\*\* p < 0.001

	Helping			Initiative			Development			Harmony			Departmental		
	Model 1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3
Step 1															
Gender	-0.09	-0.11*	-0.03	0.10	0.08	0.11	-0.05	-0.05	-0.06	0.06	0.03	0.04	-0.09	-0.10	-0.03
Education	-0.04	-0.03	-0.04	-0.01	-0.01	-0.02**	-0.13*	-0.13	-0.14*	-0.08	-0.07	-0.06	0.02	0.02	0.02
Position	-0.03	0.02	0.01	-0.04	0.02	0.02	-0.04	-0.04	-0.04	-0.09	-0.03	-0.05	-0.02	0.00	-0.01
Ownership	0.17*	0.14**	0.03	0.03	-0.01	-0.04	-0.12	-0.12	-0.10	-0.13	0.09*	0.04	0.08	0.07	-0.04
Age	-0.19**	-0.14**	-0.10**	-0.12*	-0.06	-0.05	-0.02	-0.02	-0.03	-0.09	-0.02	0.00	-0.17*	-0.15**	-0.12
Tenure	0.08	0.05	0.00	-0.01	-0.04	-0.05	0.05	0.05	0.07	0.11	0.07	0.02	0.11**	0.10	0.05
Step 2															
Guanxi		0.58 ***	0.33 ***		0.68 ***	0.55 ***		0.04	0.07		0.69 ***	0.70 ***		0.26 ***	0.03
Step 3															
Dedication			0.31 ***			-0.12*			-0.17*			0.56 ***			0.34 ***
Effort			0.12**			0.14*			0.00			-0.17 ***			0.19**
Following			0.01			-0.08			0.09			0.04			0.07
Identification			-0.01			0.09			-0.08			0.00			-0.04
Internalisation			0.02			-0.06			0.03			0.02			0.06
Trust			0.27 ***			0.17**			0.01			-0.10**			0.16*
R Square	0.09	0.42	0.66	0.02	0.48	0.52	0.02	0.02	0.05	0.06	0.53	0.74	0.06	0.13	0.36
R Square Change	0.09	0.33 ***	0.24 ***	0.02	0.46 ***	0.04**	0.02	0.00	0.03	0.06	0.46 ***	0.22 ***	0.06	0.07 ***	0.24 ***
Adjusted R Square	0.07	0.41	0.64	0.00	0.47	0.50	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.04	0.51	0.73	0.04	0.11	0.34
Overall F	4.83 ***	30.60 ***	42.42 ***	1.22	38.74 ***	23.66 ***	1.14	1.03	1.20	3.19**	46.19 ***	62.72 ***	3.20**	6.08 ***	12.58 ***
F Change	4.83	168.60	32.85	1.22	257.40	3.62	1.14	0.37	1.40	3.19*	285.58	39.44	3.20	22.00	17.72
Degree of Freedom	6,293	7,292	13,286	6,293	7,292	13,286	6,293	7,292	13,286	6,293	7,292	13,286	6,293	7,292	13,286

Voice			Group			Interests			Image			Welfare			Coexistence		
Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3
-0.03	-0.03	0.01	-0.07	-0.08	-0.06	0.07	0.05	-0.01	-0.04	-0.07	-0.03	-0.04	-0.04	-0.04	0.04	0.01	0.04
-0.10	-0.10	-0.12	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.02	-0.06	-0.06	-0.06	-0.05	-0.05	-0.05	0.06	0.07	0.08
-0.05	-0.05	-0.04	-0.05	-0.02	-0.04	-0.09	-0.05	-0.05	-0.05	0.00	-0.01	0.03	0.04	0.04	-0.05	0.00	-0.02
0.02	0.02	0.02	-0.08	-0.10	-0.12	-0.09	-0.12*	-0.07	0.10	0.07	0.03	-0.67***	-0.68***	-0.67	0.17*	0.14**	0.07
-0.02	-0.03	-0.03	-0.13*	-0.09	-0.10	-0.02	0.03	0.01	-0.05	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.02	-0.11	-0.06	-0.04
0.02	0.03	0.06	0.08	0.06	0.01	-0.04	-0.07	-0.05	0.13***	0.10*	0.07	-0.03	-0.03	-0.02	0.12*	0.09	0.02
	-0.08	-0.24*		0.37***	0.36***		0.56***	0.75***		0.62***	0.51***		0.09	0.10		0.59***	0.52***
		0.40***			0.16***			0.06			0.05			0.00			0.40***
		0.16**			0.38**			-0.08			0.25***			0.04			0.10
		0.01			0.13			0.00			0.07			0.08			-0.06
		-0.06			-0.09			0.08			-0.08			-0.07			0.10
		0.05			-0.02			0.01			0.03			0.11*			-0.07
		0.29***			-0.33***			-0.30***			0.00			-0.05			-0.11*
0.02	0.02	0.16	0.04	0.17	0.35	0.02	0.33	0.41	0.04	0.42	0.49	0.42	0.43	0.44	0.05	0.39	0.55
0.02	0.01	0.13***	0.04	0.13	0.18***	0.02	0.31***	0.08***		193.38***	6.19***	0.42	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.34***	0.16***
0.00	0.00	0.12	0.02	0.15	0.32	0.00	0.31	0.38	0.02	0.41	0.47	0.41	0.42	0.42	0.03	0.37	0.53
0.81	0.98	4.03***	1.93	8.80	11.63***	1.04	20.56***	15.03***	2.16*	30.69***	21.15***	35.77***	31.49***	17.40***	2.62**	26.19***	26.71***
0.81	2.01	7.43	1.93	48.19	12.51	1.04	134.81	6.07	2.16*	193.38	6.19	35.77	3.79	0.98	2.62**	15.13	17.19
6,293	7,292	13,286	6,293	7,292	13,286	6,293	7,292	13,286	6,293	7,292	13,286	6,293	7,292	13,286	6,293	7,292	13,286

Notes: \* p < 0.05; \*\* p < 0.01, \*\*\* p < 0.001

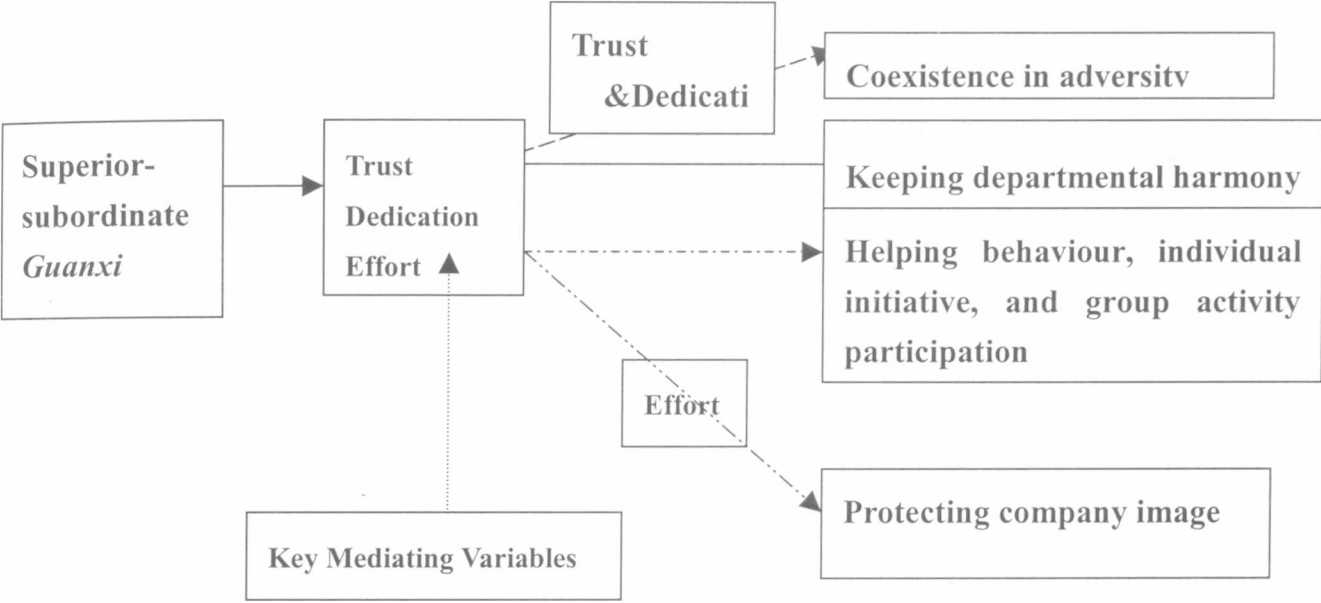
#### 4.5.4 Results of Analyses: Hypotheses Six and Seven (Mediating effects of trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor between *guanxi* and OCB)

Hypothesis 6 predicated that trust in supervisor mediates between supervisor-subordinate's *guanxi* and a subordinate's OCB. Hypothesis 7 predicated that loyalty to supervisor mediates between supervisor-subordinate's *guanxi* and a subordinate's OCB.

**Step 4:** I then controlled for the mediators (trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor) and demographic variables and tested the effect of the independent variable (*guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate) on the OCB regression equations (Table 40) (Model 1 explained the influence of six demographic variables on various forms of OCB, whilst model 2 indicated the effect of the various forms of loyalty to supervisor and the dimension of trust in supervisor on the different OCB dimensions after controlling for the influence of six demographic variables, and finally, model 3 assessed the ability of superior-subordinate *guanxi* to predict different types of OCB after controlling for the influence of both six demographic variables and the mediating variables - loyalty to supervisor and trust in supervisor). If significant relationships emerge in all three regressions but the relationship strength becomes smaller, then partial mediation occurs. If no significant relationships emerge, then complete mediation exists (Baron and Kenny, 1986). Figure 7 provides a summary scheme of mediating relationships between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and key variables reality in OCB.



Figure 7 Summary Scheme of Mediating Relationships in OCB:  
Superior-subordinate *Guanxi* and OCB Constructs



I found support of full mediation for the following relationships (see the solid line, i.e., second from top line in Figure 7 for the common full mediating effects of trust, dedication and effort between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and keeping departmental harmony) at the 95% of confidence level:

- (1) Superior-subordinate *guanxi* → trust in supervisor → keeping departmental harmony;
- (2) Superior-subordinate *guanxi* → dedication → keeping departmental harmony;
- (3) Superior-subordinate *guanxi* → effort → keeping departmental harmony.

In Figure 7, the dash-dot line (second from bottom) showed the common partial mediating effects of trust, dedication and effort between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and helping behaviour, individual initiative, and group activity participation. The long-dash line (top line) illustrated the significant partial mediating effects of trust and dedication between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and coexistence in adversity; and the long dash-dot-dot line (bottom line) demonstrated significant partial mediating effects

of effort between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and promoting company image. I found support of partial mediation for trust in supervisor, dedication and effort on the following relationships at the 95% of confidence level:

- (1) Superior-subordinate *guanxi* → trust in supervisor → helping behaviour, individual initiative, group activity participation and coexistence in adversity;
- (2) Superior-subordinate *guanxi* → dedication → helping behaviour, individual initiative, group activity participation and coexistence in adversity;
- (3) Superior-subordinate *guanxi* → effort → helping behaviour, individual initiative, group activity participation and protecting company image.

**Table 40 *Guanxi* on OCB after Controlling for Mediating Factors**

	Helping			Initiative			Develop			Harmony			Depart Harmony		
	Model 1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3
Step 1															
Gender	-0.09	0.01	-0.03	0.10	0.18	0.11	-0.05	-0.06	-0.06	0.06	0.12**	0.04	-0.09	-0.02	-0.03
Education	-0.04	-0.05	-0.04	-0.01	-0.03	-0.02	-0.13*	-0.14*	-0.14*	-0.08	-0.08	-0.06	0.02	0.02	0.02
Position	-0.03	-0.01	0.01	-0.04	-0.01	0.02	-0.04	-0.04	-0.04	-0.09	-0.08	-0.05	-0.02	-0.01	-0.01
Ownership	0.17*	0.00	0.03	0.03	-0.08	-0.04	-0.12	-0.10	-0.10	0.13	-0.01	0.04	0.08	-0.04	-0.04
Age	-0.19**	-0.11**	-0.10**	-0.12*	-0.07	-0.05	-0.02	-0.03	-0.03	-0.09	-0.02	0.00	-0.17**	-0.12*	-0.12*
Tenure	0.08	0.01	0.00	-0.01	-0.04	-0.05	0.05	0.07	0.07	0.11	0.04	0.02	0.11*	0.05	0.05
Step 2															
Dedication		0.28***	0.31***		-0.18**	-0.12***		-0.18*	-0.17*		0.48***	0.56***		0.33***	0.34***
Effort		0.21***	0.12*		0.30***	0.14***		0.02	0.00		0.04	-0.17		0.19**	0.19**
Following		-0.02	0.01		-0.13	-0.08		0.08	0.09		-0.02	0.04		0.07	0.07
Identification		0.02	-0.01		0.13	0.09		-0.07	-0.08		0.06	0.00		-0.04	-0.04
Internalisation		0.02	0.02		-0.05	-0.06		0.03	0.03		0.02	0.02		0.06	0.06
Trust		0.42***	0.27***		0.42	0.17**		0.04	0.01		0.23***	-0.10		0.17**	0.16
Step 3															
<i>Guanxi</i>			0.33***			0.55***			0.07			0.70***			0.03
R Square Change		0.50***	0.07***		0.30***	0.20***		0.03	0.00		0.37***	0.31***		0.30***	0.00*
Adjusted R Square	0.07	0.57	0.64	0.00	0.30	0.50	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.40	0.73	0.04	0.34	0.34
Overall F	4.83***	34.63***	42.42***	1.22	11.43***	23.66***	1.14	1.24	1.20	3.19**	17.78***	62.72***	3.20*	13.64***	12.58***
Degree of Freedom	6,293	12,287	13,286	6,293	12,287	13,286	6,293	12,287	13,286	6,293	12,287	13,286	6,293	12,287	13,286

Voice			Group			Interests			Image			Welfare	
Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2
-0.03	-0.02	0.01	-0.07	-0.02	-0.06	0.07	0.09	-0.01	-0.04	0.04	-0.03	-0.04	-0.0
-0.10	-0.12	-0.12	0.00	-0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.02	-0.06	-0.08	-0.06	-0.05	-0.0
-0.05	-0.03	-0.04	-0.05	-0.06	-0.04	-0.09	-0.09	-0.05	-0.05	-0.04	-0.01	0.03	0.0
0.02	0.03	0.02	-0.08	-0.15	-0.12***	-0.09	-0.12	-0.07	0.10	0.00	0.03	-0.67***	-0.67**
-0.02	-0.02	-0.03	-0.13*	-0.11*	-0.10***	-0.02	-0.01	0.01	-0.05	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.0
0.02	0.06	0.06	0.08	0.02	0.01	-0.04	-0.04	-0.05	0.13***	0.08	0.07	-0.03	-0.0
	-0.37***	-0.40***		0.12	0.16**		-0.03	0.06		-0.01	0.05		-0.0
	0.10	0.16		0.48***	0.38***		0.14	-0.08		0.40***	0.25***		0.0
	0.03	0.01		0.10	0.13		-0.06	0.00		0.03	0.07		0.0
	-0.08	-0.06		-0.07	-0.09		0.14	0.08		-0.04	-0.08		-0.0
	0.05	0.05		-0.02	-0.02		0.01	0.01		0.03	0.03		0.1
	0.19**	0.29***		-0.17**	-0.33***		0.04	-0.30***		0.23***	0.00		-0.0
		-0.24**			0.36***			0.75***			0.51***		
	0.10***	0.04**		0.23***	0.08***		0.03	0.35***		0.29***	0.16***		0.0
0.00	0.08	0.12	0.02	0.23	0.32	0.02	0.05	0.41	0.02	0.30	0.47	0.41	0.4
0.81	3.26***	4.03***	1.93	8.63***	11.63***	1.04	1.35	15.03***	2.16	11.66***	21.15***	35.77***	18.46**
6,293	12,287	13,286	6,293	12,287	13,286	6,293	12,287	13,286	6,293	12,287	13,286	6,293	12,28

Notes: \* p < 0.05; \*\* p < 0.01, \*\*\* p < 0.001

4.5.5 Comparing *Guanxi* Effects on Supervisory Trust and Supervisory Loyalty

Referring to hypothesis one in quantitative analysis, *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate was a significant predictor of trust in supervisor (Beta =.53 and P<.001) and two dimension of loyalty to supervisor, i.e., dedication and effort (Beta = .20 and P<. 001; Beta = .44 and P< .001) (Table 38) at the 95% of confidence level. However, Steiger (1980), Cohen (1983), Hui, Lee and Rousseau (2004a) and Pallant (2004) provide a detailed procedure as to the ways which researchers may use statistical calculations to understand the relationship strength of the effect between supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* and supervisory trust and supervisory loyalty. There are two conditions to use the formula (Figure 8 Fisher Z Value Calculations): (a) independent variable and dependent variables are correlated; (b) independent variable can significantly predict the dependent variables. Such analytical procedure seems to be more accurate than the traditional comparison based on Beta values (Hui, Lee and Rousseau, 2004a).

According to the steps (Steiger, 1980; Pallant, 2004, p.126-128), I used the following formula to make sense of the relationships among superior-subordinate *guanxi* and supervisory trust, superior-subordinate *guanxi* and supervisory loyalty (dedication) and superior-subordinate *guanxi* and supervisory loyalty (effort).

Figure 8 Fisher Z Value Calculations

$$Z = \frac{Z_1 - Z_2}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{N_1 - 3} + \frac{1}{N_2 - 3}}}$$

I firstly found Pearson correlation coefficients r (Table 36).

r1 (superior-subordinate *guanxi* and supervisory trust) =. 55;

r2 (superior-subordinate *guanxi* and supervisory loyalty, i.e., dedication) =. 22;

r3 (superior-subordinate *guanxi* and supervisory loyalty, i.e., effort) =. 45.

N1=N2=N3=303 (number of cases used in the analysis)

And then I used the table in (Pallant, 2004, p.126-128) to convert r into Fisher z value.

In the transformation of r to Z (Pallant, 2004, p.127)

$$Z1=.700; Z2=.224; Z3=.485$$

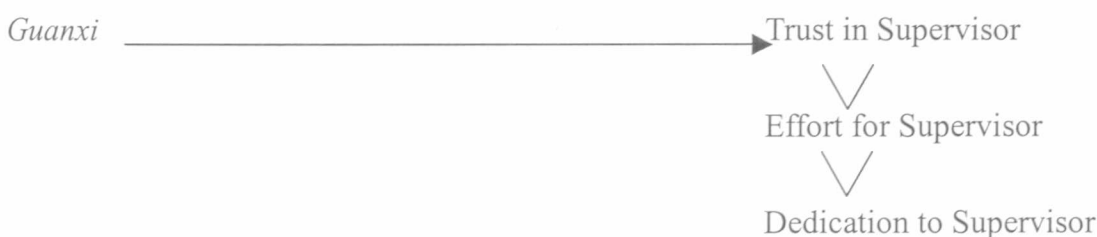
Finally, it applied the formula above (Figure 8) to test the relationships among different variables. Therefore, Z value (Z1Z2) (superior-subordinate *guanxi* and supervisory trust) = 5.95; Z value (Z1Z3) (superior-subordinate *guanxi* and supervisory loyalty, i.e., dedication) = 2.69; Z value (Z3Z2) (superior-subordinate *guanxi* and supervisory loyalty, i.e., effort) = 3.26

According to Steiger (1980) and Pallant (2004, p.128), the decision rule is:

If  $-1.96 < Z \text{ value} < 1.96$ : correlation coefficients are not statistically significantly different,

If  $Z \text{ value} \leq -1.96$  or  $Z \text{ value} \geq 1.96$ : correlation coefficients are statistically significantly different,

**Figure 9 Relationship Strengths among *Guanxi*, Trust and Loyalty between Supervisors and Subordinates**



Hence, *guanxi*'s relationship strength with trust in supervisor is stronger *than* *guanxi* on effort, which in turn is higher than *guanxi* on dedication ( $5.95 > 3.26 > 2.69$ ) (Figure 9).

#### 4.5.6 The Relationship between Supervisory Loyalty and Supervisory Trust

As mentioned in the literature review, trust in supervisor is likely to predict supervisory loyalty. The hierarchical regression analysis supports this argument: trust in supervisor acts as the antecedents of three dimensions of loyalty to supervisor, e.g., following supervisor (negative), making effort on behalf of supervisor (positive) and identification with supervisor (negative).

**Figure 10 Relationships among Supervisor-subordinate *Guanxi*, Trust in Supervisor and Loyalty to Supervisor**



In Appendix 25, hierarchical regression analysis showed after the first set of demographic variables and the independent variable (*guanxi*) were entered in analysis, at the 95% of confidence level, trust in supervisor significantly predicts dedication to supervisor and making effort on behalf of supervisor (Figure 10): (a) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 6% of the variance in dedication to supervisor. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 10%. After entry of trust in supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 21%,  $F = 9.65$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor explained an additional 11% of the variance in dedication to supervisor,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .11$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 39.19$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between trust in supervisor and dedication to supervisor was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = .40$ , and  $p < .001$ ). (b) Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 6% of the variance in making effort on behalf of supervisor. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 25%. After entry of trust in supervisor at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 35%,  $F = 19.47$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor explained an additional 11% of the variance in making effort on behalf of supervisor,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .10$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 43.76$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between trust in supervisor and making effort on behalf of supervisor was statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = .37$ , and  $p < .001$ ). It is consistent with previous findings by Wong et al. (2002). Thus, trust in supervisor precedes loyalty to supervisor, however, the findings of the hierarchical regression analysis also showed loyalty to supervisor, i.e., making effort on behalf of supervisor ( $\text{Beta} = .473$ , and  $p < .001$ ) acts as precursor to trust in supervisor: Six demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 7% of the variance in making effort on behalf of supervisor. After entry of superior-subordinate *guanxi* at Step 2, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 35%. After entry of various forms of loyalty to supervisor simultaneously at Step 3, the total variance of explained by the model as a whole was 46%,  $F = 20.33$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . After controlling for the six demographic variables and superior-subordinate *guanxi*, dedication to supervisor and making effort on behalf of supervisor explained an additional 11% of the variance in making effort on behalf of supervisor,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .11$ ,  $F \text{ change} = 11.99$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . In the model 3, the relationship between dedication to supervisor and making effort on behalf of supervisor and trust in supervisor; the relationship between making effort on behalf of supervisor and trust in supervisor were statistically significant ( $\text{Beta} = .185$ , and  $p < .001$ ) ( $\text{Beta} = .240$ , and  $p < .001$ ). This suggests a natural reinforcing enactment between trust in supervisor and loyalty to

supervisor.

#### 4.5.7 OCB and Demographics

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to assess the ability of six demographic variables in predicting various forms of OCB. The analysis revealed that gender was not a predictor of OCB (Table 40), neither did managerial level (Table 40) at the 95% of confidence level.

Findings show age impact at the 95% of confidence level. Thus, younger workers performed better than older ones on providing helping behaviour ( $\text{Beta}=-0.19^{**}$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), keeping departmental harmony ( $\text{Beta}=-0.17^{*}$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) (in line with ANOVA analysis), taking initiative ( $\text{Beta}=-0.12^{*}$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and group activity participation ( $\text{Beta}=-0.13^{*}$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) differently (Table 40).

Tenure was found to be related to keeping department harmony ( $\text{Beta}=0.11^{**}$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), promoting the company image ( $\text{Beta}=0.13^{***}$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and coexistence in adversity ( $\text{Beta}=0.12^{*}$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) at the 95% of confidence level. Experienced workers seemed to perform better than less experienced workers (Table 40).

Respondents from private-owned firms and joint ventures were found to be more likely to help than staff in state-owned firms ( $\text{Beta}=0.17^{*}$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) at the 95% of confidence level. Staff in joint ventures and private-owned firms seemed to engage in coexistence in adversity ( $\text{Beta}=0.17^{*}$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) better than staff in state-owned firms at the 95% of confidence level. Regarding contributing to the social welfare ( $\text{Beta}=-0.67^{***}$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and interpersonal harmony ( $\text{Beta}=-0.13^{*}$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), this study found that candidates from state-owned companies tended to perform better than private-owned firms and joint ventures (Table 40) at the 95% of confidence level.

Educational level was also found to be related to self-development (Table 40) at the 95% of confidence level: highly educated subordinates were less likely to engage in self-development ( $\text{Beta}=-0.13^{**}$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) (Table 40).

#### 4.5.8 Summary of Quantitative Findings in reference to the Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 stated that high level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of display of a subordinate's OCB. At the 95%



of confidence level, I found supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* predicted helping behaviour, individual initiative, interpersonal harmony, keeping departmental harmony, group activity participation, protecting company interests, promoting company image and coexistence in adversity. However, self-development, voice and social welfare participation were not found to be the outcomes of supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*.

**Hypothesis 2 stated that high level of *guanxi* between subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of trust in one's supervisor. Hypothesis 3 stated that high level of *guanxi* between subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of loyalty to one's supervisor.** At the 95% of confidence level, the *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate was a significant predictor of trust in supervisor and two dimensions of loyalty to supervisor, i.e., dedication to supervisor and making effort on behalf of supervisor.

**Hypothesis 4 stated that high level of subordinate's loyalty to supervisor is positively related to high level of display of subordinate's OCB. Hypothesis 5 stated that high level of subordinate's trust in supervisor is positively related to high level of display of subordinate's OCB.** After controlling for the six demographic variables and the independent variable of *guanxi*, at the 95% of confidence level, dedication to supervisor significantly predicted helping behaviour, taking initiative (negative), self-development (negative), interpersonal harmony and departmental harmony, voice (negative) and coexistence in adversity. However, contrary to expectation, dedication to supervisor was negatively related to taking initiative, self-development and voice and was unrelated to social welfare participation, promoting company image and protecting company interests. Making effort on behalf of supervisor at the 95% of confidence level, was a significant predictor of helping behaviour, taking initiative, keeping departmental harmony, group activity participation, voice, protecting company image and coexistence in adversity. Excluding self-development, social welfare participation, protecting company interests, and interpersonal harmony, the effort dimension was found to significantly and positively predict all other forms of OCB. Trust in supervisor at the 95% of confidence level may serve as a predictor of helping behaviour, individual initiative, interpersonal harmony, keeping departmental harmony, group activity participation, protecting company interests and coexistence in adversity, whilst supervisor-subordinate interpersonal trust was negatively related to interpersonal harmony and coexistence in adversity.

Hypothesis 6 predicated that trust in supervisor mediates between supervisor-subordinate's *guanxi* and a subordinate's OCB. Hypothesis 7 predicated that loyalty to supervisor mediates between supervisor-subordinate's *guanxi* and a subordinate's OCB: Findings demonstrate the following mediations relationships were found (mediation underlined) at the 95% of confidence level,

- (1).superior-subordinate *guanxi*→ trust in supervisor → keeping departmental harmony.
- (2) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → dedication → keeping departmental harmony.
- (3) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → effort → keeping departmental harmony

Support for partial mediation of trust in supervisor, dedication and effort was found on following relationships at the 95% of confidence level:

- (1) superior-subordinate *guanxi*→ trust in supervisor → helping behaviour, individual initiative, group activity participation and coexistence in adversity.
- (2) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → dedication → helping behaviour, taking initiative, group activity participation and coexistence in adversity.
- (3) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → effort → helping behaviour, taking initiative, group activity participation and protecting company image.

## 4.6 Analysis of Qualitative Study

In this section, the analysis of qualitative data is provided. It begins with the discussion of analytical strategy. Then, the findings of grounded analysis and content analysis for qualitative data are demonstrated.

Glaser (1992) defines grounded theory as “a general methodology of analysis linked with data collection that uses a systematically applied set of methods to generate an inductive theory about a substantive area” (p. 16). One significant feature of grounded theory is its “fitness”: “A grounded theory that is faithful to the everyday realities of a substantive area is one that has been carefully induced from diverse data...Only in this way will the theory be closely related to the daily realities (what is really going on) of substantive areas, and so be highly applicable to dealing with them” (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.238-239). Figure 11 describes Bartlett and Payn's (1997) process model in conducting and analysing grounded theory, which was used in this study.

**Figure 11 A Process Model of Grounded Theory Analysis**

Process	Activity	Comments
1	Collect Data	Any source of textual data may be used but semi-structured interviews or observations are the most common.
2	Transcribe Data	It is necessary to produce full transcriptions of the data in order to analyze it.
3	Develop Categories	Categories are developed from the data by open coding of the transcripts.
4	Saturate Categories	Further examples are gathered as one proceeds through the transcripts until no new examples of a particular category emerge.
5	Abstract Definitions	Once the categories have been saturated, formal definitions in terms of the properties and dimensions of each category may be generated.
6	Theoretical Sampling	From the categories which have emerged from the first sample of data, choose theoretically relevant samples to help test and develop categories further.
7	Axial Coding — The development and testing of relationships between categories	Using the method of axial coding, possible relationships between categories are noted, hypothesized and actually tested against data which is being obtained in ongoing theoretical sampling.
8	Theoretical Integration	A core category is identified and related to all the other subsidiary categories by means of the coding paradigm, and links with existing theory are established and developed.
9	Grounding the theory	The emergent theory is grounded by returning to the data and validating it against actual segments of text.
10	Filling in gaps	Finally, any missing detail is filled in by the further collection of relevant data.

**Source: Bartlett and Payne (1997, p.183)**

Semiotic clustering analysis as “a unified approach to every phenomenon of signification and/or communication” (Eco, 1976, p.3) has been accepted as a simple yet powerful technique that allows researchers to uncover successive levels of meaning, from surface signs to the underlying structure (Manning, 1987, Cunha, 2004; Feldman, 1995), which was applied as an analytical tool to grounded theory (Cunha, 2004; Feldman, 1995) for understanding superior-subordinate *guanxi* perceptions in this research. Such technique seems to be more relevant and reliable in revealing structure of superior-subordinate *guanxi* than the traditional three types of coding: open coding (deals with the labelling and categorising of phenomena as indicated by the data), axial coding (puts those data back together in new ways by making connections between a category and its sub-categories), and selective coding (involves the integration of the categories that have been developed to form the initial theoretical framework). In grounded theory, memos are “the theorizing write-up of ideas about codes and their relationships as they strike the analyst while coding” (Glaser, 1978, p.83). Corbin and Strauss (1990, p. 10) argue that,

Writing theoretical memos is an integral part of doing grounded theory. Since the analyst cannot readily keep track of all the categories, properties, hypotheses, and generative questions that evolve from the analytical process, there must be a system for doing so. The

use of memos constitutes such a system. Memos are not simply "ideas." They are involved in the formulation and revision of theory during the research process.

Glaser (1978) even claims that it would not be grounded theory research if no memos are written up. Pandit (1996, p.5) proposes that

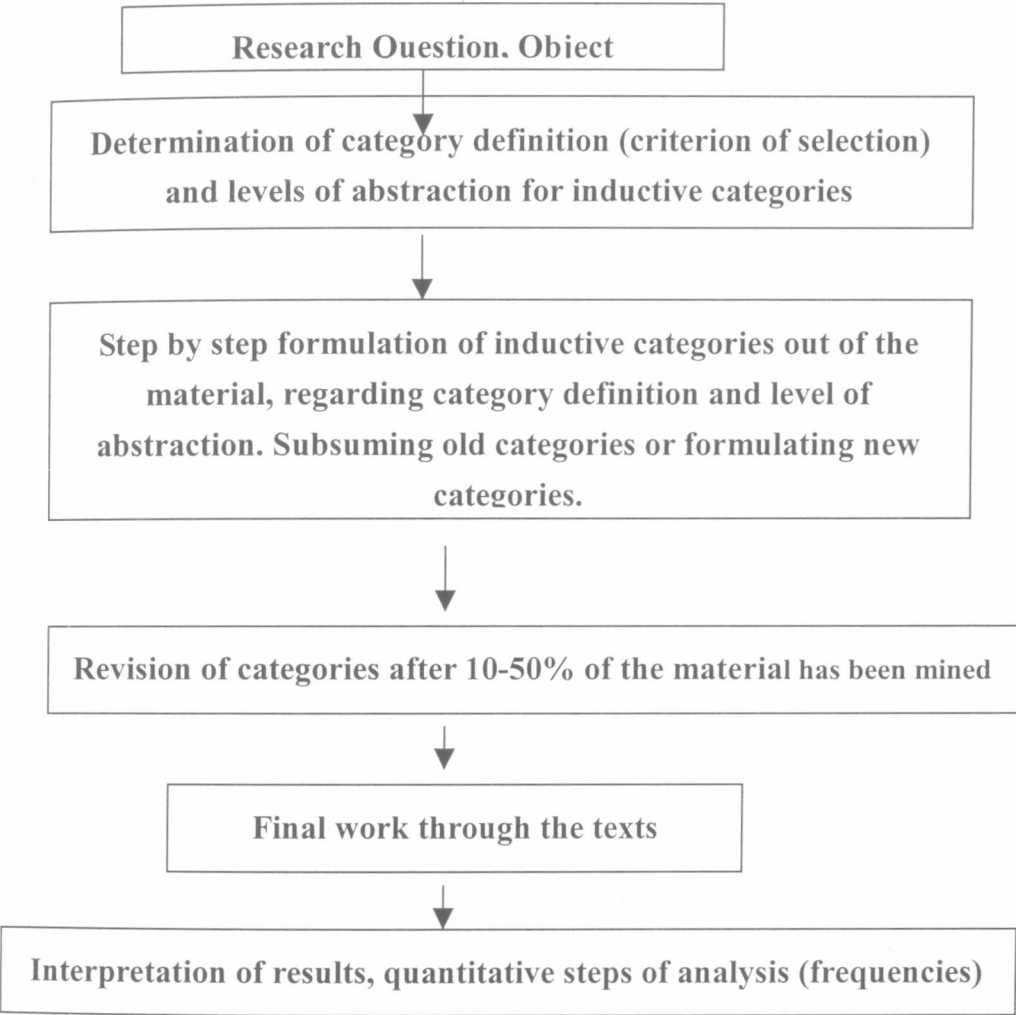
At least three types of memo may be distinguished: code memos, theoretical memos and operational memos. Code memos relate to open coding and thus focus on conceptual labelling. Theoretical memos relate to axial and selective coding and thus focus on paradigm features and indications of process. Finally, operational memos contain directions relating to the evolving research design.

The essential nature of theoretical memos is to record emergent ideas, categories and their relationships until the evolved theory comes into saturation, which is most important in grounded theory research and must be explicitly stated in the research results as well (Glaser, 1978; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). In the semiotic cluster analysis, it seems that competing meanings, connotative meanings and institutional concerns focus not only on the raw data and include activities such as text segmentation and, coding and memo writing, but also focus on framework building activities such as interrelating codes, concepts and categories, to form theoretical networks. Hence, it may be both efficient and firmly based on the principles of grounded theory generation.

Content analysis is defined as "any methodological measurement applied to text (or other symbolic materials) for social science purposes" (Shapiro and Markoff, 1997, p. 14). The values of content analysis are extolled by Weber (1990), Krippendorff (1980), Duriau et al. (2003), Mayring (2000) and Neuendorf (2002) as - bettering the understanding of other people's cognitive schemas; a replicable methodology to a broad range of organizational phenomena; providing the analytical flexibility, for example, both inductive and deductive research; discovering rich meaning in the underlying structure and/or association among meanings; setting criteria of reliability and validity (triangulation or data auditor); and being nonintrusive. There are two analytical procedures for content analysis: inductive category development and deductive category development. In terms of the inductive category development, such method would focus on the aspects of interpretation, the categories, as near as possible to the material, and formulating them in terms of the material whereas the deductive approach is based on predefined categories (Mayring, 2000). Figure 12 details the procedures for the inductive and deductive content analysis.

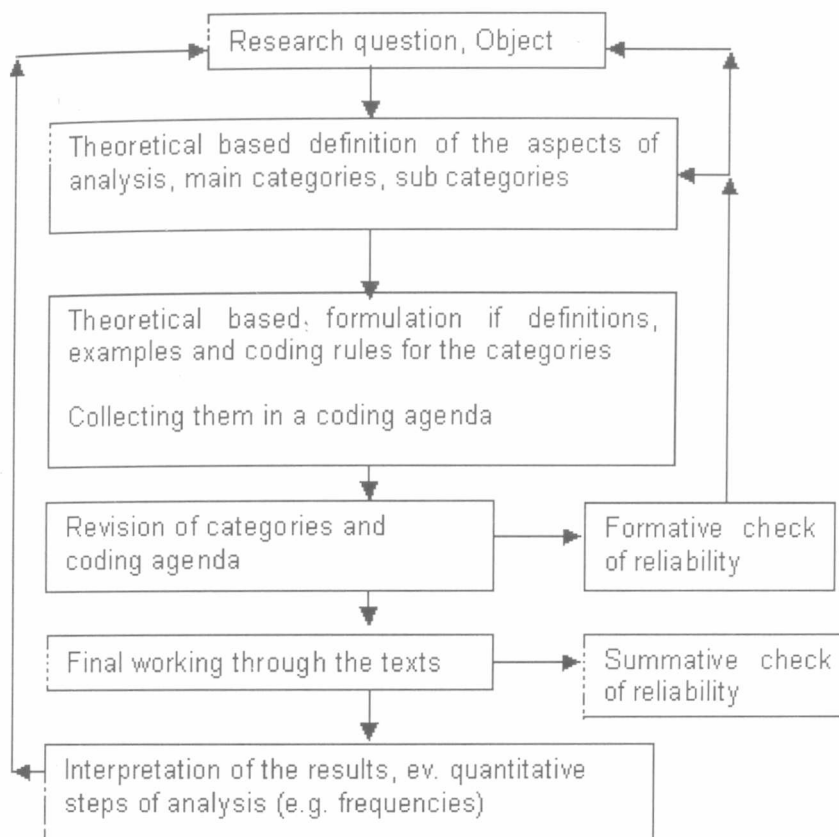
**Figure 12 Category Development in Content Analysis**

**a: Step Model of Inductive Category Development**



**Source: Mayring (2000)**

## b: Step Model of Deductive Category Application



Source: Mayring (2000)

In this research, the analysis of the critical incident index approach for exploring the superior-subordinate *guanxi* is based on grounded theory, whereas the examination of the relationships among *guanxi*, trust, loyalty and OCB between superior and subordinate is based on content analysis since “grounded theory approaches seek to build theory through systematic inquiry techniques to discover themes, whereas content analysis seeks to test theory with preestablished themes” (Jackson et al., 2002, p.310). In terms of the relationships among *guanxi*, trust, loyalty and OCB between superior and subordinate, both the deductive approach and the inductive approach of category development are applied based on Yin’s (2004) explanation of model building. This model is similar to grounded theory but is still regarded as a hypothesis testing approach. It involves the use of qualitative data to test the initially developed theoretically based hypotheses, and then amending the initially developed theoretically based hypotheses in the light of the findings from data collected.

## 4.7 Procedure and Reliability

I (as a native Chinese) assessed all critical incidents of *guanxi* (Q.1) and the open-ended questions (Q.2, 3 and 4) for two criteria: a) the answer must have a clear meaning in the Chinese language; and b) the answer must refer to incidents by subordinates themselves or their supervisors. Any answer that was ambiguous or difficult to interpret was rejected. Overall, in 277 completed qualitative questions (49 supervisors and 228 subordinates' answers respectively), in total 252 were found to be relevant and valid. Next, a committee approach to translation (a group of bilinguals' translation from the source to the target language) was employed. All qualitative answers in Chinese were translated into English by myself. A bilingual Chinese postgraduate student translated the Chinese version of questionnaires into English congruently. After comparing translation of our separate work, commonalties were ensured. Where disagreement occurred, the help of a third bilingual Chinese doctoral student was enlisted.

### 4.7.1 Grounded Theory for Superior-subordinate *Guanxi*

Then, the data for critical incidents of *guanxi*, in its English version, were submitted to semiotic cluster analysis (Eco, 1976; Feldman, 1995). In this approach to semiotic cluster analysis, researchers organised qualitative data into a table with three columns. The first column refers to signs or denotative meanings. It is often labelled “**competing meanings**” (Feldman, 1995) or “**denotative meanings**” (Strauss and Corbin, 1990) and includes the main ways in which the concept of interest has been approached by informants (24 direct categories from which denotative meanings were derived, see Appendix 7). The second column, “**connotative meanings**” discover “a pattern in the denotative meanings and builds new meaning through some type of association between competing or denotative meanings” (Cuhna, 2004, p.131). “There is not a ‘right’ way of filling in this column since the meanings are dependent upon interpretation and emerge from data” (Strauss and Corbin, 1990 in Cuhna, 2004, p.131). The last column involves a leap that is similar to the one that allows the transposition of data from the first (competing or denotative meanings) to the second column (connotative meanings). This column is labelled “**institutional concerns**” and suggests a structure underlying the data, which are issues related to *guanxi* within the Chinese organisation. Table 41 presents the semiotic clustering for this study.

**Table 41 Semiotic Cluster Analysis of the Qualitative Data**

<b>Competing meanings</b> (Superior-subordinate <i>guanxi</i> means...)	<b>Connotative meanings</b> (Superior-subordinate <i>guanxi</i> can...)	<b>Institutional concerns</b> (Superior-subordinate <i>guanxi</i> is...)
Perceived Supervisor Support	Develop Positive Reciprocal Exchange	Meaningful and Ethical
Perceived Supervisor Care	Develop Positive Reciprocal Exchange	Meaningful and Ethical
Supervisor's Protection	Develop Positive Reciprocal Exchange	Meaningful and Ethical
Recognition of Subordinates	Develop Positive Reciprocal Exchange	Meaningful and Ethical
Interactional Justice	Develop Positive Reciprocal Exchange	Meaningful and Ethical
Supervisor-subordinate Outside Work Relationship	Develop Positive Reciprocal Exchange	Meaningful and Ethical
Supervisor's Positive Attributes	Be Based on Positive Attributes	Meaningful and Ethical
Subordinate's Positive Attributes	Be Based on Positive Attributes	Meaningful and Ethical
Interpersonal Injustice (Inappropriate Treatment)	Develop Perceived Unfairness	Unfair and Unethical
Procedural Injustice	Develop Perceived Unfairness	Unfair and Unethical
Distributive Injustice	Develop Perceived Unfairness	Unfair and Unethical
Ingratiation	Develop Unfavourable Image of <i>Guanxi</i>	Negative and Unethical
Exemplification	Develop Unfavourable Image of <i>Guanxi</i>	Negative and Unethical
False Pretence for Authority	Develop Unfavourable Image of <i>Guanxi</i>	Negative and Unethical



Of the 252 informants, 179 respondents demonstrated that *guanxi* had a positive orientation with an ethical connotation; whilst 73 respondents illustrated negative practices of *guanxi* and supervisor-targeted impression management. Twenty-four direct categories emerged throughout the grounded analysis, which were further grouped into 14 **competing meanings** (see Appendix 8 for a listing of these categories). These are: *perceived supervisor support*, *perceived supervisor care*, *supervisor's protection*, *recognition of subordinates*, *interactional justice*, *supervisor-subordinate outside work relationship*, *supervisor's positive attributes*, *subordinate's positive attributes*, *procedural injustice based on guanxi*, *distributive injustice*, *interactional injustice*, *ingratiation*, *exemplification and false pretence for authority* (see Appendix 7 for their meanings). In their answers, respondents described as positive features in supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* such aspects as *perceived supervisor support*, *perceived supervisor care*, *supervisor's protection*, *recognition of subordinates*, *interactional justice*, *supervisor-subordinate outside work relationship*, *supervisor's positive attributes* and *subordinate's positive attributes*. Negative features of *guanxi* included such aspects as *organisational injustice and impression management*, including *procedural injustice*, *distributive injustice*, *interactional injustice*, *ingratiation*, *exemplification and false pretence for authority* (see first column in Table 41). These were grouped into four 'connotative meanings' (see second column in Table 41). These '**connotative meanings**' suggest that *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate may develop positive reciprocal exchange; may be perceived positive attributes; may cultivate perceived unfairness; and may generate unfavourable image of *guanxi*. The positive reciprocal exchange dimension aggregates all the human contextual factors of the primary data, for example, perceived supervisor support, perceived supervisor care, supervisor's protection, recognition of subordinates, interactional justice, and supervisor-subordinate outside work relationship. The perceived positive attributes include those aspects related to one's ability, honesty and loyalty, which leads to the other party's willingness to build up *guanxi* with a person possessing those positive attributes. Interactive injustice, procedural injustice based on *guanxi* and distributive injustice can lead to subordinates' perception of organisational unfairness. Finally, ingratiation, exemplification, and false pretence for supervisor as impression management are clearly manifested in the unfavourable image of *guanxi*.

The third column of Table 41 '**institutional concerns**', as suggested by Feldman (1995), identifies the issues that indicate an underlying structure related to supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* in the Chinese organisation. These broad connotative meanings seem to adequately cover the qualitative material obtained directly from informants. The clustering provides a more parsimonious reading of the attributes of the superior-subordinate *guanxi*. In three final

categories, one of the categories was interpreted as referring to meaningful and ethical superior-subordinate *guanxi*. It covers perceived positive attributes such as loyalty, trust, ability and diligence, and reciprocal exchange aspects through showing concern, care, support, protection, recognition, interactional justice and outside work relationship.

A second category refers to organisational injustice. These three elements in the underlying structure were predictable at the outset due to the *guanxi*'s in-group favouritism. Since such negative practice of *guanxi* may harm organisational justice, it can be viewed as unethical. This study elaborates the interactional injustice in detail since it has not been studied extensively and at depth. The present study reveals that supervisor's unsupportive behaviour and attitudes (for example, *superior is unwilling to discuss work related problems with subordinates after work*), and supervisors' indifference to their subordinates (for example, "*when I drive for him [the supervisor] daily, he can smoke my cigarettes, but when I smoke his cigarette, he got angry*") could make their subordinates feel less motivated to develop *guanxi* with their supervisors, which supports the contention of the salient function of interactional justice in *guanxi* building (Chen, 1995; Tjosvold, Wong and Hui, 2004). Another example of supervisor's unsupportive behaviour and attitudes is "*my supervisor always has something to say, when we need to go back home. And he is always likely to ask us to do more work after we finish our shift. However, when we have problems to talk to him after work, he always says: 'I am sorry, I finished my today's work, and you need to talk with me tomorrow'.*"

A third category however was necessary to explain the data, similar to the findings on impression management in the West (Jones and Pittman, 1982 and Bolino, 1999): **ingratiation**, where individuals seek to be viewed as likable through praising one's leaders in public and providing one's supervisor with individualised service; and **exemplification**, in which people seek to be viewed as dedicated through pretending to be committed and good organisational citizens. This research also identifies an extended dimension of impression management, i.e., **false pretence for supervisor** (or authority). For example, the following comments by informants, "*W<sup>8</sup>'s supervisor exerts his personal authority in the work team. In such instance, W pretends to respect his authority through supporting him wholeheartedly in organizational meeting, but speaks ill of him outside work.*" "*My director may view him [supervisor] as the 'king' in my department presenting. Our sales figures are available on our intranet. However, it is me [subordinate] who has to generate the data for him every time*". "*My supervisor views his authority and 'face' as*

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<sup>8</sup> All names are pseudonyms.

very important. If I do not support my supervisor, he would create difficulties for me. Therefore, I have to pretend to respect him”. Such kind of superior-subordinate *guanxi* is based on one party’s instrumental motives without underlying affect, and therefore, it may be considered unethical as well.

In terms the name of categories, Strauss and Corbin (1998) propose that there are three main sources to design names for those categories: (1) terms emerged from the data; (2) actual terms used by participants; (3) terms from existing theory and literature. The 24 direct categories are based on actual terms used by participants, whereas competing meanings and denotative meanings are both only based on terms from existing theory and literature for organizational justice and impression management but terms that emerged from the data for positive reciprocal exchange and positive attributes; and finally, institutional concerns are based on terms emerged from the data.

4.7.2 Content Analysis for *Guanxi*, Trust, Loyalty and OCB

In the next two steps, I followed content analysis testing hypotheses advocated by Fu and Tsui (2003) and Yin’s (2003) explanation of model building pertaining to the relationships among *guanxi*, trust, loyalty and OCB. The coding steps advocated by Weber (1990) were also followed (Figure 13).

Figure 13 The Weber Protocol for Coding Steps

- 1) Definition of the recording units (e.g., word, phrase, sentence, paragraph).
  - 2) Definition of the coding categories.
  - 3) Test of coding on a sample of text.
  - 4) Assessment of the accuracy and reliability of the sample coding.
  - 5) Revision of the coding rules.
  - 6) Return to Step 3 until sufficient reliability is achieved.
  - 7) Coding of all the text.
  - 8) Assess the achieved reliability or accuracy.

Source: Weber (1990)

Frequency count proposed by Weber (1990), Krippendorff (1980), Duriau et al. (2003) and Neuendorf (2002) as the basic and powerful technique in content analysis was applied. It involves coding the frequencies of the behaviours and attributes mentioned in respondents’ answers without recourse to the broad categories so that each attribute would be considered individually and separately (inductive approach). The second type of coding is to categorize each

attribute into the broad types of theoretical foundations for testing each hypothesis (deductive approach). In the content analysis, the names of categories are based on actual terms used by participants. Their definitions are in Appendix 27.

With the open-ended question four (concerned with whether *guanxi* can improve OCB), in total, 131 respondents (52%) believed that *guanxi* could enhance OCB. To position these answers in the template of theoretical premises of **norm of reciprocity**, **social identity** and **social cognitive theories** (see chapter two), I found based on the frequent mention of family membership, team or group membership and in-group membership that these attributes may fit well into the **social identity framework**. Likewise, it would suggest group attributes based on frequency of the word moral obligation into the **social cognitive framework**. The source of reciprocation of *Renqing* (favour); reciprocation of support (or help); reciprocation of kindness and other exchanges between supervisor and subordinates goes for sorting out the attributes into the **norm of reciprocity** framework.

In analysing the open-ended questions two and three (concerned with whether *guanxi* can improve trust and loyalty), respondents thought that *guanxi* could enhance trust (176) (70%) and loyalty (164) (65%). To classify those answers into the theoretical premises of **social exchange**, **social identity** and **theory of reasoned action** frameworks, I also found, based on the frequent mention of family membership, team or group membership and in-group membership that these attributes would fit well into the **social identity framework**. Likewise, it would suggest clustering attributes based on frequency of the words of norm or belief and their extrapolations into the **theory of reasoned action** framework. Whereas in sorting out the attributes into the **social exchange** framework, I clarified these answers of reciprocation of warm-heartedness, exchange of supervisors' support, supervisors' personal attributes, and personal integrity emphasizing the exchange nature based on the consensus of my deliberation with two independent judges (Chinese postgraduate students). For example, supervisors' personal attributes and personal integrity can be expressed by one party's in the *guanxi*'s on-going process in exchange of the other party's trust and loyalty, and those attributes may help one party in a *guanxi* web to build up long-term relationship with the other party possessing those attributes.

#### 4.7.3 Data Auditor for Reliability

To ensure data reliability, a data auditor procedure was applied to check the reliability of coding procedure for this study (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Tinsley and Weiss, 2000). It is noted that intercoder agreement is needed in qualitative analysis because it measures "the extent to which

the different judges tend to assign exactly the same rating to each object" (Tinsley and Weiss, 2000, p. 98)

Two native Chinese postgraduate students were sought to act as independent data auditors. One was asked to rate *guanxi*'s critical incidents through the application of grounded theory. She was instructed to conduct semiotic cluster analysis as well. Whilst the other was instructed to help code the deductive and inductive approach of content analysis from qualitative data as to the relationships among *guanxi*, trust, loyalty and OCB, she followed the two steps for content analysis of testing hypotheses in the same coding procedure advocated by Fu and Tsui (2003). Both were encouraged to come up with their own categories and themes. The goal of the instruction was to make all raters produce good interrater agreement on the same material, whilst auditing independently. I then shared and discussed my own results with these two judges. Categories that were closely related and had a common theme were combined into a higher-order category; some unspecified answers were also placed into the unspecified category. When disagreement occurred, help from a third native Chinese postgraduate student was sought. He rated those answers independently, and the final classification was made for each incident, category and theme by consensus of majority. In terms of *guanxi* incidents, the interrater reliability score between my own coding and the first data auditor for the 24 direct categories was 87%, for the competing meanings -97%, for the connotative meanings -97% and for the institutional concerns -100%. In relation to the hypotheses testing, in hypothesis one, the social identity and social cognitive frameworks had 100% agreement, whereas the norm of reciprocity framework had 87% agreement. In hypothesis two, the social identity and reasoned action frameworks yielded 100% agreement, whereas the social exchange framework had 83% agreement. In hypothesis three, the social identity and reasoned action frameworks had 100% agreement, whereas the social exchange framework had 85% agreement.

4.8 Analysis of Qualitative Study Referring to the Hypotheses

4.8.1 *Guanxi* and OCB between Supervisors and Subordinates (Hypothesis One)

In this section, I report the qualitative data referring to H1, which stated that high level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one’s immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of display of a subordinate’s OCB.

Supporting H1, the content analysis for the subordinates’ reasons to engage in OCB reveals that 93 subordinates (45% out of 208 subordinates) and 38 supervisors (86% out of 44 supervisors) perceived that high level of interpersonal relationships (*guanxi* between superior and subordinate) would enhance OCB. In addition, it shows that 48 respondents (22% of subordinates and 7% of supervisors) viewed that interpersonal closeness may or may not enhance OCB. Finally, it illustrates that 73 participants (33% of subordinates and 7% of supervisors) considered that superior-subordinate *guanxi* could not improve subordinates’ level of OCB engagement. Table 42 reports an overall picture of respondents’ perceptions on whether or not superior-subordinate *guanxi* can enhance OCB, and subordinates’ reasons to engage or disengage in OCB.

Three theoretical frameworks for subordinates’ engagement in OCB are identified, i.e., the **norm of reciprocity**, the **social identity** process and the **social cognitive** process. From the right hand column of Table 42, we can see that the **social identity framework** received the highest level of reporting, second is the **norm of reciprocity**, followed by the **social cognitive framework** (48% compared with 41% and 11% respectively).

Table 42 Theoretical Foundations in relation to Respondents’ Logic on *Guanxi* and OCB

	Theoretical Frameworks	Reported Logic	Subordinates	Supervisors	Total
Affirmation			N=93	N=38	N=131 (52%)
	<i>Social Identity</i>				63 (48%)
		Workplace Construed as a Family Web	13 (21%)	14 (22%)	27 (43%)
		Team Cohesion Emphasis	11 (17%)	13 (21%)	24 (38%)
		In-group Membership Identity	12 (19%)	0 (0%)	12 (19%)
	<i>Norm of Reciprocity</i>	(Reciprocation of... )			54 (41%)
		<i>Renqing</i> (Favour)	16 (30%)	0 (0%)	16 (30%)
		Support or Help	11 (20%)	4 (8%)	15 (28%)
		Kindness (Affective and Instrumental)	10 (19%)	0 (0%)	10 (19%)
		Other	9 (15%)	4 (7%)	13 (23%)
	<i>Social Cognitive</i>				14 (11%)
		Moral obligation	11 (88%)	3 (12%)	14 (100%)
Contingent  (sometimes positive;  Sometimes negative)			N=45	N=3	N=48 (19%)
		Time Availability	16 (33%)	0 (0%)	16 (33%)
		Priority of Task Performance	12 (25%)	1 (3%)	13 (28%)
		Other	17(35%)	2 (4%)	19 (39%)
Negative			N=70	N=3	N=73 (29%)
	<i>Perceived Unfairness</i>				47 (64%)
		Unfairness	6 (13%)	2 (6%)	8 (19%)
		Personal Dislike	7 (13%)	0 (0%)	7 (13%)
		Unspecified	32 (68%)	0 (0%)	32 (68%)
	<i>Impression Management</i>				26 (36%)
		Self-centered.	9 (35%)	1 (4%)	10 (39%)
		Lack of Manners	3 (11%)	0 (0%)	3 (11%)
		Bad Characters	1 (4%)	0 (0%)	1 (4%)
		Unspecified	12 (46%)	0 (0%)	12 (46%)



In supporting the **social identity framework** (Appendix 11 and 12 present the answers to *guanxi* critical incidents and respondents' answers as to why *guanxi* can improve OCB), the third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 42 show that 36 subordinates (17%) and 27 supervisors (61%) perceived that high levels of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the development of subordinates' OCB since *guanxi* construes a family membership identity (21% of subordinates and 22% of supervisors), work team or group membership identity (17% of subordinates and 21% of supervisors) and in-group membership identity (19% of subordinates only) (see the second column from the left of Table 42). For example, subordinates state that: "*When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company*" (**perceived supervisor care** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents) or "*When there are conflicting opinions about my project in the company meeting, my supervisor will always stand on my side*" (**perceived supervisor protection** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents); superior responses also illustrate that: "*I value subordinates who work hard*" (**recognition of subordinates** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents), or "*I consult my subordinate before transferring her to another branch*" (**interactional justice** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents), or "*we celebrate everybody's birthday*" (**outside work relationship** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents). The qualitative commentary points to the possibility of developmental dynamics of OCB. Through emphasis on family and/or group conceptualizations of relations, OCB acts as both affirmation and the engine of workplace glue developing strong workplace relationships.

However, compared with their subordinates, it seemed that their superiors were more likely to value family membership identity and group or team membership identity only.

Within the **norm of reciprocity framework** (Appendix 9 and Appendix 10 present the answers to the *guanxi*'s critical incidents and respondents' answers as to why *guanxi* can improve OCB), the third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 42 show that 46 subordinates (22%) and 8 supervisors (18%) perceived that high levels of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the development of subordinates' OCB since *guanxi* required the reciprocation of the other party's *Renqing* (favour in English 30% of subordinates only), support or help (20% of subordinates and 8% of supervisors), and kindness (19% of subordinates only) (see the second column from the left of Table 12). For example, subordinate responses reveal that: "*Once, I was assigned with a sudden task to complete. Unfortunately, my family had an emergency as well. After thinking about it carefully, I had to take a one-day leave. My initial thought was that my supervisor would not allow me to take leave. However, my supervisor gave me one day off without any hesitation.*"



(**perceived supervisor support** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents), and thus, he considered that the supervisor "touched my [his] heart", and needs to "repay his [the supervisor's] renqing (favour)" and thus, when he came back, he *"spent two days in completing my [his] task by staying up past midnight"*. Another example is the supervisor *"often defends his newcomers before a superior or others in the organization, and if there really is a mistake, he will coach those new staff personally"* (**perceived supervisor protection** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents), and therefore, OCB "helps build and maintain our [their] guanxi". Another example is *"Miss 'A' selected firm 'X' because the supervisor 'B' was known to be very kind and competent. She was sure that the latter would lead the department to success"* (**supervisor's positive personal attributes** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents).

Superior responses also illustrate that: *"I value subordinates who can take initiative to complete the task that I allocated"* (**recognition of subordinate** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents), thus, the supervisor considered that *"they [subordinates] are more likely to do so, particularly without my [his] presence in facilitating cooperation and communication among departmental subordinates based on our mutual trust and loyalty"*. Another example is *"W is qualified as chief certified accountant in September 2006. However, our personnel failed to inform her. When I [supervisor] found this out, I went to speak to our associate manager to help her to successfully apply for a certificate"*(**perceived supervisor support** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents), thus, the supervisor considered that consequently the subordinate *"worked very hard due to my kindness"*. Another example is *"I [the supervisor] bought a present (suit) for one of my subordinates on the occasion of his brother's wedding. After he [subordinate] returned, he told everyone that his mother thought he was a good workers since I bought a present and gave him face"* (**perceived supervisor care** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents), thus, the supervisor considered that the subordinate *"is motivated to work overtime without any complaint due to my support"*.

However, superiors regard subordinates' reciprocation of their supervisors' support or help (8%) and mutuality of trust and loyalty (5%) between superior and their subordinates as the reasons, whilst they did not provide answers on *Renqing* and kindness.

In support of the **social cognitive framework** (Appendix 13 and Appendix 14 present the answers to the *guanxi*'s critical incidents and respondents' answers as to why *guanxi* can improve OCB), the third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 42 show that 7% of supervisors and 5% of subordinates perceived that high level of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the

development of subordinates' OCB, since *guanxi* building and maintaining process was regulated by individual's moral obligation. For example, subordinates reveal "*I am from Jilin Province. After getting the job here, I couldn't rent a suitable house for myself. Having lived in a hotel for three days, the supervisor knew about that. She asked her relatives to empty one room to accommodate me temporally, and then, she asked everybody in the department to help me find my current accommodation*" (**perceived supervisor support** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents), thus, he considered "*I feel that it is my moral obligation to work hard and *ji-zhi-ji-zhe* and *wu-si-feng xian* (go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization), otherwise I feel guilty*". Another example is that the supervisor is "*open, selfless and honest to all of his subordinates*" (**supervisor's positive personal attributes** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents); and therefore, the subordinate felt that "*it is my moral obligation to display OCB*".

Additionally, a supervisor demonstrates that "*I have a subordinate, who is not very handsome, leading to having his difficulty in finding a lover. However, he is very competent and outgoing. So, I tried my best to introduce several girls to him. At last, he found his lover with my help*" (**perceived supervisor support** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents), therefore, the supervisor considered that the subordinate "*has his obligation to contribute to the welfare of the other party [the supervisor] due to Chinese general social standard*" (display of OCB).

The third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 43 show that there were 22% of subordinates and 7% of supervisors who considered that *guanxi* may or may not enhance OCB<sup>9</sup> (Appendix 15 and 16 present the answers to the *guanxi* examples and respondents' answers as to why *guanxi* may or may not improve OCB). The majority of them answered that they should take priority over their time availability at work and /or they should complete their job firstly before making effort in OCB (33% of respondents consider their time availability and 28% of respondents value their task performance). To some extent, it seems that the successful translation of OCB into Lei Feng behaviour in the workplace enabled the respondents' comprehension of OCB as extra-role performance in addition to their task performance. For example, subordinates report that "*I would not take more time to do so because most importantly, I need to complete my job*" or "*if I have enough time, I can help [in displaying OCB]*".

Another finding is that the detailed examination in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents revealed that superior-subordinate's outside work relationship (11% of subordinates in Table 43)

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<sup>9</sup> The translation of the word "maybe" in the Chinese context means that *guanxi* may or may not enhance OCB.

was not salient in developing OCB, unlike other ways of *guanxi* building.

**Table 43 Supervisor-subordinate *Guanxi* Categories (Subordinates)**

Categories for Incidents	Frequency
<b>Outside Work Relationship</b>	22
<i>Having Dinner</i>	13
<i>Playing Ball Games</i>	4
<i>Other Interaction</i>	5

Finally, the third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 42 show that there were 22% of subordinates and 7% of supervisors respondents who considered that *guanxi* may or may not enhance OCB. By recourse to the *guanxi*’s critical incidents, I categorized them into **perceived unfairness** (64% in total, see Table 44) and **perceived impression management** frameworks (36% in total, see Table 45).

**Table 44 Supervisor-subordinate *Guanxi* as Perceived Unfairness Categories**

Categories for Incidents	Frequency Percent	
<b>1.Procedural Injustice</b>	27	55
Selection Based on <i>Guanxi</i>	13	
Cliquish Culture Underlining Justice	8	
Performance Assessment Based on <i>Guanxi</i>	6	
<b>2. Supervisor’s Mistreatment (Interactional Injustice)</b>	12	27
Supervisors’ Unsupportive Attitudes and Action	7	
Supervisors' Impolite Attitudes and Behaviour	5	
<b>3.Distributive Injustice</b>	8	18
Biased Reward	8	
Total	47	100

Table 45 Supervisor-subordinate *Guanxi* as Impression Management Categories

Categories for Incidents	Frequency Percent	
<b>1.Ingratiation</b>	14	60
Extolling Supervisors in Public	10	
Supervisor-targeted Service	4	
<b>2.Exemplification</b>	6	20
Pseudo Loyalty	3	
Pseudo OCB	3	
<b>3. False Pretence for Authority</b>	6	20
Total	26	100

The third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 42 show that among the respondents (33% of subordinates and 7% of supervisors) who disagreed with the contention that *guanxi* can develop OCB, demonstrated reasons for low level of OCB exhibition were consequences of negative practices of *guanxi* (see Appendix 18 a-c for details). Due to such negative influence on organizational justice leading to subordinates’ perceptions of superiors as the source of their unwillingness for OCB engagement (13%) and their perceptions of an unfair working climate (19%) (see the second column from the left of Table 42), OCB is unlikely to be developed. For example, supervisors state that “*my boss always tries to recruit somebody who has family ties with him. I understand that in a family-owned business he wants to maintain his family authority in the organization. Hence, most managerial staff would not consider this organization as our origination. We are outsiders*” (**procedural injustice** in reference to *guanxi*’s critical incidents) and consequently, he would not engage in OCB since he is “*outsider and we [most of them] do not put effort due to unfairness*”; “*W (an associate manager) often uses personal influence upon me to gain a better performance appraisal for his wife. I explained explicitly to my subordinates that because it is a family-owned private company, there is a better treatment for insiders (family members) than for other workers*” (**procedural injustice** in reference to *guanxi*’s critical incidents) and thus, “*it is unfair for me [him] to be expected to put extra effort*” on OCB. Subordinates also report that “*my supervisor views his authority and face are very important, he would blame me for his mistakes, or “my supervisor never cares about others. He is indifferent to all of us. In the morning, we must greet him first; otherwise, he never greets us*” (**interactional injustice** in reference to *guanxi*’s critical incidents) and consequently, the superior “*is a bad*

*guy*”, discouraging OCB performance. Another example is: “*W [the superior] never listens to us. He follows [unclear] modern management approach, but we view that he is doing something that undermines our loyalty to the organization. For example, when the company allocated some accommodation for us, Xiao Zhang was in a real need, but he assigned this room to others in another department, who was his former student in the USA*” (**distributive injustice** in reference to *guanxi*’s critical incidents) and consequently, subordinates would not “*do for him*” (display of OCB).

The third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 42 showed that among those 36 % answers (Appendix 17 a to Appendix 17 c) in relation to impression management, semiotic cluster analysis groups those critical incidents of *guanxi* into three categories: **Ingratiation; Exemplification and False pretence for authority**. This finding raises the question as to whether high quality liking relationship (*guanxi*) can predict OCB since the motivation is self-centered and self-serving (see the second column from the left of Table 42). For example, a supervisor states that “*A subordinate speaks ill of his supervisor behind his back and praises his supervisor in his presence*”(**ingratiation** in reference to *guanxi*’s critical incidents) , however, according to the supervisor, “*this person did not show any OCB in the workplace. Their guanxi is based on the subordinate’s exaggeration of the superior’s achievement. Personally, the supervisor likes the subordinate since he got support especially in the presence of senior managers. The purpose of their guanxi is to gain benefits for each other*” and “*this person [the subordinate] cannot be trusted because he has inconsistent behaviour in front of and behind his supervisor. He speaks ill of his supervisor without his presence but presents good comment in his supervisor’ presence*”. Another example from a subordinate is: “*My director may view him [supervisor] as the ‘king’ in my department presenting. Our sales figures are available on our intranet. However, it is me [subordinate] who has to generate the data for him every time*” (**false pretence for authority** in reference to *guanxi*’s critical incidents), and therefore, even if the subordinate would like to display OCB, his supervisor would focus on himself alone. Another example is: “*W’s supervisor is a very good guy. He devoted himself to the company. He believes everybody would act like him. In one case, W wrote a letter to his supervisor to debate a business project, hoping to be viewed as a highly committed person but this is nor genuine*” (**exemplification** in reference to *guanxi*’s critical incidents). The respondent said that “*I am afraid that he [the subordinate] is aiming to show he is a good worker*” rather than displaying OCB. However, the third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 42 also show that altogether 44 respondents provided both concrete examples of *guanxi* and ticked the answer of ‘no’, but they did not specify why *guanxi* cannot enhance OCB.

4.8.2 *Guanxi* and Trust between Supervisors and Subordinates (Hypothesis Two)

In this section, I report the qualitative data referring to H2, which stated that high level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one’s immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of trust in one’s supervisor.

Supporting H2, the content analysis for subordinates’ reasons to developing trust reveals that 158 subordinates (76% of total 208 subordinates) and 41 supervisors (93% of total 44 supervisors) perceived that high level of interpersonal relationships (*guanxi* between superior and subordinate) would enhance subordinates’ trust in supervisor. In addition, it illustrates that 73 participants (34% of subordinates and 7% of supervisors) considered that superior-subordinate *guanxi* could not improve subordinates’ level of trust towards their supervisors. Table 46 reports an overall picture of respondents’ perceptions on whether or not superior-subordinate *guanxi* can enhance trust, and subordinates’ reasons to encourage and discourage interpersonal trust. A notable finding is that all participating supervisors and subordinates would consider that *guanxi* could develop trust referring to positive aspects of *guanxi* although formerly 48 of them viewed that *guanxi* may not develop OCB in reference to hypothesis one.

Three theoretical frameworks for subordinates’ trust development are identified, i.e., the **social exchange** process, the **social identity** process and the **theory of reasoned action**. The final column from the left of Table 46 demonstrates that the **social exchange framework** received the highest level of reporting; second is **social identity** followed by the **theory of reasoned action framework** (53% of respondents compared with 43% and 3% respectively).

Table 46 Theoretical Foundations in relation to Respondents’ Logic on *Guanxi* and Trust

	Theoretical Frameworks	Reported Logic	Subordinates	Supervisors	Total
Affirmation			N=158	N=41	179
	<i>Social Exchange</i>	(Reciprocation of...)			95 (53%)
		Warm-heartedness	26 (28%)	0 (0%)	26 (28%)
		Mutual Trust and Loyalty	18 (19%)	3 (3%)	21 (22%)
		Supervisors’ Support	11 (12%)	4 (4%)	15 (16%)
		Personal Integrity	9 (9%)	3 (3%)	12 (12%)
		Unspecified	11 (12%)	0 (0%)	12 (11%)
		Other	6 (6%)	4 (4%)	10 (10%)
	<i>Social Identity</i>				76 (43%)
		Workplace Construed as a Family Web	18 (24%)	14 (18%)	32 (42%)
		Team Cohesion Emphasis	19 (25%)	13 (17%)	32 (42%)
		In-group Membership Identity	12 (16%)	0	12 (16%)
	<i>Theory of Reasoned Action</i>				8 (4%)
		Societal Norm and/or Belief	8 (100%)	0 (0%)	8 (100%)
Negative			N=70	N=3	N=73
	<i>Perceived Unfairness</i>				47 (64%)
		Personal Dislike	6 (13%)	2 (6%)	8 (19%)
		Unfairness	7 (13%)	0 (0%)	7 (13%)
		Unspecified	32 (68%)	0 (0%)	32 (68%)
	<i>Impression Management</i>				26 (36%)
		Ingratiation	9 (36%)	1 (4%)	10 (40%)
		False Pretence for Authority	6 (30%)	0 (0%)	6 (30%)
		Exemplification	6 (30%)	0 (0%)	6 (30%)



In supporting the **social exchange framework** (Appendix 19 a and b present the answers to *guanxi* examples and respondents' answers as to why *guanxi* can improve supervisory trust), the third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 46 show that 81 (39%) subordinates and 14 (32%) supervisors perceived that high levels of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the development of subordinates' trust since *guanxi* required the reciprocation of the other party's past warm-heartedness (28% of subordinates only), perceived supervisors' support (12% of subordinates and 4% of supervisors) and mutuality of interpersonal trust and loyalty (19% of subordinates and 3% of supervisors) and/or one party's personal integrity (9% of subordinates and 3% of supervisors) could enable the other's party to trust their *guanxi*'s on-going exchange process. For example, subordinates state that: "*My supervisor helped me to find a job for my relatives from my hometown*" (**perceived supervisor support** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents) and thus, the subordinate "*would trust him [supervisor] and be committed to him because of his warm-heartedness*". Another example is: "*My supervisor always wants to listen to my personal and work problems in private and tries to help* (**perceived supervisor care** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents) and thus, supervisor and subordinate are "*committed to each other and trust each other*" (mutuality). Another example is that "*W's supervisor treats him fairly even if he gets on his bad side*" (**interactional justice** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents) and thus, trust can be developed since the supervisor "*is righteous*". In addition, supervisors also report that they should "*care about their [subordinates'] personal needs, problems, and/or their family related marriage and funeral, sickness and welfare ...and provide coaching, feedback and support in their work*" (**perceived supervisor support** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents) and thus, "*high level of support can gain subordinates' trust*".

In support of the **social identity framework** (Appendix 20 a and b present the answers to *guanxi* critical incidents and as to why *guanxi* can improve supervisory trust), the third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 46 show that 49 subordinates (24%) and 27 supervisors (61%) perceived that high levels of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the development of subordinates' trust since *guanxi* developed family membership identity (24% of subordinates and 18% of supervisors), work team or group membership identity (25% of subordinates and 17 % of supervisors) and in-group membership identity (16% of subordinates only) (see the second column from the left of Table 46) (refer also to the examples provided in the discussion on hypothesis one on page 241).

In supporting the **theory of reasoned action framework** (Appendix 21 presents the answers to the *guanxi*'s critical incidents and respondents' answers as to why *guanxi* can improve OCB from



subordinates), the third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 46 show that only subordinates perceived that high level of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the development of subordinates' trust since trust is an element in *guanxi* building and maintaining process according to Chinese norms and/or beliefs. For example, subordinates state that: *"I have a manager, who tends to maintain his authority in our organization. When a subordinate makes a mistake, he would definitely blame us [that subordinate]. However, my supervisor consistently defends him on almost every occasion where the protection for the subordinates is needed"* (**perceived supervisor protection** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents) and from another respondent *"in China, when you'd like to have a high level of guanxi with others, the trust and loyalty would be developed as well because it is common norm"* or *"it is Chinese norm to trust and commit to each other within the guanxi web"*.

Compared with their subordinates, it seemed that their superiors were more likely to value group or team membership identity and family membership identity (the fourth column from the left in Table 46). In contrast with subordinates, this study reveals that supervisors would rate the **social identity** as more important than the **social exchange framework** (61% compared with 32%) (the fourth column from the left in Table 46). However, findings also suggest that supervisors did not engage in activity related to **theory of reasoned action framework** (the fourth column from the left in Table 46).

Moreover, findings from Table 46 show that there were 45 subordinates (22%) and three supervisors (7%) who considered that *guanxi* may or may not enhance OCB, but they all considered *guanxi* can enhance trust (Appendix 22 a and b present the answers to the *guanxi* examples and respondents' answers as to why *guanxi* may improve trust).

Finally, the third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 46 show that there were 73 respondents (33% of subordinates and 7% of supervisors) who considered that *guanxi* may or may not enhance trust. By recourse to the *guanxi*'s critical incidents, I categorized them into **perceived unfairness** (19% of total) and **perceived impression management frameworks** (10% of total). The third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 46 show that among respondents who disagreed with the contention that *guanxi* can develop trust, 19% of total 252 respondents demonstrated that the reasons for trust impairment were the consequences of negative practices of *guanxi*, which cannot foster the development of subordinates' trust (see Appendix 24 a to c for details). Due to such negative influence on organizational justice leading to subordinates' perceptions of superiors as the source of their unwillingness for trust

development (13% of subordinates and 6% of supervisors) and their perceptions of an unfair working climate (13% of subordinates) (see the second column from the left of Table 46), trust is unlikely to be developed. For example, subordinates respondents illustrated that supervisor is “a bad guy” or “unfairness” in the workplace which accounted for this (refer to the examples of *guanxi* incidents provided in the discussion on hypothesis one page 241 and Appendix 24 a to c).

The third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 46 show that among those 26 answers (10%) (Appendix 23 a to c) in relation to impression management, semiotic cluster analysis groups these critical incidents of *guanxi* under three categories: **Ingratiation; Exemplification** and **False pretence for authority**, which also indicated high quality liking relationship (*guanxi*) cannot predict trust due to their self-centered or self-serving nature (see the second column from the left of Table 46). This study shows that 26 respondents (10%) attempted to make their superiors view themselves as committed and/or trustworthy. However, the detailed content analysis about respondents’ answers of ‘yes’, ‘no’ and ‘maybe’ can be misleading since responses from supervisors or subordinates who involved in impression management, would say ‘yes’, whilst if they are from third party’s eyes, the answers would be ‘no’. One example from subordinates is ‘*W’s supervisor likes Peking Opera very much. W attempts to find more theatre tickets for his supervisor. W often sings high praise for his supervisor classic taste in art. Thus, they have a very good guanxi*’ (**ingratiation** in reference to *guanxi*’s critical incidents), however, the subordinate cannot be trusted since “*W speaks ill of his supervisor behind his back*”[inconsistent behaviour]. Another example is “*My supervisor views his authority and faces as important. If I do not support my supervisor, he would create difficulties for me. Therefore, I have to pretend to respect him*”(false pretence for authority in reference to *guanxi*’s critical incidents), however, the subordinate considered that he did not trust his supervisor and he described his supervisor as “despicable”.

#### 4.8.3 *Guanxi* and Loyalty between Supervisors and Subordinates (Hypothesis Three)

In this section, I report the qualitative data referring to H3, which stated that high level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one’s immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of loyalty to one’s supervisor.

Supporting H3, the content analysis for the subordinates’ reasons to develop loyalty reveals that

128 subordinates (63% out of 208 subordinates) and 39 supervisors (89% out of 44 supervisors) perceived that high level of interpersonal relationships (*guanxi* between superior and subordinate) would enhance subordinates' loyalty to supervisor. In addition, findings demonstrate that 12 respondents (4% of subordinates and 4% of supervisors) viewed that *guanxi* may or may not enhance loyalty. Finally, the findings illustrate that 73 participants (33% of subordinates and 7% of supervisors) considered that superior-subordinate *guanxi* could not improve subordinates' level of loyalty towards their supervisors. Table 47 reports an overall picture of respondents' perceptions on whether superior-subordinate *guanxi* can improve loyalty or not; and subordinates' reasons to encourage and discourage interpersonal loyalty.

Three theoretical frameworks for subordinates' loyalty development are identified, i.e., the **social exchange** process, the **social identity** process and the **theory of reasoned action**. The final column from the left of Table 47 demonstrates that the **social exchange framework** received the highest level of reporting, second is the **social identity framework** followed by the **theory of reasoned action framework** (50% of respondents compared with 46% and 5% respectively). However, this study also indicates that supervisors did not provide any reporting in response to **theory of reasoned action framework**

Table 47 Theoretical Foundations in relation to Respondents’ Logic on *Guanxi* and Loyalty

	Theoretical Frameworks	Reported Logic	Subordinates	Supervisors	Total
Affirmation			N=128	N=39	N=167(66% )
	<i>Social Exchange</i>				83 (50%)
		Supervisor Support	23 (28%)	7 (8%)	30 (36%)
		Trust and Loyalty	18 (22%)	3 (4%)	21 (26%)
		Personal Integrity	16 (19%)	0	16 (19%)
		Warm-heartedness	3 (4%)	0	3 (4%)
		Unspecified	8 (10%)	1 (1%)	9 (11%)
		Other	3 (4%)	1 (1%)	4 (5%)
	<i>Social Identity</i>				76 (46 %)
		Workplace Construed as a Family Web	18 (24%)	14 (18%)	32 (42%)
		Team Cohesion Emphasis	19 (25%)	13 (17%)	32 (42%)
		In-group Membership Identity	12 (16%)	0	12 (16%)
	<i>Theory of Reasoned Action</i>				8 (5%)
		Societal Norm and/or Belief	8 (100%)	0 (0%)	8 (100%)
Contingent	(sometimes positive;		N=10	N=2	N=12 (5%)
	sometimes negative)	Unspecified	10 (83%)	2 (17%)	12 (100%)
Negative			N=70	N=3	N=73 (29%)
	<i>Perceived Unfairness</i>				47 (64%)
		Personal Dislike	6 (13%)	2 (6%)	8 (19%)
		Unfairness	7 (13%)	0 (0%)	7 (13%)
		Unspecified	32 (68%)	0 (0%)	32 (68%)
	<i>Impression Management</i>				26 (36%)
		Ingratiation	9 (36%)	1 (4%)	10 (40%)
		False Pretence for Authority	6 (30%)	0 (0%)	6 (30%)
		Exemplification	6 (30%)	0 (0%)	6 (30%)

In supporting the **social exchange framework** (Appendix 19 a and b presents the answers to *guanxi* examples and respondents' answers as to why *guanxi* can improve supervisory loyalty), the third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 47 show that 71 subordinates (34%) and 12 supervisors (27%) perceived that high levels of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the development of subordinates' loyalty since *guanxi* required the reciprocation of the other party's perceived supervisors' support (28% of subordinates and 8% of supervisors) and mutuality of interpersonal trust and loyalty (22% of subordinates and 4% of supervisors) and/or one party's personal integrity (19% of subordinates only) could enable the other's party to be committed to their *guanxi*'s on-going exchange process. For example, subordinates state that: "*My supervisor always wants to listen to my personal and work problems in private and tries to help* (**perceived supervisor care** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents) and thus, supervisor and subordinate are "*committed to each other and trust each other*" (mutuality). Another example is that "*my supervisor trained me to pass the exams in the workplace*" (**perceived supervisor support** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents) and thus, loyalty can be developed since in their interaction, subordinates perceived that superiors had good personal integrity. In addition, supervisors report that "*I am happy if my subordinates can be promoted so I always provide them with opportunities to utilize their abilities particularly in the presence of senior managers*" (**perceived supervisor support** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents) and thus, high level of "*support*" can gain subordinates' loyalty.

In supporting the **social identity framework** (Appendix 20 a and b present the answers on *guanxi* critical incidents and why *guanxi* can improve supervisory loyalty), the third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 47 show that 49 subordinates (24%) and 27 supervisors (61%) perceived that high levels of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the development of subordinates' loyalty since *guanxi* developed family membership identity (24% of subordinates and 18% of supervisors), work team or group membership identity (25% of subordinates and 17% of supervisors) and in-group membership identity (16% of subordinates only) (see the second column from the left of Table 47) (refer to the examples provided in hypothesis one on page 241).

In supporting the **theory of reasoned action framework** (Appendix 21 presents the answers to the *guanxi*'s critical incidents and respondents' answers as to why *guanxi* can improve loyalty of subordinates), the third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 47 show that only subordinates perceived that high levels of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the development of subordinates' loyalty since loyalty is an element in *guanxi* building and maintaining process

according to Chinese norms and/or beliefs (refer to the examples provided in hypothesis two's explanation on page 252).

Compared with their subordinates, it seemed that their superiors were more likely to value group or team membership identity and family membership identity without reference to in-group membership identity (the fourth column from the left in Table 47). In contrast with subordinates, this study reveals supervisors would rate the **social identity framework** more important than the **social exchange framework** (the fourth column from the left in Table 47). However, this study also indicated that supervisors did not have any responses related to **theory of reasoned action framework** (the fourth column from the left in Table 47).

Moreover, another finding from Table 47 shows there were 45 subordinates (22%) and three supervisors (7%) who considered that *guanxi* may or may not enhance OCB, but only 36 of them (14%) considered *guanxi* can enhance loyalty (Appendix 22 a and b presents the answers to the *guanxi* examples and respondents' answers as to why *guanxi* may or may not improve loyalty).

Finally, the third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 47 show that there were 73 respondents (33% of subordinates and 7% of supervisors) who considered that *guanxi* may or may not enhance loyalty. By recourse to the *guanxi*'s critical incidents, I categorized them into **perceived unfairness** (64% of 73 respondents, see Table 44) and **perceived impression management** frameworks (36% of 73 respondents see Table 45). The third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 47 show that among respondents who disagreed with the contention that *guanxi* can develop loyalty, 19% of total 252 respondents demonstrating that the reasons for loyalty impairment were the consequences of negative practices of *guanxi*, which cannot foster the development of subordinates' loyalty (see Appendix 24 a to c for details). Due to such negative influence on organizational justice leading to subordinates' perceptions of superiors as the source of their unwillingness for loyalty development (13% of subordinates and 6% of supervisors) and their perceptions of an unfair working climate (13% of subordinates) (see the second column from the left of Table 47), loyalty is unlikely to be developed. For example, subordinates state that supervisor is "*a bad guy*" or "*unfairness*" in the workplace which accounted for this.

The third and the fourth columns from the left in Table 47 show that among those 26 answers (10%) (Appendix 23 a to c) in relation to impression management, semiotic cluster analysis groups these critical incidents of *guanxi* under three categories: **Ingratiation; Exemplification**

**and False pretence for Authority**, which also indicate high quality liking relationship (*guanxi*) cannot predict loyalty due to their self-centered or self-serving nature (35%) (see the second column from the left of Table 47). This study shows that subordinates attempted to make their superiors view themselves as committed. However, the detailed content analysis about respondents' answers of 'yes', 'no' and 'maybe' can be misleading since responses from supervisors or subordinates who involved in impression management, would say 'yes', whilst if they are viewed from third party, the answers would be 'no'. A subordinate states that "*W was used to support his supervisor on anything at all. Thus, his supervisor used to say that W was his best friend. However, after his supervisor retired, W did not visit his supervisor on any Chinese holiday*"(**exemplification** in reference to *guanxi*'s critical incidents). The respondent carries on stating that "*His supervisor showed trust and loyalty to W. But W pretended to show loyalty and trust to his supervisor in the past. W did not display consistent loyalty to his supervisor after one's retirement*"[after termination of work relationship, people in close *guanxi* are expected to interact with each other].

**4.8.4 Comparing the Sources of Supervisory Trust and Supervisory Loyalty**

In my findings about the relationships among *guanxi*, loyalty and trust, it seemed that the variance occurred in **social exchange framework** in interpreting the ways which high level of *guanxi* may develop high level of supervisory trust and loyalty. Table 46 and Table 47 showed the summarised reports about percentage of respondents who agreed with supervisory trust and loyalty can be fostered by high level of *guanxi* from supervisors and subordinates from the qualitative data analysis. From subordinate's perspective, warm-heartedness, mutual trust and loyalty, perceived supervisors' support and supervisors' personal integrity were the common factors for supervisory trust and loyalty development. However, warm-heartedness is the most important in trust building, whereas perceived supervisor support is the most important in loyalty building (Figure 14). By contrast, from supervisors' perspective, they considered that perceived supervisor support the most important factor for both trust and loyalty development (Figure 15). Compared with subordinates, as to trust development, supervisors did not refer to warm-heartedness, whilst in terms of loyalty development; supervisors did not refer to both warm-heartedness and personal integrity.

**Figure 14 Subordinates' View of Trust and Loyalty Development**



**Figure 15 Supervisors’ View of Trust and Loyalty Development**



Being nice to your subordinates is perceived by them as the key to developing trust and thereafter loyalty. Loyalty however is maintained by continuous support of supervisors in them.

**4.8.5 Comparing Different Perceptions in *Guanxi* between Supervisors and Subordinates (Positive *Guanxi* only)**

Table 48 and Table 49 present the different perceptions about positive aspects of *guanxi* between supervisors and subordinates. It reveals that only subordinates perceived supervisor’s protection as *guanxi*, whereas only supervisors would provide recognition to their subordinates. Interactional justice and superiors’ positive attributes received the lowest level of subordinates’ reporting, but the highest level of supervisors’ reporting.

**Table 48 Supervisor-subordinate *Guanxi* Categories (Subordinates)**

Categories for Incidents	N=208
Perceived Supervisor Support	52
Perceived Supervisor Care	34
Outside Work Relationship	22
Supervisor’s Protection	16
Superiors’ Positive Attributes	8
Interactional Justice	6
Other	70
Total	208



**Table 49. Supervisor-subordinate *Guanxi* Categories (Supervisors)**

Categories for Incidents	Frequency
Interactional Justice	12
Subordinates' Positive Attributes	7
Perceived Supervisor Support	6
Perceived Supervisors' Care	6
Outside Work Relationship	5
Recognition of Subordinates	5
Other	3
Total	44

**4.8.6 Comparing *Guanxi* between Supervisors and Subordinates in Firms with Different Ownership Types**

The qualitative data also indicates that only respondents from private-owned firms revealed their concern for distributive injustice, whereas 50% of respondents (out of 26 subordinates and one supervisor) confined a state-owned bank branch, who reported that the negative practices of *guanxi* in selection, promotion and other managerial procedures (perceived procedural justice).

**4.8.7 Summary of Qualitative Findings in reference to Hypotheses**

Hypothesis 1 stated that high level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of display of a subordinate's OCB. Supporting H1, the content analysis for the subordinates' reasons to engage in OCB revealed that 52% of respondents perceived that high level of interpersonal relationships (*guanxi* between superior and subordinate) would enhance OCB. This was contextualized in three theoretical frameworks to explicate subordinates' engagement in OCB, i.e., the **reciprocal** process, the **social identity** process and the **social cognitive** process. This research demonstrated that the **social identity framework** received the highest level of reporting, whilst the **social cognitive framework** received the lowest.

Hypothesis 2 stated that high level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of trust in one's supervisor. Supporting H2, the content analysis for the subordinates' reasons to develop trust reveal that 71% of respondents perceived that high level of interpersonal relationships (*guanxi* between superior and subordinate) would enhance subordinates' trust in supervisor. Furthermore, three theoretical frameworks were posited to explain subordinates' trust development, the **social exchange process**, the **social identity process** and the **theory of reasoned action**. Findings demonstrated that the **social exchange framework** received the highest level of reporting, whilst the **theory of reasoned action framework** received the lowest level of reporting.

Hypothesis 3 stated that high level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of loyalty to one's supervisor. The three theoretical frameworks employed here were: the **social exchange process**, the **social identity process** and the **theory of reasoned action** (66% of respondents). The **social exchange framework** received the highest level of reporting, whilst the **theory of reasoned action framework** received the lowest level of reporting.

## 4.9 Summary of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

This chapter set out to test all hypotheses in this thesis. The key findings related to the hypotheses in this study are summarised below. In the quantitative study, supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* predicted helping behaviour, individual initiative, interpersonal harmony, keeping departmental harmony, group activity participation, protecting company interests, promoting company image and coexistence in adversity. However, self-development, voice and social welfare participation were not found to be the outcomes of supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*. The qualitative data has provided evidence for the norm of reciprocity, the social identity framework and the social cognitive framework explicating the contention that supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* can maximize Chinese subordinates' effort in investing their organization i.e., their display of OCB.

The *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate was a significant predictor of trust in supervisor and two dimensions of loyalty to supervisor, i.e., dedication and effort. Social exchange theory, social identity theory and theory of reasoned action can serve as the explicatory foundations for such positive relationships, as evidenced by the qualitative study.

After controlling for the six demographic variables and the independent variable of *guanxi*, dedication significantly predicted helping behaviour, taking initiative (negative), self-development (negative), interpersonal harmony and departmental harmony, voice (negative) and coexistence in adversity. However, contrary to expectation, dedication was negatively related to taking initiative, self-development and voice and was unrelated to social welfare participation, promoting company image and protecting company interests. Effort was a significant predictor of helping behaviour, taking initiative, keeping departmental harmony, group activity participation, voice, protecting company image and coexistence in adversity. Excluding self-development, social welfare participation, protecting company interests, and interpersonal harmony, the effort dimension was found to significantly and positively predict all other forms of OCB.

Trust in supervisor may serve as a predictor of helping behaviour, individual initiative, interpersonal harmony, keeping departmental harmony, group activity participation, protecting company interests and coexistence in adversity, whilst supervisor-subordinate interpersonal trust was negatively related to interpersonal harmony and coexistence in adversity. The qualitative study also indicated the significant role of trust and loyalty played in their relationship with OCB. Respondents agreed that trust and loyalty were the reasons that would make them display OCB. Three theoretical frameworks may explicate the relationships among supervisory trust, loyalty and subordinates' OCB. Cognitive dissonance theoretical perspective, covenantal relationship and psychological contract theory support these theoretical linkages.

Findings demonstrated the following mediations relationships were found (mediation underlined):

- (1).superior-subordinate *guanxi*→ trust in supervisor → keeping departmental harmony.
- (2) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → dedication → keeping departmental harmony.
- (3) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → effort → keeping departmental harmony

Support for partial mediation of trust in supervisor, dedication and effort was found on following relationships:

- (1) superior-subordinate *guanxi*→ trust in supervisor → helping behaviour, individual initiative, group activity participation and coexistence in adversity.
- (2) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → dedication → helping behaviour, taking initiative, group activity participation and coexistence in adversity.

(3) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → effort → helping behaviour, taking initiative, group activity participation and protecting company image.

Finally, an overall picture of both supervisor and subordinate's perceptions about *guanxi* was presented. A number of supplementary analyses added relevant insights about the relationships among the key variables.

## Chapter 5: Discussion of Findings

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether subordinates' high level of *guanxi* with their supervisors would enhance their level of OCB directly or indirectly; and whether subordinates' high levels of *guanxi* with their supervisors would improve their levels of trust in their supervisors and levels of loyalty to their supervisors, motivating them to display better OCB performance. The findings clearly suggest that they do. The results of this study provide support for the intricate links among supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor, loyalty to supervisor and subordinate's OCB. The findings suggest that an indigenous Chinese social context characterized by high level of interpersonal relationships (*guanxi*) is important in developing subordinates' psychological willingness to engage in OCB directly and indirectly. Trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor showed direct impact on OCB; and mediating effects between supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* and OCB. Subordinates are more likely to demonstrate OCB if they have a close interpersonal relationship (*guanxi*) of trust and loyalty with their supervisors.

### 5.1 *Guanxi* and OCB

H1 predicted that high level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of display of a subordinate's OCB. The findings from the qualitative part of this study indicate that interpersonal relationships (*guanxi*) are an integral element in the process of **norm of reciprocity**, the building of **social identity** and the **social cognitive** process. From the quantitative part of this study, we learn that supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* predicted improvement in helping behaviour, individual initiative, interpersonal harmony, keeping departmental harmony, group activity participation, protecting company interests, promoting company image and coexistence in adversity. However, self-development and social welfare participation were not found to be the consequences of supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* and voice was found to be negatively related to supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*. It was not surprising that self-development was not found to be predicted by interpersonal *guanxi* which is consistent with Huo et al. (2002), since the economic reforms in China, organizations no longer guarantee lifelong employment. Consequently, Chinese subordinates believe that it is their responsibility to develop their skills, knowledge and ability due to the fear of being replaced by younger, more able workers and in order to make themselves more marketable. Therefore, the absence or presence of interpersonal relationship has little or no impact on self-development. It may also suggest that at the current economic stage of

development in China, companies' training and development programs are neither common nor geared for subordinates' personal development (Law et al., 2000 and Zhang, Farh and Wang, 2006).

A further reason for why *guanxi* cannot predict social welfare participation is the influence of types of ownership. Before the economic reforms (1979), all organizations in China were required to fulfil their responsibilities to the wider social community by participating in social welfare activities. However, after the reforms, it is more likely to be the state-owned firms' duty to provide social and community-oriented services. Consequently, social welfare participation is more likely to be salient in the state-owned enterprises (Farh et al, 2001). The quantitative data of this study supports this notion that different types of firm ownership are good indicators of social welfare participation. Thus, this may not be influenced by the level of supervisor and subordinate *guanxi*. Notwithstanding this, the nature of social welfare participation in China and intra-organizational volunteerism (Peloza and Hassay, 2006) in the West may not be quite the same. It is more likely to be the state-owned enterprises' responsibility rather than their voluntary effort in carrying out their obligations for the local community in China. By contrast, Western subordinates can discretionarily spend their efforts within company-sanctioned programs on behalf of causes/organizations selected by their employer.

Moreover, scoring high in hierarchy and collectivism as well as face and harmony as core characteristics of Chinese culture (Hofstede, 1991; Schwartz et al., 1999) may discourage engagement in 'voice'. Though there are no previous findings about the relationship between *guanxi* and voice, the following reasons may account for it. A negative relation between voice and *guanxi* may be consistent with LePine and Van Dyne's (2001) finding that agreeableness is negatively related to voice behaviour since agreeable people value harmony, conform to norms, and pay strong attention to interpersonal relationships (*guanxi*), they are not inclined to make waves and speak up. For example, items of voice behaviour include: raising reasonable suggestions could contribute to the organizational development; bringing forward suggestions frankly to supervisors in order to improve job; bringing forward plan and suggestions that would improve company regulations and policy; criticising or raising suggestions against ill-mannered behaviour. A close examination of those items appears to show the challenge of current organizational policy, regulations, the existing organizational norms and others ill-mannered behaviour, which are contrary to Chinese values - intolerance of change, maintenance of interpersonal harmony and the protection of others' face. Therefore, supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* is not sufficient to enable employees to exhibit voice behaviour since subordinates who

would like to build up high level of interpersonal relationship with others are more likely not to use voice.

The findings from the qualitative part of this study provide evidence that the **norm of reciprocity**, **social identity framework** and **social cognitive framework** may serve as the theoretical foundations between supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' display of OCB. Interpersonal relationships are highly valued in China with implications on one's conception of self (**social identity theory**). Accumulated research has shown that Chinese people respect hierarchy and emphasize relationships (dyadic or group) (Hofstede, 1980, 1991; Redding, 1993; Triandis, 1995) based on their perception of identity building. Most Chinese hold an interdependent construal of self whereby *guanxi* helps transform the "I" to "we" to create a group/team membership identity, family membership identity and perceived insider status or being an in-group member (Hwang, 1999; Yang, 1993).

Therefore, this study shows that subordinates' identification with their supervisors, leading to perceptions of family membership identity, group or team membership identity and in-group membership identity, strongly influenced the subordinates' OCB, which may well develop their identification to their organisation as well. In line with Hofstede (1980, 1991), this research showed that Chinese tended to use more family or group related concepts to explain social phenomena and build up high level of clan-like relationships with others, thereby, family membership identity and team or group membership identity were most frequently mentioned. Hall's (1976) *high context* culture theory also helps explain why subordinates in China may build up in-group membership identity since insiders of the team or group received better treatment than outsiders. However, the differences in perceptions between supervisors and subordinates were in-group membership or perceived insider status, which had not been reported by supervisors. One possible explanation is that of social desirability. This is the inclination to portray oneself in way which one will be viewed favourably by others (Arnold and Feldman, 1981). This social desirability made the supervisors mask their true opinions due to unfavourable image of negative practices of *guanxi*'s in-group favouritism. This may be the result of supervisors' exposure to the Western ideas of justice and their learning from Western management practices. Thus, supervisors may perceive that in-group membership or perceived insider status might undermine the working environment's fairness perception. Additionally, if supervisor's behaviour toward the subordinates implies or poses a threat to the subordinate's identity with the supervisor, it is likely that he/she will react. Also, Chinese respect authority and tend to view supervisors as having higher status than themselves, which makes supervisors'

evaluations of their behaviours heavily impact on how they view their relationship with their supervisors. For example, if a supervisor shows consideration to subordinates' needs, provides resources and support, and encourages them to overcome obstacles to reach goals, the subordinates will be likely to make attribution to the supervisor's care about them and beliefs in their ability and thus may encourage the development of a more extended self-concept (to encompass their supervisors). Consequently, they exhibit more OCB. On the other hand, if subordinates believe that their supervisors do not view them as in-group members, group or team and /or family members, or that they should have been supported and assisted (but were not), or they were mistreated, it will greatly influence the formulation of the subordinates' identification with their supervisors. The subordinates may judge the supervisor to be a "bad" supervisor and refuse to continue making extra effort in their work under this person's supervision.

Second, **norm of reciprocity** supports the direct (causal) relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' OCB. Supervisors' behaviours are likely to influence subordinates' OCB performance for several reasons. Supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* and OCB are reciprocal. OCB is also a manifestation of subordinates' positive regard, attachment to supervisors and the organisation, and voluntary and discretionary effort made for supervisors and by extension to their organization because supervisors are the agents of organisations. Also, importantly, their interpersonal relationship is maintained and developed through their display of OCB.

At the same time, the subordinates who establish positive interpersonal relationships with their supervisors facilitate the supervisors to demonstrate support or help, care, protection and recognition of them. These create a supportive environment, which in turn influences the subordinates' display of OCB. Furthermore, since *guanxi* is reciprocal and transferable, subordinates' OCB may be transferred from the interpersonal domain to the organisational domain. For example, the findings from the quantitative part of this study indicate that supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* predicts not only interpersonal-oriented OCB such as helping behaviour and interpersonal harmony, but also organizational oriented OCB, including individual initiative, keeping departmental harmony, group activity participation, protecting company interests, promoting company image and coexistence in adversity. This lends support to the previously stated assumption that Chinese develop *guanxi* with their organization through their building up of relationships with their supervisors (Westwood, Chan and Linstead, 2004; Farh and Tsui, 1998; Chen, Farh and Tsui, 1998; 2002; Hui et al., 2004).



Findings from the qualitative part of this study demonstrate that based on the frequency of codings, subordinates were more likely to develop high level of *guanxi* with supervisors who provided support or help, protection, recognition, care, and who possessed perceived likable attributes such as trust and loyalty. Such high level of interpersonal *guanxi* implicates subordinates in repaying their supervisors' *renqing* by extra work effort (favour). Similar to subordinates' perception, supervisors considered it is their duty to provide support to their subordinates, which also facilitate the development of *guanxi* in compliance with the Chinese norm of reciprocity.

Yet, another reason why supervisor-subordinate interpersonal *guanxi* will have a strong effect on subordinate behaviour in a Chinese organizational context may be explicated by an individual self-regulatory system. With the absence of a well-established legal regulatory system, the moral character of both parties - supervisor and subordinate play a vital role in developing and sustaining subordinates' OCB. The Chinese culture is characterized by 'rule by man rather than rule by law', and therefore, social and moral standards are likely to be essential in regulating superior-subordinate behaviour in collectivistic cultures like China in particular relationships (Redding, 1990; Liu, 2003; Westwood, 1992; Chen, 1995; Liu, 2003; Westwood, Chan and Linstead, 2004; Begley, Lee and Hui, 2006; Chen and Chen, 2004; Sue, Diener, Oishi, and Triandis, 1998; Triandis, 1995). The mutual obligations in superior-subordinate *guanxi* are unspecified and diffused, depending on an individual's moral agency. Because of the limitations imposed by convention on voicing disapproval (see above findings on section 5.1) concerns in most Chinese organizations, it is likely that subordinates will choose to react to supervisors do not behave in the ways they expect them to by withdrawing their OCB performance. Hence, the exercise of moral agency (Bandura, 1986; 1989) in line with **social cognitive theory** regulates both supervisors' and subordinates' behaviours. This study reveals that on the one hand, supervisors are morally obligated to treat their subordinates fairly, assist them in personal crises, and demonstrate a special concern for their subordinates' interests and show holistic concern for their needs. On the other hand, subordinates are morally obligated to display OCB since it is imperative on them to choose by the convention of *guanxi*, that is, even without explicitly required to do so by their supervisors.

In addition, within Chinese organizations, supervisors control significant valued resources for subordinates, both tangible and intangible and therefore, the extent to which a supervisor can establish contingencies for rewards (and penalties) he/she controls will contribute to demonstrated OCB (Westwood, Chan and Linstead, 2004; Chen, 1995; Begley, Lee and Hui,

2006; Chen, 2004). In the same line, both supervisors and subordinates in all types of firm ownership (in the qualitative part of the study) show that the negative practices of *guanxi* frustrated and discouraged subordinates' effort in displaying OCB, in line with Adams' notion of inequality of social exchange (Adams, 1965). The two parties in a *guanxi* example with negative practice might enjoy their high level of relationship for their mutual benefits; however, when one party is in a managerial position, such practice would undermine other subordinates' OCB. Consequently, these subordinates were more likely to view their supervisors as "bad" supervisors, thereby, minimizing their effort to display OCB. Furthermore, some subordinates were concerned with the effects of distributive justice. They reported that their supervisors used their personal *guanxi* to undermine justice through their rewards decision-making with a negative effect on their display of OCB. Subordinates would engage in OCB by reciprocating supervisors who treat them properly and disengage in OCB when their supervisors do not treat them properly as perceived by them. In the analyses of some cases, which were coded as interpersonal mistreatment (interactional injustice in English), it is believed that China is high in cultural power distance (Hofstede, 1991). Therefore, Chinese subordinates are unwillingly to participate in decision-making process or Chinese subordinates should respect for their authority. However, with the exposure to the West and rapid development at an unpredicted level, Chinese attitudes may change significantly. Higher education particularly overseas education might develop some managers' over-evaluation of themselves. But in reality, they need adopt themselves to the external surrounding working environment. In particular, in the relationship oriented society like China, supervisors and subordinates are interdependent in achieving collective interests and organizational success since both supervisors and subordinates can provide benefits to one another that they could not acquire on their own. Hence, respect for subordinates and appropriate treatment towards them would enhance mutual liking, trust, loyalty and OCB. If supervisors fail to reciprocate their subordinates' kindness, or fail to treat their subordinates with dignity and respect, they would lose the most valuable asset of their organization. Taken this survey together with previous research (Law et al., 2000; Cheng et al., 2002; Wong et al., 2003), the positive meaning of *guanxi* in the organization should not undermine the formal organization operation. Law et al. (2000) have reported that *guanxi* between supervisors and subordinates in China would not bias supervisor's decision of subordinate's promotion and reward, because supervisor would consider subordinate's performance firstly. Likewise, of course, this study also demonstrated that supervisors must be careful in developing interpersonal relationships with individual subordinates in the positive way such as treating them fairly rather than personal preference such as providing favouritism for one person but ignoring the majority of others. Many cases from the qualitative part of this study revealed that the negative practices of *guanxi*

undermined subordinates' relationship with their supervisor, trust in their supervisor and loyalty to their supervisor. Consequently, such supervisors may develop high level of interpersonal *guanxi* with certain subordinates but lose their trust and loyalty with the other subordinates, and fail to develop high level of *guanxi* with them. Ultimately, they cannot expect their subordinates' effort in OCB. From the qualitative part of this study, it was found that **procedural injustice, interpersonal mistreatment, distributive injustice** and OCB are interactive and self-reinforcing (Table 45).

The qualitative part of this study also reported findings of impression management, whereby subordinates used impression management strategies including **ingratiation, exemplification and false pretence for authority** in firms with different types of ownership. Ingratiation and exemplification have been previously found in the Western impression management literature (Bolino et al., 2006). Ingratiating subordinates maximized their efforts in building a high level of relationship with their superiors for future benefits, whereas the pseudo dedicated or pseudo loyal subordinates pretended to show OCB aimed at establishing a good image for their supervisors. Most important, this research reveals that supervisors who abused their power also inevitably encourage their subordinates to develop impression management tactics such as false pretence for authority. Ironically, those supervisors might enjoy their powerful position and think they have a very good interpersonal relationship with their subordinates. However, other subordinates were more likely to be de-motivated to display their OCB since they viewed their supervisor as 'a despicable person' or 'bad'. Thus, even if they would like to exhibit OCB, their 'bad' supervisors 'need' their respect for their authority more than their effort in OCB. Most respondents reported that people engaged in impression management would not display OCB due to their self-centred nature.

The words of selfishness and self-serving motives from content analysis in the qualitative part of this study appropriately describe the major reasons why some Chinese would not display OCB but impression management. As explained, subordinates who engage in false pretence for authority may do so as result of and in response to their 'bad' supervisors. Some of them report that they would like to engage in OCB but their supervisors de-motivated their efforts. Thus, as reported in Western literature (Bolino et al., 2006), it also found in this study OCB as an impression management strategy, i.e., exemplification in order to present a positive self-image towards their supervisors. Nevertheless, most of respondents (44 out of 73) did not specify their reasons for OCB disengagement, thereby there is a large 'silent' majority that we do not know their reasons. This calls for future research.

## 5.2 Guanxi, Trust and Loyalty

H2 stated that high level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of trust in one's supervisor. H3 stated that high level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of loyalty to one's supervisor.

In supporting H2, *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate was found to be a significant predictor of trust in supervisor. Consistent with the survey by Wong et al. (2003), high level of interpersonal relationship between supervisor and subordinate was positively related to subordinates' trust in their supervisors. However, H3 was only partly supported; *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate was found to be a significant predictor of two dimensions of loyalty to supervisor, i.e., dedication to supervisor and making effort on behalf of supervisor. Interpersonal *guanxi* did not serve as a predictor of following supervisor (unquestionable following); identification with supervisor and internalization (of value congruence) with supervisor. This is in line with previous research (Chen, Farh and Tsui, 1998 and 2002; Wong et al., 2002) that suggested identification with supervisor and internalization with supervisor were not salient in the Chinese societies. Nonetheless, the question asked here is why following supervisors cannot be fostered in the event of high level of interpersonal *guanxi*. It is common for scholars to view *guanxi* as being characterized by group favouritism, with unconditional loyalty required in forming and lasting long-term relationships (Chen et al., 2003; Tsui, 1998 and 2002; Wong et al., 2002). By contrast, this study seems to suggest that unconditional following of supervisor did not result from high level of sincere *guanxi*. It may be consistent with previous research (Chen, Farh and Tsui, 1998; Luia and Wong, 2005) as well. For example, Luia and Wong (2005) demonstrated that Chinese mainland managers, in examining subordinates' loyalty to supervisor, namely: identification, internalization, dedication, effort and following supervisor, showed that the 'effort' dimension had a positive effect on wage; whereas the 'following supervisor' dimension had a negative effect on wage, which was contrary to common perception, i.e., loyal subordinates may not get higher wages. Chen, Farh and Tsui (1998) also showed that following supervisor was not as reliable and strong predictor of OCB as were the dimensions of dedication to supervisor and making effort on behalf of supervisor.

In contextualising the findings, I am applying **social exchange theory**, **social identity theory** and the **theory of reasoned action** to explicate the relationships among *guanxi*, trust and loyalty.

Firstly, according to **social exchange theory**, trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor are the outcomes of *guanxi* between superior and subordinate. This study suggests that perceived benefits and/or positive exchange and/or positive attributes enable the development of obligation to reciprocate the other party, whereby trust and loyalty reflected the willingness and stability of the other party's intention to maintain the relationship over him (Blau, 1964; Whitener et al., 1998; Organ and Konovsky, 1989; Wong et al., 2003). High level of trust and loyalty would enable the subordinates to enjoy high quality exchange relationships with their superiors in terms of stable social exchange (Blau, 1964), though the scope of supervisor's reciprocal obligations is diffuse. Although the timing of the supervisor's reciprocation is sometime in the indefinite future, subordinates implicitly trust that the supervisor will eventually fulfil the obligation and they maintain the on-going *guanxi* exchange process.

Secondly, this study supports **social identity theory** in predicting the relationships between *guanxi*, loyalty and trust among supervisors and subordinates. High levels of *guanxi* facilitate the building of group/team identity, family membership identity and/or a sense of group inclusion (in-group membership or perceived insider status). Those identities made both party feel obligated to trust and commit to each other. The findings from the qualitative part of this study generate rich meanings for the understanding of the role of social identity theory played in the formulation of interpersonal *guanxi*, trust and loyalty. For example, "we are one group" or "we like family members" or "we are in-group members" exemplifies the way which *guanxi* helped in transforming "I" into "we". The findings from the qualitative part of this study show that family membership identity, group membership identity and in-group membership identity are the enablers of trust and loyalty becoming fostered, from the subordinates' perspective. In the supervisors' opinion, they also considered that high level of *guanxi* has enabled their subordinates to develop group or team identity, and family membership identity. The reason that supervisors valued social identity in developing trust and loyalty may be due to the influence of paternalism. Since in China, superiors are viewed as father like figures (Redding, 1990), they tend to use family related concepts in management as well.

Finally, the findings from the qualitative part of this study found that the **theory of reasoned action** could explicate that the societal norms have an impact on the formulation of trust and loyalty as the outcomes of supervisor and subordinate *guanxi*. The theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980) posits that any volitional behaviour is a function of two main forces: individual attitudes toward the behaviour and the subjective norm. According to the theory, the most important determinant of a person's behaviour is behaviour intent (Montano et al., 1997).

The individual's intention to perform behaviour (building up and maintaining *guanxi* in this thesis) is a combination of attitude (displayed trust and loyalty in this thesis) toward performing the behaviour and subjective norm (Montano et al., 1997). The qualitative part of this study found that developing high level of *guanxi* can lead to high level of trust in and loyalty to supervisor, which are heavily dependent on the subjective norm in China (Chen et al., 2004) owing to the fact that social norm is more likely to be the driving force of behaviour in collectivistic cultures (Bontempo and Rivero, 1992; Sue, 2002; Sue, Diener, Oishi, and Triandis, 1998; Triandis, 1995). The Chinese societal norm indicates that trust and loyalty are outcomes of particular ties (*guanxi*) [Redding (1990) refers to *guanxi* as personalism, which “is the tendency to allow personal relationships to enter into decision making” (p. 135)] (Chen et al., 2003; Triandis, 1995). Therefore, trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor as aspects of building up *guanxi* depend on self-evaluation as to whether trust and loyalty have a positive valence and subjective norm - whether the societal norm views trust and loyalty as positive.

On the other hand, low level of *guanxi* due to perceptions of unfairness reported in this research demonstrates that procedural injustice, supervisors' mistreatment (interactional injustice in the Western literature), and distributive injustice undermined subordinates' trust and loyalty towards their supervisors. The findings of impression management in this study indicate that subordinates engaged in ingratiation, exemplification and false pretence for authority nevertheless encourage supervisors' trust and loyalty in supporting their subordinates in various ways though this may not be long term. Even though these subordinates may be viewed as trustworthy and committed by their superiors; however, they might be considered as 'bad' persons by their co-workers.

Overall, the findings from the qualitative part of this study seems to suggest that **social exchange theory** is better placed to interpret these relationships than **social identity theory** and the **theory of reasoned action**. However, from the superiors' perspective, they would view **social identity theory** as more effective than **social exchange theory** and the **theory of reasoned action** in developing trust and loyalty, whereas subordinates would appreciate **social exchange theory** more than its alternative explanations.

### 5.3 Trust, Loyalty and OCB

H4 stated that high level of subordinate's loyalty to supervisor is positively related to high level of display of subordinate's OCB. In supporting H4 partially, after controlling for the six demographic variables and the independent variable of *guanxi*, dedication significantly predicted



helping behaviour, taking initiative (negative), self-development (negative), interpersonal harmony and departmental harmony, voice (negative) and coexistence in adversity. However, contrary to my expectation, dedication is negatively related to taking initiative, self-development and voice; and is unrelated to social welfare participation, promoting company image and protecting company interests.

One possible explanation for the relationship between voice and dedication may be consistent with LePine and Van Dyne's (2001) finding, which agreeableness is negatively related to voice behaviour since agreeable people who value harmony, conform to norms, and pay close attention to interpersonal relationship, may not be inclined to make waves and speak up. The meaning of dedication to one's supervisor shows the subordinates' willingness to be dedicated to the supervisor or seek and promote the supervisor's welfare at the expense of their personal interests. It is possible to suggest that dedication is a strong interpersonal oriented form of loyalty, however, taking initiative, social welfare participation, promoting company image and protecting company interests are society or community oriented, or organizational oriented. Hence, interpersonal dedication might not predict those types of OCB.

In terms of self-development, employees who are less committed to their supervisors tended to display higher engagement in self-development. This may suggest that those subordinates made an effort to develop their own knowledge, skills and ability, making them more marketable for possible alternative jobs. Effort was found to be a significant predictor of helping behaviour, taking initiative, keeping departmental harmony, group activity participation, voice, protecting company image and coexistence in adversity. Excluding self-development, social welfare participation, protecting company interests, and interpersonal harmony, the effort dimension was found to significantly and positively predict the other forms of OCB. This seems to suggest that the true meaning of loyalty to supervisor is making efforts on behalf of the supervisor in the workplace.

Effort was not found to be a predictor of interpersonal harmony, which to some extent can be explained by the subordinates' engagement in voice behaviour since voice and interpersonal harmony may be conflictual. Effort was not found to act as antecedent to social welfare participation and self-development. To my surprise, subordinates who make effort on behalf of supervisors were not found to be protecting the company's interests such as cleaning the workplace and saving company's resources. One possible explanation is that increasingly, like in the West, cleaning (the item referring to protecting company interests i.e., keeping the workplace

clean) is outsourced in the researched firms in China; which makes it difficult to judge the extent to which subordinates may or may not engage in such type of cost-saving behaviour, whereas social welfare participation may be predicted by types of economic ownership rather than interpersonal loyalty.

However, internalisation (superior-subordinate value congruence) was found to be a predictor of social welfare participation, which implies that supervisor-subordinate value congruence is highly related to societal or community service.

**H5 stated that high level of subordinate's trust in supervisor is positively related to high level of display of subordinate's OCB.** In supporting H5 partially, this research findings also show that to some extent higher levels of trust in supervisor could enhance subordinates' higher levels of OCB. The findings suggest that trust in supervisor may serve as the predictor of helping behaviour, individual initiative, interpersonal harmony, keeping departmental harmony, group activity participation, protecting company interests and coexistence in adversity, which are in line with most previous studies both in China (Wong et al, 2002 and 2003) and in the West (Organ et al., 2005). However, supervisor-subordinate interpersonal trust was negatively related to interpersonal harmony and social welfare participation against my expectation. One possible explanation is that high level of trust enables subordinates to speak up, which may lead to the impairment of their interpersonal harmony with their colleagues, whereas social welfare participation may be predicted by types of economic ownership rather than interpersonal trust.

Three theoretical frameworks may support the association between supervisory trust, loyalty to supervisor and OCB. Firstly, the **cognitive dissonance** theoretical perspective (Festinger, 1957; Kitayama, Snibbe, Markus and Suzuki, in press) argues that people will feel disturbed when there are inconsistencies between their attitudes, or between their attitude and behaviour, or between their behaviours based on positive appraisal from others (such as their supervisors), which may shed some (new) light on the association between OCB and its antecedents. Thus, the high levels of trust and loyalty are consistent attitudes and high level of OCB is consistent behaviour respectively. Secondly, the **covenantal relationship theory** may explain the relationship of trust/loyalty and OCB since subordinates would be intrinsically motivated to display OCB based on their mutual trust and loyalty (Van Dyne et al., 1994; Organ et al., 2005). Finally, **psychological contract theory** explicates that trust and loyalty are the foundations of relational psychological contract in collectivistic societies such as China (Rousseau, 1989; Shore and Tetrick, 1994; Chen, Farh and Tsui, 1998; Thomas et al, 2003), leading to subordinates'



effort in OCB.

## 5.4 The Mediating Effect of Trust and Loyalty between *Guanxi* and OCB

H6 predicated that trust in supervisor mediates between supervisor-subordinate's *guanxi* and a subordinate's OCB. H7 predicated that loyalty to supervisor mediates between supervisor-subordinate's *guanxi* and a subordinate's OCB.

This research illustrated that full mediation occurred for the following relationships:

- (1) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → trust in supervisor → keeping departmental harmony;
- (2) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → dedication → keeping departmental harmony;
- (3) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → effort → keeping departmental harmony.

This study found support for partial mediation of trust in supervisor, dedication and effort on the following relationships:

- (1) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → trust in supervisor → helping behaviour, individual initiative, group activity participation and coexistence in adversity;
- (2) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → dedication → helping behaviour, taking initiative, group activity participation and coexistence in adversity;
- (3) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → effort → helping behaviour, taking initiative, group activity participation and protecting company image.

These findings may be explained by **social exchange theory** and by **transaction cost economy theory**. Since there is neither a fixed rule nor specific value of what is being exchanged or when the exchange will be completed in the *guanxi* web (Fan, 2002; Chung and Hamilton, 2002). Additionally, the level of *guanxi* between supervisor-subordinate would depend upon subordinate's trust in their supervisor and loyalty to their supervisor due to the fact that the whole *guanxi* construction process is "informal, complicated and non-transparent, which may create uncertainty" (Fan, 2002, p.33). Hence, trust and loyalty are the building blocks of social exchange relations, which in turn contribute to OCB. Trust and loyalty relationships enable subordinates to make emotional investments, believing in the intrinsic virtue of such relationships and that these sentiments will be reciprocated. Therefore, a supervisor's failure to

fulfil their expected obligation towards their subordinates will undermine the subordinate's trust and loyalty in their supervisor, and their perception of the violation of the social exchange framework, leading to a decline in their level of *guanxi* and ultimately OCB engagement.

With a lack of a well established legal employment contract system, Chinese work culture as characterized by 'rule by man rather than rule by law', superior-subordinate relationships are based upon both parties' mutual obligations. Hence, trust and loyalty mediate the relationship between *guanxi* and OCB due to the fact that trust and loyalty are efficient means of transaction, resulting in its lower transaction cost, particularly monitoring or metering cost in William's (1975) terms. According to **transaction cost economy** (William, 1975), metering has adverse effect on people's contribution that cannot be feasibly metered as well as side effects on people's sentiments and attitudes (Organ et al., 2006). Trust and loyalty reduce the transaction cost for both parties in the *guanxi* network. On the one hand, from the supervisor's perspective, high level of *guanxi* implies high level of trust that is not necessitating for their monitoring subordinates' contribution (OCB) in the workplace (due to the moral obligation of 'their' subordinates to engage in such behaviour). On the other hand, from the subordinate's perspective, the level of trust and loyalty towards 'their' supervisor meter the *guanxi* and OCB relationship. High level of trust and loyalty reduce the metering cost, as they believe that 'their' superior will acknowledge their contribution they made and will formally and informally provide them with future reciprocation.

## 5.5 Discussion on Additional Findings about Trust in Supervisor and Loyalty to Supervisor

In this section, I wish to discuss accidental findings that do not form part of the objectives of this study and were not hypothesised. Nevertheless, they are of relevance there. The quantitative part of this study indicated that trust in supervisor is likely to predict supervisory loyalty. The hierarchical regression showed that trust in supervisor acts as the antecedent to two dimensions of loyalty to supervisor, i.e., dedication to supervisor and making effort on behalf of supervisor. Dedication to supervisor and making effort on behalf of supervisor are salient forms of loyalty to supervisor in China (Chen et al., 1998 and 2002; Chen, 2001; Chen, 2003; Wong et al., 2002). Luia and Wong (2005), in examining Chinese mainland managers regarding subordinate's loyalty to supervisor, namely identification, internalization, dedication, effort and following supervisor, showed that the 'effort' dimension had a positive effect on wage whereas the 'following

supervisor' dimension had a negative effect on wage, which was contrary to common perception, that is: loyal subordinates may not get higher wages. The extant empirical research seems to indicate that dedication to supervisor and making effort on behalf of supervisor are the most important form of loyalty to supervisor (and the most common). Thus, trust in supervisor precedes loyalty to supervisor. This study found that statistically, the relationship strength between *guanxi* and trust in supervisor is higher than the relationship strength between *guanxi* and loyalty. Hence, all of those findings suggest that Chinese tend to establish trust before they build up loyalty.

Based on the **theory of reasoned action** (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980), it may be argued that the most important determinant of employees' loyalty to supervisor is behaviour intent (Montano et al., 1997). The individual's intention (to display trust) is a combination of attitude (loyalty to supervisor) and subjective norm (Montano et al., 1997). Subjective norm refers to the perception of how others would evaluate a particular behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Loyalty to supervisor as the outcome of trust in supervisor would be from the individual reasoning process as stipulated in the commitment-trust theory. Morgan and Hunt (1994) found that work relationships characterised by trust engendered co-operation, reduced conflicts, increased the commitment and diminished the tendency to quit (Costa, 2003). Likewise, the Chinese societal norms indicate that Chinese managers are most concerned about subordinates' loyalty (House et al., 1999; 2004; Fu et al., 2006; Cheng et al., 2002). For example, Cheng et al. (2002) reported that Chinese managers valued subordinates loyalty more than factors such as social ties and affective exchange and competence, and loyal employees received better treatment. The societal norms in China emphasising on loyalty are likely to reinforce employees' loyalty to supervisor since social duty and obligation values conformity and respect for legitimate authority at work based on leaders' integrity, benevolence, ability and reliability, which is conducive to the development of employees' loyalty to supervisor (Earley, 1989; Warner, 1993).

In addition, based on **social exchange theory**, supervisory loyalty can be fostered by trust in supervisor. McAllister (1995) notes that frequent and long-term interaction between individuals (e.g. subordinate and supervisor) result in the formation of emotional attachment based on reciprocated interpersonal care and concern. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) assumes that trust emerges through the repeated exchange of benefits between two individuals. In a social exchange, one individual provides a benefit to another, invoking an obligation on the other party to reciprocate by providing some benefits in return. Therefore, it is expected that, in the long run, subordinates who have a higher level of trust in their supervisor will also develop a higher level

of loyalty to their supervisor. Since an employee's trust in their supervisor is dyadic and interpersonal, and is derived from repeated interactions over time between subordinate and supervisor, it is reasonable to expect that the employees' trust in their supervisor will have a positive impact on the development of the employees' loyalty to supervisor (Wong et al., 2002). There is only one empirical study to support that trust in supervisor is a predictor of loyalty to supervisor (Wong et al., 2002).

However, the findings also show loyalty to supervisor, i.e., making effort on behalf of supervisor and dedication to supervisor act as precursors to trust in supervisor. This suggests a natural reinforcing enactment between trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor. Based on the frequency of codings, the qualitative part of this study showed that from subordinates' perspective, warm-heartedness was most important in trust development, whereas perceived supervisor support was most important in loyalty development, which provides support to the findings that trust and loyalty were two different concepts in China as well. However, to the best of my knowledge, the nature of warm-heartedness and perceived supervisor support may be reciprocal in essence, i.e., that being nice to them is perceived by subordinates as the key to developing trust and thereafter loyalty in their supervisor. From supervisors' perspective, they consider that perceived supervisor support as the most important factor for both subordinates' trust and loyalty development. One possible explanation is that supervisors as power holders in China are expected to be both disciplined and warm-hearted, according to the cultural characteristic of paternalism.

## **5.6 Discussion on Additional Findings about OCB and Demographics**

In line with previous study (Farh et al., 2001), this study reports that age and economic ownership were reliable predictors of OCB. Gender, however, was not found to be related to OCB. It was also found that educational level and tenure were predictors of OCB, not previously mentioned in the literature.

This study reveals that gender was not a predictor of OCB, unlike Farh et al.'s (2001) findings where gender was found to differentiate on some forms of OCB – i.e., voice and keeping the work environment clean. Men were more likely to speak up, but less likely to keep the work environment clean (Farh et al., 2001). In the West (Podsakoff et al., 2000) on the other hand, researchers presented mixed findings about gender and OCB. To one's surprise, managerial level in this study may not predict OCB well, contrary to previous research that managerial and

non-managerial staff appeared to differentiate on some types of OCB, namely, voice and promoting company image (Farh et al., 2001). Managerial staff are more likely to exhibit those behaviours than non-managerial staff. A possible explanation for this difference is that this study did not provide OCB rating of candidates from and above supervisors' level. In the researched organizations, senior technical staff and the majority of respondents from the state-owned firms can be viewed as cadres under the personnel systems in China even though they were graded at the entry level of their jobs. Thus, in hierarchical echelon and with social status an important feature, they rate themselves as managerial staff although they do not carry a managerial responsibility in their jobs.

Previous findings showed that age was negatively related to protecting the company image, interpersonal harmony, and self-development (Farh et al., 2001). Younger workers perform better than older ones in those listed behaviours (Farh et al., 2001). This study reported that on average, respondents are likely to provide helping behaviour, taking initiative, keeping departmental harmony and participating group activity differently. These behaviours were predicated on age. Similar to Farh et al.'s (2001) findings, younger workers performed better than older ones in all these forms of OCB.

Different types of economic ownership were found to predict OCB well in helping behaviour, coexistence in adversity and social welfare participation. Similar to Farh et al.'s (2001) findings, respondents from private-owned firms and joint ventures were more likely to help than staff in state-owned firms. Staff in joint ventures and private-owned firms seemed to engage in coexistence in adversity better than staff in state-owned firms. As regards contributing to the social welfare, respondents from state-owned companies tended to rate higher than private-owned firms and joint ventures.

Educational level was also found to be related to self-development. The higher the level of education individuals possessed, the less likely they displayed self-development. One possible explanation is there are more opportunities for development at the lower level of education and in China workers believe that it is their own responsibility to developing themselves (Huo et al., 1999). Tenure was discovered to be related to OCB aspects of keeping department harmony, promoting the company image and coexistence in adversity. Experienced workers seemed to perform better than less experienced workers.

## 5.7 Discussion on Additional Findings about Guanxi between Supervisors and Subordinates

The qualitative part of this study suggests that when asked to characterise superior-subordinate *guanxi*, people tend to consider three broad categories: meaningful and ethical *guanxi*; perceived unethical organisational injustice; and what may be called unethical supervisor-targeted impression management. Supervisor's protection is perceived as *guanxi* by subordinates only, while on the other hand, recognition of subordinates only mentioned by supervisors.

Interactional justice was reported as most important by supervisors but it was revealed as least important by subordinates. One possible explanation is that economic reforms in China have changed the employment relationship from the 'Iron Rice Bowl' to the use of employment contracts for all subordinates. Privatization and the push for performance have led many state-owned enterprises to lay off subordinates in the thousands (Hutzler, 2005). The increasing number of foreign firms, along with the rise on importance of the private sector, jointly contributing to almost two-thirds of the economy, have intensified the competitive landscape for managerial talents and may well have reduced the normatively high level of organisational power distance (Fu et al., 2006). Therefore, the future Chinese *guanxi* between a superior and their immediate subordinates is more likely to be developed based on both the norm of reciprocity and norm of equity.

The main positive aspect of *guanxi* as perceived by both supervisors and subordinates seems to be one that corresponds to a meaningfully and ethically positive reciprocal exchange between them (through showing concern, care, support, protection, recognition, interactional justice and outside work relationship). Other positive aspects found are perceived positive attributes such as trust, loyalty and ability. The positive reciprocal exchange perspective focuses on the nature of the supervisor-subordinate relationship, and more precisely, how subordinates perceive the nature of the relationship based on the norm of reciprocity (Yang, 1995). The findings of this research show that *guanxi* denotes a high-quality relationship on the basis of support, protection, recognition, interactional justice and even outside work relationship; and issues of care and concern in the relationship, consistent with previous research (e.g., Wong et al., 2003; Law et al., 2000; Chen et al., 2006; 2007; Cheng et al., 2004).

However, though this study's findings illustrate that *guanxi* is non-work specific and informal relationship driven, the job related support, protection, care and recognition from both

supervisors and subordinates have been also demonstrated in this research. Hence, it appears that *guanxi* has a broader meaning in Chinese society than has been previously suggested, pertaining to a fusion between individual and organisational life (Trompenaars, 1994). The relationship-based aspect of *guanxi* can explicate subordinates' willingness to reciprocate supervisors support, protection, care and consideration through their manifestation of a high level of trust in supervisors (Wong et al., 2003; Tsui and Farh, 1997; Farh, Tsui, Xin and Cheng, 1998; and Tsui et al., 2000) and reduced turnover (Wong et al., 2003); a high level of in-role performance (Tsui and Farh, 1997; Farh, Tsui, Xin and Cheng, 1998; Tsui et al., 2000); effective participative leadership (Chen and Tjosvold, 2006; 2007) and (as discovered in this study) loyalty to supervisor and a high level of OCB.

The attributes perspective, in contrast, focuses on the perception of the supervisor's and the subordinate's positive personal attributes and how this perception drives their willingness to develop a positive reciprocal exchange. This perspective implies that subordinates would like to build up relationship with supervisors who demonstrate attributes such as integrity, dependability and ability. Similarly, supervisors would value and form the reciprocal exchanges with those subordinates who they view as committed, trusted and capable. Such interpersonal *guanxi* is seen as ethical and meaningful. One possible explanation to these findings is that in the contemporary Chinese organisations, subordinates are assigned to supervisors; they may not know them beforehand and therefore may not have *guanxi* ties with each other before coming to work together. In such case, they may well follow other existing tin as models to help them determine whether they would engage in such future reciprocal exchange.

On the other hand, superior-subordinate *guanxi* may also be perceived as unethical and negative. The second category of *guanxi* presented here in Table 41 is perceived unfairness in the workplace. Consistent with Chen, Chen and Xin (2004) findings, cliques/groups of supervisors and subordinates resulted in some being treated better than others (based on their affinity with supervisors). Similar to Bozionelos and Wang (2007), the findings of this study suggest that *guanxi* could influence some managers' reward decisions. This study also revealed that interactional justice including supervisor's unsupportive behaviour and attitudes, and supervisors' indifference to their subordinates as illustrated in previous examples, could make their subordinates feel less motivated to develop *guanxi* with their supervisors, which indicates the salient function of interactional justice in *guanxi* building (Chen, 1995; Tjosvold, Wong and Hui, 2004).



This study was concerned with supervisor-targeted impression management. I presented a similar finding to previous research (e.g., Zhang et al., 2006; Walder, 1983; Liang, 1998), which highlighted ingratiation, pseudo loyalty and pseudo citizenship (exemplification) as well as a new extended form of impression management: false pretence for supervisor, which can be applied to develop a high level of *guanxi* with both dedicated supervisors (such as by means of pseudo loyalty) and other supervisors (such as in the way of ingratiation). In Chinese culture, which has been characterised as ‘rule by man rather than rule by law’, some supervisors may view the maintenance of face and authority as of uttermost importance; thereby however, losing their subordinates’ respect and willingness to develop superior-subordinate *guanxi*.

Finally, the qualitative part of this study also indicated that only respondents from private-owned firms revealed a concern for distributive of which 50% of responses come from a branch of a state-owned bank, reporting negative practices of *guanxi* in selection, promotion and other managerial procedures (perceived procedural injustice). This may be interpreted by Wang and Qiao’s (2007) findings who found that under increasing competitive pressure, some private firms in China may seek many different ways to become competitive including exploiting employees, which may lead to sweat shops like protections and pay. However, in terms of perceived unfairness in the said bank, such unfair culture may be attributed to the director’s management style, for example, one respondent revealed that *“In the state-owned bank, initially, a departmental head did not have a good guanxi with the director of the company. However, in order to get promotion, he/she had to comprise morals”* but their *“trust is not firm. If the situation changes (the director has been under disciplinary procedure), their guanxi would disappear”*.

## 5.8 A Clarification of the Linguistic Use of OCB in the Chinese Context

In qualitative research cross culturally, the issue of the meaning (in a linguistic sense) of key term has been raised (Welch and Piekkari, 2006). Welch and Piekkari’s (2006) findings show the multiple decisions that researchers make about language use. Some suggest using local language while others suggest using international language (English). I had to take a decision early on in my research on how to position the term OCB, which does not have a direct equivalence. Previous research had employed the following method: Both Farh et al. (2004) and Shi et al. (2004) provided OCB definition to part-time working business and management students and asked them to give examples of OCB. In my pilot phase, following Farh et al. (2004) and Shi et al.’s (2004) approach, however, my respondents cannot understand the meaning of OCB in



In the pilot survey phase of this study, I experimented with an alternative to OCB i.e., Lei Feng behaviour in the workplace (as explained before, Lei Feng December 18, 1940 - August 15, 1962, was a soldier of the People's Liberation Army of the PRC, who was characterized as a selfless and modest person after his death). Paine and Organ (2000) raised the question whether the meaning of a 'good citizen' or OCB in North America may be different than that in other societies. For example, OCB in Taiwan may be best described as "Good Corporate Citizenship". In China, Snell and Tsang (2003) suggested that OCB may be viewed as Lei Feng behaviour (i.e., voluntary and discretionary behaviour), which may include all the forms of OCB identified by Farh, Zhong and Organ (2000). However, it may be inappropriate to use discretionary behaviour in China. In the Chinese language, the term 'discretionary' is not unlike 'arbitrary', which may be neutral or even carry a negative connotation. The term 'voluntary behaviour' is proper to depict OCB to some extent. However, it may refer to an emphasis on helping behaviour. It may not be good enough to portray taking initiative, self-development and other forms of OCB. Nevertheless, Lei Feng behaviour in the workplace at least has the agreement from the respondents of the pilot surveys. It helps respondents grasp a critical aspect of OCB, its discretionary essence that it is under their control and is less likely to be formally and directly rewarded by the organization and/or their supervisors.

## 5.9 Summary

To sum up, this chapter discussed the research findings in relation to the hypotheses as to the direct effects among *guanxi*, trust, loyalty and OCB between supervisor and subordinates and the mediating effects of trust in supervisor and supervisory loyalty between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and OCB. It also compared and contrasted the different effects of superior-subordinate *guanxi* on supervisory trust and loyalty to supervisor; the differential effects of supervisory trust and loyalty on various forms of OCB. Finally, before the examination of *guanxi*'s structure and OCB's meaning in China, the findings of the relationships between OCB and demographic variables in the quantitative part of this study were also discussed.

## Chapter 6: Conclusions

### 6.1 Summary

#### 6.1.1 Summary of Findings

To sum up this research, **H1 stated that high level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of display of a subordinate's OCB.**

At the 95% of confidence level, it was found that supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* predicted helping behaviour, individual initiative, interpersonal harmony, keeping departmental harmony, group activity participation, protecting company interests, promoting company image and coexistence in adversity. However, self-development, voice and social welfare participation were not found to be the consequences of supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*.

**H2 stated that high level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to high level of trust in one's supervisor.** At the 95% of confidence level, hierarchical regression analysis revealed that *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate was a significant predictor of trust in supervisor.

**H3 stated that high level of *guanxi* between a subordinate and one's immediate supervisor is positively related to loyalty to one's supervisor.** At the 95% of confidence level, I found that *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate was an antecedent to two dimensions of loyalty to supervisor, i.e., dedication to supervisor and making effort on behalf of supervisor.

**H4 stated that high level of subordinate's loyalty to supervisor is positively related to high level of display of subordinate's OCB.** After controlling for the six demographic variables and the independent variable of *guanxi*, at the 95% of confidence level, the study found that dedication to supervisor significantly predicted helping behaviour, taking initiative, self-development, interpersonal harmony and departmental harmony, voice and coexistence in adversity. However, contrary to my expectation, dedication to supervisor was revealed to be negatively related to taking initiative, self-development and voice and was unrelated to social welfare participation, promoting company image and protecting company interests. Making effort on behalf of supervisor was found to be a significant predictor of helping behaviour, taking initiative, keeping departmental harmony, group activity participation, voice, protecting company image and coexistence in adversity. However, self-development, social welfare

participation, protecting company interests, and interpersonal harmony were not found to be related with making effort on behalf of supervisor.

**H5 stated that high level of subordinate's trust in supervisor is positively related to high level of display of subordinate's OCB.** After controlling for the six demographic variables and the independent variable of *guanxi*, at the 95% of confidence level, trust in supervisor was found to be a predictor of helping behaviour, individual initiative, interpersonal harmony, keeping departmental harmony, group activity participation, protecting company interests and coexistence in adversity, whilst supervisor-subordinate interpersonal trust were found to be negatively related to interpersonal harmony and coexistence in adversity.

**H6 predicated that trust in supervisor mediates between supervisor-subordinate's *guanxi* and a subordinate's OCB. H7 predicated that loyalty to supervisor mediates between supervisor-subordinate's *guanxi* and a subordinate's OCB.** This study illustrated that full mediation occurred for the following relationships at the 95% of confidence level:

- (1) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → trust in supervisor → keeping departmental harmony;
- (2) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → dedication → keeping departmental harmony;
- (3) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → effort → keeping departmental harmony.

It also found support for partial mediation of trust in supervisor, dedication and effort on the following relationships at the 95% of confidence level:

- (1) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → trust in supervisor → helping behaviour, individual initiative, group activity participation and coexistence in adversity;
- (2) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → dedication → helping behaviour, taking initiative, group activity participation and coexistence in adversity;
- (3) superior-subordinate *guanxi* → effort → helping behaviour, taking initiative, group activity participation and protecting company image.

## 6.1.2 Theoretical Foundations of Findings

### Norm of Reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960)

Contextualising this study's findings from my qualitative data within norm of reciprocity theory, from both supervisor and subordinate's perspectives, I found that high levels of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the development of subordinates' OCB since *guanxi* required the

reciprocation of the other party's *Renqing* (favour in English), support or help, and kindness.

### **Social Identity Theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Tajfel, 1978)**

Contextualising this study's findings from my qualitative data within social identity theory, from both supervisor and subordinate's perspectives, it illustrated that high levels of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the development of subordinates' OCB, trust in their supervisor and loyalty to their supervisor since *guanxi*, trust and loyalty construe a family membership identity, work team or group membership identity and in-group membership identity.

### **Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986; 1989)**

Contextualising this study's findings from my qualitative data within social cognitive theory, from both supervisor and subordinate's perspectives, I found that high level of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the development of subordinates' OCB, since *guanxi* building and maintaining process was regulated by individual's moral obligation.

### **Social Exchange (Blau, 1964)**

Contextualising this study's findings from my qualitative data within social exchange theory, from both supervisor and subordinate's perspectives, it demonstrated that high levels of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the development of subordinates' trust since *guanxi* required the reciprocation of the other party's past warm-heartedness, perceived supervisors' support and mutuality of interpersonal trust and loyalty and/or one party's personal integrity, which could enable the other party to trust their *guanxi*'s on-going exchange process.

In addition, it showed that high levels of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the development of subordinates' loyalty since *guanxi* required the reciprocation of the other party's perceived supervisors' support and mutuality of interpersonal trust and loyalty and/or one party's personal integrity could enable the other party to be committed to their *guanxi*'s on-going exchange process.

### **Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980)**

Contextualising this study's findings from my qualitative data within theory of reasoned action, from subordinates' perspective, it showed that high level of interpersonal *guanxi* would facilitate the development of subordinates' trust and loyalty since trust and loyalty are elements in *guanxi* building and maintaining process according to Chinese norms and/or beliefs

### 6.1.3 Positive and Negative Aspects of Supervisor-Subordinate *Guanxi*

In exploring the nature of superior-subordinate *guanxi*, this research presented two positive aspects of it: an exchange framework and an attributes framework. The former has been widely covered by previous research (Law et al., 2000; Chen et al., 2006 and 2007; Wong et al., 2003), however, it seems that this is the first report to the best of our knowledge in revealing that supervisors and /or subordinates' attributes can facilitate *guanxi* building.

In addition, this research reported negative aspects of *guanxi* in supervisor-subordinate relations. Perceived unfairness included procedural injustice, distributive injustice and interactional injustice. Perceived unfairness has been examined previously (Chen et al., 2004), however, this research also highlighted the possibility of placing the supervisor-targeted *guanxi* building within the impression management literature. The following were identified: ingratiation, exemplification and false pretence for authority. In addition, a variant of impression management - false pretence for authority has been added to that list. All of the negative aspects of *guanxi* may harm organisational effectiveness.

### 6.1.4 The Relationship between Trust in Supervisor and Loyalty to Supervisor

The findings of this study showed that trust in supervisor acts as the antecedent to three dimensions of loyalty to supervisor, i.e., dedication to supervisor and making effort on behalf of supervisor. However, the quantitative findings also demonstrated that loyalty to supervisor, i.e., making effort on behalf of supervisor and deication to supervisor act as precursors to trust in supervisor. It suggested a natural reinforcing enactment between trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor. The qualitative findings of this study illustrated that from subordinates' perspective, warm-heartedness was most important in trust development, whereas perceived supervisor support was most important in loyalty development. It suggested that subordinates perceive being nice to them as the key to developing trust and thereafter loyalty in their supervisor. From supervisors' perspective, they considered perceived supervisor support as the most important factor for both subordinates' trust and loyalty development.

## 6.2 Contributions of the Study

This study made the following contributions to knowledge:

One, this study helps in mapping the important construct of OCB in the PRC. First, by contextualizing the cultural meaning of OCB in mainland China, I used the indigenous terms of “Lei Feng Behavior in the workplace”. Second, this study confirmed previous findings that Chinese managers value subordinates who perform even one type of OCB exceptionally (Law et al., 2004). Third, this study adds to the understanding of the construction of OCB by demonstrating that in China, it should be treated not as one singular construct (Law et al., 2004) but an aggregate construct because different forms of OCB have different antecedents. Fourth, this study delineated the effects of superior-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor (dedication and effort respectively) on various forms of OCB, thereby, demonstrating and proposing precise links among specific variables (see section 6.1.1 summary of findings).

Two, this study helps in positioning OCB within the supervisor-subordinate theoretical landscape. It provides new theoretical groundings to the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and OCB by demonstrating the utility of **norm of reciprocity**, **social identity** and **social cognitive theory** in interpreting such linkage, thereby, proposing a theoretical grounding also to previously reported findings (Wong et al., 2003).

In addition to the application of **social exchange theory**, which has been applied before (Wong et al., 2002), this study details new theoretical explanations, i.e., **social identity theory** and **theory of reasoned action** in how supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* may lead to supervisory trust. This study adds a new component to built-up supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* by reference to loyalty as a consequence to the relationship embedded these in **social exchange theory**, **social identity theory** and **theory of reasoned action**. Although **psychological contract** and **covenantal relationship theory** have been employed before to interpret the relationship between supervisory trust and loyalty and subordinates OCB (Chen et al., 1998), this research also employed **cognitive dissonance theory** as a possible context. **Social exchange** and **transaction cost economy** offer a new contribution to the theoretical foundations on the mediating effect of supervisory trust and loyalty between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and OCB.

Three, this research is the first study to test *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate as the antecedent to loyalty to supervisor in China and it contributes to the call for exploring the mediating factors between OCB and its antecedents in the extant literature (Organ et al., 2005) through the empirical test of supervisory loyalty. Since the loyalty to supervisor scale has been historically validated in North America (Jiang et al., 2005), it would be reasonable to argue that supervisory loyalty can serve as the mediator between OCB and its antecedents in a Western

context as well.

Four, in line with the Western findings on OCB (Organ et al., 2005), this study fills in the research gap on the extant literature of trust in supervisor between the West and China through identifying trust in supervisor as a universal mediator between OCB and its antecedents. Furthermore, it also confirms Wong et al.'s (2002) study that trust in supervisor may act as the antecedent to loyalty to supervisor.

Finally, the findings from this study contribute to understanding the complex pattern of superior-subordinate *guanxi*. First, its positive aspects include perceived supervisor support, perceived supervisor care, perceived supervisor protection, outside work relationship, supervisor or subordinate positive attributes. Its negative aspects comprise of impression management (ingratiation, exemplification and false pretence for authority) and organisational injustice (perceived procedural injustice, perceived distributive injustice, and perceived interactional injustice). Second, this study is the first to link the literature on supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* and the literature on impression management. The findings of a false pretence for authority would be seen as a new dimension in the impression management literature, which properties should be further explored.

### 6.3 Limitations of the Study

The present study has some limitations that restrict its implications.

A major methodological limitation of this survey is subject fatigue. The supervisors' questionnaire which consists of 47 items of 11 dimensions of OCB and four qualitative research questions required on average, each supervisor from two joint ventures and the Real Estate company complete at least five subordinates' questionnaires. Supervisors from the state-owned firms and from one private-owned firm were required to complete 10-12 subordinates' questionnaires (a heavy request). Hence, I tried to tackle this potential difficulty by appealing to supervisors' sense of duty and by giving an introductory lecture and collecting the questionnaires by myself, subject fatigue cannot be ruled out in that supervisors may have become bored with the repeated rating of subordinates' OCB performance, affecting their reliability.

The sample though selected to be representative of different types of ownership and economic sectors cannot be fully generalised. Considering a population of 1.3 billion, any research in mainland China context will have a limitation in generalising.



Since I asked for examples of *guanxi* exchange in general (to overcome possible reluctance to share information) more than 40% of respondents provided illustration by proxy in reference to others in the organization rather than themselves. The dyadic comparison of *guanxi* between supervisors and subordinates was thereby impossible since the data do not reflect the precise supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* in referred superior-subordinate dyad. This calls for further research.

Finally, it may be reasonable to question the validity of using the Western trust in their supervisor scale in this thesis to measure supervisory trust from subordinates in China. As a non-indigenous scale, it may not be able to capture the full meaning of trust in supervisor in China, and some of its items may be invalid for measuring trust in supervisor for Chinese subordinates. However, to date, there is no Chinese indigenous trust in supervisor scale available, I followed in the footsteps of established researchers: Wong et al. (2002; 2003; 2006), Farh et al. (1998) and Wat et al. (2003) who have all used this scale in China, Taiwan and Hong Kong. Nevertheless, the potential bias still exists.

## 6.4 Practical Implications

Knowing how supervisor and subordinate interpersonal *guanxi* affects trust in supervisor, loyalty to supervisor and subordinates' OCB allows the management of organizations to take appropriate actions to improve OCB, trust and loyalty of their subordinates. The main implication of this study should be direct and clear. That is: organizations operating in China should try their best to build up positive long-term relationship with their subordinates through their supervisors.

### Supervisors' Training

With a positive closeness of supervisor and subordinate interaction in the workplace, organizations with different types of ownership can foster OCB and positive individual attitudes (trust and loyalty) among their workers. Thus, supervisors need training to learn how to treat their subordinates fairly and politely, and to improve their supervisory and interpersonal skills. Since Chinese subordinates may establish their commitment to their supervisors and trust in their supervisor before developing commitment and trust to the whole organization (Wong et al., 2003; Wong and Kung, 1999), supervisors may play a salient role in cultivating subordinates' organizational commitment and trust in their organization.



This study and previous research (Wong et al., 2002; 2003) showed that supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* could enhance supervisory trust and loyalty, thereby maximising subordinates' OCB directly and indirectly. This research recommends that organizations operating in China provide better training to supervisors about the organizational culture and the importance in treating their subordinates fairly to cultivate subordinates' high level of interpersonal *guanxi*, trust and loyalty and OCB. This should be targeted at all levels of supervisor-subordinate relationships so that subordinates at all levels will develop their loyalty, trust towards their supervisors and thereafter, their organization, which in turn maximise their efforts to engage in OCB.

### **Communicating Warm-Heartedness**

In Chinese society, *guanxi* helps to bind people together. Individuals are supposed to be warm-hearted and help those with whom they establish *guanxi* (Hui and Graen, 1997). Warm-heartedness “involves the direct expression of personal support and openness to another. It is thought to communicate that the other person is accepted and their relationship is valued” (Chen, 2006, p.1) and “emphasizes more on the feelings of others, as well as verbal and nonverbal communication that the other person is accepted and their relationship is valued” (Chen, 2006, p.27). Supervisor's warm-heartedness would appear to communicate directly as a positive regard that is experienced by subordinates as rewarding and affirming and concretely reaffirms the relationship. Subordinates may feel accepted by their supervisors and know that they “have a strong, open relationship [with their supervisors], characterized by cooperative, compatible goals” (Chen, 2006, p.27), promoting their collective goals. It would be valuable for managers to learn from this research and communicate their genuine warm-heartedness to their subordinate to foster subordinates' development of high level of interpersonal *guanxi*, trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor, thereby motivating their display of OCB.

### **Supervision**

Supervisory practices should promote moral development, encourage learning, and demonstrate interest and responsiveness to individual subordinate's needs. This research shows the relationship-based perspective and the attribute-based perspective in developing high level of supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*, which can be applied in Chinese organisations. The relationship perspective denotes a high-quality relationship on the basis of trust, goodwill, and the perception of mutual obligations, and issues of care and consideration in the relationship. Consequently, subordinates' willingness to reciprocate care and consideration that a leader expresses in a relationship is more likely to be through OCB. Since the superiors are power holders in a hierarchical relationship, the attribute-based perspective implies that subordinates make

inferences about the leader's characteristics such as integrity, dependability, fairness, benevolence, and ability. These inferences have consequences for work behaviour and attitudes and subordinates' future interpersonal networks.

### **Fair Human Resource Practices**

Due to the lack of restrictions imposed by a well-established employment legal systems, it is generally believed that one characteristic of *guanxi* is in-group favouritism, which undermines the organizational justice.

The best way to overcome organizational unfairness is to develop and enforce an appropriate corporate governance mechanism. For example, "to perfect China's listed companies' governance mechanism and promote the long-term healthy development of the capital market, the Shanghai Stock Exchange (SSE) has officially introduced the 'SSE Corporate Governance Sector'" on voluntary application (Shanghai Stock Exchange, 2007). Its category three - the directors and senior management regulations are expected to eliminate unfair management practices. Fair treatment thus could be a strong indicator to show the organization's objective preference when valuing subordinates' contribution from the employees' subjective perception.

Furthermore, organizations with different types of ownership may benefit by incorporating more human management practices that emphasize more transparent, open and fair procedures for communicating with subordinates and for allocation of material rewards. It may be worthwhile for organizations operating in China to invest more in education programs and in creating communication channels to prevent subordinates' misconduct rather than harsh disciplinary actions.

Moreover, all supervisors should provide a realistic expectation to their subordinates concerning how they will view and act upon their *guanxi*. For example, they may welcome a close supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* but make it clear that they will make administrative decisions according to formal working relationships and performance rather than *guanxi* (Law et al., 2001). Supervisors and senior managers must be shown to behave in an unbiased manner based on facts and rules, and not on personal opinions or preferences.

### **Perceived Supervisor Support**

Perceived supervisor support is of importance in China. The organization is regarded as an impersonal and abstract entity; Chinese culture of personalism fosters a strong tie between the

supervisor and his or her subordinates (Hui, Lee, and Rousseau, 2004b). In addition to personal linkage, the supervisor also behaves as the agent of the organization in the exchange relationship from the position role perspective. Whenever subordinates receive support from the supervisor and interact with their supervisors, they would be likely to formulate a sense of belief regarding the extent to which the supervisor cares about their well-being and then transfer this affect to the organization as well. As a result, high levels of superior-subordinate *guanxi*, supervisory trust and loyalty can help develop high levels of commitment and trust in their supervisors and thereafter their organization, motivating subordinates' OCB. This research shows perceived supervisor support or help is an important form of *guanxi*. Subordinates would justify if this interpersonal relationship is worthy and legitimate to reciprocate behaviours and attitudes in organization settings. Such good support also develops subordinates' obligation to show positive attitude and behaviour at work.

## 6.5 Future Research Directions

This research has examined the relationships among superior-subordinate *guanxi*, supervisory trust, supervisory loyalty and subordinates' OCB. Several directions for future research are suggested as follows:

- 1) The relationship among superior-subordinate *guanxi* and its antecedents, consequences and correlates need to be examined. So far, reduced level of turnover, supervisory loyalty, supervisory trust and subordinates OCB are the consequences of *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinates (Wong et al, 2002 and 2003). Its antecedents and other consequences should be further examined.
- 2). The Chinese OCB scale, supervisory loyalty scale and *guanxi* scale are necessary to be tested in other cultures. Future research can assess the emic or etic meaning of those concepts in other cultures.
- 3). An indigenous trust in supervisor scale needs to be developed. Although the supervisory trust scale in this research had been used by some researchers to measure trust in supervisor in Chinese settings, this scale may not capture well the full implications of supervisory trust for Chinese subordinates.
- 4). Since this study seems to support the contention that Chinese subordinates build up

relationship, trust and loyalty with people before they develop those with their organization, future research needs to examine different types of foci of commitment, trust and relationships. For example, what is the relationship between supervisory loyalty and organizational commitment? What is the relationship between trust in supervisor and trust in organisation?

- 5). Future research in both China and the West can use loyalty to supervisor or supervisory commitment as a mediating factor to test other antecedents of OCB and OCB itself.
- 6). The colloquial meaning of OCB in China needs to be examined further. Although this research attempted to address this in the pilot phase, future research may employ a larger sample survey to formulate a consensus definition of OCB.
- 7). This research found that *guanxi* was to some extent related to the concept of perceived supervisor support or supervisors' helping behaviour directed towards subordinates (helping behaviour is an important aspect of OCB). Future research may examine how leaders' OCB impacts on subordinates' OCB and how the Chinese indigenous perceived supervisor support meaning is and its effect on subordinates OCB is.
- 8). It may be necessary for Western scholars to employ an inductive method to re-formulate all forms of OCB. Although OCB was introduced in the West and has been extensively studied in the past three decades, this thesis's literature review indicated the developing nature of OCB construct. New forms such as coexistence in adversity in the OCB literature in China seem to be conceptually overlapping with organizational loyalty (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Another dimension such as protecting the company's interests is in my opinion similar to protecting the organization (Organ et al., 2005) as formed in the OCB literature. Without full exploration, it is difficult to define OCB as one-dimensional or multidimensional (Law et al., 2004). Moreover, in terms of antecedents and consequences of OCB, it is far from the conclusion given the current research gaps between the West and China. The number of OCB studies is still small in China (appropriate 32 articles compared with more than 600 studies in the West). Due to the fusion between personal domain and organisational life, Chinese salient cultural characteristic of *guanxi* is more likely to be the extended antecedent of OCB in China (Table 20). However, it is surprising that current OCB studies in the West have not explored the relationship between trust in organisation and OCB (Podsakoff et al. 2000;

Organ et al., 2005). Hence, at present, no conclusion about cultural impact on OCB, its dimensions, antecedents and consequences can be drawn, and so further research is needed.

- 9). This research discovered that some subordinates might use impression management to develop their *guanxi* with their supervisors. Some strategies applied include ingratiation, exemplification and false pretence for authority. Future research may examine what the indigenous Chinese forms of impression management are and what their relationships with other variables such as superior-subordinates *guanxi* are.
- 10). In reporting perceived unfairness in relation to supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*, most of respondents (44 out of 73) did not specify their reasons for OCB disengagement, thereby there is a large 'silent' majority that we do not know their motivation. This calls for further research.
- 11). Future research may apply a qualitative method to explore the relationship between trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor. This study not only reported that trust in supervisor acts as the antecedent to three dimensions of loyalty to supervisor, e.g., dedication to supervisor and making effort on behalf of supervisor; but also loyalty to supervisor, i.e., making effort on behalf of supervisor and dedication to supervisor act as precursors to trust in supervisor. Hence, a qualitative in-depth approach may help in discerning the process of individual trust and loyalty building and their interactive relationship.

## 6.6 Final Summary

In the People's Republic of China, I examined the relationships among supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*, trust in supervisor, loyalty to supervisor and subordinates' organisational citizenship behaviour. This study employed a questionnaire survey as a data collection method based on a convenience sampling technique involving 303 employees and their immediate supervisors from six companies with different types of ownership (state-owned firms, private-owned firms and joint ventures) and representing different industrial sectors (finance, media, finance, service, construction and high-tech). The findings of this study showed there was direct relationship of superior-subordinate *guanxi* on trust in supervisor, loyalty to supervisor and subordinates' organisational citizenship behaviour; it also demonstrated the mediating effect of trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates'

organisational citizenship behaviour. The findings were discussed in the theoretical context of – the norm of reciprocity, social identity theory and social cognitive theory and their effect on the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and subordinates' organisational citizenship behaviour. Social exchange theory, social identity theory and the theory of reasoned action as the theoretical foundations on the relationship between superior-subordinate *guanxi* and trust in supervisor and loyalty to supervisor were also explored. Furthermore, semiotic cluster analysis showed that the pattern of superior-subordinate *guanxi* was composed of positive aspects including perceived supervisor support, perceived supervisor care, perceived supervisor protection, outside work relationship, supervisor or subordinate positive attributes and negative aspects, including impression management and organisational injustice.

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## Appendix 1: Subordinates' Questionnaire

Dear Sir or Madam,

The purpose of this study is to complete my PhD research about work and life in the organization at London Metropolitan University (UK). I assigned an Identification Number (ID) to you (see the left top of the questionnaire), which aims to guarantee anonymity and process data for the computer analyses. Please follow the instruction sheet and answer the questions carefully. After you complete questionnaire, I will collect them by myself. There is not any “right” or “wrong” in the answers to the questions. Anybody in your company including your supervisor and colleagues has no access to the data because we use the ID instead of your name and I have the data but do not have your name list. All the data collected will be kept confidentially. I promise after building the research data profile, all questionnaires will be eliminated. Your generous help merits my deepest gratitude.

Thank you for your attention at the moment.

Yours faithfully

Yong Han

**Please answer the following questions or tick on the appropriate answer that applies to you.**

1. Gender

A. Male            B. Female.

2.Age:        years

3. Education

A. High school. B. Diploma. C. Bachelor’s degree. D. Above Bachelor’s degree

4. Job Position

A. Non-managerial    B. Managerial

5. Working period:            months

6. Company ownership

A. Stated-owned. B. Private-owned. C. Joint venture.

The following statements are your attitudes about your immediate supervisor. There is not any “right” or “wrong” in the answers to the questions. Please give your true and fair view of the most appropriate answers and tick a ☐.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

**Loyalty to Supervisor Scale:** (In the English version of questionnaire, each dimension of scale and its name are presented, however, in the Chinese version of questionnaire; I did not provide those information.)

(1) Dedication (dedicating to supervisor)

- When somebody speaks ill of my supervisor, I will defend him/her immediately.
- I will put myself in their supervisor’s position to consider his/her interests.
- I would support my supervisor in almost any emergency.
- When my supervisor is treated unfairly, I will defend him/her.

(2) Effort (exerting effort on behalf of supervisor)

- Even if my supervisor is not on the spot, I will try my best to do the job assigned by him/her well.
- I will try my best to accomplish the job assigned by my supervisor.
- I will do my job conscientiously so that my supervisor will not worry about it.

(3) Following supervisor

- No matter whether it will benefit me or not, I will be willing to continue working under my supervisor.

- If it is possible, I would like to work under my supervisor for a long time.
- Even if there may be better alternatives, I will still remain to work under my supervisor.
- I would feel satisfied as long as I can work under my supervisor.

(4) Identification with supervisor

- When someone praises my supervisor, I feel like a personal compliment.
- When someone criticizes my supervisor, I feel like a personal insult.
- Their supervisor's successes are their successes.

(5) Internalization (congruence with supervisor's values)

- Their attachment to my supervisor is primarily based on the similarity of my values and those represented by my supervisor.
- Since starting this job, my personal values and those of my supervisor have become more similar.
- The reason I prefer my supervisor to another is because of what he/she stands for, that is, his/her values.

### **Scale of Trust in Supervisor**

1. I have complete faith in the integrity of my supervisor
2. My supervisors would not try to gain an advantage by deceiving employees
3. I feel a strong loyalty to my supervisor.

### **Scale of Subordinate-Supervisor *Guanxi***

1. I have frequent interactions with my immediate supervisor after work.
2. I have a high degree of mutual interest with my immediate supervisor after work.
3. I have a high degree of mutual benefit with my immediate supervisor after work.
4. I am quite willing to help my immediate supervisor after work (e.g., finding, moving, or decorating a house).
5. My immediate supervisor is quite willing to help me after work (e.g., finding, moving, or decorating a house).
6. I am willing to use my personal network to help my immediate supervisor.
7. My immediate supervisor and I often visit each other after work.
8. My immediate supervisor and I often have dinner together after work.

Open-ended Questions

Please read the following questions and answer them carefully.

According to your past experience and knowledge, would you:

A. please give example(s) of *guanxi* between subordinate and one’s immediate superior (like yourself and your supervisor)?

.....

.....

.....

B. in this example, does *guanxi* show the **trust** between subordinate and one’s immediate superior? Yes/Maybe/No [please explain]

.....

.....

.....

C. in this example, does *guanxi* show the **loyalty** between subordinate and one’s immediate superior ? Yes/Maybe/No [please explain]

.....

.....

.....

D. does *guanxi* show the subordinate’s display of behaviour like **Lei Feng** in your organization? Yes/Maybe/No [please explain]

.....

.....

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**Thank you for completing the questionnaire.**





亲爱的女士们和先生们：

本研究的目的是用来完成我在伦敦城市大学的博士研究论文关于工作和生活的调查。我在您的调查问卷左上角分配有识别编号，便于我保证匿名填写的方式和应用电脑进行数据分析。请根据说明填写问卷并认真回答问题。当您回答完问题之后，我将亲自收取问卷。在所有的的问题之中，没有对与错的分别。贵公司的任何人包括你的主管和同事都不会看到您所填的答案，因为我使用编号而不是您的名字，而我虽然有您的答案但没有您的姓名表。我并保证建立起数据库之后，我将清除所有的问卷。我非常感谢您的无私的帮助。

非常感谢您的参与。

致！

韩勇

请回答下列问题或在与您相关的问题上划○

1、性 别：A 男

B 女

2. 年龄\_\_\_\_年

3、教育程度：A 高中或中技 B 大专 C 本科 D 本科以上

4、您现在的职务是：A.管理人员 B.非管理人员

5、您在现在单位工作多长时间了：\_\_\_\_月

6、所在单位的行业：A.国有 B.私营 C.合资

# 工行为调查问卷

用下面各项的描述题目对您的**直接上级**进行评价和判断，所有问题的回答都只是您的一种主观判

断，没有“对”或“错”之分，请您根据自己的实际感受和体会填写并在最符合的答案上划○

1	2	3	4	5
非常反对	反对	既不同意也不反 对	同意	非常同意

1	当有人说我的上司的坏话时，我会挺身而出为之辩护。	1	2	3	4	5
2	我常常设身处地为上司着想。	1	2	3	4	5
3	在任何紧急的情况下，我都会支持我的上司。	1	2	3	4	5
4	当上司受到不公平对待时，我会为他/她抱不平。	1	2	3	4	5
5	即使上司不在场，我也会努力做好他所安排的工作	1	2	3	4	5
6	我的上司交代我做的工作，我会尽力完成。	1	2	3	4	5
7	我会认真做好本职工作，不使上司担心。	1	2	3	4	5
8	不管对我有没有好处，我愿意留在现在的上司手下工作。	1	2	3	4	5
9	如果有可能的话,我愿意在我上司手下长期工作。	1	2	3	4	5
10	即使有更好的机会，我也不愿意离开我现在的上司。	1	2	3	4	5
11	能继续跟我的上司一起工作，我感到很满足.	1	2	3	4	5
12	当有人称赞我的上司时，我觉得是在称赞我一样。	1	2	3	4	5
13	当有人批评我的上司时，我感到这是对我个人的侮辱	1	2	3	4	5
14	我的上司的成功也是我的成功。	1	2	3	4	5
15	我之所以依附我的上司，主要是由于我们的价值观相同.	1	2	3	4	5

16	自从到这里工作后，我与我的上司的价值观变得更相似。	1	2	3	4	5
17	我喜欢我的上司的原因是因为同意他的主张。	1	2	3	4	5
18	我完全的信任我的直接领导的正直诚实。	1	2	3	4	5
19	我的直接领导不会通过欺瞒员工以获利。	1	2	3	4	5
20	我感到我对我的直接领导很忠心。	1	2	3	4	5
21	在工作之外，我与我的直接领导有很密切的接触。	1	2	3	4	5
22	在工作之外，我与我的直接领导有很多的共同兴趣。	1	2	3	4	5
23	在工作之外，我与我的直接领导有很多的共同利益关系。	1	2	3	4	5
24	在工作之外，我很乐意给我的直接领导提供帮助（例如，找房子，搬家或者装修等）。	1	2	3	4	5
25	在工作之外，我的直接领导非常乐意给我提供帮助（例如，找房子，搬家或者装修等）。	1	2	3	4	5
26	我非常愿意用我的个人关系帮助我的直接主管。	1	2	3	4	5
27	在工余时候，我常与我的直接领导互访。	1	2	3	4	5
28	在工余时候，我常与我的直接领导吃饭。	1	2	3	4	5

请阅读如下问题并认真回答

根据您以往的经验和认识，

1. 请举例说明（数量不限）上级和直属下级间的关系（像您和您的主管一样）。

2. 请问在此例中，是否显示了下属和上级之间的信任。是/或许/不是。[请解释]

3. 请问在此例中，是否显示了下属和上级之间的忠诚。是/或许/不是。[请解释]

4. 请问在工作中，关系是否会显示下属雷锋式的行为。是/或许/不是。[请解释]

非常感谢您的参与

## Appendix 2: Supervisors' Questionnaire

Dear Sir or Madam,

The purpose of this study is to complete my PhD research about work and life in the organization at London Metropolitan University (UK). I assigned an Identification Number (ID) to your subordinates (see the left top of the questionnaire), which aims to guarantee anonymity and process data for the computer analyses. Would you please eliminate your subordinates' names on the questionnaire and only leave the subordinates' ID after filling in the questionnaire? Please follow the instruction sheet and answer the questions carefully. After you complete the questionnaire, I will collect them by myself. There is not any "right" or "wrong" in the answers to the questions. Anybody in your company including your subordinates and colleagues has no access to the data because we use the ID instead of your subordinate's name and I have the data but do not have your subordinate's name list. All the data collected will be kept confidentially. I promise after building the research data profile, all questionnaires will be eliminated. Your generous help merits my deepest gratitude.

Thank you for your attention at the moment.

Yours faithfully

Yong Han

The following statements are your attitudes about your immediate subordinates. There is not any “right or wrong” in the answers to the questions. Please give your true and fair view of the most appropriate answers and tick a ○.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. Helping Behaviour

Assisting new comers with personal matter and providing job-related coaching

能为新来的员工提供生活上的帮助或业务指导

Initiating to help coworkers suffering from emergent illness and sudden disaster

当同事出现急病、面对意外灾害时，能主动伸出援助之手

Willing to spend time helping coworkers solve work-related problems

乐意花时间帮助同事解决工作上的问题

Willing to cover work assignment for coworker taking sick or personal leave.

愿意替代因病或因私请假的同事工作

2. Taking Initiative

Initiating to work overtime without complaints.

自觉地加班加点，毫无怨言.

Initiating to work without clearly defined by one’s job responsibility.

积极主动地去做那些职责没有界定清楚的工作

Initiating work to facilitate task completion.

为了促进工作任务的完成，会主动做一些的事情

Initiating to take on extra workload without caring for reward.



主动增加工作量，而不计较报酬

**3. Self-development**

Improving one' technical competence by often reading books

常寻找一些书籍来学习，以提高自身技术素质

Conduct self-training to acquiring professional knowledge in spare time

利用业余时间学习专业知识

Actively attend various training programs

积极参加各类培训学习活动

Paying attention to doing physical exercise in order to perform job better

注意锻炼身体，以便能更好地工作

**4. Interpersonal Harmony**

Harmonising relationship among co-workers in order to create a comfort and harmonious working environment.

协调与周围同事的关系，营造宽松和谐的工作环境

Maintaining the utility among coworkers and between superior and subordinates

维护上下级、同事之间的团结

Initiating to solve the job-related conflicts among coworkers.

当同事之间出现工作方面的矛盾时，能主动协调

Harmonising relationship among staff among the organization.

协调本单位内部员工之间的关系

**5. Keeping Departmental Harmony**

Contributing to making plans for improving departmental communication and cooperation

为改进本部门与相关部门的沟通与合作出谋划策

Assisting one's own department to build up good and harmonious relationship with other departments

协助本部门和其他部门之间建立融洽良好的关系

Solving departmental conflicts and maintaining departmental harmony.

协助解决部门之间的冲突，维护与相关部门的和谐

Informing other departments of information facilitating their development

告诉其他部门一些有利于其发展的信息

Initiating to complete some departmental irrelevant work but good for other departments

主动完成一些对相关部门有利但并不属于本部门范围内的工作

## **6.Voice**

Raising reasonable suggestions that could contribute to the organizational development

为了单位的发展，能主动提出合理化建议

Bringing forward suggestions frankly to leaders in order to improve job

坦诚地向领导提出建议，以便改进工作

Bringing forward plan and suggestions that would improve company regulations and policy

提出对企业的规章制度的改进方案和建议

Criticising or raising suggestions against ill-mannered behaviour

对不良行为提出批评或反对的意见

## **7. Group Activity Participation**

Organizing and participating internal communication meeting organized by employees.

组织或参加员工自发的内部交流会议

Actively participate in entertainment activities organized by the organization.

积极参与单位组织的文娱活动

Contributing to the plans in organizing various organizational activities.

为公司举办的各种活动出谋划策

Voluntarily organizing or attending various commonweal organized by the company

义务组织或参加公司的各种公益活动

## **8.Protecting Company Interests**

Keeping the workplace clean

自觉维护办公室的清洁卫生

Protecting and saving company resources (e.g. company electricity and water, double-side printing, etc.)

节约公司资源，如用水用电、打印纸双面使用等

Actively organizing and participating in the work protecting the company in times of bad weather

遇到恶劣天气时，能自发组织或参与保护企业的工作

Initiating to fight against bad behavior to protect company interests

敢于与不良行为做斗争，维护企业利益

## **9. Promoting Company Image**

Willing to correct behaviour that damages the organizational image

主动纠正他人有损企业形象的行为

Using personal *guanxi* including relatives and friends, etc., to promote company products or services

在亲人、朋友等自身关系网中推广企业产品

Promoting strengths of the organization more than complaining to outsider

对外多说企业的一些优势，少发牢骚

Voluntarily propagandizing for the organization in public

在公共场所为企业做义务宣传

**10.Social Welfare Participation**

Voluntarily participating in commonweal such as disaster donation and helping the deprived education children

志愿从事社会公益事情，如捐助灾区，帮助失学儿童

Voluntarily participating in voluntary labour

自觉参加义务劳动

Voluntarily working for community where the organization resides

帮助单位所在的社区做一些工作

Willing to maintain public environmental cleanness when going on a long journey

出行时自觉维护公共环境卫生

**11. Coexistence in Adversity**

Contributing to ideas that would help overcome organizational difficulties when confronting various organizational difficulties

企业出现各种困难时，能主动出主意，帮助企业度过难关

Standing out when confronting various organizational trouble

在企业遇到危难时，能挺身而出

Sacrificing self-interests in order to maintain the organizational interests

为了维护大局利益，可以牺牲个人利益

Making no differences in one performance even if receiving unfair treatment

在待遇不公正的情况下，先做了再说

Having no effect on one' work when misunderstanding and conflicts exists

工作中出现误解和怨气时，也不影响正常的工作

Willing to serve as intermediary for building relationship between one's own organization and other organizations

主动帮助企业与外企业搭桥，建立关系

## Open-ended Questions

Please read the following questions and answer them carefully.

According to your past experience and knowledge, would you:

A. please give example(s) of *guanxi* between superior and one's immediate subordinate (like yourself and your subordinate).

B.in this example, does *guanxi* show the **trust** between subordinate and one's immediate superior? Yes/Maybe/No [please explain]

C. in this example, does *guanxi* show the **loyalty** between subordinate and one's immediate superior ? Yes/Maybe/No [please explain]

D. does *guanxi* show the subordinate's display of behaviour like **Lei Feng** in your organization? Yes/Maybe/No [please explain]

---

**Thank you for completing the questionnaire.**



亲爱的女士们和先生们：

本研究的目的是用来完成我在伦敦城市大学的博士研究论文关于工作和生活的调查。我对您的下属分配有识别编号（请看问卷左上角），便于我保证匿名填写的方式和应用电脑进行数据分析。在您回答完问题之后，请您去掉您的下属的姓名仅仅留下编号。请根据说明填写问卷并认真回答问题。当您回答完问题之后，我将亲自收取问卷。在所有的的问题之中，没有对与错的分别。 贵公司的任何人包括您的下属和同事都不会看到您所填的答案， 因为我使用编号而不是您的下属的名字，而我虽然有您的答案但没有您的下属姓名表。我将保证所有调查问卷的机密性。我并保证建立起数据库之后，我将清除所有的问卷。我非常感谢您的无私的帮助。

非常感谢您的参与。

致！

韩勇



# 工行为调查问卷

用下面各项的描述题目对您的**直接下级**进行评价和判断，所有问题的回答都只是您的一种主观判断，没有“对”或“错”之分，请您根据自己的实际感受和体会填写并在最符合的答案上划○

1	2	3	4	5
非常反对	反对	既不同意也不反对	同意	非常同意

1	能为新来的员工提供生活上的帮助或业务指导	1	2	3	4	5
2	当同事出现急病、面对意外灾害时，能主动伸出援助之手	1	2	3	4	5
3	乐意花时间帮助同事解决工作上的问题	1	2	3	4	5
4	愿意替代因病或因私请假的同事工作	1	2	3	4	5
5	自觉地加班加点，毫无怨言	1	2	3	4	5
6	积极主动地去做那些职责没有界定清楚的工作	1	2	3	4	5
7	为了促进工作任务的完成，会主动做一些的事情	1	2	3	4	5
8	主动增加工作量，而不计较报酬	1	2	3	4	5
9	常寻找一些书籍来学习，以提高自身技术素质	1	2	3	4	5
10	利用业余时间学习专业知识	1	2	3	4	5
11	积极参加各类培训学习活动	1	2	3	4	5
12	注意锻炼身体，以便能更好地工作	1	2	3	4	5
13	协调与周围同事的关系，营造宽松和谐的工作环境	1	2	3	4	5
14	维护上下级、同事之间的团结	1	2	3	4	5
15	当同事之间出现工作方面的矛盾时，能主动协调	1	2	3	4	5
16	协调本单位内部员工之间的关系	1	2	3	4	5
17	为改进本部门与相关部门的沟通与合作出谋划策	1	2	3	4	5

18	协助本部门和其他部门之间建立融洽良好的关系	1	2	3	4	5
19	协助解决部门之间的冲突，维护与相关部门的和谐	1	2	3	4	5
20	告诉其他部门一些有利于其发展的信息	1	2	3	4	5
21	主动完成一些对相关部门有利但并不属于本部门范围内的工作	1	2	3	4	5
22	为了单位的发展，能主动提出合理化建议	1	2	3	4	5
23	坦诚地向领导提出建议，以便改进工作	1	2	3	4	5
24	提出对企业的规章制度的改进方案和建议	1	2	3	4	5
25	对不良行为提出批评或反对的意见	1	2	3	4	5
26	组织或参加员工自发的内部交流会议	1	2	3	4	5
27	积极参与单位组织的文娱活动	1	2	3	4	5
28	为公司举办的各种活动出谋划策	1	2	3	4	5
29	义务组织或参加公司的各种公益活动	1	2	3	4	5
30	自觉维护办公室的清洁卫生	1	2	3	4	5
31	节约公司资源，如用水用电、打印纸双面使用等	1	2	3	4	5
32	遇到恶劣天气时，能自发组织或参与保护企业的工作	1	2	3	4	5
33	敢于与不良行为做斗争，维护企业利益	1	2	3	4	5
34	主动纠正他人有损企业形象的行为	1	2	3	4	5
35	在亲人、朋友等自身关系网中推广企业产品	1	2	3	4	5
36	对外多说企业的一些优势，少发牢骚	1	2	3	4	5
37	在公共场所为企业做义务宣传	1	2	3	4	5
38	志愿从事社会公益事情，如捐助灾区，帮助失学儿童	1	2	3	4	5
39	自觉参加义务劳动	1	2	3	4	5
40	帮助单位所在的社区做一些工作	1	2	3	4	5
41	出行时自觉维护公共环境卫生	1	2	3	4	5
42	企业出现各种困难时，能主动出主意，帮助企业度过难关	1	2	3	4	5

43	在企业遇到危难时，能挺身而出	1	2	3	4	5
44	为了维护大局利益，可以牺牲个人利益	1	2	3	4	5
45	在待遇不公正的情况下，先做了再说	1	2	3	4	5
46	工作中出现误解和怨气时，也不影响正常的工作	1	2	3	4	5
47	主动帮助企业与外企业搭桥，建立关系	1	2	3	4	5

请阅读如下问题并认真回答

根据您以往的经验 and 认识，

1. 请举例说明（数量不限）上级和直属下级间的关系（像您和您的下属一样）。

2. 请问在此例中，是否显示了下属和上级之间的信任？是/或许/不是。[请解释]

3. 请问在此例中，是否显示了下属和上级之间的忠诚？是/或许/不是。[请解释]

4. 请问在工作中，关系是否会显示下属雷锋式的行为？是/或许/不是。[请解释]

非常感谢您的参与

### Appendix 3: Chinese Version of Indicative Definitions of OCB Types

#### Provided in the Pilot Survey 2

类别	典型描述
主动尽责	自觉加班加点
	主动增加工作量，而不计较报酬
	积极主动地去做那些没有界定清楚的工作
	为了促进工作任务的完成，会主动做一些的事情
自我充实	注意锻炼身体，以便能更好地工作
	自己购买关于提高自身技术方面的书籍
	积极参加各类培训学习活动
	利用业余时间学习专业知识
帮助他人	当同事中出现急病、遇到意外灾害时，能主动伸出援助之手
	为新来员工提供生活帮助或业务指导
	愿意替代因病或因私请假的同事工作
	乐意花时间帮助同事解决工作上的问题
人际协调	协调与周边同事的关系，营造宽松和谐的工作环境
	维护上下级、同事间的团结
	协调本单位内部员工之间的关系
	主动协调同事之间的工作矛盾
患难与共	企业出现各种困难时，能主动出主意，帮助企业度过难关
	为了维护大局利益，可以牺牲个人利益
	在待遇不公正的情况下，先做了再说
	工作中出现误解和怨气时，也不影响正常的工作
	主动帮助企业与外企业搭桥，建立关系
	在企业遇到危难时，挺身而出
勇于进言	主动提出合理化建议
	提出对企业的规章制度的改进方案和建议
	对不良行为提出批评或反对的意见
	经常向领导提出有益的建议
维系各部门和谐	为改进本部门与相关部门的沟通与合作出谋划策
	协助本部门和其他部门之间建立融洽良好的关系
	告诉其他部门一些有利于其发展的信息
	协助解决部门之间的冲突，维护与相关部门的和谐
	主动完成一些对相关部门有利但并不属于本部门范围内的工作
组织参与	组织和参加企业员工自发的内部会议和交流

	积极参与单位组织的体育文娱活动
	义务组织或参加公司的各种公益活动
	为公司举办的各种活动出谋划策
保护企业利益	自觉维护办公室的清洁卫生
	遇到恶劣天气时，能自发组织或参与保护企业的工作
	敢于与不良行为做斗争，维护企业利益
	节约公司资源，如用水用电、打印纸双面使用等
维护企业形象	在亲人、朋友等自身关系网中推广企业产品
	对外多说企业的一些优势，少发牢骚
	无偿地在社会上维护企业形象，视自己为企业人而自豪
参与公益活动	志愿从事社会公益事情，如捐助灾区，帮助失学儿童
	帮助单位所在的社区做一些工作
	出行时自觉维护公共环境卫生
	自觉参加义务劳动

Appendix 4: ANOVA Analysis of the Relationships between Different Types of Ownership and Subordinates' OCB

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Helping	state-owned	68	2.72	1.077	.131	2.46	2.98	1	4
	joint venture	114	2.89	1.042	.098	2.70	3.09	1	5
	private-owned	121	3.21	1.082	.098	3.02	3.41	1	5
	Total	303	2.98	1.081	.062	2.86	3.11	1	5
Initiative	state-owned	68	3.40	1.547	.188	3.02	3.77	1	5
	joint venture	114	3.55	1.494	.140	3.28	3.83	1	5
	private-owned	121	3.55	1.110	.101	3.35	3.75	1	5
	Total	303	3.52	1.364	.078	3.36	3.67	1	5
Development	state-owned	68	3.43	1.188	.144	3.14	3.71	1	5
	joint venture	114	3.33	1.294	.121	3.09	3.57	1	5
	private-owned	121	3.25	1.240	.113	3.02	3.47	1	5
	Total	303	3.32	1.247	.072	3.18	3.46	1	5
Interpersonal	state-owned	68	2.79	1.001	.121	2.55	3.04	1	4
	joint venture	114	2.86	1.055	.099	2.66	3.06	1	5
	private-owned	121	3.21	1.058	.096	3.02	3.41	1	5
	Total	303	2.99	1.058	.061	2.87	3.11	1	5
Departmental	state-owned	68	3.40	.794	.096	3.20	3.59	2	5
	joint venture	114	3.45	.821	.077	3.30	3.60	1	5
	private-owned	121	3.55	1.103	.100	3.36	3.75	1	5
	Total	303	3.48	.938	.054	3.37	3.58	1	5
Voice	state-owned	68	3.35	.927	.112	3.13	3.58	1	4
	joint venture	114	3.32	.877	.082	3.16	3.49	1	4
	private-owned	121	3.50	1.104	.100	3.31	3.70	1	5
	Total	303	3.40	.985	.057	3.29	3.51	1	5
Group	state-owned	68	3.94	1.063	.129	3.68	4.20	1	5
	joint venture	114	3.95	1.204	.113	3.72	4.17	1	5
	private-owned	121	3.74	1.078	.098	3.54	3.93	1	5
	Total	303	3.86	1.125	.065	3.73	3.99	1	5
Interests	state-owned	68	3.53	1.014	.123	3.28	3.77	1	5
	joint venture	114	3.32	1.125	.105	3.12	3.53	1	5
	private-owned	121	3.28	1.082	.098	3.09	3.48	1	5
	Total	303	3.35	1.085	.062	3.23	3.48	1	5
Image	state-owned	68	3.09	1.156	.140	2.81	3.37	1	5
	joint venture	114	3.05	1.143	.107	2.84	3.26	1	5
	private-owned	121	3.42	1.146	.104	3.22	3.63	1	5
	Total	303	3.21	1.156	.066	3.08	3.34	1	5
Welfare	state-owned	68	3.68	.558	.068	3.54	3.81	2	4
	joint venture	114	2.26	.442	.041	2.18	2.35	2	3
	private-owned	121	2.21	.520	.047	2.12	2.31	1	4
	Total	303	2.56	.782	.045	2.47	2.65	1	4
coexistence	state-owned	68	3.00	1.327	.161	2.68	3.32	1	5
	joint venture	114	3.16	1.360	.127	2.91	3.41	1	5
	private-owned	121	3.43	1.182	.107	3.22	3.64	1	5
	Total	303	3.23	1.292	.074	3.09	3.38	1	5



## ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
helping	Between Groups	12.076	2	6.038	5.315	.005
	Within Groups	340.841	300	1.136		
	Total	352.917	302			
initiative	Between Groups	1.286	2	.643	.344	.709
	Within Groups	560.364	300	1.868		
	Total	561.650	302			
development	Between Groups	1.420	2	.710	.454	.635
	Within Groups	468.528	300	1.562		
	Total	469.947	302			
interpersonal	Between Groups	10.662	2	5.331	4.887	.008
	Within Groups	327.285	300	1.091		
	Total	337.947	302			
departmental	Between Groups	1.246	2	.623	.707	.494
	Within Groups	264.364	300	.881		
	Total	265.611	302			
voice	Between Groups	2.109	2	1.055	1.088	.338
	Within Groups	290.769	300	.969		
	Total	292.878	302			
group	Between Groups	3.192	2	1.596	1.263	.284
	Within Groups	378.986	300	1.263		
	Total	382.178	302			
interests	Between Groups	2.836	2	1.418	1.207	.300
	Within Groups	352.379	300	1.175		
	Total	355.215	302			
image	Between Groups	9.242	2	4.621	3.513	.031
	Within Groups	394.659	300	1.316		
	Total	403.901	302			
welfare	Between Groups	109.220	2	54.610	217.278	.000
	Within Groups	75.401	300	.251		
	Total	184.620	302			
coexistence	Between Groups	9.018	2	4.509	2.734	.067
	Within Groups	494.811	300	1.649		
	Total	503.828	302			

## Multiple Comparisons

Bonferroni

Dependent Variable	(I) ownership	(J) ownership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
helping	state-owned	joint venture	-.174	.163	.861	-.57	.22
		private-owned	-.494(*)	.162	.007	-.88	-.11
	joint venture	state-owned	.174	.163	.861	-.22	.57
		private-owned	-.320	.139	.066	-.66	.01
	Private-owned	state-owned	.494(*)	.162	.007	.11	.88
		joint venture	.320	.139	.066	-.01	.66
initiative	state-owned	joint venture	-.156	.209	1.000	-.66	.35
		private-owned	-.157	.207	1.000	-.66	.34
	joint venture	state-owned	.156	.209	1.000	-.35	.66
		private-owned	-.001	.178	1.000	-.43	.43
	Private-owned	state-owned	.157	.207	1.000	-.34	.66
		joint venture	.001	.178	1.000	-.43	.43
development	state-owned	joint venture	.093	.191	1.000	-.37	.55
		private-owned	.179	.189	1.000	-.28	.63
	joint venture	state-owned	-.093	.191	1.000	-.55	.37
		private-owned	.085	.163	1.000	-.31	.48
	Private-owned	state-owned	-.179	.189	1.000	-.63	.28
		joint venture	-.085	.163	1.000	-.48	.31
interpersonal	state-owned	joint venture	-.066	.160	1.000	-.45	.32
		private-owned	-.421(*)	.158	.025	-.80	-.04
	joint venture	state-owned	.066	.160	1.000	-.32	.45
		private-owned	-.355(*)	.136	.029	-.68	-.03
	Private-owned	state-owned	.421(*)	.158	.025	.04	.80
		joint venture	.355(*)	.136	.029	.03	.68
departmental	state-owned	joint venture	-.050	.144	1.000	-.40	.30
		private-owned	-.157	.142	.815	-.50	.19
	joint venture	state-owned	.050	.144	1.000	-.30	.40
		private-owned	-.106	.123	1.000	-.40	.19
	Private-owned	state-owned	.157	.142	.815	-.19	.50
		joint venture	.106	.123	1.000	-.19	.40
voice	state-owned	joint venture	.028	.151	1.000	-.33	.39
		private-owned	-.151	.149	.935	-.51	.21

group	joint venture	state-owned	-.028	.151	1.000	-.39	.33
		private-owned	-.180	.128	.490	-.49	.13
	Private-owned	state-owned	.151	.149	.935	-.21	.51
		joint venture	.180	.128	.490	-.13	.49
	state-owned	joint venture	-.006	.172	1.000	-.42	.41
		private-owned	.206	.170	.685	-.20	.62
	joint venture	state-owned	.006	.172	1.000	-.41	.42
		private-owned	.212	.147	.449	-.14	.57
	Private-owned	state-owned	-.206	.170	.685	-.62	.20
		joint venture	-.212	.147	.449	-.57	.14
	state-owned	joint venture	.205	.166	.655	-.19	.60
		private-owned	.248	.164	.394	-.15	.64
interests	joint venture	state-owned	-.205	.166	.655	-.60	.19
		private-owned	.044	.141	1.000	-.30	.38
	Private-owned	state-owned	-.248	.164	.394	-.64	.15
		joint venture	-.044	.141	1.000	-.38	.30
	state-owned	joint venture	.036	.176	1.000	-.39	.46
		private-owned	-.333	.174	.169	-.75	.09
	joint venture	state-owned	-.036	.176	1.000	-.46	.39
		private-owned	-.369(*)	.150	.043	-.73	-.01
	Private-owned	state-owned	.333	.174	.169	-.09	.75
		joint venture	.369(*)	.150	.043	.01	.73
	state-owned	joint venture	1.413(*)	.077	.000	1.23	1.60
		private-owned	1.462(*)	.076	.000	1.28	1.64
welfare	joint venture	state-owned	-1.413(*)	.077	.000	-1.60	-1.23
		private-owned	.048	.065	1.000	-.11	.21
	Private-owned	state-owned	-1.462(*)	.076	.000	-1.64	-1.28
		joint venture	-.048	.065	1.000	-.21	.11
	state-owned	joint venture	-.158	.197	1.000	-.63	.32
		private-owned	-.430	.195	.084	-.90	.04
	joint venture	state-owned	.158	.197	1.000	-.32	.63
		private-owned	-.272	.168	.318	-.68	.13
	Private-owned	state-owned	.430	.195	.084	-.04	.90
		joint venture	.272	.168	.318	-.13	.68
coexistence	joint venture	state-owned	-.028	.151	1.000	-.39	.33
		private-owned	-.180	.128	.490	-.49	.13
	Private-owned	state-owned	.151	.149	.935	-.21	.51
		joint venture	.180	.128	.490	-.13	.49
	state-owned	joint venture	-.006	.172	1.000	-.42	.41
		private-owned	.206	.170	.685	-.20	.62
	joint venture	state-owned	.006	.172	1.000	-.41	.42
		private-owned	.212	.147	.449	-.14	.57
	Private-owned	state-owned	-.206	.170	.685	-.62	.20
		joint venture	-.212	.147	.449	-.57	.14
	state-owned	joint venture	.205	.166	.655	-.19	.60
		private-owned	.248	.164	.394	-.15	.64

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

# Appendix 5: ANOVA Analysis of the Relationships between Subordinates’ Educational Levels and Their OCB

Descriptives									
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
helping	High School Leavers	61	3.30	1.070	.137	3.02	3.57	1	5
	Diploma Holders	112	2.97	1.086	.103	2.77	3.18	1	5
	Graduates	106	2.74	1.063	.103	2.53	2.94	1	4
	Postgraduates	24	3.33	.917	.187	2.95	3.72	1	5
	Total	303	2.98	1.081	.062	2.86	3.11	1	5
initiative	High School Leavers	61	3.56	1.073	.137	3.28	3.83	1	5
	Diploma Holders	112	3.60	1.423	.135	3.33	3.86	1	5
	Graduates	106	3.36	1.481	.144	3.07	3.64	1	5
	Postgraduates	24	3.75	1.189	.243	3.25	4.25	1	5
	Total	303	3.52	1.364	.078	3.36	3.67	1	5
development	High School Leavers	61	3.38	1.186	.152	3.07	3.68	1	5
	Diploma Holders	112	3.34	1.298	.123	3.10	3.58	1	5
	Graduates	106	3.41	1.193	.116	3.18	3.64	1	5
	Postgraduates	24	2.71	1.301	.266	2.16	3.26	1	5
	Total	303	3.32	1.247	.072	3.18	3.46	1	5
interpersonal	High School Leavers	61	3.34	.998	.128	3.09	3.60	2	5
	Diploma Holders	112	2.99	1.095	.103	2.79	3.20	1	5
	Graduates	106	2.73	.981	.095	2.54	2.92	1	4
	Postgraduates	24	3.21	1.103	.225	2.74	3.67	1	5
	Total	303	2.99	1.058	.061	2.87	3.11	1	5
departmental	High School Leavers	61	3.54	1.104	.141	3.26	3.82	1	5
	Diploma Holders	112	3.46	.948	.090	3.28	3.63	1	5
	Graduates	106	3.42	.827	.080	3.27	3.58	2	5
	Postgraduates	24	3.67	.917	.187	3.28	4.05	2	5
	Total	303	3.48	.938	.054	3.37	3.58	1	5
voice	High School Leavers	61	3.64	1.111	.142	3.35	3.92	1	5
	Diploma Holders	112	3.36	.929	.088	3.18	3.53	1	5
	Graduates	106	3.36	.938	.091	3.18	3.54	1	4
	Postgraduates	24	3.21	1.062	.217	2.76	3.66	1	5
	Total	303	3.40	.985	.057	3.29	3.51	1	5

group	High School Leavers	61	3.70	.955	.122	3.46	3.95	2	5
	Diploma Holders	112	3.91	1.182	.112	3.69	4.13	1	5
	Graduates	106	3.90	1.146	.111	3.68	4.12	1	5
	Postgraduates	24	3.88	1.191	.243	3.37	4.38	1	5
	Total	303	3.86	1.125	.065	3.73	3.99	1	5
interests	High School Leavers	61	3.31	1.088	.139	3.03	3.59	1	5
	Diploma Holders	112	3.27	1.115	.105	3.06	3.48	1	5
	Graduates	106	3.48	1.062	.103	3.28	3.69	1	5
	Postgraduates	24	3.29	1.042	.213	2.85	3.73	1	5
	Total	303	3.35	1.085	.062	3.23	3.48	1	5
image	High School Leavers	61	3.54	1.119	.143	3.25	3.83	1	5
	Diploma Holders	112	3.18	1.084	.102	2.98	3.38	1	5
	Graduates	106	3.00	1.227	.119	2.76	3.24	1	5
	Postgraduates	24	3.42	1.100	.225	2.95	3.88	2	5
	Total	303	3.21	1.156	.066	3.08	3.34	1	5
welfare	High School Leavers	61	2.21	.451	.058	2.10	2.33	1	3
	Diploma Holders	112	2.38	.617	.058	2.26	2.49	1	4
	Graduates	106	3.02	.915	.089	2.84	3.20	1	4
	Postgraduates	24	2.29	.550	.112	2.06	2.52	2	4
	Total	303	2.56	.782	.045	2.47	2.65	1	4
coexistence	High School Leavers	61	3.39	1.053	.135	3.12	3.66	1	5
	Diploma Holders	112	3.15	1.396	.132	2.89	3.41	1	5
	Graduates	106	3.15	1.308	.127	2.90	3.40	1	5
	Postgraduates	24	3.54	1.250	.255	3.01	4.07	1	5
	Total	303	3.23	1.292	.074	3.09	3.38	1	5

## ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
helping	Between Groups	15.372	3	5.124	4.539	.004
	Within Groups	337.545	299	1.129		
	Total	352.917	302			
initiative	Between Groups	4.804	3	1.601	.860	.462
	Within Groups	556.846	299	1.862		
	Total	561.650	302			
development	Between Groups	9.997	3	3.332	2.166	.092
	Within Groups	459.950	299	1.538		
	Total	469.947	302			
interpersonal	Between Groups	16.161	3	5.387	5.006	.002
	Within Groups	321.786	299	1.076		
	Total	337.947	302			
departmental	Between Groups	1.457	3	.486	.550	.649
	Within Groups	264.154	299	.883		
	Total	265.611	302			
voice	Between Groups	4.762	3	1.587	1.647	.179
	Within Groups	288.116	299	.964		
	Total	292.878	302			
group	Between Groups	1.899	3	.633	.498	.684
	Within Groups	380.279	299	1.272		
	Total	382.178	302			
interests	Between Groups	2.748	3	.916	.777	.508
	Within Groups	352.467	299	1.179		
	Total	355.215	302			
image	Between Groups	12.492	3	4.164	3.181	.024
	Within Groups	391.409	299	1.309		
	Total	403.901	302			
welfare	Between Groups	35.220	3	11.740	23.496	.000
	Within Groups	149.400	299	.500		
	Total	184.620	302			
coexistence	Between Groups	5.308	3	1.769	1.061	.366
	Within Groups	498.520	299	1.667		
	Total	503.828	302			

# Multiple Comparisons

Bonferroni

Dependent Variable	(I) Education	(J) Education	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
helping	High School Leavers	Diploma	.322	.169	.347	-.13	.77
		Graduates	.559(*)	.171	.007	.11	1.01
		Postgraduates	-.038	.256	1.000	-.72	.64
	Diploma	High School Leavers	-.322	.169	.347	-.77	.13
		Graduates	.237	.144	.602	-.15	.62
		Postgraduates	-.360	.239	.797	-.99	.27
	Graduates	High School Leavers	-.559(*)	.171	.007	-1.01	-.11
		Diploma	-.237	.144	.602	-.62	.15
		Postgraduates	-.597	.240	.080	-1.24	.04
	Postgraduates	High school	.038	.256	1.000	-.64	.72
		Diploma	.360	.239	.797	-.27	.99
		Graduates	.597	.240	.080	-.04	1.24
initiative	High School Leavers	Diploma	-.041	.217	1.000	-.62	.54
		Graduates	.199	.219	1.000	-.38	.78
		Postgraduates	-.193	.329	1.000	-1.07	.68
	Diploma	High School Leavers	.041	.217	1.000	-.54	.62
		Graduates	.240	.185	1.000	-.25	.73
		Postgraduates	-.152	.307	1.000	-.97	.66
	Graduates	High School Leavers	-.199	.219	1.000	-.78	.38
		Diploma	-.240	.185	1.000	-.73	.25
		Postgraduates	-.392	.308	1.000	-1.21	.43
	Postgraduates	High School Leavers	.193	.329	1.000	-.68	1.07
		Diploma	.152	.307	1.000	-.66	.97
		Graduates	.392	.308	1.000	-.43	1.21
development	High School Leavers	Diploma	.038	.197	1.000	-.49	.56
		Graduates	-.029	.199	1.000	-.56	.50
		Postgraduates	.669	.299	.156	-.13	1.46
	Diploma	High School Leavers	-.038	.197	1.000	-.56	.49
		Graduates	-.066	.168	1.000	-.51	.38
		Postgraduates	.631	.279	.147	-.11	1.37
	Graduates	High School Leavers	.029	.199	1.000	-.50	.56
		Diploma	.066	.168	1.000	-.38	.51
		Postgraduates	.697	.280	.081	-.05	1.44
	Postgraduates	High School Leavers	-.669	.299	.156	-1.46	.13
		Diploma	-.631	.279	.147	-1.37	.11
		Graduates	-.697	.280	.081	-1.44	.05
interpersonal	High School Leavers	Diploma	.353	.165	.199	-.09	.79
		Graduates	.618(*)	.167	.002	.18	1.06

departmental	Diploma	Postgraduates	.136	.250	1.000	-.53	.80
		High School Leavers	-.353	.165	.199	-.79	.09
	Graduates	Graduates	.265	.141	.364	-.11	.64
		Postgraduates	-.217	.233	1.000	-.84	.40
	Postgraduates	High School Leavers	-.618(*)	.167	.002	-1.06	-.18
		Diploma	-.265	.141	.364	-.64	.11
	High School Leavers	Postgraduates	-.482	.235	.244	-1.10	.14
		High School Leavers	-.136	.250	1.000	-.80	.53
	Diploma	Diploma	.217	.233	1.000	-.40	.84
		Graduates	.482	.235	.244	-.14	1.10
	Postgraduates	Diploma	.086	.150	1.000	-.31	.48
		Graduates	.116	.151	1.000	-.28	.52
	Diploma	Postgraduates	-.126	.226	1.000	-.73	.48
		High School Leavers	-.086	.150	1.000	-.48	.31
	Graduates	Graduates	.031	.127	1.000	-.31	.37
		Postgraduates	-.211	.211	1.000	-.77	.35
	Postgraduates	High School Leavers	-.116	.151	1.000	-.52	.28
		Diploma	-.031	.127	1.000	-.37	.31
voice	High School Leavers	Postgraduates	-.242	.212	1.000	-.81	.32
		High School Leavers	.126	.226	1.000	-.48	.73
	Diploma	Diploma	.211	.211	1.000	-.35	.77
		Graduates	.242	.212	1.000	-.32	.81
	Graduates	Diploma	.282	.156	.431	-.13	.70
		Graduates	.281	.158	.456	-.14	.70
	Postgraduates	Postgraduates	.431	.237	.417	-.20	1.06
		High School Leavers	-.282	.156	.431	-.70	.13
	Diploma	Graduates	-.001	.133	1.000	-.35	.35
		Postgraduates	.149	.221	1.000	-.44	.74
	Graduates	High School Leavers	-.281	.158	.456	-.70	.14
		Diploma	.001	.133	1.000	-.35	.35
	Postgraduates	Postgraduates	.150	.222	1.000	-.44	.74
		High school	-.431	.237	.417	-1.06	.20
	High School Leavers	Diploma	-.149	.221	1.000	-.74	.44
		Graduates	-.150	.222	1.000	-.74	.44
group	High School Leavers	Diploma	-.206	.179	1.000	-.68	.27
		Graduates	-.191	.181	1.000	-.67	.29
		Postgraduates	-.170	.272	1.000	-.89	.55
	Diploma	High School Leavers	.206	.179	1.000	-.27	.68
		Graduates	.014	.153	1.000	-.39	.42
		Postgraduates	.036	.254	1.000	-.64	.71
	Graduates	High School Leavers	.191	.181	1.000	-.29	.67
		Diploma	-.014	.153	1.000	-.42	.39
		Postgraduates	.021	.255	1.000	-.66	.70



interests	Postgraduates	High School Leavers	.170	.272	1.000	-.55	.89
		Diploma	-.036	.254	1.000	-.71	.64
		Graduates	-.021	.255	1.000	-.70	.66
	High School Leavers	Diploma	.044	.173	1.000	-.42	.50
		Graduates	-.170	.174	1.000	-.63	.29
		Postgraduates	.020	.262	1.000	-.68	.71
	Diploma	High School Leavers	-.044	.173	1.000	-.50	.42
		Graduates	-.213	.147	.889	-.60	.18
		Postgraduates	-.024	.244	1.000	-.67	.62
	Graduates	High School Leavers	.170	.174	1.000	-.29	.63
		Diploma	.213	.147	.889	-.18	.60
		Postgraduates	.189	.245	1.000	-.46	.84
image	Postgraduates	High School Leavers	-.020	.262	1.000	-.71	.68
		Diploma	.024	.244	1.000	-.62	.67
		Postgraduates	-.189	.245	1.000	-.84	.46
	High School Leavers	Diploma	.362	.182	.285	-.12	.85
		Graduates	.541(*)	.184	.021	.05	1.03
		Postgraduates	.124	.276	1.000	-.61	.86
	Diploma	High School Leavers	-.362	.182	.285	-.85	.12
		Graduates	.179	.155	1.000	-.23	.59
		Postgraduates	-.238	.257	1.000	-.92	.45
	Graduates	High School Leavers	-.541(*)	.184	.021	-1.03	-.05
		Diploma	-.179	.155	1.000	-.59	.23
		Postgraduates	-.417	.259	.649	-1.10	.27
welfare	Postgraduates	High School Leavers	-.124	.276	1.000	-.86	.61
		Diploma	.238	.257	1.000	-.45	.92
		Graduates	.417	.259	.649	-.27	1.10
	High School Leavers	Diploma	-.162	.112	.907	-.46	.14
		Graduates	-.806(*)	.114	.000	-1.11	-.50
		Postgraduates	-.079	.170	1.000	-.53	.37
	Diploma	High School Leavers	.162	.112	.907	-.14	.46
		Graduates	-.644(*)	.096	.000	-.90	-.39
		Postgraduates	.083	.159	1.000	-.34	.51
	Graduates	High School Leavers	.806(*)	.114	.000	.50	1.11
		Diploma	.644(*)	.096	.000	.39	.90
		Postgraduates	.727(*)	.160	.000	.30	1.15
coexistence	Postgraduates	High School Leavers	.079	.170	1.000	-.37	.53
		Diploma	-.083	.159	1.000	-.51	.34
		Graduates	-.727(*)	.160	.000	-1.15	-.30
	High School Leavers	Diploma	.242	.205	1.000	-.30	.79
		Graduates	.242	.208	1.000	-.31	.79
		Postgraduates	-.148	.311	1.000	-.97	.68

Diploma	High School Leavers	-.242	.205	1.000	-.79	.30
	Graduates	.001	.175	1.000	-.46	.47
	Postgraduates	-.390	.290	1.000	-1.16	.38
Graduates	High School Leavers	-.242	.208	1.000	-.79	.31
	Diploma	-.001	.175	1.000	-.47	.46
	Postgraduates	-.391	.292	1.000	-1.17	.38
Postgraduates	High School Leavers	.148	.311	1.000	-.68	.97
	Diploma	.390	.290	1.000	-.38	1.16
	Graduates	.391	.292	1.000	-.38	1.17

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

# Appendix 6: ANOVA Analysis of the Relationships between Subordinates' Age Differences and Their OCB

Descriptives

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
helping	22-30	72	3.28	.996	.117	3.04	3.51	1	5
	31-40	172	2.99	1.116	.085	2.83	3.16	1	5
	41-50	43	2.60	.955	.146	2.31	2.90	1	4
	51-60	16	2.56	1.031	.258	2.01	3.11	1	4
	Total	303	2.98	1.081	.062	2.86	3.11	1	5
initiative	22-30	72	3.74	1.267	.149	3.44	4.03	1	5
	31-40	172	3.48	1.374	.105	3.28	3.69	1	5
	41-50	43	3.51	1.420	.217	3.07	3.95	1	5
	51-60	16	2.94	1.436	.359	2.17	3.70	1	5
	Total	303	3.52	1.364	.078	3.36	3.67	1	5
development	22-30	72	3.28	1.335	.157	2.96	3.59	1	5
	31-40	172	3.35	1.232	.094	3.17	3.54	1	5
	41-50	43	3.35	1.213	.185	2.98	3.72	1	5
	51-60	16	3.06	1.181	.295	2.43	3.69	1	5
	Total	303	3.32	1.247	.072	3.18	3.46	1	5
interpersonal	22-30	72	3.17	1.061	.125	2.92	3.42	1	5
	31-40	172	2.94	1.098	.084	2.77	3.10	1	5
	41-50	43	2.98	.913	.139	2.70	3.26	1	4
	51-60	16	2.75	.931	.233	2.25	3.25	2	4
	Total	303	2.99	1.058	.061	2.87	3.11	1	5
departmental	22-30	72	3.67	.856	.101	3.47	3.87	1	5
	31-40	172	3.52	.927	.071	3.38	3.66	1	5
	41-50	43	3.19	.906	.138	2.91	3.47	2	5
	51-60	16	3.00	1.211	.303	2.35	3.65	1	4
	Total	303	3.48	.938	.054	3.37	3.58	1	5
voice	22-30	72	3.42	.915	.108	3.20	3.63	1	5
	31-40	172	3.41	1.008	.077	3.26	3.56	1	5
	41-50	43	3.33	.993	.151	3.02	3.63	1	5
	51-60	16	3.44	1.094	.273	2.85	4.02	1	5
	Total	303	3.40	.985	.057	3.29	3.51	1	5
group	22-30	72	4.03	1.126	.133	3.76	4.29	1	5
	31-40	172	3.87	1.057	.081	3.71	4.03	1	5
	41-50	43	3.74	1.293	.197	3.35	4.14	1	5
	51-60	16	3.31	1.250	.313	2.65	3.98	1	5
	Total	303	3.86	1.125	.065	3.73	3.99	1	5

interests	22-30	72	3.38	1.013	.119	3.14	3.61	1	5
	31-40	172	3.33	1.097	.084	3.16	3.49	1	5
	41-50	43	3.51	1.162	.177	3.15	3.87	1	5
	51-60	16	3.13	1.088	.272	2.55	3.70	1	5
	Total	303	3.35	1.085	.062	3.23	3.48	1	5
image	22-30	72	3.18	1.092	.129	2.92	3.44	1	5
	31-40	172	3.26	1.178	.090	3.08	3.44	1	5
	41-50	43	3.26	1.217	.186	2.88	3.63	1	5
	51-60	16	2.63	.957	.239	2.11	3.14	1	4
	Total	303	3.21	1.156	.066	3.08	3.34	1	5
welfare	22-30	72	2.51	.769	.091	2.33	2.69	1	4
	31-40	172	2.55	.767	.058	2.44	2.67	1	4
	41-50	43	2.74	.875	.133	2.47	3.01	2	4
	51-60	16	2.38	.719	.180	1.99	2.76	2	4
	Total	303	2.56	.782	.045	2.47	2.65	1	4
coexistence	22-30	72	3.53	1.256	.148	3.23	3.82	1	5
	31-40	172	3.18	1.278	.097	2.99	3.37	1	5
	41-50	43	3.00	1.327	.202	2.59	3.41	1	5
	51-60	16	3.06	1.389	.347	2.32	3.80	1	5
	Total	303	3.23	1.292	.074	3.09	3.38	1	5

# ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
helping	Between Groups	15.262	3	5.087	4.505	.004
	Within Groups	337.655	299	1.129		
	Total	352.917	302			
initiative	Between Groups	9.035	3	3.012	1.629	.183
	Within Groups	552.615	299	1.848		
	Total	561.650	302			
development	Between Groups	1.432	3	.477	.305	.822
	Within Groups	468.516	299	1.567		
	Total	469.947	302			
interpersonal	Between Groups	3.674	3	1.225	1.095	.351
	Within Groups	334.273	299	1.118		
	Total	337.947	302			
departmental	Between Groups	10.151	3	3.384	3.960	.009
	Within Groups	255.459	299	.854		
	Total	265.611	302			
voice	Between Groups	.307	3	.102	.104	.957
	Within Groups	292.571	299	.978		
	Total	292.878	302			
group	Between Groups	7.424	3	2.475	1.974	.118
	Within Groups	374.754	299	1.253		
	Total	382.178	302			
interests	Between Groups	2.078	3	.693	.586	.624
	Within Groups	353.137	299	1.181		
	Total	355.215	302			
image	Between Groups	6.085	3	2.028	1.525	.208
	Within Groups	397.816	299	1.330		
	Total	403.901	302			
welfare	Between Groups	2.169	3	.723	1.185	.316
	Within Groups	182.451	299	.610		
	Total	184.620	302			
coexistence	Between Groups	9.534	3	3.178	1.922	.126
	Within Groups	494.295	299	1.653		
	Total	503.828	302			

Multiple Comparisons

Bonferroni

Dependent Variable	(I) age	(J) age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
helping	22-30	31-40	.284	.149	.349	-.11	.68
		41-50	.673(*)	.205	.007	.13	1.22
		51-60	.715	.294	.093	-.06	1.50
	31-40	22-30	-.284	.149	.349	-.68	.11
		41-50	.390	.181	.194	-.09	.87
		51-60	.432	.278	.727	-.31	1.17
	41-50	22-30	-.673(*)	.205	.007	-1.22	-.13
		31-40	-.390	.181	.194	-.87	.09
		51-60	.042	.311	1.000	-.78	.87
	51-60	22-30	-.715	.294	.093	-1.50	.06
		31-40	-.432	.278	.727	-1.17	.31
		41-50	-.042	.311	1.000	-.87	.78
initiative	22-30	31-40	.254	.191	1.000	-.25	.76
		41-50	.224	.262	1.000	-.47	.92
		51-60	.799	.376	.206	-.20	1.80
	31-40	22-30	-.254	.191	1.000	-.76	.25
		41-50	-.029	.232	1.000	-.64	.59
		51-60	.545	.355	.757	-.40	1.49
	41-50	22-30	-.224	.262	1.000	-.92	.47
		31-40	.029	.232	1.000	-.59	.64
		51-60	.574	.398	.902	-.48	1.63
	51-60	22-30	-.799	.376	.206	-1.80	.20
		31-40	-.545	.355	.757	-1.49	.40
		41-50	-.574	.398	.902	-1.63	.48
development	22-30	31-40	-.077	.176	1.000	-.54	.39
		41-50	-.071	.241	1.000	-.71	.57
		51-60	.215	.346	1.000	-.70	1.13
	31-40	22-30	.077	.176	1.000	-.39	.54
		41-50	.006	.213	1.000	-.56	.57
		51-60	.292	.327	1.000	-.58	1.16
	41-50	22-30	.071	.241	1.000	-.57	.71
		31-40	-.006	.213	1.000	-.57	.56
		51-60	.286	.367	1.000	-.69	1.26
	51-60	22-30	-.215	.346	1.000	-1.13	.70
		31-40	-.292	.327	1.000	-1.16	.58
		41-50	-.286	.367	1.000	-1.26	.69
interpersonal	22-30	31-40	.231	.148	.728	-.16	.62
		41-50	.190	.204	1.000	-.35	.73
		51-60	.417	.292	.930	-.36	1.19
	31-40	22-30	-.231	.148	.728	-.62	.16
		41-50	-.041	.180	1.000	-.52	.44

departmental	41-50	51-60	.186	.276	1.000	-.55	.92	
		22-30	-.190	.204	1.000	-.73	.35	
		31-40	.041	.180	1.000	-.44	.52	
	51-60	51-60	.227	.310	1.000	-.60	1.05	
		22-30	-.417	.292	.930	-1.19	.36	
		31-40	-.186	.276	1.000	-.92	.55	
	22-30	41-50	-.227	.310	1.000	-1.05	.60	
		31-40	.149	.130	1.000	-.20	.49	
		31-40	41-50	.481(*)	.178	.044	.01	.95
	51-60		.667	.255	.057	-.01	1.35	
	22-30		-.149	.130	1.000	-.49	.20	
	voice	41-50	41-50	.331	.158	.218	-.09	.75
			51-60	.517	.242	.198	-.12	1.16
			22-30	-.481(*)	.178	.044	-.95	-.01
		51-60	31-40	-.331	.158	.218	-.75	.09
			51-60	.186	.271	1.000	-.53	.90
22-30			-.667	.255	.057	-1.35	.01	
22-30		31-40	-.517	.242	.198	-1.16	.12	
		41-50	-.186	.271	1.000	-.90	.53	
		31-40	.004	.139	1.000	-.36	.37	
31-40		41-50	.091	.191	1.000	-.42	.60	
		51-60	-.021	.273	1.000	-.75	.71	
		22-30	-.004	.139	1.000	-.37	.36	
group		41-50	41-50	.087	.169	1.000	-.36	.54
			51-60	-.025	.259	1.000	-.71	.66
			22-30	-.091	.191	1.000	-.60	.42
		51-60	31-40	-.087	.169	1.000	-.54	.36
	51-60		-.112	.290	1.000	-.88	.66	
	22-30		.021	.273	1.000	-.71	.75	
	22-30	31-40	.025	.259	1.000	-.66	.71	
		41-50	.112	.290	1.000	-.66	.88	
		31-40	.156	.157	1.000	-.26	.57	
	31-40	41-50	.284	.216	1.000	-.29	.86	
		51-60	.715	.309	.129	-.11	1.54	
		22-30	-.156	.157	1.000	-.57	.26	
	interests	41-50	41-50	.128	.191	1.000	-.38	.63
			51-60	.560	.293	.341	-.22	1.34
			22-30	-.284	.216	1.000	-.86	.29
		51-60	31-40	-.128	.191	1.000	-.63	.38
51-60			.432	.328	1.000	-.44	1.30	
22-30			-.715	.309	.129	-1.54	.11	
22-30		31-40	-.560	.293	.341	-1.34	.22	
		41-50	-.432	.328	1.000	-1.30	.44	
		31-40	.049	.153	1.000	-.36	.45	
31-40		41-50	-.137	.209	1.000	-.69	.42	
		51-60	.250	.300	1.000	-.55	1.05	
		22-30	-.049	.153	1.000	-.45	.36	
		41-50	-.186	.185	1.000	-.68	.31	
		51-60	.201	.284	1.000	-.55	.95	

image	41-50	22-30	.137	.209	1.000	-.42	.69
		31-40	.186	.185	1.000	-.31	.68
		51-60	.387	.318	1.000	-.46	1.23
	51-60	22-30	-.250	.300	1.000	-1.05	.55
		31-40	-.201	.284	1.000	-.95	.55
		41-50	-.387	.318	1.000	-1.23	.46
	22-30	31-40	-.081	.162	1.000	-.51	.35
		41-50	-.075	.222	1.000	-.67	.52
		51-60	.556	.319	.495	-.29	1.40
	31-40	22-30	.081	.162	1.000	-.35	.51
		41-50	.006	.197	1.000	-.52	.53
		51-60	.637	.301	.213	-.16	1.44
	41-50	22-30	.075	.222	1.000	-.52	.67
		31-40	-.006	.197	1.000	-.53	.52
		51-60	.631	.338	.377	-.27	1.53
welfare	51-60	22-30	-.556	.319	.495	-1.40	.29
		31-40	-.637	.301	.213	-1.44	.16
		41-50	-.631	.338	.377	-1.53	.27
	22-30	31-40	-.038	.110	1.000	-.33	.25
		41-50	-.230	.151	.763	-.63	.17
		51-60	.139	.216	1.000	-.43	.71
	31-40	22-30	.038	.110	1.000	-.25	.33
		41-50	-.192	.133	.905	-.55	.16
		51-60	.177	.204	1.000	-.36	.72
	41-50	22-30	.230	.151	.763	-.17	.63
		31-40	.192	.133	.905	-.16	.55
		51-60	.369	.229	.646	-.24	.98
	51-60	22-30	-.139	.216	1.000	-.71	.43
		31-40	-.177	.204	1.000	-.72	.36
		41-50	-.369	.229	.646	-.98	.24
coexistenc e	22-30	31-40	.348	.180	.331	-.13	.83
		41-50	.528	.248	.204	-.13	1.19
		51-60	.465	.355	1.000	-.48	1.41
	31-40	22-30	-.348	.180	.331	-.83	.13
		41-50	.180	.219	1.000	-.40	.76
		51-60	.118	.336	1.000	-.77	1.01
	41-50	22-30	-.528	.248	.204	-1.19	.13
		31-40	-.180	.219	1.000	-.76	.40
		51-60	-.063	.377	1.000	-1.06	.94
	51-60	22-30	-.465	.355	1.000	-1.41	.48
		31-40	-.118	.336	1.000	-1.01	.77
		41-50	.063	.377	1.000	-.94	1.06

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.



## Appendix 7: *Guanxi*'s Direct Categories, Definition and Illustrative Examples

Direct Categories (24)	Definition	Illustrative Examples
<b>Property Related Support</b>	Supervisors use personal networks and others means in finding information, agent and the availability of cheaper houses for subordinates; or they use personal networks and/or call for other colleagues to help subordinates decorate their property.	My supervisor helped me to find a good agent, whom could sell me a residential house.
<b>Job Seeking for Employees Related Person</b>	Supervisors use personal network and other means in finding jobs for subordinates' related person such as family members or their friends or even part-time job for subordinates who are in need.	My supervisor offered information for my child to seek for a job.
<b>Personal Help for Employees and for their Family Members</b>	Supervisors provide help or support for subordinates and their family members such as buying something, finding a good college for training.	Once, I was assigned with a sudden task to complete. Unfortunately, my family had an emergency as well. After thinking about it carefully, I had to take a one-day leave. My initial thought was that my supervisor would not allow me to take leave. However, my supervisor gave me one day off without any hesitation.
<b>Job Related Support</b>	Supervisors provide coach and mentor and other job related support for subordinates.	My supervisor coached me to pass the exams in the workplace.
<b>Visit Sick Employees or Their Sick Family Members</b>	Supervisors visit sick subordinates and/or their sick family members when those people are in hospital.	When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company.
<b>Perceived Supervisor Care</b>	Supervisors show their concern and consideration in relation to subordinates work related issues or their personal issues.	I always ask my subordinates the difficulties they encounter in their work or their personal problems.
<b>Interactional Justice</b>	Supervisors show their respect and treat their subordinates with dignity and follow the norm of equity in their interaction.	I consult my subordinate before transferring her to another branch.
<b>Supervisors' Protection</b>	Supervisors defend others (superiors, person in other department and outsiders) for their subordinates.	W often defends his newcomers before a superior or others in the organization, and if there really is a mistake, he will

		coach those new staff personally.
<b>Outside Work Relationship</b>	Supervisors and their subordinates have interaction after work such as attending the same training course, holding birthday parties and going to shopping.	My supervisor and I often go to gym together
<b>Having Dinner Together</b>	Supervisors and their subordinates have dinner together.	I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor.
<b>Recognition of Subordinates</b>	Supervisors need to recognize the merits of subordinates.	Being a supervisor means you must have a good <i>guanxi</i> with your subordinates. For example, I found the merits of one of my subordinates, who was disliked by other supervisors.
<b>Supervisors' Positive Attributes</b>	Subordinates like to develop <i>guanxi</i> and like to work under the supervision of them, when supervisors possess good attribute of personal integrity, ability etc.	W is a perfect supervisor. In the organization, people tend to work under his supervision. After work, people tend to party with him.
<b>Subordinates' Positive Attributes</b>	Subordinates' loyalty or honesty or ability leads to their supervisors' willingness to develop <i>guanxi</i> with them.	I need my subordinates to follow my order.
<b>Biased Reward</b>	Reward decision is based on <i>guanxi</i> .	W never listens to us. He follows what modern management approach, but we view what he is doing something that undermines our loyalty to the organization. For example, when the company allocated some accommodation for us, Xiao Zhang was in an emergent need, but he assigned this room to others in other department, who was his former student in the USA.
<b>Supervisors' Unsupportive Attitudes and Behaviour</b>	Supervisors are unwillingly to support their subordinates.	W always has sth to say, when we need to go home. And he is always likely to ask us to do more work after we finish our shift. However, when we had problems to talk to him after work, he always said: "I am sorry, I finished my today's work, and you need to talk with me tomorrow." When we spoke to his superior, he argued that in the USA, he never helped after work. When we said why

		he asked us to do some jobs after work, he was silent and embarrassed.
<b>Supervisors' Impolite Attitudes and Behaviour</b>	Supervisors have indifferent or impolite attitudes or behaviours towards their subordinates without showing their care, concern and warm-heartedness.	My supervisor is not very good. He does not respect us. He came back from USA after completing his post-doctoral research. He is the "boss". For example, when I drive for him daily, he can smoke my cigarettes. But when I smoked his cigarette, he got angry.
<b>Selection Based on <i>Guanxi</i></b>	Supervisors select subordinates based on <i>guanxi</i> .	W selected A to take over B as an account in my firm due to B having good <i>guanxi</i> with W. The result was that A left and B made our company account mess.
<b>Performance Assessment Based on <i>Guanxi</i></b>	Supervisors assess subordinates' performance based on <i>guanxi</i> .	W gives a good performance appraisal to people having close <i>guanxi</i> with him.
<b>Cliquish Culture Underlining Justice</b>	Supervisors and subordinates forms a sub-group, which they protect each other at the expense of organizational justice.	W used (unclear) management method aiming at breaking down the <i>guanxi</i> ties in our organization. However, what he did was to rebuild his own <i>guanxi</i> ties. I do not like the person he selected. Those guys never work hard, compared with us.
<b>Supervisor-targeted Service</b>	Subordinates provide superior-targeted individualised service to their superiors.	W is a new graduate assigned to a functional department in a state-owned bank. He is not eager to work hard, but is obedient to his supervisor. In order to achieve his personal goal, he often gives gift to his supervisor. As a result, the supervisor appointed him to an important position. W usually recruits some agency to work for the company by seeking his personal benefits at the expense of organizational loss. His supervisor does not care about this.
<b>Extolling Supervisors in Public</b>	Subordinates flatter and exaggerate superiors in public.	My supervisor is very vain. He always trusts people who have close <i>guanxi</i> with him by singing high praise for him. He never knows that if he were not the superior, nobody would like him. Last year, the company decided his retirement. Those

		people who have close <i>guanxi</i> with him have had indifferent attitude towards him from then on.
<b>Pseudo Loyalty</b>	Inconsistent behaviour of commitment is shown in front of others in the back of manager.	His supervisor showed trust and loyalty to W. But W pretended to show loyalty and trust to his supervisor in the past. W did not display consistent loyalty to his supervisor after one's retirement.
<b>Pseudo OCB</b>	Inconsistent behaviour of OCB is shown in front of others in the back of manager.	W's supervisor is a very good guy. He devoted himself to the company. He hopes everybody would act like him. In such case, W wrote a letter to him to disagree with one business project, aiming at being viewed as highly committed person.
<b>False Pretence for Authority</b>	Subordinates pretend to respect the authority of their superiors.	W's supervisor considers his face as important. Thus, W tends to follow his supervisor without question.

Appendix 8 a: Reducing *Guanxi*'s Direct Categories to Competing Meanings

Direct Categories (24)	Competing Meanings
Property Related Support	Perceived Supervisor Support
Job Seeking for Employees Related Person	
Personal Help for Employees and for their Family Members	
Job Related Support	
Visit Sick Employees or Their Sick Family Members	Perceived Supervisor Care
Perceived Supervisor Care	
Interactional Justice	Interactional Justice
Supervisors' Protection	Supervisors' Protection
Outside Work Relationship	Outside Work Relationship
Having Dinner Together	
Recognition of Subordinates	Recognition of Subordinates
Supervisors' Positive Attributes	Supervisors' Positive Attributes
Subordinates' Positive Attributes	Subordinates' Positive Attributes
Biased Reward	Distributive Injustice
Supervisors' Unsupportive Attitudes and Behaviour	Interpersonal Injustice (Inappropriate Treatment)
Supervisors' Impolite Attitudes and Behaviour	
Selection Based on <i>Guanxi</i>	
Performance Assessment Based on <i>Guanxi</i>	
Cliquish Culture Underlining Justice	Procedural Injustice
Supervisor-targeted Service	
Extolling Supervisors in Public	Ingratiation
Pseudo Loyalty	
Pseudo OCB	
False Pretence for Authority	Exemplification
	False Pretence for Authority

### Appendix 8 b: Direct Categories of *Guanxi*

Categories for Incidents	Frequency (n)
Job Related Support	31
Perceived Supervisor Care	24
Interactional Justice	18
Visit Sick Employees or Their Sick Family Members	16
Supervisors' Protection	16
Outside Work Relationship	14
Having Dinner Together	13
Selection Based on <i>Guanxi</i>	13
Property Related Support	12
Supervisor-targeted Service	10
Personal Help for Employees and for their Family Members	10
Biased Reward	8
Supervisors' Attributes	8
Cliquish Culture Underlining Justice	8
Subordinates' Attributes	7
Supervisors' Unsupportive Attitudes and Behaviour	7
Performance Assessment Based on <i>Guanxi</i>	6
False Pretence for Authority	6
Recognition of Subordinates	5
Supervisors' Impolite Attitudes and Behaviour	5
Job Seeking for Employees Related Person	5
Extolling Supervisors in Public	4
Pseudo Loyalty	3
Pseudo OCB	3
Total	252

### Appendix 9: Subordinates' *Guanxi* and Reasons for OCB Engagement (Norm of Reciprocity)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Norm of Reciprocity
My supervisor helped me to find a job for my relatives from my hometown. (job)	Generally, if you mean Lei Feng behavior as <i>yi-xin-wei-gong</i> (devote oneself to the company), I argue that job is the way that we can survive, and thereby, if supervisor <u>is kind to me</u> , I would do so.
My supervisor helped my nephew to find a job in my organization. (job)	Actually, Lei Feng behaviour is selfless. However, I would do so partly by getting better <u>reward</u> from my supervisor.
My supervisor helped me to find a job for my friend's son. (job)	I need to <u>repay</u> his <i>renqing</i> (favour).
My supervisor offered information for my child to seek for a job. (job)	I need to <u>repay</u> his <i>renqing</i> (favour).
My supervisor helped me to find some information on how to get a good health care centre for my parents.(other)	I need to repay his <i>renqing</i> (favour).
My supervisor helped me to find a good and reasonably priced restaurant for my wedding. (other help)	It may <u>improve my <i>guanxi</i></u> with my supervisor.
My supervisor bought somethings for me when he went on a business trip. (other help)	If I can get my job quickly done, I would do so by supporting my supervisor and get his <u>support</u> in future.
My supervisor helped me to find a house at a reasonable price. (property)	If my behaviour <u>recognized it</u> , I would do so.
My supervisor helped me to find a good agent, whom could sell me a residential house. (property)	I need to repay his <i>renqing</i> (favour).
My supervisor helped me to find a better real estate company for selling my residential house. (property)	I need to repay his <i>renqing</i> (favour).
My supervisor helped me to find a house at a reasonable price. (property)	We can expect people to <u>help</u> us in future.
My supervisor helped me to find a house at a reasonable price. (property)	Mutual <u>help</u> .
My supervisor helped me to find a house at a reasonable price. (property)	We may expect others to <u>help</u> us as well.
My supervisor helped me to find a house at a reasonable price. (property)	It depends on whether others would <u>help</u> us as well.
My supervisor helped me to find a house at a reasonable price. (property)	Except for working hard I have no alternatives to <i>bao-da</i> (reciprocate) his <u>kindness</u> .
My supervisor helped me to find a house at a reasonable price. (property)	I feel obligated to reciprocate his ( <i>bao-da</i> ) <u>kindness</u> .

My supervisor helped me to find a cheaper working team for decorating my house. (property)	I need to repay his <u>renqing</u> (favour).
My supervisor helped me bring out my colleagues to decorate my house. (property)	I need to repay his <u>renqing</u> (favour).
My supervisor helped me to move into my new house. (property)	I must reciprocate his <u>support</u> .
My supervisor helped me to correct my report after work. (support)	I need to repay his <u>renqing</u> (favour).
My supervisor helped me to get a quick access to training school (without having to go through a complicated admission procedure by calling them). (support)	I am expected to be dedicated to my work by my supervisor so that I can receive <u>support</u> from my supervisor.
My supervisor helped me to get a promotion opportunity by arguing with other competitors. (support)	I must reciprocate ( <i>bao-da</i> ) his <u>kindness</u> .
My supervisor offered me some information about an internal opportunity for promotion. (support)	He values such behaviour so that I <u>repay</u> his <u>renqing</u> (favour)
My supervisor helped me to work out job-related problems such as finding materials for my report. (support)	I should <u>reciprocate</u> ( <i>bao-da</i> ) his <u>kindness</u> .
My supervisor used his work experience to help me improve my performance. (support)	He may <u>help</u> me in future.
My supervisor helped me to adapt to the working environment since I was new at that time. (support)	I need to <u>repay</u> his <u>renqing</u> (favour).
My supervisor coached me to pass the exams in the workplace. (support)	I need to repay his <u>renqing</u> (favour).
My supervisor used his work experience to help me develop my competency. (support)	I need to <u>repay</u> his <u>renqing</u> (favour).
My supervisor shared his knowledge of job with me. (support)	I need to <u>repay</u> his <u>renqing</u> (favour).
W's supervisor used his professional skills to help all of his subordinates to perform better. (support)	I need to <u>repay</u> his <u>renqing</u> (favour).
Once, I was assigned with a sudden task to complete. Unfortunately, my family had an emergency as well. After thinking about it carefully, I had to take a one-day leave. My initial thought was that my supervisor would not allow me to take leave. However, my supervisor gave me one day off without any hesitation. (support)	My supervisor <u>touched my heart</u> and I need to <u>repay</u> his <u>renqing</u> (favour). When I came back, I spent two days in completing my task by staying up past midnight
I always actively share my personal	I need to <u>repay</u> his <u>renqing</u> (favour).



difficulties with my supervisor and seek help. He is always ready to help me. (support)	
My supervisor always wants to know about my personal and work problems in private and tries to help. (care)	<i>Guanxi</i> enables the development of <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u> to each other, which require us to support each other.
My supervisor wants to know my about my financial needs in order to provide financial support. (care)	I need to display a better performance in order to <u>reciprocate my kindness</u> to my supervisor.
My supervisor wants to know about my needs at work. (care)	I need to display a better performance in order to <u>reciprocate my kindness</u> to my supervisor.
My supervisor always listens to my ideas about work improvement. (care)	I need to display a better performance in order to <u>reciprocate my kindness</u> to my supervisor.
W often defends his newcomers before a superior or others in the organization, and if there really is a mistake, he will coach those new staff personally. (protection)	Such performance helps <u>build and maintain our <i>guanxi</i></u> .
When there are conflicting opinions about my project in the company meeting, my supervisor will always stand on my side. (protection)	<i>Guanxi</i> enables the development of <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u> to each other, which require us to support each other.
I have a manager, who tends to maintain his authority in our organization. When a subordinate makes a mistake, he would always blame him. However, my supervisor consistently defends him on almost every occasion where the protection for the subordinates is needed. (protection)	I need to display a better performance in order to <u>reciprocate my kindness</u> to my supervisor.
My supervisor defends me in front of a superior to protect my dignity, whenever it is not clear whether I made a mistake or not. (protection)	I need to <u>repay his <i>renqing</i></u> (favour).
W is a perfect supervisor. In the organization, people tend to work under his supervision. After work, people tend to party with him. (personal attributes)	It may <u>improve my <i>guanxi</i></u> with my supervisor.
W develops friendship with almost all of his subordinates. (personal attributes)	I need to <u>repay his <i>renqing</i></u> (favour).
W develops friendship with almost all of his subordinates. (personal attributes)	I need to display a better performance in order to <u>reciprocate my kindness</u> to my supervisor.
My supervisor is a very good leader to guide us. I respect my supervisor's work experience and competence on the job. (personal attributes)	We may expect him to <u>help</u> us at work as well.
I admire my supervisor's professional skills, which make us the best sale team	It also depends on the <u>recognition</u> of my good performance.

in my organization. (personal attributes)	
Miss A selected firm 'X' because the supervisor 'B' was known to be very kind and competent. She was sure that the latter would lead the department to success (personal attributes)	If subordinates are committed to organization, they would display their <u>loyalty</u> and fulfil their obligation towards their work.

# Appendix 10: Supervisors’ *Guanxi* and Reasons for OCB Engagement (Norm of Reciprocity)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Norm of Reciprocity
I value subordinates who can take initiative to complete the task that I allocated. (recognition)	Yes. They [subordinates] are more likely to do so, particularly without my [his] presence in facilitating cooperation and communication among departmental subordinates based on our mutual <u>trust and loyalty</u>
I have a subordinate, who is incompetent, but he always tries his best to perform his job. I like him and I deliberately find a good position for him, which does not require high competence. (recognition)	Yes. I need to <u>support</u> them so that they are <u>diligent</u> at work.
If I learn that there is any wedding, funeral and other related matters for my subordinates or their related persons, I must show my kindness to them. For example, last month, I [the supervisor] bought a present (suit) for one of my subordinates on the occasion of his brother’s wedding. After he [subordinate] returned, he told everyone that his mother thought he was a good worker since I bought a present and gave him face. (personal care)	Yes. In my example, the guy is motivated to work overtime without any complaint due to my support due to my support.
I care about my subordinates especially the problems they have at work. (personal care)	Yes. If they received your continuous <u>support</u> , they would definitely work hard.
I always consult my subordinates before making a decision such as allocating housing. (good treatment)	Yes. They think I <u>respect</u> them and <u>treat them well</u> .
There are two aspects of developing good <i>guanxi</i> with subordinates: one is to care about their personal needs, problems, and/ or their family related marriage and funeral, sickness and welfare. The other aspect is to provide coach, feedback and support in their work. (support)	Yes. We view <i>guanxi</i> based on <u>mutual kindness</u> , trust and loyalty.
W is qualified as chief certified accountant in September 2006. However, our personnel failed to inform her. When I [supervisor] found this out, I went to speak to our associate manager to help her to successfully apply for a certificate. (support)	Yes. This person works very hard due to my <u>kindness and support</u> .

# Appendix 11: Subordinates’ *Guanxi* and Reasons for OCB Engagement (Social Identity Process)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Social Identity Process
On any team members’ or their family members’ funeral, my supervisor would attend and help. (care)	We are <u>one group</u> .
On my colleague’s children’s wedding, my supervisor would attend and send him/her gifts. (care)	We are <u>one group</u>
On most important Chinese festival, my supervisor would definitely invite all of us to have lunch or dinner at his home. (care)	We are <u>one group</u>
My supervisor cares about my work environment such as buying spring water in summer. (care)	Because we are <u>one group</u> .
My supervisor cares about our family’s problems through his visits to everybody. (care)	<u>In-group</u> members need to support and help one another.
My supervisor cares about one disabled person in my department. (care)	Because we are <u>one group</u> .
In late shift, my supervisor always pays for all females workers taxi fee. (care)	Because we are <u>one group</u> .
My supervisor cares about my son’s study by letting us know about a home teacher for me. (care)	<u>In-group</u> members need to support and help one another.
My supervisor cares about my wife’s job by helping find a good training course. (care)	<u>In-group</u> members need to support and help one another.
My supervisor cares about my wife’ job. (care)	We like one <u>family</u> .
My supervisor cares about my parents’ sickness by letting us know about a famous doctor. (care)	We like one <u>family</u> .
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	<u>In-group</u> members need to support and help one another.
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	We like one <u>family</u> .
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the	We like one <u>family</u> .

company. (sickness)	
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	We like one <u>family</u> .
One's supervisor would always go to visit his subordinates, whenever they are hospitalized if he could find the time, or otherwise send someone else to go on his behalf if he could find the time. (sickness)	We are committed to supporting one another because we are <u>one group</u> .
One's supervisor would always go to visit his subordinates, whenever they are hospitalized if he could find the time, or otherwise send someone else to go on his behalf if he could find the time. (sickness)	We are committed to supporting one another because we are <u>one group</u> .
One's supervisor would always go to visit his subordinates, whenever they are hospitalized if he could find the time, or otherwise send someone else to go on his behalf if he could find the time. (sickness)	Because we are <u>one group</u> .
One's supervisor would always go to visit his subordinates, whenever they are hospitalized if he could find the time, or otherwise send someone else to go on his behalf if he could find the time. (sickness)	<u>In-group</u> members need to support and help one another.
One's supervisor would always go to visit his subordinates, whenever they are hospitalized if he could find the time, or otherwise send someone else to go on his behalf if he could find the time. (sickness)	<u>In-group</u> members need to support and care about one another particularly when there are organizational difficulties.
One's supervisor would make sure that he calls on his subordinates' families when the latter are on business trips, to check and see if everything is ok and offer them help if needed. (support)	We like one <u>family</u> .
One's supervisor would make sure that he calls on his subordinates' families when the latter are on business trips, to check and see if everything is ok and offer them help if needed. (support)	<u>In-group</u> members need to support one another.
When there are conflicting opinions about my project in the company meeting my supervisor will always stand on my side (protection)	<u>In-group</u> members need to help one another.

When there are conflicting opinions about my project in the company meeting my supervisor will always stand on my side (protection)	In-group members need to support one another.
When there are conflicting opinions about my project in the company meeting my supervisor will always stand on my side (protection)	We like one <u>family</u> .
When there are conflicting opinions about my project in the company meeting my supervisor will always stand on my side (protection)	In-group members need to support one another.
W defends me in front of a superior to protect my dignity, when I do not know whether I made a mistake.(protection)	We are committed to supporting one another because we are <u>one group</u> .
My supervisor protects me when W speaks ill of me. (protection)	<u>Family</u> members need to support and help one another.
My supervisor protects me when W speaks ill of me. (protection)	We are committed to supporting one another because we are <u>one group</u> .
My supervisor protects me when W speaks ill of me. (protection)	<u>In-group</u> members need to support and help one another.
My supervisor protects me when W speaks ill of me. (protection)	We are committed to supporting one another because we are <u>one group</u> .
My supervisor always asks me about difficulties I am having on the team and with my family. On my supervisor's birthday, we hold a small party for him. (party)	I think we are one big <u>family</u> .
My supervisor holds birthday party for anybody born in the same month in my department. (party)	We like one <u>family</u> .
My supervisor holds birthday party for anybody born in the same month in my department. (party)	We like one <u>family</u> .
We celebrate everybody's birthday. (party)	We like one <u>family</u> .
We celebrate everybody's birthday. (party)	We like one <u>family</u> .

## Appendix 12: Supervisors’ *Guanxi* and Reasons for OCB Engagement (Social Identity Process)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Social Identity Process
We need to give all subordinates’ the opportunity, the autonomy, and the time to complete their task. (support)	Yes. We value <i>guanxi</i> since it can make us view each other like <u>family members</u> .
In addition to work, I would like to help my subordinates in their personal matter. (support)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family memberships</u>
Being a supervisor means that you must try one’s best to help subordinates solve work-related and personal problems. For example, I quite often have a personal talk with my subordinates to understand what difficulties they encounter at work and in family. (support)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> in China can lead people to have standardized behaviour to do something for the other party based on their <u>identification with others</u> .
I need to let my subordinates know that I take care of them. (care)	Yes. The quality of relationship can motivate them to make efforts since we view we are <u>one group</u> .
I need to actively ask the personal problems encountered by my subordinates in private meeting. (care)	Yes. Supervisors need to make subordinates feel we like <u>family members</u> .
I care about my subordinates especially about the problems they have at work. (care)	Yes. He makes every effort to complete his task due to the facts <i>guanxi</i> cultivate <u>family liking relationship</u> .
I consult my subordinate before transferring her to another branch. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u>
I consult my subordinate before transferring her to another branch. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u>
I consult my subordinate before assigning her to another department. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u>
At work, when we have a problem, I always consult my subordinates. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .
At work, when we have a problem, I always consult my subordinates. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .
At work, when we have a problem, I always consult my subordinates. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .
At work, when we have a problem, I always consult my subordinates. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .
At work, when we have a problem, I always consult my subordinates. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .
I always consult my subordinates before making a decision. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership, trust and loyalty</u> .
I always consult my subordinates before making a decision. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u>
I need to praise my subordinates’ good performance.(good)	Yes. The quality of relationship can motivate them to make efforts since we

	view we are <u>one group</u> .
I value subordinates who work hard. (recognition)	Yes. <u>Group identity</u> motivates them to work hard.
I value subordinates who work hard. (recognition)	Yes. <u>Group identity</u> motivates them to work hard.
I need my subordinates to follow my order. (loyalty)	Yes. They work hard since we like <u>family members</u> .
My subordinates are faithful to me. (loyalty)	Yes. <u>Family membership</u> makes them work hard.
I like subordinate who have faith in me. (loyalty)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .
I like subordinate who have faith in me. (loyalty)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .
I like subordinates who are able to solve any problems at work.(competent)	Yes. Supervisors need to develop a <u>team spirit</u> .
<u>W is always honest to me on anything.</u> (honest)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u>
W is always honest to me on anything.(honest)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .
I have good <i>guanxi</i> with competent and loyal subordinates, who can tell me the truth about the problems in the workplace. (honest)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> would help us view our department as a <u>small family</u> in our organization.



### Appendix 13: Subordinates’ *Guanxi* and Reasons for OCB Engagement (Social Cognitive Process)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Social Cognitive Process
I am from Jilin Province. After getting the job here, I couldn’t rent a suitable house for myself. Having lived in a hotel for three days, the supervisor knew about that. She asked her relatives to empty one room to accommodate me temporally, and then, she asked everybody in the department to help me find my current accommodation. (help)	I feel that it is my <u>moral obligation</u> to work hard and ji-zhi-ji-zhe and wu-si-feng xian (go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization), otherwise I feel guilty.
My supervisor asked his friends to help me to buy a limited CD that was on offer, which is quite useful in my Japanese learning. (help)	He is always willingly to support me and care about myself. It is my <u>moral obligation</u> to do so.
My supervisor is quite willing to help solve our personal problems by making full use of his <i>guanxi</i> such as booking tickets for our holidays. (help)	It is my <u>obligation</u> to do so under his supervision.
My supervisor is quite willing to ask her daughter to provide help for my son’s study. (help)	It is my <u>moral obligation</u> to do so since he does not need us to reciprocate him.
My supervisor is quite willing to help me in getting another part-time job after work, because I need money to support my brother’s college fee. (job)	Generally, people like to make extra effort under his direction. To some extent, he is a nice guy, who provides us with the support he can offer. It is our <u>moral obligation</u> .
Compared with W’s former supervisor, W’s new supervisor does not take his/her wrong decision out on his/her subordinates (good).	The supervisor is fairly good, which motivates us to work hard under his supervision. We feel <u>obligated</u> to do so.
W’s supervisor treats him fairly even if he got on his bad side.(good)	My supervisor sets a good example and he is the moral example for us. Hence, there is a <u>moral obligation</u> for us to do so.
W’s supervisor still provides support to him, even if he criticizes her mistake. (good)	My supervisor is upright so that we’d like to follow him since we are <u>obligated</u> to do so.
W is open, selfless and honest to all of his subordinates. (attributes)	It is my <u>moral obligation</u> to do so.
W acts like an elder brother in the work team. (attributes)	We respect him so that we <u>feel obligated</u> to do so.
One’s supervisor would always go to visit his subordinates, whenever they are hospitalized if he could find the time, or otherwise send someone else to go on his behalf if he could find the time. (sickness)	It is my <u>moral obligation</u> to do so.

### Appendix 14: Supervisors’ *Guanxi* and Reasons for OCB Engagement (Social Cognitive Process)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Social Cognitive Process
I have a subordinate, who is not very handsome, leading to having his difficulty in finding a lover. However, he is very competent and outgoing. So, I tried my best to introduce several girls to him. At last, he found his lover with my help. (other help)	Yes. I think that in the <i>guanxi</i> relationship, people have their <u>obligation</u> to contribute to the welfare of the other party due to Chinese general social standard.
I am happy if my subordinates can be promoted so that I always provide them with opportunities to utilize their abilities particularly in presence of senior managers. (support)	Yes. It is due to the fact that we are Chinese, as a Chinese, we must exhibit some behaviours according to our <u>belief in obligation</u> .
W is unable to concentrate on her work due to her child’s illness. I require her to go home by taking over her work. (other help)	Yes. Morally, it is Chinese belief to have <u>obligation</u> towards those who are kind.

## Appendix 15: Subordinates' *Guanxi* and Reasons for OCB Engagement (Maybe)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Reasons
My supervisor bought somethings for me when he went on a business trip. (other help)	Maybe. But it depends on whether my contribution would be <u>recognized</u> .
My supervisor offered me some information about an internal opportunity for promotion. (support)	Maybe. But firstly, the <u>job</u> is the way to help us to <u>make a living</u> .
My immediate supervisor <u>helped</u> me find a job in my organization for my laid-off uncle.(support)	Maybe. It depends on my personal <u>virtues</u> .
My immediate supervisor <u>helped</u> me find a job in my organization for my laid-off wife. (support)	Maybe. I would not take more time to do so, because most importantly, I need to <u>complete my job</u> .
In general, when making decision related to me, my supervisor would inform me first. (good)	Maybe. It depends on whether I would <u>be rewarded</u> .
My supervisor respects my dignity. I am a professional in telecommunication. However, my boss wanted to cut off our research fund. My supervisor persuaded him out of doing so. (good)	Maybe. But I am <u>very busy</u> in my work.
My supervisor and I are from the same university, and he always cares about my personal needs such as my family welfare. (care)	Maybe. I would <u>help</u> those who would help me.
W's supervisor always seeks training opportunities for his subordinates.(support)	Maybe. <u>Some people left the organization after completing their study</u> .
My supervisor wants to listen to my thoughts. (care)	It depends upon <u>my time</u>
My supervisor wants to listen to my problems. (care)	It depends upon <u>my time</u>
My supervisor wants to listen to my needs. (care)	It depends upon <u>my time</u>
My supervisor wants to listen to my feelings. (care)	It depends upon <u>my time</u>
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	It depends upon <u>my time</u>
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the	It depends upon <u>my time</u>

company. (sickness)	
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	It depends upon <u>my time</u>
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	It depends upon <u>my time</u>
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	It depends upon <u>my time</u>
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	It depends upon <u>my time</u>
My supervisor uses his work experience to train me to pass the exams in the workplace. (support)	It depends upon <u>my time</u>
My supervisor uses his work experience to help me develop my abilities. (support)	I must complete my <u>task first.</u>
My supervisor shares his work experience with me. (support)	I must complete my <u>task first.</u>
W always comes to work first and is dedicated to supporting all of his subordinates. (support)	Maybe. Not all of his subordinates do so. Different people are different. <u>We need to complete our job first.</u>
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Maybe. I must complete my <u>task first.</u>
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Maybe. I must complete my <u>task first.</u>
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Maybe. First, I would get <u>recognition</u> from others, and second, I feel happy.
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Maybe. But I must complete my <u>task properly.</u>
My supervisor often organized a lunch or dinner for all of us. (dinner)	Maybe. But I must <u>complete my task properly</u> , because I believe that one good turn deserves another.
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Maybe. It depends on our <u>trust and loyalty</u>
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Maybe. I must complete my <u>task first.</u>
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Maybe. I must complete my <u>task first.</u>

I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Maybe. I <u>would like to support those in need, and they would support me when I am in need.</u>
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Maybe. But I must <u>complete my task properly.</u>
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	But I must <u>complete my task properly.</u>
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	But I must <u>complete my task properly</u>
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	But I must <u>complete my task properly</u>
My supervisor and I often <u>visit</u> each other after work. (other interaction)	Maybe. I must complete my <u>task first.</u>
My supervisor and I often go to gym together. (other interaction)	Maybe. But I <u>must complete my task properly.</u>
My supervisor and I often go to shopping together. (other interaction)	Maybe. There should be <u>other factors.</u>
My supervisor and I often attend college training together. (other interaction)	Maybe. Mutual <u>trust and loyalty.</u>
My supervisor and I often visit each other after work.(other interaction)	Maybe. Because others will <u>help</u> me as well, if I do so.
We often play football after work. (ball game)	Maybe. Mutual <u>trust and loyalty.</u>
We often play football after work. (ball game)	Maybe. No clue.
We often play basketball. (ball game)	Maybe. Other causes.
W defends me to others, who use my mistakes to personally attack me (protection)	Maybe. Other causes.
W's supervisor graduated from Renmin University. He is very good at dealing with interpersonal relationships with his subordinates. He often protects his subordinates on almost all occasions. (protection)	Maybe. Other causes.

Appendix 16: Supervisors’ *Guanxi* and Reasons for OCB Engagement (Maybe)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Reasons
I develop good <i>guanxi</i> with subordinates who can accomplish their jobs regardless of circumstances. (ability)	Maybe. It depends on the way our organization <u>treats</u> them.
In GE China, superior-subordinate <i>guanxi</i> is based on assistance and cooperation. There is no sense that who is superior and who is subordinate. (help)	Maybe. <u>Task performance</u> may be more important than Lei Feng behaviour.
Being a supervisor means you must have a good <i>guanxi</i> with your subordinates. For example, I found the merits of one of my subordinates, who was disliked by other supervisors. (recognition)	Maybe. There may be <u>other factors</u> that can be better to motivate them.

Appendix 17 a: Ingratiation and OCB (Subordinates)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Reasons
My supervisor is very vain. He always trusts people who have close <i>guanxi</i> with him by singing high praise for him. He never knows that if he was not the superior, nobody would like him. Last year, the company decided his retirement. Those people who have close <i>guanxi</i> with him have had indifferent attitude towards him from then on. (extol)	No.
W's supervisor likes Peking Opera very much. W attempts to find more theatre tickets for his supervisor. W often sings high praise for his supervisor classic taste in art. Thus, they have a very good <i>guanxi</i> . (extol)	No. He does not care our organization's <u>common goods</u> .
W often presents some paper in our in-house magazine regarding his supervisor's contribution to the organization. His supervisor on the one hand, is a committed guy, but on the other hand, he likes to be praised and likes to be recognized for his contribution by others. Therefore, W's behaviour suits his taste. (extol)	No.
W often invites his supervisor but not his coworkers to have lunch together. (service)	No. Never. They do not have such high <u>virtues</u> .
In most Chinese festival, W visited his superior with gifts. (service)	No.
W always helps all of his leaders but not his colleagues. (service)	No.
W and his supervisor operate a restaurant near our company. (service)	No. Lei Feng's behaviour is displayed by selfless persons.
W often buys expensive gifts for him on every festival. (service)	No. It is an insult to Lei Feng's behaviour.
W and his supervisor often have dinner together, and he always pays for their dinner. (service)	No. Never. They do not have such <u>virtue</u> .
W's supervisor is really a bad man. Now, he is in prison due to business bribery. But W was one of his best friends who provided individualized service for him. (service)	No. They do not have such <u>virtue</u> .

W is a new graduate assigned to a functional department in a state-owned bank. He is not eager to work hard, but is obedient to his supervisor. In order to achieve his personal goal, he often gives gift to his supervisor. As a result, the supervisor appointed him to an important position; W usually recruits some agency to work for the company by seeking his personal benefits at the expense of organizational loss. His supervisor does not care about this. (service)	No. Such behaviour is against Lei Feng behaviour.
A supervisor is satisfied with his secretary. The secretary always tries to suit every wish of supervisor. So he/she is appointed as director of a sub-unit. (service)	No. The secretary' service is to the supervisor only, which is irrelevant to Lei Feng behaviour as LF is dedicated to the service of the interests of the community.
In a state-owned bank, initially, a departmental head does not have a good <i>guanxi</i> with the director of the company. However, in order to get a promotion, he/she did sth for the director, which is against his moral. (service)	No. It is opposite Lei Feng behaviour.
W's supervisor is a good guy; W has difficulties in renting a cheap house. He helped W out. But W would like to build a <i>guanxi</i> with his superior, where he can gain more rather than contribute more. So, he went to another department, where he could reach his goal through extolling the new supervisor. (extol)	No.



Appendix 17 b: Exemplification and OCB (Subordinates)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Reasons
W was used to support his supervisor on anything at all. Thus, his supervisor was used to say W was his best friend. However, after his supervisor retired, W did not visit his supervisor on any Chinese holidays. On the contrary, W' s colleagues, who were used to be criticised by the supervisor visit the superior very so often to see whether they would be of any further help for that old man. (loyalty)	No. W <u>focuses on benefits for himself.</u>
W's supervisor likes committed persons. In this case, W tends to show he is very active (jiji) and loyal to the firm. For example, he brought about his radio for the celebration of Spring festival in the firm, which was damaged by others. (loyalty)	No. W is seldom to help us because there is no personal benefit.
W was used to protect his department's interests at the expense of other department. His supervisor likes him very much. (OCB)	No.
W's supervisor is a very good guy. He devoted himself to the company. He hopes everybody would act like him. In this case, W wrote a letter to him to disagree with one business project, aiming at being viewed as a highly committed person. (loyalty)	No. But I am afraid that he is aiming at showing he is a “good” subordinate.
W works in a department, which deals with daily enquiry from customer. It is a really boring job. W is dedicated to his job, and therefore, the company decided to promote W to be the head of another department. However, when W was free, he still went back to his former department to help. His former supervisor who now has the equal managerial level as W, suggested to Personnel that W likes to work in his former department and he wanted to go to W's department due to better departmental benefits, although he knew that W was interested in the new job. As a result, W is less motivated to concentrate on his work as usual. (OCB-voice) <sup>10</sup>	No.

<sup>10</sup> In this case, W's former supervisor is viewed as pseudo citizenship for his display of voice.

Appendix 17 c: False Pretence for Authority and OCB (Subordinates)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Reasons
W's supervisor exerts his personal authority in the work team. In such instance, W pretends to respect his authority through supporting him wholeheartedly in organizational meeting, but speaks ill of him outside work.	No.
W's supervisor demands respect and view his authority as very important. Thus, on everything, W follows his supervisor without question.	No.
My supervisor views his authority and face as are very important. If I do not support him, he would create difficulties for me. Therefore, I have to pretend to respect him.	No. He is despicable
My director might view him as the "king" in my department. Our sales figures are available on our intranet. However, I have to generate the data for him every time.	No. I'd like to do so, but my supervisor.....
W's director considers his face as most important. He is unable to accept any criticism. W ingratiate his supervisor and never challenges him at the presence of others. As a result, W got promotion very quickly.	No. W is less likely to display such behaviour. She is self-centred.
W has to pretend to respect his supervisor.	No.

Appendix 18 a: Supervisors’ Mistreatment and OCB (Subordinates)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Reasons
My supervisor views his authority and face as very important. If I find any of his mistakes, he would blame me for them (unsupportive)	No. He is a bad guy.
My supervisor is arrogant, selfish and does not value his staff. He does not respect us. He completed his post-doctoral research from USA, which gave him a lot of “air” as the “boss”. For example, when I drive for him daily, he can smoke my cigarettes, but when I smoked his cigarette, he got angry. (indifference)	No. I would not do so for him. He did not bring about American democracy in my department, but he is feudalistic-oriented.
My supervisor is indifferent to all of us and never cares about others. In the morning, we must greet him first; otherwise, he never greets us. Now there are many overseas-educated Chinese, but I do not understand why he was chosen. (indifference)	No. We would not do so. If I go to another company, I will do so.
My supervisor always cares about his personal promotion in the firm. He often take on tasks other departments do not like to do. When we speak to him, he says in the USA, he always does so. (unsupportive)	No. Actually, we do not like to work with him.
We have quite different working goals in the department. My supervisor wants to be promoted at the expense of our personal time and health. He always asks us to work overnight and bring work back to home. (unsupportive)	No. He is the reason.
My supervisor never supports us on anything. He represents the company. (unsupportive)	No. No reasons for all.
W signed a big business contract from Japan, where CCC (cleaning liquid for suits) is very popular. However, before he develops this product in the Chinese market, we do not agree with him and we are strongly against his opinion. He said in Japan, during his study, such product was very popular. However, we do not think such product is suitable in our city. He has not done any market research	No.

before introducing such new products. And then, he forced us to sell them. We cannot do this. (unsupportive)	
My supervisor sometimes speaks in an offensive manner to us, we are upset with his crudeness. (indifference)	No.
W always tries to give us work during our personal time. For example, everyday at 5.30 pm, he starts to talk about what we need to do tomorrow. So we have to listen to him, then, we are hurry to go home. (unsupportive)	No.
W seems kind to everybody. But we do not like him. In our meeting, he always says that he wants to listen to us. However, when we say something that are different from his ideas, he always argues with us. As a result, we stop contributing. Then, he tells our management team that he has created a participative working environment. It is not funny. I am afraid that it is the leadership skills he learned from Sweden. (unsupportive)	No.
W wants to get promotion. In order to achieve his goal, he forces all of us to compete with the other two sales teams. We have to try our best. Sometimes, we did not even have lunch. He is very bad. Nearly all of our experienced colleagues left the team. (unsupportive)	No. We do not like to help him but we would help each other.
W always has something to say, when we need to go back home. He is likely to ask us to do more work after we finish our shift. However, when we have problems to talk to him after work, he always says: "I am sorry, I finished my work today, and you need to talk with me tomorrow." When we speak to his superior, he argues that in USA, he never helps after work. When we said why he asked us to do some jobs after work, he was silent and embarrassed. (unsupportive)	No. He is unfair.

**Appendix 18 b: Distributive Injustice and OCB (Subordinates)**

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Reasons
W never listens to us. We do not care what modern management approach he is following, but we believe he is doing something that undermines our loyalty to the organization. For example, when the company allocated some accommodation for us, Xiao Zhang was in an emergent need, but he assigned that room to others in other department, who is his former student in the USA.	No. We will not do so for him.
My supervisor always wants us to work overtime without pay.	No.
My supervisor always wants us to work overtime without pay.	No.
My supervisor always gave us a lower level of pay compared with other department.	No.
My supervisor does not provide free lunch for us. Other department not only provides free lunch but they also have fringe benefits.	No.
Compared with other firms, we have a lower level of pay.	No.
Compared with other firms, we have a lower level of pay.	No.
Compared with other firms, we have a lower level of pay.	No.

Appendix 18 c: Procedural Injustice and OCB (Subordinates)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Reasons
W selected A to take over B as an account in my firm due to B having good <i>guanxi</i> with W. The result is that A left and B made our company account mess.(selection)	No. He is unfair.
W is always trying to recruit graduates from USA, Japan and Europe. However, he never offers a nice pay to native people. As a result, our company is unlikely to provide on-job training to those people. (selection)	No.
W used to use (unclear) management method aiming at breaking down the <i>guanxi</i> ties in our organization. However, what he did was to rebuild his own <i>guanxi</i> ties. I do not like the person he selected. Those guys never work hard compared to us. (cliquish culture)	No.
Do you know W recruits his son’s friends to our firm? (selection)	No.
W transferred from Heilongjiang Province to act as the head of my department. Three months later, he helped his nephew to transfer to my department as well. However, this guy can only read novel everyday. (selection)	No.
When we need computer engineer, W recommended his friend’s son. However, after working with him for two weeks, I would say he is a good expert but a bad coworker. But W is our supervisor and he insists in using this guy. (selection)	No.
My boss told me a story. I think it is relevant for your survey. It is interesting as well. The farther of the car driver is a good friend with my boss, the owner and the CEO of the company. Actually, this car driver is not very good at his job. But due to his farther’ closeness to my boss, my boss has to consider his farther’ face ( <i>mianzi</i> ). In this case, my boss always complains to me about his decision.(selection)	No.
My boss in the company wants to select and recruit the key departmental	No.

managers based on his closeness with those people. His aim is to maintain the authority in this family-owned company. However, those managers only want to get nice pay and some priority over other people. They stop our business from advancing. (selection)	
W in the recruitment process tries to select those who would be loyal to him. However, it is very funny after being recruited by our company, all those people do not respect him and are indifference to him. (selection)	No.
W is the former subordinate of my boss. When the new company was set up, my boss let this guy act as the associate manager of our company. However, this guy does not have a good budget control for himself, as W spent our company's money on his personal use. This is illegal. When my boss discovered this, w returned the money. Although my boss was angry with W, he still paid W and let him go without charge. (selection)	No.
My supervisor always fails to distinguish sincere people from others. He helped his brother-in-law to find a suitable job at my department. However, I spoke to him as my colleagues talking about the incompetence of that guy. Our <i>guanxi</i> turns bad. (selection)	No.
W tends to promote people who usually interact with him. (assessment)	No.
W always gives a better treatment to those guys who he considers as loyalty to him. This lead to his losing majority of subordinates' respect and trust. (cliquish culture)	No.
W gives a good performance appraisal to people having close <i>guanxi</i> with him. (assessment)	No.
W gives a good performance appraisal to people having close <i>guanxi</i> with him. (assessment)	No.
W gives a good performance appraisal to people having close <i>guanxi</i> with him. (assessment)	No.
W gives a good performance appraisal to people having close <i>guanxi</i> with him. (assessment)	No.

W is very bad. He always allocates easy jobs based on <i>guanxi</i> . I do not like him. (cliquish culture)	No.
W has a good <i>guanxi</i> with my supervisor. He never comes to work on time, and he never swipes in and swipes out. However, he still gets his full pay. (cliquish culture)	No. He is unfair.
My supervisor sometimes uses my company car to pick up his son. Actually, the driver tends to have a good <i>guanxi</i> with him. However, once, the driver wanted to use the company car; the supervisor said no. This turned into bad <i>guanxi</i> . The drivers complained to the organization several times about my supervisor. This lead to the supervisor's dismissal. (cliquish culture)	No. He is unfair.
W and subordinates who have a close <i>guanxi</i> with him use company money to pay for their own lunch. (cliquish culture)	No. He is unfair and silly.
W always uses our company car for the purpose of building good <i>guanxi</i> with his supervisor. (cliquish culture)	He is unfair.
W selects A to take over B as an account in my firm due to B having good <i>guanxi</i> with W. The result is that A left and B made our company account mess. (selection)	No.
W is always trying to recruit graduates from USA, Japan and Europe. However, he never offers a nice pay to native people. As a result, our company likes to provide on-job training to those people. (selection)	No.
W used to use (unclear) management method aiming at breaking down the <i>guanxi</i> tie in our organization. However, what he did was to rebuild his own <i>guanxi</i> tie. I do not like the person he selected. Those guys never work hard. (selection)	No.



Appendix 19 a: *Guanxi*, Trust and Loyalty (Subordinates in Social Exchange)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Social Exchange Process (Trust)	Social Exchange Process (Loyalty)
My supervisor helped me to find a job for my relatives from my hometown. (job)	Yes. I would trust him and be committed to him because of his <u>warm-heartedness and kindness</u> .	Yes. I would trust him and be committed to him because of his <u>warm-heartedness and kindness</u> .
My supervisor helped my nephew to find a job in my organization. (job)	Yes. He <u>cares</u> about my personal welfare.	Yes. He is always willingly to <u>support</u> me.
My supervisor helped me to find a job for my friend's son. (job)	Yes. He is <u>sincere</u> (chen-xin-chen-yi)	Yes. He is <u>supportive</u> .
My supervisor offered information for my child to seek for a job. (job)	Yes. We have <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u> in building up our <i>guanxi</i> .	Yes. We have <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u> in building up our <i>guanxi</i> .
My supervisor helped me to find some information on how to get a good health care centre for my parents.(other)	Yes. <u>Trust and loyalty</u> .	Yes. <u>Trust and loyalty</u> .
My supervisor helped me to find a good and reasonably priced restaurant for my wedding. (other help)	Yes. We have <u>mutual trust, support, care and loyalty</u>	<u>Yes. We have mutual trust, support, care and loyalty</u>
My supervisor bought somethings for me when he went on a business trip. (other help)	Yes. In our interaction process, I understand he is <u>a good guy</u> .	Yes. He is always dedicated to <u>supporting</u> us.
My supervisor helped me to find a house at a reasonable price. (property)	Yes. He <u>cares</u> about my personal welfare	Yes. He is always willingly to <u>support</u> me.
My supervisor helped me to find a good agent, whom could sell me a residential house. (property)	Yes. He <u>cares</u> about me more than himself.	<u>Yes. He is always willing to support me.</u>
My supervisor helped me to find a better real estate company for selling my residential house. (property)	Yes. He <u>cares</u> about me more than himself.	<u>Yes. He is always willing to support me.</u>
My supervisor helped me to find a house at a reasonable price. (property)	Yes. We have <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u>	Yes. We have mutual trust and loyalty
My supervisor helped me to	He <u>cares</u> about my	He <u>cares</u> about myself.

find a house at a reasonable price. (property)	personal welfare.	
My supervisor helped me to find a house at a reasonable price. (property)	Yes. We have <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u>	Yes. We have <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u>
My supervisor helped me to find a house at a reasonable price. (property)	Yes. The foundations of our <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u> .	Yes. The foundations <u>of our mutual trust and loyalty</u> .
My supervisor helped me to find a house at a reasonable price. (property)	Yes. <u>Our friendship</u>	Yes. <u>His support</u> .
My supervisor helped me to find a house at a reasonable price. (property)	Yes.	Yes.
My supervisor helped me to find a cheaper working team for decorating my house. (property)	Yes.	Yes.
My supervisor helped me bring out my colleagues to decorate my house. (property)	Yes. He is selfless and <u>cares</u> about my personal welfare.	Yes. He is always willingly <u>to support me and care about myself</u> .
My supervisor helped me to move into my new house. (property)	Yes. We have <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u>	Yes. We have <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u>
My supervisor helped me to correct my report after work. (support)	Yes. Trust and loyalty.	<u>Yes. Trust and loyalty</u> .
My supervisor helped me to get a quick access to training school (without having to go through a complicated admission procedure by calling them). (support)	<u>Trust and loyalty</u> .	He is always willingly to give up his personal time in <u>supporting</u> us.
My supervisor helped me to get a promotion opportunity by arguing with other competitors. (support)	Yes. He is <u>righteousness</u> .	Yes. He is <u>righteousness</u> .
My supervisor offered me some information about an internal opportunity for promotion. (support)	He is <u>honest</u> on any condition.	Yes. He is <u>righteousness</u> .
My supervisor helped me to work out job-related problems such as finding materials for my report. (support)	Yes. He is <u>humane</u> to me	Yes. <u>He is supportive</u> .
My supervisor used his work experience to help me	Yes. He is <u>humane</u> to me	Yes. He is <u>righteousness</u> .

improve my performance. (support)		
My supervisor helped me to adapt to the working environment since I was new at that time. (support)	Yes. He is <u>humane</u> to me	Yes. He is <u>supportive</u> .
My supervisor coached me to pass the exams in the workplace. (support)	Yes. He <u>cares</u> about me very much.	Yes. He is <u>supportive</u> .
My supervisor used his work experience to help me develop my competency. (support)	Yes. He is <u>humane</u> to me	Yes. He is <u>supportive</u> .
My supervisor shared his knowledge of job with me. (support)	Yes. We are <u>committed to each other and we trust each other</u> .	Yes. <u>We are committed to each other and we trust each other.</u>
W's supervisor used his professional skills to help all his subordinates to perform better. (support)	Yes. We are <u>committed to each other and we trust each other</u> .	Yes. We are committed to <u>each other and we trust each other.</u>
Once, I was assigned with a sudden task to complete. Unfortunately, my family had an emergency as well. After thinking about it carefully, I had to take a one-day leave. My initial thought was that my supervisor would not allow me to take leave. However, my supervisor gave me one day off without any hesitation. (support)	Yes. I would trust him and be committed to him because of his <u>warm-heartedness</u> and kindness.	Yes. I would trust him and be committed to him because his <u>warm-heartedness</u> and kindness.
I always actively share my personal difficulties with my supervisor and seek help. He is always ready to help me. (support)	Yes. He is <u>warm-hearted</u> .	Yes. He is always <u>willingly to support me and care about myself.</u>
I am from Jilin Province. After getting the job here, I couldn't rent a suitable house for myself. Having lived in a hotel for three days, the supervisor knew about that. She asked her relatives to empty one room to accommodate me	Yes. He is <u>sincere</u> (chen-xin-chen-yi)	Yes. He is supportive.

temporally, and then, she asked everybody in the department to help me find my current accommodation. (help)		
My supervisor asked his friends to help me to buy a limited CD that was on offer, which is quite useful in my Japanese learning. (help)	Yes. We have mutual <u>trust and loyalty</u> in building out <i>guanxi</i> .	<u>Yes. We have mutual trust and loyalty in building out <i>guanxi</i>.</u>
My supervisor is quite willing to help solve our personal problems by making full use of his <i>guanxi</i> such as booking tickets for our holidays. (help)	Yes. <u>Trust, loyalty and respect</u> are foundations of our <i>guanxi</i> .	<u>Yes. Trust, loyalty and respect</u> are foundations of our <i>guanxi</i> .
My supervisor is quite willing to ask her daughter to provide help for my son's study. (help)	Yes. <u>We have mutual trust, support, care and loyalty</u>	<u>Yes. We have mutual trust, support, care and loyalty</u>
My supervisor is quite willing to help me in getting another part-time job after work, because I need money to support my brother's college fee. (job)	Yes. In our interaction process, I understand he is <u>humane</u> .	<u>Yes. He is always dedicated to supporting us.</u>
Compared with W's former supervisor, W's new supervisor does not take his/her wrong decision out on his/her subordinates (good).	Yes.	Yes.
W's supervisor treats him fairly even if he got on his bad side.(good)	Yes.	Yes.
W's supervisor still provides support to him, even if he criticizes her mistake. (good)	Yes.	Yes.
W is open, selfless and honest to all of his subordinates. (attributes)	Yes.	Yes.
W acts like an elder brother in the work team. (attributes)	Yes.	Yes.
One's supervisor would always go to visit his subordinates, whenever they are hospitalized if he could find the time, or	Yes.	Yes.

otherwise send someone else to go on his behalf if he could find the time. (sickness)		
I am from Jilin Province. After getting the job here, I couldn't rent a suitable house for myself. Having lived in a hotel for three days, the supervisor knew about that. She asked her relatives to empty one room to accommodate me temporally, and then, she asked everybody in the department to help me find my current accommodation. (help)	Yes. The foundations of our mutual trust and loyalty are respecting one another and have a common <u>qingan tie</u> .	Yes.
My supervisor asked his friends to help me to buy a limited CD that was on offer, which is quite useful in my Japanese learning. (help)	Yes.	Yes.
My supervisor is quite willing to help solve our personal problems by making full use of his <u>guanxi</u> such as booking tickets for our holidays. (help)	Yes. He is <u>righteous</u> .	Yes. He is <u>supportive</u> .
My supervisor is quite willing to ask her daughter to provide help for my son's study. (help)	Yes.	Yes.
My supervisor is quite willing to help me in getting another part-time job after work, because I need money to support my brother's college fee. (job)	Yes.	Yes.
Compared with W's former supervisor, W's new supervisor does not take his/her wrong decision out on his/her subordinates (good).	Yes.	Yes.

Appendix 19 b: *Guanxi*, Trust and Loyalty (Supervisors in Social Exchange)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Social Exchange (Trust)	Social Exchange (Loyalty)
I value subordinates who can take initiative to complete the task that I allocated. (recognition)	Yes. We have <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u>	Yes. We have <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u> .
I have a subordinate, who is incompetent, but he always tries his best to perform his job. I like him and I deliberately find a good position for him, which does not require high competence. (recognition)	Yes. Because they are always <u>honest</u> to me.	Yes. Because we <u>support</u> each other.
If I learn that there is any wedding, funeral and other related matters for my subordinates or their related persons, I must show my kindness to them. For example, last month, I [the supervisor] bought a present (suit) for one of my subordinates on the occasion of his brother's wedding. After he [subordinate] returned, he told everyone that his mother thought he was a good worker since I bought a present and gave him face. (personal care)	Yes. Because they are always <u>honest</u> to me.	Yes. Because we <u>support</u> each other.
I care about my subordinates especially the problems they have at work. (personal care)	Yes. Because they are always <u>honest</u> to me.	Yes. Because we support each other.
I always consult my subordinates before making a decision such as allocating housing. (good treatment)	Yes. We have <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u>	Yes. If there is <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u> in <i>guanxi</i> .
There are two aspects of developing good <i>guanxi</i> with subordinates: one is to care about their personal needs, problems, and/ or their family related marriage and funeral, sickness and welfare. The other aspect is	Yes. High level of <u>support</u> can gain subordinates' trust.	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> enables us to believe we will <u>support</u> each other.

to provide coach, feedback and support in their work. (support)		
W is qualified as chief certified accountant in September 2006. However, our personnel failed to inform her. When I [supervisor] found this out, I went to speak to our associate manager to help her to successfully apply for a certificate. (support)	Yes. Because on any condition, I will <u>support</u> my subordinates.	Yes. Due to my <u>kindness and support</u> .
I always consult my subordinates before making a decision such as allocating housing. (good)	Yes. I trust my subordinates' <u>ability</u> .	Yes. Because I <u>respect</u> them and <u>treat them well</u> .
I have a subordinate, who is not very handsome, leading to his difficulties in finding his lover. However, he is very competent and outgoing. So, I try my best to introduce several girls to him. At last, he found his lover with my help. (support)	Yes. Due to <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u>	Yes. Due to <u>mutual trust and loyalty</u>
I am happy that if my subordinates can be promoted so that I always provide them with opportunities to utilize their abilities particularly in the presence of senior managers. (support)	Yes. Due to my <u>support</u>	Yes. Due to my <u>support</u>
W is unable to concentrate on her work due to her child's illness. I require her to go home by taking over her work.(support)	Yes. Due to my <u>support</u>	Yes. Due to my <u>support</u>
I am happy that if my subordinates can be promoted so that I always provide them with opportunities to utilize their abilities particularly in the presence of senior managers. (support)	Yes.	Yes.

Appendix 20 a: *Guanxi*, Trust and Loyalty (Subordinates in Social Identity)

Examples of <i>Guanxi</i>	Social Identity Process	
On any team members' or their family members' funeral, my supervisor would attend and help. (care)	We are <u>one group</u> .	We are <u>one group</u> .
On my colleague's children's wedding, my supervisor would attend and send him/her gifts. (care)	We are <u>one group</u>	We are <u>one group</u>
On most important Chinese festival, my supervisor would definitely invite all of us to have lunch or dinner at his home. (care)	We are <u>one group</u>	We are <u>one group</u>
My supervisor cares about my work environment such as buying spring water in summer. (care)	I think we are one big <u>family</u> .	I think we are one big <u>family</u> .
My supervisor cares about our family's problems through his visits to everybody. (care)	We like one <u>family</u> .	We like one <u>family</u> .
My supervisor cares about one disabled person in my department. (care)	We like one <u>family</u> .	We like one <u>family</u> .
In late shift, my supervisor always pays for all females workers taxi fee. (care)	We like one <u>family</u> .	We like one <u>family</u> .
My supervisor cares about my son's study by letting us know about a home teacher for me. (care)	We like one <u>family</u> .	We like one <u>family</u> .
My supervisor cares about my work condition such as buying spring water in summer. (care)	Because we are <u>one group</u> .	Because we are <u>one group</u> .
My supervisor cares about our family's problem through his visit to everybody. (care)	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.
My supervisor cares about one disabled person in my department. (care)	Because we are <u>one group</u> .	Because we are <u>one group</u> .
In late shift, my supervisor always pays for all females	Because we are <u>one group</u> .	Because we are <u>one group</u> .



workers taxi fee. (care)		
My supervisor cares about my son's study by letting us know about a home teacher. (support)	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.
My supervisor cares about my wife's job by helping find a good training course.(support)	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.
My supervisor cares about my wife' job. (care)	We like one <u>family</u> .	We like one <u>family</u> .
My supervisor cares about my parents' sickness by letting us know about a famous doctor. (support)	We like one <u>family</u> .	We like one <u>family</u> .
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	We like one <u>family</u> .	We like one <u>family</u> .
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	We like one <u>family</u> .	We like one <u>family</u> .
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	We like one <u>family</u> .	We like one <u>family</u> .
One's supervisor would always go to visit his subordinates, whenever they are hospitalized if he could find the time, or otherwise send someone else to go on his behalf if he	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.

could find the time. (sickness)		
One's supervisor would always go to visit his subordinates, whenever they are hospitalized if he could find the time, or otherwise send someone else to go on his behalf if he could find the time. (sickness)	Because we are <u>one group</u> .	Because we are <u>one group</u> .
One's supervisor would always go to visit his subordinates, whenever they are hospitalized if he could find the time, or otherwise send someone else to go on his behalf if he could find the time. (sickness)	Because we are <u>one group</u> .	Because we are <u>one group</u> .
One's supervisor would always go to visit his subordinates, whenever they are hospitalized if he could find the time, or otherwise send someone else to go on his behalf if he could find the time. (sickness)	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.	In-group members need to trust and commit to one another.
One's supervisor would always go to visit his subordinates, whenever they are hospitalized if he could find the time, or otherwise send someone else to go on his behalf if he could find the time. (sickness)	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.	In-group members need to trust and commit to one another.
One's supervisor would always go to visit his subordinates, whenever they are hospitalized if he could find the time, or otherwise send someone else to go on his behalf if he could find the time. (sickness)	We like one <u>family</u> .	We like one <u>family</u> .
One's supervisor would always go to visit his subordinates, whenever they	In-group members need to trust and commit to one another.	In-group members need to trust and commit to one another.

are hospitalized if he could find the time, or otherwise send someone else to go on his behalf if he could find the time. (sickness)		
When there are conflicting opinions about my project in the company meeting my supervisor will always stand on my side (protection)	In-group members need to trust and commit to one another.	In-group members need to trust and commit to one another.
When there are conflicting opinions about my project in the company meeting my supervisor will always stand on my side (protection)	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.
When there are conflicting opinions about my project in the company meeting my supervisor will always stand on my side (protection)	We like one <u>family</u> .	We like one <u>family</u> .
When there are conflicting opinions about my project in the company meeting my supervisor will always stand on my side (protection)	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.
When there are conflicting opinions about my project in the company meeting my supervisor will always stand on my side (protection)	We are committed to supporting one another because we are <u>one group</u> .	We are committed to supporting one another because we are <u>one group</u> .
My supervisor protects me when W speaks ill of me. (protection)	<u>Family</u> members need to support and help one another.	<u>Family</u> members need to support and help one another.
My supervisor protects me when W speaks ill of me. (protection)	Because we are <u>one group</u> .	Because we are <u>one group</u> .
My supervisor protects me when W speaks ill of me. (protection)	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.	<u>In-group</u> members need to trust and commit to one another.
My supervisor protects me when W speaks ill of me. (protection)	Because we are <u>one group</u> .	Because we are <u>one group</u> .

Appendix 20 b: *Guanxi*, Trust and Loyalty (Supervisors in Social Identity)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Social Identity (Trust)	Social Identity (Loyalty)
We need to praise my subordinates' good performance.(good)	Yes. The quality of relationship can motivate them to make efforts since we view we are <u>one group</u> .	Yes. The quality of relationship can motivate them to make efforts since we view we are <u>one group</u> .
We need to give all subordinates the opportunity, the autonomy, and the time to complete their task. (good)	Yes. We value <i>guanxi</i> since it can make us view each other <u>like family members</u> .	Yes. We value <i>guanxi</i> since it can make us view each other <u>like family members</u> .
I care about my subordinates especially the problems at work they have. (care)	Yes. He makes every effort to complete his task due to the facts that <i>guanxi</i> cultivate <u>family like relationship</u>	Yes. He makes every effort to complete his task due to the facts that <i>guanxi</i> cultivate <u>family like relationship</u>
Being a supervisor means that you must try one's best to help subordinates solve work-related and personal problems. For example, I quite often have a personal talk with my subordinates to understand what difficulties they encountered at work and in family. (care)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> in China can lead people to have standardized behaviour to do something for the other party based on their <u>identification with others</u> .	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> in China can lead people to have standardized behaviour to do something for the other party based on their <u>identification with others</u> .
I need to let my subordinates know that I take care of them. (care)	Yes. The quality of relationship can motivate them to make efforts since we view we are <u>one group</u> .	Yes. The quality of relationship can motivate them to make efforts since we view we are <u>one group</u> .
I need to actively ask the personal problems encountered by my subordinates in private meeting. (care)	Yes. Supervisors need to make subordinates feel we like <u>family members</u> .	Yes. Supervisors need to make subordinates feel we like family members.
I like subordinates who are able to solve any problems at work.(ability)	Yes. Supervisors need to develop a <u>team spirit</u> .	Yes. Supervisors need to develop a <u>team spirit</u> .
In addition to work, I would like to help my subordinates in their personal matter. (support)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family memberships</u>	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family memberships</u>
W is always honest to me on any condition. (honest)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u> .	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops family membership
W is always honest to me on any condition.(honest)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .
I have good <i>guanxi</i> with competent and loyal subordinates, who can tell me the truth about the problems in the workplace. .(honest)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> would help us view our department as a small <u>family</u> in our organization.	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> would help us view our department as a small <u>family</u> in our organization.

I consult my subordinate before transferring her to another branch.(good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u>	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u>
I consult my subordinate before transferring her to another branch. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u>	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u>
I consult my subordinate before assigning her to another department. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u>	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u>
At work, when we have problem, I always consult my subordinates. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .
At work, when we have problem, I always consult my subordinates. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .
At work, when we have problem, I always consult my subordinates. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .
At work, when we have problem, I always consult my subordinates. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> <u>develops team identity</u> .	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> <u>develops team identity</u> .
At work, when we have problem, I always consult my subordinates. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> <u>develops team identity</u> .	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> <u>develops team identity</u> .
I always consult my subordinates before making a decision. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u> , trust and loyalty.	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u> , trust and loyalty.
I always consult my subordinates before making a decision. (good)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>family membership</u>	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops family membership
I value subordinates who work hard. (recognition)	Yes. <u>Group identity</u> motivates them to work hard.	Yes. <u>Group identity</u> motivates them to work hard.
I value subordinates who work hard. (recognition)	Yes. <u>Group identity</u> motivates them to work hard.	Yes. <u>Group identity</u> motivates them to work hard.
I need my subordinates to follow my order.(loyalty)	Yes. They work hard since we like <u>family members</u> .	Yes. They work hard since we like <u>family members</u> .
My subordinates are faithful to me. (loyalty)	Yes. <u>Family membership</u> makes them work hard.	Yes. <u>Family membership</u> makes them work hard.
I like subordinate who have faith in me. (loyalty)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .
I like subordinate who have faith in me (loyalty)	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .	Yes. <i>Guanxi</i> develops <u>team identity</u> .

Appendix 21: *Guanxi*, Trust and Loyalty (Subordinates in Theory of Reasoned Action)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Theory of Reasoned Action
Once, I was assigned with a sudden task to complete. Unfortunately, my family had an emergency as well. After thinking about it carefully, I had to take a one-day leave. My initial thought was that my supervisor would not allow me to take leave. However, my supervisor gave me one day off without any hesitation. (support)	Well. We think in our society, <i>guanxi</i> <u>generates loyalty and trust together because <i>guanxi</i> means long-term orientation, requiring trust and loyalty.</u>
My supervisor helped me to bring out my colleagues in decorating my new house. (support)	In China, when you'd like to have a high level of <i>guanxi</i> with others, trust and loyalty would be developed as well because it is <u>common sense</u> .
My supervisor helped me to correct my report after work. (support)	It is Chinese <u>norm</u> to trust and commit to each other within the <i>guanxi</i> web.
My supervisor helped me get a promotion opportunity by arguing with other competitors. (support)	It is Chinese <u>norm</u> to trust and commit to each other within the <i>guanxi</i> web.
W often defends his newcomers before a superior or others in the organization, and if there really is a mistake, he will coach those new staff personally. (protection)	It is Chinese <u>norm</u> to trust and commit to each other within the <i>guanxi</i> web.
W often defends his newcomers before a superior or others in the organization, and if there really is a mistake, he will coach those new staff personally. (protection)	It is Chinese <u>norm</u> to trust and commit to each other within the <i>guanxi</i> web.
I have a manager, who tends to maintain his authority in our organization. When a subordinate makes a mistake, he would always blame him. However, my supervisor consistently defends him on almost every occasion where the protection for the subordinates is needed. (protection)	In China, when you'd like to have a high level of <i>guanxi</i> with others, the trust and loyalty would be developed as well because it is <u>common norm</u> .
W is a perfect supervisor. In the organization, people tend to work under his supervision. After work, people tend to party with him. (protection)	It is Chinese <u>norm</u> to trust and commit to each other within the <i>guanxi</i> web so that we can have frank communication.

**Appendix 22 a: Guanxi, Trust and Loyalty (Subordinates who disagreed guanxi can enhance OCB)**

Critical Incidents of Guanxi	Social Exchange Process	Social Exchange Process
My immediate supervisor bought something for me when he is on business trip. (support)	Yes. Our <u>friendship</u>	Yes. Our <u>friendship</u>
My immediate supervisor offered me information about internal promotion opportunities.(support)	Yes. <u>Trust and loyalty</u> are important in our mutual interaction.	Yes. <u>Trust and loyalty</u> are important in our mutual interaction.
My immediate supervisor helped me to find a job in my organization for my laid off uncle. (support)	Yes. As a member of our group, our <u>trust and loyalty</u> are based on the conditions that we identified the job that makes us interdependent on one another.	Yes. As a member of our group, our <u>trust and loyalty</u> are based on the conditions that we identified the job that makes us interdependent on one another.
My immediate supervisor helped me to find a job in my organization for my laid off uncle. (support)	Yes. In work team, without <u>trust and loyalty</u> , <u>nothing</u> would be achieved.	Yes. We are one work team, without <u>trust and loyalty</u> , nothing would be achieved.
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor (dinner)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>kind-hearted</u> .	Yes. In our interaction, he shows <u>frank</u>
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>kind-hearted</u>	Maybe
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>good and honest</u> ,	Yes. <u>Upright</u> ,
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>kind-hearted</u>	Maybe
My supervisor often organizes a lunch or dinner for all of us. (dinner)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>kind-hearted</u>	Maybe
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>good and honest</u> ,	Yes. <u>Upright</u> .
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>good and honest</u> ,	Yes. <u>Upright</u> .
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Yes. In our interaction, he <u>is</u> <u>kind-hearted</u>	Maybe
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>benevolent</u> .	Maybe
My supervisor and I often	Yes. In our interaction, he is	Yes. In our interaction, he is



visit each other after work. (other interaction)	<u>kind</u>	<u>frank</u>
My supervisor and I often go to gym together. (other interaction)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>kind-hearted</u>	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>frank</u>
My supervisor and I often went to shopping together. (other interaction)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>integrity</u>	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>integrity</u>
My supervisor and I often attend college training together. (other interaction)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>kind-hearted</u>	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>frank</u>
My supervisor and I often visit each other after work (other interaction)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>kind-hearted</u>	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>frank</u>
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>kind-hearted</u>	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>frank</u>
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>kind-hearted</u>	Maybe.
I often have lunch or dinner with my supervisor. (dinner)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>good and honest.</u>	Maybe.
We often play football after work. (playing ball games)	Yes. He is <u>considerate.</u>	Yes. He is <u>supportive.</u>
We often play football after work. (playing ball games)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>humane.</u>	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>supportive</u> in my work.
We often play basketball. (playing ball games)	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>humane.</u>	Yes. In our interaction, he is <u>righteousness.</u>
W defends me to others, who use my mistakes to personally attack me (protection)	Yes. He <u>never deceives us.</u>	Yes. He is <u>righteous and honest.</u>
In general, when making decision related to me, my supervisor would inform me firstly. (good)	Yes. We like each other and <u>we have mutual trust and loyalty.</u>	Yes. We like each other and <u>we have mutual trust and loyalty.</u>
My supervisor respects my dignity. I was a professional in telecommunication. However, my boss wanted to cut off our research fund. My supervisor persuaded him out of doing so. (good)	Yes. We are committed to <u>supporting</u> each other.	Maybe
My supervisor and I are from the same university, and he always care about my personal needs such as my family welfare.(care)	Yes. <u>We have mutual trust and loyalty.</u>	Yes. <u>We have mutual trust and loyalty.</u>
W's supervisor graduated from Renmin University. He is very good at dealing with interpersonal relationships	Yes. He <u>cares</u> about his subordinates.	Yes. He <u>cares</u> about his subordinates.



with his subordinates. He often protects his subordinates on anything at all. (protection)		
W's supervisor always seeks training opportunities for his subordinates. (support)	Yes. He <u>supports</u> his subordinates.	Maybe
W always firstly comes to work and is dedicated to supporting all of his subordinates. (support)	Yes. His subordinates have high level of <u>trust and loyalty</u> to him because they view him as their elder brother.	Maybe.

<b>Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i></b>	<b>Social Identity Process</b>	<b>Social Identity Process</b>
My supervisor always actively wants to listen to my thoughts. (care)	Yes. He views himself as one member of <u>our group</u> .	Yes. He views himself as one member of <u>our group</u> .
My supervisor always actively wants to listen to my problems. (care)	Yes. He views himself as one member of <u>our group</u> .	Yes. He views himself as one member of <u>our group</u> .
My supervisor always actively wants to listen to my needs. (care)	Yes. He views himself as one member of <u>our group</u> .	Yes. He views himself as one member of <u>our group</u> .
My supervisor always actively wants to listen to my feelings. (care)	Yes. He views himself as one member of <u>our group</u> .	Yes. He views himself as <u>one member of our group</u> .
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	Yes. Because we like one big <u>family</u>	Yes. Because we like one big <u>family</u>
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	Yes. He views himself as one member of <u>our group</u> .	Yes. We are committed to supporting one another because we are <u>one group</u> .
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	Yes. He views himself as one member of <u>our group</u> .	Yes. We are committed to supporting one another because we are <u>one group</u> .
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern	Yes. He views himself as one member of <u>our group</u> .	Yes. We are committed to supporting one another because we are <u>one group</u> .

and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)		
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	Yes. He views himself as one member of <u>our group</u> .	Yes. We are committed to supporting one another because we are <u>one group</u> .
When family members are sick or have an accident, my supervisor would ask people in his office to show concern and to help whichever when possible to the company. (sickness)	Yes. Yes. Because we like <u>one big family</u>	Yes. <u>Family members</u> need to support and help one another.
My supervisor uses his job experience to coach me to pass the exams in the workplace. (support)	Yes. Because we like <u>one big family</u>	Yes. Because we like one <u>big family</u>
My supervisor uses his job experience to help me develop my abilities. (support)	Yes. Because we like <u>one big family</u>	Yes. Because we like one <u>big family</u>
My supervisor shares his work experience with me. (support)	Yes. Because we like <u>one big family</u>	Yes. Because we like one <u>big family</u>

**Appendix 22 b: *Guanxi*, Trust and Loyalty (Supervisors who disagreed *guanxi* can enhance OCB)**

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Reasons	
I develop good <i>guanxi</i> with subordinates who can accomplish their jobs regardless of circumstances.	Yes. Due to my <u>support</u> .	Maybe. Difficult to say.
In GE China, superior-subordinate <i>guanxi</i> is based on assistance and cooperation. There is no sense that who is superior and who is subordinate.	Yes. Due to the <u>organizational culture</u> .	Maybe.
Being a supervisor means you must have a good <i>guanxi</i> with your subordinates. For example, I found the merits of one of my subordinates, who was disliked by other supervisors.	Yes. I trust his <u>ability</u> .	Yes.

Appendix 23 a: Ingratiation (Subordinates)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Reasons	
My supervisor is very vain. He always trusts people who have close <i>guanxi</i> with him by singing high praise for him. He never knows that if he was not the superior, nobody would like him. Last year, the company decided his retirement. Those people who have close <i>guanxi</i> with him have had indifferent attitude towards him from then on. (extol)	Yes. He trusts those guys.	Yes. He is committed to providing service to those guys.
W's supervisor likes Peking Opera very much. W attempts to find more theatre tickets for his supervisor. W often sings high praise for his supervisor classic taste in art. Thus, they have a very good <i>guanxi</i> . (extol)	No. W speaks ill of his supervisor without his presence.	No. W speaks ill of his supervisor without his presence.
W often presents some paper in our in-house magazine regarding his supervisor's contribution to the organization. His supervisor on the one hand, is a committed guy, but on the other hand, he likes to be praised and likes to be recognized for his contribution by others. Therefore, W's behaviour suits his taste. (extol)	No. This team failed to complete one important project, which led to the supervisor's resign from the organization. But this guy is good, because he attributed the failure to himself, without blaming his subordinates. However, W did not support his supervisor as usual. On the contrary, he spoke to personnel about the failure of the project attributable to his supervisor.	
W often invites his supervisor but not his coworkers to have lunch together. (service)	No. They only care about their own interest.	No.
In most Chinese festival, W visited his superior with gifts. (service)	No. He always does so to build <i>guanxi</i> with any superior.	No. He always does so to build <i>guanxi</i> with any superior.
W always helps all of his leaders but not his colleagues. (service)	No.	No. He does not have a good personal integrity.
W and his supervisor operate a restaurant near our company. (service)	Yes. They have common interests.	Yes. They have common interests.
W often buys expensive gifts for him on every festival. (service)	No.	No.
W and his supervisor often have dinner together, and he always	No. They only care about their own interest.	No. In front of conflicting interests, they only concern

pays for their dinner. (service)		themselves.
W's supervisor is really a bad man. Now, he is in prison due to business bribery. But W was one of his best friends who provided individualized service for him. (service)	No. When the guy was in prison, W reported to the inspectors that his supervisor forced him to do so.	
W is a new graduate assigned to a functional department in a state-owned bank. He is not eager to work hard, but is obedient to his supervisor. In order to achieve his personal goal, he often gives gift to his supervisor. As a result, the supervisor appointed him to an important position; W usually recruits some agency to work for the company by seeking his personal benefits at the expense of organizational loss. His supervisor does not care about this. (service)	Yes. Such mutual trust is based on their unethical means and self-centred motives.	No. they only seek their own self-interests.
A supervisor is satisfied with his secretary. The secretary always tries to suit every wish of supervisor. So he/she is appointed as director of a sub-unit. (service)	Yes. The secretary is promoted because of her loyalty to the supervisor.	
In a state-owned bank, initially, a departmental head does not have a good <i>guanxi</i> with the director of the company. However, in order to get a promotion, he/she did sth for the director, which is against his moral. (service)	Yes, their <i>guanxi</i> is based on their mutual trust. But such trust is not firm, if the situation changes (the director has been under disciplinary procedure), their <i>guanxi</i> would disappear.	No loyalty. It is based on their making full use of each other.
W's supervisor is a good guy; W has difficulties in renting a cheap house. He helped W out. But W would like to build a <i>guanxi</i> with his superior, where he can gain more rather than contribute more. So, he went to another department, where he could reach his goal through extolling the new supervisor. (extol)	No. Because his superior is very fair to all of his subordinates, W wants to have priority over others such as housing allocation, and therefore, he went to other department.	Yes. His supervisor shows loyalty to all people. He is a really a gentleman (junzi).

Appendix 23 b Exemplification (Subordinates)

Critical Incidents of Guanxi	Reasons	
W was used to support his supervisor on anything at all. Thus, his supervisor was used to say W was his best friend. However, after his supervisor retired, W did not visit his supervisor on any Chinese holidays. On the contrary, W' s colleagues, who were used to be criticised by the supervisor visit the superior very so often to see whether they would be of any further help for that old man. (loyalty)	Not really. His supervisor showed trust and loyalty to W. But W <u>pretended</u> to show loyalty and trust to his supervisor in the past. W did not display consistent loyalty to his supervisor after one's retirement.	
W's supervisor likes committed persons. In this case, W tends to show he is very active (jiji) and loyal to the firm. For example, he brought about his radio for the celebration of Spring festival in the firm, which was damaged by others. (loyalty)	Yes. His supervisor trusts him and is committed to protecting W. He protected W and other subordinates like a big brother.	Yes.
W was used to protect his department's interests at the expense of other department. His supervisor likes him very much. (OCB)	Yes. They are tied by common interests.	Yes. They are tied by common interests.
W's supervisor is a very good guy. He devoted himself to the company. He hopes everybody would act like him. In this case, W wrote a letter to him to disagree with one business project, aiming at being viewed as a highly committed person. (loyalty)	No. He said his supervisor is very silly on other occasions.	
W works in a department, which deals with daily	No. W's former supervisor tried to <u>cheat</u> personnel.	

<p>enquiry from customer. It is a really boring job. W is dedicated to his job, and therefore, the company decided to promote W to be the head of another department. However, when W was free, he still went back to his former department to help. His former supervisor who now has the equal managerial level as W, suggested to Personnel that W likes to work in his former department and he wanted to go to W's department due to better departmental benefits, although he knew that W was interested in the new job. As a result, W is less motivated to concentrate on his work as usual. (OCB-voice)<sup>11</sup></p>		
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<sup>11</sup> In this case, W's former supervisor is viewed as pseudo citizenship for his display of voice.

Appendix 23 c False Pretence for Authority (Subordinates)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Reasons	
W's supervisor exerts his personal authority in the work team. In such instance, W pretends to respect his authority through supporting him wholeheartedly in organizational meeting, but speaks ill of him outside work.	Yes. His supervisor trusts him and provides plenty of personal support by using organizational resources, such as assigning W's son to our company.	No.
W's supervisor demands respect and view his authority as very important. Thus, on everything, W follows his supervisor without question.	No. When he left, he said his former boss was a very bad and <u>selfish</u> guy.	No. As I mentioned, he <u>pretended</u> to support his supervisor.
My supervisor views his authority and face as are very important. If I do not support him, he would create difficulties for me. Therefore, I have to pretend to respect him.	No. He is <u>despicable</u>	No. He is <u>despicable</u>
My director might view him as the "king" in my department. Our sales figures are available on our intranet. However, I have to generate the data for him every time.	No.	No.
W's director considers his face as most important. He is unable to accept any criticism. W ingratiate his supervisor and never challenges him at the presence of others. As a result, W got promotion very quickly.	Yes. The supervisor trusts W. But W does not trust her supervisor.	Yes. The supervisor is committed to supporting W. But W does not commit to her supervisor all the time.
W has to pretend to respect his supervisor.	Yes. His supervisor trusts him and provides plenty of personal support by using organizational resources, such as assigning W's son to our company.	Yes. His supervisor trusts him and provides plenty of personal support by using organizational resources, such as assigning W's son to our company.



Appendix 24 a Supervisors’ Mistreatment (Subordinates)

Critical Incident of Guanxi	Reasons	
My supervisor views his authority and face as very important. If I find any of his mistakes, he would blame me for them (unsupportive)	No. He is a bad guy.	No. He is a bad guy.
My supervisor is arrogant, selfish and does not value his staff. He does not respect us. He completed his post-doctoral research from USA, which gave him a lot of “air” as the “boss”. For example, when I drive for him daily, he can smoke my cigarettes, but when I smoked his cigarette, he got angry. (indifference)	No. He is the reason.	No. He is the reason.
My supervisor is indifferent to all of us and never cares about others. In the morning, we must greet him first; otherwise, he never greets us. Now there are many overseas-educated Chinese, but I do not understand why he was chosen. (indifference)	No. He is the reason.	No. He is the reason.
My supervisor always cares about his personal promotion in the firm. He often take on tasks other departments do not like to do. When we speak to him, he says in the USA, he always does so. (unsupportive)	No. Actually, we do not like to work with him.	No. Actually, we do not like to work with him.
We have quite different working goals in the department. My supervisor wants to be promoted at the	No. He is the reason.	No. He is the reason.

expense of our personal time and health. He always asks us to work overnight and bring work back to home. (unsupportive)		
My supervisor never supports us on anything. He represents the company. (unsupportive)	No. No reasons for all.	No. No reasons for all.
W signed a big business contract from Japan, where CCC (cleaning liquid for suits) is very popular. However, before he develops this product in the Chinese market, we do not agree with him and we are strongly against his opinion. He said in Japan, during his study, such product was very popular. However, we do not think such product is suitable in our city. He has not done any market research before introducing such new products. And then, he forced us to sell them. We cannot do this. (unsupportive)	No.	No.
My supervisor sometimes speaks in an offensive manner to us, we are upset with his crudeness. (indifference)	No.	No.
W always tries to give us work during our personal time. For example, everyday at 5.30 pm, he starts to talk about what we need to do tomorrow. So we have to listen to him, then, we are hurry to go home. (unsupportive)	No.	No.
W seems kind to everybody. But we do not like him. In our meeting, he always says that he wants to listen to us. However, when we say	No.	No.

something that are different from his ideas, he always argues with us. As a result, we stop contributing. Then, he tells our management team that he has created a participative working environment. It is not funny. I am afraid that it is the leadership skills he learned from Sweden. (unsupportive)		
W wants to get promotion. In order to achieve his goal, he forces all of us to compete with the other two sales teams. We have to try our best. Sometimes, we did not even have lunch. He is very bad. Nearly all of our experienced colleagues left the team. (unsupportive)	No. He is the reason.	No. He is the reason.
W always has something to say, when we need to go back home. He is likely to ask us to do more work after we finish our shift. However, when we have problems to talk to him after work, he always says: "I am sorry, I finished my work today, and you need to talk with me tomorrow." When we speak to his superior, he argues that in USA, he never helps after work. When we said why he asked us to do some jobs after work, he was silent and embarrassed. (unsupportive)	No. He is unfair.	No. He is unfair.

Appendix 24 b: Distributive Injustice (Subordinates)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Reasons	
W never listens to us. We do not care what modern management approach he is following, but we believe he is doing something that undermines our loyalty to the organization. For example, when the company allocated some accommodation for us, Xiao Zhang was in an emergent need, but he assigned that room to others in other department, who is his former student in the USA.	No. He is the reason.	No. He is the reason.
My supervisor always wants us to work overtime without pay.	No.	No.
My supervisor always wants us to work overtime without pay.	No.	No.
My supervisor always gave us a lower level of pay compared with other department.	No.	No.
My supervisor does not provide free lunch for us. Other department not only provides free lunch but they also have fringe benefits.	No.	No.
Compared with other firms, we have a lower level of pay.	No.	No.
Compared with other firms, we have a lower level of pay.	No.	No.
Compared with other firms, we have a lower level of pay.	No.	No.

Appendix 24 c: Procedural Injustice (Subordinates)

Critical Incidents of <i>Guanxi</i>	Reasons	
W selected A to take over B as an account in my firm due to B having good <i>guanxi</i> with W. The result is that A left and B made our company account mess.(selection)	No. He is unfair.	No. He is unfair.
W is always trying to recruit graduates from USA, Japan and Europe. However, he never offers a nice pay to native people. As a result, our company is unlikely to provide on-job training to those people. (selection)	No.	No.
W used to use (unclear) management method aiming at breaking down the <i>guanxi</i> ties in our organization. However, what he did was to rebuild his own <i>guanxi</i> ties. I do not like the person he selected. Those guys never work hard compared to us. (cliquish culture)	No.	No.
Do you know W recruits his son's friends to our firm? (selection)	No.	No.
W transferred from Heilongjiang Province to act as the head of my department. Three months later, he helped his nephew to transfer to my department as well. However, this guy can only read novel everyday. (selection)	No.	No.
When we need computer engineer, W recommended his friend's son. However, after working with him for two weeks, I would say he is a good expert but a bad coworker. But W is our supervisor and he insists in using this guy. (selection)	No.	No.
My boss told me a story. I	No.	No.

think it is relevant for your survey. It is interesting as well. The farther of the car driver is a good friend with my boss, the owner and the CEO of the company. Actually, this car driver is not very good at his job. But due to his farther' closeness to my boss, my boss has to consider his farther' face ( <i>mianzi</i> ). In this case, my boss always complains to me about his decision.(selection)		
My boss in the company wants to select and recruit the key departmental managers based on his closeness with those people. His aim is to maintain the authority in this family-owned company. However, those managers only want to get nice pay and some priority over other people. They stop our business from advancing.(selection)	No.	No.
W in the recruitment process tries to select those who would be loyal to him. However, it is very funny after being recruited by our company, all those people do not respect him and are indifference to him.(selection)	No.	No.
W is the former subordinate of my boss. When the new company was set up, my boss let this guy act as the associate manager of our company. However, this guy does not have a good budget control for himself, as W spent our company's money on his personal use. This is illegal. When my boss discovered this, w returned the money. Although my boss was angry with W, he still	No.	No.

paid W and let him go without charge. (selection)		
My supervisor always fails to distinguish sincere people from others. He helped his brother-in-law to find a suitable job at my department. However, I spoke to him as my colleagues talking about the incompetence of that guy. Our <i>guanxi</i> turns bad. (selection)	No.	No.
W tends to promote people who usually interact with him. (assessment)	No.	No.
W always gives a better treatment to those guys who he considers as loyalty to him. This lead to his losing majority of subordinates' respect and trust. (cliquish culture)	No.	No.
W gives a good performance appraisal to people having close <i>guanxi</i> with him. (assessment)	No.	No.
W gives a good performance appraisal to people having close <i>guanxi</i> with him. (assessment)	No.	No.
W gives a good performance appraisal to people having close <i>guanxi</i> with him. (assessment)	No.	No.
W gives a good performance appraisal to people having close <i>guanxi</i> with him. (assessment)	No.	No.
W is very bad. He always allocates easy jobs based on <i>guanxi</i> . I do not like him. (cliquish culture)	No.	No.
W has a good <i>guanxi</i> with my supervisor. He never comes to work on time, and he never swipes in and swipes out. However, he still gets his full pay. (cliquish culture)	No. He is unfair.	No. He is unfair.
My supervisor sometimes uses my company car to pick	No. He is unfair.	No. He is unfair.

up his son. Actually, the driver tends to have a good <i>guanxi</i> with him. However, once, the driver wanted to use the company car; the supervisor said no. This turned into bad <i>guanxi</i> . The drivers complained to the organization several times about my supervisor. This lead to the supervisor's dismissal. (cliquish culture)		
W and subordinates who have a close <i>guanxi</i> with him use company money to pay for their own lunch. (cliquish culture)	No. He is <u>unfair and silly</u> .	No. He is unfair and silly.
W always uses our company car for the purpose of building good <i>guanxi</i> with his supervisor. (cliquish culture)	No. He is <u>unfair</u> .	No. He is unfair.
W selects A to take over B as an account in my firm due to B having good <i>guanxi</i> with W. The result is that A left and B made our company account mess. (selection)	No.	No.
W is always trying to recruit graduates from USA, Japan and Europe. However, he never offers a nice pay to native people. As a result, our company likes to provide on-job training to those people. (selection)	No.	No.
W used to use (unclear) management method aiming at breaking down the <i>guanxi</i> tie in our organization. However, what he did was to rebuild his own <i>guanxi</i> tie. I do not like the person he selected. Those guys never work hard. (selection)	No.	No.



Notes: In above Appendixes, tables are organised according to the clusters of *guanxi*'s critical incident index, however, the inconsistency of *guanxi*'s concrete examples in some tables is due to the inter-coders' different perceptions. The final decision is based the discussion with the third judge but in order to provide the primary level of analysis, it was still presented.

## Appendix 25 Analysing the Relationships between Trust and Loyalty

### Model Summary (Trust and Effort)

**Model Summary<sup>d</sup>**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.240 <sup>a</sup>	.057	.038	1.097	.057	3.004	6	296	.007
2	.499 <sup>b</sup>	.249	.231	.981	.192	75.241	1	295	.000
3	.588 <sup>c</sup>	.346	.328	.916	.097	43.764	1	294	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education

b. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education, guanxi

c. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education, guanxi, trust

d. Dependent Variable: effort

## ANOVA(d) (Trust and Effort)

## ANOVA(d)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	21.674	6	3.612	3.004	.007(a)
	Residual	355.996	296	1.203		
	Total	377.670	302			
2	Regression	94.020	7	13.431	13.969	.000(b)
	Residual	283.650	295	.962		
	Total	377.670	302			
3	Regression	130.772	8	16.347	19.465	.000(c)
	Residual	246.898	294	.840		
	Total	377.670	302			

a Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education

b Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education, *guanxi*

c Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education, *guanxi*, trust

d Dependent Variable: effort

### Coefficients(a) (Trust and Effort)

**Coefficients <sup>a</sup>**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.725	.307		8.874	.000					
	gender	-.327	.132	-.140	-2.466	.014	-.145	-.142	-.139	.987	1.013
	age	-.088	.083	-.061	-1.066	.287	-.081	-.062	-.060	.980	1.021
	Education	.014	.082	.011	.172	.864	-.054	.010	.010	.758	1.319
	Position	-.021	.161	-.007	-.130	.897	-.030	-.008	-.007	.981	1.019
	tenure	.124	.067	.105	1.845	.066	.098	.107	.104	.985	1.015
	ownership	.225	.094	.155	2.387	.018	.143	.137	.135	.751	1.332
2	(Constant)	1.504	.309		4.873	.000					
	gender	-.364	.118	-.156	-3.074	.002	-.145	-.176	-.155	.986	1.015
	age	-.030	.074	-.021	-.408	.684	-.081	-.024	-.021	.972	1.029
	Education	.019	.074	.015	.253	.800	-.054	.015	.013	.758	1.319
	Position	.082	.144	.029	.566	.572	-.030	.033	.029	.975	1.026
	tenure	.098	.060	.082	1.617	.107	.098	.094	.082	.983	1.017
	ownership	.195	.084	.135	2.311	.022	.143	.133	.117	.750	1.334
	guanxi	.355	.041	.442	8.674	.000	.450	.451	.438	.979	1.021
3	(Constant)	1.138	.294		3.876	.000					
	gender	-.246	.112	-.105	-2.191	.029	-.145	-.127	-.103	.961	1.041
	age	.001	.070	.001	.015	.988	-.081	.001	.001	.967	1.034
	Education	-.007	.069	-.005	-.099	.921	-.054	-.006	-.005	.756	1.323
	Position	.090	.135	.032	.665	.507	-.030	.039	.031	.975	1.026
	tenure	.088	.056	.074	1.552	.122	.098	.090	.073	.982	1.018
	ownership	.094	.080	.065	1.175	.241	.143	.068	.055	.723	1.383
	guanxi	.190	.046	.237	4.157	.000	.450	.236	.196	.687	1.456
	trust	.335	.051	.386	6.615	.000	.541	.360	.312	.653	1.530

a. Dependent Variable: effort

### Model Summary (Trust and Dedication)

#### Model Summary<sup>d</sup>

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.253 <sup>a</sup>	.064	.045	.900	.064	3.364	6	296	.003
2	.320 <sup>b</sup>	.102	.081	.883	.038	12.642	1	295	.000
3	.456 <sup>c</sup>	.208	.186	.831	.106	39.185	1	294	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education

b. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education, guanxi

c. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education, guanxi, trust

d. Dependent Variable: dedication

# ANOVA(d) (Trust and Dedication)

## ANOVA<sup>d</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	16.358	6	2.726	3.364	.003 <sup>a</sup>
	Residual	239.867	296	.810		
	Total	256.224	302			
2	Regression	26.215	7	3.745	4.803	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	230.010	295	.780		
	Total	256.224	302			
3	Regression	53.266	8	6.658	9.645	.000 <sup>c</sup>
	Residual	202.959	294	.690		
	Total	256.224	302			

- a. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education
- b. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education, guanxi
- c. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education, guanxi, trust
- d. Dependent Variable: dedication

### Coefficients(a) (Trust and Dedication)

**Coefficients <sup>a</sup>**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.742	.252		10.877	.000					
	gender	-.142	.109	-.074	-1.303	.193	-.077	-.076	-.073	.987	1.013
	age	-.098	.068	-.082	-1.441	.151	-.099	-.083	-.081	.980	1.021
	Education	-.027	.068	-.025	-.393	.695	-.098	-.023	-.022	.758	1.319
	Position	.036	.132	.016	.274	.784	-.003	.016	.015	.981	1.019
	tenure	.135	.055	.138	2.442	.015	.131	.141	.137	.985	1.015
	ownership	.205	.077	.171	2.641	.009	.172	.152	.149	.751	1.332
2	(Constant)	2.291	.278		8.245	.000					
	gender	-.156	.107	-.081	-1.458	.146	-.077	-.085	-.080	.986	1.015
	age	-.077	.067	-.064	-1.144	.254	-.099	-.066	-.063	.972	1.029
	Education	-.025	.066	-.024	-.375	.708	-.098	-.022	-.021	.758	1.319
	Position	.074	.130	.032	.570	.569	-.003	.033	.031	.975	1.026
	tenure	.125	.054	.128	2.305	.022	.131	.133	.127	.983	1.017
	ownership	.193	.076	.162	2.544	.011	.172	.147	.140	.750	1.334
	guanxi	.131	.037	.198	3.556	.000	.216	.203	.196	.979	1.021
3	(Constant)	1.977	.266		7.427	.000					
	gender	-.054	.102	-.028	-.530	.597	-.077	-.031	-.028	.961	1.041
	age	-.050	.063	-.041	-.786	.432	-.099	-.046	-.041	.967	1.034
	Education	-.047	.062	-.045	-.748	.455	-.098	-.044	-.039	.756	1.323
	Position	.081	.122	.035	.662	.508	-.003	.039	.034	.975	1.026
	tenure	.117	.051	.119	2.280	.023	.131	.132	.118	.982	1.018
	ownership	.107	.073	.090	1.469	.143	.172	.085	.076	.723	1.383
	guanxi	-.011	.041	-.016	-.257	.798	.216	-.015	-.013	.687	1.456
	trust	.288	.046	.402	6.260	.000	.422	.343	.325	.653	1.530

a. Dependent Variable: dedication

### Model Summary (Loyalty and Trust)

#### Model Summary<sup>d</sup>

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.261 <sup>a</sup>	.068	.049	1.255	.068	3.574	6	293	.002
2	.589 <sup>b</sup>	.347	.331	1.053	.278	124.359	1	292	.000
3	.678 <sup>c</sup>	.459	.437	.966	.113	11.988	5	287	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education

b. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education, guanxi

c. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education, guanxi, identification, internalisation, dedication, effort, following

d. Dependent Variable: trust



# ANOVA(d) (Loyalty and Trust)

## ANOVA<sup>d</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	33.761	6	5.627	3.574	.002 <sup>a</sup>
	Residual	461.259	293	1.574		
	Total	495.020	299			
2	Regression	171.531	7	24.504	22.119	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	323.489	292	1.108		
	Total	495.020	299			
3	Regression	227.418	12	18.951	20.325	.000 <sup>c</sup>
	Residual	267.602	287	.932		
	Total	495.020	299			

- a. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education
- b. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education, guanxi
- c. Predictors: (Constant), ownership, gender, age, tenure, Position, Education, guanxi, identification, internalisation, dedication, effort, following
- d. Dependent Variable: trust

# **Coefficients(a) (Loyalty and Trust)**

**Coefficients <sup>a</sup>**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.784	.353		7.885	.000					
	gender	-.301	.152	-.112	-1.978	.049	-.125	-.115	-.112	.987	1.013
	age	-.174	.095	-.104	-1.828	.069	-.120	-.106	-.103	.980	1.021
	Education	.070	.095	.048	.736	.462	-.042	.043	.041	.758	1.319
	Position	-.166	.185	-.051	-.898	.370	-.074	-.052	-.051	.981	1.019
	tenure	.067	.077	.049	.865	.388	.041	.050	.049	.985	1.015
	ownership	.342	.109	.205	3.151	.002	.185	.181	.178	.751	1.332
	2	(Constant)	1.090	.333		3.275	.001				
gender		-.353	.128	-.132	-2.765	.006	-.125	-.160	-.131	.986	1.015
age		-.094	.080	-.056	-1.167	.244	-.120	-.068	-.055	.972	1.029
Education		.076	.079	.052	.956	.340	-.042	.056	.045	.758	1.319
Position		-.024	.155	-.007	-.154	.878	-.074	-.009	-.007	.975	1.026
tenure		.030	.065	.022	.460	.646	.041	.027	.022	.983	1.017
ownership		.300	.091	.180	3.296	.001	.185	.189	.156	.750	1.334
guanxi		.492	.044	.533	11.152	.000	.545	.547	.528	.979	1.021
3	(Constant)	.425	.445		.954	.341					
	gender	-.206	.121	-.077	-1.705	.089	-.125	-.100	-.074	.933	1.072
	age	-.064	.074	-.038	-.862	.389	-.120	-.051	-.037	.960	1.041
	Education	.078	.073	.054	1.068	.286	-.042	.063	.046	.744	1.344
	Position	-.074	.143	-.023	-.517	.605	-.074	-.031	-.022	.968	1.033
	tenure	-.044	.061	-.033	-.724	.470	.041	-.043	-.031	.934	1.071
	ownership	.194	.085	.116	2.266	.024	.185	.133	.098	.718	1.393
	guanxi	.360	.046	.391	7.912	.000	.545	.423	.343	.772	1.295
	dedication	.258	.073	.185	3.524	.000	.422	.204	.153	.687	1.456
	effort	.276	.066	.240	4.190	.000	.541	.240	.182	.573	1.745
	following	-.033	.079	-.028	-.426	.670	-.070	-.025	-.019	.432	2.316
	identification	.016	.123	.009	.130	.897	-.073	.008	.006	.421	2.374
	internalisation	-.131	.109	-.062	-1.204	.229	-.053	-.071	-.052	.700	1.428

a. Dependent Variable: trust

# Appendix 26 Dictionary for Grounded Analysis -Competing Meanings of Guanxi

Competing Meanings of <i>Guanxi</i>	Definitions
Perceived Supervisor Support	The degree to which supervisors provide work and non-work related coaching and other means of help for employees and their related persons.
Perceived Supervisor Care	The degree to which supervisors care about employees and their family's well-being.
Supervisor's Protection	The degree to which supervisors defend their subordinates to others.
Recognition of Subordinates	Supervisors are aware of and value their subordinates' contributions or merits.
Interactional Justice	The degree to which people are treated with politeness, dignity, and respect. Focusing on the interpersonal treatment people receive when procedures are implemented.
Supervisor-subordinate Relationship Outside Work	Supervisor and subordinate interact with each other after work.
Supervisor's Positive Attributes	The excellent qualities supervisors possessed.
Subordinate's Positive Attributes	The excellent qualities subordinates possessed.
Interpersonal Injustice (Inappropriate Treatment)	Subordinates perceive that in their interaction with their supervisors, they receive unfair treatment.
Procedural Injustice	In the workplace, procedural injustice may be viewed as a violation of standing, neutrality, and trust of organization procedure.
Distributive Injustice	Employees believe that they are compensated less than those who perform the same job.
Ingratiation	Ingratiation is where individuals seek to be viewed as likable;
Exemplification	Exemplification is when people seek to be viewed as dedicated;
False Pretence for Authority	Subordinates pretend to respect the authority of their superiors.

**Appendix 27 Dictionary for Content Analysis (Alphabetical Order)**

Content Analysis (Name of categorises in Alphabetical order except for unspecified category)	Meanings in Chinese Language
Despicable Person	A person is looked down upon by others.
Exchange for Support and Help	Employees display either positive attitudes such as trust and loyalty or positive behaviour such as OCB and receive individualised help and support from their supervisors.
Family Membership Identity	People perceive the extent to which they form clan-like relationship.
<i>Guanxi</i> Maintenance	The continuation or preservation of <i>guanxi</i> unchanged or unimpaired.
Group or Team Membership	People perceive the extent to which they are bounded to each other based on their working team or group.
In-group Membership (Perceived Insider Status)	The extent to which an employee perceives him/herself as an insider in a particular organization or a supervisor's group and connotes a perception of social inclusion in the organization or a particular group led by the supervisor
Kindness	An act shows consideration and caring, in Chinese context, one party's kindness deserves another party's reciprocation.
Moral Obligation	It refers to a belief that the act is one prescribed by their set of values.
Mutual Trust and Loyalty	Trust and loyalty are shared by or common to two or more people or groups.
Norm or Belief	A standard pattern of behaviour that is considered normal in a society or acceptance by the mind that something is true or real, often underpinned by an emotional or spiritual sense of certainty.
Personal Integrity	The quality of possessing and steadfastly adhering to high moral principles or professional standards

<i>Renqing</i> (Favour in English)	It means favour.
Self-centered.	Tending to concentrate selfishly on one's own needs and affairs and to show little or no interest in those of others.
Sincerity	A people's behaviour is always in the expression of one's true or deep feelings.
Supervisor as the Reason	Supervisors are the causes why subordinates do not have positive attitudes or positive behaviour at work.
Personal (Positive) Attributes	The excellent qualities individual possessed.
Supervisors' Support	The degree to which supervisors provide work and non-work related coaching and other means of help for employees and their related persons.
Time	In this thesis, it means the limited time individual has in their working hours.
Task Performance	Employee's job described in their contract terms.
Trust and Loyalty	See their definitions in chapter two.
Unfairness	Not equal or just.
Virtue	The quality of being morally good or righteous
Warm-heartedness	The direct expression of personal support and openness to another and it is thought to communicate that the other is accepted and their relationship is valued and it is the communication of genuine warmth to others.
Unspecified	Respondents did not answer my questions.

**Notes:** Appendix 26 and Appendix 27 are based on Oxford English Dictionary; however, I amended them due to cross-cultural differences on the linguistic use.