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Cultural values and demographic correlates of citizenship performance

Anil Chandrakumara

University of Wollongong, anilc@uow.edu.au

John Glynn

University of Wollongong, jglynn@uow.edu.au

H W. Gunathilake

University of Sri Jayewardenepura, hwalterg@yahoo.co.uk

S P. Senevirathne

University of Visual and Performing Arts, Sri Lank

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Keywords

demographic, performance, cultural, values, correlates, citizenship

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Dr. Anil Chandrakumara (corresponding author)

Sydney Business School
University of Wollongong
NSW 2522, Australia
Email: anilc@uow.edu.au
TP: +61-2-42214034

Prof. John Glynn
Sydney Business School
University of Wollongong
NSW 2522, Australia
Email: glynn@uow.edu.au

Dr. H.W.Gunathilake
Department of Business Administration,
University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Colombo Sri Lanka
Email: hwalterg@yahoo.co.uk

S.P. Senevirathne,
University of Visual and Performing Arts
Colombo 7, Sri Lanka
spsubashini@gmail.com

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Abstract

This study examines the impact of cultural values on citizenship performance (CP) in the context of a developing country. Although differences in CP across cultures have been examined, the situation in developing countries is often not clear. Using a sample of 362 Sri Lankan employees, it is found that gender and education have significant impact on CP. While collectivism, future orientation, and uncertainty avoidance are found to be positively related to CP, power distance and masculinity values are negatively correlated with CP. It is also evident that the same cultural value orientation can have both positive and negative impacts on CP, depending on the particular aspect of CP. The findings reveal that developing countries are not totally different from developed countries as far as the impact of cultural values on CP is concerned. The study contributes to the advancement of CP theories of individual differences and cultural values and relevant knowledge pertaining to developing countries. Implications of findings are discussed and suggestions are offered for further research.

Key Words: Cultural values, demographic variables, citizenship performance, developing countries

Introduction

Globalization increasingly causes today's leaders and managers to attend to the issues of culture and diversity. When companies operate in different countries and cultures, they are faced with the task of assessing the impact of culture on management practices and employees behavior. As such, there has been an ongoing interest in the study of the impact of culture values on the organizational variables in the context of different countries (see for example, Varma *et al.*, 2009; Dong and Glaister, 2009; Minkov and Blagoiev, 2009; Felfe and Yan, 2009; Gerhart, 2008; Kirkman *et al.*, 2006) and in examining differences in the level of citizenship performance (CP) across cultures (Felfe and Yan, 2009; Organ and Lee, 2008; Fischer *et al.*, 2005). Although cultural context itself may encourage or dissuade CP, what has not been studied as extensively is the applicability of CP theories in other cultures (Organ and Lee, 2008; Moon *et al.*, 2008; Sparrow, 2001; Paine and Organ, 2000). In particular, researchers have stressed the need for

studies in the context of developing countries as cultural values and employees' behaviors in developing countries have been found to be different from those of developed countries (Aycan et al., 2007; Chandrakumara and Sparrow, 2004; Budhwar and Sparrow, 2002; Nyambegera et al., 2000; Sparrow and Wu, 1998). Specifically, how do different cultural contexts influence the role of CP? and how should management consider culture in order to develop and maintain CP in organization? A growing number of current studies document the importance of research in this field (Felfe and Yan, 2009; Organ and Lee, 2008; Fischer et al., 2005). This study is carried out in the context of a developing country in South Asia, namely, Sri Lanka, which is considered as South Asia's most open economy and therefore known as 'the Gate Way to South Asia' by many investors (Chandrakumara and Budhwar, 2005). While South Asia's population accounts for more than 32 percent of the World population, Sri Lanka's population consists of over 20 million. The aim of the study is to examine the impact of cultural value orientation of Sri Lankan university employees on CP. As a part of a large research program to cover Sri Lankan manufacturing and service sectors, the researchers initiated the study by selecting universities because universities also play a very significant role as institutions that represent international and cross cultural issues today. Why universities are important for exploring international and cross cultural issues today?

Indeed, cross-cultural influences have always been with us in universities because the internationalization of universities has been an evolutionary process for more than hundred years. As a result of rapid changes in global trade and business, spread of democracy and migration, changes in political and economic systems etc., a revolutionary development in internationalization of universities has also become evident. This is reflected in transformational

changes in addressing international issues in curriculum of modern universities, the flow of students across borders, new scope and breadth of international collaboration of research, and engagement of university with new audiences etc. In this process, the links between universities in both developing and developed countries have been strengthened through different programs such as study abroad programs, joint location programs, student sharing programs, courses and resources sharing arrangement, benchmarking etc. These trends have created not only tremendous new opportunities for universities but also many challenges in maintaining the right balance among local and global cultural elements on the one hand and diverse behaviors of staff and performance standard on the other. In this context, the role of university staff –both academic and administrative, has become more critical than ever before. Testimonies of international students of many universities indicate the critical role of academic, secretarial and administrative supports and guidance and positive attitudes and friendly services of people in universities. In terms of managing universities, these aspects represent culture, behavior and performance of employees.

Thus, the study will contribute to international and cross cultural management literature, growing body of relevant knowledge in the context of developing countries, and to CP theories of individual differences and cultural values. CP is important primarily because it ‘shapes the organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as the critical catalyst for task activities and processes’ (Borman and Motowidlow, 1993, p.71). If such positive behaviors are embedded in cultural values, they can be considered as sources that can create competitive advantage in the global market place (Paine and Organ, 2000; Tierney et al., 2002; Kidder, 2002). The paper is organized as follows. A brief description of the research context is presented

before exploring links between cultural values and CP by developing hypotheses. Then, a section on methodology and data analysis is presented. Finally, a section on theoretical and practical implications with directions for further research is presented before concluding section.

Research Context

The empirical part of this study is carried out in Sri Lanka. It has a labour force of seven million out of the total population of over 20 million. Sri Lanka was the first country in South Asia to adopt an open market economy back in 1977. This has enabled the private sector to invest in all sectors of the economy. For past two decades, more than 500 foreign investors, including fortune 500 companies, have invested in Sri Lanka. Its per capita income (US\$ 2020 in 2008) remains highest in the region after Maldives. Sri Lanka was one of the first developing countries to understand the importance of investing in human resources and promoting gender equality. As a result, Sri Lanka has achieved human development outcomes (e.g. literacy rate around 92 per cent) more consistent with those of developed countries, but has not achieved its full potential in utilising its human resources (The World Bank, 2000). This study addresses one aspect of this issue. As far as socio-cultural characteristics are concerned, Sri Lankans exhibit many Asian traits in their family and other social interactions, but in business management they tend to mix Asian traits with Western management philosophies and practices. This provides an interesting site for cross cultural studies. Many Sri Lankan managers maintain a distance from their subordinates and there is a reward system based on individual performance, reflecting an individualistic cultural trait (Nanayakkara, 1992; 1988). According to this author, Sri Lankan managers believe that many employees fall into the X-type category of people, who see work as a way to live, rather than as a way of life, and have negative attitudes towards sharing

responsibility, challenging the status quo and pioneering innovation. Further studies in this area indicate that Sri Lankan employees are oriented towards organisations and positions by their work ethic, believing that work is good in itself but meaningful only if it relates to an organisation and a job position, rather than believing and relying on their entrepreneurship (Chandrakumara and Sparrow, 2004). The decision-making system in a typical Sri Lankan family is hierarchical, in which major decisions are made by the father, the mother, or by both. As the desire to be independent is curtailed from childhood, the individual develops a tendency to look for approval from the hierarchy. The attribution of values to a particular job as of high or low status seems to begin in the family. Parents who are desirous of determining the future of their children direct them into jobs which are considered of high status. As such, Sri Lankan employees are also driven towards maintaining status and security-oriented upwards striving (Chandrakumara and Sparrow, 2004).

Joiner (2001) notes that progressive firms in developing countries tend to mimic the practices of successful organizations from more industrialized nations, without reference to surrounding societal values. He stresses that the implementation of such cultural changes may jeopardize the success of that change. In line with these reflections, some researchers and national organizations in Sri Lanka have also stressed the importance of exploring cultural value orientations of employees and modifying work and HR practices and work values in order to overcome some behavioral and performance issues such as low commitment, low productivity, lack of corporation and trust etc. that prevail in many public and private sector organizations (e.g. Chandrakumara, 2007, Nanayakkara, 1993; Vishnath, 1997). In the management literature, the behaviors associated with commitment, cooperation, trust, extra-role behavior generally refers to citizenship or contextual performance (see, Borman and Motowidlo, 1997 for a review). As far

as Sri Lankan sector universities are concerned, there has been a common charge that the contribution of universities to the nations' development is substandard. The nature and the degree of contribution are highly dependent on the performance of academic and non academic staff. Although some empirical research evidence can be found with regard to performance of academic staff (e.g. Chandrakumara, 2002), there is a dearth of empirical research with regard to understanding citizenship behaviors and performance (CP) of non academic employees. This study aims to investigate whether there is an impact of cultural values orientation of employees on their CP.

Theoretical Foundation and Hypotheses

Culture has been defined by Hofstede and Bond (1988, p.6) as “collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one category of people from those of another”. Similarly, most theorists propose, explicitly or implicitly, that values develop through the influence of culture, society, and personality (e.g. Does, 1997; Hofstede, 1980) and that values are relatively enduring standards used for choosing goals or guiding actions (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987). Tayeb (1988) recognized the impact of cultural values on work related attitudes and organizational structures and systems. Smith, Fischer, and Sale (2001) suggest that cultural values contribute to the explanation of variations in OCB, both within and between cultures. More importantly, culture has been traditionally conceived of at the societal level of analysis, yet it was determined to exist, and found to be measurable, at the individual level (Dofman and Howell, 1988). In this study we consider cultural value orientation at the individual level.

The original definition of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) posited by Organ (1988) was that it was purely discretionary behaviours that could not be explicitly rewarded or punished, but contributed to organizational functioning. According to the individual differences theory of citizenship and task performance (CTP) (Motowidlo et al, 1997), citizenship performance does maintain the broader organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function. The theory stresses that behaviors that reflect positive contribution values promote the viability of social and organizational network and enhance the psychological climate in which technical core is embedded. Specifically, the model presents three personality variables –contextual habits, contextual skills, and contextual knowledge-that affect CP and three cognitive ability variables-task habits, task knowledge, and task skills- that affect task performance. Of these, contextual habits and task habits seem to be related to cultural work values. For example, work habits are patterns of behaviors that people learn over time and that either facilitate or interfere with the performance of behaviors. They are formed through the interaction of basic traits with the environmental influences and that they are not necessarily the best or most effective ways of dealing with situations. Simply, ‘people might know what should be done in a particular situation, and they might have skills necessary to do it, but they might also have habitual responses to such situations that conflict with their tendencies to do what they know should be done’ (Motowidlo et al, 1997, p 81). We believe this is one of the ways of how culture influences behavior and performance. Base on these theoretical foundations, we attempted to explore links between cultural value dimensions and CTP.

Relationships between Cultural Values and CTP

According to the individual differences theory of CTP (Motowidlo et al, 1997), some conceptual links can be drawn between cultural value orientations and CP. For example, the model suggests that CP is determined by work habits which include motivational responses such as easy short-cuts in task execution that people might take instead of going to the trouble to do the task as it should be done for maximum effectiveness. These work orientations seems to be associated with cultural values of short-term orientations and hard work. The work habits also include tendencies to approach or avoid different kind of situations in which they might have opportunities to contribute to organizational goals, procrastination, persistent in the face of setbacks and adversity. These ideas also seem to be associated with short-term and long-term orientation values. In addition, work habits such as tendencies to approach or avoid various types of interpersonal and group situations seems to be associated with individualism and collectivism values. Based on this initial conceptual guidance, we reviewed the theoretical and empirical evidence for exploring the link between cultural values presented by Hofstede and Bond (1988) and CP, which are presented in the next section.

Individualism/Collectivism and CP

In general, collectivists are concerned for others and the community, whereas individualists focus on the search for rewards and satisfaction of personal needs (Early, 1989). Thus individualism implies a loosely knit social framework in which people are supposed to take care of themselves and of their immediate families only, while collectivism is characterized by a tight social framework in which people distinguish between in-groups and out-groups (Paine and Organ, 2000). Several studies have demonstrated a link between individualism-collectivism and CP. McNeely and Meglino (1994) found that the values of concern for others and empathy were

predictors of pro-social behaviors. In a study of China and Germany, Felfe and Yan (2009) found that work group commitment is more predictive in a collectivistic than individualistic context. The impact of collectivism on a variety of outcomes including CP has also been reported (e.g. Wagner, 1995; Samuelson, 1993). Moorman and Blakely (1995) also found that collectivistic norms and values were significantly linked to OCB. This evidence supports the view that collectivists are more likely to aid the welfare of the group even when such aid does not benefit them directly (Smith et al., 2001). These findings led us to formulate our first hypothesis (H1).

H1: Collectivism values will be positively correlated with CP.

Femininity/Masculinity

According to Hofstede's (1980) research, typical masculine values are assertiveness, the acquisition of material things, competitiveness, and a lack of concern for others. The term femininity refers to modest and caring values. These values are not essentially associated with male and female as Hofstede's contended that there are clearly feminine men in masculine societies and masculine women in feminine societies. Feminine values seem to be associated with 'other-oriented empathy' by meaning. Penner et al., (1995) explored two factors called 'other-oriented empathy'-primarily concerns pro-social thoughts and feelings- and 'helpfulness'-willingness to do favors and egocentric empathy. In addition, these ideas seem to be a reflection of agreeableness characteristic of individuals. Agreeableness represents such traits as selflessness, cooperativeness, helpfulness, and flexibility (Digman, 1990). Agreeable individuals are more sympathetic towards others and likely to help (Organ and Ryan, 1995). Several research indicates that agreeableness is positively correlated to CP (e.g. Morgeson, Reider, Campion, 2005). Empirically, Midili and Penner (1995) found that other-oriented empathy and helpfulness

correlated significantly with dimensions of OCB. These findings tend to suggest that individuals with feminine values are likely to engage in more CP activities than those with masculine values.

H2: Feminine values will be positively correlated with CP or Masculine values will be negatively correlated with CP.

Power Distance

Power distance is concerned with human inequality. It reflects the extent to which members of a society express a perception of the unequal distribution of power in organizations and institutions. People that possess large power distance values may be accepting of individual differences in power and having the need for autonomy. The need for autonomy includes a need for independence and a defiance of authority (Murray, 1938). Persons with a high need for autonomy may not be concerned with opportunities to engage in helping behaviors which benefit the organization or other employees (Schnake, 1991). Moreover, Schnake (1991) argued that persons who perceive inequality are likely to withhold discretionary behaviors. As a result of perceived inequality, they are likely to reduce their contribution to organizations. On the other hand, persons who perceive equity may be more likely to engage in discretionary behaviors. Empirically, School et al., (1987) found a correlation of 0.41 between extra-role behavior and a measure of perceived job equity. Thus, individuals who perceive that they are being equitably treated appear to be more likely to engage in OCB. Based on these findings, perceived high power distance is hypothesized to exhibit negative influence on CP.

H3: High power distance will be negatively correlated with CP

Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance involves the extent to which ambiguous situations are threatening to individuals, to which rules and order are preferred, and to which uncertainty is tolerated in a society (Hofstede, 2001). As defined in the GLOBE study, it is the extent to which members of collectives seek orderliness, consistency, structure, formalized procedures, and laws to cover situations in their lives (De Luque and Javidan, 2004: 603). It has been theoretically posited that people in low uncertainty avoidance societies, having less regard for stability and permanence in relationships, would be less willing to trust other people and institution than those from high uncertainty avoidance societies (Doney, Cannon and Mullen, 1998). Stohl (1993) observed that in countries with relatively high UA, such as France, managers tended to focus more on formal or structured interpretation of the term worker participation. In contrast, in countries with relatively low UA, such as Denmark, the emphasis was on informal and interpersonal aspects. Randall (1993) reviewed the cross-cultural literature on work commitment and observed that countries scoring low on Hofstede's (1980) UA had relatively high work commitment scores. These findings suggest that individuals with low UA orientation tend to engage in more CP activities than those with high UA orientation.

H4: Low the uncertainty avoidance will be positively correlated with CP or High uncertainty avoidance will be negatively correlated with CP.

Future Orientation

Cultural future orientation is the degree to which a collectivity encourages and rewards future-oriented behaviors such as planning and delaying gratification (House et al., 1999). Cultures with low future orientation, or high present orientation, show the capacity to enjoy the moment and be

spontaneous. In contrast, cultures with high future orientation have a strong capacity and willingness to imagine future contingencies, formulate future goal states, and seek to achieve goals and develop strategies for future aspirations (Ashkanasy et al., 2004). Thus, future-oriented individuals have a capacity to enrich their lives and maintain self control, whereas present-oriented individuals strive to simplify their lives and rely more on others. Similarly, past oriented individuals believe that plan should be evaluated in terms of their fit with the customs and traditions of society and that innovation and change are legitimated only according to past experience. By contrast, future-oriented individuals seek to evaluate plans primarily in terms of anticipated future benefits, going beyond their traditions. The future orientation of organizations is also associated with better performance. For example, Lim and Seers (1993) found that future orientation was a positive predictor of organizational performance. On the basis of a review of several studies, Raynor and Entin (1982) concluded that individuals with high future orientation also tend to have higher levels of achievement motivation. Individuals who are more future-oriented are likely to engage in any given activity (Ashkanasy et al., 2004). As a concept future orientation seems to be associated with growth values. Hackman and Lawler (1971) found that work characteristics associated with growth values include a need for *self-direction, learning, personal accomplishment, and development beyond where one is now*. On the other hand, some employees have very little or no need for growth and prefer that they simply 'do their time' at work and avoid the stress of added responsibilities. These findings seem to suggest that future oriented individuals are more likely to enhance their involvement in CP.

H5: Future orientation will be positively correlated with CP

METHODOLOGY

The research is based on survey strategy. Ganesh (1990) found that almost 80 percent of studies on values in the organizational context are based on questionnaire surveys. According to the main objective and the issue, the required type of analysis is correlational and therefore a more structured type of response format is desired. It also facilitates to generate data from relatively a large sample.

Sampling and Data Collection

Data used in this paper were obtained from five public universities in Sri Lanka. There are 15 public universities in Sri Lanka that consists of about 7800 non-academic employees. Respondents were selected randomly by the researchers and the questionnaires were distributed with the assistance of heads of divisions and trade union officers at each university. As values orientations and behavioral and performance outcomes may vary according to the category of employment (e.g. Shapira & Griffith, 1990), the sample included middle level executives, professionals, first line executives, skilled and technical employees, manual, and clerical employees. The disproportionate stratified random sampling method was used to select respondents. Stratified random sampling was adopted disproportionately in order to ensure different categories of employees were included in the sample (e.g. Sekaran, 2000). It should also be noted that the sample was drawn from employees of one sector in order to establish control over the effect of different organizational cultures on performance indicators. Similarly, any possible effect of regional differences in cultural work values was intended to control by selecting universities located in the Western province of the country. A total of 362 out of 600 questionnaires distributed were returned in usable form, representing a response rate of 60.3 percent.

Indicators and Measures:

In this study, we measured cultural values at individual level. Although culture has been conceived of at the societal level, Dorfman and Howell (1988) determined to exist, and found to be measurable, at individual level. Thus, work of Triandis et al.,(1988) and Dorfman and Howell (1988) extended the measurement of culture to the individual level. Based on Hofstede's (1980) four cultural dimensions (individualism/collectivism, power distance, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance) and Hofstede and Bond's (1988) future orientation dimension, a scale of 30-items have been developed and used by Dorfman and Howell (1988), Alreck and Settle (1995) and Robertson (2000), which have been found to be reliable and valid (Cronbach's alpha ranging from 0.72 to 0.87). We used this scale and dimensions as they have been widely used measures of cultural value orientations of employees. The questionnaire was translated into the local language and back translated to validate. The initial questionnaire was pilot tested through personal interviews with 12 employees, including five executives from the sampling context, which enable a final check for clarity and appropriateness of language. The scale was subjected to principle component analysis using Varimax rotation. The decision criteria adopted for factor loading was 0.40 as it minimizes cross loading and facilitates factor rotation. The cumulative variance explained by the five factor solution is 46 percent. Table-1 presents the results of factor loading items, which indicates the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for five cultural values dimensions as follows. Uncertainty Avoidance 0.73, Individualism/Collectivism = 0.70, Masculinity/Femininity = 0.61, Power Distance = 0.60, and Future Orientation = 0.69.

Table 1 near here

Smith et al.,(1983) citizenship performance scale was used to measure citizenship performance. Coleman and Borman (2000) also suggested that these citizenship performance indicators are

compatible with the recent categorization of citizenship/contextual performance dimensions under interpersonal, organizational, and task activities. We also intended to analyze the impact of cultural values on these three dimensions of CP. The procedure explained above under cultural values scales was adopted to translate and pilot test the questionnaire. The scale was subjected to principle component analysis separately using a similar approach explained above under the cultural values scale. The cumulative variance explained by the three factors of CP is 54 percent. Table 2 presents the result of factor loading items. Accordingly, Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of three CP dimensions are as follows. Citizenship performance towards task (CPTT) = 0.79, Citizenship performance towards organization (CPTO) = 0.62, and Citizenship performance towards interpersonal relationship (CPTIR) = 0.66.

Table 2 near here-

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Characteristics of the Sample

The characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 3. It shows that majority of respondents is female (55%). The highest frequencies relevant to each of the other demographic factors represent age category of 31-45 (44%), advanced level education (46 %), employed in clerical grades (36%), and experience over 15 years (26%). The corresponding national data relevant to age category also indicate a somewhat similar picture as it indicates 54 percent employees falls into the age group of below 39 years.

- Table -3 near here -

Table 4 shows that respondents' orientations towards uncertainty avoidance (Mean = 5.11; SD= 0.99), collectivism (Mean = 4.94; SD = 1.05), and future orientations (Mean = 5.67; SD = 0.55) were relatively higher than their orientations towards power distance (Mean = 3.68; SD = 1.21), and masculinity (Mean = 3.46; SD = 1.19). The analysis also indicates that respondents TP (Mean = 4.86; SD = 0.80), CPTO (Mean = 5.09; SD = 0.92), and CPTIR (Mean = 4.49; SD = 1.19) were fairly good, while their CPTT is moderate (Mean = 3.35; SD = 1.28). This seems to indicate that respondents mostly engage in performing task and duties which are specified in their job descriptions and formal letters, but not volunteering much towards performing additional task relevant to their task activities. It also shows that respondents were volunteered towards engaging in more interpersonal-related activities than task-related volunteering activities. Table 4 presents relationships between main study variables.

- Table 4 near here -

Table 4 also indicates a number of important relationships between cultural values and performance indicators. As predicted, power distance and masculinity values are negatively correlated with performance indicators, while uncertainty avoidance, collectivism and future orientation values were positively correlated with performance indicators. As the initial analysis indicated significant relationships between respondent characteristics and performance indicators, we performed hierarchical regression analysis in order to examine the impact of cultural values orientations on CP by controlling for the impact of demographic factors in the step 2 of the regression analysis. In order to identify the impact of specific sub categories of demographic factors found to be significant in the correlation analysis, gender was dummy coded dichotomously (1 = female, 0 = male). The variables of education and job category were also dummy coded to produce roughly normal distribution of responses. Table 5 shows the result of regression analysis.

- Table 5 near here -

The regression result shows that all indicators of CTP (CPTIR, CPTT, CPTO and TP) are influenced by either or both demographic characteristics and cultural value orientations. This impact is shown by significant change in R^2 values relevant to all the four performance categories. Although it is relatively low, the impact of demographic factors on all the three aspects of CP is statistically significant. While age, gender and education are found to be significant ($\Delta R^2 = 0.09$; $P < .01$) in influencing CPTIR, gender, education, and job category are found to be significant in influencing CPTO ($\Delta R^2 = 0.17$; $P < .01$). Hypotheses were tested using the results of regression with the control variables (demographic variables) introduced in the first step.

Hypothesis 1 stated that collectivism values would be positively correlated with CP. The findings relevant to all three performance categories of CP support this hypothesis. For example, collectivism is positively related to CPTIR (beta = .15; $P < .05$), CPTT (Beta = .1; $P < .05$), and CPTO (beta = .21; $P < .05$).

In Hypothesis 2, it was proposed that masculine values would be negatively correlated with CP. In Table 5, it is revealed that there is a significant negative relationship between masculine values and CPTIR (beta = -.14; $P < .05$) and CPTT (beta = -.16; $P < .05$) and thus supported Hypothesis 2. However, the result also shows a significant positive relationship between masculine value and one aspect of CP, that is, CPTO (beta = .18; $P < .05$). This evidence provides mixed support for Hypothesis 2. The study proposed a negative relationship between high power distance and CP in Hypothesis 3. The finding of this study confirmed this hypothesis indicating the fact that there is a statistically significant negative relationship between relatively high power distance values and CPTIR (beta = -.10; $P < .05$) and CPTO ($\beta = -.33$; $P < .01$). Hypothesis 4 stated that high uncertainty avoidance would

be negatively correlated with CP. Similar to the outcome of Hypothesis 2, the findings indicate a mixed support for Hypothesis 4. For example, Table 5 shows that there is a significant negative relationship between uncertainty avoidance and CPTT ($\beta = -.23$; $P < .01$) and that there is a significant positive relationship between uncertainty avoidance and CPTIR ($\beta = .21$; $P < .01$) and CPTO ($\beta = .32$; $P < .01$). Finally, in Hypothesis 5, it was proposed that future orientation would be positively correlated with CP. The finding supports this hypothesis revealing that CPTIR ($\beta = .27$; $P < .01$) and CPTT ($\beta = .12$; $P < .01$) are positively correlated with future orientation values. Overall result provides strong supports for four of five hypotheses, while one has received a mixed support.

DISCUSSION

The major objective of this study was to examine the impact of cultural value orientations of employees at the individual level on their involvement in CP activities in the context of a developing country. The findings show that CP is influenced by both cultural values and individual characteristics. Among the individual characteristics gender and education were shown to be significant in influencing CPTIR and CPTO. Further analysis of the impact of demographic factors using dummy variables, found that female employees' involvement in CPTIR ($\beta = .23$; $P < .01$) and CPTO ($\beta = .17$; $P < .05$) is higher and significantly more positive than that of male employees. This showed that female employees tend to develop more positive interpersonal relationships with others than that of male employees' do and that their behaviors towards exhibiting punctuality, not taking unnecessary time-off during working hours, and following formal procedures to take leave are more positive (items of CPTO) than those behaviors of male employees. A number of previous researchers have also highlighted the need for examining the impact of gender and individual characteristics on CTP (e.g. Moon et al., 2008; Furnham et al, 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2000). The above evidence contributes to fill this knowledge gap in the context of

developing countries. It was also evident that there exist differences between educated and relatively less educated respondents. For example, the involvement of first degree holders and professional qualifications holders in developing interpersonal relationship and projecting organizationally important behaviors (as indicated above under CPTO items) is negative as far as CPTIR and CPTO are concerned. However, the said behaviors of those who have postgraduate qualifications and those who have relatively low level of education (GCE. O/L, and GCE. A/L) are positive. This seems to indicate an interesting finding that learning much and learning little are both much better than learning somewhat or at moderate level as far as organizational citizenship performance is concerned. This finding is further validated by the significant negative relationship between CPTO and Job category 1-executives and supervisory grades ($\beta = -.17$; $P < .05$) and Job category 3- skills and technical grades ($\beta = -.11$; $P < .05$) because respondents of these categories generally hold first degree or professional qualifications.

Numerous researchers have also stressed the need for identifying individual differences of cultural values in determining CP (e.g. Gerhart, 2008; Kirkman et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000). The findings of this study revealed that high uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, future orientations, and low power distance values are important in determining CPTIR. In other words, many aspects of citizenship behaviors in organizations may be able to improve by embedding collective and future orientation values of employees and maintaining low power gaps between different categories of jobs in the hierarchy of organizations. Schnake (1991) also notes that persons who perceive inequality are likely to withhold discretionary behaviors and reduce their contribution to organizations. Our findings on collectivism are also consistent with Moorman and Blakely (1995) finding that collectivists' norms and values were significantly linked to organizational citizenship behavior. Several other studies also support the positive impact of collectivism on CP (e.g. McNeely and Meglino, 1994; Wagner, 1995;

Samuelson, 1993; Smith et al., 2001). We also found that masculinity values are negatively related with two aspects of CP (CPTIR and CPTT). Although masculinity orientation is not very high in this sample (mean = 3.46), it seems to indicate that when people are to be more assertive, competitive, and lack of concern for others, there is a tendency to decrease CP. However, it should be noted here that we have also found that these attributes contribute positively ($\beta = .18$; $P < .01$) to citizenship performance towards organizationally important activities (CPTO) such as exhibiting punctuality in reporting to work, not taking unnecessary time-off during working hours, and following formal procedures to take leave. A similar picture can be found with regard to the impact of uncertainty avoidance on CP. For example, this sample had relative high uncertainty avoidance orientation which is positively correlated with CPTIR ($\beta = .21$; $P < .01$) and CPTO ($\beta = .32$; $P < .01$) and negatively correlated with CPTT ($\beta = -.23$; $P < .01$). The negative relationship seems to indicate that relatively less formal, less-structural, and less procedural arrangements are preferred by employees to engage in voluntary activities relevant to their task activities. Overall, these evidences provide us with an important message about the impact of cultural values on CP. That is, the same cultural value orientation (such as masculinity and uncertainty avoidance) can have a positive impact on some aspects of CP while having a negative impact on some other aspects of CP. Thus, it may be over simplistic conclusion to note that the impact of cultural value orientations on CP is positive or negative, without examining different aspects of CP.

Implications

This study contributes to individual differences theory and cultural values theories of CP. Researchers have used both individual characteristics and cultural values at individual levels to contribute to these theories. Specifically, we were able to extend the literature by establishing link between CP and gender, level of education, and employment category. The study as a whole contributes not only to the

advancement of above theories, but also to the body of knowledge relevant to developing countries. For example, we have observed that some of our findings are consistent with previous research findings in developed countries. This seems to suggest that developing countries are not totally different from developed countries in terms of understanding the impact of cultural values on CP. Probably, one might argue that this assertion oversimplify the complexities in organizations in developing countries. However, we also need to recognize the fact that a part of this complexity and reality of developing countries is the influence of Western management practices and cultures on developing countries. This is very much relevant to a country like Sri Lanka, where the impact of colonization and adoption of Western management and administrative practices, the education system etc. have greatly influenced work values and cultures of organizations (e.g. Chandrakumara and Budhwar, 2005). As such, one may expect, as we have found in this study, some consistency of research findings in the context of organizations. We also found difficulties in finding literature to trace a study that has investigated the impact of all the five cultural values orientation on CP in one design of study. This study contribute to the literature with the finding that almost all the five value dimensions are significantly related to at least ones aspect of CP. We also contribute to the literature by providing evidences to the assertion that the same cultural value orientation (such as masculinity and uncertainty avoidance) can have positive impact on some aspects of CP while having a negative impact on some other aspects of CP. It is therefore difficult to agree with over simplistic conclusion about the impact of cultural value orientations as positive, negative, or even none-existence, without examining different aspects of CP.

The results of this study have some important managerial implications as well. Human resource managers and HR administrators of universities may be interested in the cultural make up of employees to facilitate better job synergy and increase job performance. For example, a person who is

high in future orientation may be well suited for a position that deals with strategic planning, budgeting etc. or technically qualified people who are performing these tasks may be given appropriate training on work value orientations in order to enhance their involvement in citizenship performance. Managers in multinational firms may also be interested in these results when reviewing cultural training programs for expatriates as numerous authors have found that lack of understanding of host country culture is one of the most critical factors determining expatriate failure in both work and social life (e.g., Varma et al., 2009). The findings that the higher power distance, the lower the orientation towards developing interpersonal relationships and that the relationship between future orientation and CPTIR are all important finding for practicing manager to modify their own and employees' behaviours in organisations towards improving citizenship performance of employees. As Paine and Organ (2000) stressed on human resource values, the findings of this study revealed that human resource values such as future orientations and low power distance could be considered as sources that create competitive advantages.

Limitations and Further Research

The use of a one sector sample has a number of ramifications for the generalizability of results in Sri Lankan context. More studies with representative samples from different sectors of the economy may be required to determine cultural value orientations of employees and managers and the nature of their impact on CTP. We utilised self-reports of OCB rather than supervisor or third-party reports. A combination of different sources may produce more reliable picture on OCB in future studies. We also believe that a careful consideration should be given to evaluate broader spectrum of individualism and collectivism dimensions in future studies as some previous observations relevant to Sri Lankan private sector employees indicate more individualistic values orientations (e.g. Nanayakkara, 1992), in

contrast to the finding of this study that indicates that non-academic employees of public universities are oriented more towards collectivism. It is also hoped that this research endeavour would contribute to further development and understanding of within-country differences in cultural values at individual level in the context of developing countries.

CONCLUSIONS

The impact of cultural values on employees' behaviour and performance cannot be taken for granted (Aycan et al, 2007). This study aimed to examine the impact of cultural values on CTP in the context of a developing country. Literature review revealed that human resource values embedded in cultural values could be considered as sources that create competitive advantages but the conditions in developing countries were not clear. Five hypotheses were formulated exploring links between five cultural value dimensions proposed by Hofstede and Bond (1988) and CTP. The findings were based on responses from a sample of 362 non- academic employees of Sri Lankan universities. The analysis revealed that the sample consisted of respondents with relatively high orientations for uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, and future orientation. Their orientations towards power distance and masculinity were moderate. Gender and education were found to be major demographic variables affecting CP. In addition, the job category and age were also found to be associated with at least one aspect of CP. With regard to the impact of cultural values on CP, the study found a number of important findings. First, it was found that high uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, future orientations, and low power difference values are important in determining CPTIR. These findings were found to be consistent with a number of previous studies as well. Second, the study also found that masculinity values were negatively related to two aspects of CP (CPTIR and CPTT) while having a positive relationship with CPTO. Third, the finding that the uncertainty avoidance orientation was

positively correlated with CPTIR and CPTO and negatively related with CPTT revealed that the same cultural value orientation (such as masculinity and uncertainty avoidance) can have positive impact on some aspects of CP and negative impact on some other aspects of CP. Finally, the study contributes to the advancement of individual differences theory, cultural values theories of CP, knowledge pertaining to developing countries. The study also highlighted some important managerial implications of findings and directions for further research.

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Table 1: Cultural Values –Factor Loading

Scale Items	Components and Factor Loading				
	1	2	3	4	5
Rules and regulations are important because they inform employees what the or.....	.699				
Standards operating procedures are helpful to employees on the job	.664				
Managers expect employees to closely follow instructions and procedures.	.657				
The hierarchy to on the job relationship should be observed...		.827			
Employees should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group		.698			
Being accepted by members of your work group is very important		.675			
Meetings are usually run more effectively when they are chaired by a man			.681		
Men usually solve problems with logical analysis, while women usually use intuition			.677		
It is preferable to have a man in high level position rather than women			.468		
It is more important to men to have a professional career than it is for women			.462		
Managers must be systematic to accomplish objectives				.589	
It is important to have job requirements and instructions spelled out in details...				.517	
It is important to have conscience in business.				.420	
It is frequently necessary for a manager to use authority and power when dealing with subordinates					.680
Solving organisational problems usually requires an active forcible approach					.670
Managers should seldom ask for the opinion of employees					.420
<i>Percentage of variance</i>	<i>11.93</i>	<i>9.30</i>	<i>9.30</i>	<i>8.02</i>	<i>7.50</i>
<i>Mean</i>	<i>5.11</i>	<i>4.94</i>	<i>3.46</i>	<i>5.67</i>	<i>3.68</i>
<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>0.99</i>	<i>1.05</i>	<i>1.19</i>	<i>0.55</i>	<i>1.21</i>
<i>Cronbach's Alpha (overall 0.72)</i>	<i>0.73</i>	<i>070</i>	<i>0.61</i>	<i>0.69</i>	<i>0.60</i>

Note: Only coefficients > .40 are shown and wording of some items have been shorten. The rating scale 1-6

Table 2: Citizenship Performance Items - Factor Loading

Items	Factor Loading		
	1	2	3
Offers suggestions for ways to improve operations/activities	.842		
Make innovative suggestions to improve overall quality of the unit	.784		
Volunteers to do things not formally required by the job	.736		
Take initiatives to orient new employees to the division even though it is not a part of my job	.675		
Help others when their workload increases	.506		
Does not take extra break other than time allocated for tea and lunch breaks		.730	
Take undeserved breaks (reversed coded)		.679	
Gives advanced notice if unable to come to work		.633	
Exhibit punctuality in arriving at work		.459	
Percentage of Variance	19.30	18.68	16.17
Mean	3.35	4.49	5.09
Standard deviation	1.28	1.19	0.92
Alpha	0.79	0.66	0.62

Note: Only coefficients > .40 are shown, wordings of some have been shorten, The rating scale 0-6

Table 3: Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristics/Profile	Number/Frequency	%
SEX		
Male	198	54.7
Female	164	45.3
Total	362	100
AGE		
Up to 30 Years	125	34.5
31-45 Years	159	43.9
46 and above	78	21.5
Total	362	100
QUALIFICATIONS		
GCE O/L	79	21.8
GCE A/L	166	45.9
Diploma	36	9.9
Bachelor's Degree	29	8.0
Professional Qualifications	40	11.0
Postgraduate Degree	12	3.3
Total	362	100
TENURE		
Less than 1 Years	74	20.4
1-5 Years	85	23.5
6-10 Years	57	15.7
11-15 Years	52	14.4
Over 15 Years	94	26.0
Total	362	100
JOB CATEGORY		
Registrar/AR	40	11.0
Supervisory/Executive Level	45	12.4
Technical Grades	113	31.2
Clerical and allied	131	36.3
Labourer	33	9.1
Total	362	100

Table 4: Mean, SD, and Correlation between Cultural Values and CP

No	Variable	Mean	SD	Alpha	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	Uncertainty Av.	5.11	0.99	0.73	1							
2	Collectivism	4.94	1.05	0.70	.23**	1						
3	Masculinity	3.46	1.19	0.61	-.05	.10	1					
4	Future Orienta.	5.67	0.55	0.69	.32**	.17**	.02	1				
5	Power Distance	3.68	1.21	0.60	.08	.05	.23**	.05	1			
6	CPTT	3.35	1.28	0.79	-.13	.10	-.11*	.07	.01	1		
7	CPTO	5.09	0.92	0.62	.34**	.27**	.11*	..22**	-.28**	.00	1	
8	CPTIR	4.49	1.19	0.66	.32**	.22**	-.15**	.36**	-.09	.35**	.53**	1

** Significant at 0.01 level, * Significant at 0.05 level

Table 5: Result of Regression Analysis on the Impact of Cultural Values on CTP

Variables	Standardized Regression Coefficients					
	CPTIR		CPTT		CPTO	
	ΔR^2	Beta	ΔR^2	Beta	ΔR^2	Beta
Step1-Demographic Variables	.09**		.04*		.17**	
Age		-.16*		-.16		.01
Gender		-.19*		.18*		-.26**
Education		-.10*		.09		-.29**
Job Category		.02		-.10		-.13*
Tenure		.11		.14		-.09
Step 2 – Cultural Values	.19**		.07**		.26**	
Uncertainty Avoidance		.21**		-.23**		.32**
Collectivism		.15*		.13*		.21**
Masculinity		-.14*		-.16*		.18**
Future Orientation		.27**		.12*		.02
Power Distance		-.10*		.03		-.33**

Notes- Significant F change is shown as P<. 05*, P<. 01**