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**Psychological Collectivism and Its Effects on Group Member
Job Performance and Taking Charge Behaviour**

A thesis

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of the requirements for the degree

of

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Abstract

The nature of work in contemporary organisations has become increasingly group orientated. Several studies have linked psychological collectivism with important outcomes for individuals working in groups. The present research sought to build upon existing research, via examining the performance benefits of psychological collectivism within the New Zealand context. This study had two main aims: to examine whether employees within New Zealand who are more collectivistic are better performing group members, and engage in increased taking charge behaviours; and to investigate the possible moderating role of TMX, or the quality of co-worker relationships, in these relationships. Participants in this study were employees from various businesses throughout New Zealand, representing a wide range of industries, who completed an online questionnaire. The questionnaire measured psychological collectivism, four dimensions of group member job performance (task performance, citizenship behaviour, counterproductive behaviour, and withdrawal behaviour), taking charge, and TMX-quality. To test the proposed hypotheses, correlation, regression, and moderation analyses were conducted in SPSS. Several of the proposed hypotheses received support: psychological collectivism positively predicted group member citizenship behaviour and taking charge behaviour, and negatively predicted group member counterproductive behaviour and group member withdrawal behaviour. TMX-quality significantly moderated the relationship between psychological collectivism and group member withdrawal behaviour. However, several of the proposed hypotheses did not receive support: psychological collectivism did not positively predict group member task performance, and TMX-quality did not significantly moderate the relationships between psychological collectivism and the other

variables. Possible reasons why these hypotheses were unsupported are outlined. Additionally, significant non-hypothesized relationships were also obtained, which are discussed in detail. Concerning practical implications, organisations should aim to maximise psychological collectivism when necessary, via selection and placement or employee training and development programs. Moreover organisations should focus on improving the quality of co-worker relationships (i.e., TMX-quality). With respect to future research, research is needed which explicitly examines whether psychological collectivism can be developed in individuals. Taken together, the findings from this study highlight the far-reaching performance benefits of psychological collectivism and high-quality TMX in the workplace.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Background

The nature of work in the contemporary workplace has become increasingly group orientated. For example, over recent decades, all types of organisations design work around groups and group-based projects, with individual employees working in multiple groups at any one time, and in groups that exist for only short periods (Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, & Zapata-Phelan, 2006; Mohrman & Cohen, 1995). This proliferation in the use of groups is due to their capacity to leverage individual skills and knowledge, streamline processes, and enhance employee participation (Eby & Dobbins, 1997; Stevens & Campion, 1994), as they expand the pool of information available, leading to improved quality and higher quality solutions (Eby & Dobbins, 1997; Mesmer-Magnus & DeChurch, 2009). Ultimately, employees are now collectively responsible for successful job performance and accomplishing the organisation's objectives (LePine, Hanson, Borman, & Motowidlo, 2000; Moorman & Blakely, 1995). This paradigm shift toward the group-based organisation is reflected in the various performance evaluation and compensation systems governing employees working in groups, as it is now common for organisations to assess and reward employees based on individual performance (i.e., "taskwork"), as well as measurable group performance (i.e., "teamwork") (DeMatteo, Eby, & Sundstrom, 1998; Jackson et al., 2006; LePine et al., 2000; Mohrman & Cohen, 1995). Thus, the conceptualisation of job performance has changed, with the concept of "doing a good job" becoming more dependent on the concept of "being a good group member" (Jackson et al., 2006, p. 884).

Purpose of this Research

Given that job performance has taken on more of a cooperative component, it has become essential, especially in team staffing decisions, to identify employees who have a propensity to be successful group members (Eby & Dobbins, 1997; Jackson et al., 2006). One factor that is critical in understanding how an individual responds to working in a group-based environment is their *collectivistic orientation* (Eby & Dobbins, 1997), as it is purported to enhance one's propensity to cooperate within the context of a group (Cox, Lobel, & McLeod, 1991; Earley & Gibson, 1998; Wagner, 1995). Broadly, "*collectivism represents the degree to which individuals hold a general orientation toward group goals, a concern for the well-being of the group and its members, an acceptance of group norms, and a tendency toward cooperation in group contexts*" (Triandis, 1995; Wagner, 1995; as cited in Dierdorff, Bell, & Belohlav, 2011). Therefore, collectivism appears a fruitful and logical construct to investigate for its influence on how individuals function within a group-based environment (Dierdorff et al., 2011). In this research, I am examining whether employees within New Zealand who are more collectivistic, are better performing group members, and engage in increased taking charge behaviours, or change-orientated behaviours aimed at improving how work is executed in order to be more effective. Further, I am examining how team-member exchange (TMX), or the quality of co-worker relationships (Seers, 1989; Seers, Petty, & Cashman, 1995) effects these relationships. Therefore, this research will employ an interactional perspective to examine when and why psychological collectivism influences group member job performance and taking charge behaviour, via an examination of TMX. This research is important to conduct, as minimal research

has been conducted within New Zealand, which has examined the effects of collectivism and TMX in the workplace.

Psychological Collectivism

The Individualism-Collectivism construct was initially developed to describe cross-cultural differences, and is considered an important dimension of cultural variability (Augsburger, 1992; Erez & Earley, 1993; Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997; Hofstede, 1984; Hsu, 1981; Kim & Murnigan, 1997; Kim et al., 1994; Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996; Triandis, 1993, 1994). In individualistic cultures, the individual is valued foremost, consequentially, individual goals and interests are prioritised over those of the group (Gelfand, Triandis, & Chan, 1996; Love & Dustin, 2014). In contrast, in collectivistic cultures, the goals and interests of the group take precedence over individual wants and desires (Becton & Field, 2009; Gelfand et al., 1996). For these individuals, they are expected to submit to the groups aspirations, even if it means ignoring their own wishes, or making certain sacrifices (Jackson et al., 2006; Love & Dustin, 2014). Operating via consensus, collectivistic cultures avoid insulting group members, and try not to upset the balance of harmony and agreement established by the group (Love & Dustin, 2014). Importantly, individuals in collectivistic cultures place great importance on the work groups and organisations to which they belong (Love & Dustin, 2014). According to Hofstede (1984) individualistic cultures include the United States, Canada, Great Britain, Australia, and New Zealand, whereas collectivistic cultures include Hong Kong, Singapore, Taiwan, and Pakistan.

Although individualism-collectivism was initially examined at the cultural level (Hofstede, 2001), more recently, researchers have explored these constructs as individual difference variables in organisational research (Love & Dustin, 2014).

Individualism–collectivism in this context, refers to the extent to which group members orient their actions towards the group’s benefit (collectivism) rather than their own benefit (individualism) (Drach-Zahavy, 2004). More specifically, within the context of the workplace, collectivism is defined as the extent to which employees tend to cooperate in group contexts, and value the groups goals, norms and well-being (Dierdorff et al. 2011; Love & Dustin, 2014; Wagner 1995). The individual version of collectivism (i.e., intrapersonal collectivism) is referred to as *psychological collectivism* (Jackson et al., 2006).

To examine collectivism in organisational research, Jackson et al. (2006) developed the *psychological collectivism* measure. This multifaceted measure captures individual differences (vs. cultural differences) in collectivism (Dierdorff et al., 2011). Jackson et al. (2006) provided support for both the construct and convergent validity of the measure, and presented findings linking psychological collectivism with job performance within the context of work group tasks. Thus, this instrument will be utilised to measure psychological collectivism within the present study. The psychological collectivism measure is a multidimensional construct designed around a second-order factor structure. The measure is comprised of five specific facets (Preference, Concern, Reliance, Norm Acceptance, and Goal Priority), which each serve as latent indicators of a higher order collectivism construct (Jackson et al., 2006). Individuals high on the preference for in-groups facet, emphasise their relationships with in-group members and prefer to exist within the bounds of a group (Jackson et al., 2006). Further, they are affiliative by nature, and believe that collective efforts are superior to individual efforts (Jackson et al., 2006). Individuals high on the concern for in-groups facet are motivated not by self-interest, rather they are motivated by a concern for the well-

being of the entire in-group and its members (Jackson et al., 2006). Individuals high on the reliance on in-groups facet, believe that one person's responsibility is the responsibility of the entire in-group (Jackson et al., 2006). Further, they have a collective sense of responsibility which makes them feel comfortable relying on and trusting other in-group members (Dierdorff et al., 2011; Jackson et al., 2006). Individuals high on the acceptance of in-groups norms facet (Norm Acceptance), focus on the norms and rules of the in-group and comply with these norms and rules in order to foster harmony within the work group (Jackson et al., 2006). Lastly, individuals high on the prioritisation of in-group goals facet (Goal Priority), are guided by the consideration of the in-group's interests (Jackson et al., 2006). For these individuals, group goals take priority over individual goals, even if it causes them to make certain sacrifices (Jackson et al., 2006).

Relevant Research on Collectivism

Researchers exploring collectivism as an individual difference variable in organisational research have linked psychological collectivism with several important outcomes for individuals working in groups (Dierdorff et al., 2011). For example, several studies have illustrated a positive relationship between collectivism and cooperation in group contexts, using samples of University students from the United States (Chatman & Barsade, 1995; Eby & Dobbins, 1997; Wagner, 1995). Wagner (1995) found that students who rated themselves as collectivistic were more cooperative in class room groups than students who rated themselves as individualistic. Similarly, Chatman and Barnside (1995) found using MBA students involved in a business simulation exercise that compared with individualists, students who scored higher on a measure of collectivism were rated by their peers as more cooperative. Moreover, Eby and Dobbins (1997) found using

a sample of 33 different groups working on a complex and interdependent task, that as the proportion of individuals in a team with a collectivistic orientation increases, so does the level of cooperative team behaviour, and ultimately team performance. Similarly, Dierdorff et al. (2011) found that the facets of psychological collectivism influences group performance over time (this study will later be examined in detail).

Psychological collectivism has also been found to facilitate team support (Drach-Zahavy, 2004). Drach-Zahavy (2004) found using teams of nurses from multiple hospitals in Israel that in teams comprised of individuals higher on collectivism, members gave more informational, appraisal and emotional support to each other. Similarly, collectivism has been linked with knowledge sharing (Hwang & Kim, 2007; Bao, Zhang, & Chen, 2015), which is an essential factor contributing to an organisation's innovation capabilities (Bao et al., 2015). Specifically, both Hwang and Kim (2007), and Bao et al. (2015) found that collectivism was related to knowledge sharing, via in-group identification. Moreover, Love and Dustin (2014) found that psychological collectivism was significantly related to an employee's propensity to engage in taking charge behaviour (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Similar to knowledge sharing, taking charge behaviours help to contribute to an organisation's innovative climate (Dysvik, Kuvaas, & Buch, 2016). The taking charge construct will later be examined in detail.

Lastly, Jackson et al. (2006) in their seminal paper on psychological collectivism provided further evidence for the performance benefits of collectivism with respect to individuals' working in group contexts (Jackson et al., 2006). Using full-time employees from a computer software company in the United States, the authors found that employees who scored higher on the psychological collectivism measure, contributed more discretionary citizenship behaviours, performed their

group tasks better, and were less likely to engage in withdrawal and counterproductive behaviours. Importantly, to explore collectivism's effects within the New Zealand workplace, in this study I am examining collectivism's linkage with these four dimensions of group member job performance: (a) *task performance* - the proficiency with which an employee performs the activities recognised as part of their group role (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Jackson et al., 2006), (b) *citizenship behaviours* - discretionary behaviours made by an employee that lie outside of their job description, and which the group may not formally reward (Jackson et al., 2006; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983); (c) *counterproductive behaviours* – intentional behaviours made by an employee that are contrary to the legitimate interests of the group (Jackson et al., 2006; Sackett & DeVore, 2001); and (d) *withdrawal behaviours* – an employee's response to dissatisfaction that is more passive in nature, characterised by physical and psychological avoidance of the group and its work (Hulin, 1991; Jackson et al., 2006).

Task Performance

Jackson et al.'s finding that collectivistic employees perform their group tasks better is an important finding, as it can be argued that the proficiency with which an employee performs the activities recognised as part of their job description, is the most important aspect of employee job performance. Jackson et al. (2006) provided a theoretical basis for why collectivistic employees should perform their group tasks better, which will now be outlined. As stated in Campbell, Mcloy, Oppler, and Sager's (1992) theory of performance, the three major predictors of individual task performance are declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and skill, and motivation, which are themselves predicted by interest variables, personality, previous experience, and other factors (Jackson et al., 2006). According

to Jackson et al. (2006), in work group contexts, the facets of psychological collectivism should provide the interest criterion required to promote declarative and procedural knowledge, as collectivistic employees prefer to work in groups and are concerned about the welfare of the group. Collectivistic employees may also have more prior experience working in groups, as research conducted by Eby and Dobbins (1997) linked these two variables. Moreover, the facets of psychological collectivism may also provide motivation in task contexts, as the collectivistic tendency to prioritise the goals of the group should encourage a more intense and enduring exertion of effort (Jackson et al., 2006). Finally, given that Jackson et al. (2006) linked an employee's collectivism levels to their group member task performance, I therefore predicted the following:

Hypothesis 1: Psychological collectivism positively predicts group member task performance.

Citizenship Behaviour

Over recent decades, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) has been among the most extensively researched topics in the field of organisational psychology (Alizadeh, Darvishi, Nazari, & Emami, 2012). OCB has been formally defined as *“individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that promote the effective functioning of the organisation”* (Organ, 1988, p.4). Moreover, OCB is *“performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place”* (Organ, 1997, p. 95). Omission of these behaviours is not considered as a punishable offense by the organisation, as they are primarily a matter of personal choice (Chahal & Mehta, 2010). However, organisations want and need personnel who engage in such behaviours, as they are a key factor which promotes

organisational effectiveness and competitive advantage (Alizadeh et al., 2012; Chahal & Mehta, 2010; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1997; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). For example, research suggests that OCBs are related to several individual-level outcomes, such as reduced turnover intentions, actual turnover, and absenteeism, as well as increased employee performance (Podsakoff et al., 2009). OCBs are also related to several organisational-level outcomes, such as profitability, productivity, efficiency, and customer satisfaction (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Moreover, evidence from longitudinal studies suggests OCBs are causally related to unit-level performance (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Overall, OCB is a crucial indicator of employee performance that extends beyond formal and minimum role requirements, and which has an important influence on several individual and organisational outcomes (Alizadeh et al., 2012; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2009).

There is a theoretical basis for why collectivistic employees should be more likely to engage in OCB (Jackson et al., 2006). According to LePine et al. (2000) citizenship behaviours form the basis for what is frequently called “teamwork”. Consequentially, a social exchange theory lens is typically used to explain such behaviours (Blau, 1964). Specifically, Organ (1990) posited that a prerequisite for citizenship behaviours is a social exchange relationship, given that the organisation may not formally reward such behaviours. Moreover, Triandis and Bhawuk (1997) posited that a social exchange mind-set is more likely to be adopted by a collectivist as (1) they are predisposed “to play relationships by ear”, (2) they adopt a long term time perspective, (3) they permit exchanges that are not of equal value, as they give more than they receive, and (4) their exchanges are regulated through empathy, as their willingness to reciprocate is grounded in a deeply held concern for the in-

group (Jackson et al., 2006). Importantly, in congruence with this reasoning, research conducted by Jackson et al. (2006), Moorman and Blakely (1995) and Van Dyne et al. (2000) provided evidence for the link between collectivism and individual citizenship behaviours. I therefore predicted the following:

Hypothesis 2: Psychological collectivism positively predicts group member citizenship behaviour.

Counterproductive Behaviour

Counterproductive behaviours create many problems for organisations (Kelloway, Francis, Prosser, & Cameron, 2010; Mikulay, Neuman, & Finkelstein, 2001), as they are associated with astounding financial (Jones, 1983; Jones & Wuebker, 1985; Robinson, 2008; Sauser, 2007), and personal (Hogh, Mikkelsen, & Hansen, 2011; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012) costs. For example, employee theft is estimated to cost business owners and operators 100 billion worldwide per year (Sauser, 2007), and unauthorised extensions of work breaks is estimated to result in losses of around 50 hours per year per employee (Jones, 1983). Moreover, workplace bullying can have detrimental effects on the mental health and well-being of the individuals who experience such behaviour (Hogh, et al., 2011; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). Therefore, Jackson et al.'s finding that collectivistic employees are less likely to engage in counterproductive behaviours is important, as it identifies a cohort of employees that are less likely to engage in counterproductive behaviour. Jackson et al. (2006) provided a theoretical basis for why collectivistic employees should be less likely to engage in counterproductive behaviour, which will now be outlined.

According to Robinson and Bennett's (1997) model of workplace deviance, counterproductive behaviours are caused by provocations, such as poor working conditions and inequality. Consequentially, these provocations produce two forms

of motivation for partaking in counterproductive behaviour: expressive (to express one's anger), and instrumental (to settle the disparity perceived in the exchange relationship) (Jackson et al., 2006). However, several constraints can neutralise these motivations for engaging in counterproductive behaviour, including the possibility of internal and formal sanctions, when norms are internalised, and through having strong bonds to a social system (Jackson et al., 2006). Importantly, Jackson et al. (2006) posited that psychological collectivism should encourage the development of two of these constraints, as collectivists are more likely to have strong bonds to the social system, and to internalise the group's norms (Ho & Chiu, 1994; Oyserman, Coon, & Kimmelmeier, 2002; Triandis, 1989, 1995). Moreover, in line with this reasoning, Jackson et al. (2006) found that collectivistic employees were less likely to engage in group member counterproductive behaviours. I therefore predicted the following:

Hypothesis 3: Psychological collectivism negatively predicts group member counterproductive behaviour.

Withdrawal Behaviour

There are forms of work withdrawal behaviour, such as arriving at work late, the withholding of work-directed effort, and poor attendance that exist within taxonomies of counterproductive behaviour (Jackson et al., 2006; Robinson & Bennett, 1997; Sackett & DeVore, 2001). However, similar to Jackson et al.'s study, within the present research, I separated counterproductive behaviour from withdrawal behaviour. This decision was reached, as the actions of withdrawal behaviours are more passive relative to responses such as sabotage, intentional violating of group rules, and verbally abusing group members (Jackson et al., 2006).

Similar to counterproductive behaviours, withdrawal behaviours are harmful and costly to organisations (Berry, Lelchook, & Clark, 2012; DeLonzor, 2005; Eder & Eisenberger, 2008; Navarro & Bass, 2006; Pelled & Xin, 1999; Rosse & Noel, 1996; Sagie, Birati, & Tziner, 2002). For example, the estimated cost of employee lateness costs US businesses in excess of 3 billion per year (DeLonzor, 2005), and employee absenteeism costs approximately 15 percent of a business's payroll (Navarro & Bass, 2006). Moreover, for a leading medium-sized business in Israel, withdrawal behaviours are estimated to cost the company 16.5 percent of before-tax income (Sagie et al., 2002). Withdrawal behaviours also have negative effects on co-workers work motivation and morale (Jamal, 1984; Koslowsky, Sagie, Krausz, & Singer, 1997). Given the high prevalence and costs associated with withdrawal behaviour, it is important that research examine the potential causes and ways to prevent such behaviours (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). Therefore, Jackson et al.'s finding that collectivistic employees are less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviours is valuable, as it identifies a cohort of employees that are less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviours. Jackson et al. (2006) provided a theoretical basis for why collectivistic employees should be less likely to engage in counterproductive behaviour, which will now be outlined.

Almost all models of withdrawal assume that disengaging psychologically and physically from one's work occurs in response to unfavourable job attitudes, most prominently job dissatisfaction (Hulin, 1991; Jackson et al., 2006; Johns, 2001). Indeed, prior research has linked psychological collectivism with group-member satisfaction among university students working on a longitudinal group-based project (Shaw, Duffy, & Stark, 2000). However, scholars have argued that job dissatisfaction alone cannot explain all of the variance in withdrawal behaviour

(Johns 2001). Specifically, the problem with assuming that job dissatisfaction is solely responsible for withdrawal behaviours is that it implies a single motive or cause for withdrawal behaviours (Jackson et al., 2006; Johns, 2000). Indeed, withdrawal behaviours are complexly determined (Johns, 2001), as they are influenced by contextual factors such as job embeddedness, which is marked by having strong ties to the members within a group's social network (Jackson et al., 2006; Mitchell et al., 2001). Importantly, collectivists form stronger social bonds with the members of their in-group, and are more likely to make certain sacrifices for the in-group's benefit (Ho & Chiu, 1994; Oyserman et al., 2002; Triandis, 1995), therefore collectivists should be less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviour (Jackson et al., 2006). In line with this reasoning, and given that Jackson et al. (2006) found that collectivistic employees are less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviours, I hypothesised the following:

Hypothesis 4: Psychological collectivism negatively predicts group member withdrawal behaviour.

Taking Charge

In addition to the four aforementioned dimensions of group member job performance, another employee behaviour that is important in today's workplaces is *taking charge* (Love & Dustin, 2014). Organisations have become more dynamic, flexible, decentralised, global, and performance oriented (Crant, 2000; Parker, 2000; Parker & Collins, 2010; Sonnentag, 2003). Consequentially, to sustain their competitive edge, organisations are now increasingly reliant on their employees to be more creative, innovative, and change orientated in how they perform their work (Crant, 2000; Dysvik et al., 2016; Madjar, Greenberg, & Chen, 2011; Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Vadera, Pratt, & Mishra, 2013). Fortunately, taking

charge behaviour is an essential way that employees have been found to accommodate this need (Dysvik et al., 2016). The taking charge construct was introduced by Morrison and Phelps (1999) to capture the idea that organisations need employees who are willing to challenge and change the status quo (i.e., the present state of operations) to bring about constructive change. This idea is rooted in the belief that because in the long run organisations require change and innovation (e.g. to stay competitive), it is often beneficial for employees to redefine and reject certain aspects of their work roles (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). For example, if the present role definitions, policies, or procedures in place are inefficient or inappropriate, rather than engaging in behaviours that maintain the status quo, it may be more beneficial for employees to direct their extrarole efforts toward changing the status quo (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Morrison and Phelps (1999) formally defined taking charge as “*voluntary and constructive efforts, [made] by individual employees, to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the contexts of their jobs, work units, or organisations*” (p. 403). In practical terms, taking charge behaviours entail adopting improved procedures for a role, changing how a role is performed in order to be more effective, or rectifying a faulty practice or procedure (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Taking charge is positioned as an extrarole behaviour, or an employee behaviour that goes beyond role-prescribed expectations in a way that is functional for the organisation (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), however as opposed to other more traditional forms of extrarole behaviour, such as organisational citizenship (hypothesis 2), taking charge is aimed at organisational improvement and is inherently change orientated (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

Importantly, evidence from various sources highlights the value of taking charge behaviour (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). For example, meta-analytic research has revealed appreciable positive correlations between taking charge and overall performance (Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010). Specifically, Thomas et al. (2010) found using an analysis of 4 independent samples, which included 675 participants, that taking charge was moderately positively correlated with overall performance. This overall performance dimension included both subjective performance criteria (e.g. self, peer, and supervisor-ratings of overall performance), as well as objective performance criteria (e.g. production rate data, and financial data). Thus, employee-driven taking charge behaviours have the potential to benefit a business's bottom-line.

Researchers have found that various individual difference variables impact taking charge behaviour. For example, Parker, Williams, and Turner (2006) and Parker and Collins (2010) found that proactive personality, or the relatively stable behavioural tendency to scan for opportunities in one's environment, show initiative, take action, and persevere to bring about change (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Parker et al., 2006) is related to taking charge behaviours. Specifically, Parker et al. (2006) found using production employees working in a wire-based manufacturing company in the United Kingdom that proactive personality is positively related to proactive work behaviour. Similarly, Parker and Collins (2010) found among a sample of Australian managers working in a range of industries, that proactive work behaviours are predicted by both proactive personality, and the consideration of future consequences, or the extent to which individuals consider distant versus immediate consequences of potential behaviours (Strathman, Gleicher, Boninger, & Edwards, 1994). Both self-efficacy, and felt responsibility, or an employee's

belief that they are personally responsible for bringing about constructive change in the workplace (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) have also been linked with taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Specifically, Morrison and Phelps (1999) in their seminal paper on taking charge, found using data obtained from multiple organisations in the United States, that employees with high self-efficacy and felt responsibility are more likely to engage in taking charge behaviours. Additionally, Chiaburu and Baker (2006) found using employees from the United States working in technical and administrative type jobs, that a high propensity to trust, and a weak employee exchange ideology positively influences taking charge behaviours. Employee exchange ideology refers to an employee's global beliefs concerning the extent to which their behaviours should be a function of the treatment they receive from their employing organisation (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Employees with a weak exchange ideology interpret their employment relationships in more open terms, however employees with a strong exchange ideology expect more quid-pro-quo and symmetric exchanges (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Lastly, and of paramount importance for this research, Love and Dustin (2014) found using robust survey research administered to employees from multiple organisations in the United States, that psychological collectivism is positively related to taking charge behaviour. Thus it appears that employees are more likely to take charge in their organisation when they value a sense of collectivism (Love & Dustin, 2014).

Love and Dustin's findings are in line with prior research conducted by Moon, Kamdar, Mayer, and Takeuchi (2008). The authors drew on the self- versus other-centeredness literature to test that when employees are other-centered, either as a consequence of the organisational context, or their own underling disposition

(e.g. a collectivistic orientation), they are more likely to take charge at work to help their organisation function effectively (Moon et al., 2008). Using employees from both India and the United States, the authors found support for this position, as the facets of personality related to personal achievement and self-interest (achievement striving) was negatively related to taking charge, however the facets of personality related to concern for others (duty) was positively related to taking charge behaviour (Moon et al., 2008). In congruence with Love and Dustin's (2014) findings, these results suggest that the antecedents of taking charge behaviour are based less on self-interest, and more on concerns about others (Moon et al., 2008). I will now outline a further theoretical basis for why collectivistic employees are more likely to engage in taking charge behaviours.

The findings from Love and Dustin (2014) and Moon et al. (2008) indicate that because collectivists prioritise the goals and well-being of the organisation and work groups to which they belong (Triandis, 1995), they are more likely to engage in taking charge behaviours to benefit the organisation. Similarly, Love and Dustin (2014) posited that compared with individualists, collectivists, due to the salience of their group definition and tendency towards cooperation, should engage in more extrarole behaviour aimed at benefiting the organisation. This conjecture is in line with prior survey research conducted by Moorman and Blakely (1995) which found that when employees hold collectivistic values or norms they are more likely to endorse items relating to loyal boosterism, interpersonal helping, and individual initiative. Collectivistic employees may also be more likely to engage in the aforementioned factors positively linked with taking charge. Parker and Collins (2010) found that consideration of future consequences positively influences taking charge behaviour. Given that collectivists adopt more of a long-term orientation

with respect to organisational pursuits (Erez & Earley, 1993; Triandis & Bhawuk, 1997), this suggests that collectivists should have an increased propensity to consider future consequences. Morrison and Phelps (1999) found that employees with high self-efficacy and felt responsibility are more likely to engage in taking charge behaviours. Given that collectivists tend to prioritise organisational pursuits (Triandis, 1995), this suggests collectivists may have increased felt responsibility. Further, Eby and Dobbins (1997) linked psychological collectivism with positive past experience working in groups, therefore collectivists may have increased self-efficacy due to the knowledge they gain from others via group pursuits. Lastly, Chiaburu and Baker (2006) found that a weak employee exchange ideology positively influences taking charge behaviours. Given that that employees low on collectivism (i.e., individualists) expect more symmetric and quid-pro-quo responses in social exchanges (Erez & Earley 1993; Triandis, 1988; as cited in Thomas et al., 2016), this suggests that collectivists may be more likely to engage in taking charge behaviours as they may have a weaker employee exchange ideology. In summary, given that there is a clear theoretical basis for why collectivists should engage in increased taking charge behaviours, and that Love and Dustin (2014) found that collectivistic employees are more likely to take charge at work, I therefore predicted the following:

Hypothesis 5: Psychological collectivism positively predicts taking charge behaviour.

In addition to individual antecedents, researchers have examined the various contextual factors that enhance employees' taking charge behaviour (Love & Dustin, 2014). Studies have found that the behaviours of leaders can influence employees' taking charge behaviour. For example, Leader-Member Exchange

(LMX) has been linked with taking charge (Bettencourt, 2004; Kim, Liu, & Diefendorff, 2015). LMX measures the quality of the exchange relationship between an employee and their supervisor, from the perspective of the employee (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, Cashman, Ginsburg, & Schiemann, 1977). Bettencourt (2004) as well as Kim et al. (2015) found that high-quality LMX relationships positively influences employees' taking charge behaviour. Taking charge is also influenced by supervisory output control, or the degree to which a supervisor relies on results, rather than procedures and processes, when evaluating, monitoring, and rewarding subordinates (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006). Similarly, Morrison and Phelps (1999) found that taking charge is positively related to employees' perceptions of top management openness. Specifically, when employees perceived that top management were open to employee suggestions and to employee-initiated change, employees were more likely to take charge.

In addition to leadership, researchers have examined the broader set of contextual factors that influence employees' taking charge behaviour. The aforementioned findings from Chiaburu & Baker (2006) and Morrison & Phelps (1999) underscore that employees need to perceive that they actually have the leeway, or the job autonomy, needed to engage in taking charge behaviours (Dysvik et al., 2016). Indeed Parker et al. (2006) found that job autonomy is directly related with proactive work behaviour. Further, Dysvik et al. (2016) found that the positive relationship between perceived investment in employee development and taking charge was conditional, occurring only for employees with perceived high levels of job autonomy. Overall, the aforementioned findings highlight the importance that context plays in an employee's decisions to take charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Importantly, Love and Dustin (2014) examined how the contextual factor team-

member exchange (TMX), or the quality of co-worker relationships (Seers, 1989; Seers et al., 1995) impacts employees' taking charge behaviour. In addition to finding that psychological collectivism was related to taking charge, the authors also found that high-quality TMX positively impacts employees' taking charge behaviour.

Team-Member Exchange (TMX)

Seers (1989) introduced the TMX construct to represent an individual employee's perception of their reciprocal exchange relationship with the work group as a whole. Specifically, TMX measures an employee's perception of their "*willingness to assist other members, to share ideas and feedback and in turn, how readily information help, and recognition are received from other members*" (Seers, 1989, p. 119). Thus, TMX quality indicates the effectiveness of an employee's working relationship with the work group (Seers, 1989; Seers et al., 1995). TMX was adopted from the aforementioned LMX construct developed by Graen and his colleagues (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen et al., 1977), which measures the exchange relationship between an employee and their supervisor. Although TMX and LMX both assess the quality of reciprocal exchange among personnel in the workplace (Banks et al., 2014), TMX examines the relationships between group members, whereas LMX focuses on the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Banks et al., 2014). Thus, TMX contrasts with LMX, as it is not dyadic, because it focuses on the employee's relationship with the work group to which they identify as a member (Seers, 1989). TMX is assessed on a continuum from low- to high-quality TMX (Love & Dustin, 2014). Low-quality TMX is characterised by limited resource exchange (Love & Dustin, 2014), whereas high-quality TMX is characterised by a willingness to trust and help other group members (Kamdar &

Dyne, 2007). Specifically, high-quality TMX relationships exist when individuals are willing to assist other group members, as well as trust that other group members will reciprocate these behaviours (Harris, Harvey, & Booth, 2010; Seers, 1989; Seers et al., 1995). Overall, individuals who perceive high-quality TMX, view both themselves and the members of their work group as engaging in cooperative reciprocal behaviours (Dierdorff et al., 2011). Importantly, high-quality TMX enhances both individual performance as well as team effectiveness, as employees who perceive high-quality TMX, more willingly assist group members, and share information, ideas and feedback within work groups (Seers, 1989; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Liu, Keller, & Shih, 2011). This is paramount, because organisational effectiveness is largely reliant on how well important information and knowledge is shared between individuals in work groups, units, and organisations (Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Kogut & Zander, 1996; Liu et al., 2011; Spender & Grant, 1996; Tsai, 2001). Furthermore, as previously stated, organisational structures have become flatter (Bettis & Hitt, 1995), and organisations increasingly design work around groups to achieve organisational objectives (Banks et al., 2014; DeMatteo et al., 1998; Harrison, Johns, & Martocchio, 2000; Hedge & Borman, 1995; Jackson et al., 2006; Liao et al., 2013; Mesmer-Magnus & DeChurch, 2009; Mohrman & Cohen, 1995; Stevens & Campion, 1994). Consequentially, horizontal interactions between employees in work group settings have increased in frequency, and now play an essential role for employee and organisational effectiveness (Liao et al., 2013). Thus, it is critical to understand and further investigate the effects of TMX in contemporary workplaces.

Indeed, prior research has linked TMX with several important outcomes (Love & Dustin, 2014). Seers (1989) in his seminal study, found using a sample of

industrial automotive workers from the United States, that high-quality TMX predicted supervisor-rated job performance, and predicted variance in job satisfaction beyond that accounted for by LMX. Similarly, Liden et al. (2000) found using employees from a large service organisation in the United States, that TMX predicted both job performance and organisational commitment, highlighting the salience of interpersonal relationships with respect to job performance and organisational commitment (Liden et al., 2000). Furthermore, in groups characterised by having high task interdependence, TMX is associated with effective decision making (Alge, Wiethoff, & Klein, 2003). Specifically, Alge et al. (2003) found using undergraduate students from the United States participating in a lab study, that under the condition of high task interdependence, high-quality TMX positively influences decision-making effectiveness. Furthermore, Liao, Liu, and Loi (2010) found among a sample of Chinese technicians working in a steel and iron manufacturing company, that high-quality TMX positively influences employee creativity, via self-efficacy. TMX may also serve as an important moderating variable, as TMX has been found to moderate the relationship between organisational identification, or an individual's perception of belongingness to, or oneness with, an organisation (Mael & Ashforth, 1992) and extrarole behaviours (Liu, Loi, & Lam, 2011). Specifically, Liu et al. (2011) found using data obtained from three Chinese automotive dealers, that employees with high levels of organisational identification exhibit higher levels of OCB performance, moreover this relationship is amplified under the condition of high-quality TMX. Similarly, TMX has also been found to reduce the adverse consequences of unmet expectations for newly hired employees (Major, Kozlowski, Chao, & Gardner, 1995). Specifically, Major et al. (1995) found using longitudinal survey data,

administered to newly hired graduating seniors from a large University in the United States, that high-quality TMX reduces the adverse effects of unmet expectations for new hires, relative to new hires who did not receive such support. Overall, this body of research highlights the far reaching impact of TMX in the workplace, as it can directly (e.g. Liden et al., 2000; Seers, 1989) and indirectly (e.g. Alge et al., 2003; Liao et al., 2010) impact various organisational outcomes, and serve as a moderating variable (e.g. Major et al., 1995; Liu et al., 2011). As previously mentioned, Love and Dustin (2014) found that high quality TMX positively impacts employees' taking charge behaviour, which suggests that having higher quality social exchanges with one's co-workers increases the likelihood that employees will take charge in their organisation (Love & Dustin, 2014). The authors provided a theoretical underpinning for why high-quality TMX should encourage taking charge behaviours, which will now be outlined.

Anand, Vidyarthi, Liden, and Rousseau (2010) investigated whether TMX moderates the relationship between idiosyncratic deals (i-deals), or individually bargained employment arrangements that employees negotiate with their employers (Anand et al., 2010) and OCB, using work groups from multiple organisations in the United States. The authors found that i-deals are positively related to employees' OCB, however under the condition of high-quality TMX, this relationship becomes somewhat redundant. This suggests that due to the norm of reciprocity, employees with high-quality TMX already engage OCB, thus i-deals have minimal influence on OCB in this context (Anand et al., 2010). Moreover, in line with social exchange theory, high-quality TMX fosters a feeling of obligation, which leads employees to willingly engage in OCB (Anand et al., 2010; Love & Dustin, 2014). Anand et al. (2010) also posited that employees receive both instrumental and socio-emotional

resources, in the context of high-quality TMX. Specifically, co-workers can provide emotional support in the form of showing empathy or understanding, as well as listening to problems (Anand et al., 2010). Importantly, Love and Dustin (2014) posited that co-workers may also provide emotional support in the form of encouraging peers to take charge at work. Indeed, research conducted by Ng and Feldman (2010) found using a diverse sample of employees from the United States, that job embeddedness is positively associated with innovation-related behaviours. Therefore, employees who are more embedded in their co-workers relationships may also feel safe engaging in proactive behaviours as well (Love & Dustin, 2014). Furthermore, research exploring proactive behaviours more broadly, has revealed that employees are more likely to engage in proactive behaviours when they are satisfied with their work group (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998), and when they have a good relationship with the employees that will likely be impacted by their proactive behaviour (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998). Lastly, Crant (2000) reviewed appropriate literature on proactive behaviour in organisational contexts, including taking charge, and proposed an integrative framework of the antecedents and consequences of proactive behaviour. In this model, Crant proposed that various contextual factors, including organisational culture and norms, situational cues, management support, and public or private setting, are important antecedents of proactive behaviours. In summary, based on Crant's (2000) assertions that proactive behaviour in general is strongly influenced by contextual factors, as well as the aforementioned literature detailed above, which highlights the importance of TMX in influencing positive group member interactions, as well as outcomes related to working with others (e.g. Ashford et al., 1998; LePine & VanDyne, 1998; Anand et al., 2010; Ng & Feldman 2010), Love and Dustin (2014)

hypothesised that TMX will be positively related to taking charge behaviour, and support was found for this hypothesis. However, for the purposes of this research, there is a theoretical underpinning based on empirical research conducted by Dierdorff et al. (2011) which suggests that TMX may also serve to moderate the relationships between psychological collectivism and group member job performance (hypotheses 1-4), and taking charge behaviour (hypothesis 5), which will now be outlined.

The Moderating Role of TMX

Dierdorff et al. (2011) examined the impact of psychological collectivism and TMX on group performance over time, with specific consideration to the different facets of psychological collectivism. Participants for the study were graduate and undergraduate students from a large university in the United States, who completed a business simulation. As part of the study, participants were required to make complex sets of decisions as a group, relating to all aspects of a business's operations. This study extended Jackson et al.'s (2006) study on psychological collectivism, which focused on individual-level outcomes, by examining psychological collectivism as a group compositional variable. This allowed the authors to test whether elevated levels of psychological collectivism within a group is predictive of group performance. Results revealed that different facets of psychological collectivism effects group performance as it unfolds over time. Moreover, TMX was found to moderate the relationships between several facets of psychological collectivism and group performance over time. These results highlight that the perceived quality of social exchanges (i.e., TMX quality) influences group members' motivation to continue to direct their efforts towards group pursuits (Dierdorff et al., 2011). Therefore, TMX-quality is an important

contextual factor that can enhance the effects of psychological collectivism on group performance (Dierdorff et al., 2011). Overall, these findings highlight the importance of assessing directly the key factor frequently credited for collectivism's effects on performance, that being the quality of cooperation between group members (using a measure of TMX) (Dierdorff et al., 2011; Seers, 1989). In summary, given that TMX has the potential to have a far-reaching influence on several individual and organisational outcomes (Love & Dustin, 2014), and that the aforementioned research conducted by Dierdorff et al. (2011) found that TMX moderates the relationship between several facets of psychological collectivism and group performance, this suggests that a logical and fruitful avenue for research would be to examine whether TMX plays a moderating role between the constructs under investigation in the present study. Further, in doing so, this research will serve to expand and deepen the investigation into the effects of collectivism in the workplace, by exploring psychological collectivism in a more detailed and nuanced way.

It is now commonly assumed within the field of psychology and organisational behaviour, that behaviour is a product of both the characteristics of a person and the environment in which they interact (Chatman & Barsade, 1995; Lewin, 1935). Thus, neither personal characteristics (e.g. psychological collectivism) nor situational characteristics (e.g. TMX-quality) alone, are responsible for predicting behaviour (Chatman & Barsade, 1995). Behaviour is the function of both personal characteristics and situational characteristics interacting together, referred to as the interactional perspective (Chatman & Barsade, 1995). The interactional perspective is used in organisational research to understand why and when an individual's behaviour deviates from or corresponds to their

personality across situations or time (Chatman & Barsade, 1995). Moreover, the interactional perspective is paramount in understanding cooperation at work, in order to determine why individuals cooperate with their co-workers and why they don't (Chatman & Barsade, 1995). Therefore, this research will employ an interactional perspective to examine when and why psychological collectivism influences group member job performance and taking charge behaviour, via an examination of TMX.

As previously stated, compared with individuals low on collectivism, individuals high on collectivism are expected to garner increased performance benefits (hypotheses 1-5). However, in line with relevant research on collectivism (e.g. Dierdorff et al., 2011), I posit that these relationships will be moderated by TMX. More specifically, I posit that these relationships will be moderated by TMX, such that high-quality TMX will serve to enhance the performance benefits of psychological collectivism on group member job performance and taking charge behaviour. For example, if individuals high on collectivism perceive high-quality TMX between group members, this should provide an environment in which they feel comfortable continuing to engage in cooperative behaviours with the members of their work group, and performance directed at group pursuits should increase (Dierdorff et al., 2011). Therefore, I predicted the following moderation hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1b: The relationship between psychological collectivism and group member task performance is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly positive.

Hypothesis 2b: The relationship between psychological collectivism and group member citizenship behaviour is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly positive.

Hypothesis 3b: The relationship between psychological collectivism and group member counterproductive behaviour is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly negative.

Hypothesis 4b: The relationship between psychological collectivism and group member withdrawal behaviour is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly negative.

Hypothesis 5b: The relationship between psychological collectivism and taking charge is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly positive.

Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Psychological collectivism positively predicts group member task performance.

Hypothesis 2: Psychological collectivism positively predicts group member citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 3: Psychological collectivism negatively predicts group member counterproductive behaviour.

Hypothesis 4: Psychological collectivism negatively predicts group member withdrawal behaviour.

Hypothesis 5: Psychological collectivism positively predicts taking charge behaviour.

Hypothesis 1b: The relationship between psychological collectivism and group member task performance is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly positive.

Hypothesis 2b: The relationship between psychological collectivism and group member citizenship behaviour is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly positive.

Hypothesis 3b: The relationship between psychological collectivism and group member counterproductive behaviour is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly negative.

Hypothesis 4b: The relationship between psychological collectivism and group member withdrawal behaviour is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly negative.

Hypothesis 5b: The relationship between psychological collectivism and taking charge is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly positive.

Chapter Summary

This present research seeks to examine the performance benefits of psychological collectivism within the New Zealand context. This research has two specific aims. Firstly, to examine whether employees within New Zealand who are more collectivistic are better performing group members, and engage in increased taking charge behaviours. Secondly, to investigate the possible moderating role of TMX in these relationships. This research is important to conduct, as minimal research has been conducted within New Zealand which has examined the effects of collectivism and TMX in the workplace. Moreover, there exists no New Zealand based research which has examined collectivism and TMX's linkage with the variables examined in the present study.

In the next chapter, the methods used in this research are outlined, followed by a chapter outlining the results. The final chapter discusses the study's findings.

Chapter Two: Method

Participants

Table 1.
Demographics

	N	%		
Ethnicity				
New Zealand European	123	64.1		
Other European	28	14.6		
Māori	14	7.3		
Pacific Peoples	1	0.5		
Asian	9	4.7		
Indian	8	4.2		
Other Ethnicity	8	4.2		
TOTAL	191			
Gender				
Female	150	78.1		
Male	35	18.2		
Gender Variant/Non-Conforming	1	0.5		
Prefer not to answer	3	1.6		
TOTAL	189			
	N	Range	Mean	SD
Age	191	20-65	41.20	12.42

Participants in this study were employees from various businesses throughout New Zealand, representing a wide range of industries. Similar to Jackson et al. (2006), to be eligible to participate in the study, an employee's job had to contain a significant group component, meaning they needed to collaborate with others to perform day-to-day tasks and achieve collective work goals. The online questionnaire received a total of 193 completed responses (see Appendix A) between the dates of November 8, 2018, and April 12, 2019. The response rate cannot be determined, as the link to the online questionnaire was sent to an unknown number of potential respondents via the HR managers.

The demographic variables of the 193 participants who completed the questionnaire are shown in Table 1.

Procedure

Ethical approval for this research was granted by the School of Psychology Research and Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, University of Waikato. To recruit participants for this research, I first contacted individuals I knew personally who were involved in running organisations (e.g. owners, managers) and asked them about the possibility of conducting survey research with a group of employees at their company. I also cold-emailed various companies to discuss the possibility of conducting anonymous survey research with a group of their employees. This involved identifying the HR managers or an appropriate person at the organisation, and emailing them to identify whether they were interested in being involved in the research. In this email (Appendix A), pertinent information about the research was detailed, such as what would be expected of them should they agree to participate. Moreover, this email outlined the approximate length of the survey, stated that the survey aims to assess attitudes about working in groups (similar to Jackson et al., 2006), and explained that the survey is completely anonymous and confidential. As a way to encourage their involvement, at the end of the study, managers were offered the choice of receiving a summary of the study's findings, along with suggestions for how they could use them at their organisation. Further communication was required with several organisations, which involved additional emailing, phone calls, and meeting in person to discuss any further queries and concerns. Note: when I was not able to obtain a direct email address, a message was sent to the organisation's generic email address, requesting an HR manager or an appropriate person to please make contact with me (Appendix B).

Managers who agreed for their employees to participate were then sent the link to the online questionnaire, which contained the information sheet for participants (Appendix C). The participant's information sheet detailed the purpose of the research, outlined the approximate length of the survey, and explained that the survey is completely anonymous and confidential. Moreover, the participant information sheet detailed the various measures included in the survey, and stated that in order "*to be eligible for this study, your job must contain a significant group component, meaning you need to collaborate with others to perform day-to-day tasks and achieve collective work goals*" (similar to Jackson et al., 2006). No incentives were offered to participants for completing the survey. However, they were offered the choice of receiving a summary of the research results. If participants wished to receive a summary of the results, they were asked to email the researcher at the email address provided. The online questionnaire which included the information sheet, was then disseminated to employees via the organisations internal communications software (i.e., internal emailing system, or via the link being put on the local intranet) for employees to complete.

Measures

To collect data for this study, an anonymous online questionnaire was used (Appendix D), which was constructed using previously validated measures. The questionnaire was developed and distributed via the online survey software Qualtrics. In total there were 78 questions that measured participants' psychological collectivism, TMX-quality, taking charge behaviour, group member task performance, group member citizenship behaviours, group member counterproductive behaviours, and group member withdrawal behaviours. A screening question was used for participants to agree to participate in the survey,

and demographic questions were included to measure ethnicity, gender, and age. Items which are marked with an asterisk were reverse scored.

Psychological Collectivism.

Psychological collectivism was measured using the five-facet instrument developed by Jackson et al. (2006). This scale consists of 15 items in total, with each facet assessed using three items on a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Sample items included “*I wanted to work with those groups as opposed to working alone*” (Preference facet), “*I was not bothered by the need to rely on group members*” (Reliance facet), “*I cared about the well-being of those groups*” (Concern facet), “*I followed the norms of those groups*” (Norm Acceptance facet), and “*I cared more about the goals of those groups than my own goals*” (Goal Priority facet). Jackson et al. (2006) reported the Cronbach’s α reliability score for the psychological collectivism measure when used as an overall scale ($\alpha = .82$), which is deemed to be an acceptable level of reliability (Field, 2018). Moreover, each of the five specific facets also possessed acceptable levels of reliability (Field, 2018). Facet-level reliabilities were .89 for preference, .79 for reliance, .84 for concern, .82 for norm acceptance, and .83 for goal priority.

Task Performance

Similar to Jackson et al. (2006), Task performance was measured using the 7-item scale constructed by Williams and Anderson (1991), with the wording altered to reflect work group duties and responsibilities, and was also changed to allow for self-reported rather than supervisor-reported data. Respondents were asked on a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*), “*How much do you agree with the following statements*”. Sample items included “*I adequately*

complete assigned work group duties”, *“I perform tasks that are expected of me by my work group*”, *“I meet formal requirements of the work group*”, and *“I fail to perform essential work group duties”* (reverse scored). Jackson et al. (2006) reported the Cronbach’s α reliability score for task performance (.78) which is deemed to be an acceptable level of reliability (Field, 2018).

Citizenship Behaviour.

Similar to Jackson et al. (2006), citizenship behaviour was measured using the 16-item scale developed by Lee and Allen (2002), with the wording modified to reflect work-group-directed citizenship, and was also changed to allow for self-reported rather than co-worker or supervisor reported data. Respondents were asked on a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *always*), *“How often do you engage in these work group behaviours”*. Sample items included *“I help other group members who have been absent”*, *“I show genuine concern and courtesy toward other group members, even under the most trying business or personal situations”*, *“I assist others group members with their duties”*, *“I show pride when representing the work group in public”*, and *“I take action to protect the work group from potential problems”*. Jackson et al. (2006) reported the Cronbach’s α reliability score for citizenship behaviour (.94) which is deemed to be an acceptable level of reliability (Field, 2018).

Counterproductive Behaviour.

Similar to Jackson et al. (2006), Counterproductive behaviour was measured using the nine-item scale constructed by Robinson and O’Leary-Kelly (1998), with the wording altered to measure work-group-directed counterproductive behaviours. Respondents were asked on a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *always*),

“*Within the last year, how often have you?*”. Sample items included “*Damaged property being used by the work group*”, “*Said or did something to purposely hurt a work group member*”, “*Deliberately bent or broke a group rule(s)*”, and “*Did group work badly, incorrectly or slowly on purpose*”. Jackson et al. (2006) reported the Cronbach’s α reliability score for counterproductive behaviour (.86) which is deemed to be an acceptable level of reliability (Field, 2018).

Withdrawal Behaviour.

Similar to Jackson et al. (2006) Withdrawal behaviour was measured using the 11-item scale constructed by Lehman and Simpson (1992), with the item wording altered to reflect the work group context. Respondents were asked on a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *always*), “*Within the last year, how often have you?*”. Sample items included “*Been absent from work group activities*”, “*Taken longer lunch or rest breaks than allowed*”, “*Put less effort into group work activities than should have*”, “*Spent time on personal matters rather than group duties*”, and “*Left work early without permission*”. Jackson et al. (2006) reported the Cronbach’s α reliability score for withdrawal behaviour (.50) which is not deemed to be an acceptable level of reliability (Field, 2018). However I decided to include this measure even though it had poor reliability, as I wanted this study’s methodology to replicate as much as possible with Jackson et al.’s (2006) study. Moreover, this measure was shown to be reliable within the present study.

Taking Charge.

Similar to Love and Dustin (2014), Taking charge behaviour was measured using the 10-item scale developed by Morrison and Phelps (1999), with the wording changed to allow for self-reported rather than co-worker or supervisor-reported data.

This scale is assessed using a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Sample items included “*I often try to change organisational rules or policies that are non-productive or counterproductive*”, “*I often try to change how my job is executed in order to be more effective*”, “*I often try to institute new work methods that are more effective for the company*”, and “*I often make constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organisation*”. Love and Dustin (2014) reported the Cronbach’s α reliability score for counterproductive behaviour (.97) which is deemed to be an acceptable level of reliability (Field, 2018).

Team-Member Exchange.

TMX was measured using the 10-item TMX scale constructed by Seers (1989) and further outlined in Seers et al. (1995). Similar to Dierdorff et al. (2011) and Love and Dustin (2014), the items wording were modified to reference one’s work group instead of a team (for the purposes of consistency with the rest of the survey). This scale is assessed using a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *always*). Sample items included “*How often do you make suggestions about better work methods to other group members?*”, “*Do other members of your work group usually let you know when you do something that makes their jobs easier (or harder)?*”, “*How flexible are you about switching job responsibilities to make things easier for other members of your work group?*”, and “*In busy situations, how often do you volunteer your efforts to help others in your work group?*”. Love and Dustin (2014) reported the Cronbach’s α reliability score for TMX (.80) which is deemed to be an acceptable level of reliability (Field, 2018).

Demographics

Demographic information was also measured, including ethnicity, gender, and age (refer to Table 1).

Ethnicity.

The ethnicity question began with the prompt “*What is your ethnicity?*”. Respondents could select from the following ethnicities: New Zealand European, Other European, Māori, Pacific Peoples, Asian, Middle Eastern, Latin American, African, Indian, and Other Ethnicity.

Gender.

The gender question began with the prompt “*To which gender identity do you most identify?*” For the purposes of inclusivity, respondents could select from the following genders: Female, Male, Transgender Female, Transgender Male, Gender Variant/Non-Conforming, Not Listed (with a box included for respondents to state their gender), and Prefer not to answer (Internet Governance Forum, n.d.).

Age.

The age question began with the prompt “*What is your current age in years? Leave this empty if you don't want to respond*”. Respondents were then presented with a box to include their age if they wished.

Data Analysis

Data Cleaning

Incomplete responses were deleted from the dataset. Specifically, when I observed that a respondent missed more than 3 items on the seven measures in the survey

(e.g. from the psychological collectivism, task performance, citizenship behaviour, counterproductive behaviour, withdrawal behaviour, taking charge, and TMX scales), I deleted their response from the data set. However, I did not delete completed responses which omitted demographic information (e.g. information on ethnicity, gender, and age). For two participants who missed only 3 items, missing data was replaced with the mean. An additional response was deleted as they represented an extreme score, which reduced the total sample for data analysis to 192 participants. In statistics, an extreme score refers to a “*score that is widely separated from the rest of the scores and raises the possibility of an error in measurement, recording, or data entry*” (Colman, 2015, p. 538).

Internal Consistency.

The internal reliability was calculated for all of the measures. This involved conducting Cronbach alpha tests on the psychological collectivism measure, including its five facets, as well as the task performance, citizenship behaviour, counterproductive behaviour, withdrawal behaviour, taking charge, and TMX measures. Scales that produced a Cronbach’s alpha (α) value above .7 were deemed reliable (Field, 2013).

Correlation Analysis.

Pearson’s correlation was used to examine the strength of the relationships between psychological collectivism and the four dimensions of group member job performance and taking charge behaviour, testing hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5.

Regression Analysis.

A simple linear regression analysis was performed due to the statistically significant results of the correlation analysis, to determine whether psychological collectivism had a causal influence on (i.e., predicted) group member job performance, and the performance of taking charge. Significant results were indicated if p -values fell below .05.

Moderation Analysis.

Moderation analysis was performed to test hypotheses 1b, 2b, 3b, 4b, and 5b. The moderation hypotheses aimed to assess whether TMX influences the relationship between psychological collectivism and the four dimensions of group member job performance, and the performance of taking charge.

Moderation analyses were conducted following Field's (2018) recommendations to use the PROCESS command constructed by Preacher and Hayes (2004). A diagram of a basic moderation model is depicted in Figure 1.

The moderation model depicted in Figure 1, shows that a moderating variable affects the relationship between two other variables (Field, 2018). Therefore, within the present study, if TMX serves as a moderating variable, then the strength or direction of the relationship between psychological collectivism and my dependent variables is affected by TMX.

Simple Relationship



Moderated Relationship

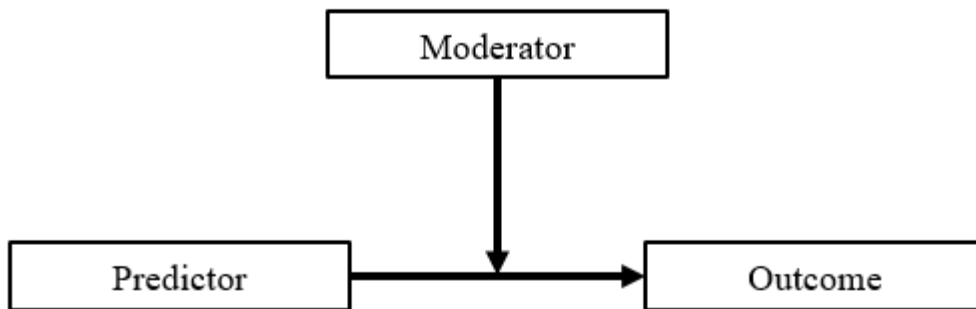


Figure 1. Diagram of a basic moderation model (Field, 2018)

Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined the methods used for data collection and analysing the data.

The proceeding chapter presents the results from the analyses.

Chapter Three: Results

This chapter presents the findings of this study.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were calculated for all the measures in this study, and included the means, standard deviations, and Cronbach alphas (Refer to Table 2). Respondents reported relatively high levels of psychological collectivism (3.86), with each of the facets ranging between 3.42 to 4.34. Respondents reported high levels of task performance (4.44), relatively high levels of citizenship behaviour (3.96), low levels of counterproductive behaviour (1.43), and low levels of withdrawal behaviour (1.81). Respondents reported high levels of taking charge (4.00), and moderately high levels of TMX-quality (3.63). The internal reliability for each of the scales was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. All of the scales produced acceptable levels of reliability (Field, 2018), with reliabilities ranging from .72 to .92.

Table 2.

Means, SDs, Cronbach Alphas for Psychological Collectivism and Its Five Facets, the Four Dimensions of Group Member Job Performance, and Taking Charge Behaviour

Variables	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>α</i>
Psychological Collectivism	192	3.86	.57	.86
- Preference	192	3.94	.85	.89
- Reliance	192	3.53	.93	.76
- Concern	192	4.34	.76	.87
- Norm Acceptance	192	4.05	.67	.74
- Goal Priority	192	3.42	.99	.90
Task Performance	192	4.44	.47	.72
Citizenship Behaviour	192	3.96	.52	.89
Counterproductive Behaviour	192	1.43	.39	.80
Withdrawal Behaviour	192	1.81	.43	.80
Taking Charge	192	4.00	.68	.92
TMX	192	3.63	.51	.81

Correlations

Correlation analysis was used to examine the relationships between psychological collectivism and the four dimensions of group member job performance (hypotheses 1 to 4), and the performance of taking charge (hypothesis 5). Table 3 presents the results of these two-tailed correlation analyses.

Table 3.

Pearson Correlations Between Psychological Collectivism, Group Member Job Performance, and Taking Charge Behaviour

<i>Construct</i>	TP	CB	CountB	WB	TC
PC	.116	.404***	-.204**	-.154*	.151*

Note. PC = Psychological collectivism; TP = Group member task performance; CB = Group member citizenship behaviour; CountB = Group member counterproductive behaviour; WB = Group member withdrawal behaviour; TC = Taking charge; TMX = Team-member exchange.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .005$

*** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 1 proposed that psychological collectivism will be positively related to group member task performance. However psychological collectivism did not significantly correlate with group member task performance ($r = .116$, $p = .108$), thus hypothesis 1 was not supported. This suggests that psychological collectivism did not affect group member task performance.

Hypothesis 2 proposed psychological collectivism will be positively related to group member citizenship behaviour. Psychological collectivism was found to have a significant positive relationship with group member citizenship behaviour ($r = .404$, $p < .001$). This provides initial support for hypothesis 2, and suggests that as psychological collectivism increases, group member job performance also increases.

Hypothesis 3 proposed that psychological collectivism will be negatively related to group member counterproductive behaviour. Psychological collectivism correlated significantly negatively with group member counterproductive behaviour ($r = -.204$, $p = .002$). This provides initial support for hypothesis 3, and

suggests that as psychological collectivism increases, group member counterproductive behaviour also decreases.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that psychological collectivism will be negatively related to group member withdrawal behaviour. Psychological collectivism correlated significantly negatively with group member withdrawal behaviour ($r = -.154, p = .016$). This provides initial support for hypothesis 4, and suggests that as psychological collectivism increases, group member withdrawal behaviour also decreases.

Hypothesis 5 proposed that psychological collectivism will be positively related to taking charge behaviour. Psychological collectivism correlated significantly positively with taking charge behaviour ($r = .151, p = .018$). This provides initial support for hypothesis 5, and suggests that as psychological collectivism increases, taking charge behaviour also increases.

Regression Analysis

A simple linear regression was computed to determine whether psychological collectivism significantly predicted group member citizenship behaviour (hypothesis 2), group member counterproductive behaviour (hypothesis 3), group member withdrawal behaviour (hypothesis 4), and the performance of taking charge (hypothesis 5). These regression analyses were conducted after the correlation analyses generated significant results.

Group Member Citizenship Behaviour.

Results of the regression analysis revealed that psychological collectivism predicted a significant proportion of the total variation in citizenship behaviours, ($F(1, 190) = 36.954, p < .001$), with an R^2 of .163. This suggests that psychological

collectivism does predict citizenship behaviours ($\beta = .404, p < .001$). Thus, hypothesis 2 was fully supported.

Group Member Counterproductive Behaviour.

Results of the regression analysis revealed that psychological collectivism predicted a significant proportion of the total variation in counterproductive behaviours, ($F(1, 190) = 8.283, p = .004$), with an R^2 of .042. This suggests that psychological collectivism does predict counterproductive behaviours ($\beta = -.204, p = .004$). Thus, hypothesis 3 was fully supported.

Group Member Withdrawal Behaviour.

Results of the regression analysis revealed that psychological collectivism predicted a significant proportion of the total variation in withdrawal behaviours, ($F(1, 190) = 4.640, p = .032$), with an R^2 of .024. This suggests that psychological collectivism does predict withdrawal behaviours ($\beta = -.154, p = .032$). Thus, hypothesis 4 was fully supported.

Taking charge.

Results of the regression analysis revealed that psychological collectivism predicted a significant proportion of the total variation in taking charge, ($F(1, 190) = 4.429, p = .037$), with an R^2 of .023. This suggests that psychological collectivism does predict taking charge behaviours ($\beta = .151, p = .037$). Thus, hypothesis 5 was fully supported.

Moderation Analysis

To test the hypotheses that TMX-quality moderates the relationship between psychological collectivism and group member job performance (hypotheses 1b, 2b,

3b, and 4b) and taking charge (hypothesis 5b), a moderation analysis was performed. As stated in the method section, moderation analyses were conducted following Field's (2018) recommendations to use the PROCESS command constructed by Preacher and Hayes (2004). This plug-in allows the researcher to determine whether the strength or direction of the relationship between psychological collectivism and the dependent variables, is affected by TMX-quality.

Specifically, it was hypothesised that: the relationship between psychological collectivism and group member task performance is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly positive (Hypothesis 1b); the relationship between psychological collectivism and group member citizenship behaviour is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly positive. (Hypothesis 2b); the relationship between psychological collectivism and group member counterproductive behaviour is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly negative. (Hypothesis 3b); the relationship between psychological collectivism and group member withdrawal behaviour is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly negative. (Hypothesis 4b); and the relationship between psychological collectivism and taking charge is moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship is more strongly positive (Hypothesis 5b).

Hypothesis 1b, 2b, 3b, and 5b were not supported. However, Hypothesis 4b was supported, as TMX significantly moderated the relationship between psychological collectivism and group member withdrawal behaviour. More specifically, the relationship between psychological collectivism and group member withdrawal behaviour was moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality,

the relationship was more strongly negative. Put differently, TMX and psychological collectivism interacted to predict group member withdrawal behaviour, such that there was a stronger negative relationship for employees with high-quality TMX. In the preceding paragraph, the process used to reveal this finding is outlined.

TMX was examined as a moderator of the relation between psychological collectivism and group member withdrawal behaviour. Psychological collectivism and TMX were entered in the first step of the regression analysis ($R^2 = .07$, $F(3, 188) = 5.07$, $p < .005$). Psychological collectivism was a significant predictor of group member withdrawal behaviour ($b = .73$, $p < .05$), although TMX was not a significant predictor of group member withdrawal behaviour ($b = .72$, $p > .05$). In the second step of the regression analysis, the interaction term between TMX and psychological collectivism was entered, and it explained a significant increase in variance in group member withdrawal behaviour, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $F(1, 188) = 5.09$, $p < .05$. Thus, although TMX was not a significant predictor of group member withdrawal behaviour, TMX was a significant moderator of the relationship between psychological collectivism and group member withdrawal behaviour ($b = -.23$, $p < .05$). The moderation effect is illustrated in Figure 2.

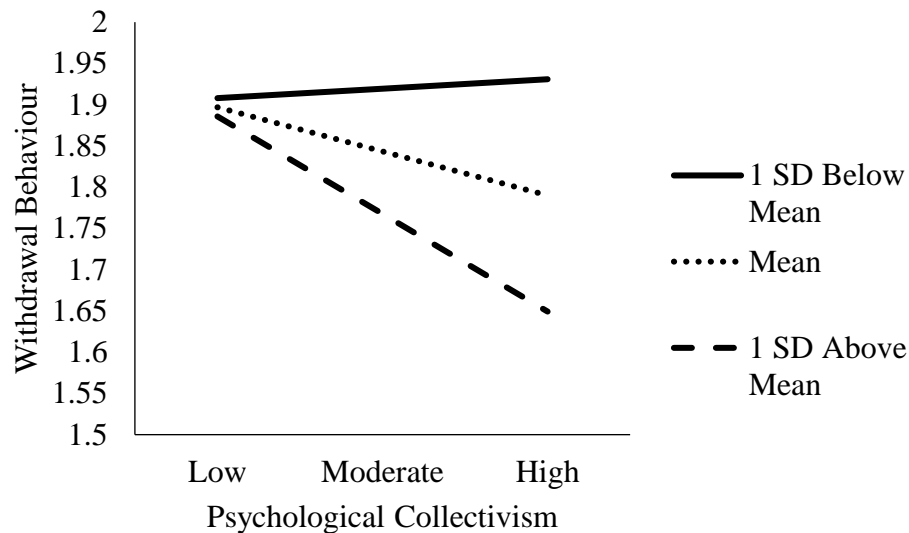


Figure 2. Interaction between psychological collectivism and TMX on group member withdrawal behaviour.

Supplementary Findings

Psychological Collectivism and the Facet level.

In addition to exploring psychological collectivism as a higher order general factor, regression analysis was also performed at the facet level. This allowed me to examine whether each of the facets significantly contributed to any of the outcomes.

Table 4 helps to delineate the reasons for psychological collectivism's effects, as it provides information regarding the relative importance of each of the five facets (Jackson et al. 2006). Specifically, the method used to judge the relative importance of correlated predictors (i.e., the individual facets), was an examination of the standardised regression weights (denoted β in table 7) (Jackson et al., 2006).

The results in Table 4 show that concern and to a lesser extent preference are both important in predicting citizenship behaviour. Additionally, concern is also important in predicting taking charge.

Table 4.

Relationship Between Psychological Collectivism and Group Member Performance and Taking Charge

Variable	Member citizenship behaviour		Member counterproductive behaviour		Member withdrawal behaviour		Taking charge behaviour	
	R^2	β	R^2	β	R^2	β	R^2	β
General factor								
Psychological collectivism	.163*	.404*	.042*	-.204*	.024*	-.154*	.023*	.151*
Specific Facet								
Preference	.239*	.174*	.052	.049	.059*	-.016	.100*	-.010
Reliance		-.055		-.165		.121		-.117
Concern		.397*		-.042		-.167		.357*
Norm acceptance		.033		-.053		-.098		-.069
Goal priority		.020		-.104		-.084		.058

Note. $N = 192$.

* $p < .05$.

TMX as a Predictor Variable.

Love and Dustin (2014) found that high-quality TMX positively impacts employees' taking charge behaviour. In light of these findings, and given that TMX has the potential to have a far-reaching influence on several individual and organisational outcomes (Love & Dustin, 2014), I also examined whether TMX is directly related with the performance of taking charge, and the four dimensions of group member job performance.

Correlations

Correlation analysis was used to examine the relationships between TMX and the performance of taking charge, and the four dimensions of group member job performance. Table 5 presents the results of these two-tailed correlation analyses.

Table 5.

Pearson Correlations Between TMX, Taking Charge Behaviour, and Group Member Job Performance

<i>Construct</i>	TC	TP	CB	CountB	WB
TMX	.287***	.213**	.523***	-.200**	-.213**

Note. TMX = Team-member exchange; TC = Taking charge; TP = Group member task performance; CB = Group member citizenship behaviour; CountB = Group member counterproductive behaviour; WB = Group member withdrawal behaviour.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .005$

*** $p < .001$

Correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between TMX and taking charge. TMX was found to have a significant positive relationship with taking charge ($r = .287, p < .001$). This suggests that as TMX-quality increases, taking charge behaviour also increases.

Correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between TMX and group member task performance. TMX was found to have a significant positive relationship with group member task performance ($r = .213, p = .001$). This suggests that as TMX-quality increases, group member task performance also increases

Correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationships between TMX and group member citizenship behaviour. TMX was found to have a significant positive relationship with group member citizenship behaviour ($r = .523, p < .001$). This suggests that as TMX-quality increases, group member citizenship behaviour also increases.

Correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationships between TMX and group member counterproductive behaviour. TMX was found to have a significant negative relationship with group member counterproductive behaviour ($r = -.200, p = .003$). This suggests that as TMX-quality increases, group member counterproductive behaviour also decreases.

Lastly, correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationships between TMX and group member withdrawal behaviour. TMX was found to have a significant negative relationship with group member withdrawal behaviour ($r = -.213, p = .002$). This suggests that as TMX-quality increases, group member withdrawal behaviour also decreases.

Regression Analysis

A simple linear regression was computed to determine whether TMX predicted the performance of taking charge, and the four dimension of group member job performance. These regression analyses were conducted post-hoc, only after the correlation analyses generated significant results, and so no *a-priori* assumptions existed concerning the direction of the linkages between the constructs in the regression analyses.

Taking charge.

Similar to Love and Dustin (2014), results of the regression analysis revealed that TMX predicted a significant proportion of the total variation in taking charge, ($F(1, 190) = 17.024, p < .001$), with an R^2 of .082. This suggests that TMX-quality does predict taking charge behaviours ($\beta = .287, p < .001$).

Group Member Task Performance.

Results of the regression analysis revealed that TMX predicted a significant proportion of the total variation in group member task performance, ($F(1, 190) = 9.050, p = .003$), with an R^2 of .045. This suggests that TMX-quality does predict group member task performance ($\beta = .213, p = .003$).

Group Member Citizenship Behaviour.

Results of the regression analysis revealed that TMX predicted a significant proportion of the total variation in group member citizenship behaviour, ($F(1, 190) = 71.509, p < .001$), with an R^2 of .273. This suggests that TMX-quality does predict group member citizenship behaviours ($\beta = .523, p < .001$).

Group Member Counterproductive Behaviour.

Results of the regression analysis revealed that TMX predicted a significant proportion of the total variation in group member counterproductive behaviour, ($F(1, 190) = 7.923, p = .005$), with an R^2 of .040. This suggests that TMX-quality does predict group member counterproductive behaviours ($\beta = -.200, p = .005$).

Group Member Withdrawal Behaviour.

Results of the regression analysis revealed that TMX predicted a significant proportion of the total variation in group member withdrawal behaviour, ($F(1, 190) = 9.004, p = .005$), with an R^2 of .045. This suggests that TMX-quality does predict group member withdrawal behaviours ($\beta = -.213, p = .003$).

Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined the results of this research. In the following chapter, the results will be discussed in detail.

Chapter Four: Discussion

This present research sought to examine the performance benefits of psychological collectivism and TMX-quality in the workplace. The nature of work in contemporary organisations has become increasingly group orientated. Consequentially, it has become essential to identify employees who have a propensity to be successful group members (Eby & Dobbins, 1997; Jackson et al., 2006). Psychological collectivism is a critical factor in understanding how an individual responds to working in a group-based environment (Eby & Dobbins, 1997). Numerous studies have linked psychological collectivism with several important outcomes for individuals working in groups. The present research sought to build upon existing research, via examining the performance benefits of psychological collectivism within the New Zealand context.

This research had two specific aims. Firstly, to examine whether employees within New Zealand who are more collectivistic are better performing group members, and engage in increased taking charge behaviours. Secondly, to investigate the possible moderating role of TMX in these relationships.

The findings of this research supported several of the proposed hypotheses, and additional supplementary findings were also obtained. This chapter details the findings from this research, as follows: (1) psychological collectivisms relationships with other variables; (2) TMX as a moderator; (3) supplementary findings; (4) practical implications; (5) contributions; (6) limitations and future research; and (7) conclusion.

Psychological Collectivisms Relationships With Other Variables

Psychological Collectivism and Group Member Task Performance.

Hypotheses 1 was not supported: psychological collectivism did not positively predict group member task performance, indicating that individuals who are more collectivistic do not perform their group tasks better. This finding was not in accordance with Jackson et al.'s (2006) study which found psychological collectivism was positively related to group member task performance. A possible reason for the differences between this study and Jackson et al.'s study, is that this study used self-reported data to measure task performance, whereas Jackson et al. (2006) used supervisor-reported data. This difference could have impacted the results, as a supervisor might have a more accurate representation of an employee's performance.

Psychological Collectivism and Group Member Citizenship Behaviour.

Results of the regression analyses support hypothesis 2: psychological collectivism positively predicted group member citizenship behaviour. This suggests that when an employee values a sense of collectivism (Love & Dustin, 2014), this increases the likelihood that they will engage in group member citizenship behaviours in their organisation. This finding confirms previous research by Jackson et al. (2006), Moorman and Blakely (1995), and Van Dyne et al. (2000) which provided evidence for the link between collectivism and citizenship behaviours. This finding is important as OCB is a key factor which promotes organisational effectiveness and competitive advantage (Chahal & Mehta, 2010; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2009).

Psychological Collectivism and Group Member Counterproductive Behaviour.

Results of the regression analyses support hypothesis 3: psychological collectivism negatively predicted group member counterproductive behaviour. This suggests that when an employee values a sense of collectivism (Love & Dustin, 2014), this decreases the likelihood that they will engage in group member counterproductive behaviours in their organisation. This finding confirms previous research by Jackson et al. (2006) who found that collectivistic employees are less likely to engage in counterproductive behaviours. This finding is important as counterproductive behaviour creates many problems for organisations (Kelloway et al., 2010; Mikilay et al., 2001), and are associated with astounding financial (Jones, 1983; Jones & Wuebker, 1985; Robinson, 2008; Sauser, 2007), and personal (Hogh, Mikkelsen, & Hansen, 2011; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012) costs.

Psychological Collectivism and Group Member Withdrawal Behaviour.

Results of the regression analyses support hypothesis 4: psychological collectivism negatively predicted group member withdrawal behaviour. This suggests that when an employee values a sense of collectivism (Love & Dustin, 2014), this decreases the likelihood that they will engage in group member withdrawal behaviours in their organisation. This finding confirms previous research by Jackson et al. (2006) who found that collectivistic employees are less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviours. This finding is important as withdrawal behaviours are harmful and costly to organisations (Berry et al., 2012; Elder & Eisenberger, 2008; Pelled & Xin, 1999; Rosse & Noel, 1996), and have negative effects on co-workers work motivation and morale (Jamal, 1984; Koslowsky et al., 1997).

Psychological Collectivism and Group Member Job Performance: Conclusion. In accordance with Jackson et al.'s findings, psychological collectivism scores were associated with rating on three distinct dimensions of group member job performance. Specifically, collectivistic employees were more likely to engage in discretionary citizenship behaviours, and were less likely to engage in counterproductive and withdrawal behaviours. Importantly, these findings identify a cohort of employees (i.e., those high on psychological collectivism) who are more likely to engage in positive, and less likely to engage in negative workplace behaviours. These findings add to a growing body of research, which highlights the various performance benefits of psychological collectivism with respect to individuals working in groups (Jackson et al., 2006).

Psychological Collectivism and Taking Charge.

Results of the regression analyses support hypothesis 5: psychological collectivism positively predicted taking charge behaviour. This suggests that when an employee values a sense of collectivism, this increases the likelihood that they will partake in taking charge behaviours in their organisation (Love & Dustin, 2014). This finding confirms previous research by Love and Dustin (2014) who found that collectivistic employees are more likely to take charge at work.

This finding is important as evidence from various sources highlights the value of taking charge for organisations. Moreover, in today's competitive work environment, organisations increasingly rely on their employees to be creative, innovative, and change orientated in how they perform their work (Crant, 2000; Dysvik et al., 2016; Madjar et al., 2011; Love & Dustin, 2014; Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Vadera et al., 2013), and taking charge behaviour is an essential way that employees accommodate this need (Dysvik et al., 2016). Moreover, according to

Love and Dustin (2014), by linking psychological collectivism with the performance of taking charge, this research adds to the research in several ways. Firstly, taking charge is included within a class of behaviours referred to as change-orientated organisational citizenship (Chiaburu, Lorinkova, & Van Dyne, 2013; Choi, 2007; Ghitulescu, 2013; Kim, Hornung, & Rousseau, 2011; Seppälä, Lipponen, Bardi, & Pirttilä-Backman, 2012; as cited in Love & Dustin, 2014). Change-orientated organisational citizenship includes behaviours such as expressing voice, creative and adaptive performance, positive proactive behaviour, solving problems via personal initiative, and taking charge (Chiaburu et al., 2013). Additionally, taking charge is also included within a class of behaviours referred to as constructive deviance (Love & Dustin, 2014). Constructive deviance shares commonalities with change-orientated organisational citizenship (Love & Dustin, 2014), and includes taking charge, voice, creative performance, and other behaviours (Vadera et al., 2013). Therefore, the findings that collectivistic employees are more likely to engage in the performance of taking charge can inform several streams of research (Love & Dustin, 2014), including change-orientated organisational citizenship (Chiaburu et al. 2013), constructive deviance (Vadera et al. 2013), proactivity (Parker and Collins 2010; Parker et al. 2006), and innovation (Kelley, 2001, 2005).

TMX as a Moderator

Dierdorff et al. (2011) examined the impact of psychological collectivism and TMX on group performance over time. The authors found that TMX moderated the relationship between several facets of psychological collectivism and group performance over time. Given that TMX has the potential to have a far-reaching influence on several individual and organisational outcomes (Love & Dustin, 2014),

and based on Dierdorff et al.'s aforementioned findings, it was assumed that TMX would also play a moderating role between the constructs under investigation in the present study. However, only one of the five moderation hypotheses were supported (hypothesis 4b).

Results of the moderation analysis support hypothesis 4b: the relationship between psychological collectivism and group member withdrawal behaviour was moderated by TMX. With higher TMX quality, the relationship was more strongly negative. This suggests that the perceived quality of interpersonal exchanges within a group can significantly shape the relationship between psychological collectivism and group member withdrawal behaviour. Put differently, this suggests that although psychological collectivism ultimately reduces group member withdrawal behaviour, high-quality TMX can enhance this relationship. In summary, this finding highlights the significance of TMX-quality as an important contextual factor which may enhance psychological collectivism's effects (Dierdorff et al., 2011).

Results of the moderation analyses did not support hypotheses 1b, 2b, 3b, and 5b: TMX-quality and psychological collectivism did not interact to predict group member task performance (hypothesis 1b), group member citizenship behaviour (hypothesis 2b), group member counterproductive behaviour (hypothesis 3b), and taking charge behaviour (hypothesis 5b). These findings were not in accordance with Dierdorff et al.'s (2011) study. There are several possible reasons why these hypotheses were unsupported, which relate to the different methodologies employed in this study (versus Dierdorff et al.'s study). These differences will now be outlined.

Firstly, the present study primarily examined psychological collectivism as a higher order construct, whereas Dierdorff et al. (2011) examined collectivism at the facet level of analysis. Moreover, similar to Jackson et al.'s study, the present study examined psychological collectivism's effects on individual level outcomes, whereas Dierdorff et al. (2011) examined psychological collectivism's linkage with performance at the group level (i.e., whether elevated levels of psychological collectivism within a group is predictive of group performance). Lastly and most importantly, similar to Jackson et al. (2006), the present study examined performance at a single time point, whereas Dierdorff et al. (2011) examined performance as it unfolds over time. This is important, as the moderating effects of TMX are most likely to be noticeable when examining performance changes over time (Dierdorff et al., 2011).

Supplementary Findings

Psychological Collectivism at the Facet level.

In addition to exploring psychological collectivism as a higher order factor, similar to Dierdorff et al. (2011) and Jackson et al. (2006), facet-level analyses were also performed. This was done to further understand the performance implications of collectivism in the workplace (Jackson et al., 2006). Specifically, Oyserman et al. (2002) posited that analysing collectivism at the facet level is important to bring further theoretical clarity to the literature, via isolating the "active ingredients" in given relationships (p. 41). Put differently, exploring collectivism at the facet level is advantageous as it can help to further explain how and why collectivism predicts specific outcomes (Jackson et al., 2006).

The findings from the facet-level analyses (performed via an examination of the standardised regression weights) revealed that two of the facets functioned as “active ingredients” for two of the performance outcomes, with the concern and preference facets explaining citizenship behaviours and concern also explaining taking charge. The finding that concern and preference explain citizenship effects, is partly in line with the findings from Jackson et al. (2006), as they too found that concern was important in explaining citizenship behaviours. These findings suggests that when an employee is high on both the concern and preference for in-groups facets, this increases the likelihood that that they will engage in prosocial citizenship behaviours in their organisation. Additionally, the finding that concern is important in explaining taking charge is in line with research conducted by Moon et al. (2008), who found that the facets of personality related to concern for others was positively related to taking charge behaviour. Therefore, similar to the findings from Moon et a. (2008), my findings suggest that the antecedents of taking charge behaviour are based less on self-interest, and more on concerns about others (Moon et al., 2008).

TMX as a Predictor Variable.

In addition to finding that psychological collectivism was related to taking charge, Love and Dustin (2014) also examined the linkage between TMX and taking charge behaviour. Results revealed that TMX significantly impacts an employee’s propensity to take charge at work. This suggests that engaging in high-quality social exchanges with one’s co-workers encourages taking charge behaviour (Love & Dustin, 2014). In light of these findings, and given that TMX has the potential to have a far-reaching influence on several individual and organisational outcomes (Love & Dustin, 2014), the present study also examined the linkages between TMX

and the performance of taking charge, and the four dimensions of group member job performance.

TMX and Taking Charge Behaviour.

In accordance with Love and Dustin's findings, results of the regression analyses revealed that TMX positively predicted taking charge behaviour. This finding suggests that having higher quality social exchanges with one's co-workers, encourages employees to work to bring about constructive changes in their workplace (Love & Dustin, 2014). Importantly, Bolino, Valcea, and Harvey (2010) proposed that proactive behaviours can contribute to stress and friction between employees, particularly between those employees who are more and less proactive. Therefore, perhaps when employees experience high-quality TMX with their co-workers, this acts as a buffer which supports the stress and strain associated with taking charge behaviours (Love & Dustin, 2014).

TMX and Group Member Job Performance.

Results of the regression analyses also revealed that TMX positively predicted all four dimensions of group member job performance (task performance, citizenship behaviour, counterproductive behaviour, and withdrawal behaviour). These findings suggest that employees who perceive high-quality TMX with the members of their work group, perform their group tasks better, are more likely to engage in prosocial citizenship behaviours, and are less likely to engage in counterproductive and withdrawal behaviours in their organisation. Therefore, it appears that when employees have higher quality social exchanges with the members of their work group, they are better performing group members. In summary, these findings

highlight the far-reaching performance benefits of TMX-quality, with respect to individuals working in groups.

Practical Implications

The findings from this study offer several important practical implications. Given that psychological collectivism was positively related to three dimensions of group member job performance, and the performance of taking charge, organisations should aim to maximise psychological collectivism when necessary, via selection and placement systems or employee training and development programs (Dierdorff et al., 2011; Jackson et al., 2006). For example, for work roles embedded in group contexts, or where cooperation is required for successful performance, psychological collectivism could be measured via personality tests or employment interviews (i.e., to select persons with a collectivistic orientation) (Dierdorff et al., 2011; Jackson et al., 2006; Love & Dustin, 2014). Moreover, given that many HR software systems routinely store personality scores in their employee profiles, when staffing work groups, these scores could be utilised to inform placement decisions (Jackson et al., 2006) (particularly for larger organisations).

Additionally, employee training and development efforts could target psychological collectivism when required (Dierdorff et al., 2011; Jackson et al., 2006). For example, in team building exercises, a common practice is to include assessments of personality or work styles, as this can increase both self-awareness and the ability to understand individual differences (Dierdorff et al., 2011). Such developmental assessments could also incorporate assessments of psychological collectivism (Dierdorff et al., 2011). Moreover, team training and development programs could focus on teaching collectivistic task strategies (Dierdorff et al., 2011; Jackson et al., 2006), via using instructions that focus on behaviours

congruent to collectivistic task strategies (Dierdorff et al., 2011). These programs could also be included in team-building or induction programs which are used routinely for socialisation of new group members (Jackson et al., 2006). However, one caveat should be acknowledged: it might be easier to train behaviours characteristic of specific facets of psychological collectivism (Dierdorff et al., 2011). For example, rather than influencing Preferences for group work or Concern for others, it may be easier to teach individuals the value of prioritising the goals of the group over one's individual goals (i.e., Goal Priority), and the importance of Norm Acceptance (i.e., defining the groups norms and gaining buy-in to them) (Dierdorff et al., 2011).

The findings of TMX's moderating effects (hypothesis 4b), as well as the supplementary findings of the effects of TMX on the four dimensions of group member job performance and the performance of taking charge, hold implications for practitioners as well. Specifically, for practitioners, these findings show that for organisations who want to bring about positive constructive change in their organisation, improve group member task performance, increase prosocial citizenship behaviours, and reduce counterproductive and withdrawal behaviours, should do things which promote positive and supportive co-worker interactions (i.e., which enhance the quality of interpersonal exchanges) (Dierdorff et al., 2011; Love & Dustin, 2014). To achieve this, organisations should reward affiliative behaviours, and behaviours which are focused positively towards the organisation and its members (Love & Dustin, 2014). More specifically, within team building activities, managers can focus on activities that promote improved interpersonal interactions within the work group (Love & Dustin, 2014), and within team training efforts,

managers can focus on improving the quality of co-worker interactions (Dierdorff et al., 2011).

Contributions

The results from this study add to a body of research that supports the performance benefits of collectivism with respect to individuals working in groups (e.g. Bao et al., 2015; Chatman & Barsade, 1995; Dierdorff et al., 2011; Drach-Zahavy, 2004; Eby & Dobbins, 1997; Hwang & Kim, 2007; Jackson et al., 2006; Love & Dustin, 2014; Wagner, 1995). Moreover, these results add value to the literature on collectivism, as it was the first study within New Zealand to examine collectivism's linkage with the variables examined in the present study. A further strength of this research was that it surveyed employees from multiple organisations throughout New Zealand, representing a wide range of industries. This is advantageous as it allowed the hypotheses to be tested across multiple settings, enabling the findings to have greater generalizability to a wide range of organisations throughout New Zealand.

Limitations and Future Research

Despite this study's strengths, it was not devoid of potential limitations. Firstly, all of the data in this study was obtained via the use of self-report scales. This is problematic, as relying solely on self-report measures can lead to common method bias (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002). However, due to the nature of this study, it required the use of self-report measures. A further limitation of this study was that it utilised a cross-sectional design, whereby all data was collected at a single time point. This is problematic as it makes causality uncertain.

The findings also suggest several avenues for future research. Firstly, given that all of the data were obtained via self-report scales, future research could have participants' supervisors and/or co-workers complete a measure assessing the outcome variables examined in this study (e.g. group member job performance and taking charge behaviour). Additionally, given that this study utilised a cross-sectional design, whereby all data was collected at a single time point, future longitudinal research may be required. For example, similar to Dierdorff et al. (2011), future research could examine how psychological collectivism affects performance as it develops over time. Importantly, the moderating effects of TMX are most likely to be observed when examining performance changes over time. (Dierdorff et al., 2011). Therefore, such research may shed light on why this study failed to find support for four of the five moderation hypotheses (e.g. hypotheses 1b, 2b, 3b, and 5b). Additionally, the present study examined individual-level outcomes, which *"are important in exploring the possible etiology of one's collectivistic orientation"* (Eby & Dobbins, 1997, p.280). However, a group-level analysis is required to further understand collectivism's impact on group interaction (e.g. cooperation) and performance (Dierdorff et al., 2011; Eby & Dobbins, 1997). Therefore, similar to Dierdorff et al. (2011) and Eby and Dobbins (1997), future research could examine psychological collectivism as a group compositional variable, using a sample of New Zealand employees. Additionally, the findings from the facet-level analyses revealed that two of the facets of psychological collectivism functioned as "active ingredients" for two of the performance outcomes, with the concern and preference facets explaining citizenship behaviours and concern also explaining taking charge. Therefore, similar to Dierdorff et al.

(2011), future research examining collectivism's effects, could do so with more specific consideration to the individual facets of psychological collectivism.

As previously stated, only one of the five moderation hypotheses was supported (hypothesis 4b). In accordance with Jackson et al.'s call for future research to "*continue to test the boundary conditions for collectivism[s] effects*" (p. 895), future research could examine the possible moderating role of LMX, or the quality of the exchange relationship between an employee and their supervisor. The psychological collectivism measure employed in this study asked employees to: "*Think about the work groups to which you currently belong, and have belonged to in the past. The items below ask about your relationship with, and thoughts about, those particular groups*". Given that this measure asks employees to think about the work groups to which they currently belong, if employees perceived low-quality LMX with the members of their work group, this may have led some respondents to report lower levels of psychological collectivism. Importantly, examining LMX as a moderator may be impervious to such influence, as having low-quality LMX should not in theory lead employees to be less collectivistic. Moreover, it is theoretically possible that LMX could have a moderating influence on the employee behaviours examined in this study. For example, Van dyne, Kamdar and Joireman (2008) found that employees are more likely to take charge when they report having a high-quality LMX relationship with their supervisor. Therefore, in line with this reasoning, if collectivistic employees perceive low-quality LMX, this may reduce taking charge behaviours, or other behaviours aimed at bolstering the organisation. However, other forms of group member job performance, such as citizenship and counterproductive behaviours may be less influenced by LMX-quality (as these behaviours are directed at co-workers rather than supervisors or the organisation).

Moreover, similar to high-quality TMX, if employees perceive high-quality LMX relations, this may serve to amplify psychological collectivism's effects.

Similar to psychological collectivism, PsyCap as a higher-order factor, is predictive of job performance (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). Luthans, Youssef, and Avolio (2007) defined 'Psychological Capital' ('PsyCap' when shortened) as: "*an individual's positive psychological state of development*" characterized by having high-levels of self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resiliency (p. 3). Importantly, PsyCap can be developed in individuals, as Luthans et al. (2006) showed that a short 2-hour micro intervention can lead to increases in participants' self-reported PsyCap. By this same reasoning, and given the numerous performance benefits associated with psychological collectivism, future research could examine whether psychological collectivism can also be developed in individuals (e.g. whether individuals can become more collectivistic over time). Importantly, such research will help to inform training and development efforts targeting collectivism. Eby and Dobbins (1997) examined the individual difference variables that are proximal antecedents of psychological collectivism. Three factors were related to self-reported collectivism, these were self-efficacy for teamwork (similar to PsyCap), a positive past experience working in teams, and need for social approval. It may be difficult to influence one's need for social approval. However, future longitudinal research could examine whether increasing self-efficacy for teamwork, and having a positive experience working in groups can increase participants' psychological collectivism.

Conclusion

To conclude, this research aimed to examine whether employees within New Zealand who are more collectivistic are better performing group members, and

engage in increased taking charge behaviours. The secondary aim was to investigate the possible moderating role of TMX in these relationships. The results of this research revealed that psychological collectivism significantly predicted three dimensions of group member job performance and the performance of taking charge. Additionally, TMX significantly moderated the relationship between psychological collectivism and group member withdrawal behaviour. Additional supplementary findings were obtained, which revealed that TMX significantly predicted all four dimensions of group member job performance and the performance of taking charge. Overall, the findings from this study add to a body of research which highlights the far-reaching performance benefits of psychological collectivism and high-quality TMX in the workplace.

The findings from this study offer several important practical implications. For example, organisations should aim to maximise psychological collectivism when necessary (e.g. for work roles embedded in group contexts, or where cooperation is required for successful performance), via selection and placement or employee training and development programs. Additionally, organisations should do things which promote positive and supportive co-worker interactions, with the aim of enhancing the quality of interpersonal exchanges (i.e., TMX-quality). With respect to future research, research is needed which explicitly examines whether psychological collectivism can be developed in individuals. Importantly, such research will help to inform training and development efforts targeting collectivism.

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Appendix A

Email to Organisations (When Sent to a Direct Email Address)

Kia ora [name of person],

My name is William Belfield, I am a psychology student from the University of Waikato. I am emailing to enquire about the possibility of conducting survey research with a group of employees at your company. This survey will assist in collecting data for my master's thesis, which aims to assess attitudes about working in groups.

The online survey will be short, taking approx. 7 minutes to complete, using simple checkbox type answers, and will be completely anonymous and confidential (neither your company, nor its employees, will be identifiable in any way).

What I'm asking from you is to simply forward the link of the survey to your company's employees. At the end of the study, if you wish, I will send you a summary of the findings, as well as a suggestion for how you can use them at your company. I would be sincerely grateful to work with your company on this project, however I understand if this is not currently feasible, and appreciate you taking the time to consider this request.

Look forward to hearing from you,

William Belfield

E: Will.belfield@gmail.com

M: 02040904157

Appendix B

Email to Organisations (When Sent to a Generic Email Address)

Kia ora,

My name is William Belfield, I am a student from the University of Waikato, currently working on my master's thesis in workplace psychology.

I am reaching out as I am currently conducting a short online anonymous survey which aims to assess attitudes about working in groups.

I was wondering if I could please be put in touch with a person from the HR department, or an appropriate person to discuss the possibility of distributing this survey to a group of employees from [name of company], and to highlight the potential benefits of this research for [name of company].

Thank you,

William Belfield

E: Will.belfield@gmail.com

M: 02040904157

Appendix C

Participant Information Sheet

Research Project: Psychological Collectivism and Its Effects on Group Member Job Performance and Taking Charge Behaviour

Information sheet

The purpose of this research is to assess attitudes about working in groups. For this research, participants are asked complete an online anonymous survey, taking approximately 7 minutes to complete.

This survey includes:

- a measure of collectivism, which assesses preferences for group work,
- a measure of team-member exchange, which assesses the quality of relationships within a work group,
- a measure of taking charge behaviours, which are behaviours that employees engage in to benefit their organisation,
- various aspects of group member job performance, and
- demographic information on gender, ethnicity and age.

To be eligible for this study, your job must contain a significant group component, meaning you need to collaborate with others to perform day-to-day tasks and achieve collective work goals.

If you wish to receive a summary of the research results, please email William at will.belfield@gmail.com

This research project has been approved by the School of Psychology Research and Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, University of Waikato.

Any questions about the ethical conduct of this research may be sent to the convenor of Research and Ethics Committee (Dr Colin McLeay, phone: 07 837 9174, e-mail c.mcleay@waikato.ac.nz).

- I have read the Participant information (above) and I understand it
- I have been given sufficient time to consider whether or not to participate this survey
- I am satisfied with the answers given regarding the purpose of this survey
- I understand that taking part in this survey is voluntary (my choice) and that I may withdraw from the survey at any time without penalty
- I have the right to decline to participate in any part of this survey
- I know who to contact if I have any questions or concerns about this survey
- I understand that my participation in this survey is confidential and that there is no material in this survey that could identify me personally, or the company which I work at
- I understand that the information provided by me could be used in future academic publications

Having read the information above, do you agree to participate in this survey?

Yes (and continue with survey)

No (and leave survey)

Appendix D

Online Questionnaire

Psychological Collectivism Scale (Jackson et al., 2006)

1. I preferred to work in those groups rather than working alone (Preference facet)
2. Working in those groups was better than working alone (Preference facet)
3. I wanted to work with those groups as opposed to working alone (Preference facet)
4. I felt comfortable counting on group members to do their part (Reliance facet)
5. I was not bothered by the need to rely on group members (Reliance facet)
6. I felt comfortable trusting group members to handle their tasks (Reliance facet)
7. The health of those groups was important to me (Concern facet)
8. I cared about the well-being of those groups (Concern facet)
9. I was concerned about the needs of those groups (Concern facet)
10. I followed the norms of those groups (Norm acceptance facet)
11. I followed the procedures used by those groups (Norm acceptance facet)
12. I accepted the rules of those groups (Norm acceptance facet)
13. I cared more about the goals of those groups than my own goals (Goal priority facet)
14. I emphasized the goals of those groups more than my individual goals (Goal priority facet)

15. Group goals were more important to me than my personal goals. Goal priority

Team-Member Exchange (TMX) Scale (Seers; 1989; Seers et al., 1995)

1. How often do you make suggestions about better work methods to other group members?
2. Do other members of your work group usually let you know when you do something that makes their jobs easier (or harder)?
3. How often do you let other work group members know when they have done something that makes your job easier (or harder)?
4. How well do other members of your work group recognize your potential?
5. How well do other members of your work group understand your problems and needs?
6. How flexible are you about switching job responsibilities to make things easier for other members of your work group?
7. In busy situations, how often do other members of your work group help you out?
8. In busy situations, how often do you volunteer your efforts to help others in your work group?
9. How willing are you to help finish work that had been assigned to others?
10. How willing are other members of your work group to help finish work that was assigned to you?

Task Performance Scale (Williams & Anderson, 1991)

1. I adequately complete assigned work group duties
2. I fulfil responsibilities specified by my work group

3. I perform tasks that are expected of me by my work group
4. I meet formal requirements of the work group
5. I engage in activities that will directly affect the work groups performance evaluation
6. I neglect some aspects of the work group's job*
7. I fail to perform essential work group duties*

Note. Items indicated by (*) are reverse scored.

Citizenship Behaviour Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002)

1. I help other group members who have been absent
2. I willingly give my time to help other group members who have work-related problems
3. I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other group members requests for time off
4. I go out of the way to make newer group members feel welcome in the work group
5. I show genuine concern and courtesy toward other group members, even under the most trying business or personal situations
6. I give up time to help other group members who have work or nonwork problem
7. I assist others group members with their duties
8. I share personal property with group members to help their work
9. I attend functions that are not required but that help the work group's image
10. I keep up with developments in the work group
11. I defend the work group when other employees criticize it
12. I show pride when representing the work group in public

13. I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the work group
14. I express loyalty toward the work group
15. I take action to protect the work group from potential problems
16. I demonstrate concern about the image of the work group

Counterproductive Behaviour Scale (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998)

1. Damaged property being used by the work group
2. Said or did something to purposely hurt a work group member
3. Did group work badly, incorrectly or slowly on purpose
4. Grumbled with group members
5. Deliberately bent or broke a group rule(s)
6. Criticized work group members
7. Did something that harmed my work group
8. Started an argument with someone in my work group
9. Said rude things about my work group

Withdrawal Behaviour Scale (Lehman & Simpson, 1992)

1. Been absent from work group activities
2. Chatted with group members about non-work topics
3. Left group work for unnecessary reasons
4. Seemed to be daydreaming rather than working
5. Spent time on personal matters rather than group duties
6. Put less effort into group work activities than should have
7. Talked about leaving current work group
8. Let others do my group work activities

9. Left work early without permission
10. Taken longer lunch or rest breaks than allowed
11. Taken work group supplies or equipment without permission

Taking Charge Scale (Morrison & Phelps, 1999)

1. I often try to adopt improved procedures for doing my job
2. I often try to change how my job is executed in order to be more effective
3. I often try to bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department
4. I often try to institute new work methods that are more effective for the company
5. I often try to change organisational rules or policies that are non-productive or counterproductive
6. I often make constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organisation
7. I often try to correct a faulty procedure or practice
8. I often try to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures
9. I often try to implement solutions to pressing organisational problems
10. I often try introduce new structures, technologies, or approaches to improve efficiency

Demographics

'What is your ethnicity?'

1. New Zealand European
2. Other European
3. Māori

4. Pacific Peoples
5. Asian
6. Middle Eastern
7. Latin American
8. African
9. Indian
10. Other Ethnicity

'To which gender identity do you most identify?' (Internet Governance Forum, n.d.).

1. Female
2. Male
3. Transgender Female
4. Transgender Male
5. Gender Variant/Non-Conforming
6. Not Listed
7. Prefer not to answer

Note. Under 'Not Listed', there was box included for respondents to state their gender

'What is your current age in years? Leave this empty if you don't want to respond.'

Note. Respondents were presented with a box to include their age if they wished.